

CAN BELIEF IN ONE’S CAPABILITIES, ULTIMATELY, PROMOTE CAREER SUCCESS?

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ABSTRACT

This research examines the relationship between self-efficacy, embeddedness in terms of fit with an organization’s aims and required skills, linkages to others in the firm, feelings of affinity for the community (or the sense of sacrifice that might accompany leaving it) and both objective and subjective elements of career success. This research enhances organizational research by demonstrating the mediating effect of embeddedness on the self-efficacy and career success relationship. This research uses data from a convenience sample of 303 working adults to test its hypotheses. The findings indicated that embeddedness differentially mediated the self-efficacy – career success relationship. This research takes the information and discusses its implications for practice and theory, its relevant strengths, weaknesses and future research directions.

JEL: M10, M12

KEYWORDS: Self-Efficacy, Embeddedness, Career Success

INTRODUCTION

This research is intended to inform those of us who have blindly clicked on links related to self-help advice or casually surfed late-night television programs extolling the virtues of positive thinking. Perhaps some readers happened upon infomercials about motivational speakers at a local convention center near them soon, who can get them to believe in their abilities and enhance their employment potential. These appeals beg a fundamental question; can belief in oneself (i.e., generalized self-efficacy, Bandura, 1977; 1997) enhance career success? Naturally, when individuals enter situations with very low expectations of success (i.e., a self-fulfilling prophecy), it is clear from prior research (e.g., Merton, 1948; Darley & Gross, 2000) that they are likely to underachieve (both in an objective and subjective sense). Nevertheless, this paper concentrates on what effect positive beliefs in our capabilities might have on career success and what intervening variable might influence this outcome. This work combines three disparate, but not entirely incongruous variables: self-efficacy, embeddedness and both objective and subjective career success. Fundamentally, this work attempts to answer the following question: would we enhance our careers, both in terms of our earning potential and value satisfaction, if we have confidence in our abilities and integrate ourselves into the fabric of our jobs, firms and communities? This research hypothesizes that these variables are sequentially linked such that beliefs in capabilities help establish individuals in organizations and, thus, promote career success. This research proceeds as follows: first, it presents a review the current state of the literature related to this study’s variables. Next, it discusses the data, the methods and the results. It concludes by discussing the results of data analysis, the practical and theoretical implications of the findings, their strengths and limitations as well as possible avenues for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy describes individuals' beliefs that they can draw upon the internal capacities necessary to achieve desired goals within specific organizational contexts (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Self-efficacy, thus, influences both what goals individuals choose as well as how they try to achieve them (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Bandura (1977; 1997) contended that individuals demonstrate "coping" self-efficacy. He conceptualized of this as a broad set of beliefs about one's capabilities. Self-efficacy can be specific to a particular task or situation, although that is not the level of analysis used in this research. Generally, those with higher levels of coping self-efficacy persist for longer periods of time and across different organizational contexts because they believe their prior accomplishments and experiences will help them avert future failure. Furthermore, they believe what future set-backs might occur are temporary in nature (Bandura, 1977; 1997).

Although much of human functioning is *autonomic* (e.g., things, like heartbeats, that we do not volitionally direct), Tolman (1951), contended, however, that we pay disproportionate attention to those things we think we can control. Furthermore, we carefully consider our actions and the possible outcomes (both positive and negative) (Tolman, 1951). In essence, individuals calculate what they think is in their best interests and do that which enhances the possibility of attaining desired outcomes. Concomitantly, as expectancy theory predicts, we avoid things that lead to negative anticipated consequences (Tolman, 1951; Vroom, 1964). Tolman (1951) proposed that highly functioning, cognitive, species, (e.g., this study's respondents) for the most part, understand their situations and engage in behaviors that, based on prior experience, they believe will benefit them. In terms of established management theory, findings indicated that employees' behaving accordingly constitute a potent mechanism by which both organizations and employees achieve desired goals, if coupled with desired rewards (Vroom, 1964; Luthans & Kreitner, 1985; Dickinson & Poling, 1996).

Bandura (1977; 1997; 2001) contended that efficacy expectations differ across three dimensions: magnitude, strength and generality. Furthermore, each of these dimensions predicts different motivational consequences. Magnitude purports individuals' efficacy expectations are a result of task difficulty. As such, successes on complex tasks have a stronger bearing on individuals' levels of self-efficacy than easy ones (Bandura, 1977; 1997; 2001). The strength dimension of self-efficacy contends that those who believe strongly that they can overcome obstacles, persevere longer than others who do not. The third dimension of self-efficacy describes individuals' differing notions of generality. For example, coping with very straining experiences (e.g., the professional difficulties of single parenthood, the loss of a job, the death of a spouse and divorce) promotes generalized efficacy whereas dealing with less complicated situations (e.g., fixing a computer problem) promotes the more limited notion of task-specific self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; 1997; 2001).

Contemporary scholars are somewhat at odds about what best promotes self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1977; 1997; 2001), content mastery most directly promotes self-efficacy. As such, skill acquisition is likely to bolster beliefs of future skill acquisition/mastery which could continue indefinitely. Theoretically then, assessing self-efficacy must relate to task measurement (Weigand & Stockham, 2000). As such, self-efficacy changes based on both environment and task. However, Weigand and Stockham (2000) contended that only a portion of individuals' efficacy expectations, carry over between specific tasks. Other researchers contended that self-efficacy is a trait-like feature which remains stable and predicts individuals' behaviors for long periods of time and in different contexts (Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullen, 2000; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). Because of both the extended time periods and multitude of potential contextual engagements common to contemporary careers, this research utilizes the general notion "coping" self-efficacy when testing its hypotheses.

Social learning theory proposed that observing others and the outcomes of their behaviors can enhance self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; 1997; 2001). In fact, observing coworkers completing tasks, particularly when they are rewarded, promotes individuals' beliefs that they could perform similarly (Weiss, 1990; Blau, 1964). Another way to affect self-efficacy is to provide feedback. Whether positive or negative, the important sources of feedback at work are usually coworkers or supervisors (Weiss, 1990). Although not uniformly positive, feedback is particularly potent for new or inexperienced employees who use it as a point of reflection for many of their initial behaviors. That has important implications for ensuing levels of self-efficacy (Merton, 1968; Darley & Gross, 2000). In fact, this initial information can form the basis of a self-fulfilling prophecy (Merton, 1968).

Recent findings related to social cognitive behavior noted that self-efficacy lies at the root of transformational, adaptive, human development and harmful impulse control (Ayub, Kokkalis, & Hasan, 2017; Wright, 2004). Furthermore, it promotes leadership potential. A key element of institutional fit, self-efficacy and social cognitive behaviors relate to the development of "self-leadership". This is a process of self-influence, self-direction and self-motivation needed for optimal functioning within the organizational context (Goldsby, Kuratko, Hornsby, Houghton, & Neck, 2007; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Self-leadership involves self-talk, intrinsic motivation, gauging one's beliefs or assumptions and imagining successful performance (Furtner, Rauthmann, & Sachse, 2010). Ayub et al (2017), found that self-leadership predicted better employee performance and institutional fit. Because individuals' ruminations about how to succeed in their workplace is also influenced by what they see others doing, it makes sense that self-efficacy and self-leadership affect their expectancies. Due to the potential of enhanced institutional fit, social cognitive theory shapes what people value from their work (i.e., valence), what behaviors they engage in because they anticipate a positive outcome (i.e., expectancy) and how fitting in promotes future rewards or alleviates uncertainties (i.e., instrumentality) (Ayub et al., 2017; Vroom, 1964). Savickas (2005) offered another contemporary contribution to the vocational development literature, the Career Construction Theory (CCT). It is primarily concerned with how we *contextualize* (i.e., a view that stresses the meaning of any given statement or question is derived from its environmental surroundings) vocational development across organizations and time.

Much of the research using CCT involves the study of how employees draw upon their self-regulatory stores in order to cope with perceived current or future vocational demands (Duffy, Douglass, & Autin, 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). It stresses, career adaptability (i.e., individuals' coping resources for vocational tasks). Duffy et al. (2015) contended that adaptability is a set of strengths that affects how employees navigate their working environments. Career adaptability is comprised of four distinct factors: curiosity, control, confidence, and concern (Savickas, 2005). Concern relates to how willing employees are to prepare for their future careers. Control describes the amount of responsibility employees believe they have for shaping their future careers. Curiosity involves self-exploration and environmental scanning for future potential occupational choices. Lastly, confidence describes the degree to which individuals believe they can overcome vocational barriers (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Theoretically then, CCT is also driven by self-efficacy. If individuals believe they have no control, will not explore, do not think they will achieve, or do not care about their working futures, it is unlikely they will try hard and, thus, appropriately embed within organizations. Furthermore, lacking that embeddedness, it is doubtful that they would experience much career success.

Traditional and Contemporary Definitions of Career Success- Objectivity versus Subjectivity

Traditionally, organizational success was defined by an "individual's relationship to an employing organization" (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). This view of success is basically monolithic in that it emphasized upward progression in return for high levels of commitment between the employee and the employer. This employment relationship might be described as both a relational a psychological contract (Herriot & Pemberton, 1966; Rousseau, 1995). Historically, employees wanted security and

predictability and were willing to pledge loyalty, perseverance and commitment to the organization in return (Baruch, 2004). This traditional model supposes a narrow definition of career success that prioritizes achievement in terms of steady vertical hierarchical mobility, and the accumulation of personal wealth and/or other extrinsic rewards (Zaleska & Menezes, 2007). These types of rewards can easily be quantified and, thus, objectively defined. This view of career success imbued both the popular ethos and academic career literature in the years following the second world war. Indeed, most organizational structures at the time also facilitated it (Sullivan, 1999). This relatively stable model of careers helped define and promote objective career success. Objective success as it typically pervaded the western developed economies of North America and Europe, was bounded by the attainment of organizationally provided and constrained rewards (e.g., relatively good base pay, job security, incremental increases and promotions) (Nicholson, 2000).

By contrast, Hall and Foster (1977) proposed that new career models redefine success and emphasize psychological responses to work which involve multiple measures of achievement (e.g., career success). That fundamentally shifts the dimensions of success from strictly objective to somewhat subjective. Since the early 1980s, globalization, diminishing job security, the decreasing influence of labor unions, corporate downsizings and changing definitions of proper career management have combined to alter what employees think success is (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). A hallmark of this change relates to movement away from longer-term oriented contracts (i.e., psychological and relational contracts) to more short-term ones (i.e., transactional contracts). A transactional contract alters the relationship between the employee and employer drastically in that instead trading commitment for stability, workers must be flexible in order to build their own skills to meet changing organizational needs as well as to remain viable in the labor market (Herriot & Pemberton, 1966; Baruch, 2004; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010). Concomitant changes in these contracting styles forged new perspectives on career management and understanding of what constitutes success. The two most widely recognized of these frameworks are the *protean* and *boundaryless* career conceptualizations (Greenhaus et al., 2010).

The boundaryless perspective emphasizes that careers take a “range of forms” rather than any single (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). As such, careers are not bounded by a single standard of excellence and have less hierarchical coordination and stability (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Thus, the boundaryless career places the ownership of careers primarily in the hands of individuals rather than organizations. It also involves frequent inter-organizational mobility/assignment (Parker & Arthur, 2000). Parker and Arthur (2000) further suggested that de-emphasizing extrinsic and objective measures altered conceptualizations of career success. The protean career is conceptually similar to the boundaryless career (Hall, 1996). The protean orientation describes a mindset related to careers where individuals’ values drive their career behaviors (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). By contrast, the boundaryless model involves boundary-crossing behaviors. For example, boundaryless organizations try to eliminate barriers like functional silos (e.g., the lack of cross training and communication between operations and marketing) and to reduce the distinctions between the firm and its environment (e.g., moving employees between a parent company and joint venture or subsidiary) (Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, & Kerr, 1995; Baruch, 2004). The protean career requires a self-directed and values-driven approach to career management (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). In other words, protean employees seek jobs that fulfill multiple internal, subjectively important values. Ultimately, under these circumstances, individuals must be accountable for managing their own careers. Specifically, they evaluate competing options, plan their working engagements and make the subsequent decisions as necessary (Hall & Mirvis, 1996). The protean careerist’s choices and search for self-fulfillment are the essential drivers of psychological success. Success in this respect comes from skill accumulation and the experiences gained in multiple organizational and occupational contexts that span many different jobs (Baruch, 2004).

Arthur and colleagues proposed that three pillars, they called career competencies, predict success in a boundaryless organization (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1997). DeFillippi and

Aurthur (1994) defined these competencies as marketability of skills (knowing-how), career motivation and proper identification of fields and career (knowing-why) and career-related networking (knowing-whom). Further, employees in the boundaryless career should maintain a high degree of flexibility in managing their careers and should strive to make decisions based on their value system (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1996). If they can do this, then in multiple organizations, some of their own, they are likely to find what they value and, thus, defines their success.

Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness constitutes a wide range of employee behaviors and situations that both predict individuals' centrality and mobility as well as their proclivity/vulnerability to turnover (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). Embeddedness contains three distinct components. They are the *links* individuals have to other and their organizations/communities, the degree to which they *fit* in those firms and their jobs and the degree to which they believe they would *sacrifice* if they moved from their current circumstance into another. These dimensions can relate to both communities or organizations. Links can be both formal and informal connections between individuals and others or their organizations (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski Burton, & Holtom, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Linkages exist between employees, family members and community organizations. Links are somewhat analogous to network associations. The greater numbers of links between individuals and others in the network, the more they can exercise position power and the higher their level of continuance commitment (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Prior research suggested individuals also experienced considerable normative pressure (i.e., feelings that individuals should remain committed out of a sense of obligation) to stay at a job. The sources of that pressure are mostly family members, friends and other close confidants at work (March & Simon, 1958; Maertz, Stevens, & Campion, 2003).

Indeed, this is a key component of both how organizations and individuals define what it means to be socially integrated (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989). Meyer and Allen (1997) and Abelson (1987) contended that linkages form the basis of continuance commitment. In other words, multiple, strong, linkages, incline individuals to stay where they are due a sense that they must or they stand to lose out because another job/community risks what they already have and value. Specifically, those who are married, older, have more organizational tenure and who have kids are less likely to leave their jobs or communities voluntarily (Abelson, 1987; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Job embeddedness constitutes a notable social influence on employee retention and, further, promotes to careers in both an objective and subjective sense. To the extent that self-efficacy aids individuals define/complete goals on novel tasks, it promotes more linkages because organizations value those contributions and, thus, enhances career success (Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001). Objective career success increases by upward progression and subjective career success by the accumulation of marketable knowledge, skills and abilities.

Hypothesis 1a: Embeddedness-links mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success.

Hypothesis 2a: Embeddedness-links mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success.

Fit describes employees' similarity to others in the firm (e.g., in terms of values and priorities), organizational compatibility and congruence within the environment (Mallol et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2004). Furthermore, employees' terminal career goals (i.e., end state) and intermediate goals (i.e., intervening steps) must "fit" the corporate culture to achieve objective career success (Mallol, et al, 2007; Greenhaus et al., 2010; Royle, 2015). Naturally, individuals also consider attributes of the community and environment as a whole. The theory of job embeddedness postulates that the tighter the fit between

individuals and their organizations the less voluntary turnover occurs and the more quickly those who do not fit resign (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1997). Other authors noted this relationship also exists with involuntary turnover and fit (e.g., Chatman, 1991; Chan, 1996; Villanova, Bernardin, Johnson, & Dahmus, 1994). In other words, those who do not fit are the most likely to be terminated. Thus, individuals' fit with their jobs and the organizations constitute a set of attachments that promote career advancement, if for no other reason than it is impossible to have a career without holding a job first.

Mitchell et al. (2001) contended that fit also applies to the notion of community. Individuals differentially evaluate how well they like the weather or cultural amenities in an area in addition to their work and organizations (Mallol, et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). Furthermore, local politics, lifestyle choices (e.g., a love of outdoor activities), religious affiliations and entertainment vary by location but matter to individuals (Mitchell et al., 2001; Callanan, 2003). The assessment of one's fit with the community, however, can be independent of either person-job or person-environment fit (e.g., I enjoy being a professor but I do not enjoy summers in Georgia). Relocation usually requires employees to reassess this dimension of fit, but it is not necessarily a detriment to either community fit (e.g., they might be better suited to their new locations) or either subjective or objective career success (Baruch, 2004; Greenhaus et al., 2010; Royle, 2015). As noted above, self-efficacy enhances both person-job fit and person-organization fit. Employees tend to better like and readily accept others who fit (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991). That has powerful implications for what kinds of outcomes those who fit should expect vis-à-vis those who do not. For example, those who fit likely have better promotion, training and earning opportunities (Dulebohn, Wu, & Liao, 2017). These opportunities directly promote objective career success. Feelings of belonging and involvement might also enhance subjective career success, to the extent that individuals value being members of the organization and maintaining social affiliations therein.

Hypothesis 1b: Embeddedness-fit mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success.

Hypothesis 2b: Embeddedness-fit mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success.

Sacrifice captures the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits individuals might forfeit by leaving their jobs or communities. For example, leaving an organization likely intones perceived personal losses (e.g., giving up colleagues, interesting projects or desirable perquisites). The more employees give up when leaving, the more difficult it is to sever ties with the organization (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998). Furthermore, losing some non-portable benefits (e.g., stock options or defined benefit pension plans) also involve sacrifices. These latter factors related negatively to turnover, in that employees were less likely to seek other employment (Gupta & Jenkins, 1980). Other potential individual sacrifices for vacating one's position, included reduced opportunities for job stability and advancement (Shaw et al., 1998). Naturally, this notion of sacrifice also strongly correlates with concept of continuous commitment (Mitchell et al., 2001).

The relationship between self-efficacy, embeddedness and career success is neither as clear nor straightforward in the case of sacrifice. Self-efficacy, as noted above, encourages behaviors that promote both fit and strong linkages. To the extent that those actions also put individuals in positions within the hierarchy where they could experience a loss by leaving, it would promote objective career success because employees then avoid being in between jobs. Periods of joblessness, by definition, inhibit upward advancement and higher wages and, as such, hinder objective career success. On the other hand, those same behaviors that led to employees' relative positions of importance (i.e., higher levels of embeddedness) also make them more attractive to the outside job market. Concomitantly, sacrifice might

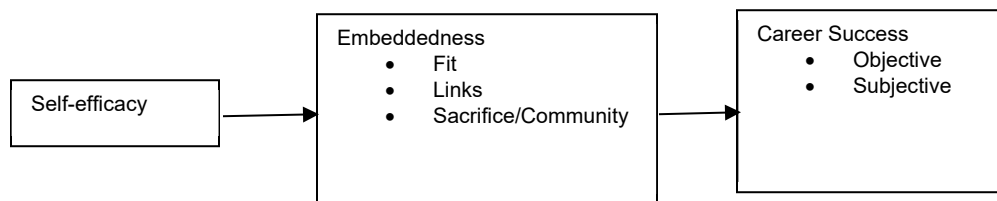
be desirable by protean employees because they make a risk v. reward comparison and believe that taking a chance on turning over might lead to better subjective opportunities for career success elsewhere.

Hypothesis 1c: Embeddedness-sacrifice mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success.

Hypothesis 2c: Embeddedness-sacrifice mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success.

In Figure 1, the author illustrates and summarizes this study's hypothesized relationships.

Figure 1: Model of the Mediating Effect of Embeddedness on the Self-efficacy-career Success Relationship



DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The author collected these data in 2016. This is a convenience sample gathered from individuals with at least three years full-time working experience in multiple different organizations. The potential for contaminating effects caused by comparisons across organizational contexts and cultures cannot be entirely eliminated in this research (Schwab, 1999). Nevertheless, the potential tumult in the contemporary labor market, even in a time of low unemployment, might make these findings applicable to a wide variety of employees (Baruch, 2004; Greenhaus et al., 2010).

Participants and Procedures

These data come from a collection effort conducted by the researcher in the spring and summer of 2016. Students enrolled in courses in organizational behavior and human resource management received extra credit for participation. Students who had been working for the equivalent of three years of full time, could answer questionnaires. If students did not meet that criterion, they could solicit help from friends or family members to fill out a survey on their behalf. The author used Qualtrics to collect and analyze raw data. The author generated a web address for respondents to access in order to complete the survey. Of course, not all eligible students took part in this data collection, probably because they were either not interested in this study's topics or did not need any extra credit. The author recorded contact information, names, telephone numbers, employer information and work history (in order to hedge the risk that ineligible students participated). The author instructed respondents that he reserved the right to contact them or their employers to verify eligibility. When the researcher concluded the survey period, 360 individuals started the survey. Of those, 303 (84%) completed it. There were 180 female respondents (59%), the average age was 36 and the average organizational tenure was seven years. Respondent occupations included salespeople, nurses, teachers and managers.

Measures

First, the author conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to verify the expected dimensionality of the variables based on their predicted loadings (Pallant, 2013). This process ascertains that the number of

factors and the indicator variables do not deviate from expected parameters based on prior research (Pallant, 2013). CFA can also help address problems of multicollinearity (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). The author conducted the factor analysis using an oblique rotation and kept factors using the Kaiser criterion (i.e. keeping only those components with eigenvalues over 1.0) (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001; Kaiser, 1974). The author used the oblique or “oblimin” rotation because he believed some of the constructs of interest are correlated. For example, it makes theoretical sense that individuals could be simultaneously linked to both their communities and organizations and would experience a sense of sacrifice should they leave due to both (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992).

The correlational analysis included in Table 1 supported the presumed factor structure. The scales used in this research indicated acceptable dimensionality. The results of analysis of CFA indicated a single factor structure for subjective career success (eigenvalue = 3.63, proportion of explained variance = 0.73), objective career success (eigenvalue = 1.96, proportion of explained variance = 0.65) and self-efficacy (eigenvalue = 2.51, proportion of explained variance = 0.50). As expected, the factor structure for embeddedness broke into three distinct eigenvalues over 1.0 due to the three factored structure of the construct. The first factor relates to fit (eigenvalue = 5.72, proportion of explained variance = 0.36), the second links (eigenvalue = 2.33, proportion of explained variance = 0.15) and the third sacrifice (eigenvalue = 1.74, proportion of explained variance = 0.11). Appendix 1 presents this information as well as noting these scales’ original authors and coefficient alpha values. *Control variables.* This research includes several control variables intended to reduce the potential for spurious effects, thus, enhancing the findings. This research controlled for age, gender, ethnicity and organizational tenure. The author included these due to their long-observed contaminating potential for research in social and organizational science (Sheridan & Vredenburgh, 1978; Greenhaus et al., 2010).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the researcher used Baron and Kenny’s (1986) three-step regression procedure to test for mediation. This analysis requires researchers to conduct three lock step, sequential, regressions. Thus, the researcher must demonstrate a significant relationship before taking the next step. First, demonstrate that the mediating variable significantly relates to the independent variable (i.e., the three different dimensions of embeddedness, and control variables regressed on self-efficacy). Second, show that the dependent relates to the independent variable (i.e., controls, subjective and objective career success regressed on self-efficacy). In the last step, the mediating variable must significantly relate to dependent variable with the independent variable included in the equation (i.e., career success regressed on both self-efficacy and embeddedness). If, sequentially, these conditions hold, at least partial mediation is present (Baron & Kenny, 1986). If, in the final step, the independent variable becomes insignificant as noted by the standardized beta weight) but the mediator remains significant, full mediation exists. If the independent variable has a significant but a reduced standardized beta weight (especially if associated significance levels drop) in the third step and the mediator remains significant as well, then a case of partial mediation exists.

Table 1 contains the means, standard deviations and correlations between the study’s variables. Not surprisingly, the largest single correlation was between age and organizational tenure ($r = 0.63$, $p < 0.001$). The author does not suspect problems of multicollinearity because no correlation, except the relationship noted above, exceeds Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken’s (2013) problematic 0.60 threshold.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	36.49	13.42	---									
2. Gender	---	---	-0.12	---								
3. Ethnicity	---	---	-0.19	0.03	---							
4. Tenure	7.37	8.02	0.63	0.08	-0.20	---						
5. Self-Efficacy	3.97	0.69	-0.07	-0.03	0.03	0.49	---					
6. Embed (Fit)	3.95	0.91	0.27	-0.03	0.18	0.38	0.19	---				
7. Embed (Links)	3.75	1.02	0.17	-0.09	0.18	0.06	0.30	0.3	---			
8. Embed (Com)	3.80	1.07	0.26	-0.09	-0.06	0.07	0.19	0.39	0.03	---		
9. Sub. Success	3.71	0.82	0.21	-0.06	-0.01	-0.07	0.23	0.51	0.27	0.37	---	
10. Ob. Success	3.75	1.07	0.16	-0.17	-0.17	-0.03	0.28	0.37	0.12	0.19	0.41	---

*Significance levels of all **bolded** correlations are significant to at least the 0.05 level $N = 303$

The researcher performed Baron and Kenny's (1986) the three-step regression analysis to test for mediation. In all steps, the author added control variables (i.e., age, ethnicity, organizational tenure and gender) to the regression equations in order to create a more stringent test of the hypotheses. Table 2a lists the results of the study's first step. Self-efficacy was significantly related to the fit dimension of embeddedness ($b = 0.27, p < 0.001$). Due to that finding, the researcher proceeded to the second step. The second panel indicated that self-efficacy is significantly related to the dependent variable (objective career success) ($b = 0.24, p < 0.001$). Self-efficacy explained 24% of the variance in objective career success. In step three of Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure, the mediating variable (i.e., embeddedness-fit) must be statistically significantly related to the dependent variable (objective career success) when the independent variable (self-efficacy) is added to the equation. The data indicated that embeddedness-fit was still a strong predictor ($b = 0.31, p < 0.001$) of objective career success, but that the influence of self-efficacy weakened but remained significant ($b = 0.16, p < 0.01$). Baron and Kenny (1986) contended that when the standardized beta weight drops and/or fails to be significant, the relationship between the variables is partially mediated. Such is the case in this sample. Embeddedness-fit partially mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success.

The following mediated regression equation measured the relationship between self-efficacy, fit and objective career success.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Objective Career Success} = & \beta_1 \text{age} + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{tenure} + \beta_4 \text{ethnicity} \\
 & + \beta_5 \text{fit} + \beta_5 \text{objective success}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{1}$$

Table 2a: Mediation Results for Self-efficacy and Embeddedness-fit on Objective Career Success

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (Standard)
Mediator: Embed-fit Self-efficacy	6.69***	5	0.09	0.27***
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: Ob Career Success Self-efficacy	7.60***	5	0.10	0.24***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (Job Satisfaction) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: Ob Career Success Embed-fit Self-efficacy	7.71***	6	0.18	0.31*** 0.16**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ N=303 The panels of this table denote the steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that the relationship between the self-efficacy and objective career success weakens substantially in the presence of embeddedness-fit, thus, partial mediation occurs.

The first panel in Table 2b displays the results for the study’s hypothesis that embeddedness-links mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success. Results indicated in the first step that embeddedness-links, was significantly related to self-efficacy ($b = 0.30, p < 0.001$). Thus, the researcher takes the second step. The table’s second panel indicated that self-efficacy is significantly related to the dependent variable (objective career success) ($b = 0.24, p < 0.001$). Self-efficacy, again, explained 24% of the variance in objective career success. Baron and Kenny’s (1986) third step of the procedure requires the mediating variable (i.e., embeddedness-links) to be related to the dependent variable (objective career success) with the independent variables (self-efficacy and the statistical controls) included in the equation. The third step, indicated in the last panel of Table 2b, notes the results. Notably, embeddedness-links was a strong predictor ($b = 0.52, p < .001$) of objective career success, but self-efficacy still proved statistically insignificant ($b = 0.07, p$ N/S) when entered in the equation. Baron and Kenny (1986) noted the lack of statistical significance in this step of the independent variable indicates a fully mediated condition. In other words, all of objective career success’ demonstrated variance from self-efficacy channels through the links dimension of embeddedness.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Objective Career Success} = & \beta_1 \text{age} + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{tenure} + \beta_4 \text{ethnicity} \\
 & + \beta_5 \text{links} + \beta_6 \text{objective success}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

Table 2b: Mediation Results for Self-efficacy and Embeddedness-links on Objective Career Success

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (Standard)
Mediator: Embed-links Self-efficacy	9.15***	5	0.13	0.32***
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: Ob Career Success Self-efficacy	7.60***	5	0.10	0.24***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (Job Satisfaction) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: Ob Career Success Embed-links Self-efficacy	7.71***	6	0.34	0.52*** 0.07 N/S

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ N=303 The panels of this table denote the steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that the relationship between the self-efficacy and objective career success fails to be significant in the presence of embeddedness-links, thus, full mediation occurs.

Table 2c lists the results of the first step. Self-efficacy was significantly related to the sacrifice dimension of embeddedness ($b = 0.22, p < 0.001$). Accordingly, the researcher proceeded to the second step. The second panel indicated that self-efficacy is significantly related to the dependent variable (objective career success) ($b = 0.24, p < 0.001$). Again, self-efficacy explained 24% of the variance in objective career success. In step three of Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure, the mediating variable (i.e., embeddedness-community) must be statistically significantly related to the dependent variable (objective career success) when the independent variable (self-efficacy) is added to the equation. The data indicated that embeddedness-community sacrifice was still a strong predictor ($b = 0.12, p < 0.05$) of objective career success, but that the influence of self-efficacy weakened but remained significant ($b = 0.20, p < 0.01$). As above, when the standardized beta weight drops and/or fails to be significant, the relationship between the variables is partially mediated. Such is the case in this sample. Embeddedness-community/sacrifice partially mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Objective Career Success} = & \beta_1 \text{age} + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{tenure} + \beta_4 \text{ethnicity} \\ & + \beta_5 \text{sacrifice} + \beta_5 \text{objective success} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Table 2c: Mediation Results for Self-efficacy and Embeddedness-sacrifice on Objective Career Success

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (Standard)
Mediator: Embed-com Self-efficacy	7.32***	5	0.10	0.22**
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: Ob Career Success Self-efficacy	7.60***	5	0.10	0.24***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (Job Satisfaction) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: Ob Career Success Embed-com Self-efficacy	7.71***	6	0.11	0.12* 0.22**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ N=303 The panels of this table denote the steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that the relationship between the self-efficacy and objective career success weakens in the presence of embeddedness-com, thus, partial mediation occurs.

Table 3a lists the results of the hypothesis that fit mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success. Self-efficacy was significantly related to the fit dimension of embeddedness ($b = 0.27, p < 0.001$). Due to that finding, the researcher proceeded to the second step. The second panel indicated that self-efficacy is significantly related to the dependent variable (subjective career success) ($b = 0.30, p < 0.001$). Self-efficacy explained 13% of the variance in subjective career success. In step three of Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure, the mediating variable (i.e., embeddedness-fit) must be statistically significantly related to the dependent variable (subjective career success) when the independent variable (self-efficacy) is added to the equation. The data indicated that embeddedness-fit was still a strong predictor ($b = 0.30, p < 0.001$) of subjective career success, but that the influence of self-efficacy weakened yet remained significant ($b = 0.20, p < 0.01$). As noted above when the standardized beta weight drops and/or fails to be significant, the relationship between the variables is partially mediated (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This is the case in these data. Embeddedness-fit partially mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Subjective Career Success} = & \beta_1 \text{age} + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{tenure} + \beta_4 \text{ethnicity} \\ & + \beta_5 \text{fit} + \beta_5 \text{subjective success} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Table 3a: Mediation Results for Self-efficacy and Embeddedness-fit on Subjective Career Success

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (Standard)
Mediator: Embed-fit Self-efficacy	6.69***	5	0.09	0.27**
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: Sub Career Success Self-efficacy	9.30***	5	0.13	0.30***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (Job Satisfaction) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: Sub Career Success Embed-fit Self-efficacy	7.71***	6	0.18	0.46*** 0.20**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ N=303 The panels of this table denote the steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that the relationship between the self-efficacy and subjective career success weakens in the presence of embeddedness-fit, thus, partial mediation occurs.

Table 3b displays the results for the study’s hypothesis that embeddedness-links mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success. Results indicated in the first step that embeddedness-links, was significantly related to self-efficacy ($b = 0.30, p < 0.001$). Thus, the researcher takes the second step. The table’s second panel indicated that self-efficacy is significantly related to the dependent variable (subjective career success) ($b = 0.29, p < 0.001$). Self-efficacy explained 13% of the variance in subjective career success. Baron and Kenny’s (1986) third step of the procedure requires the mediating variable (i.e., embeddedness-links) to be related to the dependent variable (i.e., objective career success) with the independent variables (self-efficacy and the statistical controls) included in the equation. The third step, indicated in the last panel of Table 3b, notes the results. Embeddedness-links predicted $b = 0.37, p < .001$ of subjective career success self-efficacy still proved statistically non-significant ($b = 0.18, p < 0.01$) when entered in the equation. Again, in these data, embeddedness-links partially mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and objective career success

$$\text{Subjective Career Success} = \beta_1 \text{age} + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{tenure} + \beta_4 \text{ethnicity} + \beta_5 \text{links} + \beta_5 \text{subjective success} \tag{5}$$

Table 3b: Mediation Results for Self-efficacy and Embeddedness-links on Subjective Career Success

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (Standard)
Mediator: Embed-links Self-efficacy	9.15***	5	0.13	0.30***
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: Sub Career Success Self-efficacy	9.30***	5	0.13	0.29***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (Job Satisfaction) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: Sub Career Success Embed-links Self-efficacy	15.80***	6	0.24	0.37*** 0.18**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ N=303 The panels of this table denote the steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that the relationship between the self-efficacy and subjective career success weakens considerably in the presence of embeddedness-links, thus, partial mediation occurs.

Table 3c presents the results of the last hypothesized relationship. Self-efficacy related significantly to the community sacrifice dimension of embeddedness ($b = 0.22, p < 0.001$). Again, the researcher proceeded to the second step. The second panel indicated that self-efficacy is significantly related to the dependent variable (objective career success) ($b = 0.30, p < 0.001$). Again, self-efficacy explained 13%

of the variance in subjective career success. The last step of Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure, indicated that the mediating variable (i.e., embeddedness-community) was statistically significantly related to the dependent variable (subjective career success) when the independent variable (self-efficacy) is added to the equation. The data indicated that embeddedness-community was still a strong predictor ($b = 0.12, p < 0.001$) of subjective career success, and that the influence of self-efficacy weakened but remained significant ($b = 0.24, p < 0.001$). As above, when the standardized beta weight drops and/or fails to be significant, the relationship between the variables is partially mediated. Such is the case in this sample. Embeddedness-community/sacrifice partially mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success.

$$\text{Subjective Career Success} = \beta_1 \text{age} + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{tenure} + \beta_4 \text{ethnicity} + \beta_5 \text{sacrifice} + \beta_5 \text{subjective success} \quad (6)$$

Table 3c: Mediation Results for Self-efficacy and Embeddedness-sacrifice on Subjective Career Success

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (Standard)
Mediator: Embed-com Self-efficacy	7.32***	5	0.10	0.22***
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: Sub Career Success Self-efficacy	9.30***	5	0.13	0.30 ***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (Job Satisfaction) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: Sub Career Success Embed-com Self-efficacy	12.47***	6	0.20	0.29*** 0.24***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ N=303 The panels of this table denote the steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that the relationship between the self-efficacy and subjective career success weakens in the presence of embeddedness-sacrifice, thus, partial mediation occurs.

Theoretical Implications

This work enhances three different but not incongruent constructs: career success, embeddedness and self-efficacy. Currently little research linked self-efficacy to embeddedness and how its different factors (i.e., fit, links and community/sacrifice) interrelate to promote both objective and subjective career success. These data indicated that, indeed, self-efficacy promoted all three dimensions of embeddedness. Prior research on self-efficacy (e.g., Royle, 2010) noted its relationship to the self-concept. This is the view that individuals have of themselves as social, physical and spiritual beings. The self-concept consists of two distinct dimensions; self-esteem and self-efficacy (Brockner, 1988). As such, showing embeddedness's relationship to self-efficacy and its potential to promote career well-being uniquely and informatively bolsters the construct of the self-concept and its utility.

This research also bolsters the state of organizational studies related to the global facet of self-efficacy. The data suggest that not only did self-efficacy enhance career engagement and, ultimately, success, that relationship is also either wholly or partially mediated by embeddedness (Kim, Jang, Jung, Puig, & Lee, 2012; Royle, 2015). The influence of these two variables (i.e., self-efficacy and embeddedness) on both objective and subjective career success suggested that, individually, they both enhanced career success. Specifically, however, self-efficacy alone will not predict objective career success if individuals are not structurally linked tightly with others. This finding reinforces tradition models of career success (Baruch, 2004; Greenhaus et al., 2010). In all cases, at least partial mediation occurred in these data which indicates that, indeed, belief in one's capabilities can directly bolster earnings, organizational stores of power and the enjoyment gleaned from work (i.e., objective and subjective success).

Managerial Implications

These findings are relevant to employees in a variety of occupations. These data reaffirm the potency of self-efficacy as a promoter of proactive work and career-related behaviors (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Weiner, 2012; Royle, 2015) and further engage individuals in their organizations. This research further affirms choice theory (Glasser, 2010) which posited that assessing employees' abilities and providing them with opportunities to deploy and augment them can be more effective in enhancing employment potential than relying pay or promotion. This helps further validate the utility of contemporary career perspectives (e.g., the Protean and boundaryless framework) because individuals usually pursue interests across functional boundaries, both within and between, organizations throughout their careers and, thus, promote subjective career success (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, Greenhaus et al., 2010).

Kim et al. (2012), noted that employees with high self-efficacy and significant tenure in a single organization, objectively enhanced their careers when offered occupational counseling and career camps. To the extent that such information and experiences relate to skill development and deployment, this research indicates that they are essential to objective career success. Indeed, this contention is based on the fully mediated regression model described previously. Put simply, these data suggest that those who believe in their abilities (with reason), are given training to enhance their skills, will achieve greater objective career success (i.e., better earnings, more position power and loftier levels in the hierarchy).

A practical concern for educators preparing students to go into the working world as well as interviewers, relates to these findings and Raccanello's (2015) work on the relationship between self-efficacy and the employment interview. Her findings indicated that both generalized self-efficacy and job market experience influenced emotional reactions to job interviews (Racanello, 2015). They were linked to more consistent expression of positive emotions and feelings of capability while, simultaneously, suppressing displays of hostility or mistrust (Racanello, 2015). Interviewers should remain aware of the relative inexperience of some candidates and select techniques that help bolster self-efficacy. If the intent of the interview is to select and place a person who fits, who might become linked and could feel embedded in the organizational community, there might be some better practices in interviewing. Specifically, use unstructured interviews for experienced employees familiar with the work, use situational or semi-structured interviews for eager novices and match new entrants based on structured interviews (e.g., Rue, Ibrahim, & Byars, 2011). These approaches are likely to enhance self-efficacy, increase the probability that new employees will fit, be linked and feel a sense of community. If practitioners do this, it will likely bolster the careers of those employees.

Limitations and Future Research

Steelman, Hammer and Limayem (2014) noted the unrelenting pressure to publish created a glut of researchers who compete for limited data collection opportunities. Obviously, however, an amenable student population might be available (Steelman et al., 2014). As early as Campbell and Stanley's (1963) work, researchers treated student samples with suspicion due a perceived lack of generalizability (i.e., "ecological validity") and because they feared students might differ meaningfully from the population as a whole. This data set, admittedly, contains some student respondents. However, the impact of student responses in these data was not likely strong given that there were very few and those who were included also worked full-time for a period of at least three years. The probably dampens most threats to the ecological validity of the results. Nevertheless, these effects cannot be entirely ruled out. Despite ongoing, legitimate, concerns about generalizability Gordon, Slade and Schmitt (1986) noted that a preponderance of social psychology research, nearly 75% of publications, used student respondents. For research purposes, Greenberg (1987) subsequently contended that in most cases student respondents did not meaningfully differ from the population at large. One potentially confounding issue with this study relates to the level at which self-efficacy it measured. Bandura (1977, 1997; Weiner, 2012) noted the

difference between collective efficacy and personal efficacy. Personal efficacy relates to individuals' calculations about the likelihood of success for their intended behaviors. Collective efficacy connotes group beliefs about the potency of joint behaviors. Britner and Pajares (2006) postulated that group success occurs mostly in conditions of high collective efficacy. These data consist of measures of personal-self efficacy. It is likely that individuals work in groups at times, for better or worse, and that might impact the degree to which they become embedded, or which of those dimensions is most affected. For example, if high personal self-efficacy predicts links and, thus, objective career success (as has been demonstrated here), would high levels of collective self-efficacy promote links in a similar fashion? In other words, would collective self-efficacy be necessary to engender linkages to others the enable objective career success? It is likely. Naturally, more research on employees working collectively, rather than individually in insular jobs, would be necessary.

Prior research indicated that that self-efficacy might not work uniformly across cultures (Heine, Kitayama, Lehman, Takata, Ide, Leung, & Matsumoto 2001; Hofstede, 2003). These authors contended that individuals in collectivist cultures (i.e., those which prioritize group interests over those of individuals) might place a subordinate value on personal self-efficacy (Heine et al., 2001; Hofstede, 2003). For example, the study subjects from a collectivist country (i.e., Japan) who initially underperformed on assignments, persisted longer than those succeeded when given the same task (Heine et al., 2001). Their findings indicated that underperforming employees in the United States and Canada spent less time attempting to catch up to their successful peers than the floundering Japanese employees spent pursuing to theirs (Heine et al. 2001). This suggests that Japanese employees prioritize and adjust to performance decrements (as defined by supervisors) more readily. Ostensibly, they do so in order to fit better in their organizations. Given these differing cultural constraints, future research should attempt to further describe how self-efficacy behaves cross-culturally. It seems clear from Heine et al., (2001) that personal v. collective self-efficacy works differently. As such, it would be interesting to examine if personal self-efficacy or collective efficacy better predicts fit or links in organizations in collectivist cultures (e.g., China and Japan). Given the propensity of collectivist cultures to value life-time employment and retirement security (Kato, 2001; Baruch, 2004), it would be interesting to see if those with higher levels of personal self-efficacy or collective self-efficacy would progress more quickly in their careers and whether that would necessarily be objective or subjective success.

Another possible avenue for future investigation involves studying those who do not prioritize being embedded in organizations. Royle and Fox (2016) noted that self-efficacy promoted informally answering for others in their firms and that those individuals were more career engaged. That connotes building linkages as well possibly enhancing fit and feelings of community. In these data embeddedness partially mediated self-efficacy's influence on subjective career success. However, not all respondents could be categorized as "lone wolves". These individuals demonstrate less commitment to organizations and focus on what they want their own careers to be, rather than what might necessary benefit their firms (Griffeth, Gaertner, & Sager, 1999). It is possible that this type of employee might behave differently with respect to self-efficacy and embeddedness. Prior research examined the relationships between lone-wolves in sales jobs and task performance, citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Marshall, 2007). Their work indicated that lone wolves engaged in fewer citizenship behaviors which, in turn, reduced supervisor ratings of task performance. That is likely to hinder objective career success, but it is not clear that it would negatively affect subjective career success. For example, if lone wolves value their independence or individuality more than social belonging or potential income, they might believe that successive similar jobs in different organizations promotes their subjective definition of career success.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This research used a convenience sample of 303 full time employees mostly from Florida, Georgia, South Carolina and Tennessee in the southeast United States. There were 180 female respondents (59%), the average age was 36 and the average full-time working experience was seven years. The sample included nurses, sales professionals, financial service employees and service managers. The data contained some student responses but only those that came from individuals currently working with three years of full-time experience. Of course, there are limitations to this study’s conclusions. For example, based on cultural context, measuring personal self-efficacy rather than collective self-efficacy could belie important differences that predict both subjective and objective career success. Under these circumstances, self-efficacy might differentially predict the dimensions of embeddedness (i.e., fit, links or sacrifice/community) and that could change the metrics of career success. Future research should attempt to better describe these boundary conditions and explore potential moderators. For example, perhaps career engagement (e.g., Kim et al., 2012) might moderate the relationship between self-efficacy and embeddedness. If so, would that have subsequent implications for career success? The objective of this research was to describe the potentially mediating effects of embeddedness on the self-efficacy and career success (both subjective and objective) relationship. This study proffers some modest but important managerial and theoretical contributions. These data indicated self-efficacy predicted embeddedness which, at least partially, enhanced higher self-reported levels of career success.

BIOGRAPHY

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APPENDIX

Scales, Sources, Reliabilities and Factor Analyses

Variable Name	Scale Author	Coefficient A	Eigenvalue of the 1 st Factor	Variance Explained By 1 st Factor (and Subsequent)
Subjective Career Success	Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Wormley, (1990)	0.90	3.63	0.73
Objective Career Success	Abele & Spurk (2009)	0.73	1.96	0.65
Embeddedness	Mitchell, Holtom, Sablinski, & Erez (2001)	0.91	5.72 (2.33) (1.74)	0.36 (0.15) (0.11)
Self-efficacy	Schwarzer & Jerusalem (1995)	0.70	2.51	0.50

The table conveys information related to this study’s variables and the original authors of the scales. Additionally, it specifies the Cronbach’s alpha values for each scale in the sample. Additionally, the Eigenvalue of the first extracted factor and the amount of variance that it accounts for. Note- For multidimensional factors (i.e., embeddedness), all major factors (3) are extruded. All scales utilize a five-point Likert response format anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”.

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