THE EFFECTS OF CAREER-ENHANCING STRATEGIES, SOCIAL IDENTITY, PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY AND SUBJECTIVE VITALITY ON SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE CAREER SUCCESS

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION:

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, cited and referenced.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Career success is defined as the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of one's work experiences" (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995, p. 486). It is generally recognised by researchers that career success does not only consist of objective factors such as salary and job level (Callanan, 2003; Sturges, 1999), but that subjective factors such as one's own perception of success also plays a role.

In 2007 Riordan conducted an extensive study of career success in women academics in South Africa. She developed a model to predict objective and subjective career success. The current study examines suggestions made by Riordan (2007) in her discussion of her results, plus a few significant changes:

- The sample consists of men and women academics
- Use of career-enhancing strategies, a gender sensitive independent variable mentioned by Nabi (2003), was added
- Instead of organisational psychology constructs, one construct from social psychology and two from positive psychology were utilised as independent variables. The social psychology construct is social identification with the academic institution (Mael & Ashforth, 1989), whereas the positive psychology constructs include personal responsibility (Linley & Maltby, 2009) and subjective vitality (Ryan & Frederick, 1997).

Riordan (2007): Career success of women academics in South Africa

Riordan (2007) conducted an empirical investigation concerned with the relationship between particular career psychology variables and South African women's academic career success. She investigated the effects of work centrality, motivation, career anchors and self-efficacy on career success. A moderating variable, the responsibility of care-giving on work centrality, was also incorporated. This type of study had not been conducted in South Africa before. Previous research focussed on qualitative explanations or concentrated on explanations concerned with the unsuccessful experiences of female academics in other countries. Riordan's study

intended to build on previous literature by investigating the constructs empirically. In Figure 1, Riordan's model of career success of academic women is presented:

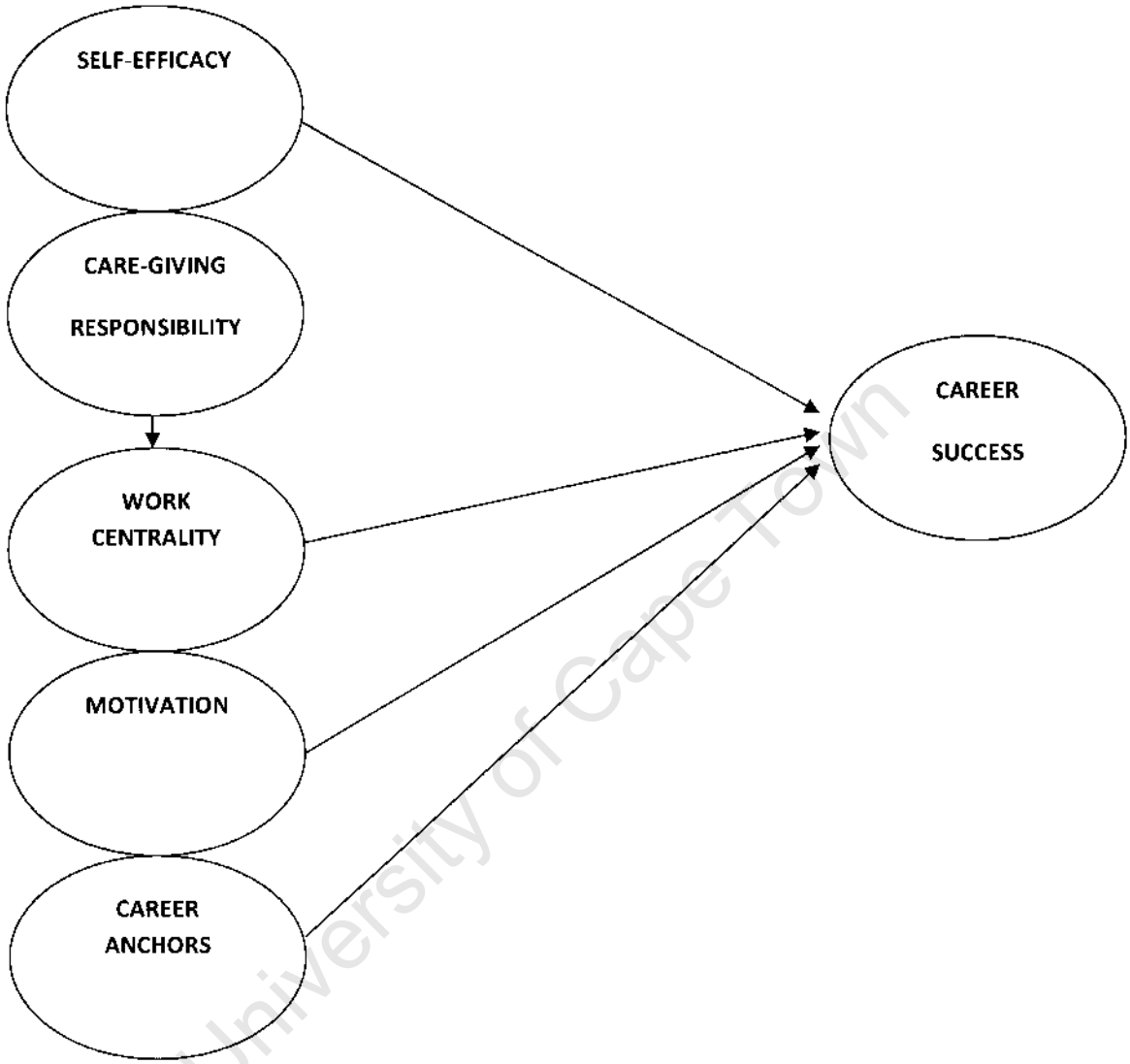

Figure 1. The relationship between the specific career variables and career success

Source: Riordan 2007

Riordan (2007) measured the career success of women academics in South African universities. In her study, objective career success was measured utilising qualification level, amount of published material, teaching assessments and level of community service involvement. Her results demonstrated that all four measures reflected a positive relationship with academic job level. A key finding was that job level, on its own, is a suitable indicator of academic career success. Riordan discovered that work centrality, self-efficacy and motivational expectancy positively predicted subjective career success among female academics. Furthermore, she

found that subjective career success was negatively predicted by motivational valence.

Academic career success

According to Poole and Bornholt (1998), academic work is comprised of three main elements, namely, research, teaching and consulting. Academic work is also characterised by the vocational rewards associated with it, which includes a high income and participation in policy development. In this study of academic career development in eight countries (Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Sweden, Mexico, Great Britain and United States of America), it was found that older men with a long tenure in higher education were more senior in occupational rank than female academics. Years of work experience made significant contributions to facets of academic work. It was found that income was inclined to increase with years of experience, which in turn was linked to academic status. They found that male academics were more research-orientated which in turn also affected their network base, whereas female academics were more orientated toward the teaching component of their role. Poole and Bornholt suggested that research orientation plays a vital role in determining levels of income, rank and status in the academic profession and as a result influences academic career success.

The results of Nabi's (1999) study suggested that the most powerful predictors of academic objective career success included: education level, comprehensive work participation, institutional size, hard work and structured career progression ladders. Variables positively linked to academic subjective career success included: clear, structured career paths and job security, together with hard work, networking, talent development and the centrality of work.

Ismail, Rasdi and Wahat (2005) investigated factors contributing to the success of female academics in Malaysia. They found a range of diverse factors contributing to academic career success but the most important was the high level of work centrality

confirmed by their hard work and fortitude. Other factors that contributed to success included exposure at an early age to basic learning, girls-only boarding school attendance, positive experiences in attaining their first degree, family support, maintaining a healthy lifestyle as well as balancing spiritual and material values. Work centrality was defined as the value an individual attributes to the role of work in his/ her life (Paullay, Alliger & Stone—Romero, 1994). Ismail et al. classified career centrality as a critical factor for a successful academic career. Career centrality was defined as the degree to which career involvement was seen as fundamental to their adult existence. The components of career centrality comprised the following: working towards career accomplishments, recognising the inherent academic job requirements, hard work, fortitude and the possession of career objectives. Harris, Thiele and Currie (1998) described successful academics as determined, aggressively hard working individuals who focused single-mindedly on their careers.

Subjective and objective career success

Previously career success was measured only by objective measures such as promotions and salary package (Judge et al., 1995). However, more recently it has been argued that definitions of career success should include both objective and subjective measures. It is now recognised that career success consists of both objective and subjective components. Objective career success was defined as encompassing society's achievement standards, whereas subjective career success was personal evaluations of success (Callanan, 2003).

Ng, Eby, Sorensen and Feldman (2005) investigated the predictors of objective and subjective career success. They found that when subjective career success was measured, education had a stronger effect on career satisfaction for women than men. According to Judge et al. (1995), these results may demonstrate that women have lower expectations for their careers than men do. It may be more satisfying for women to invest in themselves to improve their careers. Kirchmeyer (1998) investigated the career success of men and women MBA graduate managers. The objective measures of success employed in the study included personal income and

hierarchical level, whereas the subjective indicator employed was perceived career success. Kirchmeyer found that although women earned less than men, they still perceived their careers to be as successful as their male counterparts. According to Major (1989), females in male-dominated environments are more inclined to use females from other industries as a benchmark when comparing their success. The women in Kirchmeyer's study may have used other professional women as benchmarks for their career success. Long-term service to one organisation had a positive effect on the perceived success of males only. The same was not found for females. Possible reasons for this include little financial payoffs when remaining with one organisation and the risk of not gaining any other return on their investment with the organisation. The women and men in the study reported the same amount of mentorship and network support. However, the presence of a mentor only had a positive effect on the men's incomes. Also, network support had a stronger effect on men's levels of progression. In this male-dominated environment, the majority of the supervisors and mentors were men and the cross-gendering of the supportive relationships may have impaired the quality of the mentoring experience for the women concerned. Although women received less objective returns, supportive relationships influenced the subjective component equally for both men and women. This finding supports earlier research which showed that women placed more value on relationships at work rather than only focussing on career progression (Powell & Mainiero, 1992). Seibert, Kraimer and Grant (2001) however, found that individuals with multiple mentors obtained more career success than those involved with only one mentor.

Nabi (1999) investigated predictors of objective and subjective career success. He found that highly educated employees in bigger organisations, with well structured career progression paths who devoted substantial effort and time to their work roles, reported the highest objective career success. Employees in organisations with well structured career progression paths, where job security was offered, and who reported work as central to their lives and networked frequently, but lacked purpose, reported the highest subjective career success. The sample included 2,585 full-time employees at six British tertiary institutions. Nabi found that older male employees in academic or managerial positions earned higher salaries than other employees.

Judge et al. (1995) found that subjective and objective career success are inclined to be positively yet moderately related. This was also demonstrated by Korman, Wittig-Berman and Lang (1981) in their study of the career success and personal failure of executives and managers. From their sample, they found that although many successful professionals and managers were high in ranking and received competitive salary packages, their reports of subjective success was still very low.

Career success, gender and age

Poole and Bornholt's (1998) noted that academic work consists of research, teaching and consulting. Schaupp (1995) recognized academic activities to include researching, teaching and service. In many academic institutions women are more involved in tasks involving teaching, administration and pastoral care (West & Lyon, 1995). According to Bagillhole (1993), research activities were more likely to assist career development than service to the university and community.

Brown (1999) analysed gender and power in British universities. His survey of senior management revealed very few women in these roles, with fewer women in positions of honour. Brown demonstrated that very few women are involved in academic decision-making and institutional governance, but that modest change towards an equitable balance is occurring. May (2000) investigated factors impeding women academics' career advancement at a South African tertiary institution. Despite legislative developments and affirmative action, women are persistently under-represented in higher education institutions and over-represented in the lower level positions.

According to Probed (2005), there are unequal distributions of males and females in the academic hierarchies in Australia, the United Kingdom and United States. There are far fewer women than men above level C (senior lecturer). Females are particularly under-represented at levels D and E (associate professor and professor).

Females at full professor level are under-represented in all European Union member states (Rolin, 2000). Adusah-Karikari and Godwyll (2009) described universities in Ghana as male-dominated institutions, which failed to address the particular needs of its women employees. It is more likely for women to be found in junior positions on fixed-term contracts (Majcher, 2002). Research has suggested that women are promoted less often because of their dedication to the teaching component of their roles (Probert). Position level, years of experience in higher education and formal qualifications were the vital predictors of income for both male and female academics. Ward (2001) found that the most important factors determining salary differences between gender groups were position level, age, full-time work and time spent outside of the labour market. According to Probert, the gender stratification in the industry is attributed to men commencing their academic careers at higher positional levels than women and thereby experiencing more years of employment in the profession.

Jacobs and Winslow (2004) investigated the life course of academics in the USA. They suggest that the under-representation of long-serving women academics can be explained by the combination of the demanding nature of academic vocation and the gender segregation within the field. At many academic institutions in the USA there is a typical academic career pattern. This includes a seven year probationary period, after which junior academics are promoted to the permanent faculty where lifetime job security is promised. If the natural progression pattern does not occur and the academic is not promoted, he/she is requested to leave the institution. This review is usually completed in the sixth year of the assistant professor's appointment. The promotional rank change, from assistant to associate professor usually occurs at the end of the sixth year. The average age for male assistant professors is 42.4 years, whereas for females, it is 43.7 years. Parenthood impacts differently on men and women's likelihood of promotion. For men, in an assistant professor capacity or less, the effect is positive, if only to a small degree. However, for women, their chance of promotion decreases by 20-25 percent. Female academics are more likely to have their children at a later age than males. For academics between 30 and 34 years old, 48.8 percent of men have children whereas 31.9 percent of women do. Marriage and motherhood plays a role in

decreasing the number of hours devoted to work. Male, married associate professors with children worked 56.3 hours weekly whereas female, married associate professors with children worked 52.5 hours weekly. This slight reduction in the working hours could assist in explaining the impeded career progress of women academics with children.

Adusah-Karikari and Godwyll (2009) investigated the experiences of women academics in Ghana. Their respondents reported the incompatibility of an academic career coupled with motherhood and other domestic responsibilities. An academic career requires committee memberships, publication submissions and conference attendance if an academic is to be considered for promotions. These activities require sacrifice and time which compete with the domestic responsibilities expected of women and their motherhood roles. The women academics highlighted that promotions required long hours which would be at the expense of their families. For a Ghanaian woman to sacrifice family time in order to advance her career, is condemned by society. Ghanaian female academics' career advancements are confined by geographical limitations, family responsibilities and societal prejudice. The resultant effect thus is that as the seniority of academic positions increase, the number of women occupying these academic positions decrease.

Poole and Bornholt (1998) found that gender, age and years of experience play a role in the career progression of academics. Further, their results demonstrated that older men, with many years of academic experience were the most senior in rank. This was particularly the case with their Hong Kong and British samples. In their German and USA samples, they found that age and years of experience were the most influential factors in determining academic rank. Their sample in Israel however, favoured young female academics who were newly appointed. The age of academics plays a role in influencing the academic activities in which they engage. Poole and Bornholt found that younger academics spend longer hours on academic research, whereas older academics preferred teaching over research. Other academic activities such as consulting and community service were undifferentiated by the age of the academics. Academics in the highest ranks were older and earned more. Older academics were the group most motivated to stay in academia.

Schaupp (1995) investigated the publication rates of male and female academics. Male academics consistently published more research than women. Producing research is particularly important as academic departments and institutions are rewarded financially for producing quality research (Knights & Richards, 2003). Prozesky (2008) analysed the gender differences in the publication productivity among South African academics. Between 1990 and 2001, South African male academics published, on average, twice the amount that their female colleagues did. It was further found that, in terms of peer reviewed articles, the quantity of articles published by the most productive men far exceeded that of the most productive women. In previous research conducted by Prozesky (2006) she found that even women academics who are chronologically and professionally mature, with doctoral status and who are in a senior academic position, publish less than their male colleagues. Prozesky conducted in-depth interviews with the academics. The women in the study were on average 54 years old, with a career age of 20 years whereas the men were 56 years old, on average, with a career age of 26 years. This difference stems, from the fact that female academics on average acquired their PhDs at a later age of 34 years whereas the male academics attained their title at 30 years old. The gender difference in doctorate completion was attributed to the women completing their PhDs while their children were very young and the time-consuming nature of full-time lecturing (Prozesky, 2008). Postponement of PhD completion was also related to women altering their career plans to accommodate the needs of their partners and/or children. The women academics reported that the combined roles of partner, mother, PhD student and full-time lecturer were demanding and did not allow much time for publication. This study also provided evidence that family responsibilities limited the geographic mobility of women academics, as these women moulded their careers to accommodate the needs of family members. The lack of geographic mobility plays a role as it decreases the chances of early career exposure to international research cultures.

Lindholm (2004) investigated the factors which initially attracted academics to their profession, together with the reasons, experiences and influential people which led

them to pursue their career path. Regardless of gender, academic field or position, they exhibited fundamentally similar motivations. These motivations included inherent needs for autonomy and independence, passion for their academic field and a good match between talents and academic environment. For both men and women, childhood and university experiences, together with a personal view of their inherent competence, were influential in determining their academic career choice.

As far as South Africa is concerned, the majority of South African academics are men and these numbers increase, with occupation level (Riordan, 2007). Women are also significantly under-represented in senior positions. There is also an aging population of academics at the higher levels of the academic hierarchy. This is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Number and age of senior academics in South Africa in 2005

AGE	PROFESSOR			ASSOC. PROF		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Under 25 years	0	0	0	1	3	4
25-34	9	8	17	48	31	79
35-44	193	63	256	274	133	407
45-54	711	200	911	415	170	585
55-59	470	65	535	185	67	252
60-65	243	33	276	16	4	20
66-69	3	0	3	3	1	4
Totals	**1629**	**369**	**1998**	**942**	**409**	**1351**

Source: Riordan 2007

Rationale for the research conducted

Riordan (2007) conducted an extensive study of career success in women academics in South Africa. She developed a model to predict objective and subjective career success. This type of study had not been conducted in South Africa before. Previous research focussed on qualitative explanations or concentrated on explanations concerned with the unsuccessful experiences of female academics in other countries. Riordan's study intended to build on previous literature by investigating the constructs empirically. The current study examined suggestions made by Riordan (2007) in her discussion of her results, but also included a few significant changes. Career-enhancing strategies as an independent variable in this study, is included, in order to examine how men and women use these strategies and whether any gender differences emerged in this usage. The reason for including Social Identity in the study is based on the assumption that the more that individuals identify with their organisation, the more they will invest in their careers and experience career success. There has not been much prior research linking social identification to career success, hence this study sought to investigate if a link could be found. Personal Responsibility is included in this study based on the assumption that if individuals are more prone to take personal responsibility for their careers, they will experience career success. The inclusion of Subjective Vitality in this study is based on the assumption that, if employees' actions in their careers are self-determined or autonomous, they will invest more energy in it and their experiences of career success will be more positive.

Independent variables which may influence career success

The four independent variables in this study include: Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification with academic institutions, Personal Responsibility and Subjective vitality.

Career- enhancing Strategies

Career-enhancing strategies (CES) consist of proactive individual behaviour which is not prescribed by organisational requirements (Feji, Whitely, Peiro & Tads, 1995). It includes developing career goals, consulting with mentors and colleagues to increase knowledge and skills, extending work involvement and developing a network of contacts. CES empower individuals to take ownership of their career development and performance.

Gould and Penley (1984) investigated career strategies and salary progression. They utilised seven career strategies, namely: creating career opportunities, extending work involvement, self nomination/self-presentation, seeking career guidance, networking, opinion conformity and other enhancement. Their results indicate that men reported significantly more extended work involvement whereas women reported significantly more guidance seeking. There was no significant difference in men and women's reporting of the utilisation of the opinion conformity and other enhancement career strategies. Men reported more networking, but the networking difference was only marginally significant.

Men and women have access to different social networks and their network approaches are different. As a result, when networking, men and women acquire different kinds of job-related information (Glass & Minnotte, 2008). Females are often not included in the male informal networks, and are ultimately excluded from appropriate guidance, discussions and informal decision-making, from which they could have benefitted (Bagillhole, 1993). In the academic environment, men are in the majority and they are more inclined to induct other males into the profession. The

transition for males is therefore easier. The resultant effect is enhanced self-esteem and self-confidence which aids career success and professional advancement.

Studies have demonstrated that networking relates to an individual's objective and subjective measures of career success (Langford, 2000). Langford demonstrated that engaging in networking behaviours contributes to objective career success directly whereas it contributes indirectly to subjective career success. Wolff and Moser (2009) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the effects of networking on career success. Their results reveal that engaging in networking behaviours can result in staggering salary growth. They further found that internal networking played a bigger role in contributing to career satisfaction, than external networking did.

Kirchmeyer (1999) has argued that the formula for success for females in management roles is unique. She found, in her study comparing the career success of men and women MBA students and their career progression, that ordinary career-enhancement strategies such as training and mentors did not have the same effects on women as it did on men. Ng et al. (2005) have offered as explanation, the fact that, although women receive similar training and development opportunities to men, they are less inclined to receive the type of training they require to increase their salaries or attain high ranking positions. Their argument is that this type of training would not be relevant as women often do not occupy positions with a clear career path to a high ranking position.

In some European academic institutions, career-enhancing strategies are more suited to the needs of men than women (Poole & Bornholt, 1998). Men are more readily encouraged by professors and integrated into the institutions, complicating the likelihood of women attaining top level positions. Women reported similar environments in Great Britain and the United States (Wunsch, 1993). In Australia, women academics and general support staff reported constraints in the academic environment not experienced by male academics.

From the literature cited here, it is clear that men and women use different career-enhancing strategies or the same career-enhancing strategies differently. It was decided to include career-enhancing strategies as an independent variable in this study in order to examine how men and women use these strategies and whether any gender differences emerged in this usage.

Social identification with academic institutions

According to Social Identity Theory (SIT), an individual's social identity is the part of his or her self-concept which is derived from his or her group membership together with the emotional component of the membership (Hogg, Terry & White, 1995; Foster, 1991). With this identification, individuals define themselves in terms of their similarities to their in-group members and differentiate themselves from other groups. As a result, social identification affects an individual's self-concept, attitudes and behaviours. When an individual's social group is compared to other social groups, it has an impact on the individual's self-concept. The group membership can either have a positive or negative impact on the individual's identity. If the perceived status of the individual's social group is high, it will have a positive impact on his or her identity. If the individual belongs to a low status group, it will have a negative impact on his or her identity. In terms of SIT, individuals are motivated to aspire to a positive self-concept. If the social comparison deems their social group as having low status, an individual will engage in practices or actions that will result in a positive social identity. The reason for including this construct in the study therefore is, based on the assumption that the more that individuals identify with their organisation, the more they will invest in their careers and experience career success. It is therefore expected that the more that academics identify with their academic institution, the more they will invest in their careers and experience career success. There has not been much prior research linking social identification to career success, hence this study sought to investigate if a link could be found.

Self-categorisation Theory (SCT) concentrates on self-categorisation (van Dick & Wagner, 2002). It argues that groups materialise when a cohort of individuals

distinguish themselves from others on the basis of social category membership. According to SCT, individuals can be categorised at three different levels: as an individual (subordinate level); as a certain group member (intermediate level) or as a human being (superordinate level). Numerous identifications are plausible at the intermediate level and are dependent on the social context. For example, individuals may define themselves in terms of organisational or departmental affiliation, dependent on whichever one is salient at the time. In an organisational context, there are four foci of organisational identification, namely: career identification; department identification; identification with the entire organisation and professional identification (van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000).

Mael and Ashforth (1989) argue that organisational identification constitutes a specific form of social identification. Organisational identification provides an individual with a sense of identity. It therefore affects an individual's organisational attitudes and behaviours. The benefit is that the more an employee identifies with an organisation, the more the employee is inclined to engage in behaviours that will benefit the organisation.

According to SIT literature, several organisational factors increase the likelihood of individuals identifying with the organisation (Mael & Ashforth, 1989). The first factor is the unique ideologies and traditions of the group relative to equivalent groups. A positive link was demonstrated between the perceived uniqueness of an academic institution's principles and practices and the former student's identification with the college. The second factor includes the status of the group. A study was conducted with working university students and religious college alumni. It was found that the more prestigious the institution, the greater the identification with it. These students and alumni often identified themselves with a winner (the institution). The third factor is that the cognisance of out-groups reinforces the cognisance of in-groups (Mael & Ashforth). Kanter (1977) found that when women started entering into management, professional and sales positions many men seemed confused and some openly angry. In response to the change, the men exaggerated their masculine traits and openly differentiated between the genders. The fourth factor includes traditional

factors thought to facilitate group formation (Mael & Ashforth). These include similarities and shared goals which may affect the degree to which individuals may identify with the group. In intricate organisations, the occurrence of the above four factors proposes that social identification is a common phenomenon.

There are three consequences of social identification that are relevant to organisations (Mael & Ashforth, 1989). Firstly, individuals engage in conduct that demonstrates their most prominent identities and they support establishments which symbolise those identities. Secondly, social identification affects cohesion within groups, co-operation, self-sacrifice and positive group evaluations, which are the resultant effects of group formation (Mael & Ashforth). Thirdly, it is possible that social identification will reinforce the uniqueness of the group's principles, practices and status. It may also reinforce the prominence of and antagonism with out-groups and the traditional factors thought to cause group formation. The more exposure the individual has to the group, the more he or she will begin to identify with it. As a result, the principles and practices will become more distinct and be perceived as unique.

Employees are committed to an organisation, to the degree to which the organisational membership is self-defining (Brown, 1969). If the organisational objectives align with the individual employee's, he/she identifies with the organisation at a deeper level (van Dick & Wagner, 2002). The stronger the employee identifies with the organisation, the more likely the employee is to act according to the company's objectives and engage in actions to benefit the organisation (van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). SIT in organisational settings have shown that an individual employee's identification with his or her organisation relates positively to indicators such as job satisfaction or engaging in extra work-related activities. Organisational identification has a pivotal functional role in determining workplace attitudes and conduct (van Dick & Wagner, 2002). It has positive effects on employee's work motivation and their well-being (Wegge, van Dick, Fisher, Wecking & Moltzen, 2006). Wegge et al. found that organisational identification, more than work motivation, could assist in reducing employee's intentions of leaving an

organisation or their feelings of depersonalisation. Organisational identification could reduce an employee's feelings of alienation and may be a prerequisite for job satisfaction. Employees who identify with their organisation are less likely to leave their organisation and more inclined to engage in extra activities to benefit the organisation.

According to Heslin (2005), organisational culture differences may alter the view people have about the success of their career. He illustrated this potential dynamic by considering the market and organisational cultures advocated by Kerr and Slocum (1987). In a market culture, the individual and organisation are in a contractual relationship based on a mutual short-term commitment (Kerr & Slocum). This type of culture emphasises individuality and independence and specifies mutual obligations explicitly. It does not emphasise symbols of status and rank but highlights a performance-based reward system that rewards generously for achieving organisational objectives. However, in a clan culture, the organisation and the individual are in a fraternal relationship, emphasising mutual long-term commitments. The process of acculturation is a long, socialisation process which ensures that organisational values are internalised. Socialisation and the internalisation of values highlight the importance of mutual interests. It further highlights an implicit understanding that job-related performance and personal sacrifices to benefit the organisation, may far exceed contractual agreements (Kerr & Slocum). In a clan culture, tradition, history and organisational modes of operation are maintained as well as the organisation's hierarchical structure. Within this culture, superiors serve as mentors and role models. These superiors are the socialisation agents who perpetuate the organisational culture. Heslin, has advocated that due to the quantitative and financially-orientated nature of the market culture, it is more likely to contain employees who primarily utilise objective criteria to determine their career success. Whereas employees in a clan culture, would be more concerned with subjective measures in determining their career success. This is due to the fact that within this culture, socialisation promotes the importance of non-financial career outcomes such as fraternity and belonging to an organisation with an established tradition (Heslin).

Positive psychology constructs

Positive psychology is concerned with scientifically examining the factors which make life worthwhile (Gallagher & Lopez, 2008). Its goal is to balance previous findings on pathology, with an understanding of mental health and well-being. Positive psychology research findings have the potential to add value in facilitating optimal human functioning. The pillars of positive psychology include: positive subjective experiences or positive emotions; positive individual dissimilarities or traits and positive institutions.

The two positive psychology constructs utilised in this study include Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality.

Personal Responsibility

Personal Responsibility refers to an individual being accountable for his or her decisions and behaviours, together with their consequences (Linley & Maltby, 2009). The individual is the author of his or her own life and the consequences of life decisions made. Personal responsibility is concerned with the future needs to take actions to ensure that suitable outcomes are delivered. With personal responsibility, an individual actively takes responsibility; he or she is not passively responsible for events. This concept has received very little empirical and theoretical attention. The reason for including this construct in this study is based on the assumption that if individuals are more prone to take personal responsibility for their careers, they will experience career success.

In organisations, it has been studied in different contexts. Such contexts include employee teams working towards creating conducive work environments and where employees were held accountable for the execution of their professional duties. Employees may engage in three types of personal responsibility in an organisational context, namely: responsibility for the organisation's code of ethics, responsibility for the accomplishment of the organisation's objectives and responsibility for the organisation's contributions of goodwill to society.

Traditionally, research has emphasised that situational factors influence career success, however individuals can play a role in creating positive changes for themselves in terms of career success (Seibert et al., 2001). Seibert et al. (2001) found that proactive employees were actively involved in constructive activities that would improve the progress of their careers. When individuals take personal responsibility for their careers they engage in individual career planning (Orpen, 1994). In the individual career planning process, career goals are established, strengths and weaknesses in relation to the attainment of career goals are recognised and the appropriate plan of action is decided upon. In his study of the effects of individual career management on career success, Orpen found that individual career management is positively associated with career effectiveness. He also found that individual career planning correlated significantly with salary growth, promotions, career performance and career satisfaction. In their study of self-management strategies and career success, Abele and Wiese (2008) found that goal selection and the strategy of implementing these goals are essential to career success. Optimising goal strategies and implementing them competently in the relevant context will lead to both objective and subjective career success.

According to Grafton and Ghoshal (2003) employees are increasingly becoming responsible for their own futures. The changes in the employment relationship require employees to be more involved in determining their conditions of employment. Individuals are responsible for their own development and actively have to manage their own careers. They can no longer passively rely on the organisation to manage their careers. Individuals have to engage in the continuous attainment of new skills and knowledge and actively engage in social networking.

Subjective Vitality

Subjective vitality is defined as "one's conscious experience of possessing energy and aliveness" (Ryan & Frederick, 1997, p.530). It refers to the individual's internal energy and variables contributing to feelings of self-control in one's environment (Deci & Ryan, 1991). This energy experienced has an internally perceived locus of causality. Ryan and Frederick found that subjective vitality relates to self-actualisation, individual willpower, mental health and self-confidence and that emotionally distressed individuals reported less vitality. Feelings of vitality diminish when external forces threaten autonomy and self-actualisation. Their sample also reported that less vitality was experienced when they felt that external forces were controlling their fate and more vitality when they felt self-motivated. Both psychological and physical well-being was found to be related to subjective vitality ratings (Ryan & Fredrick). People experience more feelings of vitality when their mood is positive rather than negative. The inclusion of this construct in this study is based on the assumption that, if employees' actions in their careers are self-determined or autonomous, they will invest more energy in it and their experiences of career success will be more positive.

Kasser and Ryan's (1993) study demonstrated that less vitality was reported by individuals who aspired to extrinsic rewards such as money than intrinsic rewards such as personal growth. Sheldon and Kasser (1995) found that when an individual engaged in personal striving initiatives together with low perceived autonomy, lower subjective vitality was the resultant effect. Kanter (1977) found that employees who were optimistic about their career growth involved themselves more actively in their work than employees who were less likely to grow in their careers.

Nix, Ryan, Manly and Deci (1999) investigated motivational factors expected to directly affect subjective vitality. They found that when individuals engage in autonomous behaviour, it maintains or enhances subjective vitality. However, when behaviour is directed or controlled by external forces, subjective vitality is depleted. When individuals' actions are self-determined or autonomous, they are inclined to

invest more effort and experience events as more positive than when their actions are controlled externally.

Model for academic career success

In this study, it was decided to explore a new model for academic career success. The constructs, Objective and Subjective Career Success, were retained as dependent variables. The following independent variables were utilised: Career-Enhancing Strategies, Social Identity, Subjective Vitality and Personal Responsibility. This model is depicted in Figure 2.

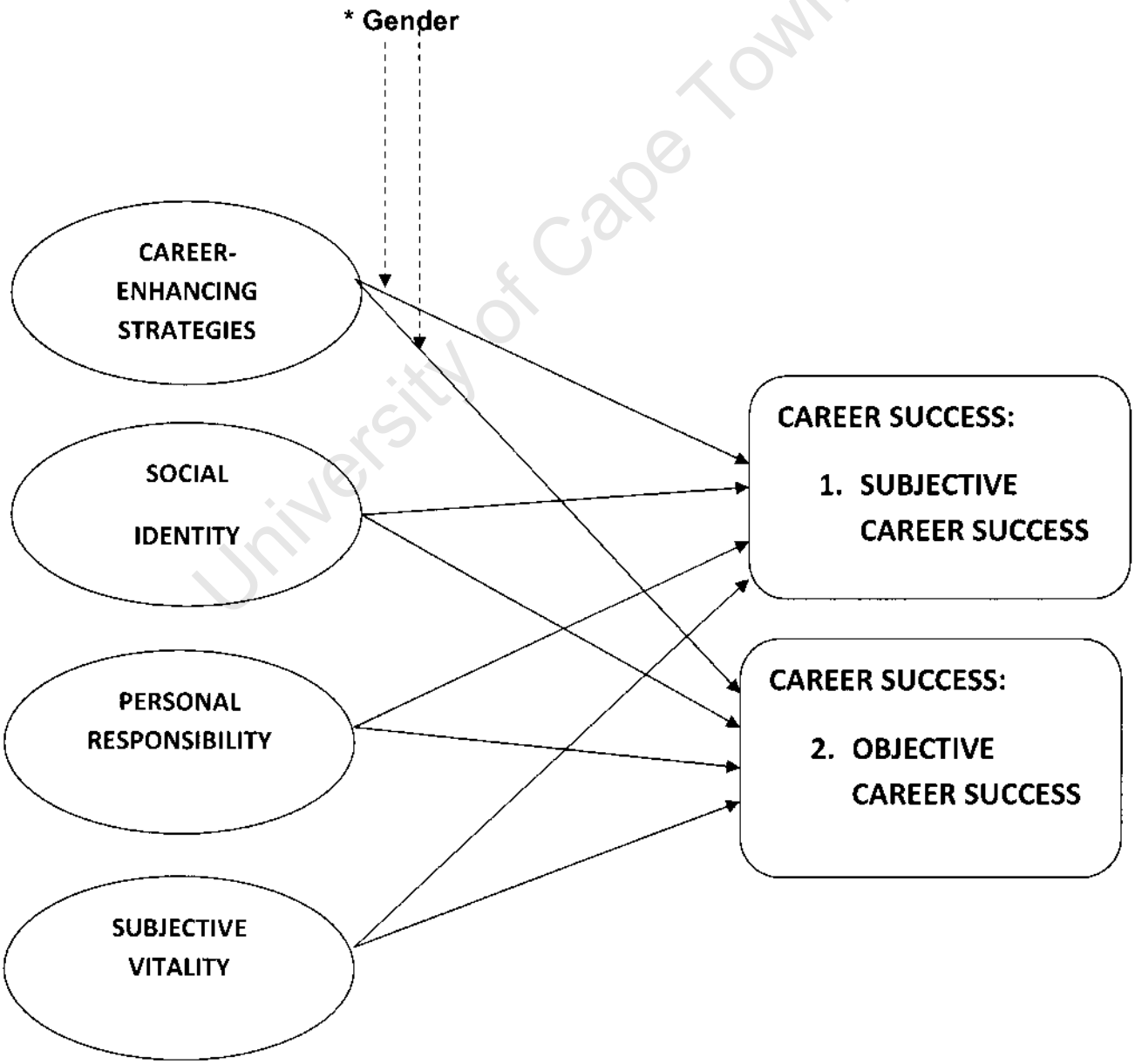

Figure 2. Model for academic career success in this study

* Gender to be read as a moderating variable for all of the relationships.

Research questions

In this study, the following research questions are addressed:

Is there a relationship between Subjective academic Career Success and Objective academic Career Success?

Is there a relationship between Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification with the organisation, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality?

Do Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification with the university, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality predict Objective and Subjective academic career success?

Does gender moderate the relationships between the above-mentioned dependent and independent variables?

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Participants

A convenience sample is a common type of non-probability sampling in which the researcher uses individuals who are available for the study, rather than selecting individuals from the complete population (Herek, 1997). Convenience samples are practical for documenting whether or not a particular characteristic exists within a given cohort and for identifying relationships. As part of such a convenience sampling process, the two biggest faculties at the University of Cape Town were targeted, namely the Humanities Faculty (204 academics) and the Commerce Faculty (149 academics). In total, 41 (11.6%) academics responded. However, 6 were removed from the sample because of incomplete data. Of the remaining 35 respondents, 19 were men and 16 women. The mean age of the respondents was 43.1 years. In terms of job level, the sample included 4 professors, 12 associate professors, 7 senior lecturers and 13 lecturers.

Measuring instrument

An on-line questionnaire, consisting of 65 items was designed. The full measuring instrument will be provided in the Appendix A. The questionnaire consisted of the following sections:

Objective Career Success

Objective Career Success encompasses society's achievement standards (Callanan, 2003). Objective Career Success was based on UCT's rate for the job indicators (section six of the questionnaire). Riordan's (2007) measures of objective success were utilised. Objective success was measured using the following criteria:

- Highest job level held by the respondent
- Highest academic qualification
- Age when the above two achievements were obtained
- The number of peer-reviewed articles produced

- The value of research grants received
- National Research Foundation rating
- The number of conferences attended as an invited speaker
- The academics provide self-report information on their performance in teaching, community service and university administration matters

Subjective Career Success

Subjective Career Success was defined as personal evaluations of success (Callanan, 2003). Subjective career success was measured, using Turban and Doherty's (1994) four-item scale. The four items required respondents to rate their responses on a 7-point Liked Scale.

Career-enhancing Strategies

Career-enhancing Strategies consist of proactive individual behaviour which is not prescribed by organisational requirements (Feji et al., 1995). Career-enhancing Strategies were measured using Gould and Penley's (1984) Career Strategies Inventory Scale. This scale includes 26 single-statement items created to extract the seven career strategies, namely: creating career opportunities; extending work involvement; self-nomination/self-presentation; seeking career guidance; networking, and two interpersonal attraction strategies, namely: opinion conformity and other enhancement. However, for the purposes of this study, only three career strategies will be employed as they are gender sensitive, namely: seeking career guidance; extended work involvement and networking (Gould & Penley).

Social identification with the academic institution

Social identification with academic institutions was measured using Mael and Ashforth's (1992) Organisational Identification six-item measure. The six items required respondents to rate their responses on a 5-point Liked Scale.

Personal Responsibility

Personal Responsibility involves an individual being accountable for his/her decisions and behaviours, together with its consequences (Linley & Maltby, 2009). Personal Responsibility was measured using Bierhoff's (2000) Personal Responsibility Scale. This scale has 20 items and requires respondents to rate their responses on a 6-point Likert Scale.

Subjective Vitality

Subjective Vitality is defined as "one's conscious experience of possessing energy and aliveness" (Ryan & Frederick, 1997, p.530). Subjective vitality was measured using Ryan and Fredrick's (1997) Subjective Vitality Scale. This scale has 7 items and requires respondents to rate their responses on a 7-point Likert Scale.

Demographic variables

The four demographic variables requested on the last page of the questionnaire include age, gender, employment status and Faculty membership.

Procedure

The questionnaire was generated using the Select Survey Active Server Pages tool. It was then submitted to the Commerce Faculty's Ethics Committee for ethical approval. Once approval was granted, the deans of the Commerce and Humanities Faculties were approached to seek permission to distribute the questionnaire electronically to all academics in their Faculties.

Potential participants received an e-mail containing an electronic link to the questionnaire. The academics in the Commerce Faculty were sent a reminder after seven days. One academic in the Humanities Faculty objected that the covering page of the questionnaire did not contain sufficient information to ensure informed consent. The researcher then worked with him in order to find out what would

constitute sufficient information for informed consent. As this process took some time, a reminding e-mail was not sent to academics in the Humanities Faculty. The link to the questionnaire was closed 11 August 2009

In terms of procedure, the dates chosen for distribution of the electronic survey were not optimal. The week of 27 July 2009 was chosen. This was the week during which academics returned for the second semester and many seemed to be too busy to respond to the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

The alpha co-efficients for the four independent variables were: Career-enhancing Strategies = 0.78); Social Identification = 0.99); Personal Responsibility (a = 0.99) and Subjective Vitality (a = 0.99). The alpha co-efficient for the one dependent variable, Subjective Career Success, was 0.99. The alpha co-efficients calculated for the constructs ranged from 0.78 to 0.99 and are regarded as acceptable levels of reliability (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003).

Correlations

Correlation analysis was conducted to address two of the research questions posed in this study: (1) does a relationship exist between Subjective Career Success and Objective Career Success and (2) does a relationship exist between the independent variables (Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification with the organisation, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality).

(1) Relationships between Dependent Variables

Correlations between the measures of career success are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Correlations between the Dependent Variables

	Subjective Career Success	Length of Service	Age highest position attained	No. of Articles	Research Grant	Teaching	Community Service
Subjective Career Success	1.00	-0.05	-0.14	0.02	0.06	0.21	-0.03
Length of Service	-	1.00	0.59*	0.27	-0.08	-0.51*	-0.52*
Age highest position attained	-	-	1.00	0.45*	0.15	-0.39*	-0.47*
No. of Articles	-	-	-	1.00	0.02	-0.23	-0.27
Research Grant	-	-	-	-	1.00	-0.07	0.00
Teaching	-	-	-	-	-	1.00	0.43*
Community Service	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.00

* Significant correlations at the 0.05 level

The results in Table 2 indicate that:

- Length of Service correlated positively with Age Highest Position Attained;
- Number of Articles correlated positively with Age Highest Position Attained and;
- Community Service correlated positively with Teaching.

(2) Relationships between Independent Variables

Correlations between the independent variables are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Correlations between the Independent Variables

	Career-enhancing strategies	Social identification	Personal responsibility	Subjective vitality
Career-enhancing strategies	1.00	0.46*	0.16	0.44*
Social identification	-	1.00	0.33*	0.57*
Personal responsibility	-	-	1.00	0.54*
Subjective vitality	-	-	-	1.00

* Significant correlations at the 0.05 level

From Table 3 it is clear that:

- Career-enhancing Strategies correlated positively with Social Identification with the university;
- Career-enhancing Strategies correlated positively with Subjective vitality;
- Social Identification with the university correlated positively with Personal Responsibility;
- Social Identification with the university correlated positively with Subjective Vitality and;
- Personal Responsibility correlated positively with Subjective vitality.

Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was utilised to determine if the Personal Responsibility scale truly was uni-dimensional in nature, that is, representing a single construct (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003). A Principal Factor analysis was used to test the suitability of the data for factor analysis. A strong single-factor solution was extracted, through unrotated factor loading and as a result factor rotation was not performed. The results of the analysis revealed an Eigen value > 1 (Eigen value =

18.16), thereby suggesting that the scale measures only one factor, namely Personal Responsibility. The average inter-item correlation was 0.96 (Cronbach's a = 0.99). The factor analysis was conducted because the Personal Responsibility Scale has not been used in South Africa. It therefore needed to be determined, whether this scale consisted of one or more constructs. In Table 4, the factor loadings are presented for each of the 19 items.

Table 4

Factor Loadings of Personal Responsibility Scale

	From 1 Factor , Personal responsibility
When conflicts arise in a team, I try my best to find a constructive solution	0.98
In conflicts I am searching for solutions that will have positive results for everyone involved.	0.98
When discussing a problem at work, I always try to actively find a solution.	0.98
Even in seemingly unsolvable situations, one can often contribute to improving that situation if one analyses the situation carefully.	0.98
I try always to prepare a decision by contemplating its advantages and disadvantages.	0.98
I believe that everybody can contribute to improving his own everyday life.	0.97
When working on a task, I stop frequently and think about how I could reach the goal most effectively.	0.97
One can contribute a lot to attain one's goals in life.	0.96
I don't like to rely on others. If I can, after appropriate preparation, I prefer to make a sensible decision myself.	0.95
When I encounter a promising research question during teamwork, I try to inform myself before I address the other team members about it.	0.95
When one pursues an important goal and encounters difficulties with others it is justifiable to use arguments without solid validity.	0.95
I see a lot of truth in the saying: "Don't talk about it; just do it".	0.94
Before making a decision, I think about it longer than most other people do.	0.94
When decisions are required, I do what I think is right without consulting experts or superiors	0.93
If wearing the seatbelt were voluntary, I would not buckle up regularly.	0.93
Whenever I am advised to take medication, I read the enclosed medical information carefully to inform myself about risks and side effects.	0.93
I like it when important decisions are made by my superiors and not by me.	0.93
Sometimes it is best to "hide your head in the sand" and wait to see what will happen.	0.92
Although it is important to adjust to laws and regulations, there are situations in which one needs to overcome these regulations in order to achieve something good.	0.92
Explained variance %	**95.6**
Eigen value	**18.16**

Regression analyses

A multiple regression analysis was performed, as each of the four independent variables (Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality) were used as predictors for the dependent variables (Subjective Career Success and Objective Career Success). Multiple regression analysis was utilised because it permits several independent variables to be entered into the same regression equation and a single dependent variable is predicted (Hair et al., 2003). A separate regression co-efficient was calculated for each independent variable, which described the individual relationship it had with the dependent variables in question.

Regression for Dependent Variable: Subjective Career Success

One of the first research questions of this study was, whether Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality predict Subjective Career Success. The multiple correlation of R = 0.76 was significantly different from zero ($F(4.34) = 11.52$, $p < 0.01$) and equalled a strong effect size. In this instance, 58% of the total variance of Subjective Career Success was explained by the four independent variables. Two cases were excluded as these were outliers and were affecting the regression results. These two cases resulted in a non-normal distribution of the residuals. There were no cases of missing data for this analysis.

With these four predictors, the model as a whole is significant. However, only Subjective Vitality and Social Identification, contributed significantly to predicting the dependent variable. In Table 5, the regression summary for Subjective Career Success is presented.

Table 5

Regression Summary for Dependent Variable: Subjective Career Success

	ANOVA					
Multiple correlation (R)	0.76					
R – squared	0.58					
Adjusted R – squared	0.53					
Standard Error of Estimate	3.38					
F (4.34) = 11.52, p < 0.01						
	β	SE	B	SE	t (34)	p
Intercept			7.61	2.17	3.51	0.001
Career-enhancing strategies	0.01	0.13	0.01	0.07	0.03	0.98
Social identification	0.34	0.14	0.27	0.12	2.35	0.02
Personal Responsibility	-0.09	0.13	-0.02	0.02	-0.67	0.51
Subjective Vitality	0.56	0.16	0.28	0.08	3.57	0.01

Regression for Dependent Variable: Objective Career Success

A second research question of this study was whether Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality predict Objective Career Success. In order to answer this question, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. This analysis was conducted for the continuous dependent variables only. The continuous dependent variables included: Length of Service, Age Highest Position Attained. Number of peer reviewed articles published, Research Grant, Teaching and Community / Professional service. Age highest position attained could be answered with a drop down menu, where an age range of between 20-65 years could be selected. Hence it was a continuous variable in this instance. When the analysis was conducted, the following was found:

- Length of service - The multiple correlation of R = 0.21 was not significantly different from zero *(F* (4.31) =0.35, $p < 0.01$) and did not equal a strong effect size. n = 36 due to missing data.
- Age Highest Position Attained - A multiple correlation of R = 0.18 was not significantly different from zero *(F* (4.31) =0.25, $p < 0.01$) and did not equal a strong effect size. n= 36 due to missing data.
- Number of peer reviewed articles published - The multiple correlation of R = 0.27 was not significantly different from zero (F (4.27) = 0.54, p < 0.01) and

did not equal a strong effect size. Four cases were excluded due to being outliers and influencing the model unduly, n = 32.

- Research grant - A multiple correlation of R = 0.39 was not significantly different from zero *(F* (4.24) = 1.06, $p < 0.01$) and did not equal a strong effect size. Three cases were excluded due to being outliers and for unduly influencing the model.
- A second model with only Social Identification and Subjective Vitality as the independent variables was computed. These two independent variables together, provided a better data fit. A multiple correlation of R = 0.39 was not significantly different from zero *(F* (2.26) = 2.23, p < 0.01) and did not equal a strong effect size. This indicates the same amount of overall variance as explained by the four-variable model. The second model was run with Social Identification as an individual predictor. This revealed a significance level of 0.05, exactly on the 0.05 level of significance. Subjective Vitality also revealed a reasonable beta weight in this analysis (Beta = -20306.4). It had previously been shown to be a significant individual predictor in the case of Subjective Career Success and therefore was included in the model. When the second model was run, Social Identification still remained on the border of being a significant individual predictor, but proved not to be statistically significant.
- Teaching - The multiple correlation of R = 0.27 was not significantly different from zero *(F* (4.30) = 0.58, $p < 0.01$) and did not equal a strong effect size. One case was excluded, as it was an outlier.
- Community/Professional service - A multiple correlation of R = 0.19 was not significantly different from zero *(F* (4.30) = 0.28, $p < 0.01$) and did not equal a strong effect size.

Multinomial logistic regression for Dependent Variable: Objective Career Success

Multinomial logistic regression is utilised when a dependent variable under analysis is categorical (Logistic regression, 2009). As a result, multinomial logistic regression was applied to analyse the categorical objective measures of career success. The categorical dependent variables included: Last Position Held in the Past Five Years, Highest University Position Held, Highest Academic Qualification, Age Highest

Academic Qualification Attained, NRF Rating and Committee Member. Age highest academic qualification attained could be answered as follows: 20s, 30s, 40s, 50s. Hence it was a categorical variable.

For the last two dependent variables, namely Number of Conferences Attended and Part-time or Full-time Employment, binomial logistic regression was computed. Binomial logistic regression is utilised when the dependent variable in question is a categorical variable (Logistic regression, 2009). In this instance, binomial logistic regression was computed on the Number of Conferences Attended because the respondents answered the question either as None or Less Than 10. For all the multinomial logistic regression analysis completed, the lowest levels of the categories specified were used as the reference category. The rationale for this was based on the aim of the study, which was to predict Objective Career Success. Participants are therefore considered to be more objectively successful, if they were to attain higher indicator categories, relative to the lowest level category.

Multinomial logistic regression for: Last Position Held in the Past Five Years and the four Independent Variables

The reference category in this instance was Course Convener. As depicted in Table 6, in testing the overall model, it was not statistically significant as $p = 0.063$ ($p < 0.05$).

Table 6

Multinomial logistic regression for Last Position Held in the Past Five Years

OVERALL MODEL	
Chi-square	14.791
Degrees of Freedom (df)	8
Significance (p < 0.05)	0.063

	β	SE	Wald	Significance	b
HOD					
Intercept	-11.31	7.26	2.43	0.12	-
Career-enhancing strategies	-0.06	0.15	0.14	0.71	0.95
Social Identity	0.07	0.11	0.42	0.52	1.08
Personal Responsibility	0.09	0.09	0.99	0.32	1.09
Subjective Vitality	0.01	0.11	1.31	0.25	1.13
Deputy Dean					
Intercept	94.08	0	-	-	-
Career-enhancing strategies	-8.3	9178.83	0	0.99	-
Social Identity	1.63	3837.86	0	1	5.1
Personal Responsibility	-1.18	4225.32	0	1	0.31
Subjective Vitality	4.08	5158.14	0	0.99	59.35

When multinomial logistic regression was conducted on the rest of the categorical dependent variables, the following was found:

- Highest University Position Held - The reference category used was "Lecturer". The overall model proved to be statistically significant, as $p = 0.002$ ($p < 0.05$).
- Highest Academic Qualification — The reference category used was "Honours Degree". The overall model proved, not to be statistically significant, as $p = 0.454$ ($p < 0.05$).

- Age Highest Academic Qualification Attained — The reference category used was "20s". The overall model proved, not to be statistically significant, as p = 0.088 (p < 0.05).
- NRF Rating - The reference category used was Not rated". The overall model proved, not to be statistically significant, as p = 0.105 (p < 0.05).
- Committee Member — The reference category used was "None". The overall model proved to be statistically significant as p = 0.01 (p < 0.05).

Binomial logistic regression was conducted on two of the dependent variables:

- Number of Conferences Attended

The overall model did not prove to be statistically significant as p = 0.24 (p < 0.05). This is depicted in Table 7.

Table *7*

Regression Summary for Dependent Variable Number of Conferences attended

OVERALL MODEL	
Chi-square	5.46
Degrees of Freedom (df)	4
Significance (p < 0.05)	0.24

	β	SE	Wald	Significance	b
Constant	2.35	5.92	0.16	0.691	10.48
Career-enhancing strategies	0.14	0.15	0.9	0.34	0.87
Social Identity	-0.27	0.15	3.4	0.07	0.77
Personal Responsibility	0.07	0.08	0.73	0.4	1.07
Subjective Vitality	0.11	0.12	0.74	0.39	1.11

- Part-time or Full-time employment.

The overall model did not prove to be statistically significant as p = 0.11 (p < 0.05).

Regression for Moderator Variable: Gender on Subjective Career Success

This analysis was completed for the dependent variable Subjective Career Success. Regression analysis was utilised for all four independent variables, namely, Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality. The analysis in Table 8 determined if Gender is a moderating variable for Career-enhancing Strategies in Subjective Career Success.

Table 8

Regression Summary for Moderator Variable Gender on Career-enhancing Strategies in Subjective Career Success

ANOVA						
Multiple correlation (R)	0.18					
R - squared	0.03					
Adjusted R - squared	-0.04					
Standard Error of Estimate	4.9					
F (2.28) = 0.49, p < 0.01						
	β	**SE**	**b**	**SE**	**t (28)**	**p**
Intercept			27.35	7.48	3.66	0.001
Career-enhancing Strategies	-0.19	0.19	-0.26	0.26	-0.98	0.33
Gender	0.07	0.19	0.66	1.84	0.36	0.72

ANOVA						
Multiple correlation (R)	0.19					
R - squared	0.03					
Adjusted R - squared	-0.07					
Standard Error of Estimate	4.98					
F (3.27) = 0.32 , p < 0.01						
	β	**SE**	**b**	**SE**	**t (27)**	**p**
Intercept			32.68	28.96	1.13	0.27
Career-enhancing Strategies	-0.33	0.74	-0.44	0.99	-0.44	0.66
Gender	-0.27	1.77	-2.54	16.86	-0.15	0.88
Gender & Career-enhancing Strategies	0.4	2.09	0.11	0.57	0.19	0.85

As demonstrated above, no significant change in R-squared was found between Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender (R-squared = 0.03) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Career-enhancing Strategies (R-squared = 0.03). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Career-enhancing Strategies in Subjective Career Success. The p-value for the interaction

variable was 0.85. The model therefore was found not to be statistically significant. When regression was computed on the rest of the independent variables, the following was found:

- Social Identity - no significant change in R-squared was found between Social Identity and Gender (R-squared = 0.01) in the first step and combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.09). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Social Identification in Subjective Career Success. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.11. The model therefore was found not to be statistically significant.
- Personal Responsibility - no significant change in R-squared was found between Personal Responsibility and Gender (R-squared = 0.01) in the first step and combination variable of Gender multiplied by Personal Responsibility (R-squared = 0.01). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in Subjective Career Success. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.67.
- Subjective Vitality - no significant change in R-squared was found between Subjective Vitality and Gender (R-squared = 0.03) in the first step and combination variable of Gender multiplied by Subjective Vitality (R-squared = 0.09). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Subjective Vitality in Subjective Career Success. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.15.

Regression for Moderator Variable: Gender on Continuous Measures of Objective Career *Success*

The continuous measures of Objective Career Success included: Length of Service, Age Highest Position attained, Number of Peer Reviewed Articles, Teaching, Community Service and Research Grant Value.

Regression for Moderator Variable: Gender on Length of Service

Regression analysis was completed on all four independent variables, namely, Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality. There was no significant change in R-squared found between Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender (R-squared = 0.07) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Career-enhancing Strategies (R-squared = 0.11). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Career-enhancing Strategies in the Objective measure of Career Success, Length of Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.25. This is depicted in Table 9.

Table 9

Regression Summary for Moderator Variable Gender on Career-enhancing Strategies in Objective Career Success

ANOVA						
Multiple correlation (R)	0.26					
R - squared	0.07					
Adjusted R - squared	0					
Standard Error of Estimate	10.85					
F (2.28) = 0.98 , p < 0.01						
	β	**SE**	**b**	**SE**	**t (28)**	**p**
Intercept			25.22	16.58	1.52	0.14
Career-enhancing Strategies	-0.05	0.19	-0.14	0.58	-0.25	0.81
Gender	-0.24	0.19	-5.13	4.09	-1.26	0.22

ANOVA						
Multiple correlation (R)	0.33					
R - squared	0.11					
Adjusted R - squared	0.01					
Standard Error of Estimate	10.78					
F (3.27) = 1.11 , p < 0.01						
	β	**SE**	**b**	**SE**	**t (27)**	**p**
Intercept			-45.14	62.68	-0.72	0.48
Career-enhancing Strategies	0.75	0.71	2.27	2.15	1.06	0.3
Gender	1.73	1.7	37.07	36.5	1.02	0.32
Gender & Career-enhancing Strategies	-2.34	2.01	-1.44	1.23	-1.16	0.25

When regression was computed on the rest of the independent variables, the following was found:

- Length of Service: Social Identity and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Social Identity and Gender (R-squared = 0.09) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.1). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Social Identity in the Objective measure of Career Success, Length of Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.83.

- Length of Service: Personal Responsibility and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Personal Responsibility and Gender (R-squared = 0.17) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.17). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in the Objective measure of Career Success, Length of Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.88.

- Length of Service: Subjective Vitality and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Subjective Vitality and Gender (R-squared = 0.47) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Subjective Vitality (R-squared = 0.24). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in the Objective measure of Career Success, Length of Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.39.

When regression was computed on the rest of the continuous measures of Objective Career Success, the following was found:

- Age Highest Position Attained: Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender (R-squared = 0.09) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Career-enhancing Strategies (R-squared = 0.09). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Career-enhancing Strategies in the Objective measure of Career Success, Age Highest Position Attained. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.63.

- Age Highest Position Attained: Social Identity and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Social Identity and Gender (R-squared = 0.12) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.12). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Social Identity in the Objective measure of Career Success, Age Highest Position Attained. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.97.

- Age Highest Position Attained: Personal Responsibility and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Personal Responsibility and Gender (R-squared = 0.21) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Personal Responsibility (R-squared = 0.32). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in the Objective measure of Career Success, Age Highest Position Attained. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.05 was significant. Although, the p-value of 0.05 for this interaction variable is significant, the ANOVA results suggest that the overall model is not statistically significant.

- Age Highest Position Attained: Subjective Vitality and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Subjective Vitality and Gender (R-squared = 0.15) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Subjective Vitality (R-squared = 0.15). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Subjective Vitality in the Objective measure of Career

Success, Age Highest Position Attained. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.52.

- Number of Peer Reviewed Articles: Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender (R-squared = 0.05) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Career-enhancing Strategies (R-squared = 0.06). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Career-enhancing Strategies in the Objective measure of Career Success, Number of Peer Reviewed Articles. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.62.

- Number of Peer Reviewed Articles: Social Identity and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Social Identity and Gender (R-squared = 0.08) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.08). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Social Identity in the Objective measure of Career Success, Number of Peer Reviewed Articles. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.96.

- Number of Peer Reviewed Articles: Personal Responsibility and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Personal Responsibility and Gender (R-squared = 0.08) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Personal Responsibility (R-squared = 0.10). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in the Objective measure of Career Success, Number of Peer Reviewed Articles. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.42.

- Number of Peer Reviewed Articles: Subjective Vitality and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Subjective Vitality and Gender (R-squared = 0.09) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Subjective Vitality (R-squared = 0.12). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Subjective Vitality in the Objective measure of Career Success, Number of Peer Reviewed Articles. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0. 29.

- Teaching: Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender (R-squared = 0.03) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Career-enhancing Strategies (R-squared = 0.03). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Career-enhancing Strategies in the Objective measure of Career Success, Teaching. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.87.

- Teaching: Social Identity and Gender

There was a significant change in R-squared found between Social Identity and Gender (R-squared = 0.41) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.04). Gender therefore does have a moderating effect on Social Identity in the Objective measure of Career Success, Teaching. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.87.

- Teaching: Personal Responsibility and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Personal Responsibility and Gender (R-squared = 0.06) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Personal Responsibility (R-squared = 0.07). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in the Objective measure of Career Success, Teaching. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.65.

- Teaching: Subjective Vitality and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Subjective Vitality and Gender (R-squared = 0.14) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Subjective Vitality (R-squared = 0.17). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Subjective Vitality in the Objective measure of Career Success, Teaching. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.32.

- Community Service: Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender (R-squared = 0.05) in the first step and the combination

variable of Gender multiplied by Career-enhancing Strategies (R-squared = 0.06). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Career-enhancing Strategies in the Objective measure of Career Success, Community Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.56.

- Community Service: Social Identity and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Social Identity and Gender (R-squared = 0.04) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.04). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Social Identity in the Objective measure of Career Success, Community Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.92.

- Community Service: Personal Responsibility and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Personal Responsibility and Gender (R-squared = 0.12 in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Personal Responsibility (R-squared = 0.12). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in the Objective measure of Career Success, Community Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.88.

- Community Service: Subjective Vitality and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Subjective Vitality and Gender (R-squared = 0.20) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Subjective Vitality (R-squared = 0.20). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Subjective Vitality in the Objective measure of Career Success, Community Service. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.83.

- Research Grant Value: Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Career-enhancing Strategies and Gender (R-squared = 0.01) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Career-enhancing Strategies (R-squared = 0.02). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Career-enhancing Strategies in the Objective measure of Career Success, Research Grant Value. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.63.

- Research Grant Value: Social Identity and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Social Identity and Gender (R-squared = 0.01) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Social Identity (R-squared = 0.02). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Social Identity in the Objective measure of Career Success, Research Grant Value. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.64.

- Research Grant Value: Personal Responsibility and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Personal Responsibility and Gender (R-squared = 0.05) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Personal Responsibility (R-squared = 0.05). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Personal Responsibility in the Objective measure of Career Success, Research Grant Value. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.98.

- Research Grant Value: Subjective Vitality and Gender

There was no significant change in R-squared found between Subjective Vitality and Gender (R-squared = 0.01) in the first step and the combination variable of Gender multiplied by Subjective Vitality (R-squared = 0.03). Gender therefore does not have a moderating effect on Subjective Vitality in the Objective measure of Career Success, Research Grant Value. The p-value for the interaction variable was 0.46.

In conclusion, it was found that Social Identity and Subjective Vitality were significant predictors of Subjective Career Success, whereas none of the independent variables predicted Objective Career Success. Gender did not serve as a moderator on the relationship between Social Identity and Subjective Career Success nor on the relationship between Subjective Vitality and Subjective Career Success. In the discussion, these results will be discussed in greater detail.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

This research sought to investigate the effects of Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identity, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality on Subjective and Objective Career Success. The findings of this study are discussed in more detail below, per research question as stated in the literature review and results. The key findings were:

- In the relationship between Subjective academic Career Success and Objective academic Career Success:
  - Length of Service correlated positively with Age Highest Position Attained
  - Number of Articles correlated positively with Age Highest Position Attained.
  - Community Service correlated positively with Teaching

- In the relationship between independent variables (Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification with the organisation, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality):
  - Career-enhancing Strategies correlated positively with Social Identification with the university.
  - Career-enhancing Strategies correlated positively with Subjective vitality.
  - Social Identification with the university correlated positively with Personal Responsibility
  - Social Identification with the university correlated positively with Subjective Vitality.
  - Personal Responsibility correlated positively with Subjective vitality.
- It was found that Social Identity and Subjective Vitality were significant predictors of Subjective Career Success, whereas none of the independent variables predicted Objective Career Success.
- Gender did not serve as a moderator on the relationship between Social Identity and Subjective Career Success nor on the relationship between Subjective Vitality and Subjective Career Success.

Subjective Career Success measures and Objective Career Success measures

In this study, a correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the subjective measures of career success and the objective measures of career success. Judge et al., (1995) together with Korman, Wittig-Berman and Lang (1981) found that subjective and objective career success are inclined to be positively yet moderately related. In this study, some objective and subjective career success measures correlated positively, however, these correlations were not as straightforward as expected from the literature. In this study, Length of Service correlated positively with Age Highest Position Attained. Age Highest Position Attained correlated positively with Number of Articles. This is consistent with the findings of Poole and Bornholt (1998). They found that older men academics with a long tenure in higher education were more senior in occupational rank. Years of work experience made significant contributions to facets of academic work. In this study, Community Service correlated positively with Teaching. The findings of West and Lyon (1995) were similar: they found that in many academic institutions women are more involved in tasks involving teaching, administration and pastoral care.

Relationships between the Independent Variables

A correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the independent variables (Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification with the organisation, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality). Previous literature has not focussed much on determining the relationships between these variables. Relationships were found between some of the independent variables, however, based on the subjectivity of these variables, relationships found were moderate and not strong.

In this study it was found that Career-enhancing Strategies correlated positively with Social Identification with the university. Social Identity Theory in organisational settings have shown that an employee's identification with his or her organisation relates positively to indicators such as job satisfaction or engaging in extra work-related activities (van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). Career-enhancing strategies

consist of proactive individual behaviour which is not prescribed by organisational requirements and therefore encompasses engaging in extra work-related activities (Feji et al., 1995). The results of this study also demonstrated that Career-enhancing Strategies correlated positively with Subjective vitality. It was also found that Personal Responsibility correlated positively with Subjective vitality. Nix, Ryan, Manly and Deci (1999), investigated motivational factors expected to affect subjective vitality. They found that when individuals engage in autonomous behaviour, it maintains or enhances subjective vitality. Whereas when behaviour is directed or controlled by external forces, subjective vitality is depleted. When an individual's actions are self-determined or autonomous, he or she is inclined to invest more effort and experience events as more positive than when his or her actions are controlled externally.

In this study, Social Identification was found to correlate positively with Personal Responsibility. According to Foster (1991), social identification affects an individual's self-concept, attitudes and behaviours. The results of this study also indicated that Social Identification with the university correlated positively with Subjective Vitality. Organisational identification has a pivotal functional role in determining workplace attitudes and conduct (van Dick & Wagner, 2002). It has positive effects on employee's work motivation and their well-being (Wegge et al., 2006). Wegge et al. found that organisational identification, more than work motivation could assist in reducing employee's intentions of leaving an organisation or their feelings of depersonalisation.

Relationships between the Independent Variables and the Dependent Variables

Subjective Career Success and the Dependent variables

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine if each of the four independent variables (Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality) could predict the dependent variable Subjective Career Success. The results of this study revealed that only Subjective Vitality and Social Identification, contributed significantly to predicting Subjective

Career Success. Subjective Career Success relates to personal evaluations of success (Callanan, 2003). Whereas, Subjective Vitality refers to the individual's internal energy and variables contributing to feelings of self-control in one's environment (Deci & Ryan, 1991). This construct was included in the study based on the assumption that, if employees' actions in their careers are self-determined or autonomous, they will invest more energy in it and their experiences of career success will be more positive.

Social identification affects an individual's self-concept, attitudes and behaviours (Hogg, Terry & White, 1995; Foster, 1991). Mael and Ashforth (1989) argue that organisational identification constitutes a specific form of social identification which provides an individual with a sense of identity. It therefore affects an individual's organisational attitudes and behaviours. The reason for including this construct in the study therefore is, based on the assumption that the more that academics identify with their academic institutions, the more they will invest in their careers and experience career success. The finding of this study that Social Identification contributed significantly to predicting Subjective Career Success is consistent with the findings of Heslin (2005). According to Heslin, organisational culture differences may alter the view people may have about the success of their career. He advocated that in a clan culture, the organisation and the individual are in a fraternal relationship, emphasising mutual long-term commitments. The process of acculturation is a long, socialisation process which ensures that organisational values are internalised. Socialisation and the internalisation of values highlights the importance of mutual interests and an implicit understanding that job-related performance and personal sacrifices to benefit the organisation, may far exceed contractual agreements (Kerr & Slocum, 1987). In a clan culture, tradition, history and organisational modes of operation are maintained as well as the organisation's hierarchical structure. Within this culture, superiors serve as mentors, role models and they are the socialisation agents who perpetuate the organisational culture. Employees in a clan culture would be more concerned with subjective measures in determining their career success. This is due to the fact that within this culture, socialisation promotes the importance of non-financial career outcomes such as fraternity and belonging to an organisation with an established tradition (Heslin). The

organisational culture of UCT resembles a clan culture and this may help to explain why Social Identification, contributed significantly to predicting Subjective Career Success.

Objective Career Success and the Dependent variables

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine if each of the four independent variables (Career-enhancing Strategies, Social Identification, Personal Responsibility and Subjective Vitality) could predict the dependent variable, Objective Career Success. The multiple regression analysis was conducted on the continuous measures of Objective Career Success whereas multinomial logistic regression was applied to analyse the categorical objective measures of career success.

None of the independent variables predicted objective career success, some prediction was expected, as based on previous literature. Career-enhancing strategies include: developing career goals, consulting with mentors and colleagues to increase knowledge and skills, extending work involvement and developing a network of contacts (Feji et al., 1995). Studies have demonstrated that networking relates to an individual's objective and subjective measures of career success (Langford, 2000). Langford demonstrated that engaging in networking behaviours contributes to objective career success directly whereas it contributed indirectly to subjective career success. Wolff and Moser (2009) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the effects of networking on career success. Their results revealed that engaging in networking behaviours can result in staggering salary growth. They further found that internal networking played a bigger role in contributing to career satisfaction, than external networking did. Kirchmeyer (1998) found that the presence of a mentor only had a positive effect on men's incomes and that network support had a stronger effect on men's levels of progression. Nabi (1999) investigated predictors of objective and subjective career success. He found that highly educated employees in bigger organisations, with well structured career progression paths who devoted substantial effort and time to their work roles,

reported the highest objective career success. Nabi found that older male employees in academic or managerial positions earned higher salaries than other employees. Position level, years of experience in higher education and formal qualifications were the vital predictors of income for both male and female academics (Probed, 2005). Poole and Bornholt (1998) found that academics in the highest ranks of academic institutions were older and earned more. Although this current study aimed, to replicate some of these findings, none were replicated.

The continuous dependent measures in the study included: Length of Service, Age Highest Position Attained. Number of peer-reviewed articles published, Research Grant, Teaching and Community/ Professional service. No significant results were found. The categorical dependent variables included: Last Position Held in the Past Five Years, Highest University Position Held, Highest Academic Qualification, Age Highest Academic Qualification Attained, NRF Rating and Committee Member. For the last two dependent variables, namely, Number of Conferences Attended and Part-time or Full-time Employment, binomial logistic regression was computed. Only two of the categorical dependent variables, proved to be statistically significant, namely, Highest University Position Held and Committee Member. The categorical measures for Objective Career Success were weak and had limited variability. Future studies should attempt to reformulate these into continuous measures with more variance. A potential suggestion for future research, would be to convert the categorical dependent measures into 5-point Liked scales. Although categorical measures are commonly used, the statistical analyses required for these types of measures are less powerful (Atkins, 2003). Continuous measures however, allow statistical analysis with potentially greater power. It is also important to note that if the categorical measures are changed to continuous measures, a larger sample is required, as small sample sizes reduces the validity of the results.

Gender as a Moderator Variable

Regression analysis was utilised to determine whether gender moderates the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Gender did not prove to be a moderates for any of the variables. The results of this study are surprising. This is especially surprising for the continuous measures of Subjective Career Success although not as surprising for the categorical measures. Nabi (2003) found Career-Enhancing Strategies to be a gender sensitive independent variable, however, this finding was not replicated in this study.

Ng et al., (2005) found that when subjective career success was measured, education had a stronger effect on career satisfaction for women than men. Kirchmeyer found that although women earned less than men, they still perceived their careers to be as successful as their male counterparts. The women and men in Kirchmeyer's study reported the same amount of mentorship and network support. However, the presence of a mentor only had a positive effect on the men's incomes. Also, network support had a stronger effect on men's levels of progression.

Schaupp (1995) investigated the publication activities of male and female academics. Male academics consistently published more research than women. Producing research is particularly important as academic departments and institutions are rewarded financially for producing quality research (Knights & Richards, 2003). Prozesky (2008) analysed the gender differences in the publication productivity among South African academics. Between 1990 and 2001, South African male academics published on average twice the amount than their female colleagues. It was further found that the articles of the most productive men publishers far exceeded the quantity of the most productive women, in terms of peer review. None of the above results, found in previous literature was replicated in this study. This could be attributed to the fact that the study was only conducted at the University of Cape Town. The sample employed, therefore may not have represented an adequate representative sample of the demographics of all South African Universities and was very small. Furthermore, the response rate was very

low. Although the two biggest faculties at the University of Cape Town were targeted, namely the Humanities Faculty (204 academics) and the Commerce Faculty (149 academics), in total, 41 (11.6%) academics responded. The effect of the small sample size reduces the probability of obtaining statistically significant results. The sample of UCT academics is also not representative. As a consequence, the results may not be generalisable to the entire South African academic population.

Limitations

Although many limitations were cited in the discussion above, a few more limitations are worthy of mention:

A primary limitation of this study was that a cross-sectional approach to data collection was employed. As a result, a snapshot view of the variables considered was provided. Due to the time constraints of the study, a cross-sectional approach provided the best solution as a longitudinal study would not have been viable.

The study was only conducted in South Africa and the findings cannot be generalised to other countries.

Contribution to knowledge

In the study, it was found that Social Identity and Subjective Vitality were significant predictors of Subjective Career Success, whereas none of the independent variables predicted Objective Career Success. Despite this the predictive models for Highest University Position Held and Committee Membership were significant.

It is essential that organisations are aware of the consequences of social identification and the role that it plays within their organisation. Social identification affects an individual's organisational attitudes and behaviours. The benefit is that the more an employee identifies with an organisation, the more the employee is inclined to engage in behaviours that will benefit the organisation (Mael & Ashforth, 1989). Employees are committed to an organisation, to the degree to which the

organisational membership is self-defining (Brown, 1969). If the organisational objectives align with the employee's, he/she identifies with the organisation at a deeper level (van Dick & Wagner, 2002). The stronger the employee identifies with the organisation, the more likely the employee is to act according to the company's objectives and engage in actions to benefit the organisation (van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). In organisational settings it has been shown that an employee's identification with his or her organisation relates positively to indicators such as job satisfaction or engaging in extra work-related activities. Organisational identification has a pivotal functional role in determining workplace attitudes and conduct (van Dick & Wagner, 2002). It has positive effects on employee's work motivation and their well-being (Wegge et al., 2006). Wegge et al. found that organisational identification, more than work motivation, could assist in reducing employee's intentions of leaving an organisation or their feelings of depersonalisation. Organisational identification could reduce an employee's feelings of alienation and may be a prerequisite for job satisfaction. Employees who identify with their organisation are less likely to leave their organisation and more inclined to engage in extra activities to benefit the organisation. The finding of this study that Social Identification contributed significantly to predicting Subjective Career Success is consistent with the findings of Heslin (2005). According to Heslin, organisational culture differences may alter the view people may have about the success of their career. The quantitative and financially-orientated organisations are more likely to contain employees who primarily utilise objective criteria to determine their career success. Employees in a clan culture would be more concerned with subjective measures in determining their career success. This is due to the fact that within this culture, socialisation promotes the importance of non-financial career outcomes such as fraternity and belonging to an organisation with an established tradition (Heslin). With this kind of information, organisations could develop programmes within their organisations which either facilitates the attainment of Subjective Career Success or Objective Career Success or both, based on the needs of their workforces. In this manner, they would be able to address the career success needs of their workforce.

Subjective Vitality also has consequences which organisations should be aware of. Kanter (1977) found that employees who were optimistic about their career growth

involved themselves more actively in their work than employees who were less likely to grow in their careers. Nix, Ryan, Manly and Deci (1999) investigated motivational factors expected to directly affect subjective vitality. They found that when individuals engage in autonomous behaviour, it maintains or enhances subjective vitality. However, when behaviour is directed or controlled by external forces, subjective vitality is depleted. When an individual's actions are self-determined or autonomous, he or she is inclined to invest more effort and experience events as more positive than when his or her actions are controlled externally. This study demonstrated that Subjective Vitality was a significant predictor of Subjective Career Success. Organisations could therefore potentially reconstruct working arrangements to ensure more autonomy and thereby increase the likelihood that employees will invest more effort in their jobs and experience events as more positive than when their actions are controlled externally.

The study explored relatively new concepts which warrant further research and investigation. This study demonstrated that psychology constructs, namely Social Identity, from social psychology and Subjective Vitality, from positive psychology, could play a pivotal role in predicting the Subjective Career Success of individuals.

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