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Occupational Following Spotlight on a Hidden Phenomenon

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Andri Koch

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List of Abbreviations

AC	Assessement Center
AIC	Akaike Information Criterion
BIC	Bayesian Information Criteria
CAAS	Career Adapt-Abilities Scale
CD	Coefficient of Determination
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CI	Confidence Interval
CNEF	Cross-National Equivalent File
df	Degree of Freedom
DMP	Dualistic Model Passion
Ed.(s.)	Editor(s)
e.g.	exemplia gratia (for example)
et al.	et alii (among others)
EU	European Union
FWI	Family Work Inference
FWP	Flexible Work Practices
GMA	General Mental Ability
GSOEP	German Socioeconomic Panel
HP	Harmonious Passion
HR	Human Resources
i.e.	id est (that is)
ICC	Interclass Correlation Coefficient
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMO	Input Mediation/Moderation Output
IPO	Input Process Output
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupation
JD	Job Demands
JD-R	Job Demands–Resources Model
JR	Job Resources
LMX	Leader Member EXchange
MAR	Missing At Random
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MCAR	Missing Completely At Random
MDS	Multi Dimensional Scaling Model
N	Total Observation
n	Sample Size
n/a	not applicable
No	Number
n.s.	not significance

OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCS	Objective Career Success
OF	Occupational Following or Occupational Follower
OP	Obsessive Passion
PLOC	Perceived Locus Of Causality
RQ	Research Question
SCCT	Social Cognitive Career Theory
SCS	Subjective Career Success
SCT	Social Capital Theory
SD	Standard Deviation
SDCM	Self-Directed Career Management
SDT	Self Determination Theory
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SES	SocioEconomic Status
SHP	Swiss Household Panel
SIT	Social Identity Theory
SLR	Systematic Literature Review
SOC	Selection Optimization Compensation
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
ST	Signaling Theory
TWA	Theory of Work Adjustment
WFI	Work Family Inference
U.S.	United States
USA	United States of America

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Motivation and Background

Michael Jackson, Eero Saarinen, Liza Minelli, George W. Bush, Colin Hanks, and Michael and Cameron Douglas all share an important commonality; each followed in his or her father's or mother's occupational footsteps. Michael Jackson's father played in a band with his brother; Liza Minelli's mother, Judy Garland, became famous because of her role in the movie *The Wizard of Oz*; Eero Saarinen's father, Eliel Saarinen, was a famous architect who designed, among others, Helsinki's train station; George W. Bush followed his father George H. W. Bush and became the 43rd president of the United States; and Michael and Cameron Douglas came from a dynasty of actors. These are some examples of a vast list of children who followed in their fathers' or mothers' occupational footsteps, which is called occupational following and describes the phenomenon of a child following the father's or mother's professional footsteps (without considering any property issues).¹ It seems that the mentioned examples were highly successful in their careers and their achievements.

Occupational following was and is not as unusual as one might think. In ancient Egypt, the son followed the father's occupation (van Heel, 2013). "It used to be common, if not expected, that a son would grow up and take over the family business or follow in his

¹Parents' property that is related to certain professions, e.g., a farmer's farm, affects individuals' job choices too (Blau & Duncan, 1967). That is, a child might choose to follow into a parent's occupation due to the possibility of succeeding and taking over the farm.

father's footsteps" (Laband & Lentz, 1983, p. 47). Also nowadays, it is a widespread phenomenon, for example, in a course for higher education, which I attended during my PhD study, five out of 12 of the participants were occupational followers. But it is not limited to certain occupations, in the year 2017, between 6.42% and 24.63% of Swiss people were occupational followers.²

There is continuous public interest on this topic, as evidenced by articles in newspapers and on the Internet. A short search revealed various articles in well-known newspapers and the web community, such as *The New York Times* (e.g., Proulx, 2017), *The Economist* (e.g., The Economist, 2011), *The Wall Street Journal* (e.g., Newmann and McGroarty, 2017), *Die Zeit* (e.g., Prengel, 2011), and *The Facebook Research Team* (e.g., Adamic and Filz, 2016). The authors of these articles are fascinated with the phenomenon of occupational following and consider different aspects of it. For example, *The Economist* shows the transfer of power within a family to build up a dynasty of politicians in Sri Lanka (i.e., the father passes the government business to the son), and *Die Zeit* shows interest in the potential of high levels of conflict between follower and predecessor due to parental disapproval of children. Klaus Mann, son of famous writer Thomas Mann, committed suicide because of his father's missing support. And *The Wall Street Journal* discussed a success story of two brothers and their agriculture business, which they took over from their father. Hence, various aspects of the phenomenon of occupational following are of public interest.

The reason behind the phenomenon of occupational following is that the parents' career paths brought success to the individuals and their families, and so they should for the children, too. Therefore, family dynasties are found in all walks of life, such as lawyers (Laband & Lentz, 1985a), physicians (Tran et al., 2017), teachers (Rothland, König, & Drahmman, 2015), and politicians (Feinstein, 2010; Laband & Lentz, 1985b). However, we do not know if occupational followers were really successful. Could appearances be deceiving? Was Eero Saarinen successful because of his father or was he by chance also a brilliant architect? And why did he become an occupational follower;

²Data are from the Swiss Household Panel (2016): the proportion depends strongly on the occupational classification used and its degree of detail, see Chapter 2.3 for more information.

what were his driving forces? On closer examination of occupational following, it becomes clear that it opens many questions, which are still hidden in the black box of occupational following.

Occupational following is a rarely investigated academic research subject. Research has concentrated on three areas: what drives youth to follow in their parents' occupational footsteps; how does the relationship between parents and child changes because of occupational following; and what is the occupational followers' benefits.

Interest in the first area is guided by questions about why someone follows in his or her mother's or father's footsteps. Parental and familial influences on children's occupational choices are studied. Pablo-Lerchundi, Morales-Alonso, and González-Tirados (2015) found influences of parents' occupations on children's occupational choices, while self-employed parents fostered children's entrepreneurial intentions. Tran et al. (2017) reported a strong family aggregation among physicians, psychologists, and psychotherapists. Physicians are a popular subject in studying occupational following; Voracek, Tran, Fischer-Kern, Formann, and Springer-Kremser (2010) discovered higher relative proportions of physicians' relatives in a sample of Austrian medical students than in the Austrian population. It seems that pressure from parents or family influences a child's decision to follow or not to follow. Another effect on the decision to follow or not could be the expected outcome. Laband and Lentz (1985b) argued that the transfer of human capital from parents to child through occupational following leads to a wage premium for followers in comparison with non-followers. But they found only little empirical evidence to support this argument. However, they did report other findings that underpin assumed success as a driver of the career decision. Through nepotism (Lentz & Laband, 1989), family name (such as in politics) (Laband & Lentz, 1985a), or self-recruiting within a profession such as law (Laband & Lentz, 1992), children would find jobs more quickly, which could be beneficial in increasingly competitive labor markets (Helbling & Kriesi, 2014).

The second area considers the interrelation of the occupational predecessor and follower. Occupational following can influence the parent-child relationship. Armstrong

(2017) examined the influence of career women on their daughters' careers. She assumed that the mothers would fit best as role models for their daughters. But her findings indicated a negative influence of mothers as role models. A mother's success increased her daughter's doubts about her own career and decreased her self-confidence. Hence, occupational following effect mother's role as a good example.

The last area considers the consequences of occupational following. Although such consequences can appear on various levels, such as family, organization, and individual, only the individual level has been researched. As described above, Laband and Lentz (1985a) focused on the individual career outcomes of followers, but they did not find a statistically significant income surplus from following. Further research on the benefits of following is not yet available.

In conclusion, the first area, which focuses on the reasons for following, has been investigated relatively broadly, but the last two areas, which concentrate on the outcomes and the interrelations of predecessors and followers, have rarely been examined. Altogether, occupational following is a sparsely researched field; therefore, the main objective of this thesis is to investigate occupational following and shine a light on this hidden phenomenon. Supposing that occupational following has underlying reasons, the focus of this research lies on the benefits of occupational following as the main driver.

1.2 Research Objectives

Few scholars have examined the phenomenon of occupational following and particularly its benefits. Laband and Lentz (1983, 1985a, 1992), Lentz and Laband (1989) have provided the major contribution. As outlined in Section 1.1, the research on this topic encompasses three perspectives or areas: occupational choice, the interrelationships of predecessors and followers, and benefits. The literature on occupational choice is the most distinct.

There are several reasons for the focus of this thesis on the last area. First, Laband and Lentz (1983) findings are questionable. Their main assumption was that occupational following is a transfer of parents' human capital to the children, whereby children will profit and exhibit higher incomes than non-followers. But, their findings can be challenged for two reasons. First, the coefficients of parental schooling, which were their proxy variables to measure the transfer of human capital, were not significant. Second, they split their sample into followers and non-followers and estimated the earning function for each subsample. The coefficients of the non-followers' earning function were then used to estimate the wage of followers based on their characteristics. The deviation of the actual with the estimated wage was then reported as a wage premium, but it was also statistically not significant. That is, they applied an interesting approach to examine the benefits of occupational following concerning objective career success, but because of their insignificant results, I have some concerns about their findings and believe that their results should be verified by additional studies. The second reason for my research's focus is that career success consists of objective and subjective dimensions; therefore, research on career success must include both dimensions (Heslin, 2005; Maurer & Chapman, 2013). Third, to the best of my knowledge, besides the mentioned studies, the outcomes of occupational following have not been explored. The benefits of occupational following are of particular interest, as they might describe the motivation for following and provide a basis for further research.

Therefore, the overall goal of this thesis is to explore the benefits of occupational following. As occupational decision making takes place on an individual's personal level, benefits should lay around this level. The decision of whether an individual follows in his or her parents' occupational footsteps or not mainly affects the individual's future work life and therefore the individual's work career. Thus, occupational following is the outcome of a career decision. This led me to the assumption that occupational following is a specific career path. One of the most important outcome variables of a career is career success (Baruch, Szücs, & Gunz, 2015). Hence, to understand occupational following as a career path, one has to explore career success. Therefore, the first

research question of this thesis states:

Research Question 1: *Which antecedents, mediators, moderators, and consequences have been considered in past research on career success, and how were these factors examined?*

Research question 1 examines the theoretical framework in which the benefits of occupational following are affiliated. Thus, its results will prepare the conditions for the research questions that follow. On the one hand, answering this question will throw light on career success and identify the main factors of influence to foster the understanding of a career's outcomes; on the other hand, it will define potential causations of career success, for which I should control in the subsequent investigations. Furthermore, this investigation will show whether occupational following and career success have already been examined in the extensive body of literature on career success.

In the past, various meta-analyses on the antecedents of career success have been conducted (e.g., Ng and Feldman, 2014a, Ghosh and Reio, 2013). As these studies focused on the quantitative and causal analyses, this study will qualitatively examine the antecedents, mediators, and moderators, and the related theoretical frameworks of career success. Furthermore, it will formulate open questions and provide avenues for future research on this topic.

Knowing that occupational following exists through all decades of human history, and led by the overall goal of this thesis, research question 2 states:

Research Question 2: *Do occupational followers show higher career success than their non-follower colleagues because of their parents' occupations?*

On the basis of research question 1, research question 2 examines occupational followers' career success — respectively, the benefit for which an occupational follower strives. That is, I will investigate whether occupational followers benefit in their careers from following in their parents' occupational footsteps and to what magnitude they profit. As described above, I assume that occupational followers consciously

make their decision to follow and that they will follow because of an expected benefit for their future career. In addition, my interest is driven by social cognitive career theory, which assumes that outcome expectations predict career development and therefore career choice (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Swanson & Fouad, 2015).

Assuming that occupational followers benefit from following in their parents' footsteps, it is still unrevealed why someone would benefit. Therefore, the third research question emphasizes the individual and his or her fundamental reason for following and states:

Research Question 3: *Why do occupational followers benefit from occupational following?*

Research question 2 assumes that occupational followers benefit from following ; therefore, I will investigate why they benefit. The underlying reason for research question 3 lies in the assumption that individuals are extrinsically or intrinsically motivated in their behavior and therefore are driven by perceived forces to act in certain ways (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Research question 2 assumes that occupational followers benefit from following; therefore I investigate why they benefit. The underlying reason for research question 3 lies in the assumption that individuals are extrinsically or intrinsically motivated in their behavior and therefore are driven by perceived forces to act in certain ways (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

These research questions will be answered in three studies. The first study is a systematic literature review (Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003) of the antecedents, mediators, and moderators of career success and related theoretical and methodical issues that have been examined in previous empirical research (research question 1). Research questions 2 and 3 are addressed in two studies using weighted samples (Asparouhov, 2005) from the Swiss Household Panel by means of a structural equation model (Bollen, Tueller, & Oberski, 2013; Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000).

1.3 Overview of the Thesis

The structure of this thesis is in response to research questions 1 through 3 and is shown in Figure 1.1. In Chapter 2, I provide the theoretical and terminological foundation of this thesis. Thus, I define the terms career, career success, and occupational following (Chapters 2.1 to 2.3), and then I describe the five big career theories (i.e., Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environment, the theory of work adjustment, Super's developmental theory, Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise, and social cognitive career theory), which present the environment of research on career topics (Chapter 2.4).

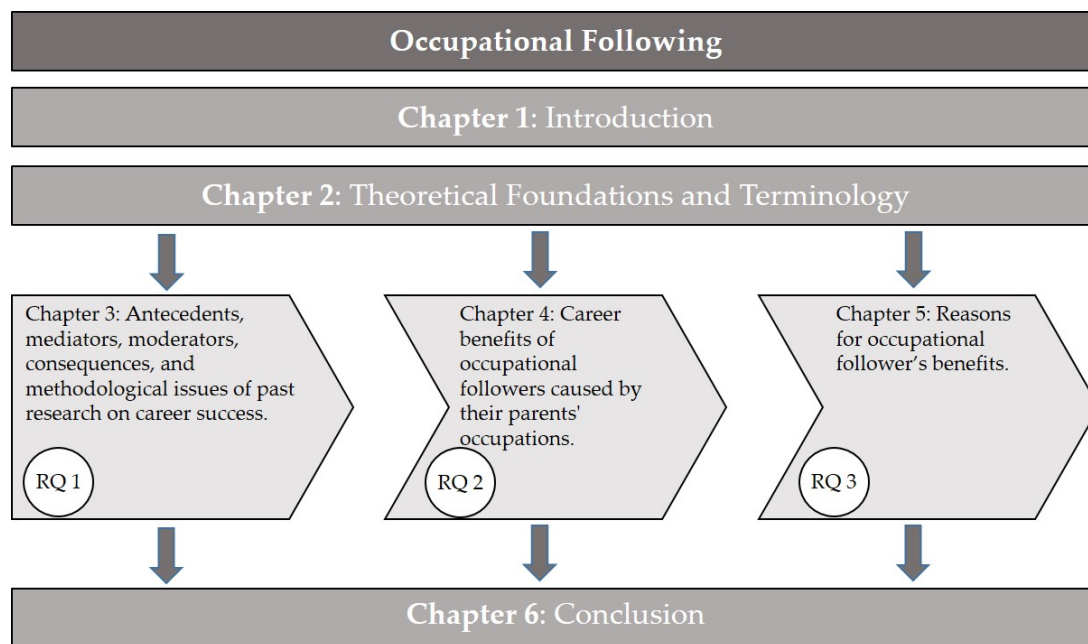


FIGURE 1.1: Structure of the thesis

Chapter 3 refers to research question 1. In doing this, I conduct a systematic literature review on career success over the past 30 years in top-ranked peer-review journals. After a short introduction, I build a common understanding of career and career success on which I build the search process (Chapter 3.2). In the methodological Chapter (3.3), I describe the applied method and show the research process before I outline the sample, which consists of 75 quantitative works. In the analysis part (Chapter

3.4), I examined identified studies through geographical, methodological, theoretical, and thematic lenses, where I developed a framework on antecedents, mediation, moderation, and consequences. These various perspectives provide in-depth insight into career success research. This study ends with the identification of research gaps and the formulation of ten opportunities for future research. Limitation and contribution are provided at the end.

Chapter 4 represents the first quantitative research study of this thesis, and it is mainly addressed with research question two. Against the backdrop of Chapter 3, I developed the theoretical idea and hypotheses (Chapter 4.2.4). They are based on social identity theory, social capital theory, and signaling theory. Findings from Chapter 3 led to using structural equation modeling in research on career success. Therefore, I shortly introduce this method and describe the sample of the Swiss Household Panel (Chapter 4.3.1). Based on the measurement and structural model, I tested the derived hypotheses in Chapter 4.4. Chapter 4.5 discusses these results with regard to the initial research questions. This article ends with limitation and contribution.

The second quantitative study (Chapter 5) refers to research question 3 and examines the reasons why occupational followers show benefits of following in their parents' footsteps. This study relies on the view of occupational following as a passion for work. Therefore, I describe related theoretical background (i.e., concept of calling, dualistic model of passion, and job-demand resources model) in Chapter 5.2 and develop the hypotheses in the subsequent Chapter 5.3. The hypotheses are tested on a weighted sample of the Swiss Household Panel in Chapters 5.5.2 to 5.5.3. The findings are discussed in the chapter that follows. Again, I consider limitations and contributions.

In the final chapter 6, I discuss the overarching findings of this thesis, their theoretical and managerial contributions, and opportunities for future research. Limitations were separately considered in each of the three studies.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Foundations

2.1 An Understanding of the (Professional) Career

The definition of “career” might at first sight seem unambiguous, but this term suffers from surplus meaning so an exact definition is a challenging task. Generally, the term career could “refer to any social strand of any person’s course through life” (Goffman, 1961, p. 127). This view leads to a broader understanding of career. Therefore, any person’s history of a role could represent a career.

For the sociologist Hughes (1937, p. 409), a career consisted “of a series of status and clearly defined offices” and “the moving perspective in which the person sees his life as a whole and interprets the meaning of his various attributes, actions, and the things which happen to him.” The key issue of his definition is the “moving perspective of time.” This broad notion of the concept of a career is generally accepted. For an economist, a career could be considered the way of accruing human capital through education and experience over a lifetime (Adamson, Doherty, & Viney, 1998; Becker, 1975). Sociologists tend to view careers as social mobility consisting of a series of positions over time (Blau & Duncan, 1967; Lipset & Bendix, 1952) and an unfolding process over time of social roles to preserve the social order (Van Maanen & Barley, 1982). Other scientists such as psychologists view career as a matching of personality and vocation (e.g., French, Rodgers, and Cobb, 1974; Holland, 1973, 1997), and the psychologist Shepard described the spirit of a career as follows: “The central issue is a

life fully worth living. The test is how you feel each day as you anticipate that day's experience. The same test is the best predictor of health and longevity" (Shepard, 1984, p. 175). That is the career as fulfilment of one's own potential. From a traditional business perspective, a career is work-related through a reference to what people do for a living, where people work and which positions they occupy (Adamson, Doherty, & Viney, 1998).

Hall (1976) described four distinct meanings in which career is used. (I) Career as advancement—moving upward in organizations. This is a definition of career as a sequence of promotions and other upward moves. Such a move or promotion could be to a position with more responsibilities or to a "better" organization or location whereby the move is not subject to any occupational restrictions but it assumes the existence of a work-related hierarchy. This perspective of "up is good, down is bad" is a pervasive theme in a meaning of career. (II) Career as profession—a view of career that certain occupations represent careers while others do not. Career-occupations have clear patterns of systematic advancement, for example, legal professions, academics or doctors. These occupations are characterized by a generally understood path of career movement and regularized status passages—in which people regularly move from one status to another. (III) Career as a lifelong sequence of jobs—a person's career is described as his or her job history. Contrary to the first two meanings, this view describes a value-free judgment about the type of occupation, function, position or direction of the move; additionally, all people engaged in the labor market have careers. This is a very broad, neutral and value-free definition of career. (IV) Career as a lifelong sequence of role-related experiences—refers to the person's experience of his or her sequence of jobs and activities. Thus, the meaning of career depends on the observer's view.

Nevertheless, the four meanings above have certain underlying aspects in common. They highlight career's two-sidedness (Goffman, 1961). Generally, a career consists of two different dimensions (Hughes, 1937; Stebbins, 1970; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977; Barley, 1989; Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), driven by the

perception of career as structural property of an occupation or organization, or as property of an individual (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010). For example, Hall (1976) career as advancement and career as profession describes a view of career as structural property of an occupation or organization. In contrast, a career as a lifelong sequence of role-related experiences relates to a view of career as property of an individual. Both views should be considered as interdependent and mutually supportive constructs (Hughes, 1937; Barley, 1989; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010).

Figure 2.1 shows interdependencies of the objective and subjective experiences of a hypothetical career. Experiences in the objective part of the career are reflected in the subjective part, whereupon these subjective experiences lead to a certain behavior in the objective career, and so on.

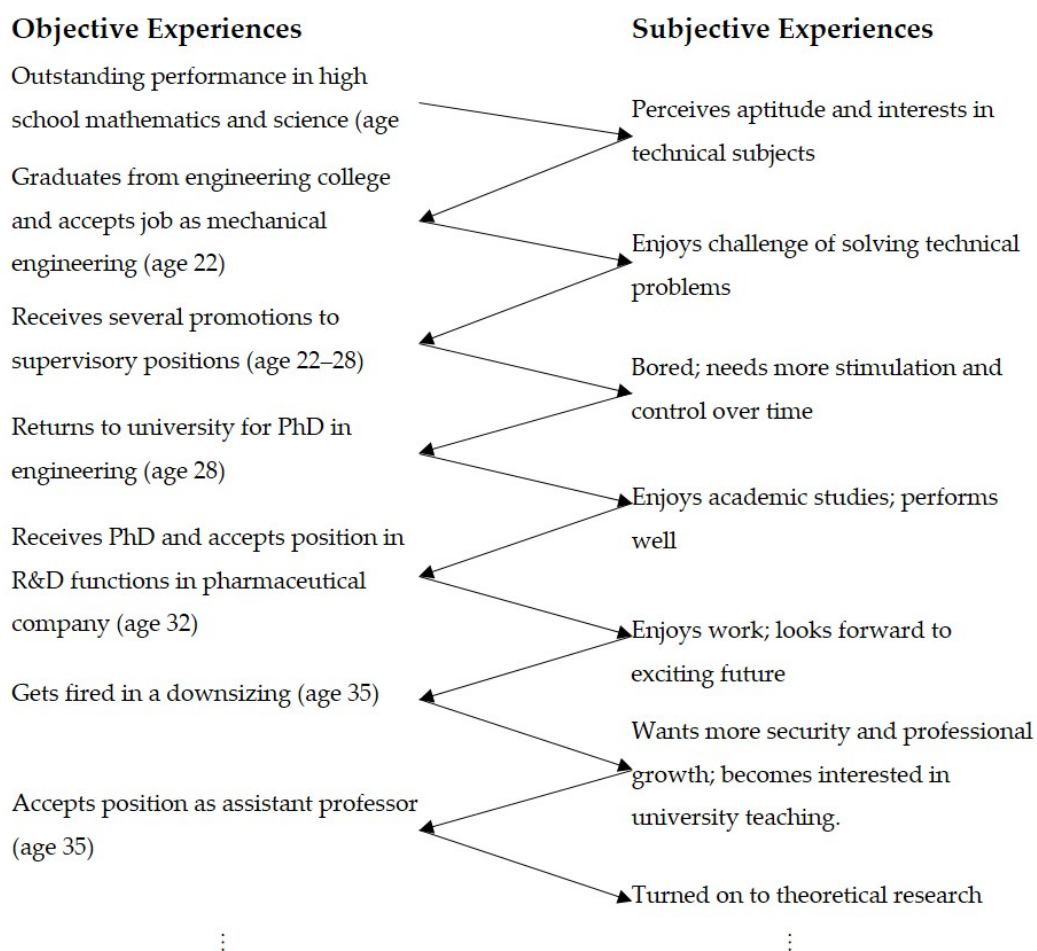


FIGURE 2.1: Objective and subjective elements of a hypothetical career (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010)

The objective career is a more externally oriented view, and the subjective career reflects an internal view. Hence, some researchers speak about internal and external careers while others prefer the expressions subjective and objective careers. The external career is led by a society's norms and "good and bad" behavior and is therefore more objective; conversely, an internal career reflects one's personal view, which is subjective in relation to other careers. Barley (1989, p. 49), expresses "a stream of more or less identifiable positions, offices, statuses, and situations that served as landmarks for gauging a person's movement through the social milieu" as the career's objective face. Objective career categories are defined by society and organizations to describe individuals' progression of steps (Schein, 1976; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977).

The subjective career refers to "the actor's recognition and interpretation of past and future events associated with a particular identity, and especially his interpretation of important contingencies as they were or will be encountered" (Stebbins, 1970, p. 34). Hence, an individual's subjective career makes up one's self-concept of one's own progression (Schein, 1976; Derr & Laurent, 1989) out of a myriad of perceptions, attitudes and experiences of holding positions, roles, functions and memberships (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

In fact, three types of career concepts were well established (see Table 2.1). First, the traditional career refers to the most classic sense of career, whereby progression of working position is within the organizational hierarchy and takes place within the confines of one or two organization (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The society defines "a good" career in terms of norms, functions, responsibilities and positions (Tolbert, 1996). Second, the protean career describes a career in which the person and not the organization is in charge (Hall, 1976, 2004). The core values are freedom, growth and striving for psychological success (Hall, 2004; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). A protean career is not restricted to a certain behavior, such as upward mobility, but it is rather an attitude toward the career (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). Third, the boundaryless career characterizes careers that are not bound and not tied to an organization (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999). The boundaryless career is seen as the opposite of organizational careers (Arthur

TABLE 2.1: Types of career concepts (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Hall, 2004)

	Traditional career	Protean career	Boundaryless career
Who's in charge?	Organization	Individual	Individual
Core values?	Advancement	Freedom, growth, value driven	Physical and/or psychological mobility
Degree of mobility	Low	High	High
Focus	Objective career	Subjective career	Subjective career
Success criteria	Position, level, salary	Psychological success	Perceived career success, perceived internal marketability, and perceived external marketability
Key attitudes	Organizational commitment	Work satisfaction, professional commitment	Mobility, disconnected from single organizations and their existing career paths.

& Rousseau, 1996), with ambiguous organizational membership, departmental identity and job duties (Miner & Robinson, 1994). The protean and boundaryless career are distinct but overlapping concepts (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Differences are given in the value-driven forces of the protean career and the physical and/or psychological mobility of the boundaryless career (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). As seen in Table 2.1, a career could have different interpretations and the notion of career is an unfolding process parallel with changes occurring in society and environment (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, Celeste P. M., 2005; Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008), such as globalization, expanding use of part-time and temporary employees, greater workforce diversity, growing technology and longevity (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

Nowadays, in the literature a consensus for a career definition can be found in the idea of *the evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time* (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989b; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), in which time is restricted to an individual's lifespan. This definition includes elements of both an objective career, such as job positions, job duties or activities and work-related decisions (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010), and a subjective career, such as interpretation of work-related events and feelings about work experiences. This notion

of career is not restricted to a particular profession, intraorganizational or interorganizational career path; therefore, it does not require any transitions or professional work roles. An understanding of career in this meaning fits with the changes in the work world. Where careers are no longer restricted to a unique organization, they are interrupted for reasons of further education, family duties, increasing percentages of part-time jobs and shorter functional tenure. In contrast to different views in the past (e.g., Hall, 1976, this working definition allows a career more facets, needed to cover the full spectrum of the meaning of career

2.2 Linking Career and Success to Career Success

Talking about career success means first talking about success which possesses multiple connotations contingent on the context and corresponding notation of success (Baruch, Szücs, & Gunz, 2015; Adamson, Doherty, & Viney, 1998). Success is often defined as “the accomplishment of an aim or purpose” and “the attainment of fame, wealth, or social status” (Dictionaries, 2010). This rather broad meaning depicts the necessity of achieving something and the existence of an aim for success. In an archaic meaning, success could be good or bad (Dictionaries, 2010) and the origin of the word comes from the Latin verb *succedere*, which means “come close after” or “follow” (Dictionaries, 2010). Thus, success could either be understood in a positive sense or as a consequence. Most people would define it in the former sense, but it shows that success depends on the observer.

Jaskolka, Beyer, and Trice (1985, p. 189) describe success as an evaluative concept, which requires judges and criterion against which an outcome can be assessed. This evaluative concept is conditional on who does the judging and what the criteria are. Influences are, for example, the reference point used for the criterion (Salili & Mak, 1988; Heslin, 2003, 2005) or the judge’s social class (Katz, 1964) and gender (Dyke & Murphy, 2006). Therefore, to cover all facets of career success, numerous social-science disciplines must be considered, including psychology, social psychology, organizational

behavior, sociology and economics, all of which give theoretical explanations of career success.

As explained above, Hughes (1937) and others (e.g., Schein, 1976; Van Maanen and Schein, 1977) elucidated the concept of an objective and subjective career. Hence, the term career success refer to the assessment of someone's criterion about his or her subjective and objective career (Poole & Langan-Fox, 1993; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005) and should be evaluated in terms of subjective and objective components (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, Celeste P. M., 2005; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Objective career success (OCS) is implicitly judged by others (the society) on the basis of relatively objective and visible criteria, such as promotions or status level (Jaskolka, Beyer, & Trice, 1985; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). Objective indicators assume a "more is better" perspective (Seibert, 2006), for example a higher hierarchical position leads to more salary. However, subjective career success (SCS) reflects individual's personal judging about his/her career and related goals and expectations (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). One's subjective indicators are not visible to the society. Table 2.2 gives a summary of the characteristics of objective and subjective career success.

TABLE 2.2: Characteristics of objective and subjective career success
(Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Seibert, 2006; McDonald & Hite, 2008)

	OCS	SCS
Beholder	Society	Person
Comparison standard	Other referent	Self-referent or other referent
Tangible/intangible	Tangible	Tangible or intangible
Observable	Yes	No

Several researchers reveal a positive relationship between subjective and objective career success (e.g., Stumpf, 2014; Stumpf and Tymon Jr. , Walter G., 2012, Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz, 1995) while others show that objectively successful individuals are not at all satisfied with their achievements (Korman, Wittig-Berman, & Lang, 1981). However, objective indicators are conceptually distinct from subjective indicators (Ng,

Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995) or only moderately correlated (Judge & Bretz, Robert D., 1994; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). In contrast to the concepts of objective and subjective career, the notions of objective and subjective career success have ambiguous interdependency (Abele & Spurk, 2009b). Also, the meaning for employees is more in terms of subjective than objective indicators (Eith, Stummer, & Schusterschitz, 2011), as the former is more important in terms of individuals' perceived career success (Poole & Langan-Fox, 1993; Korman, Wittig-Berman, & Lang, 1981). Therefore, a separate examination is needed (Korman, Wittig-Berman, & Lang, 1981; Gattiker & Larwood, 1989) that leads to a pure definition of the construct of career success.

This actual concept and the corresponding meaning of career success has dominated the research stream for years (Gunz & Heslin, 2005) although the different meaning (Adamson, Doherty, & Viney, 1998) and the need for a more fine-grained analysis (Heslin, 2005) of career success have been known for a long time (Poole & Langan-Fox, 1993). The present concept seems to imply a more traditional career, based on clear career advancement and a career path within large, bureaucratic organizations (Seibert, 2006). Different attempts have been undertaken to overcome this gap.

One branch of research addresses it by re-conceptualizing the existing construct to adapt it to present career models (e.g., boundaryless career; Arthur, Khapova, and Wilderom, Celeste P. M., 2005) or to a specific audience (young professionals; McDonald and Hite (2008), or by underpinning the context's mediation on the relationship of subjective and objective career success (Hall, 2005; Nicholson, Bobak, Murphy, Rose, & Marmot, 2005). For example, Arthur, Khapova, and Wilderom, Celeste P. M. (2005) report that young professionals' success ideals seem more wide-ranging, individualized and self-motivated than those of other generations. Another branch of research suggests a multidimensional model of career success with two dimensions (affect – achievement, inter-personal – intra-personal) and nine regions (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008). The first branch affects and re-defines the condition of the present career success concept more than the concept itself. In contrast, the second

branch breaks up the basis of the present career success concept and reconstructs a more dynamic model.

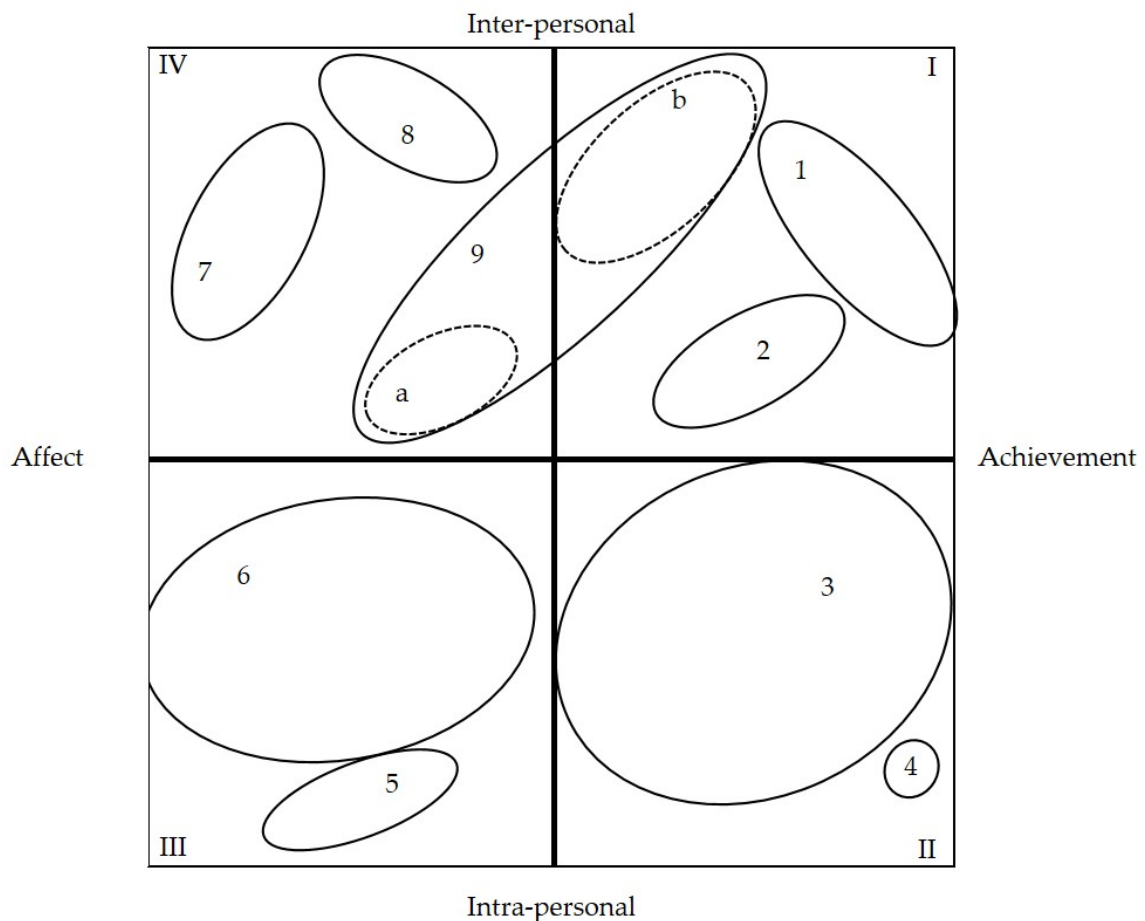


FIGURE 2.2: MDS Model of career success (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008)

Figure 2.2 shows the multidimensional scaling (MDS) model of career success. (I) In this quadrant, factual accomplishments that characterize a career are described, with the actor's external world acting as validation. (II) In this quadrant, factual accomplishments validated by the actor's self are characterized. (III) Here career success constructs of feelings and perceptions of people, validated by the actor's self, are described. (IV) In the fourth quadrant, career success constructs of feelings and perception of people, validated by the actor's external world, are characterized.

The affect side of the affect-achievement dimension relates to feelings and perceptions of people which actors might have had during their career. The achievement end of

this dimension represents factual accomplishments characteristic of peoples' careers and factual contributions. The intra-personal aspect describes the career of an actor's inner world whereas the inter-personal side focuses on the outside world career that actors' engage in. Table 2.3 describes the nine regions of the MDS model.

TABLE 2.3: Description of MDS region (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008, p. 260)

Region	No	Description
Performance	1	Success in terms of attaining verifiable results and meeting set goals
Advancement	2	Success in terms of progression and growing, both in terms of level and experience
Self-development	3	Success in terms of reaching one's full potential through self-management of challenges and learning experiences
Creativity	4	Success in terms of creating something innovative and extraordinary
Security	5	Success in terms of being able to meet one's financial and employment needs
Satisfaction	6	Success in terms of achieving personal satisfaction and happiness, both in the family and in the work domain
Recognition	7	Success in terms of being adequately rewarded and appreciated for one's efforts and talents
Cooperation	8	Success in terms of working well together with peers, superiors, subordinates and clients
Perceived contribution	9a	Success in terms of serving society through work, in an ethical way
Factual contribution	9b	Success in terms of contributing something tangible to the collective, for instance to an organization, as an individual

This model allows a more detailed view of the career success construct and a better understanding of the meaning of career success. This multidimensional model views career success more in term of a dynamic construct rather than a static entity (Savickas, 2005) and fits several other concept of earlier studies (e.g., Lee et al., 2006).

With regard to the next chapter, in which I conduct a systematic literature review, the definition follows the static notation of career success, because there exist no measure of the MDS model yet. Hence, the two ambiguous terms career and success come together and describe *the judgment of an accumulated positive objective and psychological outcome of individuals' work-related experience* (Seibert, 1999; Stumpf, 2014). In other words, career success could be seen as a function of past accomplishments and self-improvements (Rosenbaum, 1984). This definition covers both objective and subjective facets of career success and it accentuates their interdependency. Also, it considers only work-related experiences and disregards individuals' other social experiences (e.g., family or friends).

2.3 Terminology of Occupational Following

A consistent use of the term *occupational following* (OF) is missing in the literature. Related terms are intergenerational transfer of occupation and occupational inheritance. Occupational inheritance gives more regard to an occupation's characteristics—that is, the term assumes a similarity between the precursor's and the follower's occupation. For example, Cutright (1968) defines occupational inheritance as staying in the same occupational stratum. This notation covers a more sociological view and leans on discussion of upward and downward mobility between social classes. Intergenerational transfer of occupation evolved from the work of Laband and Lentz (1985a) and relates to the human capital nature of earlier findings: theoretically, parents' investment in their own career is also an investment in their child's career, and offspring profit from the parents' expenditure.

I rely on the classification of occupations, which was developed by the International Labor Office (ILO), to define the similarity two occupations should exhibit to be defined as occupational followers. The ISCO classification system classifies occupations into 10 major, 28 sub-major, 116 minor, and 390 unit groups (ILO, 1988). Jobs are grouped into occupations and further aggregated into groups. Groups are based on

skills required to fulfill a job's tasks and duties. Therefore, to be accounted as occupational followers, occupations must match on the deepest level of the ISCO scale, that is on the detailed four-digit level (i.e., unit group level). Therefore, I denote an occupational following as *practicing an occupation in which the needed skills exactly match the needed skills of at least one parent's occupation*.

As explained above, this definition of occupational following depends on the degree of following. Table 2.4 shows an example of three different situations. In situation A, the child's occupation differs from the parents, whereas in situation B, they show some similarities and in situation C, they match exactly, which correspondent with my definition of occupational following.

TABLE 2.4: Degree of occupational following

Situation	Child	Parents
A	Teacher at primary school	Carpenter
B	Teacher at primary school	Teacher at high school
C	Teacher at primary school	Teacher at primary school

2.4 The Big Five Career Theories

Five theories have been established in career research that are known as "the big five" (Leung, 2008). These theories differ according to their fundamental assumptions, which led to a group of person-fit theories, developmental theories, and reinforcement based theories (Osipow, 1990). Other theories, for example personality focused theories (such as psychoanalytic) do not count as one of the big five theories, because they lack operationalization (Osipow, 1990).

Person-fit theories consist of Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environments (Holland, 1973, 1997), and the theory of work adjustment (Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1968), while Super's developmental theory (Super, 1953), and Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise build the group of developmental theories.

The last big five career theory, social cognitive career theory (Bandura, 1977), can be seen as a reinforcement based theory. Person-fit theories focus on the fit between an individual's characteristics and career choice, whereas developmental theories consider career choices as a process instead of a single event. The reinforcement based theories focus on an individual's social learning and self-efficacy.

The subsequent sections describe the big five career theories and outline their meaning for career research, and the career paths.

2.4.1 Holland's Theory of Vocational Personalities and Work Environment

Holland's theory focuses on an individual's traits and their match with the (career) environment (Osipow, 1990). That is, trait-factor theory assumes that an individual's traits match an environment and that an individual would prefer an occupation or career paths with the highest matching scores. This assumption goes back to environmental psychology, in which findings have shown that research on individuals should also study the environment in which the individuals' interactions take place (Barker & Gump, 1964). Although this theory is denoted as fit theory, Holland was aware of the career life stage as he noted "persons with more information about occupational environments make more adequate choices than persons with less information" (Holland, 1959, p. 40–41). Therefore, Holland's theory could also be understood as circular and process oriented, in which individuals with more or less stable characteristics stay in an environment as long as the fit is positive. When an environment changes, the individuals review the match and move into a new environment (i.e., a new occupation or job) if necessary. Furthermore, this theory has the premise that individuals' characteristics and occupational characteristics are highly congruent, and therefore members of these occupations would have similar personalities (Swanson & Fouad, 2015).

This theory is based on four working assumptions. First, most individuals can be described as one of the six RIASEC types in Table 2.5; however an individual is not a

single type, but is rather more of a combination of various types with a leading type. Second, six environment types are analogous with the RIASEC types. Third, individuals prefer environments in which they can exercise their unique set of "skills and attitude, express their attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems and roles" (Holland, 1997, p. 4). Fourth, the interaction of personality and environment produces an individual's behavior.

Holland proposed a hexagonal structure to show the resemblance of the six types, where the distance between the types is inversely proportional to their theoretical interrelations (Swanson & Fouad, 2015) (see Figure 2.3). That is, the commonalities of opposed types are smaller than those of adjacent types. For example, the type *enterprising* is more social than *realistic*, but more *realistic* than *investigative*.

Four different constructs describe the relationship of the six types within individuals and environments or between individuals and environments. The first construct, *congruence*, refers to a full match of the environment's and the individual's type; for example, a realistic individual working in a realistic environment. High congruence is associated with job satisfaction among other aspects (Spokane, Meir, & Catalano, 2000). *Differentiation*, reflecting the second construct, denotes the degree of definition of an individual's interests. In other words, an individual clearly knows what he or she likes or dislikes. The third construct, *consistency*, applies to the coherence of an individual's interests. For example, an individual with interests that are realistic and investigative has more consistency than one with realistic and artistic interests. The last construct, *identity*, reflects the clarity and stability of an individual's identity (i.e., goals, interests). *Differentiation*, *consistency*, and *identity* can be used to describe individuals and environments. Based on these four constructs, one is able to provide estimations about an individual's outcomes. The higher the consistency, the higher the congruence, and therefore the higher the outcome.

The RIASEC types have been empirically tested in a wide variety of settings. However, researchers have found differences for gender (Fouad, 2002); for example, men scored higher on the realistic type and woman on social type. Furthermore, research found

TABLE 2.5: Characteristics of Holland's personality and environment types (Swanson & Fouad, 2015, p. 98-99)

Type	Self-concept and values	Potential competencies	Typical work activities and environments
Realistic	Emotionally stable, reliable, practical, thrifty, persistent, shy, modest, uncomfortable talking about self, traditional values	Mechanical ability and ingenuity, problem solving with tools, machines, psychomotor skills, physical strength	Job with tangible results, operating heavy equipment, using tools, physical demands, fixing, building, repairing
Investigative	Independent, self-motivated, reserved, introspective, analytical, curious, task oriented, original, creative, non-conforming	Scientific ability, analytical skills, mathematical skills, writing skills, perseverance	Ambiguous or abstract tasks, solving problems through thinking, working independently, scientific or laboratory settings, collecting or organizing data
Artistic	Independent, nonconforming, self-expressive, intuitive, sensitive, emotional, impulsive, drawn to aesthetic qualities	Creativity, imagination, verbal-linguistic skills, musical ability, artistic ability	Creating artwork or performing, working independently, unstructured, flexible environments that allow self-expression
Social	Humanistic, idealistic, ethical, concerned for welfare of others, tactful, cooperative, generous, kind, friendly, cheerful, understanding, insightful	Social and interpersonal skills, verbal ability, teaching skills, ability to empathize with and understand others	Teaching, explaining, guiding, solving problems, leading discussions, educational, social service, and mental health organizations
Enterprising	Status conscious, ambitious, competitive, sociable, talkative, optimistic, energetic, popular, aggressive, adventuresome	Verbal skills related to speaking, persuading, selling, leadership skills, resilience, high energy, optimism, social and interpersonal skills	Selling, purchasing, leading, managing people and projects, giving speeches and presentations, financial, government, and political organizations
Conventional	Conscientious, persevering, practical, conservative, orderly, systematic, precise, accurate, careful, controlled	Efficiency, organization, management of systems and data, mathematical skills, attention to detail, perfectionism, operation of office machines	Organizing office procedures, keeping records and filing systems, writing reports, making charts, structured organizations with well-ordered chains of command

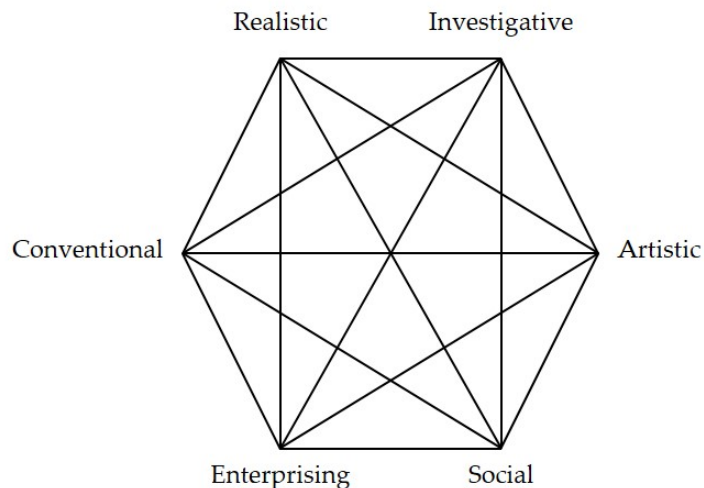


FIGURE 2.3: Holland's hexagonal structure (Swanson & Fouad, 2015)

effect sizes for race/ethnicity, such as the finding that Asian Americans scored higher on the investigative type (Fouad, 2002).

In conclusion, Holland's theory is one of the most applied in career research and career counseling, such as Nauta (2010, p. 11) stated that the "hallmarks of Holland's theory are its empirical testability and its user-friendliness."

2.4.2 The Theory of Work Adjustment

The theory of work adjustment (TWA) is another representative of person-fit theories. The TWA has many similarities with Holland's theory, but it differs on its focus; whereas Holland emphasizes career or occupational choice, the TWA looks more at adjustment. These theories are complementary, rather than competing or exclusive. Analogous with Holland, the TWA considers an individual's interaction with his or her work environment and its influences on work adjustment (Swanson & Gore, 2000). Figure 2.4 depicts the TWA.

On the one hand, the environment/job requires abilities to fulfill the job's and organization's requirements and on the other hand, an individual possesses the abilities and skills to satisfy these needs. The level of fulfillment of the environment's needs leads

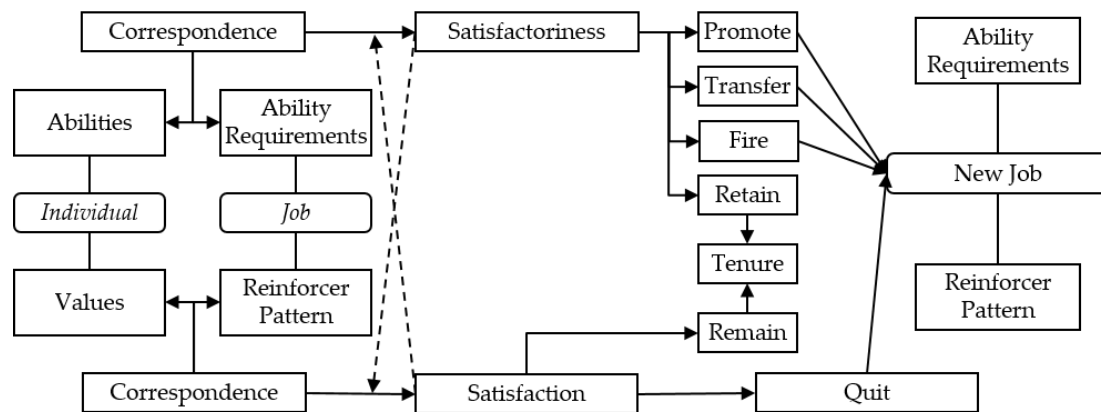


FIGURE 2.4: Theory of work adjustment (Swanson & Fouad, 2015)

to satisfactoriness. However, an individual has values and norms, which a job should meet. Six crucial values are defined: achievement, comfort, status, altruism, safety, and autonomy Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1964), Swanson and Fouad (2015). These values are addressed with the environment's reinforcer pattern, or in other words, with rewards. The match of an individual's values with the environment's rewards leads to the level of satisfaction. Therefore, the TWA strongly distinguishes between the fulfillment of the environment's needs (i.e., satisfactoriness) and those of the individual (satisfaction).

The degrees of satisfactoriness and satisfaction have different consequences. Once an individual is in a position, the environment (e.g., individual's manager) estimates the level of satisfactoriness and makes decisions about promotions, transfers, firing, or retaining; whereas promotions, transfers, and firing induce a new job, retaining prolongs job tenure. In the same manner, an individual evaluates his or her satisfaction with the offered rewards and decides whether to remain on the job or quit (which would again lead to a new job). That is, job tenure depends on the individual's satisfaction with the job and on his or her abilities to do the job (Swanson & Fouad, 2015). Furthermore, individuals with similar abilities can behave differently in the same work environment. Their reaction depends on their personality style, which is given through celerity, pace, rhythm, and endurance (Lofquist & Dawis, 1991). These styles can also be used to describe and distinguish environments from each another.

- **Celerity** refers to the speed an individual interacts with his or her environment and ranges from high/quickly to low/slowly.
- **Pace** denotes the intensity of an individual's interaction with the environment and is measured by his or her interaction rate.
- **Rhythm** indicates the pattern of the pace of interaction with the environment, for example, steady, cyclical, or erratic.
- **Endurance** is the ability to sustain interaction with the environment.

As described above, satisfaction decides whether an individual stays on the job or quits. Therefore, the TWA postulates a process of adjustment that occurs if an individual is dissatisfied with the fulfillment of his or her needs.

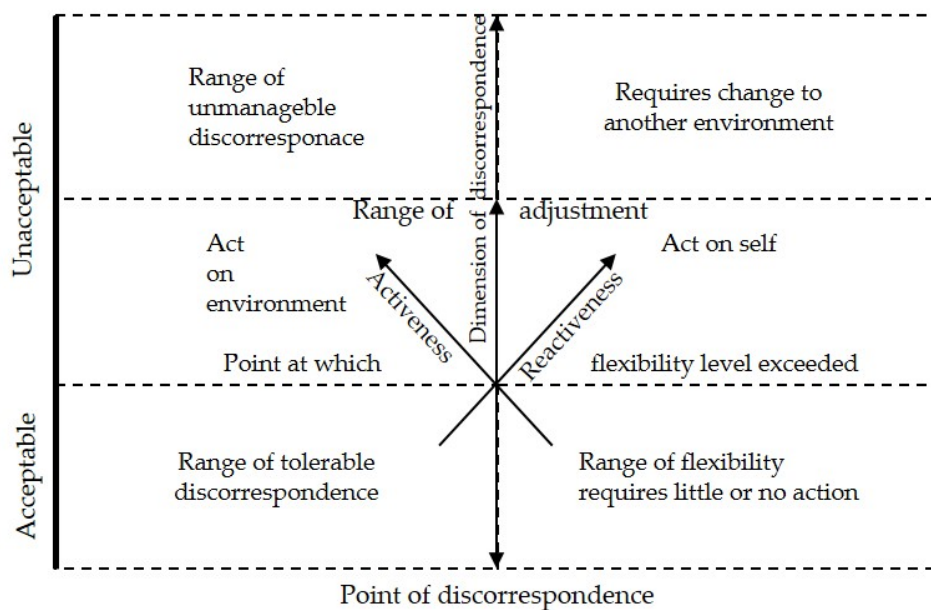


FIGURE 2.5: Adjustment process in the TWA (Swanson & Fouad, 2015)

At the bottom of Figure 2.5, there is no discordance between an individual's needs and the environment's supply. Going up the figure, at some point the mismatch is too great, and the individual can no longer respond with flexibility and reaches a point of unacceptability. That is, the individual will start to adjust and move either into the activate mode or reactive mode. In the activate mode, the individual attempts to change the environment, for example, by enlarging the organization's rewards system.

However, in the reactive mode, the individual changes his or her own needs to better correspond with the environment's rewards. But if the discordance exceeds a specified point, the mismatch cannot be adjusted and the individual moves to a new environment.

The TWA was found to predict subjective career success, measured with job satisfaction, if an individual highly fit with the environment (Judge & Bretz, Robert D., 1994), and the TWA was also found to be associated with tenure (Swanson & Gore, 2000). According to Swanson and Gore (2000), the relationship of correspondence and satisfaction and of satisfaction and job tenure is empirically supported. But, the moderator role of satisfaction and satisfactoriness does not have sufficient support and needs more evidence.

2.4.3 Super's Developmental Theory

In contrast to the previous theories, Super's developmental theory is characterized by viewing occupational choice as a process and not as a single event (Swanson & Gore, 2000). That is, occupational development is a cumulation of several decisions over the individual's life span that represent his or her self-concept (Swanson & Fouad, 2015). Super's theory considers an individual's development of abilities, interests, and values and the development of the individual's social environment. Similar to Holland's theory and the TWA, two dimensions must match. In Super's theory, this match is represented through the individual's self, which is shown in Figure 2.6.

The left-side pillar shows the development of the individual's personality and the right-side pillar concerns the individual's social environment. Both of them create the individual's self. The biographical-geographical foundations of human development are built as doorsteps and set the base on which an individual grows his or her self-concept (Super, 1990b). The pillars depend on each other, for example, values are influenced by an individual's family. The arc itself represents the individual's career, with development stages at each end and the individual as the central keystone in the

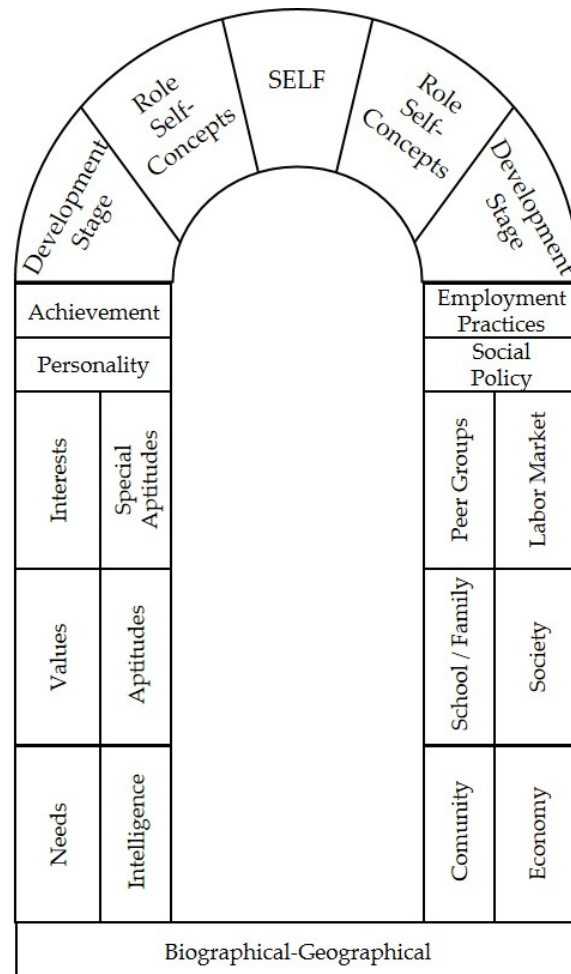


FIGURE 2.6: Super's archway model (based on Super, 1990b)

middle. Furthermore, Super emphasized the need for cement to hold the stones together; for him, the cement is learning theory. "Learning is the theory that explains the relationship of the segments of the career archway: social learning but also learning in encounters with objects, facts, and ideas" Super (1990b, p. 204). Through career and life experience, individuals learn and continuously update their self-concepts. Super illustrated the interaction of an individual's career and its role in society as a life-career rainbow (see Figure 2.7).

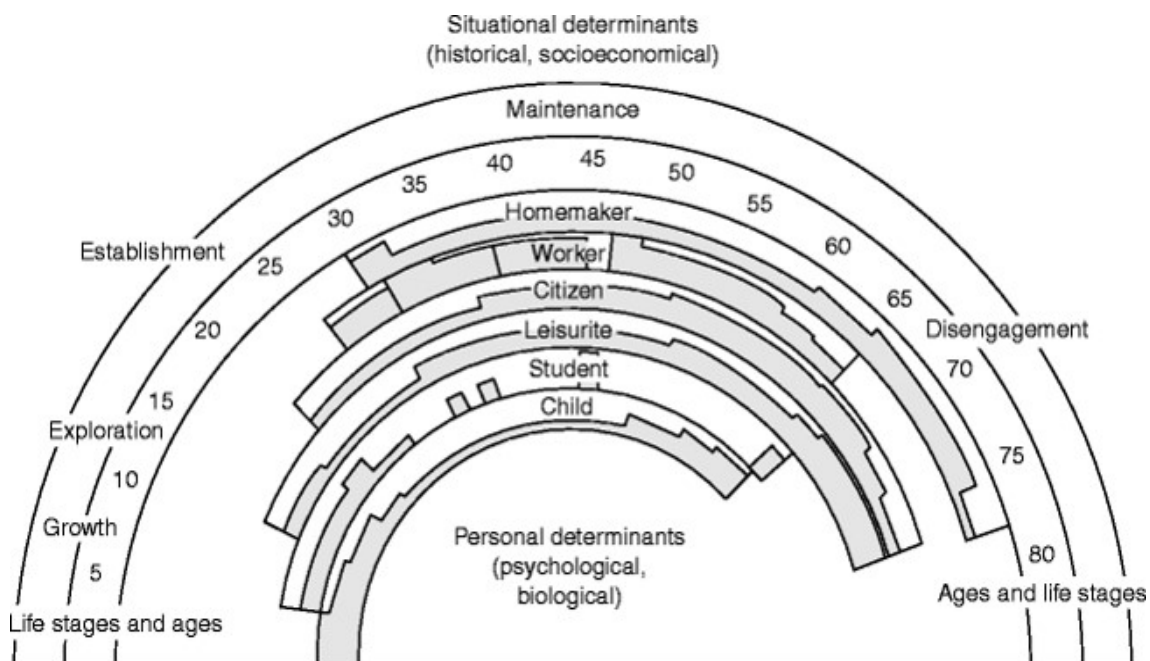


FIGURE 2.7: Super's life-career rainbow (Super, 1990b)

The outer ring of the rainbow, the life span, is the course of an individual's life with its major life stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. In each stage, an individual is challenged with specific requirements or tasks that should be fulfilled. Super proposed that successful coping with these requirements is conditional to an individual's career maturity — the "readiness to master the developmental tasks of each stage effectively" (Swanson & Fouad, 2015, p. 139) — or an individual's career adaptability — the "readiness to cope with changing work and work conditions" (Savickas, 1994, p. 58). Career adaptability gained attention in the research community as it emphasizes the individual's interaction with and reaction to the environment and changes in the environment. The transition between life stages is characterized

through a minicycle of growth, reexploration, and reestablishment (Swanson & Fouad, 2015). Each person fills life and career roles, which are shown within the rainbow as the life space. role. For example, in the exploration stage, between 10 and 15 years old, an individual has multiple roles to fulfill, a role as a child, and as a student, and he or she might start with a leisure activity. In conclusion, a fundamental characteristic of Super's theory is that occupational choice is a transfer or implementation of an individual's self-concept into working life (Swanson & Fouad, 2015).

2.4.4 Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise

Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise is also a developmental theory that sees occupational choice as a process rather than a single event. Her key goal was to explain why an individual's occupational choices differ by gender, race, and social class (Gottfredson, 2005). Various career theories consider career choice as a matching event or process in which an individual chooses that occupation which best meets his or her needs and for which he or she possesses the most abilities to fulfill its requirements. To make this choice, individuals must first learn about the occupations and their attributes as well as their own self to determine if an occupation could result in a match (Gottfredson, 2005). For this reason, the focus of her theory lies more in the social self than in the psychological self (Swanson & Fouad, 2015). Gottfredson proposed four development processes to explain why differences of gender, race, and social class in occupational choice exist: cognitive growth, self-creation, circumscription, and compromise.

Cognitive growth

Occupational decision making is a cognitively demanding task. As Gottfredson (2005, p. 73) noted, six cognitive tasks are used: remember — learning facts; understand — understanding similarities and differences; apply — dealing with information; analyze — integrating information to assess the pros and cons of a decision or course of action;

evaluate—judging and making choices; and create — developing a plan to reach a goal. These tasks create an individual's cognitive map of occupations and self-concept.

Self-creation

The debate continues in the field of psychology whether human development is influenced by nature (genetic factors) or nurture (environmental influences) and how or if both interact or depend on each other. Gottfredson concluded that many characteristics are biologically based but that further development is driven by an individual's experiences through life. Therefore, an individual's self is manifested by behavior, belief, and feeling.

Circumscription

Gottfredson (2005) stated that occupational choice, or rather, a career choice, begins with a process of circumscription in which occupations that are incompatible with an individual's self-concept are eliminated. Children move through four stages of circumscription: in stage 1 (ages 3 to 5), they begin to classify others in terms of their size and power and they recognize that adults work. In stage 2 (ages 6 to 8), they recognize various occupations, especially those that are visible (e.g., teacher, police officer). Furthermore, they distinguish people by their attributes, with gender being the most salient. In stage 3 (ages 9 to 13), they become aware of social values and hierarchy. They also recognize occupations with tasks and duties that are not directly visible (e.g., secretaries, managers). At the age of 13, the prestige ranking of occupations is similar to those of adults. They identify social class and link the social class with people's living standards. In addition, they start to create acceptable boundaries of occupations to which they aspire, such as sex type or social class. In stage 4 (ages 14 and older), they start to think about which occupations or careers are compatible with their self-concept and correspond with their interests, abilities, and values.

Compromise

In the last process, individuals become realistic and begin to relinquish their most preferred occupation and focus on accessible ones. This step leads to the acceptance of less preferred alternatives (e.g., second or third choice).

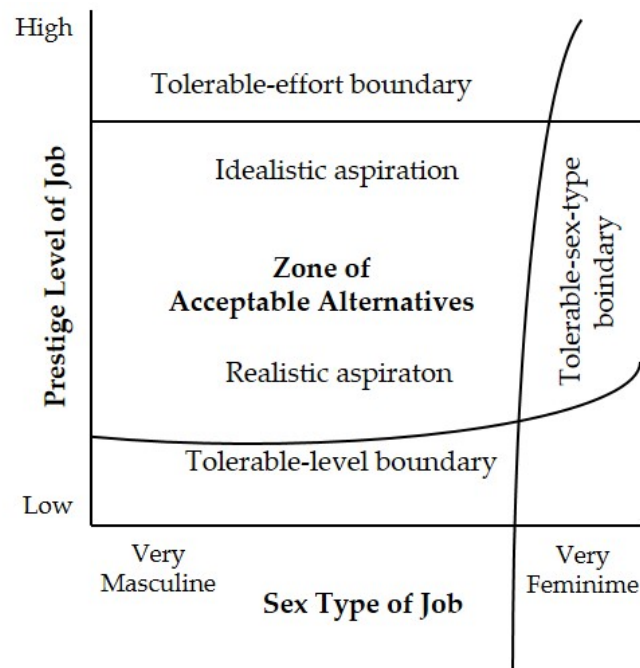


FIGURE 2.8: Gottfredson's model of circumscription and compromise (Swanson & Fouad, 2015)

Gottfredson's theory is illustrated in Figure 2.8. The zone of acceptable alternatives reflects an individual's self-concept. This zone is a compromise between an occupation's prestige level, sex type, and field of interest. The top line bounds an individual's tolerable effort level. This level describes how much an individual is willing to invest in an occupation (e.g., searching for information). The right-side boundary defines an individual's preferred occupation sex type and the bottom boundary the occupation's tolerable prestige level. The search for a compromise is established by the way in which the individual developed during childhood. That is, sex type was developed first and therefore would be likely to be compromised last. Hence, compromise starts with the field of interest and goes further along the level of prestige.

2.4.5 Social Cognitive Career Theory

The social cognitive career theory (SCCT) combines various elements of the previous theories and provides an understanding or holistic view of the jigsaw puzzle of career development. Hence, career development is described as a dynamic process, like in

a motion picture. The principle of the SCCT lies in Bandura (1986) social cognitive theory, which shows "the complex way in which people, their behavior, and their environment mutually influence one another" (Lent, 2005, p. 102) and determine outcomes.

The central constructs of the SCCT are self-efficacy — an individual's conception of his or her confidence in performing tasks (Swanson & Fouad, 2015, p. 177); outcome expectancies — beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behavior (Lent, 2005, p. 104); and personal goals — an individual's intention to engage in a particular activity or to produce a particular outcome (Lent, 2005, p. 105). Bandura (1986) differs between outcome expectancies and self-efficacy. He noted that "efficacy and outcome judgments are differentiated because individuals can believe that a particular course of action will produce certain outcomes, but they do not act on that outcome belief because they question whether they can actually execute the necessary activities" (Bandura, 1986, p. 392). This differentiation is important as it strongly affects an individual's career choice.

In SCCT, three conceptually distinct interlocking process models describe the development of an individual's interests, the formation of occupational choices, and the nature and results of performance in career spheres (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). I will only focus on the career choice model, as it best reflects the nature of this thesis and encompasses most important parts of the other models.

The choice model (see Figure 2.9) proposes that people's inputs, such as predisposition, gender, race/ethnicity, and disability/health status, as well as background contextual affordances (e.g., barriers, support) affect an individual's learning experiences. For example, children from a higher social class probably travel more and therefore meet people from more cultures who use different languages, which influences their learning experiences. Learning experiences affect self-efficacy and outcome expectations. They both influence interests, which determine choice goals, which affect choice actions and therefore performance and performance attainment. Performing well in an occupation is a positive experience that in turn increases an individual's self-efficacy and outcome expectations.

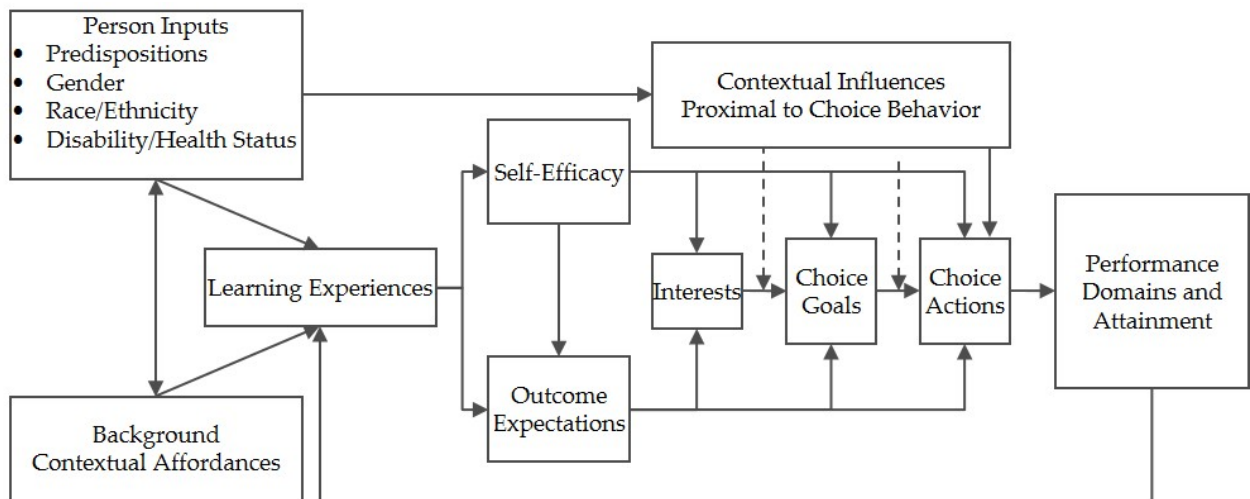


FIGURE 2.9: Career choice model of social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994)

As initially described, the SCCT encompasses various aspects of the previously described theories. The influences of background contextual affordances reflect part of Gottfredson's theory, as well as the moderation effect of contextual influences on the effect of interest on choice goals. Both fit theories are shown through the feedback of performance on the learning experiences, which reflect the reevaluation of the current occupation and the matching of an individual's abilities with his or her environment. Hence, an environment that allows an individual to perform well in an occupation fits better with the individual's abilities and values than one in which performance is difficult.

This dissertation includes the following three articles:

Article 1

Koch, Andri (2018). Thirty Years of Research on Career Success: A Systematic Literature Review. Manuscript prepared for submission. pp. 37-104.

https://edit.cms.unibe.ch/unibe/portal/fak_wiso/a_bwl/inst_op/content/e39703/e373808/e769994/Koch2018-Workingpaper_Thirtyyearsofresearchoncareer.pdf?preview=preview

Article 2

Koch, Andri (2018). Enhancing Career Success: The Role of My Parents' Occupational Footsteps in My Career. Manuscript submitted for publication. pp. 105-139.

https://edit.cms.unibe.ch/unibe/portal/fak_wiso/a_bwl/inst_op/content/e39703/e373808/e769993/Koch2018-Workingpaper_Enhancingcareersuccess.pdf?preview=preview

Article 3

Koch, Andri (2018). Does the Passion in the Occupational Follower Drive Subjective Career Success? Manuscript prepared for submission pp. 140-167.

https://edit.cms.unibe.ch/unibe/portal/fak_wiso/a_bwl/inst_op/content/e39703/e373808/e769992/Koch2018-Workingpaper_Doesthepassionintheoccupatio.pdf?preview=preview

Chapter 6

Conclusion

The final chapter of this thesis is structured as follows. First, I summarize the findings in relation to the initial questions. Second, I give theoretical and managerial implications. Third, I present avenues for future research.

6.1 Thesis Summary

In Chapter 1, I introduce the phenomenon of occupational following and give insights into present research on this theme. In the subsequent chapter, I explain the main research objective and related research questions. The chapter ends with an overview on the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 provides the theoretical and terminological foundation of this thesis. Thus, the terms career, career success, and occupational following are defined. Thereby, I consider different degrees of occupational following and discuss surplus meanings of careers in various disciplines and in works of life. Career success is defined to encompass objective and subjective dimensions. In the overall research discipline, in which this thesis is allocated, five theories have emerged — the so-called big five (Swanson & Fouad, 2015). Therefore, I outline each theory (i.e., Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environment, the theory of work adjustment, Super's developmental theory, Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise, and social cognitive career theory).

Chapter 3 refers to research questions one. That is, it examines which antecedents, mediators, moderators, and consequences have been considered in past research on career success and how these factors were investigated. To do that, I conducted a systematic literature review on career success over the past 30 years in top-ranked peer-review journals. The selection of the reviewed studies follows a pre-written review protocol, and the final sample consists of 75 studies.

For research question 1, I identify seven major dimensions to be counted as antecedents of career success. These dimensions are among individual and organizational levels. On the individual level, the dimensions socio-demographic, human capital, personality, and social capital are found. The organizational level consists of the dimensions' organization and environment. Last, objective and subjective career successes are identified to account for antecedents too, as they circuit themselves. For example, past objective career success impacts recent subjective career success (Stumpf, 2014).

These dimensions of antecedents are controlled by others or by individual self. That is, individuals do not have full control of their career success; others administer some influences, such as individuals' organizations, supervisors, families, or nature (e.g., gender). This contrasts those influences controlled by the individual's self. Self-controlled influences are summarized under the term career self-management — a multi-dimensional construct. The relations of those dimensions are shown in an IMO framework. Moderators completed this framework, as some studies investigated moderation effects.

Besides this thematic analysis, I examined the sample of the identified studies; it is shown that most research was conducted using a sample from the U.S. or Europe. Furthermore, through methodological lenses, I detected some concern regarding applied designs and analysis methods. In particular, some methods deny the multi-dimensional nature of career success; therefore, their findings are critical. The theoretic view revealed four research streams on career success. These streams are economic, management, psychological, and sociological. These findings are all shown in Figure 3.6. Various concerns lead to the development of ten research questions for future

research.

Chapter 4 relies on research question 2. That is, how and where could occupational followers benefit in their careers from their parents' occupations? Chapter 3 reveals the distinction between other administered and self-managed career success antecedents. The questions that arise in this context relate to whether occupational following serves as an adequate career self-management strategy.

To answer this question, it starts with the theoretical framework, which is based on the findings from Chapter 3. Therefore, to derive the hypotheses, I consider the economic stream by means of the signaling and social capital theory, and I rely on social identity theory of the sociological stream. In addition, the association of social identity theory with career success adds to the research gap and question of the finding of Chapter 3. The constructed theoretical framework shows that the benefit of occupational following depends on an individual's self view and on the view of an individual's environment. Social identity theory argues that an individual becomes familiar with specific occupational norms and behavior at a very early stage in life, due to parents' occupations. Additionally, they have the chance to benefit from the parents' occupational network. That is, on one hand, they profit from a rich network, whereby they have access to open positions; on the other hand, their expectations are more realistic and influence subjective career success. At the same time, the individual sends an imitable signal to the future group, saying: 'I am one of you'. Receivers thereby identify an individual as an in-group rather than an out-group member, which results in high psychological and emotional acceptance within the group, which influences subjective career success.

Inquiries on occupational following or similar topics are often conducted on occupation with high prestige (e.g., physicians, teachers). Therefore, I additionally hypothesized a moderation that high-prestige occupation shows stronger effects on objective and subjective career success for occupational followers than for non-followers.

These hypotheses were tested on a weighted sample of 3,384 individuals from the

Swiss Household Panel. A structural equation model shows that occupational followers show higher subjective career success but do not have increased objective career success in comparison with non-followers. Furthermore, both moderation hypotheses were declined. The moderation of prestige on objective career success as well as on subjective career success were not significant. The p-Value of the moderation on subjective career success is about 0.11. Hence there might be a tendency that occupational followers in low-prestige occupations show higher subjective career success than non-followers. One reason for this unexpected result could be that low prestige occupations are more visible for followers; therefore, the process of perception is simpler; in contrast, high-prestige occupations are harder to understand, especially for children.

In Chapter 5, I address research question 3 and examine why an occupational follower benefits from occupational following. The previous study exposed higher subjective career success for occupational followers than for non-followers, but an empirical justification is missing for this result.

The thought of career self-management leads to the dualistic model of passion and the career as a calling. An individual who lives a career as a calling indicates higher career satisfaction (i.e., subjective career success). Passion was found to serve as one component of calling. Both constructs, calling and obsessive passion, are stimulated through external regulations, which, for an occupational follower, are given by parents' occupation-related influences on the child (see Chapter 4 for details). The dualistic model of passion states that passion could be harmonious or obsessive, depending on the internalization process. An autonomous internalization leads to a harmonious passion, and a controlled internalization causes an obsessive passion. Individuals with a harmonious passion differ from those with an obsessive passion in the way that the occupational aspect of life is important but does not overpower space, whereas obsessively passionate individuals face conflicts with other aspects of the self, especially other roles. Therefore, obsessive passion was found to account for work-family inference. Hence, I developed a model in which occupational following influences work-family inferences through mediation of job demands and job resources.

TABLE 6.1: Key findings of this thesis

	Research question 1 (Chapter 3)	Research question 2 (Chapter 4)	Research question 3 (Chapter 5)
Question	Which antecedents, mediators, moderators, and consequences have been considered in past research on career success and how were these factors examined?	How and where could an occupational follower benefit in his/her career from parents' occupation?	Why does an occupational follower benefit from occupational following?
Findings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Five dimensions (socio demographic, human capital, personality, social capital, organization and environment) were examined as antecedents, mediators, and moderators. • Objective and subjective career successes serve as consequences. • Design: Longitudinal or cross-sectional studies • Method: Effect size analyses, regression analyses, or SEM • Sample: U.S., Europe 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OFs show higher subjective career success • OFs can be seen as advanced career self-management • OFs benefit due to their sending signals (signaling theory) and their in-group status (social identity) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OFs follow their passion • OFs' higher job demands are outweighed by higher job resources

This model was analyzed with a weighted sample of 2,107 individuals from the Swiss Household Panel. Results indicate that the effect of occupational following on work-family inference is fully mediated through job demands and job resources. The joint effect of job demands and job resources decrease the impact on work-family inferences in such a way that occupational followers no longer show higher work-family inferences. That is, occupational followers are highly passionate individuals who outweigh job demands through job resources. The findings of this thesis are summarized in Table 6.1.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

This thesis extends the previous research on career and career success and sets the phenomenon of occupational following in the context of existing literature. The first study adds to ongoing debate about advancement of career research (Baruch, Szücs, & Gunz, 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), and it broadens the discourse among scholars on career success, as it lacks in Heslin (2005).

First, this study reveals four theoretical streams and shows the multi-theoretical characteristics of career success. However, Arthur, Hall, and Lawrence (1989a) mention eight different disciplines (psychology, social psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, political science, history, and geography). Hence, this shows that the field of career research developed and scholars agreed on few theories of a unique discipline. This is in line with the need to develop theories to establish a discipline in academia (Shapira, 2011). Second, the results of study samples question the generalization of career-success research, as this is dominated by findings based on U.S. and European samples. Third, various scholars classify their variables for the purpose of their investigation into groups, though a manifold bunch of definitions arises. This study evolves five dimensions with respect to the identified work; thereby, it fosters common understanding of career success antecedents, and it sets out the basis for further research. Fourth, this study enriches the debate of career self-management (e.g., King, 2004), and it shows an increasing interest in this behavior, although individuals' options to proactively manage their own careers are limited.

The second study (Chapter 4) contributes to the extant literature in two ways. On one side, previous works of Laband and Lentz (1983) are repeated but could not be confirmed. Hence, I did not find evidence for higher objective career success of occupational followers as they do. But my findings reveal a pre-eminence of occupational followers concerning the subjective dimension. This conclusion endorses the trend away from objective dominance to the relevance of subjective career success (Abessolo, Hirschi, & Rossier, 2017; Hall & Chandler, 2005). Therefore, occupational following

could be an interesting career path. Occupational choice lies in individuals' responsibility, and therefore, occupational following is a first step into career self-management. On the other side, this article allows switching from the occupational choice discourse toward a performance and satisfaction-driven debate about an individual's occupation and the related career success. That does not imply the degrading relevance of the occupational choice process, but it sets the focus more on the outcome of such a decision. Furthermore, it supports congruent-related career theories (i.e., Holland's Theory of Vocational Personalities and Work Environments and The Theory of Work Adjustment).

The theoretical contribution of the second quantitative study (Chapter 5) is threefold. First, it identifies the underlying behavioral motive of the occupational follower that causes higher subjective career success compared to that of the non-follower. That is, occupational followers develop great passion for work and seek to implement their passion into their occupation, and thus into their work. Therefore this study distinguishes members of a group's occupational types as passionate individuals. Second, it contributes to a better comprehension of passion and its relation to calling. Calling literature and those about passion developed independent. I accentuate the similarities of these constructs and show that they are highly associated. In particular, passion is one component of calling. Therefore, third, it is shown that occupational followers behave similarly to individuals with great passion for their occupation and therefore define their work activity as more of a calling. That is, occupational followers do have a calling and also live their calling, which leads to higher career commitment, work meaning, and job satisfaction (Duffy, Bott, Allan, Torrey, & Dik, 2012a).

6.3 Managerial Implications

This thesis contributes not only to the theoretical discourse but also has significance for practice. How my findings should be interpreted in the practical debate may lie in

the eye of the beholder, but through my best effort, I draw three major contributions to support organizations, HR managers, and employees.

HR Managers should be sensible in relating to organizations' effects on individuals' career success. Job satisfaction drives firms' outcomes (Baruch & Gregoriou, 2017); therefore, it should be in an organization's interest to provide the best condition to boost individuals' career success. Table 3.5 gives an overview of an organization's actions affected by individuals' career success. Furthermore, it takes up the cudgels for recruiting existing employees' offspring. These workforces are familiar with the occupation-specific norms and behaviors. This recommendation is notable for recruiting employees in low-prestige occupations. A further surplus of recruiting occupational followers is the unpretentious integration of these employees into the existing workforce, as they are seen more as in-group members. In addition, such in-house recruiting shortens the recruiting process, whereby a bounded budget is freed and could be invested elsewhere. I also suggest organizations and HR managers scan for feelings of passion or undiscovered callings in their workforce and within job applicants. To live a calling and follow a passion enhances subjective career success. Therefore, it is advisable to promote individuals in living their callings, for example, through career development or trainings.

Employees receive advices supply on how to manage their career (see Table 3.5). Although the scope is limited, I do not suggest passing on the responsibility of one's own career to the organization or parents, but I propose focusing on those issues, which are under an employee's control. For example, if an organization does not offer a mentoring program, employees could self-initiate one. Furthermore, the best advice to existing employees is to follow your passion. Thus, job satisfaction will be increased, which accounts for life satisfaction, and possible role conflicts are diminished. My findings also guide youths' entry into their work lives. I recommend they consider parents' occupations in their occupational choices. The advantage of this is that they save search costs and do not have to evaluate a bunch of occupations. In addition, they might possess a comparative advantage over others; for example, depending on the occupations,

they may have occupation-related skills and competencies.

6.4 Suggestions for Future Research

Occupational following (OF), which is acknowledged to be a potential career path, is a little-researched field. Although this thesis highlights some aspects of the OF phenomenon, many facets are still unexplored and deserve additional investigation. Figure 6.1 suggests several avenues for future research. The outer ring in the illustration shows contextual opportunities for research, and the inner oval depicts several thematic possibilities. With respect to thematic avenues, I found opportunities for future research on three levels: organizational, family, and individual. Each level lies on the trigger's side of OF as well as on the side of consequences.

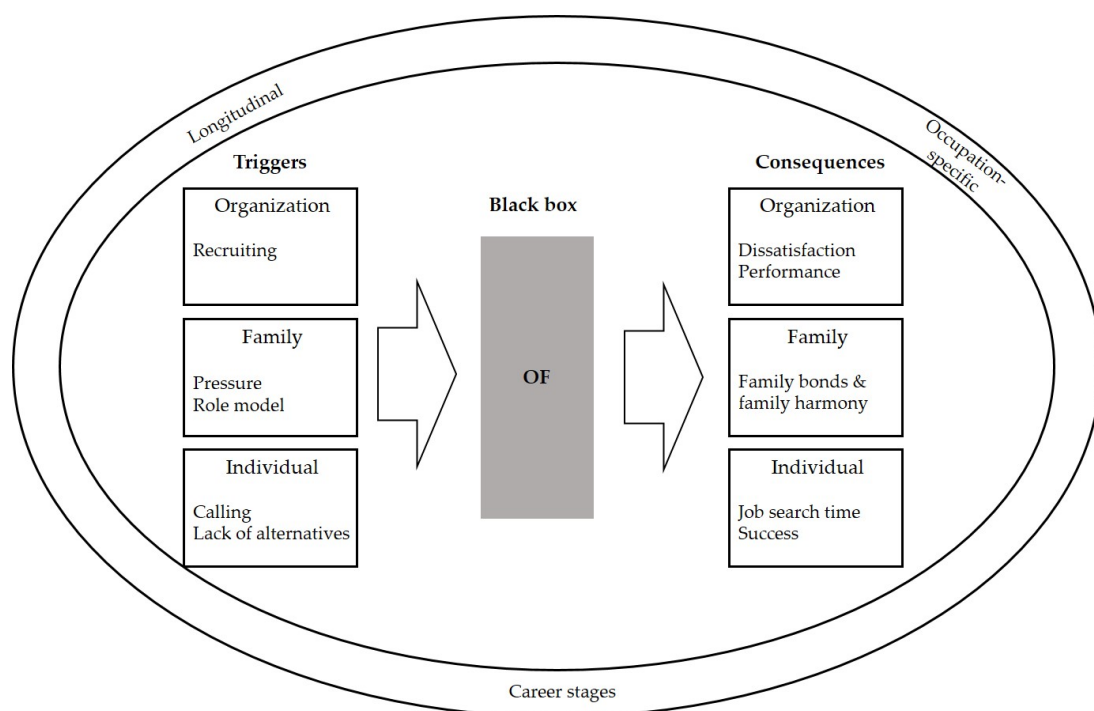


FIGURE 6.1: Avenues for future research on occupational following

Starting with the thematic possibilities, as I wrote in the earlier section on managerial implications, OF could serve as a recruiting source for organizations. For this reason, I

suggest an in-depth investigation into the organization's influence on an individual's OF decision.

In addition, because the family's influences on OF can be significant, the family level merits further exploration. For example, the family could exert pressure on an individual's career decision, especially in certain societies (see Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise and the social cognitive career theory in sections 2.4.4 and 2.4.5). On the other hand, family members might serve as role models. Researchers have noted a higher-than-average proportion of students with physician relatives in a class of medical students (Tran et al., 2017). Parents might influence an individual's decision to seek self-employment (Chlosta, Patzelt, Klein, & Dormann, 2012), and other family influences can affect an individual's career decision (Fouad, Kim, Ghosh, Chang, & Figueiredo, 2016). Thus, the family's ability to affect career decisions is known, but it is not clear under which circumstances an individual chooses a career path due to OF. For this reason, both family pressure and family role models are two possible influences that I recommend for additional examination.

Along with organizational and family influences, effects on the individual level could certainly trigger OF. In Chapter 5, I examined the driving forces behind OF and found passion to be one such force. I outlined the strong relationship between passion and calling, but I did not have sufficient data to determine whether OF is (or is not) a calling to a career. Also, when I spoke with individuals who had followed a family member's career choice, they often explained their decision as a lack of alternatives. This perceived lack of alternatives could be the result of a limited zone of acceptable alternatives (Gottfredson, 1981) or, as covered in Chapter 4, it could be due to the individual's social identity and related in-group preferences. Therefore, I deduce that triggers on the individual level would affect the OF black box and should be investigated in more detail.

Moving on to consequences — and the need for additional research about them — in Chapter 4, I showed that OF affects subjective judgments of career success in a positive way. There are other consequences on the organizational, family, and individual level.

Lentz and Laband (1989) found nepotism as one cause of the higher admission rate for doctors' children at medical schools, and found that nepotism creates job stress and drives dissatisfaction within the organization's staff (Pearce, 2015; Arasli & Tumer, 2008). Therefore, OF might also lead to dissatisfaction and lower performance within an organization. Hence, there might be a trade-off between my findings on individual success and organizational success, which suggests the need for further research.

On the family level, various factors could lead to strain between the predecessor and the follower, which could disturb family harmony and family bonds. For example, I briefly discussed the relevance of the reference point for an individual's evaluation of career success in Chapter 4. Specifically, the parent's success might indirectly affect the follower's perceived success. In addition, the story of Klaus and Thomas Mann showed strong inferences between father and son. Clearly, the consequences of OF on family bonds and family harmony require more investigation.

The need for future research on the individual level is twofold. First, I defined career success with both objective and subjective components, and these were strongly work-related. But individuals could also strive for non-work-related successes, such as achieving family goals. That is, non-work goals might become the individual's first priority. My findings from Chapter 5 tend to support such an assumption, as individuals are passion-driven and focused on life satisfaction.

Second, a potential lack of alternatives during the occupational decision-making process could shorten the decision time, and the availability of an enhanced occupational network (because of a parent's social capital) could enlarge an individual's job opportunities and decrease job search time. Both lead me to a recommendation for further research on the consequences to the individual.

Turning now to the contextual situation, which underpins many opportunities for future research, I derive three pathways from my research. First, all of my research to date is based on cross-sectional data, but a career spans considerable time. Therefore, I suggest longitudinal studies on occupational following. Second, the existing body

of literature on OF and similar research has considered specific occupations, but I did not distinguish between occupations. A multilevel approach on the occupational level would bring more insights and might reveal occupation-specific effects. Third, various career theories (such as Super's Developmental Theory and Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise) view a career as a life-long process in which occupations and jobs are subject to adjustments. Also, Chapter 4 revealed an age effect on OF with respect to subjective career satisfaction. This leads me to conclude that the triggers and the consequences of OF might depend on an individual's career stage. Therefore, future research should encompass the possible effects derived from the stage of an individual's career.

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Appendix A: Applied Methodical Approaches

TABLE A.1: Applied methodical approaches

Category	Method	Cross-Sectional	Longitudinal	Meta-Analysis
Effect Size	Dominance Analysis	Behson (2002), Johnson, C. Douglas and Eby (2011)		
	Psychometric Meta-Analysis			Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007), Ghosh and Reio (2013), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Ng and Feldman (2014a)
Regression Analyses	Hierarchical Regression Analysis	Aryee, Yue Wah Chay, and Hwee Hoon Tan (1994), Baruch, Bell, and Gray (2005), Blickle, Oerder, and Summers (2010), Bozionelos (2004b), Bozionelos (2004a), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Cox and Harquail (1991), Hamori and Kakarika (2009), Haro, Castejón, and Gilar (2013), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011), Seibert and Kraimer (2001), Valcour and Ladage (2008), Zacher (2014)	Jansen, Paul G. W. and Vinkenburg (2006), Waldman and Korbar (2004), Wiese, Freund, and Baltes (2002)	
	Logistic Regression Analysis / Survival analysis	Judiesch and Lyness (1999), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011) Vandenberghe and Panaccio (2012)	Chen (2011)	
	Multilevel Regression Analysis	Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013)	Wolff and Moser (2009)	
	Multiple Regression Analysis	Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009b), Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994), Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008), Day and Allen (2004), Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, and Wilbanks (2013), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Gattiker and Larwood (1990), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994), Judge and Cable (2004), Kirchmeyer (2006), Kirchmeyer (1998), Kovalenko and Mortelmans (2014), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Stumpf, Doh, and Tymon, Jr, Walter G. (2010), Stumpf and Tymon Jr., Walter G. (2012), Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999)	Chudzikowski (2012), Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gotlib, and Merbedone (2012), Higgins, Dobrow, and Chandler (2008), Schneer and Reitman (1997), Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou (2009b), Stumpf (2014)	
	Probit Model	Blau (2007), Bonet (2014)	Johnston and Lee (2012)	
Structural Equation Modeling	SEM	Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009a), Boudreau, Boswell, and Judge (2001), Colakoglu (2011), Duffy, Dik, and Steger (2011), Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), Judge and Kammeyer-Muelle (2012), Leslie, Flaherty Manchester, Tae-Youn, and SI Ahn (2012), Raabe, Frese, and Beehr (2007), Russo, Guo, and Baruch (2014), Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001), Turban and Dougherty (1994), Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M., de Lange, Annet H., Demerouti, and Van der Heijde, Claudia M. (2009), Verbruggen (2012), Vos, Hauw, and Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M. (2011), Vos and Soens (2008), Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008)	Abele and Spurk (2009a), Ashby and Schoon (2010), Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz (1995), Praskova, Hood, and Creed (2014)	Hoobler, Hu, and Wilson (2010), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Ng and Feldman (2010)

Note: The table shows the studies of the systematic literature review and which method they applied.

Appendix B: Categorical System on Career Success: Other-Administered and Self-Managed

TABLE B.1: Studies draw on antecedents of career success

	Other-managed	Self-Managed
Socio-Demographic	Abele and Spurk (2009a), Abele and Spurk (2009a), Aryee, Yue Wah Chay, and Hwee Hoon Tan (1994), Behson (2002), Blau (2007), Blickle, Oerder, and Summers (2010), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009b), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009a), Bonet (2014), Bozionelos (2004a), Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994), Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008), Cox and Harquail (1991), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Gattiker and Larwood (1990), Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), Higgins, Dobrow, and Chandler (2008), Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013), Johnson, C. Douglas and Eby (2011), Johnston and Lee (2012), Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz (1995), Judge and Kammeyer-Muelle (2012), Judge and Cable (2004), Judiesch and Lyness (1999), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Kirchmeyer (2006), Kirchmeyer (1998), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Ng and Feldman (2014a), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011), Stumpf, Doh, and Tymon, Jr, Walter G. (2010), Vandenberghe and Panaccio (2012), Wolff and Moser (2009)	Aryee, Yue Wah Chay, and Hwee Hoon Tan (1994), Behson (2002), Chen (2011), Cox and Harquail (1991), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994), Judge and Cable (2004), Kirchmeyer (2006), Kirchmeyer (1998), Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou (2009b), Valcour and Ladage (2008)
Human Capital	Baruch, Bell, and Gray (2005), Blau (2007), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009b), Bozionelos (2004b), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008), Day and Allen (2004), Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, and Wilbanks (2013), Ghosh and Reio (2013), Higgins, Dobrow, and Chandler (2008), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994), Judge and Kammeyer-Muelle (2012), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Vos, Hauw, and Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M. (2011), Waldman and Korbar (2004)	Abele and Spurk (2009a), Aryee, Yue Wah Chay, and Hwee Hoon Tan (1994), Baruch, Bell, and Gray (2005), Behson (2002), Blau (2007), Blickle, Oerder, and Summers (2010), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009a), Bonet (2014), Bozionelos (2004b), Bozionelos (2004a), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994), Chen (2011), Chudzikowski (2012), Colakoglu (2011), Cox and Harquail (1991), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Gattiker and Larwood (1990), Hamori and Kakarika (2009), Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013), Johnson, C. Douglas and Eby (2011), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994), Judge and Cable (2004), Judiesch and Lyness (1999), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Kirchmeyer (2006), Kirchmeyer (1998), Kovalenko and Mortelmans (2014), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Ng and Feldman (2010), Raabe, Frese, and Beehr (2007), Schneer and Reitman (1997), Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou (2009b), Stumpf (2014), Stumpf, Doh, and Tymon, Jr, Walter G. (2010), Stumpf and Tymon Jr., Walter G. (2012), Valcour and Ladage (2008), Vos, Hauw, and Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M. (2011), Waldman and Korbar (2004), Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999), Wolff and Moser (2009)

	Other-managed	Self-Managed
Personality	Abele and Spurk (2009a), Boudreau, Boswell, and Judge (2001), Bozionelos (2004b), Bozionelos (2004a), Day and Allen (2004), Duffy, Dik, and Steger (2011) Haro, Castejón, and Gilar (2013), Hoobler, Hu, and Wilson (2010), Jansen, Paul G. W. and Vinkenburg (2006), Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz (1995), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005) Ng and Feldman (2014a), Seibert and Kraimer (2001), Turban and Dougherty (1994), Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M., de Lange, Annet H., Demerouti, and Van der Heijde, Claudia M. (2009), Vos and Soens (2008), Waldman and Korbar (2004), Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008), Zacher (2014)	Abele and Spurk (2009a), Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gotlib, and Merbedone (2012), Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994) Judge and Cable (2004), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Praskova, Hood, and Creed (2014), Raabe, Frese, and Beehr (2007), Russo, Guo, and Baruch (2014) Valcour and Ladage (2008), Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M., de Lange, Annet H., Demerouti, and Van der Heijde, Claudia M. (2009), Vandenberghe and Panaccio (2012), Verbruggen (2012), Wiese, Freund, and Baltes (2002), Zacher (2014)
Social Capital	Blickle, Oerder, and Summers (2010), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009b), Bozionelos (2004b), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008), Day and Allen (2004) Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, and Wilbanks (2013), Ghosh and Reio (2013), Higgins, Dobrow, and Chandler (2008), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005)	Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009a), Bozionelos (2004b), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Johnson, C. Douglas and Eby (2011), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994) Kirchmeyer (1998), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001), Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou (2009b), Wolff and Moser (2009)
Organization and Environment	Aryee, Yue Wah Chay, and Hwee Hoon Tan (1994), Blau (2007), Bonet (2014), Bozionelos (2004a), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994) Cox and Harquail (1991), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Gattiker and Larwood (1990), Hamori and Kakarika (2009), Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994) Judge and Cable (2004), Kirchmeyer (2006), Leslie, Flaherty Manchester, Tae-Youn, and Si Ahn (2012), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011), Schneer and Reitman (1997), Stumpf (2014), Stumpf, Doh, and Tymon, Jr, Walter G. (2010), Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999), Wolff and Moser (2009)	Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007), Behson (2002), Blau (2007), Bozionelos (2004a), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994) Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008), Cox and Harquail (1991), Hamori and Kakarika (2009), Jansen, Paul G. W. and Vinkenburg (2006), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Leslie, Flaherty Manchester, Tae-Youn, and Si Ahn (2012) Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Ng and Feldman (2010), Praskova, Hood, and Creed (2014), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011), Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou (2009b), Vandenberghe and Panaccio (2012), Waldman and Korbar (2004), Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999), Wolff and Moser (2009)
OCS	Chen (2011), Gattiker and Larwood (1990), Ghosh and Reio (2013), Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013), Judiesch and Lyness (1999), Stumpf (2014), Stumpf and Tymon Jr., Walter G. (2012)	—
SCS	—	Baruch, Bell, and Gray (2005), Schneer and Reitman (1997)

TABLE B.2: Studies draw on mediation of career success

	Other-managed	Self-Managed
Socio-Demographic	Hoobler, Hu, and Wilson (2010)	
Human Capital	Boudreau, Boswell, and Judge (2001), Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gottlieb, and Merbedone (2012), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Turban and Dougherty (1994), Verbruggen (2012), Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008)	Ashby and Schoon (2010), Colakoglu (2011), Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), Praskova, Hood, and Creed (2014), Schneer and Reitman (1997)
Personality	Ng and Feldman (2010), Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008)	Abele and Spurk (2009a), Ashby and Schoon (2010), Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009a), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994), Day and Allen (2004), Duffy, Dik, and Steger (2011), Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz (1995), Leslie, Flaherty Manchester, Tae-Youn, and SI Ahn (2012), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011), Turban and Dougherty (1994), Vos, Hauw, and Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M. (2011), Vos and Soens (2008), Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008)
Social Capital	Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Turban and Dougherty (1994), Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008)	
Organization and Environment	Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994), Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), Hoobler, Hu, and Wilson (2010), Judge and Kammeyer-Muelle (2012), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Ng and Feldman (2010), Raabe, Frese, and Beehr (2007), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011), Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001)	Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994)
OCS	Hoobler, Hu, and Wilson (2010), Judge and Kammeyer-Muelle (2012), Judge and Cable (2004), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Raabe, Frese, and Beehr (2007), Schneer and Reitman (1997)	—
SCS	—	—

TABLE B.3: Studies draw on moderation of career success

	Other-managed	Self-Managed
Socio-Demographic	Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, and Wilbanks (2013), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Kirchmeyer (1998), Schneer and Reitman (1997), Stumpf and Tymon Jr. , Walter G. (2012), Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M., de Lange, Annet H., Demerouti, and Van der Heijde, Claudia M. (2009)	
Human Capital		Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008)
Personality	Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Jansen, Paul G. W. and Vinkenburg (2006)	
Social Capital	Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009b)	
Organization and Environment	Hamori and Kakarika (2009), Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013), Russo, Guo, and Baruch (2014), Stumpf, Doh, and Tymon, Jr, Walter G. (2010), Stumpf and Tymon Jr. , Walter G. (2012)	
OCS	—	—
SCS	—	—

TABLE B.4: Studies draw on objective and subjective career success

	Other-managed	Self-Managed
OCS	<p>Abele and Spurk (2009a), Aryee, Yue Wah Chay, and Hwee Hoon Tan (1994), Ashby and Schoon (2010), Baruch, Bell, and Gray (2005), Blau (2007), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009b), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009a), Bonet (2014), Boudreau, Boswell, and Judge (2001), Bozionelos (2004b), Bozionelos (2004a), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Campion, Cheraskin, and Stevens (1994), Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008), Chen (2011), Chudzikowski (2012), Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gotlib, and Merbedone (2012), Cox and Harquail (1991), Day and Allen (2004), Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, and Wilbanks (2013), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Gattiker and Larwood (1990), Hamori and Kakarika (2009), Haro, Castejón, and Gilar (2013), Holtschlag, Morales, Masuda, and Maydeu-Olivares (2013), Jansen, Paul G. W. and Vinkenburg (2006), Johnson, C. Douglas and Eby (2011), Johnston and Lee (2012), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994), Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz (1995), Judge and Kammeyer-Muelle (2012), Judiesch and Lyness (1999), Kirchmeyer (2006), Kirchmeyer (1998), Kovalenko and Mortelmans (2014), Leslie, Flaherty Manchester, Tae-Youn, and Si Ahn (2012), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Ng and Feldman (2010), Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2011), Russo, Guo, and Baruch (2014), Seibert and Kraimer (2001), Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001), Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou (2009b), Turban and Dougherty (1994), Valcour and Ladge (2008), Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M., de Lange, Annet H., Demerouti, and Van der Heijde, Claudia M. (2009), Vandenberghe and Panaccio (2012), Verbruggen (2012), Waldman and Korbar (2004), Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999), Wolff and Moser (2009), Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008)</p>	
SCS		<p>Abele and Spurk (2009a), Aryee, Yue Wah Chay, and Hwee Hoon Tan (1994), Baruch, Bell, and Gray (2005), Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007), Behson (2002), Blickle, Oerder, and Summers (2010), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009b), Blickle, Witzki, and Schneider (2009a), Boudreau, Boswell, and Judge (2001), Bozionelos (2004b), Bozionelos (2004a), Byrne, Dik, and Chiaburu (2008), Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008), Colakoglu (2011), Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gotlib, and Merbedone (2012), Cox and Harquail (1991), Day and Allen (2004), Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, and Wilbanks (2013), Duffy, Dik, and Steger (2011), Forret and Dougherty (2004), Ghosh and Reio (2013), Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), Haro, Castejón, and Gilar (2013), Higgins, Dobrow, and Chandler (2008), Hoobler, Hu, and Wilson (2010), Johnston and Lee (2012), Judge and Bretz, Robert D. (1994), Judge and Kammeyer-Muelle (2012), Judge and Cable (2004), Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008), Kirchmeyer (1998), Kovalenko and Mortelmans (2014), Maurer and Chapman (2013), Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005), Ng and Feldman (2014a), Praskova, Hood, and Creed (2014), Raabe, Frese, and Beehr (2007), Russo, Guo, and Baruch (2014), Schneer and Reitman (1997), Seibert and Kraimer (2001), Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou (2009b), Stumpf (2014), Stumpf, Doh, and Tymon, Jr. Walter G. (2010), Stumpf and Tymon Jr. , Walter G. (2012), Valcour and Ladge (2008), Verbruggen (2012), Vos, Hauw, and Van der Heijden, Beatrice I. J. M. (2011), Vos and Soens (2008), Waldman and Korbar (2004), Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999), Wiese, Freund, and Baltes (2002), Wolff and Moser (2009) Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008), Zacher (2014)</p>

Appendix C: Results Hypothesized Model

	(OCS)	(SCS)
OCS		0.015
Workload	0.260***	0.082
Age	0.215***	0.123***
Edyear	0.219***	0.013
WFI	0.075***	−0.161***
Firm size	0.033	−0.111***
Sex	−0.218***	0.052
Openness	−0.004	−0.037
Conscientiousness	0.062*	0.154***
Extraversion	0.079*	−0.058
Agreeableness	0.006	−0.157
Neuroticism	0.022	−0.335**
Prestige	0.182***	0.041
OF	−0.090	0.133*
OFxPrestige	0.104	−0.090
<i>N</i>	2642	

Structural model. *Note:* * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, coefficients are standardized.

Appendix D: Results Robustness Analysis

		(1)	(2)	(3)
		replaced OCS	replaced SCS	replaced OCS&SCS
SCS	OCS (promotion)	-0.08		-0.32
	OCS (income)		0.00***	
	Workload	0.01*	0.00	0.01*
	Age	0.02***	0.02***	0.03***
	Edyear	0.01	0.04**	0.07***
	WFI	-0.09***	-0.11***	-0.10***
	Firm size	-0.29***	0.20*	0.21**
	Woman	0.13	0.39**	0.20
	OF	0.28*	0.46**	0.43**
	Prestige	0.00	0.01*	0.02***
	Openness	-0.06***	0.13	-0.06
	Conscientiousness	0.47***	0.67***	0.72***
	Extraversion	-0.10	0.15	0.16
	Agreeableness	-0.21	0.19	0.16
	Neuroticism	-0.50***	0.23	0.16
	_cons	7.16***	4.13***	3.51***
OCS	Workload	-0.01	506.66***	-0.01
	Age	-0.05	1082.93***	-0.05
	Edyear	-0.03	3687.49***	-0.03
	WFI	0.36**	1521.60***	0.36**
	Firm size	2.80**	2953.57	2.80**
	Sex	-0.44	-22444.25***	-0.44
	OF	0.85	2501.80	0.85
	Prestige	0.03	745.22***	0.03
	Openness	-1.7	-192.02	-1.07
	Conscientiousness	-1.54*	6749.47*	-1.54*
	Extraversion	-1.32	4751.39*	-1.32
	Agreeableness	-1.84*	399.18	-1.84*
	Neuroticism	-3.62**	1418.50	-3.62**
	_cons	-11.30***	-100596.00***	-11.30***
N		2829	2642	2829

Structural model. Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, coefficients are unstandardized.

Appendix E: Model Comparison

		JD	JR	JDR
WFI	Night work	−0.086**	−0.086**	−0.086**
	Weekend work	−0.145***	−0.145***	−0.145***
	Work condition	−0.218***	−0.218***	−0.218***
	Age	−0.001	−0.001	−0.001
	Woman	−0.116***	−0.116***	−0.116***
	Prestige	0.102***	0.102***	0.102***
Night work	OF	−0.075*		−0.075*
	Age	0.061*	0.063*	0.061*
	Woman	0.101***	0.107***	0.101***
	Prestige	−0.037	−0.032	−0.037
Weekend work	OF	−0.108***		−0.108***
	Age	0.007	0.009	0.007
	Woman	0.025	0.034	0.025
	Prestige	0.034	0.042	0.034
Work condition	OF		0.079**	0.079**
	Age	0.175***	0.176***	0.176***
	Woman	−0.002	0.005	0.005
	Prestige	0.055	0.061	0.061
	AIC	76 701.592	76 713.971	76 693.271
	BIC	76 915.962	76 922.844	76 913.137
	N	1802.000	1802.000	1802.000

Structural model. Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, coefficients are standardized.

Declaration of Authorship

Ich erkläre hiermit, dass ich diese Arbeit selbstständig verfasst und keine anderen als die angegebenen Quellen benutzt habe. Alle Koautorenschaften sowie alle Stellen, die wörtlich oder sinngemäss aus Quellen entnommen wurden, habe ich als solche gekennzeichnet. Mir ist bekannt, dass andernfalls der Senat gemäss Artikel 36 Absatz 1 Buchstabe o des Gesetzes vom 5. September 1996 über die Universität zum Entzug des aufgrund dieser Arbeit verliehenen Titels berechtigt ist.

Signed:

Date:
