Career self-management in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures: towards the development of a competing values career self-management framework

Elizabeth Anne Shoesmith
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Career self-management in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures: Towards the development of a Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework

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This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

December, 2018

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Associate Supervisor: Dr Silvia Nelson
STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

I certify that the work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original, except as acknowledged in the text, and that the material has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other University.

I acknowledge that I have read and understood the University’s rules, requirements, procedures and policy relating to my higher degree research award and to my thesis. I certify that I have complied with the rules, requirements, procedures and policy of the University (as they may be from time to time).

Signed:   Date: December, 2018

Elizabeth Anne Shoesmith
ABSTRACT

Career is considered an important element in an individual’s life and identity, and equally important to an organisation’s performance. Career development and management are essential in contributing to the achievement of career success outcomes and involve a range of strategies that are initiated by both the individual and the organisation. The more suitable the career management strategies, the more effective those strategies will be in contributing to positive outcomes. Demonstrating career self-management has been widely recognised as one of the main mechanisms that can be used to contribute to subjective and objective career success. The aim of this thesis is to explore the impact of organisational culture on the effectiveness of career self-management in achieving career success outcomes. Social cognitive theory, the competing values framework, Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), and the career self-management (CSM) model have been applied to investigate the potential significant influence that organisational culture has on the relationship between career self-management and subjective and objective career success, and to develop a new competing values career self-management framework. The main theoretical contribution of the research project is that it uses for the first time OCAI and CSM to evaluate the impact of organisational culture on career self-management behaviours and career success outcomes in a family owned and a government owned organisation in Australia. Moreover, it develops new knowledge about the difference in effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in different organisational cultures. The findings also provide individuals and organisations with an empirically developed model for determining the most effective approach to career self-management in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. The research results emphasise the importance of evaluating the organisational culture and tailoring career management strategies accordingly to positively contribute to subjective and objective career success outcomes.

Keywords: career, career self-management (CSM), career success, subjective success, objective success, organisational culture, clan, hierarchical, competing values framework (CVF), Organisational culture assessment instrument (OCAI).
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

For those that said I could and should, and for those that said I couldn’t and shouldn’t.

I could leave it at that because quite honestly it summarises my experiences with people on this journey rather well, but then that would not be fair to a few people that are really worthy of mention and thanks. Let me start with Professor Yvonne Brunetto, my primary supervisor and my saviour. Yvonne, you gave me my PhD mojo back when it was needed most and your guidance has undoubtedly made me a better researcher and academic writer. Quite simply I could not have done this without you. Dr Silvia Nelson, my secondary supervisor, who could find a needle in a haystack. Your ability to comb through my drafts and revisions to find even the smallest of errors was exemplary. You let me get away with nothing. To my lifelong best friend, Dr Belinda Russon, who has been on this journey with me for the whole very long eight years. You would check in with me and kick me back into gear when I was losing motivation. You even started your PhD after me and finished before me, which was a rather over-the-top and committed way to ensure I finished my own. There is no one else like you on this planet and I’m thrilled I have you in my corner. Next of course there is my family with their unconditional love and support. Mum and Jeff, I love you. Thank you to my children, Naomi and Dominic Green, for accepting that mum is always ‘studying’ and has done so for as long as you can remember. I hope I make you proud and set an example for you that learning is lifelong. Finally, I want to thank my husband, Scott Shoesmith. While you only came into my life recently, and consequently only in the final few years of my PhD journey, you make me a better person everyday – PhD or no PhD. There is no one else I would rather do life with.

So, thank you to all the people that got me to the finish line. I am forever indebted to you.
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GLOSSARY OF TERMS

The following concepts have been generally defined for the purpose of this study.

Career

Career is defined in this study as the combination of work experiences “with a sequence of connections and networks over time, which may include lateral or downward moves, temporary withdrawals, and even functional transitions” (Smith, C., 1997, p.229).

Career Self-Management

Career self-management is a contemporary hybrid term that reflects the increasing transference of career management responsibilities from the organisation to the individual. Active career self-managers are engaged in the ongoing development of their careers over their lifetime with the goal of achieving his or her version of success. Such engagement requires behaviours that include extended work involvement, creating opportunities, networking, self-promotion, and seeking career guidance (Gould and Penley, 1984).

Clan Culture

According to the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) by Cameron and Quinn (1999), a clan culture focuses on human development, communication and employee commitment, with sensitivity to customers and concern for people being viewed as keys to success. Value drivers are cohesion, employee morale and human resources.

Competing Values Framework

The Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) is a matrix representing two dimensions of effectiveness. One dimension represents the focus of the organisation, “at one end is an internal emphasis on the people in the organisation and at the other end is an external focus on the organisation itself. The other dimension represents the contrast between stability and control versus flexibility and change” (Sanderson, D., 2006, p.37).

Creating Opportunities

“Keeping your career options open, developing skills which may be needed in future career positions, preparing yourself for career opportunities which may materialise, obtaining broadly based work experiences in this organisation of your own accord, assuming leadership in work areas where there appears to be no leadership, or developing
expertise in areas that are critical to your department’s operations” (Gould and Penley, 1984, p.263).

Extended Work Involvement

“Working at your job outside of normal work hours, taking your work home with you, and spending considerable time thinking about your job outside of normal work hours” (Gould and Penley, 1984, p.263).

Extrinsic Career Success

See definition for ‘Objective Career Success’.

Hierarchical Culture

According to the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) by Cameron and Quinn (1999), “a hierarchical culture has clear lines of decision-making authority, standardised rules and procedures, and control and accountability mechanisms are viewed as keys to success” (Al-Jalahma, R., 2012, p.122). Value drivers are timeliness, efficiency, uniformity, and consistency.

Intrinsic Career Success

See definition for ‘Subjective Career Success’.

Networking

“Building a network of ‘contacts’ in the organisation for obtaining information about what’s happening within the organisation, and building a network of friendships in the organisation which can help to further your career progression” (Gould and Penley, 1984, p.264).

Objective Career Success

Objective career success in this study is concerned with measurable, verifiable, and observable extrinsic achievements such as salary, career progression, or level on a hierarchy.

Organisational Career Management

Organisational career management is the provision of an array of training and development activities and support services led and managed by the organisation designed to help direct and nurture employee careers (Bateman, 2006).

Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is defined in this study as “a set of shared values, beliefs and principles that help organisational members understand organisational functioning and consequently guides their thinking and behaviour” (Desphande and Webster, 1989, p.159).
Seeking Career Guidance  “Obtaining career guidance from supervisors, getting career guidance from other experienced person(s) in the organisation, and getting career guidance from a more experienced person outside the organisation (Gould and Penley, 1984, p.263).

Self-Promotion  “Making your boss aware of the assignments you want, working hard when you know the results will be seen by your supervisors, making your supervisors aware of your accomplishments, making your superiors aware of your aspirations and career objectives, and presenting yourself as being a person who ‘gets things done’” (Gould and Penley, 1984, p.263).

Subjective Career Success  Referring to career satisfaction, subjective career success is “about all aspects of career relevant to a specific individual” (Greenhaus, Callanan & Kaplan, 1997, p.3). It is “measured in terms of an individual’s perceptions of their own success, based on intrinsic perceptions of personal career accomplishments and future prospects” (Judge et al., 1995, p.487). The measure combines the “internalised career success evaluations made by others perceived significant, and the individual’s evaluation of their own success and their sense of progress toward their own personally defined career goals” (Dries et al., 2008, p.255).
# ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
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<tr>
<td>CSM</td>
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<td>Competing values framework</td>
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<td>OCAI</td>
<td>Organisational culture assessment instrument</td>
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<td>OCM</td>
<td>Organisational career management</td>
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<td>SCCT</td>
<td>Social cognitive career theory</td>
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<td>Social cognitive theory</td>
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Figure 1. ‘The Road to Promotion If Everyone Likes You’, (Randy Glasbergen, 2006).

“I just got promoted again. It's easy to succeed if everyone likes you!”

Figure 2. ‘The Road to Promotion with Performance Reviews’, (Randy Glasbergen, 2006).

“I have a great idea that will revitalize the company, prevent bankruptcy and save hundreds of jobs. But I’m saving it for the day before my performance review.”
1.1 Introduction

Google ‘career’ and you get 1,910,000,000 hits, google ‘career management’ and you get 1,120,000,000 hits. The average person spends more than 90,000 hours in their lifetime at work (a third of their adult life), but research has found 87% of Americans have no passion for their jobs and 80% are outright dissatisfied with their jobs (Hagel et al., 2017). It is a popular belief that individuals want to know how best to manage their careers to achieve their goals, as well as how best to get that promotion or pay rise in the organisation they work in (refer to Figure 1, p.16). They do this with the expectation that the achievement of their career goals will improve their positive experience of and satisfaction with their work life. It is also believed that, in general, organisations want to know how best to provide career management support that encourages positive outcomes for both the individual and the organisation. Organisations do this with the expectation that the more successful and satisfied employees are, the more productive and effective they are in contributing to increased organisational performance (refer to Figure 2, p.16).

Numerous studies have investigated the meaning of career (Arthur et al., 2005; Dries, Pepermans & De Kerpel, 2008; Greenhaus et al., 2018), the management of career (Bateman, 2006; Heslin & Turban, 2016), career outcomes for individuals (Greenhaus et al., 1997; Heslin et al., 2018; Volmer et al., 2017), and even the relationship between career and the organisation (Yu, 2009; Hall and Yip, 2016). While the relevance of the organisational environment in the context of career and career management is increasingly being researched (Nikandrou & Panayotopoulo, 2008; Barnett & Bradley, 2007), there is still a call for further investigation and greater understanding. Tams and Arthur (2010) and Inkson et al. (2012) indicate there is a need to bring context back into research on careers, which has begun to be overlooked since the focus of research on the boundaryless career. More specifically, Callanan (2003), De Vos et al. (2009), and Hall and Yip (2016) all propose that future research should seek to identify the influence of different types of organisational cultures on individual career strategies and career outcomes.

It has been determined by the researcher that there is a gap in the literature about the relationship between career self-management and career success in different organisational environments, and this is
particularly true in the Australian context, with no known directly related research identified. While researchers agree about the existence of organisational culture (Schein, 1994; Jung et al., 2009) and its impact on performance and outcomes for both the individual (Poppens, 2000) and the organisation (Shortell et al., 1998), there is, however, a gap in the understanding about impact of organisational culture on the effectiveness of career management, and more specifically self-management, in achieving career success outcomes. An evidence-based model embedded in the literature is needed to guide career management efforts of individuals and the career management support provided by organisations that is conducive to the organisation’s culture. Consequently, this research project addresses the potentially significant influence of organisational culture on the relationship between career self-management and subjective and objective career success. This introductory chapter provides an overview of existing career and organisational culture theories, proposes the study’s potential contribution to the literature and implications for practice, then outlines the objectives of the research and poses the primary research questions, concluding with an overview of the thesis structure.

1.2 Career management defined

Career management is typically considered to be an organisational process ultimately intended to meet the organisation’s human resource needs. Traditionally, career management has encompassed the provision of an array of training and development activities and support services managed by the organisation, designed to help direct and nurture employee careers (Bateman, 2006; Greenhaus et al., 2018). It has also been formally defined in the literature as ‘attempts made to influence the career development of one or more people’ (Arnold, 1997, p. 19), including a range of formal and informal activities including but not limited to; assessment centres, training and professional development courses, mentoring and career guidance and coaching. The key characteristic of ‘organisational career management’ is that it is mostly instigated and managed by the organisation (Sturges et al., 2002). Yet with regard to the focus of career research in the twenty-first century, Hall (2002) argues that the central focus should be the self, rather than the organisation. In the context of today’s highly competitive global market where technology
rapidly and constantly changes the way organisations do business, individuals are becoming acutely aware of the limited stability and security that organisations can offer their employees. In response to this reality, the individual has to have the responsibility for his/her own career development (Nota & Rossier, 2015; Savickas, 2012; Hall and Yip, 2016).

In looking to the self, self-management is a self-driven practise that enhances self-regulation by intentionally setting goals, monitoring their behaviour against the goals, and directing oneself and navigating the environment to achieve those goals (Renn et al., 2009). The study of self-management of employees is of great interest to organisational scholars and managers as organisations continue to adopt new organisational designs that require self-directed work behaviour (Diefendorff et al., 2006; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006; Schreuder et al., 2017). Achieving career objectives requires the individual to leverage self-regulatory methods in order to employ specific, useful career-enhancing behaviours. Manz and Sims (1989) emphasise the importance of both the monitoring and management of an individual’s own behaviours for effective workplace behaviour. Career self-management, therefore, is the contemporary hybrid term of self-management and self-regulatory processes with that of career management. It reflects the increasing transferral of career management responsibilities from the organisation to the individual, with the concept of career self-management grounded in previous work on career exploration, management, and socialisation (Greenhaus, 1987; Hall, 1986; Stumpf et al., 1983).

Based on a synthesis of existing literature, King (2000) formally defines career self-management in her research as the application of behavioural strategies by an individual with the intention of exerting a controlling influence over their career outcomes. According to this definition, career self-management consists of a set of co-occurring behaviours, which are deployed with specific intent on the part of the individual. This implies that the individual consciously initiates the behaviour and deploys it strategically, rather than passively responding to situational demands (Kossek et al., 1998). However it is important to note that organisational career management and career self-management are not mutually exclusive; in fact it is suggested that organisational career management may help to promote career self-management
(Sturges et al., 2002). It is believed that employee career effectiveness will be greater when both the individual and organisation fulfil their respective career management roles.

According to Yu (2009), most employees need career guidance and support from their employers, but also will likely require career self-management. In fact, researchers claim that those with greater career self-management capability tend to get greater access to organisational career support (Sturges et al., 2002; De Vos & Buyens, 2005; Forrier et al., 2005). Yet for individuals to consciously initiate strategies, tactics and behaviours to manage their career it would be expected they may possess a range of competencies that support and enhance their careers. According to Bateman (2006), career self-management requires competencies that include responsiveness and adaptability to the changing nature of employment, proactiveness with respect to the identification and pursuit of employment opportunities, and sustained attentiveness to the maintenance of employability through continuous, purposeful learning. Many career scholars (e.g., Judge et al., 1995; Dougherty et al., 1993; Ge et al., 2018; Seo et al., 2017) have been concerned with identifying and defining these within their work; however, there is not one agreed set of career self-management behaviours, strategies or tactics. In order to fully illustrate the point that career self-management is not a new phenomenon, but a familiar feature of organisational life, the different types of career strategies identified in the empirical literature by King (2000) are represented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career self-management behaviour</th>
<th>Evidence from empirical research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extended work involvement</td>
<td>Coffey, 1994; Gould &amp; Penley, 1984; Judge et al., 1995.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving skills and qualifications</td>
<td>Claes &amp; Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998; McEnrue, 1989; Noe, 1996.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building reputation</td>
<td>Kilduff &amp; Krackhardt, 1994; Rosenbaum, 1984; Tsui, 1984.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relations</td>
<td>Wayne et al., 1997; Wayne &amp; Ferris, 1990.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Impression Management


## Strategic Choice of Job Moves

Campion et al., 1994; Noe et al., 1988.

## Building Informal Relationships

Cannings, 1988; Caroll & Teo, 1996; Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998; Feij et al., 1995; Gould & Penley, 1984; Noe, 1996.

## Political Manoeuvring


## Moving Between Organisations

Brett & Stroh, 1997; Dougherty et al., 1993; Murrell et al., 1996; Nicholson & West, 1988.

Adapted from King (2000, p. 50).

It is likely that when career self-management behaviours are enacted, an individual is more likely to achieve their goals and be rewarded by their organisation in the workplace. The rewarding experience in the individual’s environment will then likely encourage continued or increased demonstration of the behaviour and consequently lead to an increase in their career success and/or satisfaction. King (2004) supports this proposition by proposing that an individual’s self-efficacy and their intention to exercise control over their career success outcomes should enable them to exhibit career self-management behaviours. Subsequently those career self-management behaviours will lead to the achievement of their career aspirations and ultimately career success. It is the relationship between career self-management and achieving career success outcomes that is the focus of interest in this research study, therefore to further establish the background to this research, a review of the meaning of career including career success measures and career theories follows.
1.3  The definition of career

When considering changes in career definitions over the decades, it is evident that in parallel with the changes occurring in society, there has been a shift in the terminology and an evolution in the way a career is defined (Arthur et al., 2005; Dries, Pepermans & De Kerpel, 2008). In seminal research, Hughes (1937) observed that a career consists of a series of objective status and subjective interpretation of attributes, actions and experiences. Later, Wilensky (1961) referred to career as “a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered (more-or-less predictable) sequence” (Wilensky, 1961, p. 523). Still twenty years later, Super (1980, p. 286) defined a career as ‘a sequence of positions held during the course of a lifetime’. Yet in the face of globalisation, and other competitive pressures, trends such as organisational downsizing, de-layering and outsourcing have removed the structures which supported the traditional linear career and ‘sequencing of positions’ diminishing an individual’s opportunity as well as the desire to have traditionally upward moving careers (Hall, 2002; Heslin, 2005; Reitman & Schneer, 2003).

In response to these changes, Smith (1997) defined career as a longer-term developmental occupation or profession, with a succession of associations and networks over time, which may or may not include adjacent or downward moves or temporary withdrawal from the workforce. Although rather complicated, he endeavoured to cover all aspects of meaning of the contemporary career. The definition implies that the passage of time be taken into account, and also insists that experiences in apparently disconnected fields of employment are regarded as part of the same overall career. To suggest that parallel or successive jobs are unconnected would misinterpret the holistic view of the career that the definition otherwise allows. The broadest meaning of career, encompassing any series of work experiences over the individual’s life course, is the definition applied in this thesis.

1.3.1  Indicators of career success

In understanding career, it is necessary to also understand measures of career success. Careers
have traditionally provided organising principles for constructing both private and professional lives, and perceptions of personal success or failure have for the most part been derived from work (Nicholson & West, 1989). The notions of subjective and objective career success emerged in Everett Hughes (1937, 1958) and the Chicago School’s early research on the nature of work roles, identity, and work environment as critical elements from a sociological context of career. According to Hughes (1958) the objective nature of career success considers the more observable elements, such as the job role, status level and salary. Conversely the subjective nature of a career was defined as taking into account the individual’s own sensemaking of career experiences, which includes the objective factors, but within a given context (Hughes, 1958). The original goal of distinguishing between objective and subjective career success was to acknowledge the two different but equally important perspectives of career success, from an external or social perspective and an internal or individual perspective (Hall & Chandler, 2005). In response to this consideration, and logically an extension of the Chicago School’s study of objective and subjective careers (Hughes 1937, 1958), the notions and contemporary definitions of objective and subjective career success have developed over time.

Objective career success is concerned mostly with observable, measurable and verifiable extrinsic career achievements such as profession, salary, type of work and role, career progression rate, and significance accompanying a certain senior position or level on a hierarchy (Nicholson & Waal-Andrews, 2005; Dries, Pepermans, Hofmans, & Rypens, 2009). Subjective career success, in contrast, refers to the individual’s perception of their satisfaction about all aspects of their career relevant specifically to them (Greenhaus et al., 1997). It is measured based on the individual’s intrinsic perception of their own success, based on their opinions of their personal career achievements and future prospects (Judge et al., 1995). Hall (2002) explains subjective career success to be a combination of the internalised career success evaluations made by significant others and the individual’s own evaluation of their own success and a sense of progress towards career goals that are personally defined.
In a review of 266 empirical studies on career success carried out between 1900 and 2016, it was found by Spurk et al. (2019) that 26.7% of those studies concentrated largely on objective career success, and 28.2% focused on subjective career success. The remaining research, however, acknowledged the duality of objective and subjective career success (45.1%). Hall and Chandler (2005) stress that careers are two-sided and researchers that should steer clear of the ‘either-or’ discourse. In this research, the focus is on both objective and subjective career success. Although it is acknowledged that these represent different outcomes of one’s career experience, the phrase ‘career success’ is used in this study to include both indicators of the construct.

1.4 Career theories

To gain further insight into the meaning of career and career success it is important to consider the main career theories. The development of career management into a global discipline requires a set of theoretical frameworks with universal validity and application, as well as culture-specific models that could be used to explain career development issues together with phenomena at a local level. It is popularly considered that there are five notable theories of career development which have guided career practice and research in the past few decades (Leung, 2008). These five theories are (i) the Self-concept Theory of Career Development, (ii) the Theory of Circumscription and Compromise, (iii) the Theory of Vocational Choice, (iv) the Theory of Work-Adjustment, and (v) Social Cognitive Career Theory. Each of these theories have been briefly described below.

The Self-Concept Theory of Career Development (Super, 1957) theorises that career development occurs in successive phases in which individuals constantly apply, reflect and adjust their concept of self. This ‘life-span / life-space’ approach claims career roles and social roles change over time, and that both influence career development iteratively. As such, career development is life-long. Super (1957) suggests that career and life satisfaction rely on the capability of the individual to apply their concept of self in a way that is fulfilling, as well as life and career stages appropriate. Gottfredson (1981) extended this theory in The Theory of Circumscription, Compromise, and Self-creation, attempting to describe how
career choice develops, starting from childhood. As a developmental theory the focus is on how an individual’s self-concept develops with age, but the theory of Circumscription and Compromise also concentrates on the development of the individual’s perception of the job and career choices available to them. The theory assumes that an individual builds a mental map of suitable jobs and careers by picking up occupational stereotypes from the people around them. Jobs and careers are placed on this map based on a limited number of dimensions: gender, prestige level and field of work. As young people build this mental map, they begin to decide which occupations do and do not fit with their own developing concept of self (Gottfredson, 2002).

Rather than focusing on a career as being directed by life stage, Holland’s (1973) **Theory of Vocational Choice** suggests occupational choice and behaviour are determined by the attempt to suitably fit the individual’s orientations to their occupational environment. The theory maintains that in choosing a career, an individual prefers jobs where they can be around others who are like them, suggesting that an individual searches for workplaces that provide them with the opportunity to use their skills, express themselves, aligns with their values, and solve problems. The theory also expects that the higher the level of resemblance between individual and occupational characteristics, the better will be the potential for positive career-related outcomes, including job and career satisfaction, resilience and persistence and goal achievement (Holland, 1997). While this theory considers the environment, it is limited to an occupation and does not consider the possibility of transforming interests and changes in occupation.

**The Theory of Work-Adjustment** (Dawis, 2005), also referred to as the Person–Environment Correspondence Theory, proposes that the more closely an individual’s abilities (skills, knowledge, experience, attitude, behaviours) match with the requirements of the role or the organisation, the more likely they will perform the job well and consequently be perceived as better performing by the employer. Similarly, the more closely the reward and reinforcement received from the organisation align with the values that the individual seeks to satisfy through their work, the more likely it is that the individual will perceive their job and role as satisfying. The degree of satisfaction is viewed as a predictor of the likelihood that someone will remain committed to the organisation, stay in the job, be successful at it and
receive promotions and career advancement. This theory incorporates the organisational environment, however only in regard to person-environment fit and not the reciprocal relationship between the person and the environment. **Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)** (Lent et al., 1994) is built upon Bandura’s (1991) social cognitive theory. SCCT combines a variety of concepts that are also applied in earlier career theories and have been found to impact on career development such as; interests, abilities, values, environmental factors. The theory makes the assumption that individuals are interested in, select to undertake, and perform better at tasks where they have strong self-efficacy beliefs, assuming they have required skills and environmental supports to undertake these tasks. SCCT also considers the reciprocal relationship between the organisation, the person and their outcomes.

While there are differences among these five career theories, these approaches all presume the presence of some form of environmental influence. This research study assumes the importance of the relationship between the individual and the organisational environment in which they are working, and how an individual can best apply career self-management behaviours to navigate the organisational culture to achieve career success, which is in alignment with social cognitive theory (the basis for SCCT). The following section presents an introduction to career and the organisation, including organisational culture theory, to provide further understanding of the relationship and provide context for this thesis.

### 1.5 Career and the organisation

Researchers, consultants and business practitioners have gravitated to the concept of organisational culture since the 1980s, as they believed that shared understanding of organisational culture could enhance organisational change and strategy implementation (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). Research has shown that where individuals perceive organisational culture types as the same or in agreement with their individual preferred types, they have a higher level of commitment than those who have a non-match or disagreement of types (Poppens, 2000). Additionally, empirical evidence links organisational culture with positive work attitudes and decreased turnover (Glisson & Green, 2006; Glisson & James, 2002), as well
as successful efforts to improve service quality, customer satisfaction, and positive client outcomes (Shortell et al., 1998). Finally, culture has also been shown to be central to fostering innovation and individual creativity (Jaskyte, 2004, 2008; Jaskyte & Dressler, 2004). In fact, it is broadly claimed by theorists and empirical researchers that to improve organisational effectiveness, the organisational culture should first be diagnosed (Gamage, 2006). To gain a greater depth of understanding of organisational culture and methods of diagnosis, organisational culture theory is summarised in the next section before presenting the justification of this research study.

1.6 Organisational culture theory

Considering its origins in anthropology, where culture is defined in multiple ways and from multiple perspectives, the field of organisational culture offers numerous definitions depending on the perspective of the author. Martin (1983) claims that organisational culture is the glue that holds together an organisation through shared patterns of meaning. Cooke and Rousseau (1988) define organisational culture as a set of beliefs and understandings shared by members of a social unit, that are developed through social learning and a socialisation process subjecting individuals to a variety of cultural elements, such as observable actions and interactions, communications, and artefacts. Organisational culture is described by Ott (1989) as a social force that regulates patterns of organisational behaviour by influencing members' thoughts and perceptions of meanings and realities, providing affective energy for mobilisation, and ascertaining who and who does not belong. The meaning of organisational culture most broadly accepted is by Schein (1994), who describes culture as a distinct set of levels: core values, norms, beliefs and values, behaviours and artefacts that the group has learned and has worked successfully enough to be considered effective, and therefore, is taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. While the divergent perspectives in the field of organisational culture are acknowledged, drawing from the numerous definitions available, this study refers to organisational culture in a broad sense, defined as: a set of shared values, beliefs and principles that help organisational members to understand organisational functioning and consequently guides their thinking and behaviour.
When attempting to understand culture’s influence on numerous organisational and individual outcomes, scholars have also sought to systematise organisational values, norms, beliefs and assumptions into meaningful frameworks as well as methods to assess cultural consensus or the degree to which employees share those organisational values, norms or beliefs (Jaskyte, 2004; Jaskyte & Dressler, 2004). As in the case of the definition of culture, there is little agreement about the way to measure and profile organisational cultures. Instruments tend to adopt either a typological or dimensional approach.

Dimensional approaches to the measurement of organisational culture aim to assess the existence and relative strength of cultural dimensions in a specific setting using predefined sets of dimensions (Jung et al., 2009). Examples of instruments applying a dimensional approach are: Cultural Consensus Analysis (D’Andrade, 1984), Organisational Culture Inventory (Cooke and Lafferty, 1987; Thomas et al. 1990; Seago 1997; Ingersoll et al., 2000), and the Perceived Cultural Compatibility Index (Very et al., 1997; Veiga et al., 2000). Typological approaches take the assessment one step further by categorising the characteristics into predefined types (Jung et al., 2009). Examples of typological instruments are: Competing Values Framework (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983) and Handy’s Model of Organisational Culture (1999).

The comparative benefits of one form of organisational culture over another can be debated, however the popular belief today is to view organisational culture from a ‘contingency management perspective’ in that there is no one right culture for an organisation (Recklies, 2001). Recklies (2001) explains that this means that rather than there being a ‘right’ culture, there are only organisational cultures that fit more or less appropriately to the particular situation at a given point in time (Recklies, 2001). It is suggested that focussing ‘what it is we are right now’ is better for the organisation rather than on ‘what it wants to be’ (Fyock & Brannick, 2002). However to be able to do this, it is necessary for some kind of measurement of the organisational culture to take place (Igo & Skitmore, 2005). According to Schein (1996) the primary objective of these measurements it to then shift the organisation from its current state toward an acceptable compromise closer to the cultural environment desired by the various stakeholders involved.
It is suggested that organisational culture provides the framework that underpins the implementation and operationalisation of business strategies and therefore individuals must be mindful of the organisational cultures in which they are working (Belias & Kouveliotis, 2014). Failing to understand the organisation’s culture and to take it into account in designing strategies, and in the case of this study for implementing career management programs, jeopardises the execution and long-term success of strategic initiatives. A study of the culture can assist in profiling the existing environment, clarify any conflicting values, and suggest ways to reduce organisational strains and still achieve the organisation’s strategic goals. It is through this perspective that it is proposed organisational culture has the potential to significantly influence the effectiveness of career self-management strategies in achieving career success outcomes. Hall and Yip (2016) support this proposition in their paper on how to discern career cultures at work. They state that an individual’s career is likely to be influenced by the organisation’s culture and practices because the culture powerfully communicates social information, consequently shaping the individual’s career drivers, decisions, and behaviours. With an understanding of career management, the definition of career and career success, theories of career and the organisational environment, as well as organisational culture theory, the next section of this chapter presents the justification for this research.

1.7 Justification of this research

Career success is shown to directly contribute to wellbeing for individuals and performance for organisations. In particular, researchers have found that subjective and objective career success positively contributes to individual wellbeing and satisfaction (Abele, 2014), happiness (Boehm and Lyubomirsky, 2008), better relationships (Greenhaus et al., 2001), health (Russo et al., 2014), and even meaning in life (de Klerk, 2005). Researchers have found for organisations that subjective and objective career success is a determinant of resignations from the workplace (Kristensen and Westergaard-Nielsen, 2004), intention to stay/leave (Böckerman and Ilmakunnas, 2005), motivation and absenteeism (Tharenou, 1993), counterproductive behaviour (Gottfredson & Holland, 1990), employee long-term absence from work due to illness (Lund et al., 2005), short-term sickness absence (Munch-Hansen et al., 2009), productivity
(Cooper et al., 1996), and performance (Yu, 2009). These impacts of career outcomes for individuals and organisations unquestionably justify researchers focusing on discovering ways to enhance career management strategies to enhance career success outcomes.

A further consideration and justification for the importance of career management is the nature of constant change and the evolution of the modern career. Individuals and organisations alike are faced with increased mobility of employment, vertically and horizontally, inside and outside the boundaries of the organisation (Arthur et al., 1999), constant innovation and market changes where work tasks of employees change often (Hall & Mirvis, 1995), and the shift of responsibility of the employer from providing fixed career moves determined by the employer to facilitating employees to develop their own careers (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006). These changes require workers to develop skills and competencies that embrace flexibility instead of stability, maintain employability and create their own opportunities. These new conceptions of work life recognise that career belongs to the person not the organisation (Duarte, 2004), consequently the individual must take control of his/her own career. Similarly, with the importance of an individual's career success in contributing to organisational performance and outcomes, the organisation must take equal interest in supporting the career management of individuals. In fact, Yu's (2009) study provided significant evidence that, when individuals and organisations share responsibility for career management, employees are likely to have more successful careers. This results in higher performance for the organisation. However, previous research investigating how organisational factors may promote the demonstration and effectiveness of career self-management behaviours and career success outcomes, has predominantly focused on the role of the employer providing specific assistance to their employees in their career management and development (Sturges et al., 2010).

The development and implementation of organisational career management strategies and the application of career self-management behaviours, however, does not occur in isolation; it occurs within the organisational environment and culture. Multiple researchers have recommended future research on the relationship between career management, career outcomes and organisational culture. Callanan (2003), in his analysis of the Enron case, provided strong non-empirical evidence that an organisation's culture can
have a direct influence on the career strategies and actions that individuals take for career success. He claimed that future research should seek to identify the influence of different types of organisational cultures on individual career strategies, which could prove insightful for both researchers and practitioners. De Vos and Soens (2008) posited evidence that providing organisational career support in developing career self-management behaviours is important. However, they note in their study that it is probable organisational culture plays an important role and suggest further research is required to determine its role. In a later study by De Vos, Dewettinck and Buyens (2009), it was suggested that it is also likely that organisational factors have a strong impact on career outcomes, and that career self-management only indirectly affects career progress, which requires further investigation.

Since the late 1990s, careers scholarship has tended towards a more agentic understanding of career behaviour, particularly the literature on the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). In recent years, this has come under criticism for neglecting the impact of context and social structures on career opportunities and outcomes. Specifically, Inkson et al. (2012) present a strong argument for the problems associated with the overemphasis on agency and the boundaryless career. This is because, regardless of agency, there is always a context in which the individual is working and boundaries that need to be crossed. Therefore, they propose that the boundaries themselves need to be conceptually understood, as the career boundary is a useful tool to examine the relationship between career in the organisational context. Inkson et al. (2012) further note that the organisational careers literature has mostly ignored what can be learned from the constraints that are either observable or perceived by the individual in achieving their career objectives. In response, Inkson et al. (2012) specifically identify the need for future research to integrate both boundaryless and organisational career theory. While this research study does not refute the important role of agency in career (Tams & Arthur, 2010), it seeks to examine the impact of organisational context on careers and the interaction between career agency and social structure. As a result, the research aims of this study directly respond to the gap in knowledge identified by Inkson et al. (2012) by recognising that the organisational context in which an individual works may constrain the effectiveness of their agency and career outcomes.
In light of these recommendations for future research, from a theoretical perspective, this research study will aim to contribute to the body of knowledge on career self-management and career success by introducing the organisational culture variable. Future researchers can use the findings to replicate this research to further examine career self-management and career success within different organisational cultures. The proposed framework from the present study should also allow theorists to make modifications to existing career development and career self-management models and integrate potential differences in the application of career self-management across differing organisational cultures.

From a practical standpoint, the present study should inform individuals on how best to self-manage their careers within specific organisational cultures to maximise their career success and achieve their career objectives. As the research aims to identify which career self-management behaviours are the most and least effective within the environment, the findings should indicate how individuals could adjust their demonstration of their behaviours for the greatest effect. The practical value of this study for organisations should not only highlight which behaviours are and aren’t effective in the cultural environment, but provide guidance on why, and influence how, the organisation supports and facilitates employee career development for the best outcomes for both the individual and the organisation.

The justification for this research study is founded in its potential to contribute to literature and practice. The aim is to advance existing theory and frameworks on the relationship between career self-management, career success outcomes, and organisational culture. Of equal value is the aim of providing insight for individuals and organisations on how career self-management behaviours contribute to career success outcomes in different organisational cultures. The next section of this chapter outlines the objectives of this research study, the research questions and structure of this thesis.
1.8 Objectives, research questions, structure

In this section, the objectives of the study are described, followed by an outline of the research questions designed to achieve them, then an overview of the thesis structure is outlined.

1.8.1 Objectives of the study

The purpose of the current study is to contribute to the body of knowledge regarding career self-management and career success in the context of two different types of organisations (one family- and one government-owned organisation) as well as to provide insight for organisations and individuals as to how to effectively apply career self-management behaviours for successful career outcomes in different organisational cultures. To address this purpose, five research questions are used to direct the study, investigated in three steps in two Australian case study organisations.

1.8.2 Research questions

The first step of the research is designed to determine the organisational culture type of each of the case study organisations. Hence, the research question guiding data collection for step one is:

*Research Question 1: What organisational culture types do the participants of this study work within?*

Based on the findings of the dominant organisational culture type identified in each of the two Australian case study organisations participating in the research, research questions 2-5 were formulated. Consequently, research questions 2-5 in steps two and three of the research relate to only two organisational culture types: clan and hierarchical

The second step of the research investigates the relationship between career self-management behaviours and career success outcomes in the two organisational cultures identified in the first step of the research. Hence, the research questions guiding data collection are:
**Research Question 2:** Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

**Research Question 3:** Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

The third step of the research investigates the perception of reception, effectiveness and ease of application within the two organisational cultures identified in the first step of the research. Hence, the research questions guiding data collection are:

**Research Question 4:** Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being better received and enacted with greater ease in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

**Research Question 5:** Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being more effective in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

### 1.8.3 Thesis structure

This thesis consists of six chapters as outlined in Figure 3, p.34.

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<td>Discussion</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Outline of thesis structure.
Chapter 1: Introduction provided a background to the study, presented justification for this research, and outlined the purpose and research questions of the study.


Chapter 3: Literature Review further specifies the key concepts of career success and career self-management beyond what was presented in the introduction, followed by a review of existing theoretical and empirical research and the models related to this thesis. Following the review is a brief section that identifies the gaps in the literature for the purpose of suggesting future scholarly inquiry. Chapter 3 concludes with the hypotheses and proposed conceptual framework that defines the parameters of this study and guides the inquiry.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology details the research methods designed to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses. First, the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions of key research philosophies, comprising positivism and post-positivism, are discussed. Secondly, the reasons for choosing post-positivism in conducting this study are given. The rest of the chapter outlines the research design, the sampling plan and population, measures, procedures, data analysis and evaluation of research methods.

Chapter 5: Results begins by presenting an overview of the demographics of the study and the reliability analysis. This is followed by the results from the statistical analysis in response to the five research questions and associated hypotheses. Then the findings to the hypotheses are outlined as confirming previous knowledge or contributing new knowledge and the findings are summarised.
**Chapter 6: Discussion** begins by firstly pattern-matching the findings with past literature to confirm existing knowledge and identify the contributions to new knowledge. This is followed by a detailed discussion of the findings for each career self-management behaviour in the context of existing literature. The contribution of the study to theories, especially Social Cognitive Theory and the Competing Values Framework, is then presented, including a proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework. The study’s contribution to practice is then provided, concluding the chapter with limitations of the research and recommendations for future research.

### 1.9 Summary

This chapter has offered an overview of this thesis commencing with an introduction to career management and career, including a summary of career success indicators and career theories. This was followed by a brief discussion on career and the organisation with an explanation of organisational culture. Justification of the research was then presented and explained that this research anticipates contributing to both literature and practice by advance existing theory and frameworks and providing insight for individuals and organisations on how career self-management behaviours contribute to career success outcomes in different organisational cultures. The chapter concludes with the research objectives, the research questions to achieve the objectives, and an overview of the thesis structure. The next chapter provides a review of the current published literature about social cognitive theory which is utilised as the theoretical lens to examine the proposed research model of this study.
CHAPTER 2: SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the Social Cognitive Theory and Social Cognitive Career Theory literature with emphasis on the concepts, foundations and components that relate to the influence of the environment on the application of behaviours and subsequent outcomes in career. Firstly, a discussion of Social Cognitive Theory and its model relating most specifically to the interrelationship between behaviour and environment is presented as the overarching theory to the research. Secondly, a discussion on Social Cognitive Career Theory follows as the underpinning theory for the research of outcome expectations in combination with organisational culture as the justification for the study. The role of organisational culture and its relationship to employee behaviours and outcomes is then explored. Finally, for a greater understanding of the interaction between individual behaviour and environment, this chapter will also explore social cognitive theoretical foundations and components in the context of organisational culture, career self-management and career success outcomes.

2.2 Social Cognitive Theory

Behaviour is often explained in terms of one-sided determinism (Skinner, 1971), where it is portrayed as being shaped and controlled either by environmental influences or by internal dispositions. For example, in the case of organisational culture, one may say that employee behaviours are affected only by the culture within which they are enacted. Bandura’s (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, however, is a model of causation involving triadic reciprocal determinism. In his model of reciprocal causation, behaviour, cognition and other personal factors, and environmental influences all operate as interacting elements that influence each other bi-directionally (Figure 4, p.38).
Bandura’s schematisation of triadic reciprocal causation shows how the reproduction of an observed behaviour is influenced by the interaction of the following three elements: (i) personal, (ii) behavioural, and (iii) environmental.

- **Personal factors** represent the person, including their gender, social position as well as cognitive factors such as thought, memory, judgment, foresight and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). In the context of this research study, personal factors are related to the individual employee’s perception of how their career self-management behaviours may be received, enacted with ease, or even effective.

- **Behaviour** is the way in which a person behaves (Bandura, 1986). This research study applied the behaviour factor of the model in the context of demonstrating career self-management behaviours: self-promotion, extended work involvement, creating opportunities, networking and seeking career guidance. Examples of these behaviours may include, but are not limited to: making others aware of one’s skills, working long hours and taking work home, seeking projects outside of one’s job role, building relationships with people across the organisation and discussing career development with a manager.
• *Environmental* factors are the aspects of the environment or setting that the individual is within when enacting their behaviours (Bandura, 1986). For the purposes of this research study, environment is the organisation and culture of the organisation. That is, the rules, norms, beliefs and values that make up the culture of the organisational environment.

While the Social Cognitive Theory model is based on triadic reciprocal causation, Bandura (1986) explains that reciprocal causation does not mean that the different sources of influence are of equal strength, nor do the reciprocal influences all occur simultaneously. The major interactional links between the different subsystems of influence must be understood, however, in order to apply Social Cognitive Theory to organisational culture and employee behaviours and outcomes. An explanation of the causal relationships between personal, behaviour and environment follow.

The **Personal ↔ Behaviour** of reciprocal causation is concerned with the interactive relationship between thought, affect and action. Personal expectations, beliefs, self-perceptions, goals and intentions give form to and influence behaviour. In other words, what people think, believe, and feel, affects how they behave (Bandura, 1986; Bower, 1975; Neisser, 1976). The expected and extrinsic effects of their behaviours and actions then partly determine their thought patterns and emotional reactions. For example, an individual may wish to seek career guidance from a leader within their organisation, but perceive because of their young age or level in the hierarchy that there would not be anyone in the organisation that would consider mentoring them. As a result, they do not end up seeking the career guidance they needed.

The **Environment ↔ Personal** portion of reciprocal causation reflects the interaction between environmental influences and personal characteristics. An individual’s expectations, beliefs and competencies are developed in context and impacted by social influences that convey information and trigger emotional reactions through modelling, instruction and social persuasion (Bandura, 1986). In addition to what people say and do, people also induce different reactions from their social environment because of their physical characteristics, such as their age, size, race, sex, and physical attractiveness.
(Bandura, 1982). Different social reactions are also evoked depending on the individual’s socially bestowed role and status. Applying the previous example to this causative relationship, consider an executive leader who sees the value in mentoring employees, leverages their executive status in the organisation, and actively and visibly encourages other leaders to develop mentoring relationships with employees within the organisation. These actions in turn will create an environment in which mentoring and giving career guidance to employees is well received and enacted with ease, strengthening or altering the environmental bias.

The **Behaviour ↔ Environment** portion of reciprocal causation in the triadic schema represents the relationship influence between behaviour and the environment. Bandura (1986) proposes that in the transactions of everyday life, behaviour modifies environmental conditions, and in turn, behaviours are altered by the very environmental conditions it creates. Therefore, the environment is not a fixed entity that purely imposes upon the individual. Continuing with the same example, should the organisation wish to enhance career development of its employees, they (it) may choose to implement a mentoring program that includes training for mentors and mentees, processes and procedures to connect mentors and mentees, as well as build the mentoring program into the leadership development and performance management systems of the organisation. As a result, an environment begins to create conditions that encourage and normalise the seeking of career guidance, consequently driving a behaviour change among employees to actively seek career guidance outside of the formal mentoring program. It is because of the bi-directionality of influence between behaviour and environmental circumstances, that people are both products and producers of their environment.

In addition to the triadic reciprocal causation model of social cognitive theory outlined above, the theory proposes an agentic perspective. Instead of being influenced by environments or internal drivers, Bandura (1986) suggests that individuals are self-developing, self-regulating, self-reflecting and proactive. This is called human agency. Human agency and Bandura’s related concepts of human capability, modelling, outcome expectancies, self-efficacy, and identification are explained in the following sections of this chapter.
2.2.1 Human Agency

Bandura (2009) defines human agency as the ability to exert influence over one’s functioning and the course of events by their own actions and proposes human agency has four core properties: (i) intentionality, (ii) forethought, (iii) self-reactiveness, and (iv) self-reflectiveness. Intentionality refers to the active decision to engage in certain activities, that is, acts done intentionally (Bandura, 2009). The power to originate actions for given purposes is the key feature of personal agency. Forethought relates to an individual’s ability to anticipate the outcome of certain actions (Bandura, 2009). Individuals hypothesise outcomes based the conditional relations between environmental events they observe, and the outcomes achieved. Self-reactiveness is an individual’s ability to construct and regulate appropriate behaviours (Bandura, 2009). This self-directedness operates through self-regulatory processes that link thought to action. Finally, self-reflectiveness is the individual’s ability to reflect and evaluate the soundness of their cognitions and behaviours (Bandura, 2009). That means people are not only agents of action, but self-examiners of their own functioning with the capability to reflect upon themselves and the adequacy of their own thoughts and actions.

For individuals to demonstrate career self-management behaviours, they are applying human agency in an attempt to exert influence over their career outcomes and success. In addition to human agency in the agentic perspective of social cognitive theory, there is also human capability. The next section describes human capability.

2.2.2 Human capability

Embedded within Bandura’s social cognitive perspective is the belief that individuals have certain innate capabilities that define what it is to be human. Amongst these are the capabilities to symbolise, plan alternative ways of doing things, learn through the experience of others, self-reflect and self-manage. These capabilities provide individuals with the intellect to influence and determine their own destiny.
Bandura (2002) labels these four primary capabilities as: (i) symbolising capability, (ii) self-regulation capability, (iii) self-reflective capability, and (iv) vicarious capability.

Firstly, in symbolising capability, individuals are affected by direct experience as well as indirect events and can also perceive events conveyed in messages, construct potential solutions, and evaluate anticipated outcomes from those possible solutions (Bandura, 2002). With self-regulation capability, individuals can control their own intentions and behaviours (Bandura, 2002). This is how individuals plan, anticipate the likely consequences of their actions, and set goals and challenges that will enable them to motivate, guide and regulate their activities. It is because of an individual’s ability to plan alternative solutions and strategies that the consequences of an action can be anticipated without actually enacting it. With self-reflective capability, individuals can evaluate their thoughts and actions by themselves (Bandura, 2002). Through self-reflection, people seek to interpret their experiences, explore their own understandings and self-beliefs, engage in self-evaluation, and subsequently alter their thinking and behaviour accordingly.

And finally, vicarious capability is the critical ability to observe others’ actions and their consequences (Bandura, 2002). By doing this individuals can gain insights into their own activities and potential outcomes permitting individuals to learn a behaviour without undergoing the trial and error process of performing it themselves.

In addition to the social cognitive theoretical foundations outlined above, there are theoretical components that are equally valuable in understanding the theory in the context of organisational culture and employee behaviours and outcomes. These include: modelling, outcome expectancies, self-efficacy, and identification.

2.2.3 Modelling

According to Bandura (2002) most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling. It is through the observation of others that individuals form an idea of how new behaviours should be performed. This observation then serves as a guide for future action. Social cognitive theory centres on
the acquisition of knowledge and learning and the correlation to the observation of models. Modelling is not only limited to live behavioural demonstration, but also indirect forms of modelling such as verbal and written behaviour. Effective modelling teaches common rules and strategies for dealing with various situations, and while allowing individuals to learn behaviour worthy of repeating, but also serves as a way to understand which behaviours should be inhibited. For instance, if a leader reprimands an employee for networking with other leaders across the organisation, other employees may suppress this behaviour to avoid a similar response.

2.2.4 Outcome Expectancies

To learn a specific behaviour, individuals need to understand what the potential outcome is if they repeat that behaviour. Bandura (2002) calls this outcome expectancies. An individual forms an expectation about the likely consequences of behaviour on future outcomes based on how current responses are reinforced or punished. An individual’s expectations are also influenced by the observation of the consequences that result from the behaviour of others. The individual tends not to expect the exact actual rewards or punishments incurred by others observed, but anticipates similar outcomes when imitating the behaviour, which is why modelling impacts cognition and behaviour. For example, should an employee observe a colleague complete a new educational qualification and shortly after be rewarded with a promotion, one would expect a similar outcome should they too complete the same qualification.

2.2.5 Self-efficacy

Among the mechanisms of human agency, none is more significant than an individual’s belief in their ability to exercise some amount of control over their own functioning and over environmental events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1997), that is, the degree to which an individual believes that they can master a particular skill. While intentionality, forethought, self-reactiveness, and self-reflectiveness are the four core properties of human agency, self-efficacy beliefs are the foundation. Unless an individual believes they can produce desired results and avoid negative ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to
persist in the face of difficulties or adversity. These beliefs also impact whether people think negatively or optimistically and in ways that are self-enhancing or self-hindering (Bandura, 1989). For example, if an employee perceives there is no point in applying career self-management behaviours within their organisation because they do not believe they will be effective or contribute in any way to their achieving the career objectives, then they will not.

2.2.6 Identification

Identification allows an individual to feel a one-to-one similarity with the others they observe, which can lead to a higher likelihood of the individual following through with the modelled and observed behaviour (Bandura, 1988). People are more likely to follow behaviours modelled by someone with whom they can identify (Bandura, 1989). For example, female employees are more likely to identify with and model the action of female leaders, rather than male leaders in the organisation.

Since it was first introduced social cognitive theory (SCT), over the past 25 years, has inspired a large and diverse body of research. SCT has been used as a conceptual framework to explain a range of human phenomena including educational performance, career choice and job performance, gender differences in performance, achievement behaviour, substance abuse and abstinence, sport and motor performance, decision making, goal setting and motivation, different forms of political participation, and health and lifestyle choices (see Bandura, 1997, for a review). The SCT framework represents human phenomenon as being the result of a dynamic process involving reciprocal relationships among three groups of factors: the individual's social understandings, the individual's behaviour and the social context. Empirical support for the model is impressive (Locke, 1997) and is a sound theory to guide the research to investigate the relationship between the application and effectiveness of career self-management behaviours within organisational cultures.
While Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory serves as the underpinning theoretical framework for this research study, it is important to discuss the two career-related models that have developed from SCT and distinguish the contribution and difference in those models with the approach in this study. These are Social Cognitive Career Theory and Social Cognitive Career Self-management Theory and a discussion of these follow.

2.3 Social Cognitive Career Theory

Social cognitive career theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994) presents “a comprehensive framework by which self-efficacy, outcome expectations and goals interact with demographic variables, environmental factors and life experiences to influence occupational interest, career choice and performance” (Lindley, 2005, p.271). It was designed as an approach to understand educational and occupational behaviour. SCCT combines common elements identified by earlier career theorists (Parsons, 1909; Super, 1953, 1980; Holland, 1973, 1985; Krumboltz, Lofquist & Dawis, 1976; Brown, 1990) and seeks to create a framework for explaining how people (i) develop occupational interests, (ii) make career choices, (iii) achieve career success and security, and (iv) experience workplace satisfaction.

As in Bandura’s general theory, SCCT accepts that an individual has the capacity to exercise some degree of agency or self-direction, but that they also contend with many other factors. Lent et al. (1994) hypothesised that race, gender, ability, opportunity structure, emotional and financial support, discrimination, social persuasion, and prior failures/successes are important influences on the development of self-efficacy and outcome expectations. There is now a significant body of research that has examined the relationship of self-efficacy expectations to interests and career-related choices and performance (e.g., Donnay & Borgen, 1999; Lent et al., 2016; Park et al., 2016). The earliest of these studies, by Donnay and Borgen (1999, p.433), sought to “examine interests, self-efficacy and occupation, and investigated the role of self-efficacy and interests in explaining tenured and satisfied membership in an occupational group”. They found that interests and self-efficacy each significantly predicted membership across 21 occupations.
From a developmental-contextual view, individuals appraise their environment, and their resulting perception of the environment affects their motivation and career development action and processes. Ghuangpeng (2011) studied the career decision-making drivers of tourism and hospitality students in Thailand and Australia seeking to understand the way these factors impacted career decision-making and how their decision-making was influenced by their cultural interpretations. Several factors were found in the study to influence the career decision-making process, including gender, family commitments, the feedback students received during work placement, and career opportunities in the industry. As highlighted by Ghuangpeng’s (2011) study, the perception that the environment that has a strong effect on agency in career development is supported by both theory and empirical research. The practical relevance of career barriers is supported by other studies which have demonstrated that tertiary education students report perceiving additional barriers including those that are labour market, personal, or social specific (Lent et al., 2002; Swanson & Tokar, 1991).

Quantitative research undertaken by Lucas and Epperson (1990) assessed 302 undergraduates using the measures of self-esteem, lifestyle orientations, career salience, and vocational situation. Lucas (1993) extended their research to confirm the relationship between perceived barriers, career indecision and lower career expectations amongst the study subjects. Creed, Conlon and Zimmer-Gembeck (2007) also undertook a quantitative study with findings that support perceptions of career barriers being associated with lower career expectations. Further, Cardoso and Moreira (2009) in their quantitative study revealed less career planning among girls than boys that report low self-efficacy.

SCCT creates a unifying framework for explaining how people (i) develop vocational interests, (ii) make occupational choices, (iii) achieve varying levels of career success and stability, and (iv) experience satisfaction or wellbeing in the work environment. This model is not directly applicable to this study, however, as the focus of this research is not about the early development of career interests and choices, but rather on the achievement of career success through the application of career self-management behaviours. Social Cognitive Career Theory, as described above, has been extended by Lent and Brown
(2013), resulting in the Social Cognitive Career Self-Management Theory, which is explored in the following section.

### 2.4 Social Cognitive Career Self-Management Theory

The social cognitive model of career self-management (CSM) was developed by Lent and Brown (2013) to explain the ways individuals, throughout their lifetime, contribute to their own educational and career development. The purpose of the design was to supplement previous social cognitive models that focus on content aspects of career development (such as the types of occupations in which a person develops interest, their occupational choices, their achievement levels of career success and stability, and satisfaction or wellbeing in the work environment). The CSM model is aimed at process aspects of career behaviour that are relevant regardless of career fields. Examples include the means by which individuals explore and decide on career options, search for career opportunities and jobs, establish work-life balance, manage their identity at work, and negotiate career changes. According to SCCT’s self-management model (Figure 5, p.47), self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations stimulate goal setting as well as the actual demonstration of adaptive career behaviours through action. A few studies have specifically tested the predictions of CSM in the context of job searching (Lim, Lent & Penn, 2016), making career decisions (Lent et al., 2016), managing identity (Tatum, Formica & Brown, 2017), and multiple role planning (Roche, Daskalova & Brown, 2016).

![Diagram of Social Cognitive Career Self-Management Theory](image)

**Figure 5.** Model of career self-management (Lent and Brown, 2013).
Lim, Lent and Penn (2016) studied the job search process based on the social-cognitive model of career self-management by measuring the outcome expectations and perceived control over outcomes, conscientiousness, job search self-efficacy and search intentions, and social support of 243 unemployed job seekers. They followed up with a second study to investigate the efficacy of the social-cognitive, personality, and perceived outcome control variables with respect to predicting active engagement in the job search process of 240 graduating college seniors. In the first study with the unemployed sample, self-efficacy and outcome expectations mediated the relations of the other predictors to job search intentions. In the second study of graduating college students, job search intentions were directly related to subsequent job search behaviours.

Roche, Daskalova and Brown (2016) tested the self-management model as applied to young peoples’ expected multiple role balance intentions – that is, their intention to balance their expected various roles in life. Examples of roles may include, but not be limited to, spouse, parent and employee. A random sample of 74 women and 62 men completed an online survey investigating how young people feel about balancing multiple life roles in the future. Their findings from the survey responses were consistent with the hypotheses of SCCT and role balance intentions related to self-efficacy beliefs. Based on a sample of 152 sexual minority participants Tatum, Formica and Brown (2017) tested the SCCT model in the context of workplace sexual identity management. Results of the study suggested that workplace disclosure was directly influenced by concealment motivation and workplace climate, as well as indirectly through self-efficacy and positive outcome expectations. Two studies applying the SCCT model to career exploration and decision-making outcomes in college students were undertaken by Lent, Ezeofor, Morrison, Penn and Ireland (2016). In both studies decisional self-efficacy related strongly to career decision self-efficacy. The research resulted in support of the CSM model being applied to the career decision-making process.

For several years, the careers literature has emphasised that individuals need to become increasingly self-managed in their career, implying a proactive lifelong process of shaping their own work experiences. Career research led by Hall (2002) believes that the individual, not the organisation, is responsible for
career development in a rapidly changing society. According to Hall (1996), the traditional psychological employment contract has been replaced by a new contract, which is based on continuous learning and identity change. Individuals can no longer expect to enter a firm, work hard, perform well, remain loyal and committed, and consequently expect to receive rewards and job security. Hall (1996) claims that, to realise the potential of the new career, an individual needs to develop new competencies related to the management of self and career. Consequentially, proactive career behaviours such as networking, seeking career guidance, extended work involvement, creating opportunities and self-promotion are deemed necessary for achieving subjective and objective career success (Gould & Penley, 1984). Therefore, the degree to which an individual proactively demonstrates career self-management behaviours to enhance their career development, is of great theoretical and organisational importance.

Schwoerer (1990) in her study of 207 employees, found that individuals reporting higher levels of career management activity also tended to experience higher evaluations and salary increases, as well higher levels of personal outcomes. Schwoerer (2009) concluded that the individual acceptance of responsibility for career management is important in actively managing career success. More recently, Abele and Wiese (2008) conducted research to analyse the relationship between general self-management strategies, specific self-management strategies and indicators of objective career success (pay, position), self-referent subjective success (career satisfaction), and other-referent career success (comparative judgment). Across a large sample of 1,185 professionals they concluded that career-specific strategies are indispensable for objective career success, whereas, with regard to subjective criteria, both generalised and domain-specific self-management strategies play a role.

The predominant focus of researchers applying SCCT has been on personal agency (Abele and Wiese, 2008; Lim, Lent and Penn, 2016; Roche et al., 2016) ; Schwoerer, 2009 in the management of career, which overlooks the likely powerful influence of the organisational context and culture on employee career development behaviours and career outcomes. While the Social Cognitive Career Self-Management model (Lent and Brown, 2013) adequately theorises the process aspects of career, the model does not consider the relationship between (i) the demonstration of career self-management behaviours, (ii) the
perceived reception, effectiveness and ease of application of those behaviours within organisational cultures, and (iii) the impact on career objectives. Therefore this study will be applying the theory and constructs from SCT, the foundational theory to CSM, plus some concepts from SCCT. This chapter will now discuss organisational culture, behaviours and outcomes, before attempting to explain the relationship between these constructs in the context of social cognitive theory and SCCT.

2.5 Organisational Culture, Behaviours and Outcomes

An organisation, according to Hall (1999), is a social entity of people that is structured and managed to meet a need or to pursue collective goals, with the activities having outcomes for organisational members, the organisation itself, and for its external environment. Hall (1999) also highlights that an organisation has rules, hierarchy, communication systems, and procedures, and that this collectively exists on a relatively continuous basis in an environment aligned to those goals. The culture of an organisation, however, is built on the development of shared meanings, values, beliefs and assumptions that guide and are reinforced by the behaviours of employees (Robbins & Coulter, 2005). As employees are surrounded by the organisational environment at all times, Handy (1993) proposes that the organisation’s culture affects how its members behave, as well as how it operates.

The culture of an organisation has been shown to affect organisational productivity, system operations, leadership actions (Taylor, 2003), organisational effectiveness (Valentino et al., 2004), and performance (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Further, research has indicated that culture influences employee commitment (Casida & Pinto-Zipp, 2008; Mycek, 2000; Parry, 2004; Webster, 2004), job satisfaction (Lund, 2003) and behaviours (Atchison, 2002; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988), and performance (Denison et al., 2004). This pervasiveness of organisational culture requires that its impact on employee-related variables be investigated thoroughly. Consequently, organisational culture is discussed in more specific detail in the following chapter.
Before considering further research on organisational culture and its impact on employee behaviours, it is necessary to understand that organisations are open systems, which means they affect and are affected by their environment (Daft, 1997), both internally and externally. Culture emerges and is reinforced as a result of two things: external adaptation and internal integration. External adaptation, according to Schein (1992), suggests that cultures develop and persist because they help an organisation to survive and grow while continuing to evolve. This means that if the culture is valuable and contributes to achieving objectives, then it has the potential to generate competitive advantage. In addition, Schein explains that internal integration is where organisational practices are learned through socialisation in the workplace.

To illustrate external adaptation and internal integration, consider the orientation and focus of an organisation's security. Maynard and Ruighaver (2006) discovered in their case study research that there are many organisations that address their security needs based on being forced to conform to external audit and government requirements or to meet international industry standards. As a result, the focus of their risk management procedures are often only on meeting the externally set regulations or standards rather than on actually improving their security (Maynard & Ruighaver, 2006). The emphasis is geared towards passing an audit to prove that they have achieved a goal, rather than on achieving the best security solution to meet the needs of the organisation. This focus on external forces means they often neglect to have an internal focus. In Maynard and Ruighaver’s study the case study organisations that tended to have the best security solutions had a focus that was both inward and outward looking. In organisations such as these, while it was important to conform to legislative requirements, and in some cases to standards, they undertook these tasks all the while looking internally in order to determine how best the organisation could benefit from these things. As a consequence of these actions, organisational policies, processes and procedures were influenced and adopted in a positive fashion.

Ruighaver, Maynard and Chang (2006) developed a framework of eight dimensions of culture in the context of developing a security culture based on a number of previously published case studies. They explain that an organisation is influenced by both external factors and internal needs. In the context of developing a security culture, they assert that the external focus should at least include an awareness of
the external environment of the organisation, together with how this changes over time. They also suggest it is important for the organisation to build up an awareness of its internal environment. For instance, if the organisation is not trying to identify what security breaches do or could occur and why, it will never know if its security strategies are effective and how they can be improved and future proofed.

This security environment example highlights that organisational culture is shaped by multiple factors and requires a multifaceted approach. Schein (1992) explains that the organisational culture is shaped by external environment and the industry within which it operates, the size and nature of the organisation’s workforce, technologies and the process and procedures the organisation uses, the organisation’s history, the structure of the organisation, ownership, and leadership behaviours. Consequently, work environments reinforce culture on a daily basis. This is achieved by encouraging employees to demonstrate cultural values through their behaviours and actions.

Human behaviour must also be understood in the context of social influence. Hollinshead, Nicholls and Tailby (2003) explain human behaviour through the operant conditioning model, where conditioning is considered to be the process through which an individual learns to associate and expect certain responses to specific stimuli. Operant conditioning is learning what consequences to expect, either desirable or undesirable, when demonstrating certain behaviours, and this in turn influences whether the behaviour is repeated by the individual (Sorensen, 2002). With the probability of an event occurring depending on its consequences, it is also known as instrumental conditioning. Considerable research on the operant model has been based on the seminal research done by Thorndike (1905) and Skinner (1948), which is founded in the basic principle known as the law of effect. The law of effect posits that behaviours followed by positive outcomes are more likely to be repeated than behaviours with negative outcomes. Rewards and punishments affect an individual’s behaviour, so it is possible to shape the behaviours of individuals by reinforcing immediate behaviours, as a way of ultimately producing the desired demonstration of future behaviours (McShane & von Glinow, 2008).
An early study in operant conditioning in the workplace was undertaken by Komaki (1978) in a wholesale bakery. The study sought to improve safety in the organisation and, ultimately, reduce the number of injuries that employees were incurring by using a three-step process so as to promote safe work practices. A three-step process was applied by Komaki that including: (i) specifying safety performance expectations, (ii) measuring safe working on the job, and (iii) ensuring timely and frequent positive feedback including contingent consequences for desired safety practices. The outcomes of the process resulted in an increase of employees performing safely 70-78 per cent of the time to 96-99 per cent of the time.

This can be translated to people within an organisation when learning how to operate within the organisation’s culture and developing suitable and accepted ways of behaving within the environment.

Social cognitive theory supports the theories of operant conditioning, instrumental conditioning, and law of effect, yet extends these models to include reciprocal causation. Social cognitive theory proposes triadic bi-directional influences between behaviour, cognition and other personal factors, and environmental influences.

In addition to explicit agreements and formal rules, implicit and informal pressures to conform to social norms can influence behaviour. Duffy et al. (2012) categorise these pressures as:

- **Normative** is behaving as one thinks one should and conformity based on one’s desire to fulfil others’ expectations and gain acceptance, not necessarily because one actually believes the things one is doing or saying. For example, when a new employee joins an organisation they may arrive with a strong sense of self and have always progressed their career by working long hours, working through lunch and late into the evening. However, in the new organisation, the team they are working in do not work extended hours and always take a scheduled lunch break together. While this is not aligned to the work ethic values of the new employee, in a desire to be accepted by their new team they conform to the group norm because they want their new colleagues to like them.

- **Informational** is responding to stimuli, and conformity under acceptance of evidence about reality which has been provided by others. When an individual is in a situation where they are unsure of
the correct way in which to behave, they will often look to others for cues regarding appropriate behaviour. For example, over time an employee may notice that the people in their team are not afraid to highlight their individual successes in public forums or to people in positions of influence. As a result, they begin to self-promote in the same way. An individual conforms because they believe that others’ interpretation of an ambiguous situation is more accurate than their own and helps them decide on an appropriate response and course of action.

- Referent informational is responding to stimuli in certain specific contexts, and conformity to match the collectively defined attributes of a specific social group. For example, over time an employee working in an organisation will begin to adopt the values and beliefs of their organisation, and adjust their career self-management behaviours to align with those norms. Standards that are applicable in groups we are part of and that we feel are important to us affect our actions.

The theories of social influence on employee behaviour in the context of organisations are important to understand as the impacts of organisational culture on employee behaviours and outcomes is far-reaching. Numerous studies have already established that organisational culture affects employee’s productivity (Ojo, 2009), performance (Denison, 1984; Ojo, 2009), commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rashid et al., 2003), creativity (Denison, 1984), satisfaction (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Denison, 1984) and ethical behaviour (Sinclair, 1993; Victor & Cullen, 1988). Organisational culture has been empirically determined to be one of the key factors in influencing employee behaviour and the success of organisations.

Given the pervasiveness of organisational culture and its impact on employee behaviours and outcomes, further understanding this dynamic between organisational culture and its impact on employee behaviours is important. An improved understanding is useful for organisations and employees alike, should they wish to adapt and adjust the organisational culture and/or their behaviours with the objective of achieving desired outcomes. Just as organisational culture influences employee behaviours, employee behaviours and actions reinforce that culture every day. Therefore, to provide a theoretical understanding of the relationship between organisational culture, career self-management, and career success, the following section of this chapter attempts to apply Social Cognitive Theory as developed by Bandura
(1986) and elements of Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994) in the context of the focus of this research study.

2.6 Organisational culture and career self-management for career success in the context of SCT and SCCT

Lent, Brown and Hackett (1994, p. 117) described social cognitive career theory (SCCT) as “dealing primarily with developmental tasks that occur before, during career entry, and just after”. Consequently the literature applying SCCT to career development focuses on issues related to early adolescence, college entry, and transition from college to work (Gibbons & Borders, 2010; Ramos-Sánchez & Nichols, 2007), rather than the development of career progression once in the workforce. This research study is interested in investigating the career development of adults already in the workforce. A second element of SCCT that requires further empirical investigation is contextual factors, particularly in the form of perceived barriers to career development (Brown & Lent, 2016). Substantial research has established that an individual’s decision making process is affected by the perceived barriers to their career development (Luzzo, 1995, 1996; Swanson & Woitke, 1997). Luzzo and Hutcheson (1996) undertook a study to extend previous research by addressing gender differences in perceived occupational barriers. Their findings discovered that family-related issues were perceived as a greater barrier by women than men.

Results also revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between the number of perceived occupational barriers and the career maturity for individuals who believe their career decision-making is an externally driven and an uncontrollable process. Swanson and colleagues (1996, p. 238) have stated, however, that “. . . do not fit neatly into one particular aspect of the Lent et al. (1994) SCCT model”. Organisational culture has not been applied by researchers as a potential barrier or environmental factor in the application of career self-management for career success outcomes in the context of social cognitive theory, which this research study aims to do.
In addition to the perception of barriers, seeking a greater understanding of self-efficacy and the role it plays in coping with barriers and challenges in approaching one’s career and career development is important. It has been theorised that coping efficacy may regulate whether an individual will endeavour to and successfully overcome the barriers they face in their career development (Bandura, 1997; Lyons et al., 2015). Pessimistic outcome expectations have been described as the barriers an individual perceives in their career adjustment (Buyukgoze-Kavas, 2016; Garcia et al., 2015), and SCCT predicts the perception of barriers to career development is related to outcome expectations (Lent et al., 2000) but is yet to be definitely supported by academic investigation (Lent et al., 2001). Due to limited research, this proposed theoretical relationship deserves further enquiry. This will be attempted in this research study by investigating the application of career self-management behaviours, and how the perception of reception, effectiveness, and application of ease moderates the application of those behaviours within organisational cultures.

In this study, SCCT (Lent et al., 1994, 1996) will be used to contribute to the explanation of the complex phenomenon of career self-management behaviours and their application within organisational cultures. Current efforts to advance the understanding of career development mostly emphasise organisational elements (e.g. formal training, organisational coaching and support) and person factors (e.g. gender, personal characteristics). While these factors are likely to affect an individual’s experience of their learning and contribute to their career decisions and success, these approaches neglect the potential interactions between personal factors and the organisation’s cultural environment that create the experiences which ultimately influence the application of career self-management behaviours of its employees and potentially affect the effectiveness of those behaviours.

Grounded in Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive theory, SCCT recognises that an individual learns through their interactions with their environment and others. SCCT also recognises an individual’s ability to self-regulate, self-direct their learning, their levels of motivation, and their goal setting in affecting behavioural change. Furthermore, SCCT also clearly reflects social cognitive theory principles by incorporating the reciprocal influences and interactions of personal and environmental elements in affecting career
behaviours. SCCT also addresses the importance of the context in which the individual is engaged. In the case of this research study, the context pertinent to individuals is the organisational culture. According to Lent and Brown (1996), the SCCT model is a foundation for unifying existing career theories and for conceptualising career development and remedial interventions. Thus, it provides a useful model for contributing to understanding the phenomenon of career success. However, what researchers have not yet done is applied the model to the assessment of subjective and objective career success as influenced by the application of career self-management behaviours within the context of organisational cultures.

Further, the SCCT framework emphasises the prominence of personal agency in the career decision-making process and the impact internal and external factors have on personal agency, interpretation, efforts and achievement of career goals (Lent et al., 1994). SCCT proposes that occupational interests, career goals and the choices individuals make are developed from self-efficacy beliefs and attainment/outcome expectations. The theory states that self-efficacy beliefs and attainment/outcome expectations are determined and influenced by four main sources of information: (i) exposure to successful role models; (ii) personal success experiences; (iii) positive affective reactions; and (iv) social and verbal persuasive communications (Lent et al., 1994). These can be considered in this research respectively as: (i) achieved career objectives, (ii) perception of reception and application of ease, (iii) an organisational culture that supports the application of career self-management behaviours, and (iv) the perceived effectiveness of those behaviours in achieving objective and subjective career success.

SCCT specifically outlines three interconnecting processes whereby (i) an individual develops their career interests; (ii) career-relevant choices are driven by interests and other socio-cognitive mechanisms; and (iii) levels of career persistence and performance are reached. An individual’s background variables (such as gender, work values and attributes) are said to interact with and influence the learning experiences to which the individual is exposed (Lent et al., 1994). This study, in contrast to the SCCT model, does not focus on the development of people’s career interests or choices, nor environmental influences external to the organisation’s culture. It is proposed in this study that the application of employee career self-management behaviours is bound by organisational cultural conditions, and it is the organisational
environment that affects employee career behaviour by communicating what types of behaviour are believed to be appropriate and acceptable, and vice versa.

Of particular interest in this study from the SCCT model is performance goals, which refer to the level of accomplishment an individual aspires (Lent & Brown, 1996). Within SCCT, the performance model is often seen as a useful way to explain individual goal attainment (Su, 2018) and is consistent with the triadic reciprocal view of Social Cognitive Theory interaction. There is a feedback loop proposed by SCCT, between performance achievements and subsequent behaviour (Lent & Brown, 1996). According to Lent et al. (1996), SCCT is concerned with two key aspects of career performance: (i) the level of accomplishment individuals achieve in their work and career (e.g. promotion, salary) which in this study is considered as the combination of subjective and objective career success, and (ii) the degree to which individuals persist at work and in their career, despite perceived barriers and obstacles (e.g. job satisfaction). In this study job satisfaction is considered an element of success attainment, therefore the degree to which individuals persist is measured by the degree of their application of each of the career self-management behaviours.

There is significant empirical evidence to support SCCT’s explanation for the relationship between career-related behaviour and outcomes. Given the mounting empirical support for SCCT’s utility with respect to explaining career development, SCCT elements should also be considered when examining predictors of career success. Therefore by using the SCT and SCCT frameworks, the following factors are being investigated in this research study and their predicted causative relationship is depicted in Figure 6.

1. Organisational culture (Environment)
2. Career self-management behaviours (Behaviours)
3. Perception of reception, effectiveness and application of ease (Personal)
4. Achievement of objective and subjective career success (Outcomes/Attainment).

This proposed theoretical relationship (Figure 6) suggests that career self-management behaviours (Behaviour) and their effectiveness in contributing to the achievement of objective and subjective career
success (Outcomes/Attainments) will be influenced by the organisational culture (Environmental Factors). It is also expected that the perceived reception, effectiveness, and ease of application (Personal Factors) of the career self-management behaviours (Behaviour) will be influenced by the organisational culture (Environmental Factors).

Figure 6. The proposed theoretical relationship between career self-management behaviours, personal factors and organisational culture on the achievement of objective and subjective career success as adapted from SCT and SCCT models (developed for this research study).

Social Cognitive Theory, Career Theory and Career Self-Management Theory, postulate that an individual’s career is developed over a period of time within a specific social-cognitive environment. It is within this environment that employees develop their careers and ultimately career success. As suggested in SCT, this study recognises the importance of, and reciprocal interactions between, behaviours (career self-management), Personal (perception of reception, effectiveness, and application of ease of those behaviours), and Environment (organisational culture). Moreover, the study also acknowledges the importance of the learning loop in the Attainment of Outcomes (achievement of objective and subjective career success) and reflected in SCCT.
The career variables selected to be investigated was based on the belief that peak human development is the result of favourable person-in-context, and that individuals are active, self-regulating, and self-constructioning (Vondracek et al., 2010). In line with this perspective, variables were selected that are theoretically important and empirically established to explain the differences in career self-management in order to investigate their benefit at the individual level in the context of an organisation’s culture.

The next chapter reviews the literature regarding career and career success, career self-management, and organisational culture.
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of theoretical and empirical research and the models related to this thesis to discover existing knowledge in relation to the application of career self-management behaviours on career success outcomes within different types of organisational culture. The chapter discusses the key factors identified in the theoretical framework detailed in Chapter 2, in particular the following are discussed: frameworks and models of organisational culture, career success and career self-management behaviour. The chapter also includes an examination of research pertaining specifically to the relationship between organisational culture, career self-management and career success, followed by a justification for each. The chapter ends with a conceptual framework for the thesis.

3.2 Organisational Culture

As outlined in Chapter 1, organisational culture describes the underlying values, beliefs, and principles of an organisation’s management system, as well as the management practices and behaviours that exemplify and reinforce those principles (Denison, 1990). Martin and Siehl (1983) described organisational culture as the glue that holds an organisation’s shared patterns of meaning together. More recently Daft (2012) explained organisational culture as the culmination of common values, beliefs, understandings and norms shared by employees that are passed on to new organisational members. Since the 1980s, researchers, consultants and business practitioners have paid much attention to the concept of organisational culture. When endeavouring to understand culture’s influence on numerous organisational and individual outcomes, scholars have sought to systematise organisational values, norms, beliefs and assumptions into meaningful frameworks (Alvesson, 2012; Helms Mills & Mills, 2017; Schein, 1984). Scholars have also assessed cultural consensus or the degree to which employees share organisational values, norms or beliefs (Cameron & Quinn, 2005; Denison et al., 2014; Sarros et al., 2005). As in the case of the conceptualisation of culture, there is little agreement on the way to measure and profile organisational cultures.
Despite its broad definition and challenges with measuring it, researchers agree that organisational culture can positively influence employees’ attitudes, behaviours, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and wellbeing (Findler et al., 2007; Sikorska-Simmons, 2006). Empirical evidence also links organisational culture to positive work attitudes (Kontoghiorghes, 2015), decreased turnover rates (Glisson & Green, 2006), improved quality (Tyagi et al., 2013), positive perceptions of client outcomes (Boyce et al., 2015), innovation (Naqshbandi, Sharan & Pin, 2015), and creativity (Jaskyte, 2004, 2008). This study aims to identify the differences in the effectiveness of career self-management in achieving career success within different organisational cultures. Therefore it is important to be able to define, measure and categorise organisational culture. The following section outlines the Competing Values Framework which has been used as the foundation for the assessment model applied in this research.

3.2.1 The Competing Values Framework

In an attempt to create a method for measuring organisational culture, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) developed the Competing Values Framework to assess the major indicators of effective organisational performance within various types of organisations. It has since been extended as a framework that makes sense of high performance in social science disciplines and various types of organisations. The framework has been used to organise and understand a vast range of organisational and individual phenomena, including theories of organisational performance, leadership roles and capabilities, organisational culture, organisational structure and design, the stages of the business life cycle, total quality management, operational and financial strategies, knowledge management and information processing, and even brain functioning (Cameron, 2011).

Quinn and Rohrbaugh’s (1983) competing values model, illustrated in Figure 7, p.63, consists of two dimensions with contrasting poles. Organisations can score high on none, one or any combination of the orientations. The internal and external poles of the model represent the organisation’s focus, which can be internal or external. An internal focus emphasises the organisation itself, its processes, or its people.
Alternatively, an external focus views an organisation’s relationship with its environment as the central issue. The contrasting poles of flexibility and control form the second dimension of the model. When these two dimensions are combined, the following four organisational culture orientations result: support, innovation, rules and goal orientation (Van Muijen & Koopman, 1994; Van Muijen et al., 1999).

Figure 7. The competing values model (van Muijen et al., 1999).

The competing values model is circumplex because values of behavioural patterns for each orientation share some characteristics with values or behavioural patterns for the adjacent orientation. By way of example, support and innovation orientations share an emphasis on flexibility and co-operation between colleagues. Innovation and goal orientations share an external focus. Stability and control (the rules orientation) are opposed to creativity and change (the innovation orientation). Team spirit and co-operation, along with aspects of support orientation, contrast with goal orientation and are partly comprised of contingent reward and accountability (Jaap van Muijen et al., 1999). Therefore, positive correlations exist between adjoining orientations, and negative correlations exist between diametrical orientations, for example, between control and flexibility (Muijen, Koopman, Witte & Bast, 1996). Understanding this model is important to assist in comparing and contrasting the results of this research study between the two case study organisations: one family-owned and -operated organisation and one government-owned and -operated organisation. The
following section of this chapter explains the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument, which is the model used to assess culture within this study.

### 3.2.2 The Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument

Applying the competing values model, Cameron and Quinn (1999) proposed a classification system comprised of the following four widely-used cultural forms: clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market (see Figure 8, p.64). Research has led to the development of multiple instruments and methods to measure this. One of the most popular instruments is Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), which has been used extensively in organisational research (Cameron, 2011). The instrument offers an intuitive and simple way to organise types of culture (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). In addition, the established strength in validity and reliability of the OCAI is an attribute that rival models lack (Paparone, 2003). Although the competing values framework proposes these four different cultures, they are suggested as ideal types, and organisations are expected to reflect all four cultures to some extent.

![Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999)](Image)

Figure 8. Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).
A clan culture is archetypical for an organisation that concentrates on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for employees, and a sensitivity to customers. This culture emphasises human relations and adopts flexible operation procedures that focus on internal relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Core values of clan cultures include co-operation, consideration, agreement, fairness and social equality. Cameron and Quinn (1999) described the environment of an organisation with clan culture to be a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves and consider their co-workers to be extended family. Leaders in organisations with clan cultures are viewed as mentors, and the organisation is held together by worker loyalty and tradition.

Adhocracy culture focuses on external positioning with a high level of flexibility and individuality, supported by an open system that encourages and promotes individuals to take action (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). An adhocracy organisation values innovation, creativity, experimentation, risk, autonomy and responsiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Leaders are visionary and innovative, and success is indicated by the production of original products and services.

Market culture describes organisations that work toward clear and rational goals, which are achieved through high levels of productivity and economic operations. Market culture organisations tend to be result-orientated and concentrate on getting the job done. Members of these organisations value competitiveness, diligence, perfectionism, aggressiveness and personal initiative (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Leaders within a market culture are inclined to be hard-driving producers who are intent on outperforming competitors. These leaders are also determined to be at the forefront of their fields by maintaining stability and control, and focusing on transactions with external bodies, such as suppliers and customers (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Finally, hierarchical culture focuses on internal maintenance and aims to maintain stability and control through task setting and the enforcement of strict rules and guidelines. Accordingly, hierarchical cultures tend to adopt a formal approach to workplace relationships in which leaders must be strong coordinators.
and organisers who convey organisational values and ideals. Value is placed on economy, formality, rationality, order and obedience (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

There has been extensive research using the CVF and OCAI to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and a broad range of topics across the globe. In a study on the influence of corporate culture types on employee job satisfaction, Lund (2003) determined that in North America clan and adhocracy cultures elicited significantly higher levels of employee job satisfaction compared with market and hierarchy cultures. Zavyalova and Dmitry (2010) examined the correlation between organisational culture, psychological contract and job satisfaction in the context of cooperation between employers and employees in a new social and economic environment in Russian companies. The research showed that organisations with different types of organisational culture differ in the level of job satisfaction of employees. According to their findings, satisfaction of self-affirmation needs was mainly met by a market culture, satisfaction of cooperation and safety needs were mainly met by a hierarchical culture, satisfaction of respect needs was mainly met by a clan culture, and satisfaction with self-actualisation needs were mainly met by an adhocracy culture.

Sousa-Poza et al. (2001) explored the impact of cross-cultural differences on the implementation of Total Quality Management (TQM). Using the CVF to measure organisational culture, they discovered that in different regions (South Africa, Switzerland, and USA) several distinct relationships between the dimensions of the CVF and TQM implementation exist. The CVF has also been used to examine the relationships between organisational culture and other key organisational variables; for example, research was undertaken in Slovakia (Ližbetinová et al., 2016) to analyse organisational culture in logistics enterprises because it was deemed one of the key factors affecting the quality of products and the overall competitiveness of an enterprise. In Portugal, Pinho et al. (2014) explored the relationships between corporate/organisational culture, market orientation, organisational commitment and organisational performance in non-profit organisations. While it was found that organisational culture significantly impacted organisational performance, it did not on employee commitment to the organisation. Yet while organisational culture did not impact on commitment, market orientation did significantly
impact organisational commitment as well as organisational performance. Porcu et al. (2016) conducted a study in Spain to develop a measurement instrument to assess integrated marketing communication and examine the role of organisational culture in integrated marketing communication implementation. The findings provided evidence of the reliability and validity of their proposed instrument while also demonstrating that the dominance of an adhocracy (vs. market) culture contributes to building a more integrated marketing communications-friendly organisational environment.

The CVF and OCAI have also been applied in studies in Australia, which is of particular interest to this study as the research is being undertaken using Australian case study organisations; for example, exploration of the relationship between organisational culture and enterprise system success was undertaken in Australia by Birbeck (2008). The key findings of the study were that (i) clan cultures which emphasised the behaviours of developing employees were associated with enterprise system success, (ii) hierarchical cultures which accentuated the behaviours of control and coordination reports greater enterprise system success, (iii) hierarchical cultures that were not effective in maintaining control and coordination reported less success with enterprise systems, and (iv) market cultures which drove internal competitiveness among teams and employees reported less success with enterprise systems. Also in Australia, Thomas et al. (2002) investigated the differences between clan cultures and market cultures and the relationship between project completion and outcome quality. Clan cultures were correlated with improved quality outcomes, whereas market cultures were correlated with weaker quality outcomes. The management styles inherent to market cultures focused on short-term goals, and project managers were hard driving and competitive. These characteristics were not conducive to the development of cooperative, open, team environments. Instead, they were adversarial, resulting in conflict-ridden projects, and concerned with individual or organisational self-preservation. In contrast, projects that produced above average results placed a premium on team cohesion, consensus and morale, and were led by managers with a mentor or facilitator style (Thomas et al., 2002).

Despite the extensive application of the Competing Values Framework and the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument by researchers across the globe, the models have their critics. It has been
suggested that it is not effective to use standardised surveys to capture cultural differences among organisations. Fiske (2002) explains this is because the results and findings from standardised surveys are often affected by various factors including how willing members are to be direct and honest in their answers, how simplistic individuals are with their verbal or written responses, and whether multiple attributes are consolidated resulting in questions with numerous meanings lending them to personal interpretation. The concerns raised by Fiske (2002) suggest that standardised survey approaches to assessing culture constrain their ability to capture unique cultural dimensions accurately. Instead, from this perspective, it is suggested that culture is best measured and understood by gaining insight into how meaning is constructed and subjectively experienced.

OCAI critics argue that the instrument does not accurately measure culture, rather puts organisations into simplified categories created by researchers (Druckman et al., 1997). Hartnell et al. (2011), in their analysis of the CVF, suggest that the culture types with opposite orientations are not competing, but rather complementary instead. O’Reilly and Tushman (2016) present the likelihood that some of the values will exist concurrently in organisations, as was substantiated by their research showing that organisations can simultaneously emphasise efficiency and exploit a market while at the same time exploring new markets and investing in innovation. Hartnell et al. (2011) concluded that to measure for a dominant organisational culture type may be of limited use and benefit because they believe it will not be representative of the full extent of potential cultural dimensions. Jung et al. (2009) have concerns that the typological approach, despite being concise, poses the risk of forcing a researcher-created perspective in identifying cultural dimensions and determining how they are related to one another, while also stereotyping different types of culture.

Cameron and Freeman (1991) have defended the CVF model of effectiveness as a model of culture by explaining that the dimensions underlying the models organise the different patterns of shared values, assumptions and interpretations that typify organisations, therefore forming the basis of a typology of organisational cultures. They go on to explain that “because cultures are defined by the values, assumptions and interpretations of the members of the organisation, and because a common set of
dimensions organises these factors on both psychological and organisational levels, a model of culture types can be derived” (as cited in Ranchod, A., 2004, p.269). Cameron and Quinn (1991) explain the OCAI is intended to be both investigative and narrow in function, and deliberately designed to be easy to apply and interpret so as to enable understanding and participation at all levels of an organisation. Additionally, it contains generalised questions, in order to appeal and apply to many different kinds of organisations. Further, they acknowledge there is not just one culture within the organisation, but that there is likely to be a more dominant culture.

Despite OCAI’s critics, advocates of the OCAI highlight its ease in implementation and its low cost. The OCAI has been used to gather a massive amount of data on the general topic of organisational culture. Researchers have regularly proved strong predictive validity for the measures (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Di Stefano & Scrima, 2016; Heritage et al., 2014). Researchers applying the OCAI have also demonstrated reliability, providing reassurance that there is measurement consistency in the instrument. While the OCAI is a well-developed, valid and reliable instrument (Cameron and Quinn, 1999; Kalliath et al., 1999), it should be noted that it does not profess to expansively include all possible cultural phenomena found in an organisation (Paparone, 2003). Instead, it offers an intuitive and simple way to “organise organisational culture types” (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The OCAI has been chosen to apply in this study to assist in determining the organisational culture of each of the two case study organisations: one family owned and operated organisation and one government owned and operated organisation. While the hypotheses will formally be presented at the end of this chapter, it is proposed based on the definitions of the OCAI organisational culture types that the family organisation will have a clan culture and the government organisation will have a hierarchical culture. To consider this proposition further, both clan and hierarchical organisational culture types are defined and reviewed in the following section of this chapter.
3.2.3 Clan culture

In the CVF, the clan culture is similar to the hierarchy culture in that there is an inward focus with concern for integration. However, clan cultures emphasise flexibility and discretion rather than the stability and control of a hierarchical organisational culture (Cameron and Quinn, 1984). Unlike western culture, which is founded upon individualism, Japanese firms epitomised the concept of a clan culture in the 1970s and 1980s with a strong team-centred approach. This foundational understanding of team centeredness affected the way that Japanese businesses structured their organisations and approached problem solving. Their clan based organisations operated more like families, valuing cohesion, loyalty, and a humane working environment. However, it’s not just Japanese organisations that exhibit a clan culture. In fact family-run businesses often develop clan cultures (Huang, 2007; Marin et al., 2016). A clan based organisational culture has been advocated by many seminal research studies associated with the human relations movement (McGregor, 1960; Argyris, 1964; Likert, 1970).

Cameron and Quinn (1999) outline the basic assumptions of a clan culture as: (i) the workplace is best managed through teamwork and employee development, (ii) customers are considered partners, (iii) the organisation provides a compassionate workplace environment, (iv) and the leaders focus on empowering and facilitating the participation, commitment and loyalty or employees. Employees working in a clan culture tend to take initiative and accept accountability for what they do, while the company develops a self-driven learning culture, and becomes ‘challenge’ rather than ‘task’ driven (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The clan culture, as assessed in the OCAI questionnaire, is characterised as a friendly place to work and is much like an extended family. Leaders are considered mentors and even in some cases considered parent figures. The organisation is held together by loyalty and tradition, and commitment to the organisation tends to be high. The organisation emphasises the long-term view and benefit of individual development, with high cohesion, engagement, and morale being important. In addition, success is defined in terms of internal climate and concern for people. Teamwork, participation and consensus is also a top priority in the organisation (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Clan cultures have been found to be positively related to
affective organisational commitment (Lavelle et al. 2007; Podsakoff et al. 2009; Kim 2009). In fact, Hougyun (2013) found in his study based on Korea’s public sector, that clan culture played a very important mediating role in the relationship between affective commitment and transformational leadership. This suggested that a unique clan culture can be created by transformational leaders to generate the psychological or emotional attachment of employees to the organisation as well as to inspire employees’ discretionary behaviours.

Researchers have also determined that clan cultures value learning, leaders encourage employees to seek and develop new knowledge, and is an environment in which people do not feel that sharing knowledge will cost them their jobs. As a result of these characteristics individuals are free to explore and eager to learn, knowledge share, and collaborate (Davenport et al., 1998; Wiewiora et al., 2013). Dwyera et al. (2003) in their study of diversity found that the clan’s core values of teamwork, participation and cohesiveness provide an environment that fosters the varied skills and abilities of a diverse workforce. Cameron and Freeman (1991) researched academic institutions and found that in terms of employee morale and other human resource concerns, the clan culture is the most effective type of culture. One of the case study organisations participating in this study is a family owned and operated Australian organisation. Therefore this research will seek to determine if its employees perceive the family organisation to have a clan organisational culture, as described above, as well as if the clan organisational culture affects the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in achieving career success.

3.2.4 Hierarchical Culture

In the mid-twentieth century, Weber (1947) proposed seven bureaucratic organisational characteristics to efficiently produce products and services. These characteristics included hierarchy, rules, meritocracy, impersonality, specialisation, separate ownership, and accountability. Weber’s principles proved effective and were widely adopted by organisations. Management and management literature focused on the creation of hierarchical organisations until the 1960s because this led to the development of stable, efficient and highly consistent products and services. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), large organisations in disparate
industries and government agencies all provide prototypical examples of hierarchical culture. Currently, large organisations and government organisations employ hierarchical cultures due to the emphasis on standardised procedures, multiple hierarchical levels and rule enforcement. Hierarchical culture is also positively associated with process quality (Germain & Spears, 1999; Prajogo & McDermott, 2011).

Supporting the positive association, Roh et al. (2008) found that hierarchical cultures with low levels of external orientation that focused on internal processes for stability, naturally supported efficient supply change practices built on internal control mechanisms. Additionally, hierarchical culture has been found to be beneficial in the implementation of knowledge management, but not to the strategy, planning and socialisation of knowledge management (Tseng, 2010). As contemporary researchers have sought to understand the strengths and weaknesses of various organisational cultures, a less positive perspective on hierarchical culture is reported too. Multiple studies suggest that bureaucratic environments often result in lower levels of employee commitment (Kratina, 1990; Brewer, 1993; Roh et al., 2008) and performance (Trice & Beyer, 1993; Krausz et al., 1995; Roh et al., 2008).

Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) OCAI assesses the strength of an organisation’s hierarchical tendencies based on control and structure, where procedures govern what people do and leadership styles exemplify coordination, organisation and efficiency. Management approaches are characterised by conformity, security of employment, stability in relationships, and predictability. Rules and policies guide the organisation to maintain efficiencies and best practices, and place strategic emphasis on permanence and stability. The second case study organisation participating in this study is a government owned and operated Australian organisation. Therefore this research will seek to determine if its employees perceive the government organisation to have a hierarchical organisational culture, as described above, as well as whether the hierarchical organisational culture affects the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in achieving career success. The next section in this chapter discusses existing research on the effect of organisational culture on employee behaviour.
3.2.5 The Effect of Organisational Culture on Employee Behaviour

Geert Hofstede, a Dutch behavioural scientist, defined culture as the collective mental programming of a people in an environment (1980), and went on later to define culture as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another (1998). Based on the assumptions underpinning social cognitive theory there is a reciprocal interaction between behaviours and environment. Many researchers have sought to understand the interaction between behaviours and environment by investigating the relationship between organisational culture and a broad range of employee behaviours, including trust, bullying and harassment, knowledge sharing and innovation. Haddad’s (2008) research found that organisational cultures that promote openness, motivation, incentives and meetings enhance interpersonal trust between employees. Organisational culture was also found to contribute to knowledge sharing and learning within organisations by Wiewiora et al. (2013), playing an important role in establishing organisational context and foundation for social interaction. In the context of projects, it was specifically determined that certain cultural attributes were found to promote knowledge sharing, whereas others tended to hoard their knowledge.

However, just as organisational culture can encourage constructive behaviours, it can also reinforce negative behaviours. Hansen and Nohria (2004) identified organisational culture as a potential barrier to social interactions required for knowledge sharing. They found that a non-collaborative organisational culture reinforced negative employee behaviours, including resistance to engage and collaborate with others, learn from the experience of others, being unwilling to support others in their work, and resistance to sharing their knowledge and experience. For example, Hutchison et al. (2008) explained that organisations in which people leaders do not take action in response to claims of bullying and where colleagues fail to act when they witness bullying can build and reinforce a social climate in which bullying is accepted and even seen as the norm. Where norms are formed, employee actions tend to conform.
Highlighting the significant relationship between organisational culture and behavioural outcomes, Taştan (2012) undertook a study of healthcare employees working in private health care organisations to understand how the employees’ psychological processing of organisational culture practices impacted their behaviours. The results showed that all dimensions of organisational culture chosen in the study had significant influence on employees’ behavioural outcomes. Further illustrating the significant relationship between organisational culture and behaviour, Hogan (2014) collected data from 100 principals of law firms to test Schein’s model of organisational culture in the context of innovation. The findings of her study highlighted that innovative behaviours are unlikely to occur unless cultural values and norms that encourage innovation are manifested in the stories, physical layout, rituals and language of the organisation. She goes on to explain that innovative behaviours may be inhibited unless an organisation enables expected behaviours by providing workplace facilities that facilitate the opportunity for employees to discuss and share ideas openly, as well as to independently work, think and generate ideas. While Hogan’s research was not founded in social cognitive theory, it does reflect and reinforce the reciprocal relationship between behaviours and environment proposed by SCT. This research study considers organisational culture in a similar way, that is, the study examines whether organisational culture facilitates or inhibits certain career self-management behaviours.

Prior to reviewing and discussing existing empirical literature on organisational culture and its relationship to career self-management and career success outcomes, the next two sections of this chapter provide an overview of the antecedents and determinants of career success as well as the career self-management behaviours researched in this study.

### 3.2.6 Career Success Antecedents and Determinants

Careers have traditionally provided meaning and structure in organising both personal and professional lives, and perceptions of individual success (or failure) have been largely derived from one’s work and career (Kuijpers et al., 2006; Nicholson & West, 1989). As outlined in Chapter 1 as background to this thesis, for the purposes of the present research, career is defined in the context of the world of work, as
the sequence of jobs and occupations throughout a person’s life. The perception of career success is believed to vary from individual to individual, such that positive outcomes for some people may not appear to be positive to others. The notions of objective and subjective career success were developed in response to this consideration (Hughes 1937, 1958). Objective and subjective career success were also outlined in Chapter 1 as background to this study.

Judge et al. (1995) defined objective career success in terms of salary and number of promotions, and while these are certainly relevant aspects of career success, this was expanded by Judge et al. (1999) to encompass occupational status. The three objective measures of success used in this study were: total annual compensation, rank level from the CEO, and promotion rate. The same objective measures of success have been used in a range of research, including a two-year longitudinal study of alumni of a Midwestern university and their supervisors linking proactive personality and career success (Seibert et al., 2001), the effect of mentoring received and given on the career success of university administrators in North-West England (Bozionelos, 2004), and the effects of personality on career success of executives working in the United States and Europe (Boudreau, 2001).

Subjective career success refers to career satisfaction regarding all aspects of career relevant to a specific individual (Greenhaus et al., 1997) and is measured in terms of an individual’s subjective perceptions of his or her own success and based on perceptions of personal career accomplishments and future prospects (Judge et al., 1995). The subjective measures of success included in this study are those defined by Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) Perceived Career Success Model as well as Turban and Dougherty’s (1994) Career Success Scale. Greenhaus et al. (1990) first developed the Perceived Career Success Model in their study examining the relationship among race, organisational experiences, evaluation of job performance and career outcomes for managers from three different organisations. The model assesses the satisfaction of individuals with their success and progress toward achieving their goals.

Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) widely adopted model has been applied in studies such as, but not limited to, the effect of social capital on career success (Seibert et al., 2001), the influence of the work domain on life
satisfaction and happiness (Abele, Hagmaier & Spurk, 2016), and the role of emotional intelligence on
the relationship between career commitment and career success (Sultana et al., 2016). Turban and
Dougherty’s (1994) Career Success Scale introduces additional elements of perceived career success by
assessing individual satisfaction by comparing their success and progress in comparison to others and in
context of time. They applied the model to examine relationships among the personality characteristics of
mentees, initiation of mentoring, the mentoring received, and career success outcomes for managers and
professionals. Since then Turban and Dougherty’s (1994) Career Success Scale has been used to explore
career success by many researchers. Using the Career Success Scale Day and Allen (2004) investigated the
underlying processes involved in successful mentorships to reveal the connections between mentoring,
career self-efficacy, career motivation and mentee career success, Wu et al. (2008) investigated the role of
relationship closeness in developmental relationships linked to objective and subjective measures of
career success, and Aslam et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between intelligence and its influence
on managerial effectiveness and career success.

In addition to understanding the objective and subjective motivations contributing to employees’
aspirations for success in their work (Deci et al., 2017; Greenhaus, 1971; Landry et al., 2016; Super, 1990),
career researchers have been interested in understanding the antecedents of career success. In general,
early studies of career success linked demographic characteristics (Lang, 1985; Pfeffer & Ross, 1982),
socioeconomic positions (Dreher, Dougherty & Whitely, 1989), or variables such as education and
experience (Devanna, 1984; Hall & Hall, 1979), with career progression and achievement. These studies
were also primarily focused on factors determined before an individual even began employment. The
most commonly researched and identified antecedents and determinants of career success include gender
(Spurk et al., 2015; Park et al., 2016), socioeconomic status (Whitely, Dougherty & Dreher, 1991), self-
efficacy and self-esteem (Duffy et al., 2006; Cobham & Patton, 2015), mentoring (Bozionelos et al., 2015;
Bozionelos et al., 2016), networking (Spurk et al., 2015; Van Emmerik et al., 2006), and personality (Spurk
et al., 2016; Turban et al., 2016). These antecedents and determinants have been found to have a positive
relationship with career success factors such as increased salary (Tymon and Stumpf, 2003; Van Emmerik
et al., 2006), managerial and hierarchical level (Spurk et al., 2015), promotion (Lyness & Thompson,
Some of these commonly identified antecedents and determinants of career success can be described as career self-management strategies or behaviours. A career success strategy describes the sustained actions and behaviours designed to enhance subjective or objective career success (Enache et al., 2011). This research study seeks to investigate the impact of career self-management on both subjective and objective career success outcomes. While career self-management was defined and discussed in Chapter 1, the next section of this chapter discusses the model of career self-management applied in this study.

3.3 Career Strategies Inventory

As previously explained in Chapter 1, the focus of career research has shifted from the organisation to individuals (Hall, 2002), and in particular the importance of career self-management. Lent and Brown (2013) have defined career self-management as a set of behaviours that individuals use to assist them direct their own career development, both under favourable conditions and when confronted by barriers and stressful conditions. This includes behaviours that are used both proactively in anticipation of an outcome and in response to situations in which an individual is confronted with. Therefore career self-management reflects the increasing transference of career management responsibilities from the organisation to the individual. Different types of career strategies or behaviours have been identified in the empirical literature. Examples of these researched behaviours include: extended work involvement (Coffey, 1994), self-nomination (Noe, 1996), improving skills and qualifications (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998), building a reputation (Kilduff & Krackhardt, 1994), and building relationships (Caroll & Teo, 1996). The ability to quantitatively measure these behaviours is important for this study in its aim to determine the relationship between career self-management behaviours and career success within both hierarchical and clan organisational cultures.
As a means to measure career self-management, Gould and Penley (1984) designed the Career Strategies Inventory based upon a review of the career literature and defined 26 single-statement items relating to seven career strategies: extended work involvement, self-promotion, creating opportunities, seeking career guidance, opinion conformity, and networking. Gould and Penley’s Career Strategies Inventory is of particular interest in this study because it has been applied in a multitude of studies since. Schwoerer (1990) used the Career Strategies Inventory to develop a theoretical framework in which individual and organisational factors interact to influence career self-management and career outcomes. Her results provided substantial evidence that the construct of career self-efficacy can increase understanding of career self-management behaviour. Barnett and Bradley (2007) found that organisation-sponsored career development, proactive personality and career management behaviours were all positively related to career satisfaction. The researchers also reported that the relationship between proactive personality and career satisfaction was mediated by career management behaviours. Once education level and tenure were controlled, an individual’s demonstration of career management behaviour explained nine per cent additional variance in career satisfaction. In a more recent study the predictors of protean career and the moderating role of career strategies among individuals working in the Malaysian electrical and electronics industry was examined by Wong et al. (2015). Their findings revealed that the relationship between goal orientation and protean career among professional employees was significantly moderated by the application of career strategies.

Career self-management behaviours were explored in this study utilising Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory. However, as was done by Schwoerer (1990), the instrument was slightly modified by eliminating the subscale addressing conformity with supervisor’s opinion which did not predict career outcomes in the Gould and Penley study. Following is a brief review of the literature on each of the five career-self-management behaviours incorporated in this study.
3.3.1 Creating opportunities

Seminal research in the field of career (Hall, 1976; Jennings, 1971) argued that an upwardly mobile manager should develop their own skills and seek out experiences to assist in increasing the number of career options available to them. Jennings (1971) also recommended developing skills and expertise of value to one’s superior and the overall objectives of the organisation. This may include investing in formal training or education such as an MBA qualification which would be a transferable qualification, or could be an investment in qualifications that are specifically of value to a particular organisation, occupation or industry. However, creating opportunities is more than equipping oneself with the knowledge and skills to do something; a level of proactivity is required to search out problems that no one else is addressing and offer to work on it.

The degree to which an individual has a considered strategy for developing her/his career is measured by creating opportunity behaviours. Gould and Penley (1984) found creating opportunity behaviours was positively associated with salary progression. Eby et al. (2003) undertook a study to examine career competencies proposed as important predictors of success in the boundary-less career and found that creating opportunities and continuing to develop one’s skill set is related to career success. The suggestion that it is essential in today’s economy that an individual should continuously learn and manufacture and diversify their skill set has been discussed comprehensively in the literature (e.g., Arthur & Rousseau, 1996a; Arthur et al., 1999; Kuznia et al., 2010). Eby et al. (2003) suggest that individuals with a broad set of skills sets and are open to new learning experiences report greater satisfaction in their career as they feel better equipped to address the challenges in their career and also have a stronger sense of worth and professional identity.

Nikandrou et al. (2008) researched the impact of individual and organisational characteristics on work–family conflict and career outcomes. Their study found that individuals created their own development opportunities as a means to manage their careers. The findings also showed that career satisfaction was greater for implementing this strategy. By creating their own opportunities for development, women expanded their skills and maintained their flexibility, consequently increasing the resources available to
them when responding to work demands. This was consistent with previous research by Eby et al. (2005) who argued that developing one’s career, through training opportunities and the building of new skills, increases career satisfaction. While these studies provide valuable findings, this research study will seek to understand how the organisational culture influences individuals in creating opportunities, and how that relates to their career success, and more specifically, within a government hierarchical organisation and a privately owned family-run clan organisation.

3.3.2 Self-promotion

The purpose of self-promotion, self-nomination and self-presentation are to communicate to superiors one’s professional aspirations and at presenting oneself in the most favourable way (Gould & Penley, 1984). Strategies of self-promotion may include ensuring your manager and others of influence are aware of your career goals and objectives, making leaders aware of your accomplishments, and presenting yourself as a person that gets things done.

Self-promotion is strategy designed to manipulate how an individual’s performance is perceived by others, and is used to highlight oneself in the most favourable and capable light, with the objective of causing others to associate positive characteristics to them (Judge & Bretz, 1994). Even over 30 years ago, Schlenker (1980) claimed self-promotion was especially useful in scenarios where decisions are solely based on the individual’s assertions and are hard to verify, such as external job interviews or when tendering for projects. Researchers more recently have still found a positive relationship between interview success and self-promotion tactics in job candidates (Swider et al., 2011) meaning that individuals are more likely to get a job offer when they explicitly communicate how their work experience and qualifications closely match the needs of the job. Several studies have investigated the significance of impression management behaviours in the interview setting (McFarland, Ryan & Kriska, 2003), and they have in general concluded that self-promotion behaviours do indeed influence hiring decisions (Stevens & Kristof, 1995; Kacmar & Carlson, 1999). This conclusion is further supported in a meta-analysis suggesting that self-promotion strategies positively affect manager and interviewer evaluations of an
individual (Higgins et al., 2003). In contrast, Judge and Bretz (1994) examined the effect of political influence behaviour on career success with their results indicating that supervisor-focused tactics and adjusting one’s behaviour so they are better liked by their manager, resulted in higher levels of career success while job-focused tactics resulted in lower levels of career success outcomes.

What these studies have not investigated in the context of self-promotion is how an organisation’s cultural environment may influence an individual’s application of the behaviour, or if in fact the organisation’s culture affects the effectiveness of self-promotion in contributing to career outcomes. This study aims to explore the relationship between self-promotion, career success outcomes, and different organisational cultures in Australia.

3.3.3 Extended work involvement

According to the ideal worker model, the productivity and commitment of an employee is judged by the total hours that the employee spends at the workplace (Hewlett, 2007; Thompson, 2008). Extended work involvement measures the degree to which an individual spends time for their work beyond the ‘regular working time’. Extended work involvement also includes efforts made to address work-related issues when outside of the working environment (Gould and Penley, 1984). Researchers have continued the work of Gould and Penley, including Nikandrou et al. (2008), whose study examined the dynamics of individual and organisational characteristics in work–family conflict and career outcomes. Their findings were that the only career management behaviour with a positive effect on work–family conflict was extended work involvement. Extended work involvement indicates that the individual is more preoccupied with work, and therefore increases the amount of time and effort allocated to work, which unsurprisingly leads to increased work–life conflict. The study found that only extended work involvement, among all career self-management behaviours measured in the study, had a positive impact on promotion rate (objective career outcomes). Hard work was also found to directly and indirectly lead to career satisfaction through promotion rate. In contrast, Beckers (2008) in his study found overtime work was related to low job satisfaction.
Despite overwhelmingly known negative effects of overworking, such as increased risk of illness and injury (Spurgeon, Harrington & Cooper, 1997) and loss of time with family (Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2008), a few studies have reported that working long hours and/or overtime work are positively associated with happiness. Okulicz-Kozaryn (2011) found in studies of American workers that overtime work may fit one’s value system. In the US context, working long hours is generally valued by Americans because it leads to higher income, which is then believed to increase happiness (Holt, 1998). Yet, while research has demonstrated that more money does not directly enhance happiness in economically developed nations (Chen, 2012), overtime work often results in increased income, which has been shown to promote one’s mental health through reduced financial stress (Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2006). Additionally, Grey et al. (2004) claims that an individual’s job satisfaction and sense of achievement can be improved by overtime work when it allows more time to be spent working on important tasks.

What these studies have not addressed, and what this study seeks to further understand, is the relationship between organisational culture and how it influences the individual application of extended work involvement.

### 3.3.4 Seeking career guidance

Seminal research (Hall, 1976; Jennings, 1971) proposed that seeking career guidance from a mentor or more experienced person or mentor, either inside or outside the organisation, could provide people with advantages in their career. These advantages included sponsorship, easier entry into the organisational structure and provision of guidance for career decisions. Early researchers presented theories that the results of these advantages included possibility of faster promotion (Levinson et al., 1978) and significant enhancement of salary progression (Sheehy, 1976).

Following on from this seminal research, several meta-analyses since then have shown mentoring is only a very modest predictor of an individual’s career progression, but is a good predictor of an individual’s
career satisfaction (Ng, Eby, Sorensen & Feldman, 2005; Underhill, 2006). Turban and Dougherty (1994) suggested self-initiated mentoring as an indicator that traditional mentoring may be received and subsequent career attainment then mediated by the mentoring received. Attitudinal change together with shifts in individual motivation are also regarded as important outcomes of career guidance interventions. In a study undertaken by DeCastro et al. (2015) exploring aspects of mentoring that may influence the career satisfaction of medical faculty, it was found that time spent engaged with the mentor, extent of mentoring received in various roles, mentor behaviours, the health of the mentoring relationship, and the reputation of the mentor were all significantly associated with career satisfaction.

While all these studies confirm the importance and positive contribution of seeking career guidance with career outcomes, they have not sought to understand the impact the organisational culture may have in facilitating or inhibiting the ability to seek out career guidance. By addressing this identified void in the literature, this study aims to close this gap in knowledge specifically by focusing this research within a government-owned and -operated organisation and a family-owned and-operated organisation.

### 3.3.5 Networking

Networking is defined by Gould and Penley (1984), in their career strategies inventory, as the exercise of developing a network of contacts inside and outside the organisation, thus providing the individual with relevant career information and support. Networking has been found to be related to career outcomes of managers such as salary progression and promotions (Michael & Yukl, 1993; Forret & Dougherty, 2004), as well as to more direct and immediate benefits such as access to organisational information and ideas, help in searching for job opportunities, social support, and assistance in fulfilling role responsibilities (e.g., gaining access to financial resources, providing business leads) (Forret & Dougherty, 1997). Having a network of relationships that support an individual’s career development has been shown to be related to increased work satisfaction, career progression and employee retention (Higgins 2000; Higgins & Thomas, 2001). Overall, networking and the professional relationships an individual has with others has been shown to have a powerful impact on one’s career.
Network-building behaviours improve an individual’s access to job-related information, an understanding of the political landscape in the organisation, increased support from others, more resources made available, while also stimulating personal initiative, i.e., behaviours that go beyond formal work requirements (Ferris et al., 2007; Morrison, 2002). Networking is a key career self-management strategy that is consistently associated with measures of objective and subjective career success, as empirical research shows network-building behaviours are also associated with a manager rating the individual as a high performer (Thompson, 2005). Additionally, Forret and Dougherty (2004) found that increasing one’s internal visibility as part of the network-building behaviours was positively related to the amount of total compensation, the number and rate of promotions, and perceived career success. Ensher, Thomas and Murphy (2001) also identified the relationship between networks and perceived career success. A study by Bozionelos (2008) investigated the relationship of intra-organisational network resources with career success and organisational commitment. The study found that total intra-organisational network resources were related to objective and subjective career success, and to affective organisational commitment.

Not all studies have found a positive relationship between networking and career outcomes. By contrast, De Vos and Soens (2008) failed to find any support for a direct relationship between networking, employability, and career satisfaction. In addition, Nikandrou et al. (2008) did not find a significant relationship between networking and career satisfaction for women in their study in Greek organisations.

Despite the many studies that have investigated the effectiveness of networking in achieving career outcomes, what has not been investigated is the impact organisational culture has on individual application of networking behaviours. This research study seeks to identify if the cultures of a government and/or family owned and operated organisation, and an individual’s perception of how networking will be received within that organisation, affects their demonstration of networking behaviours and consequently the effectiveness of their networking on career outcomes.
The next section of this chapter reviews the literature on career self-management and career success in context of organisational culture.

3.4 Organisational Culture, Career Self-Management and Career Success

Chapter 1 presented background information on organisational career management versus career self-management as well as the relationship between the organisation and career, and Chapter 2 further discussed the relationship between organisational culture, behaviours and outcomes. Individuals who take responsibility for managing their own careers also expect an active contribution from their employers, because each complement one another and are positively related. In return for these activities, individuals expect organisational contributions. Yu (2009) found that when organisations and individuals shared responsibility for the careers of knowledge workers, employees were likely to have more successful careers, which improved organisational performance. Organisations may need to provide organisational career management support to help employees work towards their career goals. In turn, this could result in harder working and more committed employees, ultimately increasing organisational performance. It is proposed in this study, however, that creating processes and procedures in organisational career management is not enough. Individuals are navigating and implementing career self-management behaviours and strategies within an organisational culture that itself may facilitate or inhibit the very processes, procedures and systems designed to support them. This proposition is supported by the call for career scholarship to refocus research efforts on both agency and organisational context in the study of career success outcomes (Inkson et al., 2012). Of the research that has been found to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and career, a few researchers have considered all three concepts of organisational culture, career self-management and career success. These studies are discussed, as follows.

One of the studies found to have applied the three concepts of organisational culture, career self-management and career success in their research was by Nikandrou and Panayotopoulo (2008). They investigated self-esteem, career management strategies, multiple life role commitment, organisational culture and career encouragement among a sample of 399 women working in various managerial roles in a number
of Greek organisations. Career satisfaction and promotion rates were used as measures of career success. Scales were developed to assess four career management strategies, including: mentoring and networking, self-presentation, creating opportunities and extended work involvement. Organisational culture was measured using three scales taken from the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004), including performance orientation, humane orientation and assertiveness. Nikandrou and Panayotopoulo (2008) found that individual and organisational characteristics affected work–family conflicts and career outcomes. A positive relationship was found between the career management strategies of creating opportunities and extended work involvement with career satisfaction. The organisational cultural value of performance orientation was positively related to career satisfaction, but negatively related to salary satisfaction. Promotion rates were negatively impacted by an assertiveness culture, but positively impacted by the career self-management strategy of extended work involvement. In addition, participants reported greater levels of career satisfaction in organisations that provided career encouragement. Nikandrou and Panayotopoulo (2008) identified a major limitation of their study as the complexity of the model and the use of cross-sectional data in causal modelling. These factors made it difficult for the researchers to disentangle the causal directions of relationships. Also, the study only surveyed females, which created a gender bias that prevented results from being broadly generalised to males. Nikandrou and Panayotopoulo’s research does not directly address the same relationships as those covered by this thesis; however, the researchers did apply measures of organisational culture, career self-management and career success.

The second study found to have applied the three concepts of organisational culture, career self-management and career success in their research was by Barnett and Bradley (2007). They explored the methods by which organisations may apply strategies to enhance the career satisfaction of their employees and potentially increase the ability of the organisation to attract and retain employees. Although one focus of their study was on the role that organisational support plays in employees’ career satisfaction, the researchers also considered the role that individuals play in their own career success, particularly given the trend toward more self-driven career management in the last few decades (Baruch, 2006). Public and private sector employees working in Australia and participating in career development activities
completed a survey regarding their proactivity, organisational sponsored career development, career self-management behaviours and career satisfaction. Career self-management behaviours were measured using two scales: six items developed by Gould (1984), and 16 items developed by Sturges (2002). Career satisfaction was measured using the five-item career satisfaction scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). Barnett and Bradley (2007) found that organisation-sponsored career development, proactive personality and career management behaviours were all positively related to career satisfaction. The researchers also reported that career management behaviours mediated the relationship between proactive personality and career satisfaction. One unexpected result of Barnett and Bradley’s study was that there was no support for career management behaviours mediating organisational sponsored career development and career satisfaction. According to Barnett and Bradley, these results were inconsistent with social cognitive career theory, which posits that environmental resources may impact satisfaction indirectly through their impact on goal-directed activities. The researchers proposed it is likely that highly proactive people will engage in career management behaviours, independent of perceptions of organisationally-sponsored career development (Barnett & Bradley, 2007), because individuals with a proactive disposition are relatively unconstrained by situational forces (Crant, 2000). One limitation was the sample size—consisting only of 90 participants from various organisations—which made it difficult to control for varying expectations on organisational support for career development. Further, the sample population were undertaking career self-development training, which may have skewed the results.

In summary, the above section aimed to identify existing research that consider the same three factors of organisational culture, career self-management and career success as included in this study. Of the research reviewed in this chapter, that of Barnett and Bradley (2007) is most similar to the current thesis; however, one very important difference was that Barnett and Bradley considered the moderating variable to be career self-management. That is, they sought to determine if career self-management behaviours moderated the effectiveness of organisational career support (the organisational environment) on career success outcomes. In contrast, the current study seeks to determine the potential impact organisational culture has on the application of career self-management behaviours in the achievement of career success. This study, while also conducted in Australia and within the public and private sectors, uses two case
study organisations to allow for greater control of situational factors and also uses a larger sample size.

This literature review indicates that researchers have not yet empirically studied the relationship of organisational culture, career self-management and career success, specifically among the organisational cultures of both a government owned and operated organisation and a family owned and operated organisation. Hypotheses have been developed as a result of this literature review to address the research questions outlined in Chapter 1, and in the context of the two Australian case study organisations participating in the research.

3.4.1 **Research Question 1 - What organisational culture types do the participants of this study work within?**

H1 The dominant culture of the family-owned and -operated organisation has a clan organisational culture (*confirmation of previous knowledge*)

H2 The dominant culture of the government-owned and -operated organisation has a hierarchical organisational culture (*confirmation of previous knowledge*).

3.4.2 **Research Question 2 - Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?**

H3 High networking is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (*new knowledge*)

H4 High seeking career guidance is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (*new knowledge*)

H5 High creating opportunities are more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (*new knowledge*)

H6 High extended work involvement is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (*new knowledge*)
3.4.3 Research Question 3 - Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

H8 High networking is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge)

H9 High seeking career guidance is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge)

H10 High creating opportunities are more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge)

H11 High extended work involvement is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge)

H12 High self-promotion is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge).

3.4.4 Research Question 4 - Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being better received and enacted with greater ease in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

H13 Networking is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge)

H14 Seeking career guidance is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge)
Creating opportunities is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge).

Extended work involvement is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge).

Self-promotion is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge).

3.4.5 **Research Question 5 - Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being more effective in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?**

Networking is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture (new knowledge).

Seeking career guidance is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture (new knowledge).

Creating opportunities is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture (new knowledge).

Extended work involvement is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture (new knowledge).

Self-promotion is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture (new knowledge).

The next section in this chapter presents the conceptual framework for this research study.

3.5 **Conceptual Framework**

The literature reviewed in this chapter presented existing research on career success, career self-management and organisational culture. A gap exists in the literature in understanding the potential effect of an organisation’s culture on the career self-management behaviours of an individual in achieving their career...
objectives. In the theoretical context of Social Cognitive Theory, Career Theory and Career Self-
Management Theory, it is presented that an individual’s career is developed over a period of time within a
specific social-cognitive environment. It is within the organisational environment and culture that
employees develop their careers and ultimately career success. As proposed in the theoretical framework
in Chapter 2 of this study, reciprocal interactions between behaviours (career self-management), personal
(perception of reception, effectiveness and application of ease of those behaviours), and environment
(organisational culture) are supported by SCT.

Based on the literature review presented in this chapter, it can be argued that career self-management
behaviours are positively related to career success outcomes. In the conceptual model proposed for this
study, organisational culture is the environment in which behaviours are enacted and that affects the
behaviours’ effectiveness in achieving outcomes as well as the perception of their reception and
effectiveness. Variables were selected that are empirically established and/or theoretically important in
explaining differences in career self-management application in order to investigate their utility at the
individual level in the context of an organisation’s culture. Applying SCT and SCCT in this study will
provide a theoretical foundation for understanding of the application of career self-management
behaviours and their outcomes within the organisational culture as they are operationalised within the
Australian context. Based on SCT and SCCT and the theoretical model presented in Chapter 2, the
following conceptual model (Figure 9, p.92) has been developed to represent the theoretical proposition
that the organisational culture in which career self-management behaviours are enacted influences their
contribution to career success outcomes and perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness.
Figure 9. Conceptual model of the hypothesised relationship between organisational culture, career self-management, perception of reception and effectiveness, and career success.

3.6 Conclusion

Organisational culture is believed to play a determining role in career success, particularly in relation to effective application of career self-management behaviours. The literature review identified existing research that combined the factors of organisational culture, career self-management and career success, and a gap appeared with regard to a lack of empirical studies exploring this relationship. Although many studies indicate that organisational culture is a fundamental component of successful career self-management, research devoted to the effects of organisational cultures on career self-management behaviours and career outcomes is limited. Further, after an extensive review of the literature, the researcher was unable to locate
any studies that investigated the effects of government and family organisational types on career self-management behaviours and outcomes. The theoretical and empirical evidence reviewed in this chapter support this research study’s proposed consideration that the organisational cultures of government and family owned and operated organisations may affect the effectiveness of an individual’s application of career self-management behaviours and strategies for objective and subjective career success.

In summary, Chapter 3 presented a review of the literature on organisational culture, career success, career self-management, and their relationship to organisational culture. Research hypotheses were developed based on the gaps presented in the literature and a conceptual model based on the theoretical framework has been presented to guide the study. Chapter 4 will describe the research methodology, including the research design, population and sampling plan, instrumentation, data collection methods and ethical considerations, methods of data analysis, and evaluation of research methods used to help close the gap in the literature.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Chapter four details the research methodological framework that informs the research design, that appropriately answers the research questions and tests the hypotheses about the effectiveness of career self-management for career success within the two case study organisations. In this chapter, firstly the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions of key research philosophies, comprising positivism and post-positivism, are discussed. Secondly, the reasons for choosing postpositivism in conducting this study are given. The rest of the chapter outlines the research design, the sampling plan and population, measures, procedures, data analysis and evaluation of research methods.

4.2 Research Framework

Research protocol suggests a need for different types of ‘road map’ in order to achieve the desired research goals. One aim of the road map is to identify the over-arching goal to be achieved. This is referred to as the research framework. The research framework provides details about the approach applied in undertaking the research, starting from the theoretical foundation underpinning the research design and shaping data collection and data (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Jankowicz, 2005). Systematic research is built on evidence-based relationships and not just suspicion or a hunch (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2010). The purpose of the research framework is to clarify and justify the philosophies, methods and approaches adopted in a study, as well as to frame the plan, collection and analysis of the data to undertake a research study.

Different types of research require different types of research framework. Different frameworks of research can be distinguished on the basis of their grounding in epistemology (Crotty, 1998). Epistemology provides a foundation for research from which the theoretical research perspective of the project is built. Then the methodology is selected and finally the method itself. Methodology is defined as the general research strategy that outlines the way in which research is to be undertaken including the identification of the methods to be used. The methods, described in the methodology, define the way in which data collection or how a specific result is to be calculated. Determining the foundation for the research and building from it
means the researcher has a strong scaffold on which to build. For the purpose of this research, based on Crotty’s (1998) hierarchical levels of research, following are the philosophical and theoretical assumptions that need to be taken into consideration prior to progressing to the next stage of determining the methodology for this study.

4.3 Research Paradigm

The term research philosophy or paradigm refers to the system of beliefs of a researcher conducting a scientific research study. Research philosophies guide the actions of a researcher in generating and interpreting knowledge claims about reality (Creswell, 2014; Lincoln et al., 2011; Myers, 2009), and answer three sets of questions: (i) assumptions about the nature of reality (ontology), (ii) the evidentiary assessment and justification of knowledge claims (epistemology), and (iii) the process or procedures by which these knowledge claims are created (methodology) (Creswell 2014; Wynn & Williams, 2008, 2012; Zachariadis et al., 2013). Two key philosophies or paradigms are positivism and post-positivism. An overview of each of these two paradigms and the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions of each are discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

4.3.1 Positivism

Positivist researchers mostly use deductive research methods to test theories that are based upon realities objectively given and are describable by measurable properties independent of the observer/researcher. The main goal of studies under this paradigm is to draw inferences about a phenomenon from the sample to a stated population (Malapo, 2013). As a result, positivism has the predictive ability of generalisable theories about an objective reality. Positivists assert that there exists real, one-directional cause and effect relationships that are capable of being identified and tested via hypothetic—deductive logic and analysis (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991).

Ontologically, positivism assumes that an objective physical and social world exists that is independent of humans and their perceptions (Joseph, 1998). Therefore, the role of the researcher is a non-interactive one
which involves crafting precise measures of the reality under study. Healy and Perry (2000) propose this view reduces reality to a conjunction of cause with effect which has limitations for the mechanisms that link them. According to the epistemological assumptions of positivism, a theory is supported only if it is repeatedly not falsified by empirical events (Chua, 1986). Hence, empirical testing and verification of predictive theories is a core epistemological assumption of positivism (Healy and Perry, 2000; Wynn and Williams, 2008). Hypothetical deduction is one of the key elements for assessment and justification of knowledge claims in this paradigm where findings are assumed to be true until falsified. This has two consequences: 1) it is marked by a search for universal laws or principles in a deductive manner to form generalised knowledge that can predict patterns of behaviour across situations, (Lincoln et al., 2011) and 2), “if an event or action is only explained by deducing it from certain principles and premises, then knowing the principles and premises in advance enables prediction and control of the event or action” (Orlikowski, W.J. and Baroudi, J.J., 2002, p.61)

4.3.2 Post-Positivism

Testing the traditional idea of the definitive truth of knowledge and recognising that we cannot be ‘positive’ about assertions of knowledge when studying the behaviour and actions of humans, the term ‘post-positivism’ refers to the underlying assumptions after positivism (Creswell, 2003). Positivism asserts that there is an objective reality to be investigated and understood, whereas post-positivists believe that reality can never be completely captured, only approximated (De Vos et al., 2011). Post-positivists hold a deterministic philosophy in which causes ‘most likely’ determine effects or outcomes. Hence, the issues researched by post-positivists reveal the need to identify and evaluate what influences outcomes. It is also reductionistic in that the intention is to reduce ideas into a defined set of ideas to examine, such as the variables that make up research questions and hypotheses.

The knowledge that develops through a “post-positivist lens in the assessment of the variables that make up the hypotheses and research questions is based on meticulous observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists in the world” (Creswell, 2003, p.6). Thus, developing quantitative measures of
observations and studying the behaviour of individuals becomes vital for a post-positivist. Finally, Creswell (2003, p.7) claims “there are laws or theories that govern the world which need to be tested or verified and refined so that we can better understand the world”.

The ontology of post-positivism is critical realism. Post-positivists expect to advance closer to the truth while recognising that discoveries are only partial segments or approximations of truth (Clark, 1998). On account of its critical realist ontology, post-positivist researchers accept that knowledge is imperfect because it is shaped by context (McEvoy & Richards, 2003), but trust that objective enquiry will bring the truth closer. The focus of the post-positivist researcher is on understanding the study as it unfolds during the investigation, beginning with an area of study with a question and speculated hypothesis before starting the study (Morris, 2006).

Post-positivist epistemology is “objectivist with objectivity being the ideal, but with the data being subject to critical review” (Illing, J., 2013, p.287). Regardless of the rigour applied to the scientific method, the post-positivist perspective acknowledges that research outcomes are never completely objective or definite, and claims are tempered (Grey, 2013). Post-positivism aims to address some of the problems of positivist research by collecting data in real-life settings and collecting the views of the insider. The quality of the research, as with positivism, is assessed by “internal validity (the findings are in alignment with reality), external validity (the findings are generalisable), reliability (the findings are stable) and objectivity (the findings have not been influenced by the researcher or the study procedure)” (Illing, J., 2013, p.287).

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011), post-positivism relies on multiple methods for capturing as much of reality as possible while also placing emphasis on the discovery and confirmation of theories. Positivist research primarily uses quantitative methods such as surveys and experiments. Surveys mainly ask ‘who’, ‘what’, and ‘how many’ type of questions, and thus do not strive to pose ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions (Smith 2006). Traditional evaluation criteria, such as internal validity, are stressed, as is the use of structured qualitative procedures and analysis including analysis that permits frequency counts, tabulations and low-level statistical analyses. Positivists believe that “large-scale sample surveys and controlled laboratory experiments are suitable research methods, since they provide researchers with a certain amount of control over data collection and analysis” (Orlikowski, W.J. and Baroudi, J.J., 2002, p.55). They also often generalise
empirical results within a specific context to the target population. As a result, positivist researchers face the problem of not knowing whether the contexts of application are the same in order to generalise from one situation to another (Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991; Creswell, 2014).

4.3.3 Post-Positivism in the Context of This Study

Research methodologies which are based on post-positivism offer the researcher the opportunity to see the whole picture, to take a distanced view or an overview of the phenomena being studied (Eagleton, 2003). At the same time, “the post-positivist researcher assumes a learning role rather than a testing one” (Agar, 1988, p.12). This post-positivist study has applied an exploratory approach to the study with the aim of discovering knowledge to contribute to the body of literature on and understanding of the relationship between career self-management and career success. Charney (1996) explains that post-positivism holds to social constructivist, relativistic, and indeterminate notions of knowledge without assuming universally generalisable results, but strives for context-dependent generalisations. With this contextual perspective, post-positivism is the most appropriate philosophical paradigm for conducting this research and is useful in investigating if the effect of career self-management behaviour/s on subjective career outcomes differs by organisational context (culture).

In addition to the learning and contextual perspectives, post-positivist researchers place an “emphasis on meaning and the relationship between language and meaning and these are addressed in the concept of discourse” (Ryan, A.B., 2017, p.22). A discourse is a complex web of statements, categories and beliefs, habits and practices. Like that of organisational culture as applied in this research study, discourse is used to clarify and understand experience and the discourses available at a point in time constructing the ways that people think, talk about, or respond to certain phenomena. “Discourses ‘invite’ us to be human in certain ways, or to respond to others in certain ways” (Ryan, A.B., 2017, p.22). This post-positivist perspective also supports the aim of social cognitive theory, as applied in this research study, in its triadic approach incorporating behaviour, personal factors and environmental factors in the explanation of phenomena.
In the post-positivism paradigm, the purpose of research is to predict results, test a theory, or find a cause and effect relationship or the strength of relationships between variables (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012). In the case of this thesis, the theoretical framework informed the methodological and conceptual framework, quantitative data was collected, tested and then analysed based on established protocols, and then pattern-matching was used to provide meaning and context to the findings based on past research. This means that the theories have been verified with empirical data (Johnson & Duberley, 2000), and the findings were used to predict behaviour with a level of confidence (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2001). While the results may not be generalisable under a post-positivistic paradigm, the research adds to the existing body of knowledge through the exploration of the complexities of social situations (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011), and exploring situations to identify common patterns and enhance understanding (Morgan, 1990). By taking an exploratory approach, this research seeks to uncover and understand the potential effect of organisational culture on career self-management behaviours and career success outcomes. This research also aims to provide a methodology by which future researchers can apply to explore the research in different contexts, thereby reducing the limitation of generalisability.

Authors (i.e. Ryan, 2006; Stewart & Floyd, 2004) attest that post-positivism better reflects the lived experiences of people than other paradigms can. This is achieved through the multiple perspectives and inclusion of context that the paradigm can employ (Letourneau & Allen, 1993). Through a combination of professional experience, expertise in the field and a search of existing literature the researcher was able to identify the importance of combining multiple perspectives to develop an understanding of career management challenges within different organisational cultures. As explained previously, this research study aims to examine the relationship between the application of career self-management behaviours and objective and subjective career outcomes in the context of different organisational cultures. In order to achieve this goal, relationships between these variables are investigated by applying quantitative methods, which is outlined in greater detail in section 4.4. Finally, post-positivism supports the researcher with the ability to extend existing research that has only looked at the direct relationship between career self-management behaviours and career outcomes through a post-positivist lens, and introduce organisational culture as a contextual factor in the relationship to contribute further knowledge to the understanding of career self-management and career success.
The methodological philosophies and principles discussed in this section have guided the process for considering and determining the most suitable research strategy and design for this thesis which are discussed in the following section of this chapter.

4.4 Research Strategy

Methodology refers to the process or procedures by which knowledge claims are created. It follows a particular strategy, which aims to pair the research objective with a specific research method: qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods. Qualitative research focuses on commonalities and differences between cases, whereas quantitative research mainly concentrates on the relationships between variables, and mixed methods is the combination of both (Creswell, 2014).

Once the research philosophy and paradigms that form the foundation of research have been explored and determined it is necessary to ascertain the purpose and type of research to be done. Methodologies can be categorised in combination with a specific research philosophy. For example, Collis and Hussey (2009) claim that experimental surveys are positivist, and classify action research as interpretivist. Other researches, including Hartley (1994), argue that research methodologies do not, independently, belong exclusively to any one paradigm. Hartley (1994) argues that it is how the methodologies are applied and how the data is then collected and analysed that determines their alignment with a paradigm. The types of research are presented in the next section, followed by the selection of the methodology for this research investigation.

4.4.1 Types of Research

An exploratory study is suitable when there is limited or no information available on how comparable issues have been solved (Patten & Newhart, 2017). When the objective is to clarify the understanding of an issue or when the precise nature of the problem is unknown, exploratory studies can be useful (Saunders et al.,
2009). Sekaran and Bougie (2010) profess that extensive preliminary work is needed to gain understanding of the phenomena in question.

Descriptive research is designed to reveal a precise summary of people, events and/or situations (Veal, 2017). It has been proposed that undertaking a descriptive study is a useful prerequisite to an exploratory study or to proceed with following the exploratory study to seek a greater understanding of the findings (George, 2018). Therefore, before the data is collected in a descriptive research study, it is critical the researcher has an understanding of the phenomena being studied (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Rather than simply describing the research in question, explanatory research seeks to explain the research. Explanatory research typically uses quantitative methods; and despite differing views regarding the appropriateness, some researchers also apply qualitative methods (Veal, 2017). Largely, where the focus is on analysing a situation or issue with the objective of explaining the relationship between variables, explanatory studies are suitable to assist in determining causal relationships.

Following the literature review, which concluded there is limited theory or knowledge on the relationship between organisational culture, career self-management and career success, this study applied an exploratory approach in order to investigate the relationship between the variables and contribute to existing theory and knowledge. The next section in this chapter discusses research methodologies and the selection of the most suitable approach for this thesis.

4.4.2 Research Method

Different methods were considered prior to determining the most suitable approach for this research study. The following discussion identifies the selection of the quasi-experimental quantitative research design as the appropriate method for this research investigation. Quasi-experimental quantitative research has been defined as an empirical study used to approximate the impact of an intervention on its target population without random assignment. Quasi-experimental research is somewhat similar to traditional experimental design or a controlled trial, however it does not apply random assignment to treatment or control. Rather,
quasi-experimental designs allows the researcher to control the assignment to the treatment condition using conditions other than random assignment (Robson et al., 2001). The main methods are outlined below, followed by the justification of the selected approach to this research study.

Several approaches to this research were considered in the design of this thesis (Yilmaz, 2013). Firstly, ethnography, which is the systematic study of people and culture, was eliminated as it was considered possible that the researcher may unconsciously interfere with the business-as-usual ways of working of the organisations participating in the study, which may affect the results. Further, because behaviours are a key variable in this research study, it was critical to ensure the methods applied did not cause participants to act differently to their natural behaviours in the organisational setting. Action research was also considered inappropriate as it would require the researcher to participate in the study and organisations under investigation. Longitudinal research was considered; however it was determined there would be too many variables that could influence results over a period of time and therefore interfere with the validity of the results. Qualitative research was initially considered as a suitable complement to the research (Yilmaz, 2013); however, due to its subjective nature, difficulty in obtaining large quantities of data, and the existing quantitative approach/tools used by similar research studies, it was determined to omit it from the study. Quantitative experimental design (Yilmaz, 2013) was determined as unsuitable for this study as the research did not require an intervention of the independent variable.

In the case of this study, applying a treatment or experiment was not required, as creating four comparison groups based on organisational culture provided the opportunity to develop a case-control or case-comparison study. In this design, one group consists of cases that are applying career self-management behaviours to achieve career outcomes in the organisational culture of a family owned and operated organisation, and one group within the organisational culture of a government owned and operated organisational culture. According to Song (2010) the case-control design is believed to be excellent for generating hypotheses about causal connections. Therefore, a quasi-experimental case-comparison study (Robson et al., 2001) has been determined to be the most suitable method for this research study as it permits the researcher to devise hypotheses from a range of exiting data and knowledge in the subject area, organising them in a way that assists the formulation of new conceptual theories.
As previously discussed in this chapter, this study applies a post positivist philosophical approach. In the post-positivism paradigm, the purpose of research is to predict results, test a theory, or find a cause and effect relationship or the strength of relationships between variables. Post-positivists recognise that the observations of the researcher can be strongly influenced by their existing theories, hypotheses, and knowledge (Reichardt & Rallis, 1994). The post-positivist paradigm therefore believes that objectivity is the standard to strive for and that the researcher must remain neutral in their investigation. This can be achieved by meticulously following strictly defined procedures to prevent the personal biases of the researcher influencing their work and the outcomes of the study (Chilisa & Kawulich 2012). It is through this lens which this study approaches inquiry and considers that a quasi-experimental quantitative approach is best suited for objectivity.

Further, the research has been designated as a quasi-experimental quantitative study because although there are groups used in the comparative analysis, there will be no random assignment of participants to groups (Pallant, 2010) as all employees of the participating organisations will be invited to take part in the research and based on their evaluation of the organisational culture they work within, will be allocated to that group.

The variables in the analysis are implementation, reception, and enactment of career self-management, and subjective and objective career success in the context of organisational culture (i.e., hierarchical, clan, adhocracy, market). The analysis of quantitative data in this research is guided by the within-case and cross-case analysis. The within-case analysis comprises an analysis of the application of career self-management behaviours and career outcomes within each organisational culture type. The second part of the quantitative data analysis involves using cross-case analysis techniques to compare between the organisational culture types. This approach brings together the social cognitive theoretical framework, the post-positivist philosophy, and the quasi-experimental research methodology to produce an exploratory thesis.

The next sections of this chapter revisit the research questions and subsequent research design.
4.4.3 Research Questions

A research question is a specific and targeted question that the study intends to answer by uncovering new insights and knowledge through the research process (Patten & Newhart, 2017). When developing the foundation to the research it is critical to identify and establish the research problem including an examination of existing theory and knowledge. Based on the background analysis and literature review on career success and career self-management it was determined there were gaps in knowledge about the environments in which individuals are operating and how this may affect the application and effectiveness of those behaviours in achieving career objectives. As a result the following research questions were developed throughout the process of the theoretical examination and research investigation, as well as based on the identified themes, the aims and objectives of this research, and hypotheses as outlined in Chapters 1-3.

RQ1. What organisational culture types do the participants of this study work within?

RQ2. Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

RQ3. Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

RQ4. Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being better received and enacted with greater ease in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

RQ5. Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being more effective in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?
4.4.4 Research Design

Following the exploration of research philosophies, research approaches and establishing the research questions, the most appropriate research design for this study was determined. The research design outlines the planned approach to answering the research questions including where the data will be collected from, how the data will be collected and analysed, as well as considering and discussing the potential ethical issues and constraints that may be encountered (Bryman, 2016).

To address the purpose of the proposed study, the researcher will assess differences in the relationship between five career self-management behaviours (networking, creating opportunities, seeking career guidance, extended work involvement, self-promotion) and career outcomes (subjective and objective) by organisational culture type (clan, hierarchical, adhocracy, market), as well as the perceived effectiveness, ease of enactment and reception of those behaviours. Specifically, the researcher will assess differences in clan and hierarchical organisation types.

As outlined in the previous section in this chapter, a quasi-experimental quantitative approach to data collection will be adopted for this study. Quantitative research tools, such as questionnaires and surveys, collect the opinions of much larger samples than could be achieved by qualitative techniques, such as focus groups or interviews (Kelley et al., 2003). Therefore, compared to qualitative research where limited cases are often not statistically representative, the use of quantitative tools for data collection enables the collection of a statistically representative sample (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Following is a detailed discussion and overview of the data collection method and survey design.

4.4.5 Data Collection Method

Historically, and for classification purposes, authors have categorised certain data collection methods in conjunction with the main paradigms (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). However, other researchers argue that following styles is not necessary, rather it is recommended that the researcher should choose the method/s which best serve the purpose to try and address the research question (Sapsford & Evans, 1979; Collis &
Hussey, 2009; Thomas, 2017). Considering the existing research and survey tools utilised by previous researchers investigating career self-management behaviours, career success, and organisational culture, it was deemed appropriate to apply these same quantitative tools in this research to extend knowledge in these domains.

Surveys and questionnaires collect numerical descriptions based on the opinions of a population by examining a sample of that population (Kitchenham & Pfleeger, 2008). Surveys are popular as they are an economical way to collect a large amount of data from a large population, allow standardisation and easy comparison of data, and also allow the collection of numerical data that assists the identification and strength of potential relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2007). A benefit of participants self-completing a well-designed survey is that it avoids the potential of researcher bias because the participant is not influenced to provide a particular answer (Parafloo, 1994). Kazdin (1974) noted that self-observation provides more complete data than can be derived from outside observers, due to the range of target behaviours known only to one’s self. Further the most common approach to exploring organisational culture is self-report questionnaires as they are cost-effective and easy to administer and analyse. In addition, they allow an extensive survey of an organisation (Jung et al., 2009). The next step is to consider the design of the survey, which follows.

4.4.6 Theory and Design of Survey

The theoretical issues relating to survey design was considered in order to ensure the survey process of this research study is valid and reliable. While open-ended questions can allow for a greater depth and understanding of issues, it is argued that closed questions are easier to answer from a respondent’s perspective and minimises the likelihood of non-response (Brace, 2018). Questions also need to be easy to answer and not have more than one meaning (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In addition, researchers should focus on the sequencing of the questions and the simplicity in answering the questions ensuring each question only takes a few seconds for the respondent to complete (Sue and Ritter, 2012).
The use of rating scales in survey design, such as the Likert scale, assist the collation and comparison of responses because they measure the degree of difference in the opinions of respondents (Brace, 2018). Matrices are a method of formatting questions that display a series of questions in one condensed format using the same response options (Brace, 2018) which reduces the visual length of the survey and simplifies the process of answering for respondents. Both these devices have been utilised in the survey designed for this research study. Gillham (2000) suggests that it is important to minimise the length of each survey page and that a maximum of four to six pages is the usual tolerance for respondents before drop-outs begin to occur. The effects of font type and spacing of text for online readability and performance have been analysed and reported, and it has been found that simple and clear fonts such as Arial, Verdana and Times New Roman are preferred by participants (Hojjati & Muniandy, 2014). Finally, the role of instructions is crucial in collecting valid responses. Even when the procedure may seem obvious, Bell et al. (2018) explain that instructions that avoid jargon and abbreviations should always be incorporated in the survey.

The specific questions included in the survey investigation in this study were designed based on the following principles and issues:

(i) The survey questions from each of the chosen instruments used by previous researchers relating to the key themes were sourced
(ii) The research aims and objectives including the five guiding research questions of the study were considered in the creation of additional survey questions
(iii) It was ensured that only the questions that were directly related to the key themes as reflected in the literature review were included
(iv) Questions were placed in an order that would support the logical thought process for respondents
(v) Question sets were broken into pages to assist navigation and page quantity was minimised.

Considering the themes identified in the literature review, survey questions were prepared for each of those themes based on the conceptual framework presented in Chapter 3. In total, 23 items were included in the survey, with the structure of the survey consisting of six sections:
4.4.7 Survey Measures

Based on the critical analysis of theoretical and empirical research reviews, for this research existing reliable and validated measurement instruments were selected to assess organisational culture, career self-management and career success. These are described in the following sub sections.

4.4.7.1 Organisational Culture

To confirm the organisational culture types of the two case study organisations, organisational culture was measured based on the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) and the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This instrument categorises four cultures: clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market cultures. OCAI is one of the most popular organisational culture research tools, and which has now been used in almost 10,000 organisations worldwide in most sectors (eg, private sector, public sector, education, healthcare, new start-ups, NGOs) (Cameron, 2004). Six content dimensions serve as the basis for the OCAI:

i  The dominant characteristics of the organisation, or what the overall organisation is like

ii The leadership style and approach that permeate the organisation

iii The management of employees or the style that characterises how employees are treated and what the working environment is like

iv The organisational glue or bonding mechanisms that hold the organisation together
The strategic emphases that define what areas of emphasis drive the organisation’s strategy

The criteria of success that determine how victory is defined and what gets rewarded and celebrated.

Based on these six dimensions, the OCAI presents four alternatives for each. Respondents divide 100 points among these four alternatives, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to their organisation. A higher number of points is given to the alternative that is most similar to the organisation; for example, on item 1, if the respondent thinks alternative A is very similar to their organisation, alternatives B and C are somewhat similar, and alternative D is not similar at all, the respondent might give 65 points to A, 15 points to B and C, and 5 points to D, making sure the total equates to 100.

4.4.7.2 Career Self-Management Behaviours

Career self-management behaviours were explored in this study utilising Gould and Penley’s Career Strategies Inventory (1984). However, as was done by Schwoerer (1990), the instrument was slightly modified by eliminating the subscale addressing conformity with supervisor’s opinion which did not predict career outcomes in the Gould and Penley study. The inventory measures five types of Career Self-Management Strategies. The Career Self-Management Strategies included creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, seeking career guidance and networking. Strategy use was reported by respondents using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (very little extent) to 5 (very great extent). Higher scores indicate more active career management across situations. Examples of items include “Developing skills which may be needed in future career positions” (creating opportunities), “Making your supervisors aware of your accomplishments” (self-promotion), “Working at your job outside of normal work hours” (extended work involvement), “Getting career guidance” (seeking career guidance), and “Building a network of ‘contacts’ in the organisation for obtaining information about what’s happening within the organisation” (networking).
4.4.7.3 Perceived ease of application, reception and effectiveness

For each career self-management behaviour respondents were asked to answer three additional questions created by the researcher in relation to their demonstration of the behaviour in their workplace. For example, “My ‘creating opportunity’ behaviours, when demonstrated in this organisation: (i) are enacted with ease, (ii) are always positively received, and (iii) contribute to the achievement of my career objectives. Rated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), these three questions were repeated for each career self-management behaviour.

4.4.7.4 Subjective and Objective Career Success

Career success was measured using both subjective and objective measures of success. Objective career success and subjective career success, while positively related, are operationally and empirically distinct variables, with potentially and likely different predictors or outcomes (Ng et al., 2005). Each of the two perspectives are necessary to conceptualise career success, therefore it is important to include both indicators of career success (Ballout, 2009) in this research. The objective measures of success were total annual compensation, rank level from the CEO, and promotion rate (the number of promotions divided by tenure) (Lowe, 2006). The subjective measures of success included Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) Perceived Career Success Model as well as Turban and Dougherty’s (1994) Career Success Scale. Greenhaus’s (1990) tool assesses the subjective career success variable using a five-item Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” to answer each of the five questions (e.g. “I am dissatisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills”). Note the questions were in the negative to test for internal reliability. Turban and Dougherty’s (1994) tool assesses perceived career success with four items: “How successful has your career been?”, “Compared to your co-workers, how successful is your career?”, “How successful do your ‘significant others’ feel you career has been?” (measured on a five-point Likert scale from very successful to highly successful), and “Given your age, do you think that you career is on ‘schedule’, or ahead or behind schedule?” (measured on a five-point Likert scale from well behind schedule to well ahead of schedule).
4.5 Survey Administration

It is acknowledged that online surveys can result in coverage bias, rely on access to technology, and employees often receive too many online surveys leading to survey fatigue (Brace, 2018). However online surveys are quick, efficient and low cost and is determined as the most suitable distribution method to address the theory and design of the survey for this research study. Online survey software include features that allow for survey logic and can include a broad range of question formats including, but not limited to; yes/no, open-ended or closed, multiple choice, rating, ranking or comparison, and forced and optional questions (Callegaro et al., 2015). It has also been found that responses to online surveys are highest when respondents receive communications about the survey in advance of the actual survey request (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

It was determined that the online survey software, SurveyMonkey, was an appropriate approach to deliver the survey for this research and that it would increase the probability of a satisfactory response rate from the employees of the two organisations participating in the study. The researcher had access to two mid-sized organisations, containing a population of over 1100 potential respondents with email and online access, further supporting the use of an online survey tool. To keep the survey as short as possible questions were grouped together where suitable, while still ensuring as much relevant data as possible was elicited. Finally, the six sections identified in Section 4.4.6 were divided into six pages with a percentage of completion gauge on each page. Having identified surveys as the ideal design for data collection for this research, the theory and practical application relating to sampling and selection, reliability and validity, data analysis techniques, and ethical considerations are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

4.6 Sampling Theory and Selection

When collecting data for research it is rarely possible to solicit the opinions of a complete population, so instead data is collected from a sample of the population to allow approximated conclusions about the population from which the sample is drawn. ‘Population’ refers to the whole set of individuals/objects
within a defined group, while ‘sample’ refers to a sub-set of the individuals/objects of the population from which evidence is gathered (Ott & Longnecker, 2015). Sekaran and Bougie (2013) classify sampling into two categories: probability and nonprobability sampling. When every individual/object in a population has an equal chance of being selected as part of the sample, this is called ‘probability sampling’. In contrast, when it is not possible to state the probability of any member of the population being sampled, it is called ‘nonprobability sampling’. Nonprobability sampling is considered to not offer the researcher the same level of confidence as probability based sampling (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Two organisations agreed to participate in this research study, and as such, a sampling plan was not used as the entire accessible population of each organisation was invited to participate.

4.7 Sample size

Adequate sample size is necessary to allow for generalisation of findings to the target population for external validity. To determine the necessary sample size, the researcher considered the sample size needed for statistical analysis to strengthen the internal validity of this study. In addition, the sample size needed was based on the size of the accessible population that was identified to strengthen the external validity of the study. Using Green’s (1991) formula \( N > 50 + 8(m) \), where \( m \) was equal to the number of explanatory variables, the sample size needed for multiple regression analysis was estimated. Green (1991) derived the minimum sample size as no less than 50 participants for a correlation or regression with the number increasing with the number of explanatory variables. This study has 12 explanatory variables: career self-management (5), career success (4) and application perception (3). Based on Green’s (1991) formula, the minimum sample size needed for this study’s multiple regression analysis was \( N > 50 + 8(12) = 146 \). Both case study sample responses exceeded this minimum requirement.

Employees of the participating organisations who met the following criteria were part of the final data-producing sample for the quantitative research in this study: (i) participants were employees (full-time, part-time or fixed-term contract), (ii) participants had an organisation email and access to the internet, (iii) participants consented to participate and complete the online survey for the study. Participants were
excluded from the online survey if they: (i) were not full-time, part-time or fixed term contract employees of the organisation, and (ii) did not have an organisation email address or access to the internet. The next section of this chapter provides an overview of the setting for the survey and the two participating case study organisations.

4.8 Setting

A broad range of organisations was contacted via relevant influential human resource and organisational development contacts of the researcher. An email (see Appendix B) was sent to gauge their interest and the potential of conducting the research within their organisations in the planned timeframe. Of those that were interested, the researcher met with them in person at their offices to discuss the details further prior to obtaining their commitment. One government organisation and one family owned and operated organisation formally agreed to participate in the research study after this process. Refer to Appendix C for the Organisation Consent Form.

The survey instrument link to Survey Monkey was emailed to all employees (395 subjects) employed by the family owned and operated organisation, and emailed all employees (683 subjects) of the government organisation. The quantitative data collection process began in October 2012 and ended in the same month.

4.8.1 Organisation One

The first case study organisation is an Australian family owned real estate business spanning residential, commercial and rural property, in addition to hotels, marine, property management and property funds investment. The organisation has approximately 1,000 individual franchised offices across Australia, New Zealand, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, India, China, Malaysia, the USA and Middle East and the USA with an annual turnover in excess of AU$39 billion. The head office of the organisation is located in Australia and employed 395 staff at the end of September 2012. The organisation had limited workforce
profile data. Women represented 39 percent of all head office employees in contrast to 61 percent men. The organisation was a family owned business with a board of directors consisting of two third-generation and two fourth-generation family members plus one honorary family member.

The organisation only had a short history of implementing human resource and organisational development practices. There was limited evidence of documented policies, processes and procedures. In 2011-12 the organisation focussed on building the people management competencies of leaders to support the growing needs of the business through a series of people management workshops. There is also a Franchise Awareness Program in place focused on increasing the awareness of franchisee needs of head office employees, whereby they work in franchisee offices for one week each year.

An invitation to participate in the study with a link to the online survey was sent directly to all survey participants. (See Appendix D for the email invitation to participate in the study, with the links to the authorisation for voluntary consent and survey.) Two email reminders were sent: three days and one day from the closing date of the survey. All employees working from the head office location of the organisation (395 employed at time of survey with an organisation email) were invited to participate in the survey. Of those, 209 (53%) agreed to participate and complete the survey. Incomplete responses were deleted from the data set resulting in 167 (42%) of the responses provided by participants being used for the final data-producing sample.

4.8.2 Organisation Two

The second case study organisation is an Australian public sector specialist provider of outsourced business services specialising in areas such as finance, human resources, information technology, projects, property, workforce and business services. The organisation employed 733 staff and engaged 123 contractors at the end of June 2012. The 2011-2012 workforce profile of the organisation indicated that women represented 55.8 per cent of all employees, with the highest proportion (33.6 per cent) employed at the salary level $75,552 to $97,702 per year. Men represented 44.2 per cent of all employees, with the highest proportion (31.4 per cent) also employed at the salary level $75,552 to $97,702 per year. The number of women across
levels is not evenly distributed, with 16.6 per cent of women represented in the salary ranges of $97,702 and above, whereas 43.9 per cent of men are represented in salary ranges above $97,702.

The organisation was the only government owned proprietary company in Australia providing outsourced services on fully commercial lines to government departments. Shareholding was made up of the State Treasurer and Ministers of two State departments.

The organisation had in place comprehensive policies consistent with legislation and Government policy, which provided a framework for the appropriate management of staff and business risks. In 2011-12 the organisation focused on building their culture and people capabilities to support a transition to a new service operating model and to meet current and future business requirements. A leadership development program commenced in March 2012. The program was designed to embed the organisation’s strategic direction in terms of leadership values, expectations and performance to managers and high potential employees. There is also a Graduate Program focused on building leaders within the organisation. A total of 20 graduates were engaged as part of the 2011 and 2012 intakes. All graduates were still permanently employed within the public sector (19 within the organisation) as of 30 June 2012.

An invitation to participate in the study with a link to the online survey was sent directly to all survey participants. (See Appendix D for the email invitation to participate in the study, with the links to the authorisation for voluntary consent and survey.) One email reminder was sent three days from the closing date of the survey. All of employees of the organisation (690 employed at time of survey with an organisation email) were invited to participate in the survey. Of those, 296 (43%) agreed to participate and complete the survey. Incomplete responses were deleted from the data set resulting in 174 (25%) of the responses provided by participants being used for the final data-producing sample.
4.9 **Evaluation of Sampling Design**

One of the strengths of the study was that the entire accessible population of both organisations were asked to participate in this study, providing a chance for full representation of the cohort in the study. The final data-producing sample was self-selected, consisting of those that agreed to participate. This does introduce a sampling bias, yet this was minimised as the entire accessible population was invited to participate.

4.10 **Validity and Reliability**

The degree to which an explanation accurately represents the phenomena it claims to refer to is termed ‘validity’ (Hammersley, 1990) – in other words, the degree to which the methods used for data collection methods have correctly measured what they were intended to measure. Whereas, reliability refers to how consistently the same or different observers respond to instances in the same category at different times, or as the degree to which the methods of data collection can be reproduced consistently and result in accurate results and findings (Bryman, 2016).

To assess criterion validity, the measures from previously validated instruments are compared to the instrument used in this study. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is used to assess construct validity by reducing the overall number of observed variables into latent factors (or constructs) based on commonalities within the data set. When searching for an appropriate survey instrument, Cronbach’s alpha is one of the most frequently reported statistics used to measure reliability. By applying George and Mallery’s (2016) guidelines, existing survey scales that meet at least the acceptable threshold of internal consistency (0.70) were selected. Cronbach’s alpha will be computed to make a comparison to the original findings.
4.11 Ethical Research Issues

The prevention of harm for all participants is the core focus for ethics in research. According to Bryman (2016), all researchers regardless of field must cautiously and responsibly think about the subjects in the research, and whether there are any activities that may cause harm and in which they should not participate. Numerous authors have argued the need for informed consent in all primary research (Bell et al., 2018; Grady, 2015; King et al., 2018). Consent should only be obtained from the participant after they have been informed of the study and research purpose and methods that they have been approached to take part in (Grady, 2015). Confidentiality and how the data will be managed and shared is also usually part of informed consent. Avoiding participant harm is crucial in the research process and therefore the it must be ensured that the research subjects are not exposed to any form of harm, physical or emotional, that could potentially arise from participating in the research process. It is also important that participants are comfortable and not coerced or forced to contribute to the research. In summary, ethics in business research refers to the behaviour and actions of the researcher, the protection of the wellbeing of the individuals who participate in the research, and how the research is designed, collated and analysed (Bell et al., 2018; Bryman, 2016; Grady, 2015; King et al., 2018; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

With regard to this research investigation process, demographics were not collected during the survey. Consent details and information was provided to all participants of the study as the first page of the online survey. The option of withdrawing from the research at any time was made clear to all participants. In addition, the contact details of the researcher were provided to all subjects should they require any further information. The study does not involve a vulnerable population. The research design, including the data collection plan, assured confidentiality for the sources of information, privacy, and informed consent of the research participants. Issues regarding the protection of the data was considered at all times throughout the research. An ethics application was submitted to Macquarie University’s Human Research Ethics Committee\(^1\) for review and approval of the research protocols. Macquarie University’s Human Research

\(^1\) It should be noted that this study was commenced as a student of Macquarie University prior to transferring to Southern Cross University in 2017.
Ethics Committee approval was obtained to conduct the research (final approval letter dated 11/09/2012, ref. 5201200588). The next section of this chapter explains the data analysis methodology for this research study and each of the five key research questions.

4.12 Data Analysis

Data was entered into SPSS version 20.0 for Windows and screened for missing values and outliers once entered. Cases missing more than 50% of the data were removed from the dataset. Standardised values were calculated for the composite scores included in the analyses, and standardised values greater than 3.29 units from the sample mean were considered outliers and will be removed from the dataset (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Composite scores were calculated for the five career self-management behaviours, the perceived effectiveness scores and the corresponding ease of application and reception scores. A reliability analysis was conducted to determine how well the items are working together to assess the construct they are intended to represent. Cronbach’s alpha reliabilities for each continuous variable were calculated, and each coefficient evaluated using the guidelines developed by George and Mallery (2016). Correlations greater than 0.70 were regarded as evidence of acceptable reliability (George & Mallery, 2016). Where the reliability coefficient for a scale is less than 0.70, readers are cautioned regarding interpretation.

The following sections outline the data analysis methodology for each of the five key research questions.

RQ1. What organisational culture types do the participants of this study work within?

RQ2. Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

RQ3. Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?
RQ4. Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being better received and enacted with greater ease in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

RQ5. Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being more effective in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

4.12.1 Research Question 1

Research question one was designed to determine the organisational culture type of each of the case study organisations. The Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) of Cameron and Quinn (2011), which has been used extensively in scholarly research, was applied. OCAI has been found to not only be an accurate assessment of organisational culture, but significant relationships have been found between culture as assessed by the OCAI, and a variety of indicators of organisational effectiveness. The scores applied by survey respondents were tabulated, summed for each alternative, averaged, and then divided by 6 to determine the total scores for each culture type. Cronbach’s alpha tests of reliability were conducted on the subscales to determine acceptable reliability and reported.

4.12.2 Research Question 2

Research question two was designed to determine which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. To address this research question a linear regression analysis was conducted for both clan and hierarchical organisational culture types to assess whether creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking significantly predicted subjective career success. All of the selected predictors were included and entered in a single step by applying the ‘enter’ variable selection method. Multiple linear regression is the most common form of linear regression analysis used for predictive analysis to measure the relationship between a dependent variable with two or more independent variables. The dependent variable is considered ‘dependent’ on the independent variable, so
when the independent variable changes the impact on the dependent variable is observed and recorded. This is achieved by creating a linear combination of all the independent variables to predict the dependent variable. The R2 statistic is used to assess how well the regression predicted the dependent variable where the higher the R2 the better the model fits the data. While the unstandardised beta (B) represents the change (increase or decrease) of the two or more independent variable(s) with the dependent variable.

4.12.3 Research Question 3

Research question three was designed to determine which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. To address this research question a linear regression analysis were conducted for both clan and hierarchical organisational culture types to assess whether creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking significantly predicted subjective career success. All of the selected predictors were included and entered in a single step by applying the ‘enter’ variable selection method. Multiple linear regression is the most common form of linear regression analysis used for predictive analysis to measure the relationship between a dependent variable with two or more independent variables. The dependent variable is considered ‘dependent’ on the independent variable, so when the independent variable changes the impact on the dependent variable is observed and recorded. This is achieved by creating a linear combination of all the independent variables to predict the dependent variable. The R2 statistic is used to assess how well the regression predicted the dependent variable where the higher the R2 the better the model fits the data. While the unstandardised beta (B) represents the change (increase or decrease) of the two or more independent variable(s) with the dependent variable.

4.12.4 Research Question 4

Research question four was designed to determined which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being better received and enacted with greater ease in clan and hierarchical organisational
cultures. Summary statistics were calculated for the reception and ease of enactment of the five career self-management behaviours within each organisational culture type. The descriptive statistics applied were: mean (M) to determine the average value of a scale variable; standard deviation (SD) to represent the spread of the data from mean; sample size (n) to present the frequency or count; standard error of the mean (SEM) to estimate how far the mean from the sample population in the research study is likely to differ from the actual population mean; skewness to measure the asymmetry in the distribution of a variable; and kurtosis to measure the tail behaviour of a distribution to evaluate outliers.

4.12.5 Research Question 5

Research questions 5 is designed to determine which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being more effective in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Summary statistics were calculated for the perception of effectiveness of the five career self-management behaviours within each organisational culture type. The descriptive statistics applied were: mean (M) to determine the average value of a scale variable; standard deviation (SD) to represent the spread of the data from mean; sample size (n) to present the frequency or count; standard error of the mean (SEM) to estimate how far the mean from the sample population in the research study is likely to differ from the actual population mean; skewness to measure the asymmetry in the distribution of a variable; and kurtosis to measure the tail behaviour of a distribution to evaluate outliers.

Chapter 4 described the research methodological framework and the research design to investigate the study’s research questions regarding the application of career self-management behaviours in the organisational cultures of the two case study organisations as they relate to the achievement of career outcomes. The chapter also outlined the population and sampling, instrumentation, data collection procedures, ethical considerations, and methods of data analysis to address the research questions for this study. The following chapter will present the results from this study.
CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results from analysing the relationship between career self-management behaviours and career outcomes in two different organisational cultures. Five career self-management behaviours (networking, seeking career guidance, creating opportunities, extended work involvement and self-promotion) and their relationship with subjective and objective career success were assessed in a family owned and operated organisation and a government owned and operated organisation. The first research question seeks to confirm existing knowledge with the application of the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument so as to confirm organisational culture types. Research questions two to five seek to create new knowledge by investigating the strength of the relationship between the five different career self-management behaviours and subjective and objective career outcomes in the different organisational culture types. In addition, in line with the hypotheses, the perceived ease of application, reception and effectiveness of the career self-management behaviours were compared in both organisations.

This chapter begins by presenting an overview of the demographics of the study and the reliability analysis. This is followed by the results from the statistical analysis in response to the five research questions and associated hypotheses. Then the findings to the hypotheses are outlined as confirming previous knowledge or contributing new knowledge. The chapter then concludes with a summary of the findings.

5.2 Demographics

Surveys were distributed to employees within the two organisations. The number of useable questionnaires returned by employees of organisation one, of the 395 distributed, was 166 (redemption
rate is 42%) and 175, of the 683 distributed, for organisation two (redemption rate is 25%). There are four tables that detail the demographic details of both organisations in Appendix E (Tables 3-6). In summary, organisation one comprises 41% males and 59% females, whereas in organisation two there were equal numbers of males and females. In terms of age distribution, organisation one comprised employees with an age range of 21 to 59 (SD = 10.09) and in organisation two the age range was between 22 and 66 (SD = 11.82). In both cases the high standard deviation was reflective of the broad range of ages of employees in the sample. Table 3 presents the results for gender and Table 4 presents the results for age. Further, Table 5 shows that organisation two had a higher percentage of better-educated employees, although organisation one had a larger group earning a higher income. Table 6 shows that employees in organisation one had less tenure on average (4.20 years (SD = 5.64)) than organisation two (6.33 years (SD = 5.84)), however in both cases the high standard deviation is reflective of the relatively wide variation in duration of tenure. Finally, Table 6 shows that employees in organisation one had less promotions (ranging from 0 to 8, with an average of 1.37 (SD = 1.47)) than organisation two (ranging from 0 to 11, with an average of 1.76 (SD = 1.58)). For organisation one, the promotion rate (number of promotions/tenure) ranged from 0 to 2.73, with an average of 0.42 promotions per year (SD = 0.54) compared with the promotion rate for organisation two, which ranged from 0 to 2, with an average of 0.37 promotions per year (SD = 0.33).

5.3 Reliability Analysis

Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were calculated for both organisations, as well as the career self-management behaviours with perceived ease of application, reception and effectiveness. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were evaluated using the guidelines suggested by George and Mallery (2016) where >.9 excellent, >.8 good, >.7 acceptable, >.6 questionable, >.5 poor, and ≤.5 unacceptable. Tables 7 and 8 in Appendix F detail the reliability results for all instruments. Of importance is the outcome that all measures had acceptable reliability.
5.4 Research Question 1: Organisational Culture Type

The first research question in this research study was to evaluate and confirm the perceived organisational culture type of the participating organisations. Organisational culture type was determined using the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). The OCAI (including 24 items) is based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF) by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006). The framework identifies whether a participant works within an environment that has an internal or external focus and whether it strives for flexibility and individuality or stability and control, resulting in the identification of the dominant overall culture. The OCAI proposes four organisational culture types: the entrepreneurial adhocracy culture; the people-oriented clan culture; the process-oriented hierarchical culture, and the results-oriented market culture. Two hypotheses were presented to address this question.

Hypothesis one proposed that the perceived dominant organisational culture type of the family owned and operated organisation that participated in this study would be clan. As stated in Chapter 3, family owned and operated businesses are known for possessing higher levels of employee commitment and harmony as well as stronger long-term orientation compared to non-family firms. The environment of an organisation with a clan culture is also considered to be a friendly place to work, where employees tend to consider their co-workers to be extended family (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). These characteristics suggest a family owned and operated business would be perceived as a clan organisation by its employees.

Hypothesis two proposed that the perceived dominant organisational culture type of the government owned and operated organisation that participated in the study would be hierarchy. As stated in Chapter 3, this hypothesis is based on hierarchical cultures being known for focusing on internal maintenance and striving for control and stability and through the enforcement of strict rules and task setting. Accordingly, value is placed on rationality, formality, economy, obedience and order (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). This reflects the traditional theoretical model of bureaucracy and public administration that relies on formal
rules and procedures as control mechanisms and therefore suggests a government organisation is likely to be perceived as a hierarchical organisation by its employees.

5.4.1 **Hypothesis 1 and 2 – Organisational Culture Assessment**

Applying the review criteria developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) generated the overall culture profile. In applying this scoring schema, an organisation’s orientation is dependent on the dimensions of stability and control, internal focus and integration, flexibility and discretion, and external focus and differentiation. The scores applied by survey respondents were tabulated, summed for each alternative, averaged, and then divided by 6 to determine the total scores for each culture type. Final scores for each culture type are mapped on the culture profile matrix to give more insight into the culture profile of the organisation. The final scores in order of dominance for case study organisation one were clan (32), market (24), adhocracy (23) and hierarchy (20). The final scores in order of dominance for case study organisation two were hierarchy (35), market (29), clan (20) and adhocracy (15). Hypotheses 1 and 2 was confirmed and this is shown in Appendix G, Table 9, Figure 13 and Figure 14, indicating the most dominant cultures perceived by participants.

5.4.2 **Research Question One Results Summary**

In summary, hypothesis one and two were supported, because the perceived dominant organisational culture type of the family owned and operated organisation was clan and the perceived dominant organisational culture type of the government owned and operated organisation was hierarchy. The next section of this chapter investigates the effect of career self-management behaviours on subjective and objective career outcomes.
5.5 Research Question 2: Career Self-Management Behaviours and Subjective Career Success

Research question two was designed to measure the relationship of each of the career self-management behaviours with subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Five hypotheses were presented to address this question. For hypotheses three to seven, the analysis assessed the relationship between each of the five career self-management behaviours (networking, seeking career guidance, extended work involvement, creating opportunities, and self-promotion) and subjective career outcomes with each of the organisational culture types (clan, hierarchical). The objective of the data analysis for each of these hypotheses (H3-H7) was to identify which of the career self-management behaviours are more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures.

As research question two contributes new knowledge to academic literature, the hypotheses were based on expected compatible relationships between the five career self-management behaviours (Gould & Penley, 1984) and the different organisational culture types as defined in the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument by Cameron and Quinn (1999). The hypotheses were constructed based on the strategies applied, as described by Gould and Penley (1984), when demonstrating each of the career self-management behaviours and considered in terms of their compatibility with clan and hierarchical organisational cultures.

Hypothesis three proposed that high networking is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship is expected as clan organisations are described as emphasising human relations and adopting flexible operation procedures that focus on internal relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), and demonstrating networking behaviours such as building a network of contacts and friendships in the organisation that can assist with career progression (Gould & Penley, 1984) in this environment will likely positively contribute to career success outcomes. This is in contrast to a controlling orientation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) normally found in a hierarchical
organisation, which is likely to discourage networking activity and hence the effectiveness of networking is likely to be less by comparison.

Hypothesis four proposed that high seeking career guidance is also more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures are a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves, and the leaders in organisations with clan cultures are viewed as mentors. As seeking career guidance strategies include getting career guidance from supervisors and other experienced people inside and outside the organisation (Gould & Penley, 1984) it is believed seeking career guidance will positively contribute to career success outcomes within a clan culture. While it is not proposed that seeking career guidance is ineffective in a hierarchy organisation, it is believed it will be less effective than in a clan environment. The dominant leadership type in a hierarchy culture is a coordinator, monitor and organiser (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) and this leadership type is unlikely to foster career guidance discussions.

Hypothesis five proposed that high creating opportunities is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation. Creating opportunities is about developing skills which may be needed in the future, keeping your career options open, preparing for opportunities which may materialise, assuming leadership, obtaining broad work experiences, and developing expertise where others have not (Gould & Penley, 1984). Consequently, the stronger relationship between creating opportunities and a clan culture is expected because in contrast to a hierarchical organisation valuing stability, conformity and control (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) which is likely to be an inhibitor to creating opportunities, clan cultures value flexibility, teamwork and participation, to which creating opportunity behaviours is likely to be conducive.

Hypothesis six proposed that high extended work involvement is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan culture. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures manage their environment through teamwork and rely on flexibility to operate. Therefore, taking your work home with you, working at your job outside of normal
work hours, spending time thinking about work outside normal hours (Gould & Penley, 1984) and doing whatever is necessary to get the job done would be expected to be supported by the organisational culture and consequently positively contributing to career success outcomes. Further, due to hierarchical organisations valuing uniformity and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), it is expected that working outside normal working hours or taking work home could be less effective for career outcomes in a hierarchy culture than in a clan culture.

Hypothesis seven proposed that high self-promotion is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan culture in contrast to a hierarchical organisation. This relationship is expected as hierarchical organisations are described as valuing conformity efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), therefore presenting yourself as a person who gets things done, overtly making your manager aware of your accomplishments, and ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your career aspirations and objectives (Gould & Penley, 1984) is expected to contribute less to career success outcomes in a hierarchical organisation than in a clan culture. This is further supported by human development and participation producing effectiveness in a clan organisation efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), which will likely support the behaviour of self-promotion.

The following section of this chapter presents the linear regression analysis conducted for both organisational culture types (clan and hierarchical) to assess whether creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking significantly predicted subjective career success.

5.5.1 Hypotheses Three to Seven Testing

The objective of the data analysis for each of these hypotheses (H3-H7) was to identify which organisational culture the career self-management behaviours more strongly associated with subjective career outcomes. To test the hypotheses linear regression analyses were conducted for both clan and hierarchical organisational culture types to assess whether extended work involvement, creating
opportunities, seeking career guidance, self-promotion and networking significantly predicted subjective career success. All of the selected predictors were included in the linear regression model and were entered in a single step by applying the ‘enter’ variable selection method.

Prior to undertaking analysis of the data there are basic tests that need to be undertaken, including: normality, homoscedasticity, variance inflation factors, and standardised residuals.

To determine if a data set is well-modelled by a normal distribution, normality tests are used. Normality was evaluated using a Q-Q scatterplot (Bates et al., 2014) to measure how likely it is for a random variable underlying the data set to be normally distributed. The distribution of the residuals with a normal distribution were compared on the Q-Q scatterplot. Normality can be assumed if the points form a relatively straight line in the Q-Q scatterplot, which is considered normal distribution. Homoscedasticity was evaluated by plotting the residuals against the predicted values (Field, 2009; Bates et al., 2014; Osborne & Walters, 2002). Homoscedasticity, also known as homogeneity of variance, tests for the variance around the regression line being the same for all values of the predictor/independent variables. The assumption is met if the points appear randomly distributed with no apparent curvature and a mean of zero.

Variance inflation factors (VIF) measure how much the variance of the estimated regression coefficients are inflated as compared to when the predictor variables are not linearly related.

To detect the presence of multicollinearity between predictors VIFs were calculated. VIFs less than five are preferred, greater than 5 are cause for concern, whereas VIFs of 10 should be considered the maximum upper limit because high VIFs indicate increased effects of multicollinearity in the model (Menard, 2009). To identify influential points, standardised residuals were calculated and the absolute values were plotted against the observation numbers (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009). The standardised residual is a measure of the strength of the difference between observed and expected values. Standardised residuals are determined by dividing the residuals by the estimated residual standard deviation. An observation with a standardised residual greater than 3.17 in absolute value, the .999
quartile of a $t$ distribution with 104 degrees of freedom, was considered to have significant influence on the results of the model. Any standardised residuals greater than three are observed and numbered.

### 5.5.1.1 Clan Organisational Culture Type

Normality was assessed and is assumed as the points form a relatively straight line, as represented in Figure 15 (see Appendix H). Homoscedasticity was evaluated and the assumption was met, as the points appear randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature, as presented in Figure 16 (Appendix H). Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated in order to detect multicollinearity between predictors, and there is no cause for concern as all VIFs are less than 3. Results are presented in Table 10 (see Appendix H). Standardised residuals were calculated and the absolute values were plotted against the observation numbers (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009). There were no observations with a standardised residual greater than 3.17 in absolute value, as presented in Figure 17 (see Appendix H).

In response to research question two, hypotheses three to seven, and to determine the relationship between career self-management behaviours with subjective career success in a clan organisational culture, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. The results of the linear regression model for clan organisational culture type were significant, $F(5,160) = 8.96, p < .001, R^2 = 0.22$, indicating that approximately 22% of the variance in subjective career success is explainable by creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking. Creating opportunities significantly predicted subjective career success, $B = 0.18, t(160) = 2.18, p = .030$. This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of creating opportunities will increase the value of subjective career success by 0.18 units in a clan organisation. Self-promotion did not significantly predict subjective career success, $B = 0.02, t(160) = 0.31, p = .758$. Extended work involvement significantly predicted subjective career success, $B = 0.14, t(160) = 3.81, p < .001$. This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of extended work involvement will increase the value of subjective career success by 0.14 units in a clan organisation. Seeking career guidance did not significantly predict subjective career success, $B = -0.00, t(160) = -0.01, p$
Network did not significantly predict subjective career success, \( B = 0.10, t(160) = 1.56, p = .122 \). Table 11 (Appendix H) summarises the results of the regression model.

### 5.5.1.2 Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

Normality was assessed and is assumed as the points form a relatively straight line. The Q-Q scatterplot for normality are presented in Figure 18 (see Appendix H). Homoscedasticity was evaluated and the assumption was met, as the points appear randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature. Figure 19 (Appendix H) presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to detect the presence of multicollinearity between predictors, and there is no cause for concern as all VIFs are less than 5. Table 12 (Appendix H) presents the VIF for each predictor in the model. Standardised residuals were calculated and the absolute values were plotted against the observation numbers (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009). There were no observations with a standardised residual greater than 3.17 in absolute value. Figure 20 (see Appendix H) presents the standardised residuals plot of the observations.

In response to research question two, hypotheses three to seven, and to determine the relationship between career self-management behaviours with subjective career success in a hierarchical organisational culture, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. The results of the linear regression model were significant for a hierarchical organisational culture type, \( F(5,169) = 5.45, p < .001, R^2 = 0.14 \), indicating that approximately 14% of the variance in subjective career success is explainable by creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking. Creating opportunities significantly predicted subjective career success, \( B = 0.23, t(169) = 3.12, p = .002 \). Based on this sample, a one-unit increase in creating opportunities will increase the value of subjective career success in a hierarchical organisation by 0.23 units. Self-promotion did not significantly predict subjective career success, \( B = 0.02, t(169) = 0.23, p = .817 \). Extended work involvement did not significantly predict subjective career success, \( B = -0.04, t(169) = -0.69, p = .492 \). Seeking career guidance did not significantly predict subjective career success, \( B = 0.01, t(169) = 0.10, p = .922 \). Networking did not significantly
predict subjective career success, $B = 0.11, t(169) = 1.55, p = .124$. Appendix H, Table 13, summarises the results of the regression model.

The next sections of this chapter present the results for hypotheses three to seven based on the linear regression analysis conducted for each organisational culture type.

5.5.2 Hypothesis Three Results

Hypothesis three stated that high networking is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected as clan organisations are described as emphasising human relations and adopting flexible operation procedures that focus on internal relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), and demonstrating networking behaviours such as building a network of contacts and friendships in the organisation that can assist with career progression (Gould & Penley, 1984) in this environment would likely positively contribute to career success outcomes.

In response to hypothesis three and to determine if high networking is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. However, this hypothesis was not supported. Networking did not significantly predict subjective career success, $B = 0.10, t(160) = 1.56, p = .122$. Therefore, hypothesis three was not supported. The same analysis was undertaken for networking in the hierarchical organisation and was also found not to significantly predict subjective career success ($B = 0.11, t(169) = 1.55, p = .124$).

5.5.3 Hypothesis Four Results

Hypothesis four stated that high seeking career guidance is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures are friendly places to work where people share a lot of themselves, and the leaders in organisations with clan cultures are viewed as mentors. As seeking career guidance strategies include
getting career guidance from supervisors and other experienced people inside and outside the organisation (Gould & Penley, 1984) it was believed seeking career guidance would positively contribute to career success outcomes within a clan culture.

In response to hypothesis four and to determine if high seeking career guidance is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. Seeking career guidance did not significantly predict subjective career success, $B = -0.00$, $t(160) = -0.01$, $p = .994$. Therefore hypothesis four was not supported. The same analysis was also undertaken for seeking career guidance in the hierarchical organisation, $B = 0.11$, $t(169) = 1.55$, $p = .124$ and in this case does not have a significant effect on subjective career success.

5.5.4 **Hypothesis Five Results**

Hypothesis five stated that high creating opportunities is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation. Creating opportunities is about developing skills which may be needed in the future, keeping your career options open, preparing for opportunities which may materialise, assuming leadership, obtaining broad work experiences, and developing expertise where others have not (Gould & Penley, 1984). Consequently, the stronger relationship between creating opportunities and a clan culture is expected because in contrast to a hierarchical organisation, which values stability, conformity and control (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) that is likely to be an inhibitor to creating opportunities, clan cultures value flexibility, teamwork, and participation which in turn encourages opportunity creation behaviours.

In response to hypothesis five and to determine if high creating opportunities is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. The results of the linear regression model for clan culture were significant, $F(5,160) = 8.96$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.22$, indicating that approximately 22% of the variance in subjective career success is explainable by creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking. Hypothesis five was supported as creating opportunities significantly predict subjective career success, $B = 0.18$, ...
Based on this sample, this indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of creating opportunities will increase the value of subjective career success by 0.18 units. The same analysis was undertaken for seeking career guidance in the hierarchical organisation and it was found that creating opportunities did significantly predict subjective career success in a hierarchical organisation, $B = 0.23$, $t(169) = 3.12$, $p = .002$. This indicated that on average, a one-unit increase of creating opportunities will increase the value of subjective career success by 0.23 units in a hierarchical organisation.

5.5.5 **Hypothesis Six Results**

Hypothesis six stated that high extended work involvement is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan culture. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures manage their environment through teamwork and rely on flexibility to operate. Examples include taking your work home with you, working at your job outside of normal work hours, spending time thinking about work outside normal hours (Gould & Penley, 1984) and doing whatever is necessary to get the job done. All of these activities would be expected in this organisational culture and therefore it is likely that it will positively contribute to career success outcomes. This hypothesis is further supported because hierarchical organisations value uniformity and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), therefore it is expected that working outside normal working hours or taking work home could be less effective for career outcomes in a hierarchical culture compared with a clan culture.

In response to hypothesis six and to determine if high extended work involvement is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan culture, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. This hypothesis was supported as extended work involvement did significantly predict subjective career success in a clan culture, $B = 0.14$, $t(160) = 3.81$, $p < .001$. This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of extended work involvement will increase the value of subjective career success by 0.14 units in a clan culture. The same analysis was also undertaken for extended work involvement in the hierarchical organisation,
However, the results, $B = 0.01, t(169) = 0.10, p = .922$ indicate that it did not have a significant effect on subjective career success.

### 5.5.6 Hypothesis Seven Results

Hypothesis seven stated that high self-promotion is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan culture. This relationship is expected as hierarchical organisations are described as valuing conformity efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), therefore presenting yourself as a person that gets things done, overtly making your manager aware of your accomplishments, and ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your career aspirations and objectives (Gould & Penley, 1984) is expected to contribute less to career success outcomes in a hierarchical organisation than in a clan culture. This is further supported by human development and participation producing effectiveness in a clan organisation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), which will likely support the behaviour of self-promotion.

In response to hypothesis seven and to determine if high self-promotion is associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan culture, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. Hypothesis seven was not supported because self-promotion did not significantly predict subjective career success, $B = 0.02, t(160) = 0.31, p = .758$. Similarly, the same analysis was undertaken for seeking career guidance in the hierarchical organisation type and was also found not to significantly predict subjective career success, $B = -0.04, t(169) = -0.69, p = .492$.

### 5.5.7 Research Question Two Results Summary

In summary, research question two sought to determine which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with subjective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. All five hypotheses (H3-H7) proposed that high demonstration of each of the five career self-management behaviours (networking, seeking career guidance, creating opportunities, extended work involvement, self-promotion) would be more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in a clan organisation
than in a hierarchical organisation. While the results of the linear regression model for clan culture were significant overall, not all of the hypotheses were supported. It was found that creating opportunities (H5) and extended work involvement (H6) did significantly predict subjective career success in a clan organisation. While the relationship between extended work involvement was strongest in a clan organisation and hypothesis six was supported, it was found that creating opportunities had a stronger relationship with subjective career success in a hierarchical organisation and hypothesis five was only somewhat supported. All other hypotheses in question two were not supported. The next section of this chapter investigates the relationship between career self-management behaviours with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures.

5.6 Research Question 3: Career Self-Management Behaviours and Objective Career Success

Research question three was designed to measure the relationship of each of the career self-management behaviours with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Five hypotheses were presented to address this question. For hypotheses eight to 12, the analysis assessed the relationship between each of the five career self-management behaviours (networking, seeking career guidance, creating opportunities, extended work involvement and self-promotion) and objective career success with the two organisational culture types (clan and hierarchical). The objective of the data analysis for each of these hypotheses (H8-H12) was to identify which organisational culture the career self-management behaviours more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes.

As with research question two, research question three contributes new knowledge to academic literature. The hypotheses were based on expected compatible relationship between the five career self-management behaviours and the different organisations, as defined in the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument. Research question three applies the same justification for the positive relationship between each of the career self-management behaviours with the organisational culture types as outlined in
research question two. The five hypotheses for research question three include: (H8) high networking, (H9) high seeking career guidance, (H10) high creating opportunities, (H11) high extended work involvement, and (H12) self-promotion, and are each more strongly associated with high objective career success in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation.

The following section of this chapter presents the linear regression analysis conducted for both organisational culture types to assess whether creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking significantly predicted objective career success.

5.6.1 Hypotheses 8-12 Testing

The objective of the data analysis for each of these hypotheses (H8-H12) was to identify which career self-management behaviours were more strongly associated with objective career outcomes within the two organisational cultures. For each organisational culture type dataset a linear regression analysis was conducted to assess whether creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking significantly predicted objective career success. All of the selected predictors were included in the linear regression model and were entered in a single step by applying the ‘enter’ variable selection method. Before conducting the linear regression, the assumptions of normality of residuals, homoscedasticity of residuals, absence of multicollinearity, and the lack of outliers were examined. The data set was determined to be normally distributed.

5.6.1.1 Clan Organisational Culture Type

Normality was assessed and is assumed as the points form a relatively straight line. The Q-Q scatterplot for normality is presented in Figure 21 (see Appendix I). Homoscedasticity was evaluated and the assumption was met, as the points appear randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature. Figure 22 (see Appendix I) presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to detect the presence of multicollinearity between
predictors, and there is no cause for concern as all VIFs are less than 5 (see Appendix I, Table 14). Standardised residuals were calculated and the absolute values were plotted against the observation numbers (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009). There were no observations with a standardised residual greater than 3.17 in absolute value (see Appendix I, Figure 23). Observation numbers are specified next to each point with a standardised residual greater than three.

In response to research question three, hypotheses eight to 12, and to determine the relationship between career self-management behaviours with objective career success in a clan organisational culture, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. The results of the linear regression model were significant for a clan organisational culture type, \( F(5,160) = 14.73, p < .001, R^2 = 0.43 \), indicating that approximately 43\% of the variance in objective career success is explainable by creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance, and networking. In contrast, creating opportunities did not significantly predict objective career success, \( B = 0.32, t(160) = 1.32, p = .190 \). Self-promotion also failed to significantly predict objective career success, \( B = -0.40, t(160) = -1.68, p = .096 \). Career guidance did not significantly predict objective career success, \( B = -0.11, t(160) = -0.56, p = .576 \).

On the other hand, the extended work involvement significantly predicted objective career success, \( B = 0.83, t(160) = 7.06, p < .001 \). This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of extended work involvement will increase the value of objective career success by 0.83 units in a clan organisation. Networking also significantly predicted objective career success, \( B = 0.47, t(160) = 2.26, p = .026 \). This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of networking will increase the value of objective career success by 0.47 units in a clan organisation. Appendix I, Table 15, summarises the results of the regression model.

### 5.6.1.2 Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

Normality was assessed and is assumed as the points form a relatively straight line. The Q-Q scatterplot for normality is presented in Figure 24 (see Appendix I). Homoscedasticity was evaluated and the
assumption was met, as the points appear randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature. Figure 25 (see Appendix I) presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to detect the presence of multicollinearity between predictors, and there is no cause for concern as all VIFs are less than 5 (see Appendix I, Table 16). Standardised residuals were calculated and the absolute values were plotted against the observation numbers (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009). There were no observations with a standardised residual greater than 3.17 in absolute value (see Appendix I, Figure 26).

In response to research question three, hypotheses eight to 12, and to determine the relationship between career self-management behaviours with objective career success in a hierarchical organisational culture, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. The results of the linear regression model were significant for the hierarchical organisation $F(5,169) = 2.64, p = .025, R^2 = 0.07$, indicating that approximately 7% of the variance in objective career success is explainable by creating opportunities, self-promotion, extended work involvement, career guidance and networking.

On the other hand, creating opportunities did not significantly predict objective career success, $B = -0.12, t(169) = -0.42, p = .674$. Extended work involvement did not significantly predict objective career success, $B = -0.04, t(169) = -0.22, p = .823$. Seeking career guidance did not significantly predict objective career success, $B = -0.33, t(169) = -1.32, p = .188$. Networking also did not significantly predict objective career success, $B = 0.41, t(169) = 1.58, p = .116$. Self-promotion significantly predicted objective career success, $B = -0.76, t(169) = -2.34, p = .021$, however not positively as hypothesised. Based on this sample, a one-unit increase in self-promotion will decrease objective career success in a hierarchical organisation by 0.76 units. Appendix I, Table 17, summarises the results of the regression model. The next section of this chapter presents the results for hypotheses eight to 12 based on the linear regression analysis conducted for each organisational culture type.
5.6.2 **Hypothesis Eight Results**

Hypothesis eight stated that high networking is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship is expected as clan organisations are described as emphasising human relations and adopting flexible operational procedures that focus on internal relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Therefore, demonstrating networking behaviours such as building a network of contacts and friendships in the organisation that can assist with career progression (Gould & Penley, 1984) in this environment will likely positively contribute to career success outcomes.

In response to hypothesis eight and to determine if high networking is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. This hypothesis was supported as networking was found to significantly predict objective career success in a clan organisation, $B = 0.47, t(160) = 2.26, p = .026$. This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of networking will increase the value of objective career success by 0.47 units in a clan organisation. The same analysis was undertaken for the hierarchical organisational culture, and networking was not found to significantly contribute to objective career success in the hierarchical organisation, $B = 0.41, t(169) = 1.58, p = .116$.

5.6.3 **Hypothesis Nine Results**

Hypothesis nine stated that high seeking career guidance is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures are friendly places to work where people share a lot of themselves, and the leaders in organisations with clan cultures are viewed as mentors. As seeking career guidance strategies include getting career guidance from supervisors and other experienced people inside and outside the organisation (Gould & Penley, 1984) it is believed seeking career guidance will positively contribute to career success outcomes within a clan culture.

In response to hypothesis nine and to determine if high seeking career guidance is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. This
Hypothesis was not supported as seeking career guidance did not significantly predict objective career success in a clan organisation, $B = -0.11$, $t(160) = -0.56$, $p = .576$. Similarly, the same analysis was undertaken for the hierarchical organisation and seeking career guidance did not significantly predict objective career success ($B = -0.33$, $t(169) = -1.32$, $p = .188$).

5.6.4 **Hypothesis 10 Results**

Hypothesis ten stated that high creating opportunities is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation. Creating opportunities is about keeping your career options open, developing skills which may be needed in the future, preparing for opportunities which may materialise, obtaining broad work experiences, assuming leadership, and developing expertise where others have not (Gould & Penley, 1984). Consequently, a stronger relationship between creating opportunities and a clan culture is expected because clan cultures value flexibility, teamwork, and participation with which creating opportunity behaviours is likely to be beneficial. In contrast, a hierarchical organisation values stability, conformity and control (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) which is likely to be an inhibitor to creating opportunities.

In response to hypothesis ten and to determine if high creating opportunities is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. This hypothesis was not supported as creating opportunities did not significantly predict objective career success, $B = 0.32$, $t(160) = 1.32$, $p = .190$. The same analysis was undertaken for the hierarchical organisation and creating opportunities also failed to significantly predict objective career success, $B = -0.12$, $t(169) = -0.42$, $p = .674$. 
5.6.5 Hypothesis 11 Results

Hypothesis 11 stated that high extended work involvement is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures manage their environment through teamwork and rely on flexibility to operate. Therefore, working at your job outside of normal work hours, taking your work home with you, spending time thinking about work outside normal hours (Gould & Penley, 1984) and doing whatever is necessary to get the job done would be expected as supported by the organisational culture and consequently positively contribute to career success outcomes. Further supporting this hypothesis, hierarchical organisations value uniformity and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), therefore it is expected that working outside normal working hours or taking work home could be less effective for career outcomes in a hierarchical culture than in a clan culture.

In response to hypothesis 11 and to determine if high extended work involvement is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. This hypothesis was supported as extended work involvement significantly predicted objective career success in a clan organisation, $B = 0.83$, $t(160) = 7.06$, $p < .001$. This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of extended work involvement will increase the value of objective career success by 0.83 units in a clan culture. In contrast, the same analysis was undertaken for the hierarchical organisation and extended work involvement did not significantly predict objective career success, $B = -0.04$, $t(169) = -0.22$, $p = .823$.

5.6.6 Hypothesis 12 Results

Hypothesis 12 stated that high self-promotion is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation. This relationship is expected as hierarchical organisations are described as valuing conformity efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), therefore overtly making your manager aware of your accomplishments, presenting yourself as a person that gets things done, and ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your career aspirations and objectives (Gould & Penley, 1984) is expected to contribute less to career success outcomes in a hierarchical organisation than in a clan culture. This is
further supported by human development and participation producing effectiveness in a clan organisation efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), which will likely support the behaviour of self-promotion.

In response to hypothesis 12 and to determine if high self-promotion is associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation, a linear regression analysis was undertaken. Self-promotion did not significantly predict objective career success in a clan organisation, $B = -0.40, t(160) = -1.68, p = .096$. The same analysis was undertaken for the hierarchical organisation and self-promotion significantly predicted objective career success with a negative effect, $B = -0.76, t(169) = -2.34, p = .021$. Based on this sample, a one-unit increase in self-promotion will decrease objective career success in a hierarchical organisation by 0.76 units.

### 5.6.7 Research Question Three Results Summary

In summary, research question three sought to determine which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with objective career success in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. All five hypotheses (H8-H12) proposed that high demonstration of each of the five career self-management behaviours (networking, seeking career guidance, creating opportunities, extended work involvement, self-promotion) would be more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. While the results of the linear regression model for clan culture were significant overall, not all of the hypotheses were supported. It was found that networking (H8) and extended work involvement (H11) did significantly predict high objective career success in a clan organisation. On the other hand, no significant relationships were identified between each of the career self-management behaviours and objective career success in the hierarchical organisation; rather, a significant negative relationship between self-promotion and objective career outcomes was identified. The next section of this chapter investigates the perceived reception and ease of enactment of career self-management behaviours in different organisational cultures.
5.7 Research Question 4: Reception and Ease of Enactment of Career Self-Management Behaviours

Research question four was designed to measure the perceived reception and ease of enactment of career self-management behaviours in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Five hypotheses were presented to address this question. For hypotheses 13-17, the analysis assessed the relationship between all five career self-management behaviours (networking, seeking career guidance, creating opportunities, extended work involvement and self-promotion) and perception of reception and ease of enactment for each of the organisational culture types (clan and hierarchical). The objective of the data analysis for each hypothesis was to identify which career self-management behaviours are perceived as more positively received and enacted with ease within the two organisational culture types.

As with research questions two and three, question four contributes new knowledge to academic literature, therefore the hypotheses were based on expected compatible relationship between the five career self-management behaviours and the different organisations as defined in the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument. Similar to research question three, research question four applies the same justification for the positive relationship between each of the career self-management behaviours with the organisational culture types as outlined in research question one, that is, high networking (H13), high seeking career guidance (H14), high creating opportunities (H15), high extended work involvement (H16), and high self-promotion (H17) are more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. The next section of this chapter presents the statistical analysis for the reception and ease of enactment of the five career self-management behaviours within both organisational culture types.

5.7.1 Hypotheses 13-17 Testing

Summary statistics were calculated for the reception and ease of enactment of the five career self-management behaviours within each organisational culture type. The descriptive statistics applied were:
mean (M) to determine the average value of a scale variable; standard deviation (SD) to represent the spread of the data around the mean of a scale variable; sample size (n) to present the frequency or count of a nominal or ordinal category; standard error of the mean (SEM) to estimate how far the sample mean is likely to differ from the actual population mean, skewness to measure the asymmetry in the distribution of a variable, and kurtosis to measure the tail behaviour of a distribution where a positive kurtosis signifies a distribution is more prone to outliers, and negative kurtosis implies a distribution is less prone to outliers. The variable is regarded as asymmetrical about its mean when the skewness is greater than 2 in absolute value. The variable’s distribution is noticeably different to a normal distribution in its tendency to produce outliers when the kurtosis is greater than or equal to 3 (Westfall & Henning, 2013). The analysis is presented by career self-management behaviour, followed by the hypotheses results.

5.7.1.1 Networking

For the clan organisation, the observations of networking ease of enactment had an average of 3.64 (SD = 1.11, SEM = 0.09), and the observations of networking reception had an average of 3.69 (SD = 1.14, SEM = 0.09). Networking was perceived as the career self-management behaviour third most well received and enacted with ease in a clan organisational culture. For the hierarchical organisation, the observations of networking ease of enactment had an average of 3.40 (SD = 1.16, SEM = 0.09), and the observations of networking reception had an average of 3.34 (SD = 1.13, SEM = 0.09). Networking was perceived as enacted with more ease in a clan organisational culture and was also perceived as better received in a clan organisational culture. Networking was found to be perceived as better received and enacted with greatest ease of the five career self-management behaviours, when demonstrated in a hierarchical culture. Table 18 and Figure 27 in Appendix J summarise these results.
5.7.1.2 Seeking career guidance

For the clan organisation, the observations of career guidance ease of enactment had an average of 3.23 (SD = 1.26, SEM = 0.10), and the observations of career guidance reception had an average of 3.43 (SD = 1.29, SEM = 0.10). Of the five career self-management behaviours, seeking career guidance is perceived as the least well received and applied with least ease in a clan organisational culture. For the hierarchical organisation, the observations of career guidance ease of enactment had an average of 2.96 (SD = 1.28, SEM = 0.10), and the observations of career guidance reception had an average of 2.95 (SD = 1.26, SEM = 0.10). Seeking career guidance is perceived as also being the least enacted with ease in a hierarchical organisational culture, and only the fourth well received. Career guidance was perceived as enacted with greatest ease in a clan organisational culture and was also perceived as better received in a clan organisational culture. However, of the five career self-management behaviours, seeking career guidance is the least well received and enacted with least ease in a clan organisation. Seeking career guidance was also the least enacted with ease in a hierarchical organisation, and only the fourth well received. Table 19 and Figure 28 in Appendix J summarise these results.

5.7.1.3 Creating opportunities

For the clan organisation, the observations of creating opportunities ease of enactment had an average of 3.68 (SD = 1.00, SEM = 0.08), and the observations of reception of creating opportunities had an average of 3.87 (SD = 0.98, SEM = 0.08). Of the five career self-management behaviours, creating opportunities is perceived as the most well received in a clan organisational culture, and the second most enacted with ease. For the hierarchical organisation, the observations of creating opportunities ease of enactment had an average of 3.10 (SD = 1.16, SEM = 0.09), and the observations of reception of creating opportunities had an average of 3.07 (SD = 1.18, SEM = 0.09). In a hierarchical organisational culture, creating opportunities is the third most well received and enacted with ease career self-management behaviour. Creating opportunities was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in clan organisational culture. Table 20 and Figure 29 in Appendix J summarise these results.
5.7.1.4 Extended work involvement

For the clan organisation, the observations of extended work involvement ease of enactment had an average of 3.52 (SD = 1.25, SEM = 0.10), and the observations of extended work involvement reception had an average of 3.45 (SD = 1.33, SEM = 0.10). Extended work involvement is perceived as the fourth most well received and enacted with ease in a clan organisational culture. For the hierarchical organisation, the observations of extended work involvement ease of enactment had an average of 3.04 (SD = 1.26, SEM = 0.09), and the observations of extended work involvement reception had an average of 2.92 (SD = 1.20, SEM = 0.09). Of the five career self-management behaviours extended work involvement is perceived as the least well received and the fourth enacted with ease in a hierarchical organisational culture. Extended work involvement was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in a clan organisational culture. Table 21 and Figure 30 in Appendix J summarise these results.

5.7.1.5 Self-promotion

For the clan organisation, the observations of self-promotion ease of enactment had an average of 3.71 (SD = 1.02, SEM = 0.08), and the observations of reception of self-promotion had an average of 3.87 (SD = 1.02, SEM = 0.08). Of the five career self-management behaviours, self-promotion is perceived as both the most well received and enacted with greatest ease in a clan organisational culture. For the hierarchical organisation, the observations of self-promotion enactment of ease had an average of 3.21 (SD = 1.14, SEM = 0.09), and the observations of reception of self-promotion had an average of 3.26 (SD = 1.12, SEM = 0.08). Self-promotion is perceived as the second most well received and enacted with ease career self-management behaviour in a hierarchical organisation. Self-promotion was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in a clan organisational culture. Table 22 and Figure 31 in Appendix J summarise these results.
5.7.2 **Hypothesis 13 Results**

Hypothesis 13 states that networking is more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. This relationship is expected as clan organisations are described as emphasising human relations and adopting flexible operation procedures that focus on internal relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), and demonstrating networking behaviours such as building a network of contacts and friendships in the organisation that can assist with career progression (Gould & Penley, 1984) in this environment will likely positively contribute to career success outcomes. Hypothesis 13 was supported. Networking was perceived as enacted with more ease in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.64, SD = 1.11, SEM = 0.09), and was also perceived as better received in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.69, SD = 1.14, SEM = 0.09). It was also found that networking, of all five career self-management behaviours, was perceived as the best received and enacted with greatest ease for a hierarchical culture.

5.7.3 **Hypothesis 14**

Hypothesis 14 states that seeking career guidance is more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures are friendly places to work where people share a lot of themselves, and the leaders in organisations with clan cultures are viewed as mentors. As seeking career guidance strategies include getting career guidance from supervisors and other experienced people inside and outside the organisation (Gould & Penley, 1984) it is believed seeking career guidance would positively contribute to career success outcomes within a clan culture. Hypothesis 14 was supported. Career guidance was perceived as enacted with more ease in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.23, SD = 1.26, SEM = 0.10), and was also perceived as best received in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.43, SD = 1.29, SEM = 0.10). Further, of all five career self-management behaviours, seeking career guidance was perceived as the least well received and enacted with least ease for a clan culture, as well as the least enacted with ease in a hierarchical culture.
5.7.4 **Hypothesis 15**

Hypothesis 15 states that creating opportunities is more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. Creating opportunities is about keeping your career options open, developing skills which may be needed in the future, preparing for opportunities which may materialise, obtaining broad work experiences, assuming leadership, and developing expertise where others have not (Gould & Penley, 1984). Consequently, the stronger relationship between creating opportunities and a clan culture is expected because in contrast to a hierarchical organisation valuing stability, conformity and control, which is likely to be an inhibitor to creating opportunities, clan cultures value flexibility, teamwork and participation to which creating opportunity behaviours is likely to be conducive (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Hypothesis 15 was supported. Creating opportunities was perceived as enacted with more ease in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.68, SD = 1.00, SEM = 0.08), and was also perceived as best received in a clan culture (Mean = 3.80 = 7, SD = 0.98, SEM = 0.08). Of all five career self-management behaviours applied in the clan organisation, creating opportunities was perceived as the most well received.

5.7.5 **Hypothesis 16**

Hypothesis 16 states that extended work involvement is more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures manage their environment through teamwork and rely on flexibility to operate. Therefore, working at your job outside of normal work hours, taking your work home with you, spending time thinking about work outside normal hours (Gould & Penley, 1984) and doing whatever is necessary to get the job done would be expected to be supported by the organisational culture and consequently positively contribute to career success outcomes. Hypothesis 16 was supported. Extended work involvement was perceived as enacted with more ease in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.52, SD = 1.25, SEM = 0.10), and was also perceived as best received in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.45, SD = 1.33, SEM = 0.10). Extended work involvement was also perceived as the least well received career self-management behaviour in a hierarchical organisational culture.
5.7.6 **Hypothesis 17**

Hypothesis 17 states that self-promotion is more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. This relationship is expected as hierarchical organisations are described as valuing conformity, therefore overtly making your manager aware of your accomplishments, presenting yourself as a person that gets things done, and ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your career aspirations and objectives (Gould & Penley, 1984) is expected to contribute less to career success outcomes in a hierarchical organisation than in a clan culture. Hypothesis 17 was supported. Self-promotion was perceived as enacted with more ease in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.71, SD = 1.02, SEM = 0.08), and was also perceived as better received in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.87, SD = 1.02, SEM = 0.08). Self-promotion was the career self-management behaviour perceived as both the most well received and enacted with greatest ease in a clan organisational culture.

5.7.7 **Research Question Four Results Summary**

In summary, research question four sought to determine which career self-management behaviour(s) were better received and enacted with greater ease within clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Hypothesis 13 proposed networking would be more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. Hypothesis 14 proposed seeking career guidance would more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. Hypothesis 15 proposed creating opportunities would be more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. Hypothesis 16 proposed extended work involvement and hypothesis 17 proposed self-promotion would be more positively received and enacted with ease in a clan organisation. All hypotheses for research question four were supported by the results of this study. The next section of this chapter investigates the perceived effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures.
5.8 Research Question 5 – Perceived Effectiveness of Career Self-Management Behaviours

Research question five was designed to measure the perceived effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Five hypotheses were presented to address this question. For hypotheses 18-22, the analysis assessed the relationship between all five career self-management behaviours (networking, seeking career guidance, creating opportunities, extended work involvement and self-promotion) and perceived effectiveness for each of the organisational culture types (clan and hierarchical). The objective of the data analysis for each hypothesis was to identify which career self-management behaviours were perceived as more effective with the two organisational culture types.

As with research questions two, three and four, research question five contributes new knowledge to academic literature, therefore the hypotheses were based on expected compatible relationship between the five career self-management behaviours and the different organisations as defined in the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument. Again, in line with previous research questions two, three and four, the same justification is applied for the positive relationship between each of the career self-management behaviours (Gould & Penley, 1984) with the organisational culture types (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) as outlined in research question two. The five hypotheses for this research question include: (H18) high networking, (H19) high seeking career guidance, (H20) high creating opportunities, (H21) high extended work involvement, and (H22) self-promotion, and are perceived as being more effective behaviour in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. The next section of this chapter presents the statistical analysis for the perception of effectiveness of the five career self-management behaviours within each organisational culture type.
5.8.1  **Hypotheses 18-22 Testing**

Summary statistics were calculated for the perception of effectiveness of the five career self-management behaviours within each organisational culture type. The descriptive statistics applied were: mean (M) to determine the average value of a scale variable; standard deviation (SD) to represent the spread of the data around the mean of a scale variable; sample size (n) to present the frequency or count of a nominal or ordinal category; standard error of the mean (SEM) to estimate how far the sample mean is likely to differ from the actual population mean, skewness to measure the asymmetry in the distribution of a variable, and kurtosis to measure the tail behaviour of a distribution where a positive kurtosis signifies a distribution is more prone to outliers, and negative kurtosis implies a distribution is less prone to outliers. The variable is considered to be asymmetrical about its mean when the skewness is greater than 2 in absolute value. The variable’s distribution is noticeably different to a normal distribution in its tendency to produce outliers when the kurtosis is greater than or equal to 3 (Westfall & Henning, 2013). The results are presented by career self-management behaviour, followed by the hypotheses results.

5.8.1.1  **Networking**

For clan, the observations of networking perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.64 (SD = 1.08, SEM = 0.08). Networking was perceived as the third most effective career self-management behaviour in a clan culture. For hierarchy, the observations of networking perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.35 (SD = 1.19, SEM = 0.09). The perception of effectiveness of demonstrating networking in a hierarchical culture was rated the highest of all five career self-management behaviours. Networking was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture. Table 23 and Figure 32 in Appendix K summarise these results.

5.8.1.2  **Seeking career guidance**

For clan, the observations of career guidance perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.38 (SD = 1.24, SEM = 0.10). In the clan organisation, seeking career guidance was perceived as being the least effective
career self-management behaviour. For hierarchy, the observations of career guidance perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.02 (SD = 1.24, SEM = 0.09). Seeking career guidance was perceived as the fourth most effective career self-management behaviour in a hierarchical culture. Seeking career guidance was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture. Table 24 and Figure 33 in Appendix K summarise these results.

5.8.1.3 Creating opportunities

For clan, the observations of creating opportunities perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.78 (SD = 1.03, SEM = 0.08). Of all five career self-management behaviours, creating opportunities was perceived as the most effective behaviour when demonstrated in a clan organisational culture. For hierarchy, the observations of creating opportunities perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.27 (SD = 1.20, SEM = 0.09). Creating opportunities was perceived as the second most effective career self-management behaviour in a hierarchical culture. The kurtosis for the clan dataset for creating opportunities effectiveness was greater than or equal to 3, indicating the variable’s distribution is markedly different than a normal distribution in its tendency to produce outliers (Westfall & Henning, 2013). While creating opportunities was perceived as more effective in clan organisational culture, the interpretation must consider the kurtosis findings. Table 25 and Figure 34 in Appendix K summarise these results.

5.8.1.4 Extended work involvement

For clan, the observations of extended work involvement perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.43 (SD = 1.28, SEM = 0.10). Extended work involvement was perceived as the fourth most effective career self-management behaviour in a clan culture. For hierarchy, the observations of extended work involvement perceived effectiveness had an average of 2.93 (SD = 1.30, SEM = 0.10). The perception of effectiveness of demonstrating extended work involvement in a hierarchical culture was rated the least effective of all five career self-management behaviours. Extended work involvement was perceived as
more effective in a clan organisational culture. Table 26 and Figure 35 in Appendix K summarise these results.

5.8.1.5 Self-promotion

For clan, the observations of self-promotion perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.71 (SD = 1.05, SEM = 0.08). The perception of effectiveness of demonstrating self-promotion in a clan culture was rated the second highest of all five career self-management behaviours. For hierarchy, the observations of self-promotion perceived effectiveness had an average of 3.23 (SD = 1.21, SEM = 0.09). Self-promotion was perceived as the third most effective career self-management behaviour in a hierarchical culture. Self-promotion was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture. Table 27 and Figure 36 in Appendix K summarise these results.

5.8.2 Hypothesis 18 Results

Hypothesis 18 stated that networking is perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. This relationship is expected as clan organisations are described as emphasising human relations and adopting flexible operation procedures that focus on internal relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), and demonstrating networking behaviours such as building a network of contacts and friendships in the organisation that can assist with career progression (Gould & Penley, 1984) in this environment will likely positively contribute to career success outcomes. Hypothesis 18 was supported. Networking was perceived as more effective in a clan organisation (Mean = 3.64, SD = 1.08, SEM = 0.08). It was also found that networking, of all five career self-management behaviours, was perceived as the most effective for a hierarchical culture.

5.8.3 Hypothesis 19 Results

Hypothesis 19 stated that seeking career guidance is perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan
cultures are friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves, and the leaders in organisations with clan cultures are viewed as mentors. As seeking career guidance strategies include getting career guidance from supervisors and other experienced people inside and outside the organisation (Gould & Penley, 1984) it is believed seeking career guidance would positively contribute to career success outcomes within a clan culture. Hypothesis 19 was supported. Career guidance was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.38, SD = 1.24, SEM = 0.10). While it was found that seeking career guidance was perceived as more effective in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation, it was actually rated as the least effective behaviour for a clan culture.

5.8.4 **Hypothesis 20 Results**

Hypothesis 20 stated that creating opportunities is perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. Creating opportunities is about keeping your career options open, developing skills that might be needed in the future, preparing for opportunities which may materialise, obtaining broad work experiences, assuming leadership, and developing expertise where others have not (Gould & Penley, 1984). Consequently the stronger relationship between creating opportunities and a clan culture is expected because in contrast to a hierarchical organisation valuing stability, conformity and control, which is likely to be an inhibitor to creating opportunities, clan cultures value flexibility, teamwork, and participation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) with which creating opportunity behaviours is likely to be conducive. Hypothesis 20 was supported. Creating opportunities was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.78, SD = 1.03, SEM = 0.08). It was also found that of all five career self-management behaviours applied in a clan culture, creating opportunities was perceived as the most effective.

5.8.5 **Hypothesis 21 Results**

Hypothesis 21 stated that extended work involvement is perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. This relationship was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan
cultures manage their environment through teamwork and rely on flexibility to operate. Therefore working at your job outside of normal work hours, taking your work home with you, spending time thinking about work outside normal hours (Gould & Penley, 1984) and doing whatever is necessary to get the job done would be expected to be supported by the organisational culture and consequently positively contribute to career success outcomes. Hypothesis 21 was supported. Extended work involvement was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.43, SD = 1.28, SEM = 0.10). Extended work involvement, out of all five career self-management behaviours, when applied in a hierarchical culture was perceived as the least effective (Mean = 2.93, SD = 1.30, SEM = 0.10).

5.8.6 **Hypothesis 22 Results**

Hypothesis 22 stated that self-promotion is perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. This relationship is expected as hierarchical organisations are described as valuing conformity, therefore overtly making your manager aware of your accomplishments, presenting yourself as a person that gets things done, and ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your career aspirations and objectives (Gould & Penley, 1984) is expected to contribute less to career success outcomes in a hierarchical organisation than in a clan culture. Hypothesis 22 was supported. Self-promotion was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture (Mean = 3.71, SD = 1.05, SEM = 0.08).

5.8.7 **Research Question Five Results Summary**

In summary, research question five sought to determine which career self-management behaviour(s) were perceived as being more effective in the clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Hypothesis 18 proposed networking would be perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. Hypothesis 19 proposed seeking career guidance would be perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. Hypothesis 20 proposed creating opportunities would be perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. Hypothesis 21 proposed extended work involvement and hypothesis 22 proposed self-promotion would be perceived as being more effective in a clan organisation. All hypotheses for research
question five were supported. The next section of this chapter presents an overall summary of the results and findings of this research study.

5.9 Results Summary

In this chapter the findings from data collection and analysis were presented in six separate sections. The chapter began with the presentation of descriptive statistics. These research results were based on the responses from employees of two organisations and the participation in an online survey. Following the descriptive statistics, the results and findings of the five research questions were presented as identified and outlined in Chapter 4. These findings are summarised below and are presented in Table 2 (p.158).
Table 2. Hypotheses results and findings summary

<table>
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<tr>
<th>HYPOTHESIS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research Question 1: What organisational culture types do the participants of this study work within?</td>
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<tr>
<td>H1 The dominant culture of a family owned and operated organisation is clan (confirmation of previous knowledge)</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>• The dominant culture of the family owned and operated organisation was clan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 The dominant culture of a government owned and operated organisation is hierarchical (confirmation of previous knowledge)</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>• The dominant culture of the government owned and operated organisation was hierarchical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question 2: Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with subjective career success in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 High networking is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge)</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
<td>• While the results for both clan and hierarchical organisations were significant with the variance in subjective career success being explainable by the demonstration of career self-management behaviours, networking did not significantly predict subjective career success in either the clan or hierarchical organisational culture type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 High seeking career guidance is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge)</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
<td>• While the results for both clan and hierarchical organisations were significant with the variance in subjective career success being explainable by the demonstration of career self-management behaviours, seeking career guidance did not significantly predict subjective career success in the clan or hierarchical organisational culture types.</td>
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</table>
| H5 High creating opportunities is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge) | Somewhat Supported | • Creating opportunities significantly predicted subjective career success in both clan and hierarchical organisational culture types.  
• The relationship between creating opportunities and subjective career success is strongest in a hierarchical organisational culture. |
| H6 High extended work involvement is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture (new knowledge) | Supported    | • Extended work involvement significantly predicted subjective career success in a clan culture.  
• Extended work involvement did not predict subjective career success in a hierarchical culture. |
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<tr>
<td>H7 High self-promotion is more strongly associated with high subjective career outcomes in the clan culture <em>(new knowledge)</em></td>
<td>Not supported</td>
<td>• While the results for both clan and hierarchical organisations were significant with the variance in subjective career success being explainable by the demonstration of career self-management behaviours, self-promotion did not significantly predict subjective career success in either the clan or hierarchical organisational culture types.</td>
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**Research Question 3: Which career self-management behaviour(s) have the strongest relationship with objective career outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?**

| H8 High networking is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture *(new knowledge)* | Supported | • Networking significantly predicted objective career success in the clan organisation but not in the hierarchical organisation. |
| H9 High seeking career guidance is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in a the clan culture *(new knowledge)* | Not supported | • Career guidance did not significantly predict objective career success in the clan or hierarchical organisation. |
| H10 High creating opportunities is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture *(new knowledge)* | Not supported | • Creating opportunities did not significantly predict objective career success in a clan or hierarchical organisation. |
| H11 High extended work involvement is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture *(new knowledge)* | Supported | • Extended work involvement significantly predicted objective career success in a clan organisation.  
• Extended work involvement did not significantly predict objective career success in a hierarchical organisation. |
| H12 High self-promotion is more strongly associated with high objective career outcomes in the clan culture *(new knowledge)* | Not Supported | • Self-promotion did not predict objective career success in a clan organisation.  
• Self-promotion had a significant negative impact on objective career success in the hierarchical organisation. |

**Research Question 4: Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being better received and enacted with greater ease in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?**

| H13 Networking is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture *(new knowledge)* | Supported | • Networking was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in a clan organisational culture.  
• Networking was perceived as the most well received and enacted with greatest ease of all |
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<td>five behaviours applied in a hierarchical culture.</td>
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| H14 | Seeking career guidance is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge) | Supported | • Seeking career guidance was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in a clan organisational culture.  
• Seeking career guidance was perceived as the least well received and enacted with least ease of all five behaviours applied in a clan culture, as well as the least enacted with ease for a hierarchical culture. |

| H15 | Creating opportunities is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge) | Supported | • Creating opportunities was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in a clan organisational culture.  
• Creating opportunities was perceived as the most well received (equal first with self-promotion) of all five career self-management behaviours when applied in a clan organisational culture. |

| H16 | Extended work involvement is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge) | Supported | • Extended work involvement was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in a clan organisational culture.  
• Extended work involvement was perceived as the least well received career self-management behaviour of all five behaviours applied in the hierarchical organisational culture. |

| H17 | Self-promotion is better received and enacted with greater ease in the clan culture (new knowledge). | Supported | • Self-promotion was perceived as enacted with more ease and better received in a clan organisational culture.  
• Self-promotion was the career self-management behaviour perceived as the most well received (equal first with creating opportunities) and enacted with greatest ease of all five behaviours when applied in a clan organisational culture. |

Research Question 5: Which career self-management behaviour(s) are perceived as being more effective in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures?

| H18 | Networking is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture (new knowledge) | Supported | • Networking was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture.  
• Networking was perceived as the most effective behaviour, of all five behaviours, for a hierarchical culture. |

| H19 | Seeking career guidance is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture (new knowledge) | Supported | • Career guidance was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture.  
• Seeking career guidance was perceived as the least effective behaviour, of all five behaviours, for a clan culture. |
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<th>HYPOTHESIS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H20</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>Creating opportunities is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture <em>(new knowledge)</em></td>
<td>• Creating opportunities was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Creating opportunities was perceived as the most effective behaviour, of all five behaviours, for a clan culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H21</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extended work involvement is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture <em>(new knowledge)</em></td>
<td>• Extended work involvement was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Extended work involvement was perceived as the least effective behaviour, of all five behaviours, in a hierarchical culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H22</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion is perceived as being more effective in the clan culture <em>(new knowledge)</em></td>
<td>• Self-promotion was perceived as more effective in a clan organisational culture.</td>
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### 5.10 Conclusion

In conclusion, the results of this study on career self-management behaviours and career success in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures has both confirmed existing knowledge and contributed new knowledge to this research field. The application of the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) successfully identified dominant cultures aligned with proposed organisation types. Of greatest significance, however, is the contribution of 20 new pieces of evidence on the relationship between each of the career self-management behaviours and subjective and objective career success, and their perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness in clan and hierarchical organisational culture types (Figure 10). It was confirmed that in a clan organisational culture networking (H8) and extended work involvement (H11) significantly influenced objective career success, and creating opportunities (H5) and extended work involvement (H6) significantly influenced subjective career success. In the hierarchical organisational culture is was confirmed that creating opportunities (H5) significantly contributed to subjective career success. It was also confirmed that the perception of reception and ease of application (H13-17) and the perception of effectiveness (H18-H22) of each career self-management behaviour was different in the different organisational cultures.
Figure 10. Conceptual model of the confirmed hypothesised relationships between organisational culture, career self-management, perception of reception and effectiveness, and career success.

The following chapter contains an in-depth discussion on the research findings including their application to theory and practice. Limitations of the research are covered, as well as an outline of recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents insight and implications from the research. Five research questions were used to guide data collection and analysis in this study. The discussion begins by presenting a summary of the confirmation of knowledge and the contribution of new knowledge as a result of this study, followed by a discussion on the findings of the organisational cultural assessment of the family and government owned organisations and confirmation of the OCAI. The chapter then presents evidence of pattern matching the findings with past literature about the effect of career self-management behaviours on subjective and objective outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures, and the perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in those organisational cultures. This includes a detailed discussion of the findings for each career self-management behaviour in the context of existing literature. The contribution of the study to theories, especially Social Cognitive Theory and the Competing Values Framework, is then presented followed by the study's contribution to practice. The chapter concludes with limitations of the research and recommendations for future research.

6.2 Summary of confirmation of knowledge and contribution of new knowledge

This study began with the premise that, while career self-management behaviours have been shown to predict subjective and objectives career success, there has not been research to evaluate the effectiveness of this relationship within different organisational cultures. This research study has attempted to examine how career self-management behaviours are more or less effective in contributing to subjective and objective career success outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. This study began by assessing the organisational cultures of the family and government organisations participating in the study, using the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) and Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) as the two lenses. The results reinforced previous knowledge about the reliability of the OCAI instrument (Abassi et al., 2013; Cameron & Quinn, 2011;
Stefano & Scrina, 2016). It also provided more evidence that family owned and operated organisations predominantly represent a clan culture (Duh et al., 2010), and government owned and operated organisations predominantly represent a hierarchical culture (Parker & Bradley, 2000).

In addition to the use of the existing OCAI tool, to attempt to contribute new knowledge, this research utilised Gould and Penley’s Career Strategies Inventory (1984), coupled with Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) and Turban and Dougherty’s (1994) measures of subjective career success and objective career success measures of salary, promotion rate and hierarchical position (Lowe, 2006). The combination of these instruments provided new data that allowed far greater insight into how employees behave within different cultures and how these behaviours contribute to career success. The results of this study clearly suggest there is a difference in the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. In the clan organisational culture, creating opportunities and extended work involvement significantly predicted subjective career success, and networking and extended work involvement significantly predicted objective career success. In the hierarchical organisation, creating opportunities significantly predicted subjective career success, and self-promotion significantly negatively predicted objective career success. The findings are a contribution to the existing literature.

This study also introduced new questions about the perceived reception, effectiveness and ease of application of career self-management behaviours. These questions lead to new data allowing an investigation about the perceived effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in the different organisational cultures in contrast to subjective and objective career success measures. In particular, the most significant findings were (i) that while self-promotion did not predict subjective or objective career success in the clan organisational culture, it was perceived as the career self-management behaviour most well received and enacted with ease, and (ii) despite networking not predicting subjective or objective career success in the hierarchical organisational culture it was perceived as being effective. These findings are also a significant contribution to the existing literature.
The findings of this research study contribute to the existing literature on career self-management behaviours in general, but also contribute significant new knowledge about the relationship between career self-management behaviours and career success outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. The discussion of the findings of this study commence in the next section of this chapter with a discussion of the organisational culture types of a family and government organisation.

6.3 The organisational culture types of a family and a government organisation

This section compares and contrasts past research with the findings of this study in the context of organisational culture type for family and government owned and operated organisations. The findings are discussed in the context of existing literature and practical implications, firstly for the family owned and operated organisation, followed by the government owned and operated organisation.

6.3.1 The family owned and operated organisation

Family owned and operated businesses are known for possessing greater levels of commitment and harmony as well as stronger long-term orientation toward the achievement of strategic goals compared to non-family firms. The environment of an organisation with a clan culture is also considered to be a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves and consider their co-workers to be extended family (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). These characteristics suggest a family owned and operated business would be perceived as a clan organisation by its employees. Consequently it was hypothesised (H1) that a family owned and operated organisation would have a clan organisational culture.

The findings of this Australian-based study confirmed that the clan organisational culture type was the dominant culture of the family owned and operated organisation, which is also supported in the literature. Several studies have characterised family owned and managed firms as organisations that are highly influenced by a clan culture (Dyer, 1986; Gersick et al., 1997; Sanchez-Marin et al., 2015). Duh, Belak and
Milfelner (2010) found a significant cultural difference between family and non-family firms in their research in Slovenia, specifically that family firms have stronger clan culture characteristics, a more personal and family-like work environment, and a high level of mutual trust. While this finding is not surprising, nor in contrast to the findings of previous studies conducted around the world, it does serve to reinforce the competing values framework and further reinforce the application of the OCAI tool.

The CVF model does not suggest one culture is better than another, however, there are some potential downsides to a clan culture that a family owned and operated organisation should be aware of so as to determine if the clan culture is serving their strategic plans. The internal focus of a clan organisational culture and maintenance of a family-friendly culture and cohesiveness, while having some merit, can lead to delays in quickly assessing external market conditions (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This can detract from organisational performance for a customer-driven organisation, especially in terms of responding to changing market conditions (Oney-Yazici et al., 2007). If family firms want to reorient their emotional, internally-oriented organisational culture towards a more rational, market-oriented organisational culture typically representative of non-family firms, then owners and managers should consider ways of encouraging the development of a professionalised and dynamic culture that favours innovation, internationalisation and financial outcomes. This would require significant effort; however, it can be done through a structured change program incorporating changes to policies, processes, leadership capabilities, and employee behaviours.

Innovation and change has been found to be more successful when progressive leadership behaviours are practiced (Lotrecchiano, 2010). Weberg et al. (2016) outline seven innovation leadership characteristics that have been identified as influencing the movement of an organisation toward adaptation to changing market conditions: boundary spanning, risk taking, visioning, leveraging opportunity, adaptation, coordination of information flow, and facilitation. In addition to the development of these leadership capabilities, organisations should review the reward mechanisms they have in place. The right rewards system is a powerful way to direct employee professional growth, reinforce commitment, and shape the organisation’s culture to be more rational and market oriented. This could include performance
management tools, remuneration and compensation strategies, and other targeted recognition and reward programs (Maier et al., 2013). The behaviour rewarded in a firm reflects the values of an organisation. If rational market-oriented behaviour is rewarded, it will become the general, dominant way of behaving (Martins et al., 2003). Therefore, employees should be rewarded for intelligence generation, intelligence dissemination, and responsiveness (Zhou et al. 2008) with intrinsic rewards that increase autonomy and improved opportunities for personal and professional growth to support the change process and contribute to a more rational market oriented culture (Arad et al., 1997).

6.3.2 The government owned and operated organisation

Hierarchical cultures are known for focusing on internal maintenance and striving for control and stability and through the enforcement of strict rules and task setting. Accordingly, value is placed on economy, formality, rationality, order and obedience (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). This reflects the traditional theoretical model of bureaucracy and public administration that relies on formal rules and procedures as control mechanisms and suggest that a government organisation is likely to be perceived as a hierarchical organisation by its employees. Consequently it was hypothesised (H2) that a government owned and operated organisation would have a hierarchical organisational culture.

The findings of this study confirmed that hierarchical was the dominant culture of a government owned and operated organisation, which is also supported in the literature. Bradley and Parker (2000, 2006) in their research conducted on public sector organisations in Australia found the organisations to be predominantly characterised by a hierarchical culture in alignment with the traditional model of bureaucracy and public administration that relies on formal rules and procedures as control mechanisms. They describe the typical organisational unit in the public sector as having an internal process culture that focuses on internal issues and has an orientation towards control rather than flexibility (Bradley & Parker, 2006). Panagiotis et al. (2014), Kim et al. (2006), Sensuse et al. (2015) and Twati and Gammack (2006) all evaluated the organisational culture of public sector organisations, and all found the dominant culture of these government organisations was predominantly hierarchical. As with the finding in the family owned
and operated organisation, the finding that the government organisation had a hierarchical dominant culture was not surprising; instead it was consistent with the findings of previous studies conducted in Australia and globally. Therefore, the findings of this study are consistent with the competing values framework and further reinforce the reliability of the OCAI tool.

Applied in practice, managers working in public service organisations must pay attention to the organisational culture, especially when planning for, or reacting to, significant government reforms which require new cultural or value traits (O’Donnell and Boyle, 2008). While the emphasis on the hierarchical culture internal process model is appropriate for traditional public sector objectives, it does however constrain the achievement of reform objectives that rely on greater flexibility, and greater orientation toward the external environment. It is therefore recommended that some of the rules and regulations, which constrain behaviour in the hierarchical environment, are examined, and replaced where possible with more flexible policies accompanied by leadership and behaviour change initiatives. The market oriented behaviours of intelligence generation, intelligence dissemination, and responsiveness (Zhou et al., 2008) have been found to lead to innovation and are essential for creating a market oriented culture (Bucic et al., 2007), and therefore should be the focus of behaviour change programs.

Ruijer and Huff (2016) also recommend that hierarchical and bureaucratic organisations can benefit from implementing networks to work on organisational problems, professional topics, and for mentoring. Their study found that implementing a more open culture through networks leads to faster access to cross-functional knowledge, collaborative engagement with external stakeholders, and diversity of skills and perspectives in the problem solving process (Ruijer & Huff, 2016). Overlaying a system of networks on a hierarchical culture provides a positive model for participation and collaboration without threatening the organisation’s bureaucratic nature, while contributing to increased acceptance of market culture behaviours within the organisation.

This chapter now continues with a discussion of the research findings for each of the five career self-management behaviours in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures, commencing with networking.
6.4 Networking in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures

This section examines pattern matching of past research with the findings of this study. In particular, this section examines the relationship between networking and career success outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational culture. Firstly, the relationship between networking and subjective career success is discussed, followed by its relationship with objective career success. The final part discusses the perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness of networking in clan and hierarchical organisations.

Networking is defined by Gould and Penley (1984), in their career strategies inventory, as the practice of developing a network of relationships inside and outside the organisation, thereby providing access to career information and career development support for the individual. Hypotheses 3, 8, 13 and 18 proposed that high networking is more strongly associated with high (H3) subjective and (H8) objective career outcomes, and is perceived as more (H13) positively received and enacted with ease, and perceived as (H18) more effective in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. These hypothesised relationships between networking and career self-management behaviours were expected as clan organisations are described as emphasising human relations and adopting flexible operation procedures that focus on internal relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Therefore, demonstrating networking behaviours such as building a network of contacts and friendships in the organisation may assist with career progression (Gould & Penley, 1984) in the clan environment and will likely be positively received and contribute to career success outcomes. This is in contrast to a controlling orientation in a hierarchical organisation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) in which it would be expected to reduce the effectiveness and perceived ease of application of networking by comparison.

In contrast to what was expected based on research by Kuijpers et al. (2006) in the Netherlands and Barnett and Bradley (2007) in Australia, this study found that networking did not significantly predict subjective career success in either clan or hierarchical organisations. Networking also did not significantly predict objective career success in the hierarchical organisation, however it did significantly predict
objective career success in the clan organisation. Networking was perceived as enacted with more ease, better received, and more effective in a clan organisational culture than in the hierarchical organisational culture. Yet it was also found that networking, of all five career self-management behaviours, was perceived as the most well received, enacted with greatest ease and more effective for the hierarchical culture.

Researchers have previously investigated the relationship between networking and subjective career success. Kuijpers et al. (2006) reported that career factors explained variance in intrinsic career success, specifically networking. Further, Barnett and Bradley’s (2007) Australian study found that individual career management behaviours (including networking) were positively related to career satisfaction. However, these previous findings were not supported by this research, as networking was not found to significantly predict subjective career success in either the clan or hierarchical organisations in this study. This supports the research by De Vos and Soens (2008) in Belgium who did not find any support for the direct relationship between networking and career satisfaction. Nikandrou et al. (2008) also failed to find a significant relationship between networking and career satisfaction for women in their study in Greek organisations.

This study investigated the relationship between career self-management behaviours and career outcomes, specifically within a single clan and hierarchical organisation. Therefore, it is plausible to contend that previous researchers who confirmed the positive relationship between behaviours and subjective career success may have done so in market or adhocracy organisational cultures. Both clan and hierarchical organisational cultures have an internal focus striving toward maintenance of the sociotechnical system in contrast to market and adhocracy organisations with an external focus working towards the competitive position of the overall system. Networking may consequently be more conducive to an externally focused environment than an internally focused environment that values the status quo. Reinforcing this proposed explanation, De Vos et al. (2008) also failed to confirm a positive relationship between networking and subjective career success, and proposed in their study that as networking was not a reflective behaviour, but an externally focused behaviour, it appeared to not be sufficient in itself for
subjective career success in an internally focused organisation. Therefore it seems likely that an externally focused behaviour does not contribute to internal measures of success in internally focused organisational cultures.

Previously researchers have also studied the relationship between networking and objective career success. Gould and Penley’s (1984) research found that employees who pursued career strategies, including building networks, reported salary progressions that were higher and faster than those who did not. North American researchers (Higgins & Thomas, 2001; Forret & Dougherty, 2004) have also found that developmental networks were related to salary progression and promotion. This previous knowledge was confirmed by the findings of this research in the Australian clan organisation with networking found to significantly predict objective career success. Gould and Penley’s (1984) findings, however, were not supported by this research in the hierarchical organisation, as networking did not significantly predict objective career success. While both value the maintenance of the sociotechnical system, a clan organisation operates with a human relations model working toward the development of human resources (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) and value team like a family. It is proposed therefore that the more connected an individual is to the team and family, the more likely they are to contribute to perceived value contribution, be rewarded for that value, and subsequently achieve objective career success. In contrast, the hierarchical organisation operates with an internal process model working toward consolidation and equilibrium (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This requirement for control and stability was reflected by strict recruitment and promotion policies and restricted pay grades in the government owned and operated organisation in this study. These restrictions on the process for recruitment, promotion and pay grading will limit the influence an individual’s career self-management behaviours will be able to have on objective career outcomes. Therefore, it appears that regardless of the application of networking, the system in which the individual is working has the potential to constrain its contribution to objective career success.

In addition to investigating the relationship between career self-management behaviours and subjective and objective career outcomes, this research study sought to identify the perceived ease of application,
reception and effectiveness of networking in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. The findings of this research revealed that, on average, in both the clan and hierarchical organisations, networking was perceived to be effective in contributing to employees' career success as well as being positively received and applied with relative ease. While the positive perception of networking was greater in the clan organisation, the interesting finding was that, of all five career self-management behaviours applied in the hierarchical organisation, networking was most positively perceived. A possible explanation for this finding may have more to do with the other four career self-management behaviours and their compatibility with the hierarchical organisational culture. Networking, in contrast to the other four career self-management behaviours, does not disrupt the environment, which values stability, control and continuity.

There is no known previous research to which the findings of this part of the research study can be directly compared and contrasted. A study by O'Neil et al. (2011), however, did investigate the perceptions of network members and their executive leadership about the anticipated outcomes of a network on career advancement. They found that 43 percent of the network members perceived there to be better career paths resulting from the network, yet 0% of their executive leaders perceived networking to contribute to the career path of the network members. While it should be noted that O'Neil et al.'s (2011) qualitative study was limited, with a response from only 21 network members and 6 executive leaders, these findings do reinforce the findings of this study by highlighting that, while an individual may perceive or anticipate a contribution to their career success through networking, the leaders responsible for making promotion decisions do not.

While networking did not predict subjective career success in either a clan or hierarchical organisation, or to objective career success in the hierarchical organisation, it did positively contribute to objective career success in the clan organisational culture. Ferris et al. (2007) explains that network-building behaviours improve an individual's access to job-related information, an understanding of the political landscape in the organisation, increased support from others, more resources made available, while also stimulating personal initiative. This may mean that networking is a key career self-management strategy that is critical
in supporting the application of the other four career self-management behaviours, rather than being an independent contributor to career outcomes. This may also further explain the perceived effectiveness of networking in contrast to the lack of direct relationship to subjective and objective career success outcomes. Without applying networking behaviours, individuals may not have access to new opportunities, the chance to work beyond their role, visibility of their performance by others, or the contacts to seek guidance in their career. Therefore it is proposed that networking is a valuable skill and behaviour that is a foundation to developing and applying other career self-management behaviours to achieve career success outcomes.

6.5 Seeking career guidance in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures

As with the previous section, this section pattern matches past research with the findings of this study about seeking career guidance and career success outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Firstly, the relationship between seeking career guidance and subjective career success is discussed, followed by its relationship with objective career success, and finally a discussion of the perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness of seeking career guidance in clan and hierarchical organisations.

Seeking career guidance is defined by Gould and Penley (1984), in their career strategies inventory, as the practice of seeking support, information and advice from experienced people or connecting with people either inside or outside the organisation. Hypotheses 4, 9, 14 and 19 proposed high seeking career guidance would be more strongly associated with high (H4) subjective and (H9) objective career outcomes, and perceived as more (H14) positively received and enacted with ease, as well as perceived (H19) to be more effective in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. These hypothesised relationships between seeking career guidance and career self-management behaviours were expected, based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures are a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves, and the leaders in organisations with clan cultures are viewed as
mentors. As seeking career guidance strategies include getting career guidance from supervisors and other experienced people inside and outside the organisation (Gould & Penley, 1984) it was believed that seeking career guidance would positively contribute to career success outcomes within a clan culture. While it was not proposed that seeking career guidance would be ineffective in a hierarchical organisation, it was believed it would be less effective than in a clan environment because the dominant leadership type in a hierarchical culture is a coordinator, monitor and organiser (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) and such a leadership type is considered unlikely to foster career guidance discussions.

In contrast to what was hypothesised, seeking career guidance did not significantly predict subjective or objective career success in the clan organisation, nor did it predict subjective or objective career success in the hierarchical organisation. While it was hypothesised, and confirmed by the findings in this study, that seeking career guidance would be better perceived in the clan organisation than in the hierarchical organisation, of the five career self-management behaviours, seeking career guidance was perceived as the least well received, enacted with least ease, and was least effective in a clan organisation. Seeking career guidance was also the least enacted with ease in the hierarchical organisation.

Researchers have previously investigated the relationship between seeking career guidance and subjective career success. DeCastro et al. (2014) found that mentoring and seeking career guidance were associated with overall career satisfaction for early career doctors in the United States, as did Anafarta and Apaydin (2015), when reporting a strong relationship for Turkish tertiary faculty members. These previous findings, however, were not supported by this Australian research study, as seeking career guidance was not found to significantly predict subjective career success in either clan or hierarchical organisations. This supports the research by Green’s (2005) Australian research study that did not find any support for the direct relationship between the career self-management behaviour of seeking career guidance and career satisfaction. Jeffers and Mariani (2017) also revealed, in their American study, no statistically significant differences in career satisfaction scores between those who participated in a mentoring relationship and sought career guidance and those who did not.
Previously, researchers have also studied the relationship between seeking career guidance and objective career success. Early researchers presented theories that the results of the advantages of seeking career guidance included possibility of rapid promotion (Levinson et al., 1978) and significant enhancement of salary progression (Sheehy, 1976). Stamm and Buddeberg-Fischer (2011), in their longitudinal study on mentoring and career success for Swiss medical professionals, found that both having a mentor and having career support had independent positive impacts on objective career success. Ragins and Cotton (1999), in a combined sample of North American journalists, social workers, and engineers, reported seeking career guidance to contribute to higher compensation, but not promotions. Yet in this study, seeking career guidance was not found to significantly predict objective career success, including salary or promotions, in either the clan or hierarchical organisation. While mentoring was related to perceptions of external marketability in Eby’s (2003) North American study, it was neither related to perceptions of internal marketability nor perceived career success, which is supported by the findings of this study.

In addition to investigating the relationship between seeking career guidance and subjective and objective career outcomes, this research study sought to identify the perceived ease of application, reception and effectiveness of seeking career guidance in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. There is no known previous research to which the findings of this part of the research study can be directly compared and contrasted. The findings of this research revealed that, on average, in both the clan and hierarchical organisation, seeking career guidance was perceived to be effective in contributing to career success as well as being positively received and applied with relative ease. While the positive perception of seeking career guidance was greater in the clan organisation as hypothesised, the notable finding was that of, all five career self-management behaviours applied in the clan organisation, seeking career guidance was the least positively perceived.

Considering that the findings of this study did not reveal a direct relationship between seeking career guidance and subjective or objective career success in either clan or hierarchical organisations, and is in contrast to the many studies that have (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Stamm & Buddeberg-Fischer, 2011; DeCastro et al., 2014); Anafarta & Apaydin, 2015), it is likely that the moderating effect is the quality of
Quality mentoring has repeatedly been associated with obtaining promotions, access to career development opportunities, and increased career self-management competency (Haggard et al., 2011). Judge and Betz (1994) propose that when seeking career guidance fails to predict career success outcomes, it may be due to a relatively crude operationalisation of mentoring within the organisation. Lunsford et al. (2018) undertook a North American study on mentoring quality and job satisfaction, finding that the higher mentors and mentees rated the quality of the mentoring relationship, the more job satisfaction they reported, which reinforced this proposed explanation. This would suggest that a practical application of this finding for organisations is to create individual and organisational supports focused on high quality mentoring.

A number of studies have pointed out a number of characteristics and behaviours that are desirable for mentors, including compatibility with their mentee, generosity, patience, and trustworthiness (Jackson et al., 2003; Sambunjak et al., 2009; Straus et al., 2009; Cho et al., 2011). De Castro et al. (2015) specifically demonstrated that there were multiple aspects of the mentoring relationship that were important correlates of career satisfaction, especially the level of the health of the relationship as perceived by the mentee. In practice, organisations that implement formal training programs that promote positive mentor behaviours are likely to contribute to career success outcomes of their employees. While the findings of this study did not reveal a direct relationship between seeking career guidance and career success outcomes, this does not diminish the value of such behaviour in contributing to career success. The results of this study did reveal a significant prediction of career success outcomes when all five behaviours are applied together; therefore, seeking career guidance is still important in supporting the application of the other four career self-management behaviours. It seems likely that seeking career guidance acts as an enabler of the other career self-management behaviours. Further research is required to test this premise.
6.6 Creating opportunities in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures

This section examines the relationship between creating opportunities and career success outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Firstly, the relationship between creating opportunities and subjective career success will be discussed, followed by its relationship with objective career success, and finally, discussion of the perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness of creating opportunities in clan and hierarchical organisations.

Creating opportunities is defined as developing skills and seeking out experience critical to a person’s career success (Gould & Penley, 1984). In this study, hypotheses 5, 10, 15 and 20 proposed that high creating opportunities would be strongly associated with high (H5) subjective and (H10) objective career outcomes, and perceived as more (H15) positively received and enacted with ease, as well as perceived (H20) more effective in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. Creating opportunities is about preparing for opportunities which may materialise, keeping your career options open, assuming leadership, developing skills which may be needed in the future, obtaining broad work experiences, and developing expertise where others have not (Gould & Penley, 1984). Consequently, a stronger relationship between creating opportunities and a clan culture was expected because clan cultures value flexibility, teamwork and participation for which creating opportunity behaviours was likely to be beneficial. In contrast, a hierarchical organisation values stability, conformity and control (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), which is likely to be an inhibitor to creating opportunities.

As expected, creating opportunities was found in this study to significantly predict subjective career success in a clan organisation, yet it was found that creating opportunities significantly predicted subjective career success in a hierarchical organisation to a greater degree. While creating opportunities positively contributed to subjective career success in both organisational cultures, it did not significantly predict objective career success in either the clan or hierarchical organisation. As predicted, creating opportunities was perceived as better received, enacted with more ease, and more effective in a clan
organisational culture. In fact, of all five career self-management behaviours, creating opportunities was perceived as the most well received and most effective in the clan organisational culture.

Researchers have previously investigated the relationship between creating opportunities and subjective career success. Nikandrou et al. (2008) found in their European study that those that created opportunities had greater career satisfaction. This was consistent with previous North American research arguing that career satisfaction was increased through skill-building and training opportunities (Eby, Allen & Brinley, 2005). In Yen et al.’s (2016) US study they found that of all five career self-management behaviours applied by academics in a university setting, creating opportunities was the only strategy related to psychological success. All of these studies were confirmed by the findings of this Australian study as creating opportunities significantly predicted subjective career success in both the clan and hierarchical organisation. When creating opportunities, it is probable that individuals will seek out development and project opportunities that are of interest to them, in contrast to opportunities that are imposed on them, consequently increasing their intrinsic motivation and subjective reward.

Creating opportunities also requires an individual to be proactive and take initiative to seek out development and project opportunities, which in turn is likely to return a sense of control over one’s career. Sense of control is the degree to which an individual generally feels in control of their lives based on their perceptions of control as opposed to actual control (Lachman & Weaver, 1998). A high sense of personal control has been theorised to positively relate to an individual’s career decision-making process and work satisfaction (Duffy & Dik, 2009; Judge, 2009; Spector, 1982). It is proposed that given a sense of control is likely to be a contextual based feeling, and less of a personality trait, and it will likely change depending on an individual’s circumstances and the environment in which they are working. This sense of control would likely be a powerful driver for subjective career success in organisational cultures that are high in control. Hierarchical organisational cultures, and particularly government organisations, are known to value stability and conformity and be bureaucratic in nature. Therefore, it is likely that in workplace environments such as these, proactively creating professional development and project
opportunities for oneself that are of interest and aligned to one’s individual desired career direction will create a greater sense of hope and positive perception of subjective career success.

This study, however, did not find that the act of creating opportunities significantly predicted objective career success in either the clan or hierarchical organisation, which is in contrast to the findings of other previous studies. Gould and Penley (1984) in their seminal work found creating opportunity behaviours was positively associated with salary progression. Since then, Kuijpers et al. (2006) found that career-actualisation-ability contributed positively to external career success in Dutch employees. Also, Guan et al. (2015) showed that career adaptability played a role in predicting salary in Chinese employees, and Spurk and Abele (2014) found that German university graduates with high occupational self-efficacy earned more money compared to persons with lower occupational self-efficacy. No studies could be found in which creating opportunities was not confirmed to contribute to objective career success. A possible explanation for this may be related to the organisational culture types in which this study was conducted, specifically the restrictive hierarchical culture and the family focused clan culture.

Hierarchical organisations – and in the case of the government organisation from this study – have strict policies and procedures relating to internal job opportunities and promotions including restrictive pay grades. Therefore it is feasible to suggest that irrespective of an individual’s initiative in creating opportunities, the environment constrains its direct contribution to objective career outcomes in the hierarchical organisational culture. Clan organisations tend to be family owned and operated, as was the clan organisation in this study. Sanchez-Marin et al. (2017) found that pay level is lower in Spanish family owned and managed firms than in nonfamily managed family firms and that they are predominantly characterised by a clan culture. This can be explained by Gomez-Mejia et al.’s (2001) explanation that CEOs of family owned and operated organisations set themselves a low pay level (compared to the CEOs of other firms), which results in lower pay among employees when the organisation attempts to maintain appropriate differentials between levels of seniority in the business. Therefore it is possible to consider that regardless of opportunities created, objective career success outcomes will not be positively affected within the clan cultural environment.
In addition to investigating the relationship between creating opportunities and subjective and objective career outcomes, this research study sought to identify the perceived ease of application, reception, and effectiveness of creating opportunities in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. There is no known previous research to which the findings of this part of the research study can be directly compared and contrasted. The findings of this research revealed that, on average, in both the clan and hierarchical organisation, creating opportunities was perceived to be effective in contributing to employees’ career success as well as being positively received and applied with relative ease. Further supporting the hypothesis, creating opportunities was perceived as the most well received, of all five career self-management behaviours, in the clan organisational culture. Creating opportunities involves self-development to advance one’s career, and as a clan organisational culture specifically values human development, it seems likely that this career self-management behaviour is perceived as the most well received.

Despite the findings showing that the act of creating opportunities did not predict objective career success in either the clan or hierarchical organisation, the findings did show that the act of creating opportunities did significantly predict subjective career success in both organisational culture types. Researchers have reported an increasingly large proportion of employees define their career success in subjective terms, rather than in terms of objective indicators like salary and promotion rate (Eith et al., 2011; Littler et al., 2003; Sturges et al., 2002). Organisational productivity, organisational emotion and employee feelings have all been shown to be outcome variables of subjective career success. Pachulicz et al.’s (2008) North American studies have shown that subjective career success has positive effects on organisational productivity. This relationship was found through an individual’s perception of career success improving employee job performance and performance development, which consequently benefited and contributed to organisational productivity and performance. Schmitt et al. (2008) in their global study found that subjective career success enhances organisational emotion including organisational commitment, and Armstrong-Stassen’s (2009) Canadian study showed that subjective career success could enhance employee retention. In the context of the individual, Adele and Spurk
have shown that employee feelings about satisfaction in life and happiness is affected by subjective career success.

When an individual experiences subjective career success, there will likely be greater performance outcomes experienced, because of a more positive and happy state of mind, consequently leading to employee satisfaction and subjective wellbeing. Acknowledging these individual and organisation benefits of an individual achieving subjective career success, the importance of encouraging and promoting the creation of development opportunities by both the employee and the organisation is highlighted. Professional and career development opportunities are generally valued by employees (Boselie, Dietz & Boon, 2005) because they acquire new skills, knowledge and professional growth, subsequently providing them the opportunity to develop and, in turn, increase their effectiveness and performance while remaining in the organisation (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008; Kraimer et al., 2011). Organisational professional development practices and procedures are reinforced and communicated by the way leaders support, reward, and reinforce behaviour (Gilbert, De Winne & Sels, 2011; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009; Schneider, 1990), therefore it is recommended the organisation create a reward and recognition program by which individuals are assessed according to the setting of goals and to proactive behaviour in working toward those goals. Professional development HR practices should also set and communicate clear expectations that support a proactive and initiative driven climate (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Kraimer et al. (2011) found that when employees perceived high levels of developmental support and career opportunities, the organisation benefited from increased work performance and reduced likelihood of employee turnover. Therefore, the organisation should facilitate the identification of opportunities of interest to employees and support employees in undertaking those projects and development opportunities, even if not immediately relevant to their current role.
6.7 Extended work involvement in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures

This section examines the relationship between extended work involvement and career success outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Firstly, the relationship between extended work involvement and subjective career success will be discussed, followed by its relationship with objective career success, and finally, discussion of the perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness of extended work involvement in clan and hierarchical organisations.

Extended work involvement is defined as working and thinking about your job outside of office hours (Gould & Penley, 1984). Hypotheses 6, 11, 16 and 21 proposed that high extended work involvement would be more strongly associated with high (H6) subjective and (H11) objective career outcomes, and is perceived as more (H16) positively received and enacted with ease, and well as perceived as (H21) more effective in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. These hypothesised relationships between extended work involvement and career self-management behaviours was expected based on Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) description that clan cultures manage their environment through teamwork and rely on flexibility to operate. Therefore, taking your work home with you, working at your job outside of normal work hours, spending time thinking about work outside normal hours (Gould & Penley, 1984) and doing whatever is necessary to get the job done would be expected to be supported by the organisational culture and consequently positively contributing to career success outcomes. Further supporting these hypotheses, hierarchical organisations value uniformity and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), therefore it was expected that working outside normal working hours or taking work home could be less effective for career outcomes and perceived as being less well received and applied with ease in a hierarchical culture than in a clan culture.

As expected, extended work involvement did significantly predict subjective and objective career success in a clan culture. Extended work involvement in the hierarchical organisation, however, did not have a significant effect on subjective or objective career success. Also, as expected, extended work involvement was perceived as enacted with more ease, better received, and more effective in a clan organisational
culture than in the hierarchical organisational culture. Extended work involvement was found to be perceived as the least well received and least effective, of the five career self-management behaviours, in the hierarchical organisational culture.

The findings in this study, that subjective and objective career success was significantly predicted by extended work involvement in the clan organisation, is consistent with the findings of previous research (Holt, 1998; Grey et al., 2004; Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2006; Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2011; Chen, 2012). Those who work longer hours have been found to have greater extrinsic career success including salary and promotions (Ng et al., 2005), and Burke (2001) found that workaholism positively predicted promotions. In the Greek study by Nikandrou and Panaotopoulo (2008) it was found that among all career strategies investigated, only extended work involvement had a positive impact on promotion rate (objective career outcomes) while also directly and indirectly leading to career satisfaction through promotion rate.

Characteristics such as: loyalty, tradition, commitment, teamwork, participation are the foundation to a clan organisational culture. Therefore, when demonstrating extended work involvement an individual is reinforcing their commitment to the organisation and their team by being prepared to do whatever it takes to get the job done, including spending time on work outside business hours. This loyalty is likely to be rewarded both intrinsically and extrinsically, resulting in the direct positive influence on subjective and objective career success outcomes in the clan organisational culture.

In contrast, however, to the finding that extended work involvement significantly predicted both subjective and objective career success in the clan organisation, extended work involvement did not significantly predict subjective or objective career success in the hierarchical organisation. Beckers et al. (2008) in their Australian study found overtime work was related to low job satisfaction and concluded that control over overtime and rewards for overtime are important for wellbeing. Hierarchical, and particularly government organisations as was the case for the organisation in this research study, have strict compensation and overtime policies which would limit the objective career success outcomes from extended work involvement. Also, extending one’s work involvement to achieve outcomes in a role or project will not affect compensation in the hierarchical/government organisation as there are no bonuses
attached to key performance indicators. Further, overtime is generally not self-selected, and because it is not self-selected an individual does not have a sense of control over those hours worked, which then leads to lower satisfaction and lower subjective career success.

In addition to investigating the relationship between extended work involvement and subjective and objective career outcomes, this research study sought to identify the perceived ease of application, reception, and effectiveness of extended work involvement in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. There is no known previous research with which the findings of this part of the research study can be directly compared and contrasted. The findings of this research revealed that, on average, in both the clan and hierarchical organisation, extended work involvement was perceived to be effective in contributing to their career success as well as being positively received and applied with relative ease. While extended work involvement was perceived positively in the hierarchical organisation, the noteworthy finding was that, of all five career self-management behaviours applied in the hierarchical organisation, extended work involvement was perceived as the least positively received.

If extended work involvement is not the cultural norm, there will likely be less support for flexible working with mobility tools and technology to enable remote access or even security access outside of traditional business hours for the organisation. North American researchers (Hill et al., 2001) found that even perceived flexibility in the timing and location of work was related to positive outcomes for an organisation. Perceived job flexibility enables employees to work longer hours before affecting work-family balance. However, within a hierarchical culture, the value drivers of consistency and uniformity (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), and the leader type that tends to need to coordinate and monitor (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), mean that the perceived reception of flexible working arrangements contributes to one’s inability to apply extended work involvement.

Taylor (2018) undertook research to investigate the organisational drivers and consequences of working extra hours in the Australian public service. Her research supports the investigation of the relationship between the demonstration of extended work involvement and subjective and objective career success. Taylor’s
study found that people have various motives for working extra hours including: motivational aspects of their job, the amount of time required to get the job done due to red tape, restructuring and job instability, and the implementation of new initiatives. Taylor (2018) specifically noted that individuals who regularly demonstrate extended work involvement believe they are performing well in their job, and that those that are dissatisfied with their current organisational rewards are found to work longer hours on a more frequent basis because they believe that it will increase their chances of receiving more rewards. Her findings support the conflicting findings in this study, where extended work involvement did not predict subjective or objective career success, yet was perceived as well received within the organisational and perceived as contributing to their career success.

When employees realise that extended work involvement is rewarded (e.g., salary raise, promotions and verbal praise by significant others), they are likely to further increase those behaviours in order to continue to receive rewards (Ng et al., 2007). In the clan organisation, where extended work involvement was found to significantly predict both subjective and objective career outcomes, individuals are encouraged to apply this behaviour to contribute to the achievement of their career outcomes and it was found to be positively rewarded. Conversely, in environments in which there is no tangible or perceived reward, in the case of the hierarchical organisation in this study, employees either will avoid extended work involvement or will resent having to do so. The findings of this research suggest that individuals working in an hierarchical culture should deprioritise extended work involvement as a means to specifically drive career success outcomes. Hierarchical organisations need to be cognisant of the potential negative effects of compulsory overtime or extended work involvement on individuals, and may be able to partly offset this by fair compensation for the extra work (Beckers et al., 2008) or implement voluntary overtime programs. Voluntary overtime, self-scheduling and flexible working conditions have been found to decrease systolic blood pressure (Viitasalo et al., 2008) and lead to favourable work-life balance and job satisfaction (Pryce et al., 2012).
6.8 Self-promotion in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures

This section examines the relationship between self-promotion and career success outcomes in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Firstly the hypotheses in relation to self-promotion are outlined, then the relationship between self-promotion and subjective career success will be discussed, followed by its relationship with objective career success, and finally discussion of the perceived reception, ease of application and effectiveness of self-promotion in clan and hierarchical organisations.

The purpose of self-promotion, self-nomination and self-presentation are to communicate to superiors one’s professional aspirations and at presenting oneself in the most favourable way (Gould & Penley, 1984). Hypotheses 7, 12, 17 and 22 proposed that high self-promotion would be more strongly associated with high (H7) subjective and (H12) objective career outcomes, and perceived as more (H17) positively received and enacted with ease, and perceived as (H22) more effective in a clan organisation than in a hierarchical organisation. These hypothesised relationships between self-promotion and career self-management behaviours was expected as hierarchical organisations are described as valuing conformity (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), therefore overtly making your manager aware of your accomplishments, presenting yourself as a person that gets things done, and ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your career aspirations and objectives (Gould & Penley, 1984) was expected to contribute less to career success outcomes in a hierarchical organisation than in a clan culture. This is further supported by human development and participation producing effectiveness in a clan organisation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), which will likely support the behaviour of self-promotion.

In contrast to what was expected, this study found that self-promotion did not significantly predict subjective or objective career success in the clan organisation, or subjective success in the hierarchical organisation. What was found was that self-promotion significantly predicted objective career success with a negative effect in the hierarchical organisation. This finding was the strongest predictor of effect of all five career self-management behaviours on subjective or objective career success outcomes in both the clan and hierarchical organisational culture types. However, as was hypothesised, self-promotion was
perceived as enacted with more ease, better received and more effective in the clan organisation than in the hierarchical organisation.

Researchers have previously investigated the relationship between self-promotion and subjective and objective career success and very few have found a direct link between self-promotion and career outcomes within the organisations in which they have conducted their research. While Barnett and Bradley (2007) found that individual career management behaviours, including visibility, were positively related to career satisfaction in their Australian study, most other researchers have not. Todd et al. (2009) found that personal influence and social intelligence dimensions were not significantly related to either subjective or objective career success outcomes for graduates of a North American university, which further reinforced the findings by Higgins et al. (2003) which established that self-promotion had no effect on work outcomes. The findings of this Australian research study provided further evidential support for previous research, in that self-promotion does not positively contribute to subjective or objective career success outcomes. Additionally, the finding in this study that self-promotion significantly negatively predicted objective career outcomes in the hierarchical organisation, was similar to what was found by Judge and Bretz (1994) in the results of their study which indicated that applying a strategy of self-promotion negatively affected career success outcomes.

Judge and Bretz (1994) examined the effect of political influence behaviour on career success of North American executives. Their results indicated that supervisor-focused tactics and adjusting one’s behaviour so they are better liked by their manager, resulted in higher levels of career success while job-focused tactics resulted in lower levels of career success outcomes. Higgins et al. (2003) revealed in their meta-analysis that self-promotion aids in the receipt of favourable interview ratings, but self-promotion resulted in less favourable performance assessments from supervisors. They explain this in their study as a result of when an individual self-promotes in an interview, because the interviewer has little ability to verify, the likelihood of establishing a perception of competence is high. Conversely when self-promoting in the workplace, the supervisor is likely to be in a position to gauge the validity of self-promotion when applied by an existing employee. While this is a feasible explanation for application of self-promotion in
general, it does not explain the significant negative affect of self-promotion in the hierarchical organisation in this study.

The hierarchical organisation in this study was a government owned and operated organisation, and by definition public service organisations are created to serve communities. Perry and Vandenabeele (2008) illustrated, in their international study, that the public sector was unique in its public values, strongly tied to community and democracy, as opposed to private values associated with self-advancement. Therefore, self-promotion conflicts with the values of the public sector and is more aligned with the private sector value of self-advancement. The intrinsically held values of a public service organisation, therefore, are a likely cause of the finding that self-promotion significantly negatively predicted objective career outcomes in the hierarchical organisation.

In addition to investigating the relationship between self-promotion and subjective and objective career outcomes, this research study sought to identify the perceived ease of application, reception and effectiveness of self-promotion in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. There is no known previous research to which the findings of this part of the research study can be directly compared and contrasted. The findings of this research revealed that, on average, in both the clan and hierarchical organisation, self-promotion was perceived to be effective in contributing to employees’ career success as well as being positively received and applied with relative ease. Interestingly, despite the findings that self-promotion did not significantly contribute to subjective or objective career success in the clan organisation, self-promotion was the career self-management behaviour perceived as the most well received and enacted with greatest ease in the clan organisational culture.

Self-promotion is an individual activity that does not require system or work practice support, nor does it involve the contribution of others; therefore, there are minimal barriers to application. This is a possible explanation to support the finding that self-promotion was the behaviour perceived as being applied with the greatest ease in the clan organisation. An additional possible explanation is based on the industry within which the clan organisation operated. The clan organisation in this case study was a family owned
and operated real estate sales business. The prevalence and importance of ingratiatory-based influence behaviours in sales settings has long been acknowledged, as described in ‘How to Win Friends and Influence People’, first published in 1936 (Carnegie, 1936). A primary role of salespeople is to exercise influence on others. As a result, professionals operating in a real estate sales organisation setting may have more opportunity to more precisely refine their influence tactics (Strutton & Pelton, 1998). As a consequence, self-promotion, which is a characteristic of ingratiation-based influence, is likely to be well received and applied with ease in an organisation that relies on this capability in the real estate sales process.

The application of self-promotion to contribute to career outcomes should be approached with caution. The findings of this research study suggest that individuals who seek to advance their careers by attempting to increase others perception of their competence are likely to be less successful in their careers than those who do not. Previous research by Blickle et al. (2011), however, suggests that it can be advantageous to make superiors aware of your career interests with modesty. In their three-year predictive study with German employees, Blickle et al. (2011) found that the more employees presented themselves modestly towards their superiors and the more politically skilled they were, the higher their reported hierarchical position and career satisfaction. Therefore, rather than making one’s superiors aware of accomplishments, and only working hard when the results will be seen by superiors, it is recommended by the findings of this research that individuals discuss the assignments and opportunities they are interested in with their manager. This latter approach to self-promotion is more likely to contribute to an individual’s career success.

The first half of this chapter has discussed the assessment of the organisational cultures of the family and government owned organisations participating in this study, followed by a discussion about the five career self-management behaviours and their relationship with career success in the context of the organisational cultures in which they have been applied. The findings have been pattern matched with previous research and potential explanations for the study’s findings have been presented. The discussion will now be extended in the next section of this chapter by presenting this study’s contribution to theory.
6.9 Contribution to theory

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between career self-management behaviours and career success within two different organisational cultures: the clan culture of a family owned and operated organisation, and the hierarchical culture of a government owned and operated organisation. The conceptual models applied in the research method of this study were Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) Competing Values Framework and Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, and the theoretical model applied in this research was Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986). Social cognitive theory and social cognitive career theory, as the high level theories underpinning this research, will first be discussed in this section of the chapter. This will be followed by a discussion of the Competing Values Framework and a proposed new conceptual model will be presented.

6.9.1 Social Cognitive Theory

As explained in Chapter 3, Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) developed by Albert Bandura (1986) theorises that learning occurs in a social context with a reciprocal interaction between personal factors, their environment, and their behaviour. SCT considers the distinctive ways in which individuals learn and maintain behaviour, while also taking into consideration the environment in which individuals enact the behaviour. The goal of SCT is to explain how people monitor and adjust their behaviour through control and reinforcement to achieve behaviours that can be maintained over time to achieve their goals. This relationship between the person and behaviour in their environment made this theory directly relatable to this research into the application of career self-management behaviours in the context of an organisation’s culture.

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) was developed by Lent et al. (1994) based on SCT, providing a framework in which self-efficacy, outcome expectations and goals interact with demographic variables, contextual factors and life experiences to influence occupational interest development, career choice and performance. As in Bandura’s (1986) SCT theory, SCCT assumes that people have the capacity to apply
personal agency or self-direction to influence outcomes within their environments. However, SCCT seeks to extend SCT to create a comprehensive framework for explaining how individuals (i) develop vocational interests, (ii) make occupational and career choices, (iii) achieve varying degrees of career success and stability, and (iv) experience satisfaction or wellbeing in the workplace and their career. The theoretical framework applied in this study does not propose nor investigate vocational interests or occupational choices, nor does it suggest that an individual’s level of success depends on the degree to which they persist in the face of obstacles, as is the case in SCCT (Lent et al., 2002).

As outlined in Chapter 3, of particular interest in this study from viewpoint of the SCCT model was performance goals, which refers to the level of attainment toward which one aspires in any given performance domain (Lent and Brown, 1996). The performance model within SCCT is often regarded as useful in explaining individual achievement (Smith, 2002) and is consistent with the triadic reciprocal view of Social Cognitive Theory interaction. SCCT proposes a feedback loop between performance attainments and subsequent behaviour (Lent and Brown, 1996). According to Lent et al. (1996), SCCT is concerned with two key aspects of career performance: (i) the level of accomplishment individuals achieve in their work and career (e.g. salary, promotion) which in this study is considered as the combination of subjective and objective career success, and (ii) the degree to which individuals persist at work and in their career, despite perceived barriers and obstacles (e.g. job satisfaction). This element of outcome expectations was borrowed from SCCT and incorporated into the SCT framework to form the conceptual model (see Chapter 2, Figure 6) underpinning this research study. Therefore the key concepts integrated into the model from both SCT and SCCT will be addressed in this discussion.

As suggested in SCT, this study recognises the importance of, and reciprocal interactions between, behaviours (career self-management), personal (perception of reception, effectiveness and application of ease of those behaviours) and environment (organisational culture). Moreover, the study also acknowledges the importance of the learning loop in the attainment of outcomes (achievement of objective and subjective career success) and applied in SCCT. The selection of these variables of career were based on the view that optimal human development is the result of favourable person-in-context,
and that individuals are active, self-regulating, and self-constructing (Vondracek et al., 2010). In line with this perspective, variables were selected that are theoretically important and empirically established to explain the differences in career self-management in order to investigate their benefit at the individual level in the context of an organisation’s culture.

The findings of this research study investigating the relationship between career self-management behaviours in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures contribute insight into the major interactional links between these different subsystems. The proposed theoretical model (Chapter 2, Figure 6) has been revised based on the findings in this research study, and a discussion of the proposed causal relationships between personal, behaviour, environment and outcomes/attainment follow. Refer to Figure 11 (new contribution to theory/model presented in italics and dashed lines).

Figure 11. The relationship between career self-management behaviours, personal factors and organisational culture on the achievement of objective and subjective career success – an adaptation of SCT (Bandura, 1986) and SCCT (Lent et al., 2002). NOTE: New contribution to theory presented in italics and dashed lines.
Environmental Factors ↔ Behaviour ↔ Outcomes

The Environmental Factors ↔ Behaviour ↔ Outcomes relationship in the proposed theoretical model represents the relationship between organisational culture, career self-management behaviours and career success outcomes. This study found there was a difference in the prediction of career success outcomes in the different organisational cultures based on the application of career self-management behaviours. This relationship was illustrated by all the findings in this research, but was particularly well demonstrated by the application of self-promotion by participants in this study. Self-promotion was found not to contribute to subjective outcomes in either the clan or hierarchical organisational culture, or objective career outcomes in the clan organisational culture. Yet the strongest predictor of the effect of all five career self-management behaviours in either organisational culture in this study was the negative relationship between self-promotion and objective career outcomes in the hierarchical organisation. Self-promotion had a significant negative affect on objective career success in the hierarchical organisation, reflecting the interaction between behaviour, outcomes and environmental factors. Therefore, the findings in this study support the notion that there is a causative interaction between the environment and behaviour with outcomes.

The SCT causative and interconnected relationship between environment, behaviour and outcomes has been investigated and supported through research on organisational culture, SME performance, and commitment to corporate social responsibility (Gorondutse et al., 2017), individual reactions to technology, the environment in which employees work, and competence (Compeau and Higgins, 1991), and organisational climate, strategic behaviours and recovering from stressful events (Marjolein and Baaten, 2018). Specifically, Smale et al.’s (2018) study on the moderating effect of national culture on proactive career behaviors and subjective career success confirmed that cultural context matters in the relationship between career proactivity behaviours and individual career success. While Smale et al. (2018) interpreted these results through the lense of social information processing theory, which regards the social context as a primary source of information in shaping one’s attitudinal and behavioural
responses (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), their findings also support the notion that cultural context does influence individual behaviours and their career outcomes. Therefore this research study contributes further empirical evidence to support SCT, the importance of the outcome variable in SCCT, and the theoretical relationship between environment, behaviours and outcomes by confirming a predictive relationship between organisational culture, career self-management behaviours, and subjective and objective career success outcomes.

Environmental Factors ↔ Personal Factors ↔ Behaviours ↔ Outcomes

The Environment Factors ↔ Personal Factors ↔ Behaviours ↔ Outcomes causation is concerned with the interactive relationship between the organisational culture, an individual’s perception of the reception, effectiveness and ease of application of career self-management behaviours, the application of those behaviours, and career success outcomes. This study found there was a difference in the perceived reception, effectiveness, and perceived ease of application of the career-self management behaviours in the different organisational cultures. This complex relationship is best illustrated in this study by the finding that subjective and objective career success was significantly predicted by extended work involvement in the clan organisation. While extended work involvement was the only career self-management behaviour to positively predict both subjective and objective career outcomes in the clan organisation, it was not perceived as being the most well received, applied with ease, or even as the most effective. This suggests that while behaviours are resulting in positive outcomes within the environment, the environment is affecting perception of the behaviour on outcomes. Therefore the findings in this study support the proposition that there is a causative interaction between the environment, personal factors, behaviours and outcomes.

The causative and interconnected relationship between environment, behaviour, personal factors and outcomes has been investigated and supported through research on career decision making, culture, perception of environment and barriers, and behaviours of students (Ghuangpeng, 2011), perception of achievement, organisational barriers, ambition and ability (Harman and Sealy, 2017), and motivation,
health consequences, healthy behaviours and situational environment (De Bruin et al., 2005). In their theoretical Model of Career Cultures, Hall and Yip (2016) propose that a strong alignment between organisational culture and an individual’s personal orientations would be most conducive for higher levels of career development and success. This study contributes empirical evidence to support this proposition while also contributing further empirical evidence to support SCT. The potential intricate influence of perceived reception/effectiveness and behaviour in SCCT, and the theoretical relationship between environment, behaviours, personal factors and outcomes in SCT/SCCT by reflecting the complex relationship between organisational culture, career self-management behaviours, perception of reception, effectiveness and ease of application, and subjective and objective career success outcomes have been demonstrated in the findings. This would suggest that social cognitive theory could be enhanced by incorporating ‘performance outcomes’ from SCCT into the existing triadic environmental factors behaviour personal model.

Environmental Factors ↔ Outcome/Attainments

The Environmental Factors ↔ Outcomes/Attainments relationship was not originally considered in Chapter 3, however the research findings suggest there is a potential direct relationship between the organisational culture and career outcomes/attainment. This study found there was a difference in some career success outcomes irrespective of career self-management behaviours. This relationship is best illustrated by the finding in this study that creating opportunities did not significantly predict objective career success in either the clan or hierarchical organisation, which is in contrast to the findings of all other previous studies. The pervasiveness of organisational culture has revealed in this study that, irrespective of career self-management behaviours, the organisational culture and climate has the power to directly influence career outcomes/attainment. Therefore, the findings in this study support a potential direct relationship between the environment and outcomes that circumvents behaviours.

Another contribution of the study is in relation to the direct causative relationship between environment and outcomes which has been investigated and supported through research on university culture and entrepreneurial intentions (Huyghe and Knockaert, 2014), organisational culture and change outcomes
(Jordan et al., 2015), organisational culture and sporting results (Maitland et al., 2015), organisational culture and innovation performance (Laforet, 2016), organisational culture and merger integration outcomes (Ovseiko et al., 2015), and organisational culture and work engagement (Naidoo and Martins, 2014). More specifically, Chattopadhyay and Choudhury (2017), while investigating how early-career challenges arising from the workplace context affects short- and long-term career advancement of individuals, found that career advancement varies due to differences in locational or organisational context. In the case of this research study, the relationship between organisational culture and subjective and objective career success outcomes has now also been investigated. The contribution of this study is that it provides empirical evidence to suggest that there may be scenarios in which the characteristics of the environment may be so pervasive that the behavioural element in the social SCT theoretical model is negated. In this study the findings show that irrespective of the demonstration of career self-management behaviours, there are some instances in which the clan and hierarchical organisational culture prevent the behaviour’s ability to contribute to career success outcomes.

As outlined in the justification for this research study in Chapter 1, there have been calls for scholarly research on careers to reintroduce the organisational context. Inkson et al. (2012) argue there has been an overemphasis on agency and the boundaryless career. They suggest that, regardless of agency, there is always a context in which the individual is working and boundaries that need to be crossed. Tams and Arthur (2010) have also indicated that researchers needs to investigate if an individual’s practice of agency brings about the intended effects, what are its conditions for success, and what are its unintended consequences. This research study has directly responded to this request for research by recognising and investigating the dynamic relationship between environmental factors, personal factors, behaviours, and outcomes from SCT and SCCT.

In summary, SCT and SCCT have previously been applied in academic research to investigate: job seeking (Zikic and Saks, 2009), career decision making (Blanco, 2011), the formation of career-related interests and pursuit of educational and occupational choices (Lent et al., 1994), and job satisfaction (Hwang et al., 2016). As a result of this study, SCT has now been applied, with the additional element of
performance outcomes from SCCT, to investigate the relationship between organisational culture, the application and perception of career self-management behaviours, and subjective and objective career success outcomes, the strongest finding being the influence different organisational cultures have on the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in contributing to subjective and objective career success.

Based on these theoretical relationships, the following section of this chapter discusses the findings of this study in context of the Competing Values Framework conceptual model and proposes a new competing values conceptual model for career self-management.

6.9.2 Competing Values Framework

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) first developed the Competing Values Framework (CVF) to measure organisational culture and assess the major indicators of effective organisational performance. It has since been extended as a framework to explain high performance in social science disciplines and various types of organisations. The framework has been used as a lens for understanding a variety of organisational and individual phenomena, including theories of strategic human resource management (Panayotopoulou et al., 2003), communication (Quinn et al., 1991), managerial roles (Vilkinas & Cartan, 2006), leadership (Zafft et al., 2009), information systems (Cooper & Quinn, 1993), corporate ethics (Stevens, 1996), training and development (Sendelbach, 1993), quality management (Cameron, 2009), organisational effectiveness (Hartnell et al., 2011), and commitment (Van Vuuren et al., 2007). In this study the CVF has been applied to understand the relationship between organisational culture and career self-management behaviours.

Applying the CVF, Cameron and Quinn (1999) proposed a classification system comprised of the four cultural forms: clan, hierarchical, adhocracy and market. It was this model of the CVF that was used in this study in combination with Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory. The Career Strategies Inventory has been used to seek greater understanding of numerous relationships to career self-management including personality (Guthrie and Schwoerer, 1998), persistence (Donohue, 2007), ethnicity
(Greenhaus et al., 2017), knowledge-related skills (Anakwe et al., 1999), subjective career success (Nabi, 2003), objective career success (Gould & Penley, 1984), social antecedents (Bravo et al., 2003), occupational industry (Boon Lee, 2002), work orientation (Park & Rothwell, 2009), and performance and productivity (Mishra & Sachan, 2012). By bringing these two theoretical, yet empirically researched, models together in this study a new theoretical model is proposed: the Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework. Refer to Figure 12 p. 199 (new contribution to theory is reflected in the model in italics).
COMPETING VALUES
CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

CLAN
Human Relations Model
Toward human commitment
- Develop a network of relationships throughout the organisation
- Apply self reflection as a method for career planning
- Identify areas of the business that require improvement and proactively seek to solve them
- Commit to achieving team goals by working outside business hours when required
- Make superiors aware of interests and desires for career development that contribute to the organisation’s vision

ADHOCRACY
Open Systems Model
Toward expansion, adaptation

MARKET
Relational Goal Model
Toward maximisation of output

HIERARCHICAL
Internal Process Model
Toward consolidation, continuity
- Develop a network of contacts to increase access to notification of new opportunities
- Apply self reflection as a method for career planning
- Proactively identify and create development and project opportunities in line with personal interests
- Conform to business operating conditions and work productively within business hours
- Focus efforts on contributing to the collective goals of the organisation and apply modesty at all times

CONTRIBUTE
Play for the team

CHASE
Play to innovate

CONFORM
Play within the rules

CHAMPION
Play to win

Figure 12. Competing Values Career-Self Management Framework. NOTE: New contribution to model/theory presented in italics.
For each of the organisational cultures researched in this study – clan and hierarchical – and leveraging
the original Career Strategies Inventory, tailored career self-management behaviours and strategies are
recommended as being most suitable to support an individual achieve their desired subjective and
objective career success outcomes. In particular, the contribution of this research is that tailored career
self-management behaviours have been defined and aligned to the competing values framework. The
recommended approaches to career self-management for clan and hierarchical organisational cultures in
this newly proposed Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework are outlined in further detail
below.

6.9.2.1 Career self-management in a clan organisational culture

In a clan organisational culture where there is a focus on human commitment in a human relations
model, individuals should approach their career self-management as a ‘Contributor’ and ‘play for the
team’. Strategies that will be most well received, applied with ease and contribute to career success
outcomes include: (i) developing a network of relationships throughout the organisation; (ii) applying self-
reflection as a method for career planning; (iii) identifying areas of the business that require improvement
and proactively seek to solve them; (iv) committing to achieving team goals by working outside business
hours when required; and (v) making superiors aware of interests and desires for career development that
contribute to the organisation’s vision.

_Develop a network of relationships throughout the organisation_

Networking, one of the five career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career
Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: building a network of ‘contacts’ in the organisation for
obtaining information about what’s happening within the organisation, and building a network of
relationships in the organisation which can help to further your career progression (p.264). The findings
of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management
behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the
organisational culture in which they are working. Networking was found to predict objective career
success in the clan organisational culture, however did not predict subjective career success. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for networking specific to application within the clan organisational culture.

Effective networking in a clan organisation requires an individual to build a network of authentic relationships in the organisation. Individuals should contribute to workplace relationships by seeking to serve and support others regardless of their seniority or perceived level of influence, and collaborate with others to achieve team outcomes. This approach to developing a network of relationships throughout the organisation is supported in a clan organisational culture due to the value placed on teamwork, participation and cohesion. An individual can expect effective networking behaviours in a clan organisational culture to reflect a personal alignment with the core values of the organisation, highlight the individual as a valued team contributor, and contribute to objective career success outcomes.

**Apply self-reflection as a method for career planning**

Seeking career guidance, one of the five career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “getting career guidance from supervisors, getting career guidance from other experienced people in the organisation, and getting career guidance from more experienced people external to the organisation” (p.263). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. Seeking career guidance did not significantly predict subjective or objective career success in the clan organisation. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for seeking career guidance specific to application within the clan organisational culture.

Effective career planning in a clan organisation requires an individual to self-assess, self-monitor, and self-evaluate to set appropriate career goals, develop appropriate career strategies, and regulate their behaviour.
accordingly. Individuals should avoid seeking career guidance from others. Applying self-reflection as a method for career planning is supported in a clan organisational culture through the emphasis placed on understanding self and others in the human relations model. An individual can expect effective career planning behaviours in a clan organisational culture to contribute to an individual having clarity on career development desires and being prepared to take the right opportunities, at the right time, when they arise.

**Identify areas of the business that require improvement and proactively seek to solve them**

Creating opportunities, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “keeping your career options open, developing skills which may be needed in future career positions, preparing yourself for career opportunities which may materialise, obtaining broadly based work experiences in this organisation of your own accord, assuming leadership in work areas where there appears to be no leadership, or developing expertise in areas that are critical to your department’s operations” (p.263). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. While creating opportunities did predict subjective career success in the clan organisational culture, it did not predict objective career success. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for creating opportunities specific to application within the clan organisational culture.

Creating opportunities effectively in a clan organisation requires an individual to develop skills which may be needed in future career positions in the organisation. This should be approached proactively by identifying and seeking solutions for issues or problems in the organisation. When creating opportunities individuals should avoid focusing on personal gain, but rather on how to collaborate with others to contribute to organisational outcomes. Identifying areas of the business that require improvement and proactively seeking to solve them is supported in a clan organisational culture due to the internal focus on internal maintenance of the socio-technical system. By creating opportunities effectively in a clan organisational culture an individual will demonstrate their commitment and concern for the group
culture, making them a valued contributor and high potential talent, and contribute to subjective career success outcomes.

**Commit to achieving team goals by working outside business hours when required**

Extended work involvement, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “working at your job outside of normal work hours, taking your work home with you, and spending considerable time thinking about your job outside of normal work hours” (p.263). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. While extended work involvement did significantly predict subjective and objective career success in a clan culture, it was perceived as the least positively received. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for extended work involvement specific to application within the clan organisational culture.

Effective extended work involvement in a clan organisation requires an individual to work at their job outside of normal work hours when the team requires extra effort and output to achieve team outcomes. Individuals should avoid overt demonstration of extended work involvement that is only contributing to individual goals. Committing to achievement of team goals by working outside business hours when required is supported in a clan organisational culture because of the need to be flexible, and the value placed on participation and cooperative teamwork. An individual can expect effective extended work involvement behaviours in a clan organisational culture to contribute to subjective and objective career success outcomes.
Make superiors aware of interests and desires for career development that contribute to the organisation’s vision

Self-promotion, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: making your manager aware of the assignments you want, working hard when you know the results will be seen by leaders in the business, making your manager aware of your accomplishments, ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your aspirations and career objectives, and presenting yourself as being a person who ‘gets things done’ (p.263). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. Self-promotion did not significantly predict subjective or objective career success in the clan organisation. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for self-promotion specific to application within the clan organisational culture.

Effective self-promotion in a clan organisation requires an individual to focus efforts on contributing value to the organisation’s objectives, and once proven, engage in career opportunity discussion with leaders in which authentic relationships have already been built. Individuals should avoid only working hard just when results will be seen or seen as grandstanding achievements, and rather allow their results to speak for themselves. Making superiors aware of individual interests and desires for career development that contribute to the organisation’s vision is supported in a clan organisational culture due to the internal focus and value placed on integration. An individual can expect effective self-promotion behaviours in a clan organisational culture to result in preferred career development opportunities being offered when available and in alignment with the organisation’s objectives.
6.9.2.2 Career self-management in a hierarchical organisational culture

In a hierarchical organisation where there is a focus on consolidation and continuity in an internal process model, individuals should approach their career self-management as a ‘Conformist’ and ‘play within the rules’. Strategies that will be most well received, applied with ease, and contribute to career success outcomes include: (i) developing a network of contacts to increase access to notification of new opportunities; (ii) applying self-reflection as a method for career planning; (iii) proactively identifying and creating development and project opportunities in line with personal interests; (iv) conforming to business operating conditions and work productively within business hours; and (v) focusing efforts on contributing to the collective goals of the organisation and applying modesty at all times.

**Develop a network of contacts to increase access to notification of new opportunities**

Networking, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “building a network of ‘contacts’ in the organisation for acquiring timely information about what’s happening within the organisation, and building a network of relationships in the organisation which can help to further your career progression” (p.264). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. Networking did not predict objective or subjective career success in the hierarchical organisation; therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for networking specific to application within the hierarchical organisational culture.

Effective networking in a hierarchical organisation requires an individual to build a network of contacts across the organisation. Individuals should seek to have a broad network of contacts across all divisions, functions and levels in the organisation. Contribute to others in your network by sharing expertise, passing on other suitable contacts and opportunities that arise. This approach to developing a network of relationships throughout the organisation is supported in a hierarchical organisational culture due to the
value placed on internal process, efficiency, coordination and control. An individual can expect effective networking behaviours in a hierarchical organisational culture to reflect a personal alignment with the core values of consolidation and equilibrium, increase access to notification of new opportunities, as well as provide a foundation for the application of the other four career self-management behaviours.

**Apply self-reflection as a method for career planning**

Seeking career guidance, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “getting career guidance from supervisors, getting career guidance from other experienced people in the organisation, and getting career guidance from more experienced people external to the organisation” (p.263). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. Seeking career guidance did not predict objective or subjective career success in the hierarchical organisation, therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for seeking career guidance specific to application within the hierarchical organisational culture.

Effective career planning in a hierarchical organisation requires an individual to self-assess, self-monitor, and self-evaluate to set appropriate career goals, develop appropriate career strategies, and regulate their behaviour accordingly. Individuals should avoid seeking career guidance from others. Applying self-reflection as a method for career planning is supported in a hierarchical organisational culture through the internal focus of the organisation and the value placed on monitoring individual performance. An individual can expect effective career planning behaviours in a hierarchical organisational culture to contribute to an individual having clarity on career development desires and being prepared to take the right opportunities, at the right time, when they arise.
Proactively identify and create development and project opportunities in line with personal interests

Creating opportunities, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “keeping your career options open, developing skills which may be needed in future career positions, preparing yourself for career opportunities which may materialise, obtaining broadly based work experiences in this organisation of your own accord, assuming leadership in work areas where there appears to be no leadership, or developing expertise in areas that are critical to your department’s operations” (p.263). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. While creating opportunities predicted subjective career success in the hierarchical organisation, it did not predict objective career success. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for creating opportunities specific to application within the hierarchical organisational culture.

Creating opportunities effectively in a hierarchical organisation requires an individual to proactively identify and create development and project opportunities in line with personal interests and career success objectives. When creating opportunities individuals should avoid assuming leadership roles as this is in direct conflict with the bureaucratic nature and values of the hierarchical organisation, but rather seek to make other leaders look good. Proactively identifying and creating development and project opportunities in line with personal interests is beneficial for an individual working in a hierarchical organisational culture due to the controlling and restrictive nature of career progression. Consequently, by creating opportunities effectively in a hierarchical organisational culture, an individual will generate their own subjective career satisfaction through pursuit of personal interests circumventing the control of the organisational culture, and contribute to subjective career success outcomes.
**Conform to business operating conditions and work productively within business hours**

Extended work involvement, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “working at your job outside of normal work hours, taking your work home with you, and spending considerable time thinking about your job outside of normal work hours” (p.263). The findings of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. In the hierarchical culture, demonstrating extended work involvement did not predict subjective or objective career success. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for extended work involvement specific to application within the hierarchical organisational culture.

Effective extended work involvement in a hierarchical organisation requires an individual to conform to business operating conditions and work productively within business hours. Individuals should avoid working after hours or taking work home with them. Working longer hours than others in a hierarchical organisational culture disrupts equilibrium, therefore conforming to business operating conditions and working productively within business hours is supported in a hierarchical organisational culture because of the goals of stability, control and continuity. An individual can expect that conforming to business operating conditions and working productively within business hours reflects their alignment with the values of the organisation, consequently representing them as a trusted team member.

**Focus efforts on contributing to the collective goals of the organisation and apply modesty at all times**

Self-promotion, one of the career self-management behaviours in Gould and Penley’s (1984) Career Strategies Inventory, was originally defined as: “making your manager aware of the assignments you want, working hard when you know the results will be seen by your supervisors, making your manager aware of your accomplishments, ensuring people of influence in the organisation are aware of your aspirations and career objectives, and presenting yourself as being a person who ‘gets things done’” (p.263). The findings
of this study, however, indicate the need for an individual to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase effectiveness and contribution to career success outcomes within the organisational culture in which they are working. In the case of the hierarchical organisational culture, self-promotion had a significant negative impact on career success outcomes. Therefore, the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework in this study presents a new definition for self-promotion specific to application within the hierarchical organisational culture.

Self-promotion behaviours should not be applied in a hierarchical organisation, rather an individual should demonstrate their value and capability by focusing efforts on contributing to the collective goals of the organisation and apply modesty in their role at all times. Individuals should avoid only working hard when results will be seen or seen as grandstanding achievements, making superiors aware of aspirations, or presenting oneself as a ‘go getter’, as these behaviours challenge the status quo in a hierarchical organisational culture. When an individual focuses their efforts on contributing to the collective goals of the organisation and applies modesty to their role at all times, equilibrium and stability are maintained, both of which are highly valued in the hierarchical organisational culture. By avoiding self-promotion behaviours in a hierarchical organisational culture, an individual can expect to avoid the negative consequences of self-promotion in this environment, which include a significant negative impact on objective and subjective career success outcomes.

While this research study did not investigate career self-management behaviours within an adhocracy or market culture, the proposed Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework suggests that there will also likely be suitable tailored approaches to career self-management in these environments. While unable to define these based on the results and findings of this study, applying the theory of the CVF and in context of the approaches defined for clan and hierarchical organisational cultures it is suggested that a ‘Chaser’ role be applied and ‘play to innovate’ in an adhocracy culture, and a ‘Champion’ role ‘playing to win’ in a market culture. The next section of this chapter discusses the contribution this research study makes to practice for both organisations and individuals.
6.10 Contribution to practice

This research study has identified potential implications for organisations and individuals which will be discussed in this section. The major implications for organisations will be discussed first and include; conscious assessment of the cultural environment and unique climate factors of the organisation, and developing career development programs that are supported by the organisational culture and climate. Then the major implications for individuals will be discussed, including conscious assessment of the cultural environment and unique climate factors of the organisation, tailoring career-self management behaviours, and self-development of emotional intelligence.

6.10.1 Organisations

Previous research has found that organisational support of employee career management behaviours contributes to increased individual career success, and as a result the organisation benefits from increased employee job performance and organisational performance (Yu, 2009). The following recommendations are to assist organisations to most effectively support the careers of their employees for the achievement of objective and subjective career outcomes within their organisational culture.

*Conscious assessment of the cultural environment and unique climate factors of the organisation*

The dominant culture of an organisation is a powerful influence. Organisational level constructs of culture and climate are proposed to influence individual level attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction) and behaviour (e.g., actions). The relationship between organisational constructs with individual outcomes has been supported in previous studies (Glisson & James, 2002; Schoenwald, Sheidow, Letourneau & Liao, 2003). Specifically in the context of organisational culture, research has shown culture influences organisational performance (Scott et al., 2018), customer experience (Killett et al., 2016), knowledge management (Prabhaker et al., 2018), and innovation and creativity (Bogahalande et al., 2015). Further, it is often argued that organisational culture is either the key issue or most significant element in organisational change efforts (Jordan et al., 2015). Acar and Acar (2012) observed that organisational change cannot happen unless there is a culture conducive to that change. Therefore, understanding the
organisational culture in advance of designing or implementing a new program or initiative is imperative. This research study revealed that organisational culture influences the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours in different organisational cultures. Consequently, it is recommended that prior to the design and implementation of a new career development program, organisations undertake a conscious assessment of the cultural environment. Further, to enable the application of the findings and Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework presented in this chapter, it is recommended the organisational culture be assessed using the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

In addition to assessing the organisational culture, this research study revealed there may also be unique climate factors that could be influencing behaviour and outcomes within an organisation. Organisational climate is concerned with “the policies, work practices and procedures employees experience, and the behaviours they observe being rewarded, supported and expected” (Schneider et al., 2013, p.381). This is in contrast to organisational culture, which is concerned with implicit values, beliefs and assumptions that employees infer guide behaviour and the behaviours they observe that prove to be useful and promote success (Schneider et al., 2013). Organisational climate has previously been researched and found to impact organisational commitment (Berberoglu, 2018), workplace safety (Neal, 2000), business performance (Adeoye, 2014), software project success (Tan, 2003), innovation (Pozse, 2012), employee engagement (Arya and Sainy, 2017) and job satisfaction (Jyoti, 2013).

The findings in this study support a potential direct relationship between the environment and outcomes that circumvents behaviours. This impact of organisational climate was best illustrated in this study in the family owned and operated organisation that identified as having a clan organisational culture that values collaboration and team, yet self-promotion and ‘individual focused behaviour’ was perceived as being the most easily applied of all career self-management behaviours. It was proposed that this was a result of sales being the core function of the business, consequently reinforcing the influence policies, work practices, and behaviours that are rewarded, have on career development. This direct relationship is supported by Watkin and Hubbard (2003) who identified that organisational climate can account directly
for up to 30% of the variance in key business performance measures. Therefore, in addition to organisational culture, it is recommended that climate factors unique to the organisation should also be identified and considered prior to the designing, planning or implementation of a career development program.

While a formally established measurement of climate is yet to achieve universal acceptance, the explanatory powers of the concept of climate lies in its potential to link organisational and individual behavioural factors and outcomes (Wallace et al., 1999). It is this potential that has appealed to researchers and inspired their attempts to operationally define and quantify climate. Numerous researchers (eg., Jones and James, 1979; Joyce and Slocum, 1982; Middlemist and Hitt, 1981) have argued in favour of a multi-dimensional approach to the issue of measurement. Castro and Martins (2010) developed their own comprehensive model for measuring climate, drawing from previously developed models by Coetsee (cited in Gerber, 2003), Tustin (1993) and Wiley and Brooks (2000). The dimensions of Castro and Martins' (2010) model favourably compare with those of other models and provide an encompassing construct of organisational climate, which this study recommends for use to assess organisational climate. The climate assessment results will assist in understanding how to best navigate persistent climate factors that may supersede cultural elements of the organisation in areas such as training and development, diversity, communication, performance management, remuneration and reward (Castro and Martins, 2010). In doing so, the probability of positively contributing to the subjective and objective career success of employees will be increased.

_Career development programs that are supported by the organisational culture and climate_

Research findings by De Vos et al. (2009) provided support to the suggestion that career self-management actions that employees take to manage their career within the organisation they work cannot be a substitute for organisational career management. Employees who take accountability for managing their own careers also expect active support from their employer. Based on social exchange (Blau, 1964)
and psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1995), Sturges et al. (2005) further supports this by the theoretical reasoning that individuals expect the organisation to contribute to their career development as part of the employment deal in return for their personal commitment to self-management activities. Organisational career management and career self-management are not mutually exclusive; rather, they are expected to complement each other (Kossek et al., 1998; Orpen, 1994; Sturges et al., 2005). While this study focused on self-management of career, it is acknowledged that organisational career management and development is an important factor in contributing to an individual’s subjective and objective career success.

Organisational career management refers to the activities undertaken by the organisation to plan and manage the careers of its employees (Baruch & Budhwar, 2006; Sturges et al., 2002). Contemporary career systems support a wider range of employee mobility patterns, such as horizontal movements or temporary project work in contrast to traditional career management practices that have primarily focussed on advancing the individual through the different hierarchical layers of the organisation (Baruch, 1999).

Career development programs can be formal and informal and may take place within and outside of the organisation and should include a broad range of experiences including, but not limited to: capability and behaviour training (Williamson, 2009), 360-degree feedback (McCarthy & Garavan, 1999), self-directed learning projects (Meyers et al., 2012), mentoring (Neely, 2009), challenging team projects (Williamson, 2009), secondments (Grajdieru, 2009), and leadership opportunities (Helitzer et al., 2016). According to Doyle (2000), however, career-development programs should focus on contextual factors and influences that shape career, including consideration of organisational mechanisms that need to be accommodated or navigated by individuals. To illustrate, if self-promotion was one of the behaviours in the career development program of a hierarchical organisation, the individual’s objective career success would be significantly compromised as suggested by the results in this study. Therefore, it is recommended that career development programs should be designed and tailored in line with the dominant culture and climate of the organisation.
The primary purpose of career development is to help employees analyse their abilities and interests to better match personal growth and development to the needs of the organisation (Gilley et al., 2002). Organisationally-lead career development programs have been shown to encourage employee motivation and productivity, loyalty, and contribute to the larger structure of economic stability (Boufreaux, 2001; Herr, 2001; Gaffney, 2005). Doyle (2000) explains that employers and employees are interdependent in the career development process, noting that “individual careers are influenced by the organisation and that employer success depends in part on linking organisational goals with individual aspirations” (p.240).

When designing the methods of any organisational career management initiative it is crucial the organisational culture and climate is considered, and that any initiative or career process is supported by the culture and climate to increase the probability of success implementation and outcomes. In the case of a clan organisational culture it is recommended that organisational career management initiatives focus on collaboration, valuing commitment and communication development, leveraging facilitator and mentoring leadership styles, and driving human development and participation to produce effectiveness. In the case of a hierarchical organisational culture it is recommended that organisational career management initiatives focus on fitting within the controlling orientation, valuing efficiency, timeliness, consistency and uniformity, leveraging coordinator, monitor, and organiser leadership styles, and driving efficient and capable processes to produce effectiveness.

**Develop the emotional intelligence of employees**

Considering the findings that the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours on career success outcomes is different in clan and hierarchical organisations suggests it is important for individuals to be able to evaluate their environment and self-manage their emotions and actions accordingly. Emotional intelligence (EI) is the individual’s ability to perceive, understand and manage emotion and to understand and relate effectively to others. EI has also been defined as “a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express
ourselves, understand others and relate with them and cope with daily demands” (Geher, 2004 p.3). As a construct, EI has been found to explain unique variance in individual wellbeing (Tranel et al., 2003) and the quality of social interactions (Brackett et al., 2006). In the workplace, EI is associated with reduced occupational stress (Littlejohn, 2012), enhanced interpersonal relations (Zeidner et al., 2012), higher quality leadership (Palmer et al., 2001), and better performance at both the individual (Palmer and Jennings, 2007) and the team (Elfenbein, 2006) levels. These findings support the idea that emotional intelligence may play a role in supporting an individual’s ability to evaluate their organisational environment and the people around them to successfully adjust their approach to career self-management.

The focus of EI development for employees should be on the four key elements of EI: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Goleman, 1995). This should be approached in a blended approach to learning and include strategies that develop knowledge, skills and behaviours. Based on an empirical study by Clarke (2010), the development of emotional intelligence in employees can be achieved by providing: (i) opportunities for individuals to participate in facilitated scenario-based sessions that require participants to reflect on how their emotional capability could be used better within their role, (ii) opportunities to practice El associated behaviours and then receive feedback, and (iii) opportunity to observe others during role plays and simulations. EI development interventions, such as these described, have previously been found to promote learning, strengthen self-efficacy, and important in the development of EI capability (Cherniss & Caplan, 2001). Previously, however, Clarke (2006) suggested that developing emotional intelligence abilities is unlikely to be achieved within short periods, and that periods of two months or more are necessary. While the value of EI in the application of career self-management behaviours has not be researched in this study, it is recommended as a highly complementary set of behaviours in contributing to subjective and objective career success in different organisational cultures. Following are the practical implications for individuals.
6.10.2 Individuals

When an individual's satisfaction with their subjective and objective career success as a whole is considered, it has been found to be positively related to emotional wellbeing and life satisfaction (Rosikiewicz et al., 2017; Spurk et al., 2018; Wiese et al., 2002). Therefore, individuals should seek to increase their career success to improve overall life satisfaction. While the general demonstration of all five career self-management behaviours (creating opportunities, extended work involvement, networking, seeking career guidance and self-promotion) have been shown to predict subjective career success and objective career success outcomes in this study, the individual behaviours on their own have varying levels of effectiveness in different organisational cultures. The following are recommendations for individuals to maximise the effectiveness of their career self-management for optimum achievement of career outcomes based on the findings and conclusions of this research study.

Conscious assessment of the cultural environment and unique climate factors of the organisation

Just as organisational culture and climate impacts the organisation, the dominant culture and unique climate factors of an organisation have been shown to impact the individual, on such issues as: employee productivity (Terzioglu et al., 2016), leadership behaviour and effectiveness (Mohamad, 2015; Tsai, 2011), participation of older workers (Appannah & Biggs, 2015), intention to leave (Mohr & Young, 2012), and employee motivation and job satisfaction (Roos & Eeden, 2008). This research study revealed that organisational culture and climate factors also impact subjective and objective career success outcomes. Understanding the organisational culture and climate of the organisation equips an individual with an insight into implicit values, beliefs and assumptions, as well as the behaviours, policies and work practices that are supported and expected (Schneider et al., 2013), which empowers them to adapt and 'flex' accordingly to increase their probability of successful outcomes. Consequently, it is recommended that individuals undertake a conscious assessment of the cultural environment and unique climate factors of the organisation to inform their strategic and behavioural approach to their role and career development.

While organisations are responsible for the collective assessment of organisation culture, it is still possible for an individual to assess their perception of the organisational culture on their own by using the
Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). As outlined in Chapter 3 in more detail, the OCAI is a validated tool for assessing organisational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The OCAI tool is available to individuals for free online (Ocai-online.com) and provides a quick overview of an individual’s assessment of the organisation’s culture. By completing the OCAI the individual will gain an understanding of the culture type that dominates the organisation: clan, hierarchical, adhocracy, or market. This understanding will provide insight into the core drivers and values of the organisation, enabling the individual to determine the best approach to working within the environment.

**Tailor career-self management behaviours**

Previous research has suggested that networking, seeking career guidance, creating opportunities, extended work involvement and self-promotion contributed to subjective and objective career success (Creed & Hughes, 2013; De Vos & Soens, 2008; Smale et al., 2018; Yean & Yahya, 2008). This study found that these career self-management behaviours are more or less effective in different organisational cultures. In the clan organisational culture, creating opportunities and extended work involvement significantly predicted subjective career success, and networking and extended work involvement significantly predicted objective career success. In the hierarchical organisation, creating opportunities significantly predicted subjective career success, and self-promotion significantly negatively predicted objective career success. This reflects the varying degree of effectiveness of these career self-management behaviours in two different organisational cultures. In fact Heslin and Turban (2016) propose that being proactive can backfire, which supports Parker and Liao’s (2016) notion of wise proactivity, which suggests that an individual must be sensitive to the influence of their proactive career behaviours upon others within the work environment to limit negative or undesired consequences. Therefore, it is recommended that individuals should tailor their career self-management behaviours to suit the organisational culture in which they are working to increase their career development effectiveness and success.

Once an individual has evaluated the organisational culture and climate, they are empowered with an understanding of how best to tailor their career self-management behaviours to increase the probability of
successful implementation and outcomes. In the case of a clan organisational culture, the Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework presented earlier in this chapter recommends that individuals approach their career self-management as a ‘Contributor’ and ‘play for the team’. Strategies that will be most well received, applied with ease and contribute to career success outcomes include: (i) developing a network of relationships throughout the organisation, (ii) applying self-reflection as a method for career planning, (iii) identifying areas of the business that require improvement and proactively seeking to solve them, (iv) committing to achieving team goals by working outside business hours when required, and (v) making superiors aware of interests and desires for career development that contribute to the organisation’s vision. In the case of a hierarchical organisational culture, it is recommended that individuals should approach their career self-management as a ‘Conformist’ and ‘play within the rules’. Strategies that will be most well received, applied with ease and contribute to career success outcomes include: (i) developing a network of contacts to increase access to notification of new opportunities, (ii) applying self-reflection as a method for career planning, (iii) proactively identifying and creating development and project opportunities in line with personal interests, (iv) conforming to business operating conditions and working productively within business hours; and (v) focusing efforts on contributing to the collective goals of the organisation and applying modesty at all times. The Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework previously presented in this chapter explains these behaviours in detail.

**Develop emotional intelligence**

The findings of this research study suggest that an individual who is able ‘flex’ their career self-management behaviours according to their organisational culture and climate will be more effective in achieving their subjective and objective career success. This highlights the importance of self-awareness and self-management skills, which are both elements of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence describes one’s “ability, capacity, skill, or self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of themselves, of others, and of groups” (Serrat, 2017, p.329). Previous research has shown there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and subjective wellbeing (Sánchez-Álvarez et al., 2016), job satisfaction (Ouyang et al., 2015) and job performance (Joseph et al., 2015), academic
achievement (Costa & Faria, 2015), interpersonal relationships (Lee et al., 2015), and leadership style and organisational commitment (Alkahtani, 2015). Goleman (1995) breaks emotional intelligence into four key elements: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. It is proposed that these four emotional intelligence capabilities are complementary, if not fundamental, to the effective application of the five career self-management behaviours, particularly in light of the requirement to flex and adapt career self-management behaviours according to the unique environment an individual is working in. Therefore, it is recommended that individuals make the development of their emotional intelligence a priority as an enabler for the effective application of career self-management behaviour to achieve subjective and objective career success.

Attending emotional intelligence (EI) training has been found to significantly contribute to increased emotional intelligence (Groves et al., 2008), self-rated mental health and work morale (Slaski & Carwright, 2003), and emotional self-efficacy and workplace civility (Kirk et al., 2011). Therefore, it is recommended individuals seek out opportunities to attend EI training either provided by their organisation or external to the organisation. However, training alone is not enough. Clarke (2010) found that immediately following EI training emotional intelligence had not increased (1-month later), however it was found to have improved 6-months post training. This would suggest that although training may establish initial self-awareness of the importance of emotions and the foundational skills for emotional intelligence, the actual processes of developing emotional intelligence capability takes place after the training once there is an opportunity for the individual to apply in practice. Therefore, it is recommended that individuals seek out opportunities to self-direct their learning in self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management through on-the-job learning mechanisms. While the value of EI in the application of career self-management behaviours has not be researched in this study, it is recommended as a highly complementary set of behaviours in contributing to an individual's subjective and objective career success in different organisational cultures. Following is a brief summary of this chapter section.
This section outlined the practical implications and recommendations for individuals and organisations as a result of the findings of this research study. The individual, after reading these practical implications and recommendations, will be empowered with the insight to understand how best to self-manage their own career to achieve their goals within different organisational cultures. Organisations, after reading these practical implications and recommendations, will gain clarity on how best to support and enhance the achievement of individual employee career aspirations to contribute to organisational performance and outcomes. The next section of this chapter discusses the limitations of the research.

6.11 Limitations of the research

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships among career self-management behaviours and career success outcomes within a clan and a hierarchical culture. Results of this study are valuable for both individual employees and organisations with clan and hierarchical cultures. However, to realistically assess the contribution of the research described here, and to suggest directions for future work, it is appropriate to consider the limitations of this research study.

The application of the OCAI measurement tool (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) methodology to identify organisational cultures of the two case study organisations determined that the family organisation was clan, and the government organisation was hierarchical. This methodology determined the dominant culture based on the total responses. However, while the majority of individual responses indicate clan and hierarchical cultures for the two organisations, there are individual responses that evaluate the organisational culture as market, clan and adhocracy. Therefore not all employees perceive the organisation the same way.

A case study method was applied which follows the argument that theory development and the understanding of phenomena are able to be achieved through a case study approach Eisenhardt’s (1989), and the argument in support of ‘direct’ research in an organisational setting Mintzberg’s (1979). Yet while
there is a growing confidence in the case study approach’s applicability as “a rigorous research strategy in its own right” (Hartley, 2004), and is now widely used in the social sciences, it is possible the results of the study may not be generalisable to other organisations with clan and hierarchical cultures. Additionally, the sample survey relied on cross-sectional responses from a variety of employees. A cross-sectional study cannot fully establish whether a factor was present before the onset of the problem, or whether the factor resulted from the presence of a significant problem or recent event in the organisation (Sedgwick, 2014). Conclusions regarding causal relationships must be drawn cautiously as career self-management is a dynamic process in which objective and subjective career success are dependent as well as independent variables.

The sample was self-selected and, therefore, selection bias exists which does represent a threat to external validity. Selection bias can occur when the selection of subjects for a study, or their likelihood of being retained in the study, leads to a result that is different had the entire target population been included (Sedgwick, 2014). Selection bias was minimised by inviting all employees of the case study organisations to respond to the survey. Sometimes, however, individuals chosen for the sample are unwilling or unable to participate in the survey, resulting in non-response bias (Sedgwick, 2014). Although the sample is demographically diverse it was not possible to compare the respondents with non-respondents of the organisation to ensure response bias was not an issue. Those that responded to the survey may be the most interested in career success factors, rather than those that are less interested. The research also relied on participant self-assessment of their demonstration of career self-management behaviours, which poses the issue of common method bias. Given the constructs being measured, a self-report instrument was the most viable option. However, some of the data could have been sourced from or validated from other sources to reduce social desirability bias. While the survey was anonymous, which should have minimised this, objective success measures could have been obtained from payroll data, although this would have then meant the survey could not be anonymous. The use of a single survey from case study organisations may have reduced the correlations between study variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), therefore an alternative may have been to introduce manager assessment of employee demonstration of career self-management behaviours to reduce recall or perception bias.
6.12 Future research

This study sought to determine the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours for the achievement of objective and subjective career success in clan and hierarchical organisational cultures. Based upon the methods applied, the limitations, and the findings of the current study, recommendations for future study include additional research opportunities, as well as methodological options which could be useful for that pursuit:

1. Replicate this study in other organisations with a clan and hierarchical culture to further validate the results.

2. Repeat this study within other organisations to investigate the application of career self-management behaviours in the other OCAI model organisational cultures – market and adhocracy. The findings would identify the similarities and differences in the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours within the four organisational cultures. Further, the results would provide additional content for the OCAI model to be augmented to include career self-management traits for all four organisational cultures.

3. Compare and contrast the proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework presented in this thesis with Hall and Yip’s (2016) Model of Organizational Career Cultures, which theoretically propose that there are four career cultures: Apprenticeship Culture, Protean Culture, Prestige Culture, and Merit Culture.

4. Repeat this study with the addition of methodology that includes manager evaluation of the employee’s demonstration of the career self-management behaviours in addition to the self-referent response to the questions. This would further control for common methods bias.

5. Undertake a narrative inquiry study to provide contextual richness to the quantitative findings of this thesis. Gaining deeper insight into employee experiences through the collected stories may lead to useful answers and understanding.

6. Investigate the potential relationship of emotional intelligence with an individual’s ability to adapt their career self-management behaviours according to their organisational culture. The findings would provide insight into this potential relationship and identify if EI is a complementary set of
behaviours to add to the theoretical and conceptual models presented in the discussion of this research study.

7. Undertake a longitudinal study measuring the effectiveness of an intervention model that is implemented based on the practical implications made in this thesis for individuals and organisations working within different organisational cultures. The study would test for an increase in the achievement of objective and subjective career success and/or a shift in the reception, ease of application and perception of effectiveness of the career self-management behaviours.

6.13 Conclusions

This research has demonstrated the importance of understanding the relationship between organisational culture and career self-management behaviours on subjective and objective career success outcomes in a clan and hierarchical organisation. The varying effectiveness of individual career self-management behaviours in the two different organisational cultures has been highlighted. The research has also provided insight into the perceived reception, effectiveness and ease of application of the career self-management behaviours in these workplace environments. The relevant results revealed organisational climate factors also have the potential to further influence an individual's career self-management behaviours and their contribution to career success outcomes. In the clan organisational culture, creating opportunities and extended work involvement were most effective in achieving subjective career success, and networking and extended work involvement were most effective in achieving objective career success. In the hierarchical organisation creating opportunities was most effective in achieving subjective career success, and self-promotion undermined objective career success. It is recommended that career self-management behaviours are tailored to suit the organisational culture and unique climate in which the individual is pursuing their career goals. Social cognitive theory, which was used to underpin this research, provides some valuable insights into the relationships between environment, behaviour, personal factors, and outcomes in the context organisational culture, career self-management behaviours, and subjective
and objective career success. These empirical and theoretical insights informed the development of a proposed new Competing Values Career Self-Management Framework that will require further research to explore in adhocracy and market cultures, as well as validate. Finally, it is clear from the present research that career self-management behaviours do contribute to subjective and objective career success, and the organisational culture in which the behaviours are applied, influences effectiveness.
REFERENCES


Jeffers, S., & Mariani, B. (2017). The effect of a formal mentoring program on career satisfaction and intent to stay in the faculty role for novice nurse faculty. Nursing Education Perspectives, 38(1), 18-22.


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A: Online Survey

2. Qualification criteria

Please answer the following questions to determine your suitability for contribution to this research study. If you do not qualify you will exit the survey, but I do thank you for your time and agreement to participate.

1. I am currently employed in a full-time, part-time, fixed-term contract, or casual position.
   
   Yes
   No

Exit this survey
The Impact of Organisational Culture on Career Outcomes Research Study

1. Participant Consent Form

Macquarie University requires that all persons who participate in studies give their consent to do so. Please review the following before continuing.

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Liz Green, M.Ed, B.Bus., a PhD candidate of Macquarie Graduate School of Management at Macquarie University. You are being asked to participate because you are employed by an organisation that has agreed to support this research study.

The purpose of this research is to examine the effectiveness of career self management behaviours and career outcomes in different organisational cultures. Specifically you are being asked to complete the following survey, which contains questions about your organisation, your career self management behaviours, and your career. The survey should take about 10-15 minutes to complete.

There are no foreseeable risks associated with participating in this study. I expect this study to benefit you by allowing you to reflect on your career and how your career self management and organisation impacts your career. In addition, I expect this research to benefit working people and organisations by identifying how differing organisational cultures may serve improve career outcomes and job satisfaction.

Your organisation has agreed to conduct this research so as they can seek to understand how its culture impacts your career, and your participation is critical to the success of the study. However, please understand that your participation in this study is voluntary. At any point during the survey should you no longer wish to continue, simply click ‘exit this survey’.

Your responses are strictly anonymous and your individual privacy will be maintained in all publications or presentations that result from this study. Your responses will be combined with those of hundreds of other individuals. All analyses and findings will be reported in the aggregate; therefore your individual responses will never be identified.

If you have any questions or would like additional information about this study, or would like a report on the findings of this study, please feel free to contact me, Liz Green at +61 402 158 261 or liz@successium.com.au. Alternatively you may contact my research advisor, Dr Paul Nesbitt of Macquarie Graduate School of Management at +61 2 9850 9908 or paul.nesbit@mgsm.com.au.

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.
NOTE: You may wish to print this page for your future reference.

1. Do you voluntarily agree to participate in this survey?
   
   YES, I voluntarily consent to participate in this study and wish to proceed to the survey.
   
   NO, I do not agree to participate and wish to exit from this survey.
3. About Your Organisation's Culture

In completing this section of the survey, you will be providing a picture of the fundamental assumptions on which your organisation operates and the values that characterise it. Please rate your 'organisation' as a whole if less than 4000 employees, if greater than 4000 employees apply your assessment to your business unit.

For each item within this section of the survey, divide 100 points among the four alternatives provided, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organisation. Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organisation.

*1. Dominant Characteristics - Divide 100 points among the four alternatives provided, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organisation.

A. The organisation is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.
B. The organisation is a dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.
C. The organisation is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.
D. The organisation is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

*2. Organisational Leadership - Divide 100 points among the four alternatives provided, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organisation.

A. The leadership in the organisation is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.
B. The leadership in the organisation is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk taking.
C. The leadership in the organisation is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.
D. The leadership in the organisation is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organising, or smooth-running efficiency.

*3. Management of Employees - Divide 100 points among the four alternatives provided, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organisation.

A. The management style in the organisation is characterised by teamwork, consensus, and participation.
B. The management style in the organisation is characterised by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.
C. The management style in the organisation is characterised by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.
D. The management style in the organisation is characterised by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.

*4. Organisation Glue - Divide 100 points among the four alternatives provided, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organisation.

A. The glue that holds the organisation together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organisation runs high.
B. The glue that holds the organisation together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.
C. The glue that holds the organisation together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.
D. The glue that holds the organisation together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smoothly running organisation is important.
5. Strategic Emphases - Divide 100 points among the four alternatives provided, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organisation.

A. The organisation emphasises human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.

B. The organisation emphasises acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

C. The organisation emphasises competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

D. The organisation emphasises permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.

6. Criteria of Success - Divide 100 points among the four alternatives provided, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organisation.

A. The organisation defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.

B. The organisation defines success on the basis of having unique or the newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

C. The organisation defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

D. The organisation defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost production are critical.
4. Your Career Strategies

*1. Creating opportunities - To what extent do you currently engage in the listed behaviours within your current organisation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>Very little extent</th>
<th>To a great extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Keeping your career options open</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Developing skills which may be needed in future career positions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Preparing yourself for career opportunities which may materialise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Obtaining broadly based work experiences in this organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Assuming leadership in work areas where there appears to be no leadership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Developing expertise in areas that are critical to your department's operations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*2. My ‘creating opportunity’ behaviours, when demonstrated in this organisation;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are enacted with ease</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are always positively received</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribute to the achievement of my career objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*3. Self Promotion - To what extent do you currently engage in the listed behaviours within your current organisation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>Very little extent</th>
<th>Very great extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Making your boss aware of the assignments you want</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Working hard when you know the results will be seen by your supervisors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Making your supervisors aware of your accomplishments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D. Making your superiors aware of your aspirations and career objectives

E. Presenting yourself as being a person who 'gets things done'

**4. My 'self promotion' behaviours, when demonstrated in this organisation;**

Strongly Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | N/A
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
Are enacted with ease
Are always positively received
Contribute to the achievement of my career objectives

**5. Extended work involvement - To what extent do you currently engage in the listed behaviours within your current organisation?**

| Very | little | extent | Very | great | extent |
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
A. Working at your job outside of normal work hours
B. Taking your work home with you
C. Spending considerable time thinking about your job outside of normal work hours

**6. My 'extended work involvement' behaviours, when demonstrated in this organisation;**

Strongly Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | N/A
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
Are enacted with ease
Are always positively received
Contribute to the achievement of my career objectives

**7. Seeking career guidance - To what extent do you currently engage in the listed behaviours within your current organisation?**

| Very | little | extent | Very | great | extent |
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
A. Getting career guidance from supervisors
B. Getting career guidance from other experienced person(s) in the organisation
C. Getting career guidance from a more experienced person outside the organisation

*8. My 'seeking guidance' behaviours, when demonstrated in this organisation;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Are enacted with ease
Are always positively received
Contribute to the achievement of my career objectives

*9. Networking - To what extent do you currently engage in the listed behaviours within your current organisation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very great extent</th>
<th>Very little extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

A. Building a network of 'contacts' in the organisation for obtaining information about what's happening within the organisation
B. Building a network of friendships in the organisation which can help to further your career progression

*10. My 'networking' behaviours, when demonstrated in this organisation;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Are enacted with ease
Are always positively received
Contribute to the achievement of my career objectives
5. Your Career

Please answer these questions based on your current role within your current organisation.

1. What is your current total annual compensation?

2. How many positions are there between you and the CEO of your organisation?

3. How long, in years and months, have you been employed in total by your organisation? Please present your answer numerically to one decimal place.

4. How many promotions have you had in your current organisation?

5. The following questions refer to your opinions regarding your career.

   - A. How successful has your career been?
   - B. Compared to your coworkers, how successful is your career?
   - C. How successful do your 'significant other(s)' feel your career has been?

6. Given your age, do you think that your career is 'on schedule', ahead or behind schedule?

   - Well behind schedule
   - On schedule
   - Well ahead of schedule
6. Job Satisfaction

*1. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements based on the scale of 1 (strongly agree) through to 5 (strongly agree).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

disA. I am dissatisfied with the success I have achieved in my career
B. I am dissatisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals
C. I am dissatisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income
D. I am dissatisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement
E. I am dissatisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills
APPENDIX B: Organisational Interest Email

Dear xxx,

I am undertaking PhD research at Macquarie University in the fields of organisational culture and career-self-management, and I am currently recruiting Australian organisations to participate in this research. Therefore why I am emailing you.

The purpose of this project is to research the effectiveness of career self-management for career success within different organisational cultures. The goal is to determine which career self-management behaviours are most easily enacted, and most effective for career success outcomes and job satisfaction, within different organisational cultures. I expect this study to benefit your employees that participate by allowing them to reflect on their career and how their career self-management impacts their career. In addition, I expect this research to benefit your organisation by identifying what career self-management behaviours are most easily enacted, and to greatest effect, on career success and job satisfaction within your culture.

Research methods will involve the use of a single online survey, hosted by Survey Monkey, which you are asked to distribute internally to your employees by email, and will take participants 10-15 mins to complete.

Should you agree to participate in this research study, you will be provided a copy of the final report and access to the data collected for your organisation. You also have the option of being presented with the results in a personal debrief. Rest assured, your organisation will not be named in the final research report (except by its size and industry), and participant responses are strictly anonymous and individual privacy will be maintained in all publications or presentations that result from this study.

There is a defined timeline for this research (September-December 2012) which your organisation will need to agree to, and only the first two organisations to consent to participate will be selected.

If this is something your organisation may be interested in, my hope is that you will promptly respond to notify your interest. We can then schedule a time to discuss the research logistics with you, or your key stakeholders, at your convenience.

If you have any questions at all please don’t hesitate to give me a call. I look forward to speaking with you soon.

Kind Regards

Liz
APPENDIX C: Organisational Consent Form

ORGANISATION CONSENT FORM

Project: The relationship of effective career self-management and organisational culture.

Chief Investigator: Dr Paul Nesbit  Co-Investigator: Elizabeth Green

Name of Organisation: _____________________________________________________________

Your organisation has been invited to participate in a research study conducted by Liz Green, M.Ed, B.Bus., a PhD candidate of Macquarie Graduate School of Management at Macquarie University. The purpose of this study is to research the effectiveness of career self-management behaviours and career outcomes in different organisational cultures.

NOTE: This consent form must be completed by the relevant Senior Leader of the organisation internally sponsoring the research.

I, ___________________________ ___________________, can confirm that (insert organisation name) ________________________________________ gives its consent to the above research project, subject to the following conditions:

1. We have the right to withdraw our consent and cease any further involvement in the research project at any time without any penalty and without giving any reasons.

2. The purpose of the research has been explained and we have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project. We have received satisfactory answers to our questions and have been given adequate time to consider the appropriateness of the project.

3. We agree to support the research activities on the following timeline:
   • distribute the online survey to our employees on or before 30 September, 2012.
   • distribute a follow up reminder email 10 days following the distribution of the first email.
   • support the researchers conducting up to 3 focus groups of 1-hour duration on our premises in November 2012.

4. We understand that the researchers are responsible for the security of data and will have access to the data, and the data will be stored for a minimum of 5 years, yet made available for other researchers in the future.

________________________________________

2 Elizabeth/Liz Green is the name I was enrolled with at Macquarie University. I have since married with a name change to Elizabeth/Liz Shoesmith.
5. The researcher will need to obtain additional consent from us if there are any changes to the project from the information provided under paragraphs [2] and [3] above.

6. Any information that any member of our staff provides or any personal details of our clients obtained in the course of this research, are confidential and any information that could identify individual participants will neither be used nor published.

7. Unless otherwise explicitly agreed, any information provided in the course of this research that identifies our organisation will not be used nor published without our written permission.

8. The researcher will ensure there is continuing consultation with our organisation during the course of the research. The research will not proceed until all required negotiation has occurred to our satisfaction.

9. The researchers will obtain the individual consent of all participants in the research.

10. We understand that on completion of the research project we have the option of receiving a copy of the report and a debrief of the results as relevant to our organisation.

11. We understand that if we have any questions or would like additional information about this study, or would like a report on the findings of this study, we can contact, Liz Green at +61 402 158 261 or liz@successium.com.au. Alternatively we may contact the research advisor, Dr Paul Nesbit of Macquarie Graduate School of Management at +61 2 9850 9908 or paul.nesbit@mgsm.com.au.

12. We understand the ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If we have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of our participation in this research, we may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint we make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and we will be informed of the outcome.

Signed on behalf of ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

organisation name

Signature

Position in the organisation

Date ……………………

Witnessed by …………………… Date ……………………

As the Chief-Researcher in the project, I acknowledge the conditions set out above

Name: ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

Signature ……………………………………………………………………… Date ……………………

Witnessed by ……………………………………………………………………… Date ……………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

ORGANISATION’S COPY
APPENDIX D: Survey email invitation

Liz Green³, a PhD student from Macquarie University, is undertaking a study on career and as an organisation we have agreed to participate. We are interested to learn more about your career experiences here at <Case Study Organisation> so we encourage you to complete this online survey.

The responses are completely anonymous and your confidentiality is assured.

Please click here to complete the survey

³ Elizabeth/Liz Green is the name I was enrolled with at Macquarie University. I have since married with a name change to Elizabeth/Liz Shoesmith.
APPENDIX E: Demographics

Table 3. Counts and percentages of responses for gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Organisation One (n=163)</th>
<th>Organisation Two (n=173)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations, Min and Max for age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisation One (n=165)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation Two (n=165)</td>
<td>40.29</td>
<td>11.82</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Counts and percentages of responses for highest level of education and annual compensation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>Organisation One (n=165)</th>
<th>Organisation Two (n=173)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>54 (33%)</td>
<td>30 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade certificate or diploma</td>
<td>47 (28%)</td>
<td>42 (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate degree</td>
<td>31 (19%)</td>
<td>44 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate certificate or diploma</td>
<td>29 (18%)</td>
<td>34 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>4 (2%)</td>
<td>23 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Compensation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than $25,000</td>
<td>24 (15%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$25,000 to $39,999</td>
<td>10 (6%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40,000 to $59,999</td>
<td>38 (23%)</td>
<td>22 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$60,000 to $79,999</td>
<td>25 (15%)</td>
<td>53 (31%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$80,000 to $99,999</td>
<td>19 (12%)</td>
<td>38 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$100,000 to $119,999</td>
<td>14 (9%)</td>
<td>28 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$120,000 to $139,999</td>
<td>8 (5%)</td>
<td>10 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$140,000 to $159,999</td>
<td>7 (4%)</td>
<td>10 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$160,000 to $179,999</td>
<td>4 (2%)</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$180,000 to $199,999</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$200,000 or more</td>
<td>11 (7%)</td>
<td>6 (3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6. Counts, means and Standard Deviations for tenure, positions between participant and CEO, number of promotions, and promotion rate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisation One</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>5.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positions between participant and CEO</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of promotions</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion rate</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisation Two</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>5.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positions between participant and CEO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of promotions</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion rate</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F: Reliability

Table 7. Cronbach’s Alpha Reliabilities and Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>121.18</td>
<td>66.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>212.97</td>
<td>88.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Reliability Table of the Career Self-Management Behaviours with Perceived Effectiveness, Ease of application and reception.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived effectiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunity</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking Career Guidance</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of Application and Reception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunity</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking Career Guidance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX G: H1-H2 results

Table 9. Frequencies and Percentages for Perceived Organisational Culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisation One</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No dominance</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisation Two</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>48</td>
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<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No dominance</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding error.

![Organisation One Culture Profile](image)

Figure 13. Organisation One Culture Profile
Figure 14. Organisation Two Culture Profile
APPENDIX H: H3-H7 results

Figure 15. H3-H7 Q-Q scatterplot testing normality – Clan Organisational Culture Type

Figure 16. H3-H7 Residuals scatterplot testing homoscedasticity – Clan Organisational Culture Type
Table 10. H3-H7 Variance Inflation Factors for Creating Opportunities, Self-promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Seeking Career Guidance, and Networking – Clan Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking Career Guidance</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 17. H3-H7 Standardised residuals plot for outlier detection – Clan Organisational Culture Type

Table 11. H3-H7 Results for Linear Regression with Creating Opportunities, Self-Promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Career Guidance, and Networking predicting Subjective Career Success – Clan Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Intercept)</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>[1.70, 3.03]</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>[0.02, 0.34]</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>[-0.12, 0.17]</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>.758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>[0.07, 0.21]</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking Career Guidance</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>[-0.11, 0.11]</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>.994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>[-0.03, 0.22]</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>.122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note. Results: $F(5,160) = 8.96, p < .001, R^2 = 0.22$

Unstandardised Regression Equation: Subjective Career Success = 2.36 + 0.18*Creating Opportunities + 0.02*Self-promotion + 0.14*Extended Work Involvement - 0.00*Seeking Career Guidance + 0.10*Networking

Figure 18. H3-H7 Q-Q scatterplot testing normality – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type
Figure 19. H3-H7 Residuals scatterplot testing homoscedasticity – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

Table 12. H3-H7 Variance Inflation Factors for Creating Opportunities, Self-promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Career Guidance, and Networking – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13. H3-H7 Results for Linear Regression with Creating Opportunities, Self-promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Career Guidance, and Networking predicting Subjective Career Success – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Intercept)</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>[1.31, 2.60]</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>[0.08, 0.38]</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>[-0.15, 0.19]</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>.817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>[-0.14, 0.07]</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
<td>.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>[-0.13, 0.14]</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>[-0.03, 0.24]</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Results: $F(5,169) = 5.45$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.14$

Unstandardised Regression Equation: Subjective Career Success = 1.96 + 0.23*Creating Opportunities + 0.02*Self-nomination - 0.04*Extended Work Involvement + 0.01*Seeking Career Guidance + 0.11*Networking
APPENDIX I: H8-H12 results

Figure 21. H8-H12 Q-Q scatterplot testing normality – Clan Organisational Culture Type

Figure 22. H8-H12 Residuals scatterplot testing homoscedasticity – Clan Organisational Culture Type
Table 14. H8-H12 Variance Inflation Factors for Creating Opportunities, Self-promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Career Guidance, and Networking – Clan Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 23. H8-H12 Standardised residuals plot for outlier detection – Clan Organisational Culture Type

Table 15. H8-H12 Results for Linear Regression with Creating Opportunities, Self-promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Career Guidance, and Networking predicting Objective Career Success – Clan Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Intercept)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>[-1.73, 2.39]</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>.753</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Creating Opportunities  0.32  0.24  [-0.16, 0.80]  0.12  1.32  .190
Self-promotion -0.40  0.24  [-0.88, 0.07]  -0.16  -1.68  .096
Extended Work Involvement  0.83  0.12  [0.60, 1.07]  0.56  7.06  < .001
Career Guidance -0.11  0.19  [-0.49, 0.28]  -0.06  -0.56  .576
Networking  0.47  0.21  [0.06, 0.88]  0.23  2.26  .026

Note. Results: F(5,160) = 14.73, p < .001, R² = 0.43
Unstandardised Regression Equation: Objective Career Success = 0.33 + 0.32*Creating Opportunities - 0.40*Self-promotion + 0.83*Extended Work Involvement - 0.11*Career Guidance + 0.47*Networking

Figure 24. H8-H12 Q-Q scatterplot testing normality – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type
Figure 25. H8-H12 Residuals scatterplot testing homoscedasticity – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

Table 16. H8-H12 Variance Inflation Factors for Creating Opportunities, Self-promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Career Guidance, and Networking – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 26. H8-H12 Standardised residuals plot for outlier detection – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

Table 17. H8-H12 Results for Linear Regression with Creating Opportunities, Self-promotion, Extended Work Involvement, Career Guidance, and Networking predicting Objective Career Success – Hierarchical Organisational Culture Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Intercept)</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>[4.43, 9.23]</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>[-0.66, 0.43]</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.42</td>
<td>.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>[-1.40, -0.12]</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-2.34</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Work Involvement</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>[-0.43, 0.34]</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>[-0.83, 0.16]</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>.188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>[-0.10, 0.91]</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>.116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Results: F(5,169) = 2.64, p = .025, R2 = 0.07
Unstandardised Regression Equation: Objective Career Success = 6.83 - 0.12*Creating Opportunities - 0.76*Self-nomination - 0.04*Extended Work Involvement - 0.33*Seeking Career Guidance + 0.41*Networking
APPENDIX J: H13-H17 results

Table 18. H13 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Networking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Networking Enactment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-1.58</td>
<td>3.44</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.91</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking Reception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-1.68</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ‘-‘ denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.

Figure 27. Networking summary mean results for ease of enactment and reception by Organisational Culture Type

Table 19. H14 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Career Guidance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance Enactment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-1.06</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance Reception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-1.26</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.82</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ‘-‘ denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.
Figure 28. Career Guidance summary mean results for ease of enactment and reception by Organisational Culture Type

Table 20. H15 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Creating Opportunities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>SE_M</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating Opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enactment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>-1.28</td>
<td>2.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.67</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>-1.22</td>
<td>2.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *'-' denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.
Figure 29. Creating Opportunities summary mean results for ease of enactment and reception by Organisational Culture Type

Table 21. H16 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Extended Work Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$SE_{M}$</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extended Work Involvement Enactment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-1.41</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extended Work Involvement Reception</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-1.39</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* '-' denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.
Figure 30. *Extended Work Involvement summary mean results for ease of enactment and reception by Organisational Culture Type*

Table 22. H17 *Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Self-promotion*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>SE_M</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion Enactment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
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<td>1.02</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>-1.35</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.67</td>
<td>0.55</td>
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<td>Self-promotion Reception</td>
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<td>-0.71</td>
<td>0.71</td>
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</table>

*Note.* ' - ' denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.
Figure 31. Self-promotion summary mean results for ease of enactment and reception by Organisational Culture Type
APPENDIX K: H18-H22 results

Table 23. H18 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Networking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$SE_{M}$</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
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Note. '*' denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.

Figure 32. Networking summary mean results for perceived effectiveness by Organisational Culture Type

Table 24. H19 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Seeking Career Guidance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<th>$n$</th>
<th>$SE_{M}$</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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Note. '*' denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.
Table 25. H20 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Creating Opportunities

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<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
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</tbody>
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*Note.* ‘-’ denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.

Figure 33. Seeking Career Guidance summary mean results for perceived effectiveness by Organisational Culture Type

Figure 34. Creating Opportunities summary mean results for perceived effectiveness by Organisational Culture Type
Table 26. H21 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Extended Work Involvement

<table>
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<th>Variable</th>
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<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurto sis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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</tr>
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<td>3.43</td>
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Note. ‘-’ denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.

Figure 35. Extended Work Involvement summary mean results for perceived effectiveness by Organisational Culture Type

Table 27. H22 Summary Statistics Interval and Ratio Variables Split by Dominant Culture for Self-promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Self-promotion Effectiveness</td>
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<td>-0.72</td>
<td>0.28</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. ‘-’ denotes the sample size is too small to calculate statistic.
Figure 36. Self-promotion summary mean results for perceived effectiveness by Organisational Culture Type