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TELECAREER: ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF
STRATEGIC CAREER BEHAVIOURS ON IBERIAN
TELEWORKERS

Dissertation presented to Universidade Católica Portuguesa to obtain
the master's degree in Psychology in Business and Economics

By

José Diogo de Spinola Moreira de Sotto-Mayor

Faculty of Human Sciences

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Under the supervision of Professor Joana Carneiro Pinto and
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Abstract

This study examines the nature, causes and consequences of using strategic career management behaviours on Iberian teleworkers. The objective of this study is to develop an explanatory model of career self-management for teleworkers, using the Kaleidoscope Careers parameters developed by Sullivan and Maineiro (2008) — authenticity, balance and challenge — as the model's strategic behaviours. This entails examining (a) the role of perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control and perceived organizational control as predictors of strategic career behaviours, and (b) the extent to which strategic behaviours determine perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction. The results of this study are intended to provide a framework for human resource development (HRD) programs, directed at aiding newcomers to telework, as a result of Covid-19 measures.

Keywords: Telecareer; Strategic Career Behaviours; Career Self-Management; Iberian Teleworkers; Covid-19.

Resumo

Este estudo avalia a natureza, causas e consequências da utilização de comportamentos estratégicos de carreira em teletrabalhadores da Península Ibérica. Pretende-se desenvolver um modelo explicativo da gestão pessoal de carreira para teletrabalhadores, utilizando os parâmetros do Modelo Caleidoscópico de Carreira desenvolvido por Sullivan e Maineiro (2008) — autenticidade, equilíbrio e desafio — como principais comportamentos estratégicos de carreira. Neste sentido, analisa-se (a) o papel da perceção de autoeficácia, do desejo de controlo sobre a carreira, e da perceção de apoio organizacional, como preditores dos comportamentos estratégicos de carreira, e (b) em que medida esses comportamentos de estratégia de carreira determinam a perceção de controlo sobre a carreira, o sucesso objetivo e subjetivo de carreira e a satisfação com a carreira. Os resultados deste estudo visam sustentar a criação de programas de desenvolvimento na área dos recursos humanos, com a intenção de ajudar novos teletrabalhadores, como resultado das medidas da Covid-19.

Palavras-chave: Telecarreira; Comportamentos Estratégicos de Carreira; Gestão Pessoal de Carreira; Trabalhadores da Península Ibérica; Covid-19.

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General Introduction

The onset of Covid-19 has led millions of people to adopt telework as their predominant work regime. This has had several implications for the labour market and for individuals, such as increased job insecurity and the perception that it impedes career advancement (Piteira, 2020; Tavares *et al.*, 2020). Due to alleviation of lockdown restrictions, between the summer of 2020 and the spring of 2021, the prevalence of telework has changed: full-time telework has decreased from 34% to 24%; part-time telework¹ has increased from 14% to 18%; and, working in a conventional office space (employer premises) has increased from 52% to 59% (Ahrendt *et al.*, 2021). Nevertheless, this decline in telework does not reflect the increased desire from employees and organizations alike to adopt a more flexible work regime, post Covid-19 (Ahrendt *et al.*, 2021; Ipsen *et al.*, 2021). Several organizations have commenced adopting telework as a permanent work regime, such as Twitter (Dwoskin, 2020, as cited in Ipsen *et al.*, 2021). Legislation has also been adapted to the new work environment, for instance, Portugal has passed a new law (Lei n.º 7/2009, Artigo 199.º do Código do Trabalho) that safeguards the employees time-off from work (i.e., prevents organizations from contacting their employees with work-related information after work-hours).

However, the desire to keep teleworking does not imply that its practice is exempt from complications. The widespread practice of telework has exacerbated certain issues present with its practice, such as employee mental wellbeing,² which has decreased from 53% to 45% across Europe (Ahrendt *et al.*, 2021; OEDC, 2021). This is, in part, due to the lack of government and organizational support for financial, medical and social issues (Ahrendt *et al.*, 2021).

In response to this, the present study aims to develop and empirically test an integrative model that explains the causes and consequences of using career self-management strategies (based on Kaleidoscope Career Model) for Iberian teleworkers. This entails conducting a thorough literature review of (a) the practice of telework, (b) contemporary career concepts and career self-management models, (c) the kaleidoscope career model, and (d) the personality variables associated with strategic career behaviours.

¹ Part-time telework: location of work includes a combination of home and employer's premises (Ahrendt *et al.*, 2021)

² Measured with the Who-5 mental well-being scale (0-100) (Ahrendt *et al.*, 2021)

Chapter 1: Literature Review

1. Telework

1.1. *The Origin and Definition of Teleworking*

The concept of telework can be traced back to the introduction of the term telecommuting by Nilles (1994), as a solution to the fuel crisis of the 1970s (Belzunegui-Eraso & Erro-Garcés, 2020). Nilles (1994) argues that the reduction of the daily commute provided a cost-effective solution to fuel shortages, with the added benefit of workers gaining extra work hours (Piteira, 2020). Soon after, with the introduction of new means of communication and technology (i.e. terminals and word processors), the concept of telework was introduced. Telework also addresses the practice of working away from the conventional office space, except work is conducted via the use of telecommunications equipment and/or computer-based technology (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Piteira, 2020). Hill and colleagues (1998) distinguish the two terms by claiming that telecommuters have a fixed alternate office space (i.e. at home), while teleworkers can work from any given location, due to the flexibility of a virtual office.

Telework is a broad concept (Morganson *et al.*, 2010), from which a variety of categories have emerged, namely, satellite offices, remote work, telecentre work, mobile work, informal work, work from anywhere, and flexible workplace (Tavares *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, in order to prevent any further miscommunication, hereinafter telework shall encompass all these concepts. The presence of several interrelated terms has created problems of definition and ambiguity in the relevant literature about teleworking (Baruch, 2001; Felstead, 1996; McCloskey & Igarria, 2003). This has the adverse effect of (a) creating implicit and explicit assumptions about telework and its practitioners (Bailey & Kurland, 2002) and, (b) preventing the comparison (cross-examination) of data from different studies (Baruch, 2000; McCloskey & Igarria, 2003). For example, studies often fail to make a distinction about frequency with which someone teleworks (Baruch, 2001), or the individual characteristics of the worker (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; McCloskey & Igarria, 2003).

1.2. *The Benefits of Teleworking*

At the organizational level, telework is predominantly seen as a means of reducing real-estate costs (Bailey & Kurland, 2002), albeit, to a certain degree, at the expense of the

employees whom bear the additional costs (Baruch, 2000; Piteira, 2020), such as the consequential electrical bill. Baruch (2000) adverts that reducing overhead costs should only be seen as a positive externality — the real benefit is an effective workforce. Organizations perceive teleworkers as being more loyal to the organization, due to lower turnover propensity (Baruch, 2000; Green, Tippen & Bentley, 2020). An additional benefit for organizations is its ability to prepare for scarcities of labour (Pratt, 1984), as the added scope and geographical reach of an organization increases the employee labour market (Baruch, 2000), namely people with mobility restrictions, disabilities, or stay at home parents.

At the individual level, teleworking is associated with increased productivity and job satisfaction (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997; Fana *et al.*, 2020; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Tavares *et al.*, 2020) which boosts morale among teleworkers (Hill *et al.*, 1998; Morganson *et al.*, 2010). Studies have also reported that telework improves the work-home balance, as spare time can be dedicated to self-improvement, leisure and family activities (Hill *et al.*, 1998; Huws *et al.*, 1996; Sullivan & Lewis, 2001, as cited in Morganson, 2010; Tavares *et al.*, 2020). Evidence also suggests that teleworkers tend to avoid work less than their counterparts, and report having fewer distractions when working from home (Baruch, 2000; Ipsen *et al.*, 2021; Piteira, 2020). This can be the direct outcome of the absence of food and coffee breaks within a regular office space, which promotes and normalises time spent socializing with colleagues (small talk) and thus resulting in higher levels of unproductivity. These outcomes are, in part, due to (a) an increase of schedule flexibility (Baruch, 2000; Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Hill *et al.*, 1998; Piteira) and; (b) an increase of perceived autonomy (Green, Tappin & Bentley, 2020; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

At public level, telework reduces traffic congestion and, consequently, reduces air pollution (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Piteira, 2020; Tavares *et al.*, 2020). In the current climate of the COVID-19 pandemic, telework also provides a viable solution to reduce human contact, thus the spread of the Covid-19 (World Health Organization, 2020). In this regard, telework is a form of crisis management that seeks to assure the continuity and stability of employment (Piteira, 2020).

1.3. Drawbacks of Teleworking

Although telework has been proclaimed as a solution to many other organizational and social pitfalls, it is not exempt from drawbacks. The main drawbacks that have been mentioned in career literature are presented below.

Data Collection. A large portion of accounts of increased productivity and job satisfaction are derived from self-reported data or from biased samples, such as focusing solely on employees that chose to telework (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). For instance, several studies refrain from taking into consideration the frequency with which people telework (Baruch, 2000).

Frequency of Telework. Olszewski and Mokhtarian (1994) report that on average an employee teleworks five to six days per month, which is low. Frequency strongly moderates the intensity of outcomes from telework (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden, 2006; Golden & Veiga, 2005), therefore, if frequency is low, career outcomes and personal characteristics should not be significantly affected. Although career advancement is not typically affected by telework, Possemiede, Hassink, & Plantenga (2014) argue that career advancement may be predicted by telework frequency, if frequency of telework is very high.

Work-Home Balance. The intensity and frequency of telework has a direct impact on work-home balance — a frequency of more than 2-3 days per week negatively affecting it (Golden, 2006; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). This is due to the inability of people to draw boundaries between work and family (Baruch, 2001; Golden, Veiga & Simsek, 2006; Green, Tippen & Bentley, 2020; Hill *et al.*, 1998; Jones, 1997; Pitiera, 2020). Richter and Meshulam (1993) argue that blurred boundaries might be the result of employees conflating their family's culture with the organization's culture.

According to Golden, Veiga & Simsek (2006), a distinction can be made between work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict, with the former decreasing the more you telework and the latter increasing the more you telework — job autonomy strongly moderate these two conflicts. Availability of space at home or the presence of young children also affects the work/family balance (Baruch, 2001), with smaller households negatively affecting family-to-work conflict (Golden, Veiga & Simsek, 2006). Additionally, longer work hours, in combination with blurred boundaries, can lead to burnout, stress, occupational health, and workaholism (Baruch, 2000; Chong, Huang, & Chang, 2020; Eurofund & ILO, 2017; Morganson, 2010). Lastly, there is limited empirical research

regarding the organization and preparation of daily work during telework (Thulin *et al.*, 2019), which should also be associated with work-home balance.

Communication. Teamwork and mentorship are perceived to be negatively affected by telework (Hill *et al.*, 1998; Tavares *et al.*, 2020), in part, due to lack of control and inadequate supervision of teleworkers (Baruch, 2001). Bailey and Kurland (2002) argue that the amount of organizational communication is not impacted by telework, except if colleagues and managers feel ill at ease phoning teleworkers at home. First time teleworkers also report having difficulties in communicating with their colleagues or in learning to use new digital programs and tools (Milasi *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, communication in the context of telework is not as explicit as social interactions in a physical office environment (Green, Tippen & Bentley, 2020), which has the adverse effect of increasing miscommunication.

Professional and Social Isolation. Teleworkers often suffer from professional and social isolation (Baruch (2000, 2001) denotes this as an ‘autistic society’), on account of less opportunities for affiliation and/or social interactions (Green, Tippen & Bentley, 2020; Morgonson *et al.*, 2010; Tavares *et al.*, 2020). In layman’s terms, working from home eliminates habitual social interactions present in a conventional office space, such as water, coffee and smoke breaks. In the case of voluntary telework, the prevalence of isolation is, to an extent, a contradiction, as $\frac{1}{4}$ of teleworkers typically self-identify as being loners, antisocial, or introverts, and $\frac{1}{2}$ identify as self-sufficient (Pratt, 1984).³ By the same token, Bailey and Kurland (2002) propose that if someone teleworks infrequently, it is unlikely that they will even be perceived (identified) as a teleworker by their colleagues. Therefore, the perception of social isolation, by the organization and the individual, may be determined by the frequency with which someone teleworks.

Career Advancement. Employees commonly believe that telework will reduce their career prospects and advancement (Piteira, 2020; Tavares *et al.*, 2020). Although a few scholars (e.g., Bloom *et al.*, 2015) have suggested that telework decreases the probability of career advancement, the most scholars do not support this negative perception telework (McCloskey & Igarria, 2003; Possenriede, 2014). This is caused, in part, by the traditional belief that the measure of productivity (employee evaluation and assessment) is linked with

³ Granted that this latter study was conducted in the 1980s, with a small sample size (n=27) of people that requested to telework.

‘time spent on the job’ (Green, Tippen & Bentley, 2020; Possenriede, 2014). According to Baruch (2000), teleworkers’ performance may fluctuate on account of how their colleagues and managers perceive their employment status and mode of work, thus promoting the negative view that telework might hinder their future career prospects. Moreover, employees fear that the lack of social communication in the workplace hinders mentorship and coaching opportunities, as well as their corporate identity (Tavares *et al.*, 2020; de Vries, Tummers & Bekkers, 2019). Although the gender distribution of teleworkers is reasonably equal (McCloskey & Igarria, 2003), gender also influences this negative perception of telework, as women in particular fear that they will not be taken seriously in the workplace, if they are not seen by their colleagues (Pratt, 1984). In sum, employees believe that visibility mediates their chances of promotability.

1.4. Telework Before and During Covid-19 (Lockdown)

Teleworkers are traditionally characterized as mid-level professionals, with high income, education and autonomy (Ipsen *et al.*, 2021; Olszewski & Mokhtarian, 1994). These employees are commonly labelled as *knowledge workers*, whom, for instance, work with information and communication technology (ICT) services, consulting firms, law firms, universities and real estate (Ipsen *et al.*, 2021; Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021). Knowledge workers typically have a very flexible schedule or have more overtime hours (e.g. teachers correcting exams at home, or lawyers meeting clients in different locations) (Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021). In terms of gender, laymen rationalization would dictate that women are more likely to opt for telework, since they are traditionally seen as the primary caregiver to children and elder relatives (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). However, the majority of data shows that telework is split 50/50 in terms of gender (Baruch, 2000). According to Huws *et al.*, (1990), interest in teleworking is lower for couples with children.

Knowledge workers experience the same work in different manners (Ipsen *et al.*, 2021). For that reason, Mokhtarian (1998) argues that individual tasks and details pertaining to a job, rather than the job itself, are more determining for who will telework. Self-perception of unsuitability also significantly influences the decision-making process of individuals seeking to telework (Mokhtarian, 1998).

The type of job position held within the organization also dictates who will telework. Even though clerical workers and knowledge workers are equally equipped to telework (Bailey & Kurland, 2002), the former have less autonomy and, as a result, telework less frequently. Managers, in general, are reluctant to trust and, consequently, delegate power to clerical workers (Baruch, 2000; Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021). According to Bailey & Kurland (2002), managers often fear losing control, so they use ‘job unsuitability’ as a means of maintaining their status and power.

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, telework was by no means a widespread phenomenon— even those who practiced telework did so infrequently (Ipsen *et al.*, 2021). In 2019, only 15% of EU-27 (the 27 European Union countries) employees had experienced some form of telework, of which 11% were dependent employees and 36% were self-employed (Milasi, *et al.*, 2021). Globally, the scope of telework varied from 2% to 40% depending on the type of work, sector, country and frequency (Green, Tappin & Bentley, 2020). In Northern European countries (Sweden, the Netherlands and Finland) in 2019, 30% of employees practiced telework, while for the majority of the EU-27 it was below 10% (Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021). There are 3 exceptions to this, as Belgium, France, and Portugal range from 15 to 24% (Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021).

On top of that, variations occur for the same sectors in different countries; for example, in Sweden more than 60% of ICT professionals occasionally telework, while in Hungary it is roughly 30% (Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021). These variations between countries are, in part, due to (a) the industrial structure of employment, i.e. the proportion of knowledge workers (Milasi, *et al.*, 2021); (b) the organizational culture (Baruch, 2000; Ipsen *et al.*, 2021); (c) the size of the firm, with larger firms being more likely to adopt it (Milasi, *et al.*, 2021; Tavares *et al.*, 2020); and (d) the level of technology employed, as well as an adequate level of digital skills (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Hill *et al.*, 1998; Milasi *et al.*, 2021).

The issue at hand is that in 2020, owing to the COVID-19 pandemic, millions of workers were enforced to telework full time, the majority of whom have never teleworked. In Europe, by April 2020, 40% of employed workers began to telework full time (Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021). Therefore, it is expected that some of the drawbacks from telework — isolation, family-to-work conflict, reduced communication and

teamwork, and negative perception of career advancement — will only exacerbate as a result of enforced telework. As opposed to previous instances of telework (most of which voluntary), in 2019 people were enforced to adopt telework as their new work regime. Therefore, it is expected that lockdown teleworkers are in close proximity to other family members, ill equipped, lack sufficient office space, and cannot socialise outside of their home.

According to Ipsen *et al.* (2021), the majority of employees are optimistic about telework. However, given that this study was conducted during the early stages of lockdown, the same authors contend that their participants may be overly optimistic due the opportunity to focus on work and their family, especially individuals with a financial safety net. In Portugal, a study conducted by Tavares *et al.* (2020) indicated that 40.9% of new teleworkers found the transition/adaptation easy. However, productivity levels did not increase (Ipsen *et al.*, 2021), as foretold by the relevant literature. In Portugal, 44% of employees struggle to follow deadlines, due to a lack of time management skills, which leads to an increase of working hours/days (Tavares *et al.*, 2020).

1.5. Necessary Changes to Telework

In order to mitigate the risk of the abovementioned negative outcomes from telework, human resource departments must (a) create adequate teleworking guidelines; (b) adjust management practices and work processes and; (c) create or implement remote collaboration tools, in order to foster communication and social interactions (Milasi, *et al.*, 2021). For instance, a study in New Zealand, conducted by Bentley *et al.* (2016), proved that organizational social support (perceived support) and support for the individual (increased trust from managers, autonomy and technical support) increased job satisfaction and decreased stress (mental health), leading to a decrease in social and professional isolation. But, according to Green, Tappin & Bentley (2020), such results have not yet been replicated during the COVID-19 pandemic, where the frequency of telework is much higher. In terms of career advancement, McCloskey & Igarria (2003) provide evidence that job performance evaluations (on task and relationship dimensions) are more conducive to job promotability.

The focus of the current study is on the impact that telework has on career behaviours and, subsequently, its effect on the attainment of desired career goals, such as career advancement. Employees should not only be made aware of the benefits of telework, but

they should also be equipped with adequate skills and knowledge to adapt and adjust to the new realities of work. This can be achieved through the application and implementation of self-management strategies by human resource departments.

2. Career Management and Development

2.1. Contemporary Careers

Individuals are confronted with uncertainty, insecurity, and instability on a regular basis, due to the ever changing economic, social and political circumstances of our society; in this case, how the COVID-19 pandemic has affected strategic career behaviours. This creates a variety of new needs and demands from individuals, who seek guidance to surpass this constant onset of new challenges. Although the right to access career counselling is not equivalent to that of education and work (Nieto, Perez-González, & Riviero, 2011), the increasing demand for it has lead governments and organizations to start providing career intervention services to people of all socioeconomic and demographic backgrounds.

A career is inevitably influenced by the organization an individual works for, however, the extent to which it occurs has changed over the past years. In traditional organizations, the organization retains sole control over an individual's career development (Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Davey, 2002). Organizations withheld this power on account that career progression was vertical, linear and, typically, limited to two or three organizations (Sullivan, Carden, & Martin, 1998; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The same authors describe this notion as a 'psychological employment contract', where employees receive financial security in exchange for loyalty. The measure of career success for employers, within these rigid organizational structures, was based on the rate of promotion and external indicators of success, such as social status (i.e. job title) and salary (Baruch, 2004). Traditionally, employees measured success individually and objectively, by evaluating their outcomes in contrast to their colleagues (Van Vianen, De Pater, & Preenen, 2008).

However, with the introduction of new technologies, boundaryless organizations and high mobility (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006), linear careers no longer reflect the current needs and requirements of individuals (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Contemporary careers have become discontinuous, individualistic and multidimensional (McDonald & Hite, 2008), in part due to (a) the conditional nature of employee commitment and loyalty to the

organization (Baruch, 2004; Smola & Sutton, 2002); and (b) poor job security, resulting from the reduction of jobs-for-life (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009; Van Vianen, De Pater, & Preenen, 2008). In this scenario, the ‘psychological employment contract’ has shifted, whereby employees receive employment, training and development in exchange for increased work performance and effort. Employees are no longer driven solely by monetary compensation or vertical career advancements (McDonald & Hite, 2008). An employee’s perception of career success has become characterized by subjective variables, such as an increased need for decision-making opportunities, autonomy, challenging work, job satisfaction, self-worth and meaningful work (McDonald & Hite, 2008; Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009; Westermann & Yamamura, 2007). All of the aforementioned variables complement an individual’s life goals and values during different stages of life (McDonald & Hite, 2008). Similarly, employers now focus on employee competence, resilience and ability to adapt to new work environments (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). As a result, individuals have become more proactive about their careers, as opposed to being guided by their organizations.

Nevertheless, authors have criticized this division of traditional and contemporary careers, as it forms a polarized depiction of careers (Baruch, 2006). In practice, depending on the stages of life, economic, and demographic factors (such as generation X and baby boomers), individuals alter their careers goals and ambitions, thus changing back and forth from traditional career patterns to contemporary ones. For instance, if women seek to be promoted, they might prefer a traditional career path, while mothers that seek a greater work/family balance might prefer a more contemporary and mobile career path (Heraty, Grady, & McCarthy, 2008; Kirk, 2016; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008; Smith-Ruig, 2008).

2.2. Career Concepts

In view of the changes occurring in the contemporary career landscape, several career concepts have emerged, namely, the protean career (Hall, 2004), the boundaryless career (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), intelligent careers (Arthur, Claman & DeFillippi, 1995) and career anchors (Schein, 1996). In the following section, we provide a brief description for each career concept:

Protean Career. The concept is “based on the metaphor of the Greek god Proteus, who could change his shape at will, the protean careerist is able to rearrange and repackage

his or her knowledge, skills, and abilities to meet the demands of a changing workplace as well as his or her need for self-fulfillment” (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009, p.1545). Therefore, in a protean career it is the individual, not the organization, that is in control of his or her career management and development. Job insecurity is pervading contemporary careers, *ergo* there is a greater need, from employees, to continually adapt to new scenarios (Pinto, 2010). A protean career or attitude concerns the set of cognitions, behaviours and assessments individuals assume for the benefit of their career (Briscoe & Hall, 2006 as cited in Pinto, 2010), that is to say, to mitigate the impact of job insecurity. Protean individuals consist of two mutually dependent ‘metacompetencies’ — adaptability and identity (i.e. self-awareness) — which provide them with the ability to learn from past experiences and, consequently, to develop further competencies (Hall, 2004). Therefore, protean careers reflect an individual that is guided by self-determined goals and values (i.e. subjective and self-referent psychological success), instead of monetary and organizational rewards (Hall, 2004; Heslin, 2005, as cited in Mainiero & Gibson, 2018).

Boundaryless Career. This concept addresses a work environment characterized by high mobility and movement of individuals spanning across multiple organizations and sectors (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Mainiero & Gibson, 2018). Boundaryless careers involve both physical mobility (transitions across boundaries) and psychological mobility (perception of capacity to transition), however, most authors (e.g. Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) have focussed their attention on the former (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Therefore, it comes as no surprise that even less literature has sought to examine the interdependent relationship across both boundaries (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The same authors argue that this lack of literature comes down to a lack of effort from researchers; it is far easier to measure physical mobility (e.g. number of jobs and occupations an individual had during a period of time) than to measure the individual’s perception of psychological mobility.

Intelligent Careers. This concept seeks to determine which competencies are necessary for career mobility, in relation to both physical and psychological boundaries (Pinto, 2010). The concept of intelligent careers derives from Quinn’s (1992) study of competency-based firms and their three arenas of competency: (a) *culture*, the influence of values and beliefs on employee identification and behaviour; (b) *know-how*, relating to performance capabilities, skills and knowledge; and (c) *network*, the use of interpersonal

relationships as a means of acquiring social capital (Arthur, Claman & DeFillippi, 1995). Therefore, an intelligent career is one where an individual is able to meet the requirements needed to foster these core competencies, the outcome of which is increased desirability and employability of said individual (Arthur, Claman, & DeFillippi, 1995). For this to occur, an individual must take responsibility for his or her own career, which involves the engagement in personal, educational and professional activities that establish the acquisition of new forms of knowledge (Parker, Khapova, & Arthur, 2009, as cited in Pinto, 2010). Furthermore, there is no restriction as to why intelligent careers should not be implemented in traditional organizations (Briscoe & Hall, 2006, as cited in Pinto, 2010).

Career Anchors. In a similar fashion to the abovementioned concepts, this too addresses the importance of competencies for career development. Career anchors reflect an individual's self-concept, which develops and changes over time, as a result of (a) self-perceived talents and abilities; (b) values and; (c) motives and needs, all of which shape the individual's identity (Schein, 1996). This self-concept is moderated by the individual's level of experience, whereby more experience leads to a stronger self-concept (Pinto, 2010). Once consolidated, the self-concept acts as an anchor (moderator) that balances the individual's career identity (Pinto, 2010).

All four concepts are, to an extent, related to each other, in that they seek to determine the impact of contemporary careers and how it has shaped career development and self-management. For instance, both protean career and boundaryless career concepts are concerned with the ability of surpassing the boundaries and constraints of a contemporary career and, foremost, how it relates to psychological factors (Pinto, 2010). And, although there is a lack of empirical research that tests the efficiency of these concepts (Pinto, 2010), career self-management models have begun to provide practical and empirical evidence for these concepts.

2.3. Career Self-Management Models

Several career self-management models have emerged to meet the needs and demands of the contemporary career landscape. Three of the most established models are from Greenhaus and Callanan (1994), Noe (1996), and King (2000, 2001, 2004).

Greenhaus and Callanan's Model (1994). This model is a rational and normative model that seeks to determine a cyclical career management system, composed of 6 phases:

(1) career exploration; (2) career awareness (similar to the notion of self-concept from career anchors); (3) establishment of career goals; (4) development and implementation of career strategies; (5) obtaining feedback; and, (6) career assessment (Pinto, 2010).

The first phase — derived from Stumpf *et al.* (1983) and their career exploration of ‘where’ and ‘how’ — consists of collecting and analysing information relevant to career decision making. This phase has a dualist character, whereby the individual must seek information pertinent to himself (values, interests and competencies) and to the work context (job opportunities, tasks, organizations and employment) (Pinto, 2010). In the second phase, individuals must apply the knowledge acquired in a way that fosters awareness about themselves and others (Taveira, 2009, as cited in Pinto, 2010). This latter phase is similar to that of career anchors developed by Schein (1996), and how they reflect the individual’s self-concept. In the next phase, individuals must create career goals and objectives based on the previously acquired knowledge and awareness, *ergo* the suitability and probability of success of said objectives is directly linked to the level of knowledge and its trustworthiness (Pinto, 2010). When creating an objective, individuals must bear in mind antecedent and consequent variables, such as (a) intrinsic satisfaction, (b) work context as a source of satisfaction and growth, (c) flexible character and, (d) ability to meet the individual’s values (Greenhouse & Callanan, 1994, as cited in Pinto, 2010). The fourth phase is the creation and implementation of strategies that will meet the goals set by the individual, which can come in a myriad of forms, such as (a) creating new competencies, (b) pursuing interests and aspirations, (c) networking and mentorship, (d) working in different contexts (teleworking). The last two phases are detrimental for the success of this model, as its cyclical nature implies that the individuals require constant feedback (phase five) in order to evaluate and, if needed, adjust their career strategies to new contexts and objectives (phase 6) (Pinto, 2010).

This model is significant for a variety of reasons. It was the first of its kind to take into consideration the nature of contemporary careers and, consequently, its dynamic character (Pinto, 2010). This is reflected in the cyclical and normative character of the model, which allows it to be continuously applied to every stage of an individual’s career. Furthermore, even though individuals, in the context of contemporary careers, are responsible for developing their own careers, this model does not exclude the detrimental role that an organization plays in assisting individuals with their career development (as seen

in phase 5), such as workshops (Pinto, 2010). Lastly, this model is also significant for creating a means (taxonomy) of evaluating the efficiency of interventions and strategies applied by the individuals (Pinto, 2010).

Noe's Model (1996). This model studies the correlation (during a 6-month gap) between (a) personal career management behaviour and (b) self-development behaviour and work performance (Pinto, 2010). The objective of Noe (1996) is to assess the adaptability of the model created by Greenhouse & Callanan (1994) in an organizational context (Pinto, 2010). Dissimilar from the previous model, Noe's model consists of three phases: (1) career exploration; (2) establishment of career goals; and, (3) development and implementation of career strategies.

The first phase is identical to that of Greenhaus & Callanan (1994), where we start to differentiate the two models is with the second stage. In the second phase individuals must collect and analyse information in order to create career goals and objectives, those being the career outcome that the individual seeks to obtain (i.e. promotions and salary raises). Therefore, a career goal acts as a motivational tool (Noe, 1996, as cited in Pinto, 2010). This motivation requires added attention, effort and concentration from the individual (Pinto, 2010). In the last phase individuals develop and implement strategies based on all the activities, behaviours and experiences fostered in the previous phases, as a means of increasing the probability of reaching their goals (Pinto, 2010). However, Pinto (2010) argues that Noe is not very clear on what specific strategies ought to be implemented, as he merely makes a distinction between interpersonal and intrapersonal strategies.

Noe (1996) argues that the motivational components of career strategies (the three phases) are influenced by employee (a) development behaviour and, (b) performance, which relate to individual and organizational characteristics, respectively. The first variable, development behaviour, is defined as the propensity for an individual to participate in new activities (i.e. seminars and workshops) that foster professional and individual growth (Pinto, 2010). Noe does not offer a concise definition for the second variable (employee performance), however, Pinto (2010) defines it as any outcome derived from the individual's work.

This model hypothesizes "the existence of a positive and significant relationship between an individual's exploratory behaviour in relation to their career and the frequency and level of determination of their involvement in self-development behaviours" (Pinto,

2010, p. 54). This means that career objectives and, consequently, their likelihood of success are dependent on (a) the intentions of the individual, which are linked to the level of motivation, (b) the perception of difficulty and, (c) the level of effort exerted by the individual (Pinto, 2010). Furthermore, Noe (1996) also adverts to the positive or negative influence that co-variables (e.g. age, job function and organizational support) can have on career development. For instance, a higher position in the firm or higher (perceived) organizational support positively influences career management behaviours, self-development behaviour and performance.

King's Model (2000, 2001, 2004). The model created by King (2000, 2001, 2004) is an expansion of the previous two models, as all of them evaluate personal career behaviours; however, this model also evaluates the causes and consequences of said behaviour (Pinto, 2010). Therefore, this model consists of three phases: (1) causes (antecedent variables); (2) career self-management (behavioural nature); and, (3) consequences.

The first phase of this model consists of three variables that act as causal or motivational agents for career development behaviours: (a) beliefs (perceived) self-efficacy; (b) desire for control over career outcomes; and, (c) career anchors (King, 2004). Self-efficacy is the perception that one can effectively perform the behaviour required to successfully perform a given task (Bandura, 1986, as cited in King, 2004). This variable has been credited with influencing the proactivity of an individual in a work environment (Crant, 2000, as cited in King, 2004). The level of perception of self-efficacy positively influences the probability of an individual attaining his desired career outcomes (Pinto, 2010). The desire for career control is an extension of Crites (1969) explanation for why people are motivated to engage in control seeking-behaviours, later called reactance theory by Brehm & Brehm (1981, as cited in King, 2004). Therefore, this concept reflects how the perception individuals have about losing control over the possibility of attaining their desired career outcomes will, consequently, motivate them to develop career self-management strategies (Pinto, 2010). The last variable, based on Schein's (1996) career anchors concept, reflects the need for individuals to structure and prioritize their desired career outcomes.

The second phase of this model consists of four stages: (I) mapping the situation; (II) identification of decision-makers; (III) implementation of career strategies; and, (IV) evaluating the effectiveness of the career strategies. The first two stages are quite similar, in that they both consist of gathering information that will determine the individual's career

decision-making. However, the first stage is focussed on gathering any information relevant about (a) work opportunities and (b) the profile of their decision-makers. The second stage, on the other hand, is far more focussed on context specific information about the decision-makers that directly influence their career outcomes — for this to occur, the individual will need a strong understanding one's career anchors (Pinto, 2010). The third and fourth stages are quite similar to that of previous models, whereby the individual is able to form career strategies — through the acquisition of adequate knowledge about values, competencies, responsibilities and network relevant to attain the desired career outcomes — and, consequently, evaluate the success of said strategies (Pinto, 2010). Furthermore, stage four consists of two aspects, competence and contingency: the former evaluates the competency of the strategy implemented; and, the latter evaluates the cause and effect between the strategies implemented and the career outcomes reached (Pinto, 2010). These two components are necessary for the development and adjustment of future strategies.

The last phase of this model concerns the consequences derived from the use of career self-management strategies. Individuals commence by determining if any objective was attained. For each objective reached, they must determine if its outcome has a (a) positive or (b) negative consequence for their career (Pinto, 2010). The consequence of the outcome is measured by determining its effect on the following variables: (a) life satisfaction; (b) career satisfaction; and, (c) helplessness.

3. Kaleidoscope Career Model

Thus far, we have discussed (a) the practice of telework and its effect on Iberian employees during lockdown, and (b) the characterization of contemporary careers and, subsequently, career concepts and career development theories, for individuals and organizations alike. This has provided a base on which to comprehend the nature of strategic career behaviours for Iberian teleworker. However, the objective of the present study is to go beyond the comprehension of strategic career behaviours, by empirically testing a model that explains the causes and consequences of using career self-management strategies on Iberian teleworkers. For that end, we have chosen to adopt the Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM) developed by Sullivan and Mainiero (2008).

3.1. Brief Introduction to the KCM

As seen in the above sections of this study, career literature has reached a common definition for traditional careers (those being an extension of employer-employee relationships). According to Sullivan and Mainiero (2008), the majority of traditional career development programs are focused on the career tournament model (vertical and hierarchical competition), which is characterized by objective measures of career success, such as promotion rates, salary increases and mentorship.

However, there is little consensus among scholars about what the definition of a contemporary career ought to be (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). A contemporary career is characterized as being malleable and permeable, but so too is its definition. As a result, Sullivan and Baruch (2009) sought to “define a *career* as an individual’s work-related and other relevant experiences, both inside and outside of organizations, that form a unique pattern over the individual’s life span” (p. 1543). This definition stands out for recognizing both the physical and psychological boundaries of a career. Furthermore, as opposed to depicting traditional and contemporary careers as two rigid and polarized concepts that do not intertwine, this definition does not exclude the interchangeability of traditional and non-traditional career elements (Baruch, 2006; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

The transition to contemporary careers has been marked by the development of several non-traditional and nonlinear career self-management models. Yet, scholars have adverted to the presence of several gaps in these models that need addressing: such as; (a) the impact that gender, identity, culture and generational characteristics has on career decision-making (Powell & Mainiero, 1992; Mainiero & Gibson, 2018; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002); (b) organizational discrimination (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990); and, (c) the impact of discontinuous work on career development (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). For instance, despite the increased generational diversity in the workplace, the transition to boundaryless careers (high mobility) and increasing questions from organizational leaders about how to strategically manage employees, there is little consensus among organizational scholars as to whether there are significant differences between Boomers and Xers (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). The results collected by Sullivan and Mainiero (2008, 2009) contrast those from Smola and Sutton (2002), who argue that Xers have a higher desire for balance between work life and personal life — “while Boomers live to work, Xers work to live” (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008, p. 295).

Therefore, Sullivan and Mainiero (2008) created an alternative career self-management model that, in keeping with their definition of a contemporary career, seeks to address these gaps.

3.2. The Three Kaleidoscope Parameters

The KCM provides a framework for HRD programs that attend to employees with non-traditional (high mobility) career patterns (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). This model is based on a metaphor, that of the kaleidoscope. As a kaleidoscope tube rotates it produces varying patterns and, in the same line of thought, if an individual seeks to change a career pattern they must rotate (i.e. change and adjust) aspects of their life in a manner that is conducive to their desired outcomes.

This model, in par with the three mirrors of the kaleidoscope, entails three parameters: (1) authenticity; (2) balance; and, (3) challenge. These three parameters are present during the whole span of a career but in varying intensity, as a consequence of context dependent characteristics of an individual's life (Sullivan *et al.*, 2009), such as being fired, a horizontal career change or boundaryless training (developing skills that can be used both professionally and personally). Therefore, career decision-making directly influences which parameter will predominate over the others at a given stage of a career, thus changing the kaleidoscope patterns (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

Authenticity is concerned with whether “the individual's internal values are aligned with his/her external behaviours and the values of the employing organization” (Sullivan *et al.*, 2009, p. 290). Therefore, this parameter reflects “the individual's need to be true to oneself and one's values” (Mainiero & Gibson, 2018, p. 3), which, more often than none, might contrast the behaviour expected from the organization (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006). This is relevant to telework, as employees perceive telework to negatively affect their work identity and, therefore, to negatively affect their career advancement (Tavares *et al.*, 2020; de Vries, Tummers, & Bekkers, 2019). Balance is concerned with whether “the individual strives to reach an equilibrium between work and non-work (e.g. family, friends, elderly relatives, personal interests) demands” (Sullivan *et al.*, 2009, p. 290). This parameter is concerned with the desire to maximise both work and family domains (Mainiero & Gibson, 2018). However, according to telework literature, individuals often struggle to draw boundaries between work and family domains (Baruch, 2001; Golden, Veiga, & Simsek,

2006; Green, Tippen, & Bentley, 2020; Hill *et al.*, 1998; Jones, 1997). Challenge is concerned with the “individual’s need for stimulating work (e.g. responsibility, autonomy) as well as career advancement” (Sullivan *et al.*, 2009, p. 290). This parameter reflects the individuals desire to acquire new knowledge, skills and abilities conducive of lateral and linear career advancement (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006). Although this parameter also reflects non-work domains, its focus is on work related challenges (Mainiero & Gibson, 2018).

These three parameters work in tandem, albeit with different intensity and strength, owing to the “dynamic, interactive and contextual paradigm” of this model (Mainiero & Gibson, 2018, p.3). That is to say, the three parameters continuously shift in response to the career decisions and transitions made by the individual, in order to best accommodate the desired outcome; therefore, it is inevitable that one parameter will be left as the spearhead (Sullivan *et al.*, 2009). However, even though the other two parameters become attenuated, they never stopped being necessary for formation of a balanced career pattern (Sullivan *et al.*, 2009).

3.3. How does the KCM compare to previous career concepts?

This model has similar elements to that of (a) *protean careers*, as it considers individuals to be self-aware of their career decision-making and how it affects those around them; (b) *boundaryless careers*, as it considers an individual’s career identity as a separate entity from the organization; and, (c) *social cognitive career theory* (Lent & Brown, 1996), as both consider career transitions to be emphasized by the individual’s motivations and cognitive reasoning (Mainiero & Gibson, 2018). Several career concepts, labelled as *integrative frameworks*, have sought to combine the ideas of protean and boundaryless careers, such as post corporate careers (Peiperl & Baruch, 1997), boundaryless perspective (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2008) and Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) sixteen career profiles. The hybrid career concept went even further to shed light over how a career is characterized by the interchangeability of traditional and non-traditional career elements (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). For instance, an employee might desire job security (a traditional career element) in combination with boundaryless training (a contemporary career element) (Granrose & Baccili, 2006, as cited in Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). However, the KCM, unlike hybrid careers and integrative frameworks, was developed independently from protean and

boundaryless careers (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), which allows it to address the abovementioned gaps (e.g. gender, identity, culture, generational differences).

The KCM has been successfully used by scholars to characterize the career patterns of women and, consequently, why they opt-out from careers (Cabrera, 2007; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). The same authors were also able to characterize the career patterns of men, which allowed them to make a distinction between alpha and beta careers, with the former being more prevalent in men and the latter being more prevalent in women and young men (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006; Mainiero & Gibson, 2018). An alpha career pattern is characterized by commencing with a focus on challenge, followed by authenticity, and then by balance; while a beta career pattern is far more focussed on balance, especially early to mid-career stages, followed by challenge or authenticity depending on the direction the individual seeks to take (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006; Mainiero & Gibson, 2018). The model has also provided empirical evidence for the presence of generational differences in the three parameters, as Generation X (1965 to 1983) individuals have a far higher need for authenticity and balance in comparison to Baby Boomers (1946 to 1964) (Sullivan *et al.*, 2009).

This model has the potential to address several career related topics and, consequently, to provide empirical evidence for HRD programs. In the case of this study, the aim is to develop an explanatory model of career management for Iberian teleworkers. This involves conducting an empirical study of the antecedents and consequences of career management strategies (authenticity, balance and challenge).

3.4. Antecedents and Consequences of Career Management Strategies

Strategic career behavior has been associated with a myriad of desired personal and professional outcomes, such as the perception of (a) career success (Heslin, 2005; McDonald & Hite, 2008), (b) career and life satisfaction (Greenhaus *et al.*, 1990), (c) salary growth and promotions (Whitely *et al.*, 1991) and, (d) perceived career control (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006). Furthermore, scholars have also noted that socio-cognitive factors, such as (e) perceived self-efficacy (Kossek *et al.*, 1998), (f) perceived organizational support (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986) and, (g) desire for career control (king, 2000, 2004), motivate individuals to employ self-management strategies. However, there is still limited research regarding the relationship between all these variables, much less applied to teleworkers.

Therefore, an empirical model was created to test the association between antecedent and consequent variables, relevant to telework, and career management strategies (KCM), see Figure 1 (page 25).

This empirical model has similar elements to those created by Greenhaus and Callanan (1994), Noe (1996) and King (2000, 2001, 2004), in that all four models have focussed their attention on antecedent and consequent variables associated with self-management strategies. These four models, albeit with distinct approaches, provide a cyclical approach to career self-management behaviours, which entails (a) the exploration of a career in terms of personal and work-related characteristics, (b) the acquisition of new knowledge and skills, (c) implementation of strategies that will lead to the desired outcomes and, (d) evaluation of the outcomes and, if necessary, further career exploration and adjustment of strategies implemented.

The end in view of this empirical model is to provide an understanding about the relationships between telework relevant variables. After conducting research on relevant career literature, the following variables were chosen:

Perceived Self-Efficacy. The transition to contemporary careers has increased the need for self-worth, self-efficacy, meaningful and enjoyable work, all of which should aim to complement an employee's life goals and values (McDonald & Hite, 2008). Self-efficacy is the extent to which an individual believes to have the necessary skills to perform a given task, therefore, it is a predictor of the degree to which an individual will effectively use behavioural strategies (Bandura, 1997, as cited in Raghuram, Wiesenfeld, & Garud, 2003; King, 2004). Kossek *et al.* (1998) argue that if an employee lacks adaptability skills and/ or self-efficacy skills, he or she shall not be able to successfully engage in career self-management behaviour. Furthermore, when individuals judge their ability (efficacy) to cope with new work-related tasks, they inadvertently create domain-specific efficacy beliefs (Raghuram, Wiesenfeld, & Garud, 2003). Self-efficacy also positively correlates with goal setting, especially when the goals are tougher (Locke & Latham, 2006). Since self-efficacy is positively associated with the adjustment and structuring behaviour of teleworkers (Raghuram, Wiesenfeld, & Garud, 2003), and given that Self-efficacy is intertwined with beliefs, especially during times of high unrest or uncertainty, it is beneficial to implement it as an antecedent of career management strategies. Lastly, self-efficacy is also associated to organizational socialization tactics (Ashford & Black, 1996).

Desire for Career Control. According to reactance theory (Brehm & Brehm, 1981), people are motivated to exert control when they perceive that an event will cause the loss of control over desired outcomes. The perception of efficacy is associated with desire for career control, that is to say, when career control leads to positive career outcomes the individual's perception of self-efficacy rises, which in turn increases the motivational arousal to prevent the loss of said outcomes and the onset of new outcomes (King, 2004). Career management strategies act as the catalyst for this motivational arousal, as they "are control-producing responses deployed as a means of increasing perceived control over the career" (King, 2004, p.123). Therefore, given that telework negatively affects the perception of control over work-related tasks, employees and career advancement, it is important to empirically test its effect on teleworkers career behaviours.

Perceived Organizational Support. This is a measure of an employee's perception of how their employer values their work, that is, "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986, p.501). If an employee has high attachment for their employer and reflects the same organizational goals and values as their employer, then the employee believes that he or she should be rewarded (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). By the same token, if the organization does provide positive evaluations of an employee's effort, he or she believes that future effort shall also be rewarded (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). The perception of organizational support is directly influenced by the manner in which the organization conveys, to the employee, its praise and approval (Desrosiers, 2001; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). Furthermore, the actions taken by the organization, to promote perceived organizational support, must not only be perceived as positive, but also as discretionary (Desrosiers, 2001; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). In the case of telework, if it is involuntary (as is the case of Covid-19), it is expected that perceived organizational support will remain low (Desrosiers, 2001). Regardless of whether telework is voluntary or not, the variable that most determines a positive perception of organizational support is supervisor approval and consent to telework (vote of confidence and trust) (Desrosiers, 2001). The lack of trust among managers to delegate power to clerical workers is the prevalent impediment for telework (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Baruch, 2000; Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021). Furthermore, Nabi (2000) argues that organizational support directly influences the level of motivation to participate in self-management strategies.

Perceived Career Control. Kuijpers and Scheerens (2006) argue that career self-management is composed of four competencies; career reflection, work exploration, self-presentation and career control. The latter competency refers to the perception of competence to plan and act, by means of previously acquired skills and knowledge, in a manner that is conducive to a desired career goal (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006). Due to the nature of contemporary careers (high mobility, dynamic work environment and changes in organizational support), employees are increasingly more adamant on managing their own career development, therefore, all four competencies are influenced by personal factors (age, gender, job position and desired career goals) and professional characteristics (mobility, dynamic work and organizational support) (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006).

Objective Career Success. This factor is concerned with tangible characteristics of a career, such as job titles/positions, promotions and salary growth (Heslin, 2005; McDonald & Hite, 2008). Contemporary careers have reduced the focus on objective career success, as it does not take into consideration factors that are not controlled by the employee (Heslin, 2005). Even though the shift to contemporary careers has reduced the focus on objective measures of career success (Heslin, 2005), it is, nonetheless, important to determine if they are influenced by self-management strategies. Furthermore, given that employees fear that telework will hinder their career progression (McCloskey & Igarria, 2003; Posseriede, Hassink, & Plantenga, 2014), there is a possibility that employees might, once again, turn their focus onto objective indicators as a measure of success. Traditionally, the objective measures of career success are salary growth (Hilton & Dill, 1962) and promotions (Thorndike, 1963), however, other objective measures, such as the rate of advancement and human capital factors⁴ are equally as important (Whitely *et al.*, 1991).

Subjective Career Success. This measure of success refers to “an individual’s reactions to his or her unfolding career experiences” (Heslin, 2005, p. 114), that is to say, it represents the individuals’ perceptions (personal judgments) about career success based on evaluation criteria set by themselves (McDonald & Hite, 2008; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). This evaluation is accomplished through self-referent criteria and other-referent criteria (Heslin, 2005). Therefore, subjective career influence may be influenced by a myriad of internal and external factors, such as (a) work/family balance, (b) career satisfaction, (c)

⁴ i.e., highest level of education obtained, amount of work experience, whether work experience was continuous or interrupted, etc.

career fulfilment, (d) career control, (e) personal and work characteristics and, (f) skills and knowledge (McDonald & Hite, 2008). Due to the variety of antecedent variables, employees and employers, men and women, teleworkers and office workers, etc., all have varying definitions of objective career success (Sturges, 1999, as cited in, McDonald & Hite, 2008). Given that both subjective career success and perceived self-efficacy reflect evaluations made by the individual, based on self-referent criteria, higher perceived self-efficacy will predict higher competency and, therefore, higher subjective career success.

Career Satisfaction. This is a measure of an employee's general satisfaction regarding how their career has advanced, to date. Greenhaus, Parasuman and Wormley (1990) argue that job performance evaluations, as a result of self-management strategies, lead to two career outcomes; career advancement and career satisfaction. The same authors contend that the level of organizational support (i.e. mentorship) influences both career outcomes. Furthermore, the perception of job performance influences objective career success and, consequently, the level of career satisfaction (Greenhaus, Parasuman, & Wormley, 1990). Perceived career control is associated with positive career outcomes, such as increased job performance, career and life satisfaction, reduced stress (Terry & Jimmieson, 1999, as cited in King, 2004) and improved self-esteem (Super, 1994, as cited in King 2004). As a result, it is speculated that perceived career control, in combination with self-management strategies, increases the probability of reaching desired career outcomes, which, in turn, increases career and life satisfaction (King, 2004).

4. Aims and Objectives of this Dissertation

The onset of Covid-19 increased the trend towards non-standardized work (Eurofund, 2021), such as telework. The issue at hand is that, according to scholars, employees perceive telework to impair their career advancement prospects and, therefore, their desired career goals (McCloskey & Igarria, 2003, Piteira, 2020; Possenriede, Hassink, & Plantenga, 2014). However, contemporary career advancement and satisfaction is no longer solely determined by objective measures of success (e.g., promotion rate and salary growth) (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Evidence suggest that a myriad of alternative factors, personal and work-related, are equally, if not more, determinant for career advancement (McDonald & Hite, 2008), namely the use of self-management strategies (Greenhaus, Parasuman, & Wormley, 1990; Sullivan *et al.*, 2009).

Therefore, the main goal of this study is to characterise the nature of the KCM's career management strategies (authenticity, balance and challenge), by means of empirically testing an integrative model (see Figure 1) that seeks to explain the antecedents and consequences of career management strategies of Iberian teleworkers.

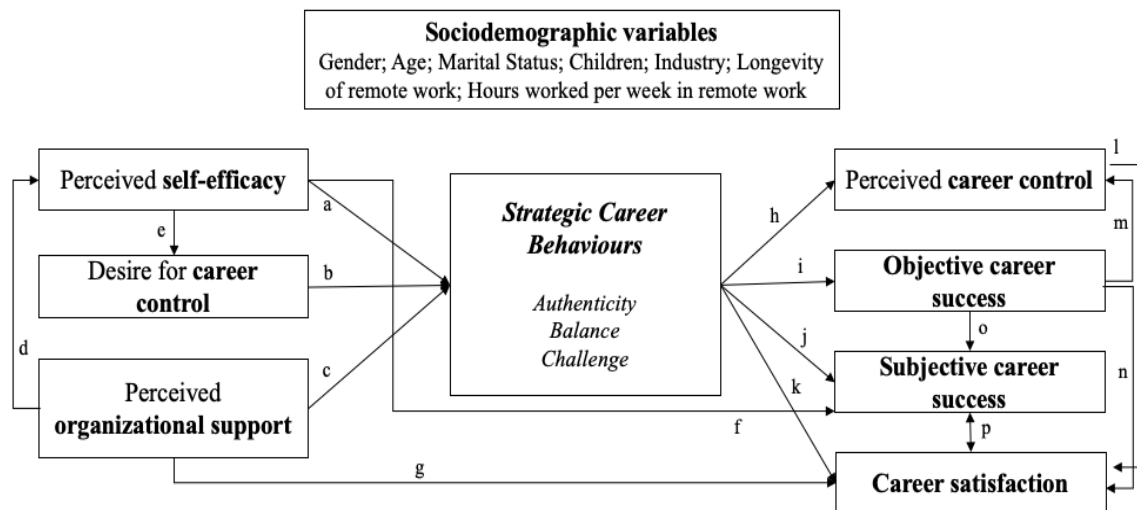


Figure 1. The Conceptual Framework for the Kaleidoscope Career Model, and its Antecedents and Consequences on Teleworkers.

The intent is to provide HRD programs with relevant data to support the development of self-management career programs for employees struggling with the attainment of career goals, as a result of teleworking (lack of professional visibility; notion that “out of sight” leads to “out of mind”). For that end, the objectives of this study are: (a) to characterize the use the KCM's career management strategies of Iberian teleworkers; (b) to test the relationship between the variables that determine the KCM — beliefs of self-efficacy, desire for career control, and perceived organisational support — and the use of career management strategies; (c) to test the relationships between the variables determined by the KCM — perceived career control, subjective career success and career satisfaction — and the use of career management strategies.

Therefore, based on the objective set for this study, the following hypotheses were developed to be tested:

H1a: Perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control and perceived organizational predict career management strategies (paths a-c).

H1b: Career management strategies predict perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction (paths h-k).

H1c: When controlling for (a) perceived self-efficacy, (b) desire for career control and (c) perceived organizational support, career management strategies predict perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction.

H2: Perceived organizational support predicts perceived self-efficacy and career satisfaction (paths d, g).

H3: Perceived self-efficacy predicts subjective career success (path f).

H4: Objective career success is associated with perceived career control and subjective career success (paths m, o).

H5: Subjective career success is associated with career satisfaction (path p).

H6: Career satisfaction is associated with perceived career control and objective career success (paths l, n).

Chapter 2: Empirical Study

5. Methodology

5.1. Participants

A total of 96 participants concluded the survey (this includes participants with a 55% completion rate or higher), of which 57.3% were Portuguese and 42.7% were Spanish (Table 1). The age of participants ranged from 18 to 63 ($M = 34.52$; $SD = 11.07$). In Portugal the distribution of gender was almost even, while in Spain the sample was mostly composed by women (70.7%). The majority of participants were single (50%) or divorced (32.1%), and 59 (70.2%) of the respondents do not have children. Regarding the highest level of education attained, 80.0% of Portuguese respondents completed a bachelor's or master's degree. The education of the Spanish sample was more spread-out, with 53.6% completing a bachelor's or a master's degree. The bulk of participants reported to work full-time (77.1%), and the same goes for their respective partners (80.7%), see Appendix A.

Telework was not a common practice among the respondents until the onset of Covid-19, given that 69.0% of respondents started teleworking for the first-time during lockdown. For those that did telework before Covid-19, 65.4% of them teleworked between one and three days per week, consisting of 1-4 hours (47.8%) or 5-8 hours (39.2%) of telework. With the implementation of lockdown, the frequency (intensity) of telework rose

significantly, as 79.5% of Portuguese respondents started teleworking daily, and 33.3 and 38.9% of Spain respondents started teleworking 4-6 or 2-3 days per week, respectively. The average amount of time spent teleworking was equally dispersed among the two countries, with 59.7% of participants teleworking 5-8 hours per day. Most participants (41.9%) live one to five kilometres away from their conventional office-space, see Appendix B. Furthermore, the most predominant industry in both countries is education, 31.7% for Spain and 27.3% for Portugal, see Appendix C.

The objective measures of career success were collected with the sociodemographic variables (see Appendix D). Portuguese respondents report, on average, higher salary growth, with 73,9% reporting an increase in the last six years, as opposed to only 61.8% of Spaniards. Half of the respondents did not receive a promotion (56.3%), while 35.0% either received one or two promotions.

Table 1. *Demographics of the Study Sample (N=96).*

Characteristics	Full Sample		Spain		Portugal	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender						
Male	38	39.6	12	29.3	26	47.3
Female	58	60.4	29	70.7	29	52.7
Age	18 - 63	M = 34.52; SD = 11.07	18 - 55	M = 33.41; SD = 10.86	22 - 63	M = 35.35; SD = 11.25
Educational Level						
Secondary School	4	4.2	3	7.3	1	1.8
Bachelor's degree	26	27.1	14	34.1	12	21.8
Master's degree	40	41.7	8	19.5	32	58.2
Doctorate degree	15	15.6	6	14.6	9	16.4
Other	11	11.5	10	24.4	1	1.8
Marital status						
Single	42	50.0	21	60.0	21	42.9
Divorced/Separated	2	2.4	1	2.9	1	2.0
Married	27	32.1	7	20.0	20	40.8
Consensual Union	11	13.1	4	11.4	7	14.3
Other	2	2.4	2	5.7	0	0
No. of Children						
None	59	70.2	25	71.4	34	69.4
One	15	17.9	5	14.3	10	20.4
Two	6	7.1	4	11.4	2	4.1
Three	2	2.4	1	2.9	1	2.0
More than three	2	2.4	0	0	2	4.1

5.2. Instruments

The online survey encompassed questions on socio-demographic data and on career management strategies (KCM), its antecedents and consequences. The following section provides the development and measurement of each variable and their respective items (see Table 2 for descriptive statistics and reliability indices).

Perceived Self-efficacy. This was measured with 11 items (e.g., “Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements: When I make plans for my career, I am confident I can make them work; If I can’t do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can”), using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly agree*, to 5 = *strongly disagree*). The items were developed by Whitely, Dougherty, and Dreher (1991), adapted initially from Sherer and Adams (1983).

Desire for Career Control. This was measured with 7 items (e.g., “Please indicate how important it is for you to have control over: Which employer you work for; The hours you work”), using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all important*, to 5 = *extremely important*). The items chosen were developed by King (2000).

Perceived Organizational Support. This was measured with 11 items (e.g., “Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements: The organization values my contribution to its well-being; The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me”), using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly agree*, to 5 = *strongly disagree*). These items were adapted from the (short version of the) survey developed by Eisenberger *et al.* (1986).

Kaleidoscope Career Model. This was measured using the 15 items (5 items per subscale) created by Sullivan and Mainiero (2008) (e.g., “Please indicate the extent to which each of the following statements describes you: I hunger for greater spiritual growth in my life; I constantly arrange my work around my family needs; I continually look for new challenges in everything I do”). These items consist of a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *this does not describe me at all*, to 5 = *this describes me very well*).

Perceived Career Control. This was measured using 5 items from Kuijpers and Scheerens’ (2006) Career Competence Questionnaire (e.g., “Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements: I can make clear career plans; I know what I want to have achieved in my career a year from now”). These items consist of a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly agree*, to 5 = *strongly disagree*).

Objective Career Success. This was adapted from Whitely *et al.* (1991), in that we measured salary growth (as a percentage) and number of promotions received, except the two items were controlled for 6 years.

Subjective Career Success. This was measured using 4 items (e.g., “Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements: Up to now my career is very successful; Compared to my coworkers, my career is successful”), using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly agree*, to 5 = *strongly disagree*). These items were created by Turban and Dougherty (1994).

Career Satisfaction. This was measured with 5 items (e.g., “Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements: - I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career; I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals”) from Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990). These items have a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly agree*, to 5 = *strongly disagree*).

Table 2. *Characteristics of Study Variables*

Scale	n	Items	Cronbach's α	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Perceived self-efficacy	74	11	0.71	2.03	0.44
Desire for career control	74	7	0.61	3.88	0.45
Perceived organizational support	73	11	0.93	2.48	0.87
Career management strategies (KCM)	70	15	0.84	3.51	0.66
Perceived career control	70	5	0.86	2.33	0.76
Objective career success	80	2	0.70	2.25	1.13
Subjective career success	68	4	0.76	2.50	0.70
Career satisfaction	69	5	0.87	2.29	0.78

5.3. Procedure, Data Collection and Analysis

Data was collected through the development of a survey on Qualtrics, an international dissemination platform for academic studies. Thereafter, the survey was distributed online, via e-mail and social network platforms. Initially, the survey was published in English with a translation to Portuguese. However, given that the survey was distributed in Portugal and Spain, a second survey was created with translations from English to Portuguese and Spanish. The evaluation protocol is identical for both surveys, therefore, hereinafter they shall be addressed as one.⁵

⁵ The survey can be accessed via this link:
https://ucpcienciashumanas.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_8BLymTUj1KjQ9OS

The online survey started with information regarding the research, its intended use, associated universities, and a brief definition of remote work,⁶ followed by an informed consent. The informed consent assured participants that participation is voluntary and anonymous, and that all data will be used for scientific research purposes only.

After accepting the consent form, participants were asked to fill out nine socio-demographic questions (country of residence, gender, age, education level, industry of work, employment status, marital status, (if applicable) employment status of partner, number of children). After this, participants were given two control questions regarding whether they have or are currently teleworking, each question was followed by four questions regarding the characterization of their telework regime (number of days, number of hours, distance of telework and workload). The two objective measures of career success (salary growth and number promotion) were included at the end of this section. The next section consisted of instruments chosen for each study variable. The survey ended by thanking respondents for their participation.

The data collected was entered into an SPSS database (Mac Version 26), in order to carry out the statistical analysis of the results. Several corrections were made to the database: (1) reversing items (i.e., 6 items beliefs of self-efficacy and 5 items from perceived organizational support); (2) recoding the values of variables into categories (i.e., hours spent teleworking, distance from telework and salary growth), and; (3) computing variables. Before computing each variable, their internal consistency was measured using Cronbach's alpha. In order to test the hypotheses, a Pearson's correlation coefficient test was carried out to measure the degree of association between career management strategies (mediator variable, MeV), antecedent variables, consequent variables and the control variables. Linear regression analyses were carried out to estimate the relationships among the variables studied.

In order to test H1, a mediation analysis (Hayes process model 4) was carried out to compare the relationship between the predictors (perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control, and perceived organizational support) and dependent variables (perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success, and career satisfaction) via the mediator variable (career management strategies).

⁶ "Remote work (or telework/ telecommute) is a work arrangement in which employees work from home or from another remote location, via the internet, email or phone, instead of commuting to a central office, warehouse or store."

6. Results

6.1. Correlational Analysis

Firstly, a correlation analysis between the variables of interest was conducted. Considering the antecedent variables, statistically significant correlations were found between desire for career control and age ($r = -.35, p < .01$; denotes a negative correlation with age) and with commute distance ($r = -.43, p < .01$); and, perceived self-efficacy with average amount of hours spent teleworking before Covid-19 ($r = -.48, p < .05$). In the case of the dependent variables, correlations were found between objective career with employment status ($r = -.27, p < .05$; denoting that part-time work is negatively associated with objective career success); subjective career success and career satisfaction with children ($r = -.27, p < .05$; $r = -.29, p < .05$; denoting a negative correlation with having more children); objective career success with average amount of hours spent teleworking before Covid-19 ($r = .47, p < .05$); career satisfaction with average amount of hours spent teleworking before Covid-19 and with number of days spent teleworking during lockdown ($r = -.54, p < .05, r = .34, p < .05$). Career management strategies negatively correlate with commute distance ($r = -.28, p < .05$).

Regarding the variables of interest in the Model (Figure 1), career management strategies significantly correlates with perceived self-efficacy ($r = -.45, p < .01$) and with desire for career control ($r = .44, p < .01$). However, there is no correlation between perceived organizational support and career management strategies. In terms of the association degree between career management strategies and the DVs (perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success, and career satisfaction), there is only one statistically significant correlation, that of career satisfaction ($r = -.35, p < .01$). Therefore, there is no support to test the predictions made in H1a (paths a-c) and H1b (paths h-k).⁷

Perceived organizational support positively correlates with perceived self-efficacy ($r = .38, p < .01$), and with career satisfaction ($r = .33, p < .01$), which confirms H2 (paths d,

⁷ **H1a:** Perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control and perceived organizational predict career management strategies (paths a-c); **H1b:** Career management strategies predict perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction (paths h-k); **H1c:** When controlling for perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control and perceived organizational support, only career management strategies predict perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction.

g). Perceived self-efficacy correlates with desire for career control ($r = -.38, p < .01$), with subjective career success ($r = .24, p < .05$), and with career satisfaction ($r = .56, p < .01$), but it does not significantly correlate with the other DVs (perceived career control and objective career success). The correlation between self-efficacy and subjective career success confirms H3 (path f). Desire for career control does not correlate with any of the DVs (perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success, and career satisfaction). Perceived organizational support significantly correlates with objective career success ($r = -.34, p < .01$), but it does not correlate with the other two DVs. The data revealed a significant correlation between self-efficacy and career satisfaction, and between perceived organizational support and objective career success, both of which were not anticipated in our model. Regarding objective career success only moderately correlates with subjective career success ($r = .27, p < .05$), therefore, there is insufficient evidence to support H4, which also informs us that there is insufficient evidence to support H6.⁸ Career satisfaction has a statistically significant relationship with subjective career success ($r = .53, p < .01$), thus confirming the association predicted by H5, see Table 3.

Table 3. *Correlation of Study Variables.*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Perceived self-efficacy	—							
2. Desire for career control	-0.38**	—						
3. Perceived organizational support	0.38**	-0.12	—					
4. Career management strategies (KCM)	-0.45**	0.44**	-0.19	—				
5. Perceived career control	0.78	-0.12	0.16	-0.11	—			
6. Objective career success	0.05	0.07	-0.34**	0.07	0.06	—		
7. Subjective career success	0.24*	-0.08	0.24	-0.15	0.27*	-0.35**	—	
8. Career satisfaction	0.56**	-0.18	0.33**	-0.35**	0.05	-0.21	0.53**	—

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

These findings derived from Pearson's correlation coefficients provide evidence to support the relationships predicted in H2, H3 and H5.⁹ The results also shed light on the lack

⁸ **H4:** Objective career success is associated with perceived career control and subjective career success (paths m, o); **H6:** Career satisfaction is associated with perceived career control and objective career success (paths l, n).

⁹ **H2:** Perceived organizational support predicts perceived self-efficacy (path d); **H3:** Perceived self-efficacy predicts subjective career success (path f); **H5:** subjective career success is associated with career satisfaction (path p).

of significant relationships between the career management strategies and the DVs (perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success, and career satisfaction). Given that career management strategies are correlated only with career satisfaction, we only included that dependent variable in the mediation analysis.

6.2. Regression Analysis

Regression analyses were conducted to test whether perceived organizational support predicts perceived self-efficacy and subjective career control, in order to provide evidence to support H2 (see Table 4). Results for organizational support and perceived self-efficacy showed that the regression model was statistically significant, $F(1, 71) = 12.05, p < .01$. Proportionally, the perceived organizational support explains 15% ($R^2 = .15$) of the perceived self-efficacy variance ($\beta = .38, p < .01$). The results for organizational support and career satisfaction showed that the regression model was statistically significant, $F(1, 67) = 8.01, p < .01$. The predictor variables explain 11% ($R^2 = .11$) of variance in career satisfaction ($\beta = .33, p < .01$). Given that the correlation between perceived organizational support and objective career success was statistically significant, a third regression analysis was conducted. Results showed that the regression model was statistically significant, $F(1, 71) = 9.41, p < .01$. The predictor variables explain 12% ($R^2 = .12$) of variance of career satisfaction ($\beta = -.34, p < .01$).

To provide evidence to support H3, a regression analysis was conducted on perceived self-efficacy to test whether it predicts subjective career success (see Table 5). Results showed that the regression model was statistically significant, $F(1, 67) = 4.21, p < .01$. Proportionally, self-efficacy explains 6% ($R^2 = .06$) of variance of subjective career success ($\beta = .24, p < .05$). Two further regression analyses were conducted on perceived self-efficacy. The first regression analysis was conducted to test whether perceived self-efficacy predicts desire for career control. Results showed that the regression model was statistically significant, $F(1, 72) = 11.87, p < .01$. Proportionally, self-efficacy explains 14% ($R^2 = .14$) of the desire for career control variance ($\beta = -.38, p < .01$). Therefore, lower perceived self-efficacy increases the desire for career control. The second regression analysis was conducted to test whether perceived self-efficacy predicts career satisfaction, given the unanticipated correlation between both variables. Results showed that the regression model

was statistically significant, $F(1, 67) = 30.82, p < .001$. Proportionally, self-efficacy explains 32% ($R^2 = .32$) of variance of subjective career success ($\beta = .56, p < .001$).

Table 4. Regression Analyses Using Perceived Organizational Support as the Predictor Variable.

Dependent variable	<i>B</i>	95%CI	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Perceived self-efficacy	0.19**	[0.08, 0.31]	0.38	0.38**	0.15	0.15**
Career satisfaction	0.29**	[0.09, 0.49]	0.10	0.33**	0.11	0.11**
Objective career success	-0.43**	[-0.72, -0.52]	0.14	-0.34**	0.12	0.12**

Note. CI = confidence interval for *B*; ** $p < .01$

Table 5. Regression Analyses Using Perceived Self-Efficacy as the Predictor Variable.

Dependent variable	<i>B</i>	95%CI	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Subjective career success	0.38*	[0.01, 0.74]	0.18	0.24*	0.06	0.06*
Desire for career control	-0.38**	[-0.60, -0.16]	0.11	-0.38**	0.14	0.14**
Career satisfaction	0.967***	[0.62, 1.31]	0.17	0.56***	0.32	0.32***

Note. CI = confidence interval for *B*; * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

6.3. Mediation Analysis

The findings from the correlation coefficient tests suggest testing a mediation analysis only for career satisfaction. Career management strategies, defined as the mediator variable, only significantly correlates with career satisfaction, invalidating therefore testing the mediation model for all other three dependent variables in the model. Thus, only one of the four intended mediation analyses was conducted. Using Model 4 (PROCESS, Hayes, 2013), we entered perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control and perceived organizational support as predictors, career management strategies as the mediator variable and career satisfaction as the dependent variable.

The relationship between the predictors and the mediator can be seen on Table 6. Perceived self-efficacy significantly predicted career management strategies ($b = -0.47, SE = 0.18, t(68) = -2.66, p < .05, 95\% CI [-0.82; -0.12]$). Desire for career control significantly predicted career management strategies ($b = .49, SE = .16, t(68) = 2.95, p < .01, 95\% CI [.16; .82]$). However, the same pattern did not appear for perceived organizational support:

the relationship was not statistically significant ($b = -0.04$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(68) = -0.47$, $p = .64$, 95% CI [-0.21; 0.13]).

Table 6. Relationship between career management strategies and antecedents.

Outcome: career management strategies						
<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.55	.30	0.32	9.34	3.00	65.00	<.001

Main model							
	<i>Coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	
Perceived self-efficacy	-0.47	0.18	-2.66	.01	-0.82	-0.12	
Desire for career control	0.49	0.16	2.95	<.001	0.16	0.82	
Perceived organizational support	-0.04	0.08	-0.47	.64	-0.21	0.13	

Note. $n = 69$; Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.0000; Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000.

Considering the link between career management strategies and career satisfaction (see Table 8), career management strategies did not predict career satisfaction ($b = -0.15$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(68) = -1.09$, $p = .28$, 95% CI [-0.44; 0.13]). Furthermore, both predictors, desire for career control and perceived organizational support, also did not significantly predict career satisfaction ($b = 0.10$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(68) = 0.50$, $p = .62$, 95% CI [-0.30; 0.50]; $b = 0.12$, $SE = 0.10$, $t(68) = 1.20$, $p = .24$, 95% CI [-0.08; 0.31]), see Table 7. The data shows that when we control for perceived self-efficacy, the mediator stops determining variance in career satisfaction. Consequently, the indirect effect was not statistically significant (*Indirect effect* = 0.07, $SE = 0.07$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-0.06; 0.24]) therefore, H1c is rejected, see Table 8.

Table 7. Effects on Career Satisfaction.

Outcome: Career satisfaction						
<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.59	.34	0.42	8.39	4.00	64.00	<.001

Main model							
	<i>Coeff</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	
Perceived self-efficacy	0.82	0.21	3.86	<.001	0.39	1.24	
Career management strategies	-0.15	0.14	-1.09	.28	-0.44	0.13	
Desire for career control	0.10	0.20	0.50	.62	-0.30	0.50	
Perceived organizational support	0.12	0.10	1.20	.24	-0.08	0.31	

Note. $n = 69$; Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.0000; Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000.

Table 8. *Indirect Effects of Antecedents on Career Satisfaction.*

	<i>Effect</i>	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>BootLLCI</i>	<i>BootULCI</i>
Career management strategies	.07	.07	-.06	.24

Note. n = 69; Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:95.0000;
Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:5000

7. Discussion

The present study aimed to develop and empirically test an integrative model that explains the causes and consequences of using career self-management strategies (based on Kaleidoscope Career Model) for Iberian teleworkers. This entailed conducting a correlation analysis for the three predictor variables (perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control, and perceived organizational support), the four dependent variables (perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success, and career satisfaction), and career management strategies. This was followed by a mediation analysis for career management strategies, between the predictor variables (i.e., causes of career management strategies) and the dependent variables (i.e., consequences of career management strategies). The following section presents the key findings from the results collected.

Perceived organizational support predicts perceived self-efficacy and career satisfaction (H2, paths d, g). Positive evaluations by the organization implies that future efforts shall also be rewarded (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). Therefore, when people are rewarded for their work, by means of organizational support, they form more positive beliefs about their capabilities to perform a given task. This pattern of results is consistent with previous literature. This is tremendously important for telework, as the level of occupational self-efficacy predicts the level of motivation towards challenging work (Van Vianen, de Pater, & Preenen, 2008), which telework surely is for newcomers. Perceived organizational support is crucial for a teleworker's satisfaction, as the perception of trust and support (policies that protect teleworkers) has a direct implication on employees' well-being and mental health (Desrosiers, 2001), consequently improving their career and life satisfaction.

Although not portrayed on the model, a correlation between perceived organizational support and desire for career control was expected nonetheless. That is, employees are more reluctant to support changes made by their organization (such as telework), if they perceive those changes to be out of their control (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). Given that desire for career

control increases with the perception of loss of control (Brehm & Brehm, 1981; King, 2004), it was anticipated that both variables would correlate.

Perceived self-efficacy predicts subjective career success (H3, path f). The results from this correlation support career literature, as high occupational self-efficacy is associated with increased motivation and job performance (Tannenbaum, *et al.*, 1991), which, in turn, influences self-referent criteria and other-referent criteria. These referent criteria are what people use to form perceptions of subjective career success (Heslin, 2005).

Perceived self-efficacy correlates with desire for career control (path e). This correlation, albeit not included in the hypotheses tested, was expected. That is, King (2004) argues that when career control leads to positive career outcomes, the perception of self-efficacy increases, which in turn increases the desire for career control. However, the results indicate a negative correlation ($r = -.38, p < .01$), instead of the anticipated positive correlation. In our view, the most compelling explanation for this is that if motivational arousal for career control increases with the perception of loss of control, then individuals with a high perception of self-efficacy already perceive to have high career control, thus reducing the desire for more career control. However, for this premise to work, perceived self-efficacy would have to predict perceived career control, which our results do not support.

Self-efficacy also correlates with career satisfaction, which was not anticipated in our model. However, that does not exclude the fact that this correlation supports career literature, “as career satisfaction is an internally defined career outcome” (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990, p. 69), and a high perception of self-efficacy is associated with high productivity and motivation (Tannenbaum, *et al.*, 1991), both of which are positive career outcomes. The results from the regression analysis also showed us that perceived self-efficacy not only predicted career satisfaction, but it accounted for 32% ($R^2 = .32$) of its variance, which was far higher than any other predictor variable in this model.

Career satisfaction correlates with subjective career success, as evidenced by previous literature, but it is not associated with objective career success. Given the choice, employees are reluctant to telework as they fear telework hinders their career prospects (lack of objective measures of performance), however career literature not only refutes this (McCloskey & Igarria, 2003), but the results from this study also suggest that for Iberian teleworkers objective measures of success are not conducive to career satisfaction.

On account of career satisfaction being the only dependent variable (out of four) that correlated with career management strategies, we only conducted a mediation analysis for career management strategies, between the three predictor variables and career satisfaction. The results from Hayes Process Model 4 show us that career management strategies are predicted by perceived self-efficacy ($r = -.47, p = .01$) and desire for career control ($r = .49, p < .01$), but there was no statistically significant correlation with perceived organizational support. These results reflect the results obtained from the correlational analysis. However, regarding the correlation between the predictor variables (perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control, and perceived organizational support) and career satisfaction, only self-efficacy proved to have a statistically significant effect on career satisfaction ($r = .82, p < .001$). Career management strategies also did not have a statistically significant effect on career satisfaction. Therefore, from the data collected, we can conclude that (a) career management only predicts career satisfaction when we control for self-efficacy, and (b) that when teleworkers use career management strategies perceived organizational support stops having a positive effect on career satisfaction, as predicted by H2 (path g).

The lack of mediation of career management strategies between predictors and career satisfaction may come from the characterization of the respondents. For instance, 29.2% of this study sample works in education, which was one of the most penalized industries by the pandemic, given that the majority of schools began teaching online. We speculate that the large presence of education professionals in the sample influences the perceived self-efficacy, owing the mediating effect of digital technologies on their productivity (i.e., teachers had to learn to adapt ICT tools to accommodate new teaching methods (Pozo *et al.*, 2021). In this sense, higher self-efficacy, for teachers, would lead to a lower focus on the KCM parameter of challenge. Furthermore, people tend to focus on the KCM parameter of balance when they struggle to draw boundaries between work and family (Sullivan and Mainiero, 2008). Given that 50.0% of the participants were single and 70.2% had no children, we speculate that this mediates the use career management strategies, more specifically the parameter of balance. These two observations point out a key limitation of this study — we did not test career management strategies of balance, authenticity and challenge as separate variables.

The lack of correlations between the chosen predictor variables and the dependent variables, as mediated by career management strategies, could be linked to a myriad of

external conditions, such as the increase in the workload caused by the pandemic, the lack of social support (as opposed to organizational support), and the increase of social isolation.

The present study did not succeed in proving an effect between the predictor variables and the dependent variables, mediated by career management strategies. However, it provided insight towards the changing dynamics of career decision-making resulting from teleworking, such as the presence of correlations between variables that were not foreseen (i.e., the correlations between self-efficacy and career satisfaction, and organizational support and objective career success).

8. Limitations and Future Recommendations

This study has several limitations pertaining to the sample size, the survey and the measurements of certain items.

Sample size and statistical power. According to G*Power, an appropriate sample size for Pearson's correlation coefficient test is $n = 138$, if the correlation is two tails, for a medium effect size ($\rho = .03$, $\alpha = .05$) with a power of 95% ($1 - \beta$ err prob = .95). Given that the intent of this study was to compare the results at a national level, between Spain and Portugal, we would require a minimum sample of $n = 138$, for each country. However, only 129 respondents participated in the survey distributed, of which 96 completed the survey (completion rate of 55%). Therefore, in total, this study collected data from a sample of 55 Portuguese teleworkers and 41 Spanish teleworkers. The lack of an adequate sample size could explain the lack of relationships and associations predicted by the study hypotheses.

Participant characterization. The fact that the study was only conducted on respondents that have either teleworked before or are currently teleworking, prevents us from discerning if the results collected are indeed due to telework or, in actual fact, due to external factors resulting from the pandemic. Therefore, future studies should collect data from teleworkers and from employees that are not teleworking alike. Furthermore, as pointed out by various scholars (e.g., Ipsen *et al.*, 2021; Milasi, González-Vázquez & Fernández-Macías, 2021; Olszewski & Mokhtarian, 1994), telework has been predominantly conducted by knowledge workers. Scholars have argued that this disparity, between clerical workers and knowledge workers, is due to organizational trust and delegation of work, or lack thereof (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Having said that, Covid-19 was thrust upon clerical worker and knowledge workers alike, therefore, it would be beneficial to discern if there are disparities

between the two groups of employees regarding the use of career management strategies. So, future studies should implement sociodemographic questions that go beyond differentiating respondents by the type of industry they work in, such as their responsibilities, job title and number of people they supervise (if any).

Distribution of the survey. Results from the characterization of participants indicate that the predominant industry teleworking in Portugal and Spain is education (27.3% and 31.7%, respectively). Although these figures are in par with data gathered from telework literature,¹⁰ they do not exclude the possibility that this study is not representative of other industries. That is, the distribution of the survey was conducted with the aid of faculty members and associates (especially in Spain). Therefore, it is credible that the data gathered from the sample is biased towards education professionals. This limitation could be resolved by gathering a larger sample of respondents.

Measurement quality. The measure of objective career success only took into consideration salary growth and rate of promotion, which limited its scope. Human capital factors (e.g., highest level of education obtained, amount of work experience, whether work experience was continuous or interrupted) are equally as important for the measure of objective career success (Whitely *et al.*, 1991), and they were not included. According to career literature, these human capital factors are equally as determinant for perceived career control (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006).

Future research should address these limitations and, most importantly, address the new correlations found in the data. That is, it would be beneficial to test a model that takes into consideration perceived self-efficacy as a predictor of career satisfaction, and perceived organizational support as a predictor of objective career success (i.e., is this correlation due to the influence of mentorship on objective career success, as shown by Whitely, Dougherty, and Dreher (1991)). Furthermore, future research should take into consideration individuals that are not currently teleworking or have never teleworked, to discern if the results collected from this study are only pertinent to teleworkers (i.e., are the correlations found between perceived self-efficacy and career satisfaction, and between perceived organizational support and objective career success only pertinent to teleworkers during the pandemic?).

¹⁰ Before Covid-19 roughly 12% of teaching professionals practiced telework regularly, a statistic which rose to 30% during lockdown (Milasi, González-Vázquez, & Fernández-Macías, 2021).

Conclusion

The present study set out to develop and empirically test an integrative model that explains the causes and consequences of using career self-management strategies (based on kaleidoscope career model) for Iberian teleworkers. However, the findings from this study do not support the desired effects between the predictor variables and career management strategies (H1a), between career management and the dependent variables (H1b), and the mediating effect of career managements between the predictor variables and the dependent variables (H1c). With the exception of a few correlations among the predictor variables (as seen with H2, H3 and H5), the data does not provide sufficient evidence to support a significant role of career management strategies in determining career behaviours and outcomes. Therefore, the results obtained from this study do not provide sufficient evidence to characterize the nature of career management strategies, nor did the model testes provide data to explain the consequences of using career management strategies on Iberian teleworkers.

However, despite these limitations, the data collected still provided insight towards the effect of perceived self-efficacy and desire for career control on career management strategies, with results consistent with career literature. That is, the data indicates that higher perceived self-efficacy decreases the need to acquire news skills and knowledge, therefore, decreases the need for the adoption of career management strategies; and, the data evidences that when teleworkers desire more career control, they actively seek to adopt strategic career behaviours. The results obtained also elucidated to the presence of correlations between the predictor variables and dependent variables, as well as two unanticipated correlations (perceived self-efficacy with career satisfaction, and perceived organizational support with objective career success), which is relevant for the characterization of telework career behaviours.

Therefore, this is a first step to develop future models of career self-management strategies, taking into account the new wave of telework after the changes forced by the pandemic COVID-19. Reflections in the world of telework are required to accommodate the new forms of remotely working and to develop new career management strategies to reinforce the motivation of remote employees.

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Appendices

Appendix A. *Employment Status of Study Sample.*

Characteristics	Full Sample		Spain		Portugal	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Employment status						
Full-time	74	77.1	25	61.0	49	89.1
Part-time	10	10.4	10	24.4	6	10.9
Other	12	12.5	6	14.6	0	0
Employment status of partner						
Full-time	46	80.7	17	73.9	29	85.3
Part-time	2	3.5	1	4.3	1	2.9
Unemployed	3	5.3	2	8.7	1	2.9
Student	3	5.3	2	8.7	1	2.9
Other	3	5.3	1	4.3	2	5.9

Appendix B. *Characterization of Telework in Spain and Portugal.*

Characteristic	Full Sample		Spain		Portugal	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Did you telework before lockdown?						
Yes	26	31.0	5	14.3	21	42.9
No	58	69.0	30	85.7	28	57.1
How many days per week?						
Daily	5	19.2	0	0	5	23.8
4-6 times per week	4	15.4	1	20.0	3	14.3
2-3 times per week	9	34.6	4	80.0	5	23.8
Once a week	8	30.8	0	0	8	38.1
How many hours per day						
1-4 hours	11	47.8	3	60.0	8	44.4
5-8 hours	9	39.1	1	20.0	8	44.4
9-12 hours	0	0	0	0	0	0
More than 13 hours	3	13.0	1	20.0	2	11.1
Are you currently teleworking? (during lockdown)						
Yes	65	77.4	18	51.4	47	95.9
No	19	22.6	17	48.6	2	4.1
How many days per week?						
Daily	38	61.3	3	16.7	35	79.5
4-6 times per week	13	21.0	6	33.3	7	15.9
2-3 times per week	8	12.9	7	38.9	1	2.3
Once a week	3	4.8	2	11.1	1	2.3
How many hours per day?						
1-4 hours	6	9.7	1	5.6	5	11.4
5-8 hours	37	59.7	11	61.1	26	59.1
9-12 hours	15	24.2	4	22.2	11	25.0
More than 13 hours	4	6.5	2	11.1	2	4.5
Distance of telework						
1-5 km	26	41.9	10	55.6	16	36.4
6-10 km	16	25.8	3	16.7	13	29.5
11- 20 km	10	16.1	2	11.1	8	18.2
More than 21 km	10	16.1	3	16.7	7	15.9
To what extent has your weekly work load increased as a result of telework?						
Increased significantly	5	8.1	0	0	5	11.4
Increased	22	35.5	7	38.9	15	34.1
About the same	31	50.0	9	50.0	22	50.0
Decreased	2	3.2	1	5.6	1	2.3
Decreased significantly	2	3.2	1	5.6	1	2.3

Appendix C. Professional Characterization of Participants Before and After Lockdown.

Characteristics	Full sample		Before lockdown		During lockdown	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Industry						
Agriculture, plantations, other rural sectors	2	2.1	0	0	1	1.5
Commerce	3	3.1	2	7.7	2	3.1
Construction	6	6.3	0	0	5	7.7
Education	28	29.2	9	34.6	17	26.2
Financial services	9	9.2	2	7.7	8	12.3
Food, drink, tobacco	5	5.2	1	3.8	2	3.1
Health care and social assistance services	11	11.5	1	3.8	5	7.7
Hotels, tourism, catering	2	2.1	0	0	0	0
Mechanical and electrical engineering	4	4.2	1	3.8	2	3.1
Media, culture, graphical	10	10.4	7	26.9	8	12.3
Postal and telecommunications services	1	1.0	1	3.8	1	1.5
Public service	11	11.5	1	3.8	10	15.4
Shipping, ports, fisheries, inland waterways	1	1.0	0	0	1	1.5
Textiles, clothing, leather, footwear	1	1.0	0	0	1	1.5
Transport (including civil aviation, railways, road transport)	2	2.1	1	3.8	2	3.1
Employment status						
Full-time	74	77.1	24	92.3	62	95.4
Part-time	10	10.4	2	7.7	3	4.6
Other	12	12.5	0	0	0	0
Employment status of partner						
Full-time	46	80.7	17	85.0	41	85.4
Part-time	2	3.5	1	5.0	2	4.2
Unemployed (looking for work)	3	5.3	0	0	1	2.1
Student	3	5.3	1	5.0	2	4.2
Other	3	5.3	1	5.0	2	4.2

Appendix D. Objective Measures of Career Success.

Characteristics	Full Sample		Spain		Portugal	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Salary increase in the last 6 years (%)						
0	25	31.3	13	38.2	12	26.1
1-10	27	33.8	10	29.4	17	37.0
11-20	10	12.5	4	11.8	6	13.0
21-30	5	6.3	2	5.9	3	6.5
More than 31	13	16.3	5	14.7	8	17.4
Number of Promotions in the last 6 years						
None	45	56.3	22	64.7	23	50.0
One	14	17.5	8	23.5	6	13.0
Two	14	17.5	4	11.8	10	21.7
Three	6	7.5	0	0	6	13.0
Four	1	1.3	0	0	1	2.2