UNIVERSIDADE CATÓLICA PORTUGUESA

STRATEGIC CAREER BEHAVIOURS AMONG EUROPEAN REMOTE WORKERS: A GENERAL ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON BASED ON COUNTRY-LEVEL INDIVIDUALISM VS COLLECTIVISM

Dissertation presented to Universidade Católica Portuguesa to obtain a Master's Degree in Psychology in Business and Economics

By

Kiall Camden John Hildred

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Under the supervision of Professor Joana Carneiro Pinto, Ph.D.

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Abstract

This study investigates the antecedents and consequences of strategic career management behaviours in a sample of European remote workers, with particular attention paid to country-level differences when controlling for Hofstede's Individualism/Collectivism. A total of 739 employees (Male = 442, 59.8%), with a mean age of 27.64 years (SD = 8.48; Range = [18, 70]), working mostly full-time (n = 398, 53.9%) and with 46.35% of their work being done remotely. The study tested perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control and perceived organizational support as predictors of strategic career behaviours. And tested strategic career behaviours as predictors of perceived career control, objective and subjective career success, and career satisfaction. The study also investigated whether significant differences exist in the above factors when grouping by residence country's score on Hofstede's Individualism scale (Low[<50] = 286, 38.7%; Range = [27, 89]). Results indicate objective career success was not related to the antecedent variables or strategic career behaviours and hence was removed from the model. Linear regression analysis showed mostly significant and positive relationships between factors in the model. Mediation analysis showed mix results. Generally, perceived self-efficacy and desire for career control are good predictors of the use of strategic career behaviours, but perceived organizational support is not; strategic career behaviours are reasonable predictors of perceived control, and very strong predictors of subjective career success and career satisfaction. Differences in these outcomes between the low/high individualism groups were minimal. These results will support career management programs, accounting for idiosyncrasies of remote working and cultural differences that may affect the impact remote work has on career management.

Keywords: strategic career behaviours, remote working, career management, European workers, Hofstede individualism/collectivism.

Resumo

Este estudo analisa os antecedentes e consequentes dos comportamentos de gestão estratégica de carreira numa amostra de trabalhadores remotos europeus, com especial atenção para as diferenças entre países quando se controla a dimensão Individualismo/Coletivismo de Hofstede. Participaram um total de 739 trabalhadores (homens = 442, 59.8%), com uma média de idades de 27.64 anos (DP = 8.48; amplitude = [18, 70]), trabalhando maioritariamente a tempo inteiro (n = 398, 53.9%) e com 46.35% do seu trabalho a ser realizado a distância. O estudo testou a autoeficácia percebida, o desejo de controlo da carreira e o apoio organizacional percebido como preditores dos comportamentos estratégicos de carreira. E testou os comportamentos estratégicos de carreira como preditores do controlo percebido da carreira, do sucesso objetivo e subjetivo da carreira e da satisfação com a carreira. O estudo também analisou a existência de diferenças significativas nos fatores supramencionados quando agrupados pela pontuação do país de residência na escala de individualismo de Hofstede (Baixo[<50] = 286, 38.7%; Intervalo = [27, 89]). Os resultados indicam que o sucesso na carreira objectiva não estava relacionado com as variáveis antecedentes ou com os comportamentos estratégicos de carreira, pelo que foi retirado do modelo. A análise de regressão linear revelou relações maioritariamente significativas e positivas entre os fatores do modelo. A análise de mediação apresentou resultados mistos. De um modo geral, a perceção de autoeficácia e o desejo de controlo da carreira são bons preditores da utilização de comportamentos estratégicos de carreira, mas o apoio organizacional percebido não o é; os comportamentos estratégicos de carreira são preditores razoáveis do controlo percebido e preditores muito fortes do sucesso subjetivo de carreira e da satisfação com a carreira. As diferenças nestes resultados entre os grupos de individualismo baixo/alto foram muito reduzidas. Estes resultados apoiarão o desenvolvimento de programas de gestão de carreira que tenham em conta as idiossincrasias do trabalho remoto e as diferenças culturais que podem afetar o impacto do trabalho remoto na gestão da carreira.

Palavras-chave: comportamentos estratégicos de carreira, trabalho a distância, gestão de carreira, trabalhadores europeus, individualismo/coletivismo de Hofstede.

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Introduction

The social-distancing and isolation measures put in place in response to the COVID-19 pandemic led many to adopt or require flexible working arrangements (Milasi et al., 2021). It is reasonable to expect that this shift affected not just where people conduct their work, but also how they think about and manage their career goals, their progress and their aspirations.

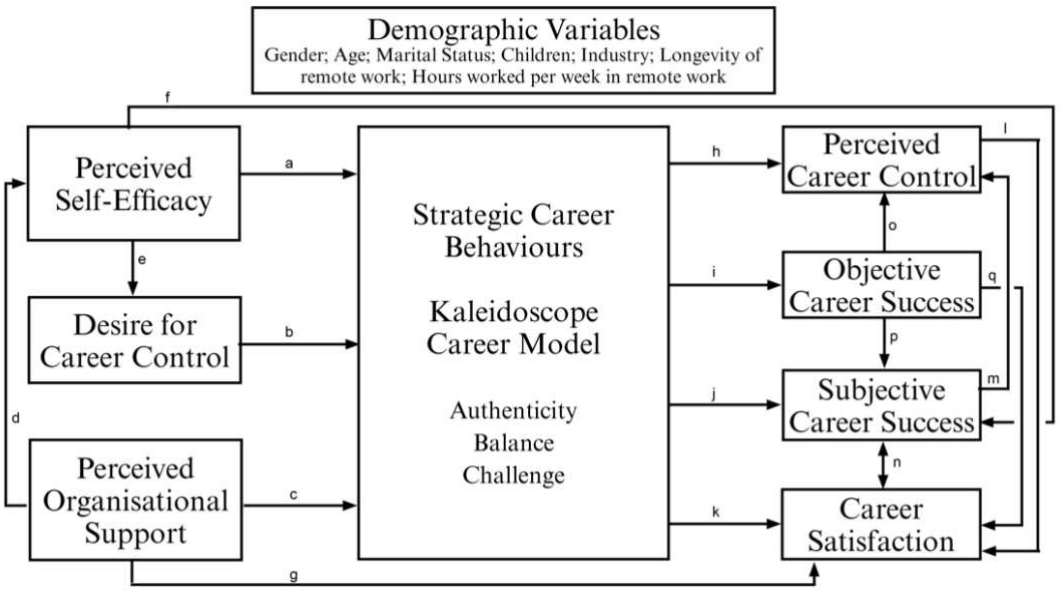
This shift also posed many challenges for individual career management, as it has been found that many employees feel that remote work negatively affects their long-term career prospects and opportunities for career advancement (Lott & Abendroth, 2020; Tavares et al., 2020). This concern has been reified by work (e.g., Bloom et al., 2015) that suggests that remote working reduces the likelihood of career advancement because it clashes with the belief that the measure of one's productivity depends on the time spent on the job (as per Green et al., 2020; Possenriede et al., 2014). This also seems to spill over into the perception office-bound workers and managers have of their remote-working colleagues, affecting the consistency of remote workers' performance (Baruch, 2000). Furthermore, without direct communication and social interaction with colleagues and superiors, remote workers may also worry that they are missing out on opportunities for mentorship and coaching, as well as opportunities to develop a corporate identity with the company they work for (Tavares et al., 2020; De Vries et al., 2019). Also, the autonomy implied or expected from remote workers lumps them with greater responsibility for defining their roles and for managing their long-term career trajectory (Raabe et al., 2007; Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2001). Hence, it is of particular importance to understand the specific challenges faced by those in remote work (Satici et al., 2020), especially given that the ubiquity of this form of work may become a permanent feature of jobs in the future.

The present work extends the preliminary study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor, Simão and Pinto (in press) that looked at strategic career behaviours in a sample of Iberian remote workers and used the Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008) as the central point for a broader model of the antecedents and consequences of strategic career behaviours (SCB). The KCM is composed of three strategic career behaviours, named authenticity, balance and challenge. Authenticity refers to moving one's career to be in alignment with one's personal values. Balance refers to satisfactorily allocating one's time and energy between one's career and non-career duties. Challenge refers to seeking out challenges in one's work in order to increase opportunities for growth

and career advancement. The KCM hypothesis is that workers focus in varying degrees on these three strategies at different times in their life or career and as their goals change.

The antecedents of SCB chosen for the broader model (Figure 1) were perceived self-efficacy (PSE), desire for career control (DCC) and perceived organizational support (POS), and the consequences were perceived career control, (PCC) objective career success (OCS), subjective career success (SCS) and career satisfaction (SAT).

Figure 1. Conceptual Model using the Kaleidoscope Career Model and its Antecedents and Consequences on Remote Workers



The choice of these factors was based on studies that showed links between strategic career behaviours and various personal and career outcomes (Desrosiers, 2001; King, 2000; Kossek et al., 1998; Lau & Pang, 2000; Lent & Brown, 2006; Raabe et al., 2007; Sturges et al., 2002).

Relationships between Antecedents and Strategic Career Behaviours

Self-efficacy has been associated with career behaviour as far back as the study by Lent et al. (1987). Later work by Raghuram et al. (2003) showed self-efficacy to be positively related to the career management behaviour of remote workers. However, the prior study using the present model by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press)

supported a predictive relationship between perceived self-efficacy and strategic career behaviours, but in the negative direction.

A potential explanation for this inverse relationship is that those who see themselves as highly-efficacious may not feel any subsequent need to engage in strategic career behaviours to improve this perception, where as those with low perceived self-efficacy seek to engage in behaviours that will make them feel more efficacious.

The conflict between the studies above may be due to two main reasons. First, while they both include samples of remote workers, the prior study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) focused on a European sample, whereas Raghuram et al. (2003) was conducted with U.S sample, and second, there may be differences in outcomes based on the subtle differences in the measures used for self-efficacy and perceived self-efficacy (Self-efficacy, 3 items, taken from Sherer et al., 1982 in the case of Raghuram et al., 2003; Perceived Self-efficacy, 11 items, taken from Whitely et al., 1991 in the case of Sotto-Mayor, 2021 and Sotto-Mayor et al., [in press]).

The prior study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) also found that perceived self-efficacy correlated negatively with desire for career control and was a significant predictor of it, which suggest that having low perceived self-efficacy leads to a stronger desire for control over one's career. Kuijpers and Scheerens (2006) have argued that career control and organisational support are important components in career self-management. In the current working climate, with its increase in remote working and the isolation that comes with it, having control over one's career and being supported in self-management are expected to be ever more important for engaging in strategic career behaviours.

Indeed, the prior study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press), showed that desire for career control positively correlated with strategic career behaviours, suggesting that desiring career control leads to positive actions to gain that control. This aligns with King (2004) who discussed an association between perceived self-efficacy and career control, but suggested that the relationship from career control to self-efficacy would be positive, as the desire for career control leads to good outcomes, this has a positive effect on perceived self-efficacy. This suggests a more dynamic, non-linear relationship between these two factors.

While Nabi (2000) has argued that the motivation to engage in strategic career behaviours is directly influenced by organisational support, the prior study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) showed no direct relationship between perceived organizational support and strategic career behaviours. However, it did show that perceived organizational support was a significant positive predictor of perceived self-efficacy (in addition to desire for career control), suggesting that being supported by one's organisation improve one's belief in their abilities, and that perceive organisational support may only affect strategic career behaviours indirectly through perceived self-efficacy and desire for career control.

As the present study follows from Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press), using the same model in a European sample, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a. Perceived self-efficacy negatively predicts strategic career behaviours (path a).

Hypothesis 1b. Desire for career control positively predicts strategic career behaviours (path b).

Hypothesis 1c. Perceived organisational support has only an indirect relationship to strategic career behaviours (path c).

Hypothesis 1d. Perceived organisational support positively predicts perceived self-efficacy (path d).

Hypothesis 1e. Perceived self-efficacy negatively predicts desire for career control (path e).

Relationships between Strategic Career Behaviours and Consequences

The work by Koekemoer and Crafford (2019) on a South African sample of workers would suggest positive links between strategic career behaviours, in this case specifically the use of the factors in the Kaleidoscope Career Model, and the measures of subjective and objective career success.

The work by Stumpf and Tymon (2012) on a U.S sample of workers showed strong links between objective and subjective career success, while several studies show at least a weak to moderate link between the two variables (e.g., Abele, Spurk, & Volmer, 2011; Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005; Dette, Abele, & Renner, 2004; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). There are many possible reasons for an interaction

between these two variables. A higher salary may lead to more freedom to engage in behaviours that boost subjective career success, or it could be the result of more stress and hence contribute to lowering subjective career success. These relationships may also change over time as people adapt to their base level of salary, position or lifestyle.

In a study on Pakistani workers, Malik et al. (2019) showed that work-life balance positively predicted subjective career satisfaction. Another study conducted on a Pakistani sample, Najam et al. (2020), showed work-life balance to moderate the effect of career commitment on subjective career success.

Furthermore, in a study comparing German and Chinese workers, Qiu and Dauth (2022) found that work-family balance was an important mediator in the relationship between the effects of telework intensity and job satisfaction, suggesting that the strategic career behaviour of balance predicts job satisfaction. They also found that there were differences in this effect between the two countries, which is relevant for the cultural comparisons to be discussed later in this paper. Both Raabe et al. (2007) in a German sample of workers and Lau and Pang (2000) in a Hong Kong sample of workers, showed positive connections between strategic career behaviours and career satisfaction, while Greenhaus et al. (1990) found a negative relationship between the two in a U.S sample of workers. In relation to the other paths in the model, the work by Sönmez et al. (2021) on a sample of Turkish nurses showed a positive effect subjective career success on job satisfaction.

Despite these mixed findings, the prior study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) showed no correlations between strategic career behaviours and any of the consequent factors in the model (perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction). However, the study did show that subjective career success was positively correlated with both objective career success and career satisfaction. Regarding the conflict with those studies focused on job satisfaction and the lack of relationships found in Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press), this is possibly due to slight differences in the measures of *career* satisfaction vs *job* satisfaction, as the former focuses on the over-arching course of a career and not on the current and specific job one is in. However, Lau and Pang (2000) have argued that, at least in the early stages of one's career, these terms are indistinguishable.

The work by Simmons et al. (2022) on a U.S sample of workers did use career satisfaction as a variable, and the work gives a wide and direct investigation into the

relationships between the Kaleidoscope Career Model and other career outcomes. They looked at the effects of the individual components of the model (authenticity, balance and challenge) and their findings suggest that: while the level of emphasis on authenticity at a given time has no effect on career outcomes, increases (or decreases) in this emphasis over time lead to decreases (or increases) in career satisfaction; an emphasis on balance *negatively* predicted salary, but didn't predict promotions, career satisfaction, or promotion rate, except that changes in the emphasis on balance over time did positively predict promotion rate; and an emphasis on challenge at any given moment didn't predict any of the career outcomes, but changes in this emphasis over time positively predicted all promotions, promotion rate, salary and career satisfaction.

Additionally, very few of the studies above were conducted on broad European samples of workers, or on remote workers. As the present study follows from Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press), using the same model in a larger European sample that includes remote workers, it is valuable to reconsider the expected relationships in the model developed in the prior study.

Hence, drawing on previous findings and on the prior study, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a. Treated as a single variable, strategic career behaviours positively predict perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction (paths h-k).

Hypothesis 2b. Perceived career control positively predicts career satisfaction (path l).

Hypothesis 2c. Objective career success positively predicts perceived career control, subjective career success and career satisfaction (paths o, p and q).

Hypothesis 2d. Subjective career success positively predicts perceived career control and career satisfaction (path m and n).

Relationships between Antecedents and Consequences

Regarding relationships between the antecedents and consequences, various results have been found across studies. In a European sample, Abele and Spurk (2009) found that self-efficacy had a positive impact on measures of objective career success and career satisfaction. This latter relationship was also found by Rigotti et al. (2020) in a German

sample and a positive correlation between self-efficacy and career success (mixed objective and subjective measures) was found by Wu et al. (2022) in a sample of Chinese nurses. Furthermore, both Badri et al. (2013) in an Emirati sample and Ballout (2009) in a Lebanese sample, found self-efficacy to play an important positive role in the relationship of objective and subjective career success (satisfaction) to other variables.

Regarding the role of perceived organisational support in career outcomes, a study by Agrawal and Singh (2022) on an Indian sample of workers found that perceived organizational support moderated the relationship between career behaviours and subjective career success; in a Canadian sample, Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) found career satisfaction to act as a mediator between perceived organizational support and various strategic career behaviours; and Dose et al. (2019) found indirect positive links between perceived organisational support and objective and subject career success in a sample of French psychologists.

The prior study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) also found self-efficacy to predict subjective career success and career satisfaction, but not objective career success or perceived career control. Perceived organisational support positively predicted career satisfaction, and was negatively correlated with objective career success, but did not correlate with subjective career success. Also, the study found no correlations between desire for career control and any of the consequent variables.

Again, many of the above cited studies were conducted on non-European samples with workers in traditional (non-telework) settings. Hence, it is important to reconsider these relationships in the present European sample including teleworkers. In light of the above findings, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a. Perceived self-efficacy positively predicts objective career success, subjective career success (path f) and career satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b. Desire for career control has no direct effect on perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success or career satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c. Perceived organizational support positively predicts objective career success, subjective career success or career satisfaction (path g).

Strategic Career Behaviours as a Mediator of the Relationships between Antecedents and Consequences

The prior work by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) found no evidence to suggest strategic career behaviours as a mediator between the antecedent and consequent variables. However, only the relationship between perceived self-efficacy and career satisfaction was tested. Therefore, it is worthwhile to reconsider these relationships and the mediating effects of strategic career behaviours within a larger and more diverse sample.

Hypothesis 4. Strategic career behaviours mediate the effects of perceived self-efficacy, desire for career control and perceived organizational support on perceived career control, objective career success, subjective career success and career satisfaction.

Cultural comparison

This broader scope also allows for comparisons between countries on the various antecedents and consequences of strategic career behaviours among remote workers.

There have been many studies comparing various countries on factors that relate to strategic career behaviours (e.g., Henderson & Chan, 2005; Shkoler et al., 2021; Van Hoy et al., 2022) and the influence of cultural values on attitudes towards important factors in work and organisations (Allen et al., 2021; Gully et al., 2003; Hytter, 2007; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2020; Salgado & Moscoso, 2022), as well as those towards the adoption, intensity and effectiveness of remote working (e.g., Brown et al., 2021; Ollo-Lopez et al., 2021; Peters et al., 2016; Qiu & Dauth, 2022).

Hofstede's cultural values indices (Hofstede, 2001) are useful tools for comparing cultural differences between countries. Hofstede's model consists of six dimensions: Power Distance (PDI), Individualism vs Collectivism (IDV), Masculinity vs Femininity (MAS), Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), Long Term Orientation vs Short Term Normative Orientation (LTO), and Indulgence vs Restraint (IVR). Organising countries onto either end of these indices may also reveal deeper explanations for country-level differences in attitudes and outcomes related to remote working. As a key difference between remote work and work done in a traditional office setting is a greater degree of isolation (de Vries et al., 2019), there is conceptual reason to suggest that the cultural dimension of IDV would play a role in country-level differences in outcomes.

Indeed, several studies have investigated the interaction and conflicts of different levels of IDV with remote working and career development. (e.g., Hartung et al., 2002, 2010; Iwashita, 2021; Lopes, 2006; Noordin et al., 2002). Hartung et al. (2002) looked at the role of IDV in career development, but found only a small relationship between the two, and their later work (Hartung et al., 2010) only showed that collectivism has no negative effect on investment in career development, contrary to their expectations. However, they did find a positive relationship between collectivism and work values that emphasise relationships and interdependence. Combined, these findings suggest that differences in IDV result not in differences in the intensity of career development, but in the reasons motivating career decisions. Although, Hartung et al. (2002; 2010) used an alternative scale to Hofstede's cultural values indices to operationalise individualism vs collectivism, namely the Individual-Collectivism Scale from Singelis et al. (1995), as did Noordin et al. (2002) in their study on career commitment.

Alternatively, Peters et al. (2016) investigated how individualism and collectivism influences the organisational use of remote working. However, they too used an alternative scale to measure individualism and collectivism, namely the Schwartz individualism and collectivism dimensions detailed in Ralston et al. (2011), which treats individualism and collectivism as separate scales and not opposite ends of the same scale. They showed that the strength of national cultural values – how high up either scale a country is – may explain differences in attitudes to remote working.

The most direct investigation using Hofstede's cultural values indices to measure the relationship between cultural differences and remote work was conducted by Beňo (2021), who found a correlation between PDI and the amount of remote working between countries and a correlation between the amount of remote working and IVR. However, the same study found no correlation between IDV and the amount of remote working. Yet, a lack of correlation between IDV and the amount of remote working still leaves open the possibility of a connection between IDV and the use of strategic career behaviours.

Although the analysis of cultural differences in the present study are at this stage only exploratory, based on the above findings, it is expected that cultural differences will have their greatest impact on perceived self-efficacy through the cultural dimension of IDV. Hence, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5. When placed in groups based on their residence country's scores of Hofstede's Individual vs Collectivism index, the relationships between perceived self-efficacy and the other variables in the model will differ between groups.

Aim

Although the interaction of remote work with career behaviours, antecedents and outcomes has gained attention, much of the research on the relationships between these factors has been pairwise. As mentioned, there are strong reasons to believe that remote workers, especially those working from home, feel that doing so negatively impacts their ability to manage their career goals and has an impact on some of the factors included in our model. Hence, it is important to further investigate the interaction of these antecedents and consequences of strategic career behaviours for teleworks within a larger framework.

While the previous work by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) did focus on the outcome in the model for remote workers, the study was limited to those in Spain and Portugal. And while there are bound to be some universals in the dynamics of work and remote work across countries that would partly justify the generalisation of results, in order to properly understand a broader version of the strategic career behaviour model, it is important to investigate how the impact of strategic career behaviours and other factors in the model change across countries.

Therefore, the present study aims to analyse the antecedents and consequences of strategic career behaviours among remote workers, extending the work by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) to include a wider European population and to conduct exploratory analysis into the differences in these outcomes between respondents based on their resident country's score on Hofstede's (2001) Individualism vs Collectivism scale.

Method

Instruments

The online questionnaire[1] included sections on: personal variables, such as age and gender; sociodemographic variables, including country of residence and family variables; employment status, including measures of salary change (%SI) and promotions (PRO) for

[1] https://ucpcienciashumanas.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_egQUJXlNwiGwQPs

use as measures of objective career success (OCS); strategic career behaviours (SCB) using the Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM); the antecedents, perceived self-efficacy (PSE), desire for career control (DCC), and perceived organisational support (POS); and the consequences, perceived career control (PCC), subjective career success (SCS), career satisfaction (SAT).

The variables used in the model are detailed below (see also Table 1).

Perceived Self-Efficacy (Kossek et al. 1998): 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 scale (1 = strongly disagree, to 5 = strongly agree). Some items were reverse-coded so that higher perceived self-efficacy was always represented by higher values.

Desire for Career Control (King, 2000): 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).

Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986): 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 disagree, to 5 = Strongly agree). Some items were reverse-coded so that higher perceived organizational support was always represented by higher values.

Strategic Career Behaviours (*Kaleidoscope Career Model*, Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008): 15 items, 5 each for the authenticity, balance, and challenge subscales (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*"), using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = This does not describe me at all, to 5 = This describes me very well).

Perceived Career Control (Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006): 5 items (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*"), using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, to 5 = Strongly agree).

Subjective Career Success (Briscoe et al., 2021): level of importance of 20 items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Not at all important, to 5 = Extremely important)., (e.g., "*Please indicate the importance to you of: Having the opportunity to be innovative in my work activities; Experiencing challenges in my work; Continuously learning throughout my career*", etc.).

Career Satisfaction (Briscoe et al., 2021): level of achievement on the same 20 items as above (e.g., "*In regard to this career aspect, I have achieved a level I am happy with...*"), measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, to 5 = Strongly agree).

Objective Career Success (Whitely et al., 1991): measured using percentage of salary increase and number of promotions received in the previous 6 years.

Table 1. Psychometric Data and Reliability of Instruments Used in the Model

Instruments	*Mean*	*SD*	*Median*	*Mode*	*Min, Max*	*Items*	*Cronbach's α*
Perceived Self-Efficacy *Whitely, Dougherty & Dreher 1991*	39.80	6.282	40	42	19, 54	11	.787
Desire for Career Control *King 2000*	26.72	3.20	27	28	15, 35	7	.552
Perceived Organizational Support *Eisenberger et al. 1986*	34.95	5.09	36	36	20, 49	11	.669
Strategic Career Behaviours *Kaleidoscope Career Model, Sullivan & Mainiero 2008*	50.68	9.24	51	51	20, 73	15	.831
Perceived Career Control *Kuijpers & Scheerens 2006*	17.35	3.95	18	19	5, 25	5	.862
Subjective Career Success *Briscoe et al. 2021, Importance*	78.21	9.80	79	78	38, 100	20	.874
Career Satisfaction *Briscoe et al. 2021, Achievement*	71	12.70	72	76	20, 100	20	.916
Objective Career Success *% Salary Increase*	13.55	26.41	10	0	-100, 100	1	—
Objective Career Success *No. of Promotions*	.94	1.263	1	0	0, 10	1	—

Data collection and data analysis procedures

This study is part of a wider project funded through Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT; Foundation for Science and Technology), I.P. under the EXPL/PSI-

GER/0321/2021 project – EURECA: New career strategies for new European remote careers. This was reviewed and approved by the Católica Research Centre for Psychological, Family and Social Wellbeing (CRC-W) Review Board. Participants were informed of all procedures and data were collected online in June 2022. Data were analysed on SPSS (IBM, Version 28) and two studies were developed.

On study 1, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted between all factors in the model. Linear regression analysis was used to test: PSE, DCC, and POS as predictors of SCB; SCB as a predictor of PCC, SCS, and SAT; as well as PSE as a predictor of SCS; POS as a predictor of PSE and SAT; PCC as a predictor of SAT; and SCS as a predictor of PCC and SAT. Mediation Analysis, using PROCESS model 4 (Hayes, 2013), was used to test the mediating effects of SCB between the antecedent and consequent factors.

On study 2, the data were split into two groups based on the Hofstede Individualism/Collectivism scores of the participants' country of residence, with values above 50 considered high individualism/low collectivism (HILC), and values below 50 considered low individualism/high collectivism (LIHC). All correlation, regression and mediation analyses conducted in Study 1 were then conducted for the two groups separately, and t-tests were performed to compare the two groups on the variables and their relationships in the model.

Study 1: Testing a general European model

Participants

The respondents comprised a total of 739 (Male=442, 59.8%) individuals with a mean age of 27.64 years (SD=8.48; Range=[18, 70]), mostly single (N=499, 67.5%) with no children (639, 86.5%), working mostly full-time (N=398, 53.9%) and with 46.35% of their work being done remotely.

Most worked in small (1-25 employees: N=250, 33.8%; <250 employees: N=204, 27.6%), private organizations (N=550, 74.4%), and mostly in the industries of: media, cultural, graphical (N=108, 14.6%); mechanical and electrical engineering (N=82, 11.1%); commerce (N=80, 10.8%); education (N=71, 9.6%); health care and social assistance services (N=71, 9.6%); and financial services (N=64, 8.7%).

Most were earning low salaries (<1000€: 42.2% [N=312]; 1000–1499€: 28.6% [N=211]), had received on average 0.94 (SD=1.263, [0, 10], N=738) promotions over the

previous 6-year period and a 13.549% (SD=26.414%, [-100, 100], N=707) increase in their salaries.

The levels of education attained across the participants showed that 0.1% (N=1) and 37.1% (N=274) had complete primary and secondary education, respectively; while 40.7% (N=301), 20.8% (N=154) and 1.2% (N=9) had completed a bachelor's, master's or PhD, respectively.

Results

Results from Pearson correlation analysis (Table 2) indicated that the measures of OCS had only weak correlations with the other variables and were hence removed from the model.

Table 2. Correlations between Antecedents and Consequences of Strategic Career Behaviours

a. Correlations								*p<.05 **p<.01 *** p<.001
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. PSE	—							
2. DCC	.254***	—						
3. POS	.228***	.052	—					
4. SCB	.348***	.437***	.120**	—				
5. PCC	.541***	.251***	.258***	.435***	—			
6. SCS	.355***	.593***	.092*	.587***	.355***	—		
7. SAT	.366***	.256***	.307***	.361***	.458***	.428***	—	
8. OCS (%SI)	.092*	.085*	.097*	.033	.057	.073	.108**	—
9. OCS (PRO)	.106**	.029	.085*	.053	.135***	.059	.158***	.224***

Strong correlations were found between most other variables, except DCC and POS, which was insignificant, and POS and SCS, which was significant (p<.05), but mild (r=.092). The direction of the correlation between PSE and DCC was positive, in contrast to the negative correlation found in the preliminary study. The number of significant correlations was also greater than in the preliminary study, allowing for further investigation into the predictive and mediating effects of SCB and the relationships between the antecedents and consequences.

Direct regression analyses (Table 3) were conducted between correlated factors.

Table 3. Regression Results between Antecedents and Consequences of Strategic Career Behaviours

Regressions: Direct Paths								
IV	*DV*	*B*	*SE(B)*	*β*	R^2	R^2 *adj.*	*t*	*p*
PSE	SCB *(path a)*	.511	.051	.348	.121	.120	14.823	<.001
—	DCC *(path e)*	.130	.018	.254	.065	.063	7.139	<.001
—	PCC	.340	.019	.541	.293	.292	17.479	<.001
—	SCS *(path f)*	.555	.054	.355	.126	.125	10.322	<.001
—	SAT	.740	.069	.366	.134	.133	10.675	<.001
DCC	SCB *(path b)*	1.261	.096	.437	.191	.190	13.179	<.001
—	PCC	.310	.044	.251	.063	.062	7.048	<.001
—	SCS	1.817	.091	.593	.351	.351	19.983	<.001
—	SAT	1.016	.141	.256	.065	.064	7.183	<.001
POS	SCB *(path c)*	.218	.066	.120	.014	.013	3.287	.001
—	PSE *(path d)*	.282	.044	.228	.052	.051	6.362	<.001
—	PCC	.200	.028	.258	.066	.065	7.235	<.001
—	SCS	.178	.071	.092	.008	.007	2.512	.012
—	SAT *(path g)*	.766	.088	.307	.094	.093	8.745	<.001
SCB	PCC *(path h)*	.186	.014	.435	.189	.188	13.111	<.001
—	SCS *(path j)*	.623	.032	.587	.345	.344	19.692	<.001
—	SAT *(path k)*	.496	.047	.361	.130	.129	10.495	<.001
PCC	SAT *(path l)*	1.474	.105	.458	.210	.209	13.981	<.001
SCS	PCC *(path m)*	.143	.014	.355	.126	.125	10.299	<.001
—	SAT *(path n)*	.554	.043	.428	.183	.182	12.845	<.001

All regression paths were significant, including those not expected in the model, and all at the p<.001 level, with the exception of POS as a predictor of SCB (p=.001) and of SCS (p=.012)

When combined, the antecedents explained 25.3% of the variance in SCB (Table 4). In this model, PSE and DCC were significant predictors of SCB, but POS was not.

Table 4. Regression Results between Antecedents and Strategic Career Behaviours

a. **Outcome:** ***Strategic Career Behaviours (SCB)***							
R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*	
.503	.253	8.00	82.791	3	735	<.001	
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path a^)*		.357	.050	7.173	<.001	.259	.454
DCC *(path b^)*		1.076	.095	11.302	<.001	.889	1.263
POS *(path c^)*		.083	.059	1.388	.166	-.034	.199

Note. n= 738; Confidence for all CIs in output: 95.0000

No of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

The results from subsequent mediation analysis using PROCESS model 4 (Hayes, 2013) tested the degree to which SCB mediated the effects of the antecedents on the consequences (Table 5).

Table 5. Mediation Results between Antecedents and Consequences of Strategic Career Behaviours

Mediation											
a. ***Outcome: Perceived Career Control (PCC; Blue paths, Figure 2)***											
R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.615	.379	3.12	111.789	4	734	<.001		*Indirect effects on PCC*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*T*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path o)*		.260	.020	12.953	<.001	.220	.299	.0613	.0097	.0432	.0813
DCC *(path r)*		.029	.040	.722	.470	-.050	.108	.2164	.0278	.1647	.2745
POS *(path u)*		.101	.023	4.347	<.001	.055	.146	.0382	.0126	.0146	.0642
SCB *(path h^)*		.113	.014	7.879	<.001	.142	.435				

b. ***Outcome: Subjective Career Success (SCS; Red paths, Figure 2)***											
R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.760	.498	6.96	182.186	4	734	<.001		*Indirect effects on SCS*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*T*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path p)*		.196	.045	4.385	<.001	.108	.284	.2862	.0035	.2210	.3530
DCC *(path s)*		1.225	.090	13.647	<.001	1.049	1.401	.5429	.0569	.4378	.6588
POS *(path x)*		-.003	.052	-.064	.949	-.105	.098	.1354	.0443	.0496	.2241
SCB *(path j^)*		.392	.032	12.203	<.001	.329	.455				

c. Outcome: Career Satisfaction (SAT; Green paths, Figure 2)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.501	.251	11.027	61.356	4	734	<.001		*Indirect effects on SAT*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*T*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path q)*		.434	.071	6.122	<.001	.295	.573	.1866	.0321	.1264	.2519
DCC *(path t)*		.375	.142	2.638	.009	.096	.654	.5333	.0802	.3849	.7005
POS *(path z)*		.566	.082	6.895	<.001	.405	.727	.0986	.0342	.0328	.1685
SCB *(path k^)*		.299	.051	5.884	<.001	.199	.399				

Note. n= 738; Confidence for all CIs in output: 95.0000

No of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

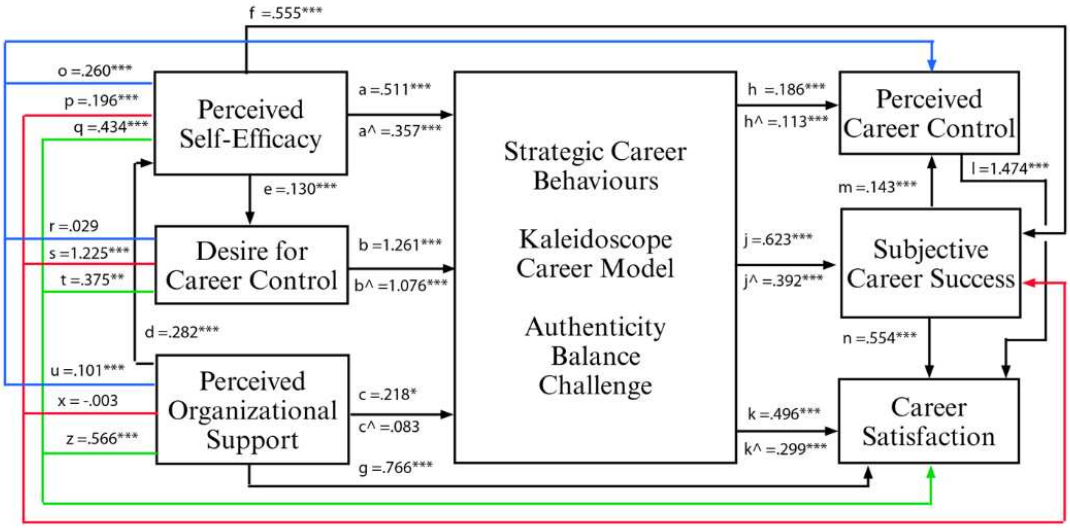
When combined, the antecedents and SCB significantly predicted all three consequences. In predicting PCC, DCC was no longer a significant predictor but did have significant indirect effects, and PSE and POS remained significant predictors and had significant indirect effects. This suggests that the effect of DCC on PCC is significantly mediated by SCB, but that the effects of PSE and POS on PCC are only partially mediated by SCB.

In predicting SCS, POS was no longer a significant predictor but did have significant indirect effects, and PSE and DCC remained significant predictors and had significant indirect effects, suggesting that the mild effect of POS on SCS is significantly mediated by SCB, but that the effects of PSE and DCC on SCS are only partially mediated by SCB.

In predicting SAT, all three antecedents remained significant predictors, however there was a drop in the significance of DCC as a predictor (p<.001 to p=.009). This suggests that the effects of the antecedents on SAT are only partially mediated by SCB, with a greater partial mediation for DCC.

A completed model of the effect sizes is displayed in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2. Analysed Unstandardized Coefficients of the Career Management Model



*$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$; Coloured lines: indirect effect of each antecedent variable on Perceived Career Control (blue), Subjective Career Success (red) and Career Satisfaction (green) when the relationships are mediated by Strategic Career Behaviours.

Discussion

The measures for OCS provided only mild and mostly insignificant correlations between the other variables. This may be due to operational limitations which are considered below in the general discussion. Apart from the insignificant correlation between DCC and POS, and the mild correlation between POS and SCS, all other variables besides the OCS measures had moderate to strong significant correlations.

The regression paths between all variables, including those not expected in the model, were found to be significant within the $p<.05$ level (most at the $p<.001$ level). These results provide support for *H1b* and *H1d,* but contradict *H1a* and *H1e*, due to the positive relationships found opposed to the negative relationships hypothesised.

Furthermore, SCB was a positive predictor of PCC, SCS and SAT, fully supporting *H2a*, with the exception of objective career success measures being removed from the model. PCC was a positive predictor of SAT, providing support for *H2b*, and SCS was a positive predictor of both PCC and SAT, fully supporting *H2d*. Support for *H2c* was indeterminate due to the removal of objective career success measures from the model.

PSE and POS were positive predictors of SCS and SAT, fully supporting *H3a* and *H3c*, with the exception of objective career success measures being removed from the model,

and with POS being only a very weak predictor of SCS (R^2=.008, p=.012). Lastly, DCC was a positive predictor of PCC, SCS and SAT, contradicting the no direct effects hypothesis in *H3b*.

When the antecedents were combined, the model was a significant predictor of SCB, but POS didn't contribute significantly. This supports *H1c* and suggests that the effect of POS on SCB may be mediated by PSE, although the indirect effects were also insignificant.

Of the three antecedents, POS would be expected to be more reliant on the variability of organisations and the actual support those organisations give, and less on the variability of individual characteristics. However, POS was a significant predictor of PSE, suggesting that the mild direct effect of POS of SCB may be mediated by PSE. This would make sense if receiving or perceiving support from one's organisation helps bolster the feelings of self-efficacy that lead to engagement in SCB and career outcomes, as partially evidenced by Liu et al. (2015), but isn't necessary for it.

The mediation analysis showed that when the antecedents were combined with SCB to predict PCC, DCC no longer had a direct effect on PCC, but still had significant indirect effects, suggesting a mediation of this relationship by SCB, and providing partial support to *H4*. This would make sense if either having a desire for career control stems from not feeling as though one has career control, as would be suggested by McDonald and Hite's (2008) findings, or if in order to desire control and simultaneously feel as though one has it requires being engaged in strategic career behaviours, as the results from the previous study by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) suggested, aligning with King (2004).

In contrast, PSE and POS remained significant predictors of PCC in the presence of SCB while also having significant indirect effects, suggesting a partial mediation by SCB in these relationships, and providing additional partial support to *H4*. This combination of direct and indirect effects would make sense if having a strong sense of one's capabilities, as well as having a firm organisational base of support to work from both directly bolster a sense of career control as well as motivating the engagement in strategic career behaviours which further adds to that sense of control, as suggested by Abdalla (1995), Nabi (2000), and Taylor and Popma (1990), and indirectly suggested by the findings of Agrawal and Singh (2022).

The analysis also showed that when the antecedents were combined with SCB to predict SCS, POS no longer had a direct effect on SCS, but still had significant indirect

effects, suggesting a mediation of this relationship by SCB, providing, again, only partial support to *H4*. This may be explained by a potential mediating effect of PSE, as proposed above, considering that POS is not a significant predictor of SCB in the presence of the other antecedents.

In contrast, PSE and DCC remained significant predictors of SCS while also having significant indirect effects, suggesting a partial mediation by SCB in these relationships. Again, this combination of direct and indirect effects may point to a mechanism whereby having a strong sense of one's capabilities and strong desire for control over one's career are both markers for a subjective sense of career success as well as motivators for engagement in the strategic career behaviours that would help one achieve that success, relationships which have been suggested by various authors (e.g., Abele & Spurk, 2009; Badri et al., 2013; Ballout, 2009; King, 2004; Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006; Raghuram et al., 2003; Rigotti et al., 2020; Sotto-Mayor, 2021 and Sotto-Mayor et al., in press; and Wu et al., 2022).

Lastly, the analysis showed that when the antecedents were combined with SCB to predict SAT, PSE, DCC and POS remained significant predictors, but still had significant indirect effects, suggesting only partial mediation of these relationships by SCB. This suggests that a sense of satisfaction in one's career requires a sense of self-efficacy, support from one's organisation and a desire to be in control of one's career and requires or is aided by the engagement in strategic career behaviours, taking advantage of those supports, desires and capabilities. The first two and the last relationships have been suggested by Abele and Spurk (2009), Badri et al. (2013), Ballout (2009), and Rigotti et al. (2020); Agrawal and Singh (2022) and Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009); and Greenhaus et al. (1990), Lau and Pang (2000), and Raabe et al. (2007), respectively, though no support for the relationship with desire for career control. This lack of support may be supported in the results by the fact that there was a slight drop in the significance of DCC as a direct predictor of SAT in this model, potentially suggesting that in order for a desire for career control to contribute to career satisfaction, that desire needs to lead to strategic career behaviours, however this is only speculative. Overall, the mediation analyses provided partial and varied support to *H4*.

Interestingly, the correlation between PSE and DCC in the present study was positive, as was the predictive value of PSE on SCB, both of which are in the opposite direction to that found in the preliminary study. A negative relationship between PSE and DCC (as found by Sotto-Mayor, 2021 and Sotto-Mayor et al., in press) makes sense if feeling

competent and efficacious translates to a sense career control, hence reducing any desire to gain control, whereas a positive relationship (as found by King, 2004) would suggest that feeling efficacious leads one to have a strong desire for career control because they believe they have the capacities to have that control.

Similarly, a negative relationship between PSE and SCB (as shown by Sotto-Mayor, 2021 and Sotto-Mayor et al., in press) would suggest that already feeling competent and efficacious reduces the need to engage in behaviours to develop those competencies, whereas a positive relationship (as shown by Raghuram et al., 2003) would suggest that feeling efficacious leads one to seek out career strategies in order to make use of those competencies. These inconsistencies may require further investigation to determine moderating or mediating factors.

Many of the correlation and regression relationships in the present study had not been found in the preliminary study (Sotto-Mayor, 2021 and Sotto-Mayor et al., in press). This greater number of correlations suggests that a larger and more diverse sample provided a more nuanced overlook of career behaviours and outcomes which may not have been present due to idiosyncrasies of the Iberian labour market or of the small sample (N=96) drawn from this region.

Furthermore, the fact that these more significant findings emerged in a sample that included European countries with differing cultural values to those included in the preliminary study (Portugal and Spain) points to the potential effect these differences may have on career behaviours and outcomes.

Study 2: Testing separate models based on Hofstede's Individualism/Collectivism scale

Participants

When organized into two groups according to their residence countries' score on Hofstede's Individualism/Collectivism scale, 38.7% (N=286) of participants resided in countries on the low end of the scale (<50; low individualism/high collectivism: LIHC), and the remainder (N=453) of participants resided in countries on the high end of the scale (>50; high individualism/low collectivism: HILC).

Low Individualism/High Collectivism

Participants in the LIHC group comprised a total of 286 (Male=169, 59.1%) individuals living in Portugal (N=236, 82.5%) and Greece (N=50, 17.5%), with a mean age of 27.50 years (SD=8.28; Range=[18, 70]), mostly single (N=211, 73.8%) %), with 21.0% (N=60) married or in a consensual union, and most had no children (N=249, 87.1%).

Most were working full-time (N=176, 61.5%) or part-time (N=83, 29.0%) with an average of 47.24% of their work being done remotely. Most worked in small- (1-25 employees: N=87, 30.4%) to medium-sized (<250 employees: N=77, 26.9%) companies, or in very large companies (1000+ employees: N=55, 19.2%). These were mostly private organizations (N=202, 70.6%), predominantly in the industries of: media, cultural, graphical (N=51, 17.8%); mechanical and electrical engineering (N=32, 11.2%); education (N=30, 10.5%); health care and social assistance services (N=30, 10.5%); commerce (N=29, 10.1%); and financial services (N=27, 9.4%).

Most were earning low salaries (<1000€: N=149, 52.1%; 1000–1499€: N=89, 31.1%), had received on average 0.81 (SD=1.149, [0, 10], N=286) promotions over the previous 6-year period and a 9.64% (SD=24.26%, [-100, 100], N=273) increase in their salaries.

In education, 24.5% (N=70) had completed secondary education only, 49.7% (N=142), had completed a bachelor's, 24.8% (N=71) had completed a master's and 1.0% (N=3) had completed a PhD.

High Individualism/Low Collectivism

Participants in the HILC group comprised a total of 453 (Male=273, 60.3%) individuals living mostly in Poland (N=192, 42.4%), Italy (N=80, 17.7%), Spain (N=65, 14.3%), the United Kingdom (N=35, 7.7%), and Hungary (N=32, 7.1%), with others in Austria (N=3, 0.7%), Belgium, (N=4, 0.9%), Czech Republic (N=10, 2.2%), Denmark (N=3, 0.7%), Estonia (N=8, 1.8%), Finland (N=6, 1.3%), France (N=4, 0.9%), Germany (N=6, 1.3%), and Sweden (N=3, 0.7%), with a mean age of 27.73 years (SD=8.60; Range=[18, 63]), mostly single (N=288, 63.6%), with 29.8% (N=135) married or in a consensual union, and most had no children (N=390, 86.1%).

Most were working full-time (N=222, 49.0%) or part-time (N=203, 44.8%) with an average of 47.24% of their work being done remotely. Most worked in small- (1-25 employees: N=163, 36.0%) to medium-sized (<250 employees: N=127, 28.0%) companies, or in very large companies (1000+ employees: N=65, 14.3%). These were mostly private organizations (N=348, 76.8%), predominantly in the industries of: media, cultural, graphical (N=57, 12.6%); commerce (N=51, 11.3%); mechanical and electrical engineering (N=50, 11.0%); education (N=41, 9.1%); health care and social assistance services (N=41, 9.1%); financial services (N=37, 8.2%); and food, drink and tobacco (N=31, 6.8%).

Most salaries were in the low (<1000€: N=163, 36.0%; 1000–1499€: N=122, 26.9%) to medium range (1000–1499€: N=97, 21.4%), had received on average 1.02 (SD=1.324, [0, 10], N=452) promotions over the previous 6-year period and a 16.00% (SD=27.2%, [-85, 100], N=434) increase in their salaries.

In education, 0.2% (N=1) had completed only primary education, 45.0% (N=204) had completed only secondary education, 35.1% (N=159), had completed a bachelor's, 18.3% (N=71) had completed a master's and 1.3% (N=6) had completed a PhD.

Results

Exploratory analysis (Table 6) was conducted to compare the mean differences between the low and high individualism groups on several demographic variables and variables from the model. There were no significant differences between the two groups in age, gender, number of children, company type, company size, perceived organisational support, perceived career control, or salary comparisons. There were, however, differences in marital status (X^2[1]= 7.490, p=.006), educational level (X^2[2]= 32.536, p<.001), employment status (X^2[1]= 16.342, p<.001), perceived self-efficacy (t[737]= 3.884, p<.001), desire for career control (t[664.797]= 3.057, p=.002), strategic career behaviours (t[737]= 3.888, p<.001), subjective career success (t[737]= 7.124, p<.001), career satisfaction (t[737]= 3.412, p<.001), average net salary (X^2[5]= 48.830, p<.001), percentage salary increase (t[705]= -3.136, p=.002), and promotions (t[736]= -2.230, p=.026).

Table 6. Comparison of Means between Low and High Individualism Groups on Demographic and Model Variables

Mean Comparisons									
			t-test of the difference of means						
Age (years)	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	27.50	8.283	-.364	737	.716	-.233	.640	-1.490	1.024
High Individualism	27.73	8.602							

	Crosstab Frequencies		*X^2 test of independence*		
Gender	*Male*	*Female*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=281)	169	112	.131	1	.718
High Individualism (n=444)	273	171			

	Crosstab Frequencies		*X^2 test of independence*		
Children	*No*	*Yes*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=286)	249	37	.141	1	.707
High Individualism (n=453)	390	63			

	Crosstab Frequencies		*X^2 test of independence*		
Marital Status	*Single*	*Married*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=273)	213	60	7.490	1	.006
High Individualism (n=429)	294	135			

	Crosstab Frequencies			*X^2 test of independence*		
Education	*Undergrad.*	*Bachelor*	*Master/PhD*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=286)	70	142	74	32.536	2	<.001
High Individualism (n=453)	205	159	89			

	Crosstab Frequencies		*X^2 test of independence*		
Employment Status	*Full-Time*	*Part-Time*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=259)	176	83	16.342	1	<.001
High Individualism (n=425)	222	203			

	Crosstab Frequencies			*X^2 test of independence*		
Company Size	*Small*	*Medium*	*Large*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=262)	87	77	98	5.238	2	.073
High Individualism (n=410)	163	127	120			

	Crosstab Frequencies		*X^2 test of independence*		
Company Type	*Public*	*Private*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=286)	84	202	3.531	1	.060
High Individualism (n=453)	105	348			

	t-test of the difference of means

Perceived Self Efficacy	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	40.92	6.246	3.884	737	<.001	1.826	.470	.903	2.748
High Individualism	39.09	6.209							

			t-test of the difference of means						
Desire for Career Control	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	27.16	2.917	3.057	664.797	.002	.713	.233	.255	1.171
High Individualism	26.45	3.339							

			t-test of the difference of means						
Perceived Organizational Support	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	34.80	5.309	-.651	737	.515	-.250	.384	-1.005	.504
High Individualism	35.05	4.945							

			t-test of the difference of means						
Strategic Career Behaviours	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	52.33	9.263	3.888	737	<.001	2.687	.691	1.330	4.044
High Individualism	59.64	9.079							

			t-test of the difference of means						
Perceived Career Control	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	17.36	4.022	.278	737	.781	.083	.298	-.503	.668
High Individualism	17.27	3.902							

			t-test of the difference of means						
Subjective Career Success	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	81.34	9.206	7.124	737	<.001	5.106	.717	3.699	6.513
High Individualism	76.23	9.665							

			t-test of the difference of means						
Career Satisfaction	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism	73.30	12.910	3.412	737	<.001	3.250	.953	1.380	5.120
High Individualism	70.05	12.423							

	Crosstab Frequencies						*X^2 test of independence*		
Average Net Salary	*<1000€*	*-1499€*	*-2499€*	*-3499€*	*-5000€*	*>5000€*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=268)	149	89	26	1	1	2	48.830	5	<.001
High Individualism (n=418)	163	122	97	24	9	3			

	Crosstab Frequencies			*X^2 test of independence*		
Salary Comparison	*Below Avg.*	*Average*	*Above Avg.*	*X^2*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*
Low Individualism (n=268)	92	154	40	1.885	2	.390
High Individualism (n=453)	128	267	58			

t-test of the difference of means

% Salary Increase	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism (n=273)	9.64	24.262	-3.136	705	.002	-6.360	2.028	-10.341	-2.379
High Individualism (n=434)	16.00	27.425							
			t-test of the difference of means						
Promotions	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p (2-sided)*	*M_diff*	*SE_diff*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low Individualism (n=286)	.81	1.149	-2.230	736	.026	-.212	.095	-.399	-.025
High Individualism (n=452)	1.02	1.324							

As in study 1, results from the Pearson correlation analysis indicated that the measures of OCS had only weak correlations with most other variables and SCB (Table 7) and were hence not included in the models for both LIHC and HILC groups (Figure 3; Figure 4, respectively). For the LIHC group, POS was not significantly correlated with SCS, nor with SCB.

Table 7. Correlations between Antecedents and Consequences of Strategic Career Behaviours

a. Correlations: Low Individualism/High Collectivism (N=286) *$p<.05$ **$p<.01$ *** $p<.001$

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. PSE	—							
2. DCC	.237***	—						
3. POS	.216***	.066	—					
4. SCB	.392***	.439***	.116	—				
5. PCC	.549***	.207***	.245***	.416***	—			
6. SCS	.359***	.513***	.091	.596***	.396***	—		
7. SAT	.405***	.177**	.279***	.391***	.458***	.374***	—	
8. OCS (%SI)	.176**	.092	.178**	.079	-.008	.100	.125**	—
9. OCS (PRO)	.051	.018	.079	.047	.074	.005	.125*	.202***

b. Correlations: High Individualism/Low Collectivism (N=453) *$p<.05$ **$p<.01$ *** $p<.001$

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. PSE	—							
2. DCC	.247***	—						
3. POS	.247***	.049	—					
4. SCB	.297***	.424***	.131**	—				
5. PCC	.543***	.279***	.267***	.452***	—			
6. SCS	.319***	.628***	.109*	.564***	.361***	—		

7. SAT	.321***	.286***	.335***	.321***	.462***	.437***	—	
8. OCS (%SI)	.074	.098*	.049	.033	.095*	.108*	.123*	—
9. OCS (PRO)	.157***	.048	.088	.082	.172***	.123**	.196***	.224***

Regression analyses for both groups (Table 8) showed that most direct paths between antecedents and consequences were significant.

Table 8. Regression Results between Antecedents and Consequences of Strategic Career Behaviours

a. Regressions: Low Individualism/High Collectivism (Paths in Figure 3)

IV	*DV*	*B*	*SE(B)*	*β*	R^2	R^2 *adj.*	*t*	*p*
PSE	SCB *(path a)*	.582	.081	.392	.154	.151	7.187	<.001
—	DCC *(path e)*	.111	.027	.237	.056	.053	4.119	<.001
—	PCC	.354	.032	.549	.302	.299	11.073	<.001
—	SCS *(path f)*	.529	.082	.359	.129	.126	6.478	<.001
—	SAT	.838	.112	.405	.164	.161	7.474	<.001
DCC	SCB *(path b)*	1.396	.169	.439	.193	.190	8.245	<.001
—	PCC	.285	.080	.207	.043	.039	3.558	<.001
—	SCS	1.620	.161	.513	.264	.261	10.082	<.001
—	SAT	.784	.258	.177	.031	.028	3.033	.003
POS	SCB *(path c)*	.203	.103	.116	.013	.010	1.970	.050
—	PSE *(path d)*	.254	.068	.216	.047	.043	3.722	<.001
—	PCC	.186	.044	.245	.060	.057	4.260	<.001
—	SCS	.157	.102	.091	.008	.005	1.535	.126
—	SAT *(path g)*	.679	.139	.279	.078	.075	4.897	<.001
SCB	PCC *(path h)*	.181	.023	.416	.173	.170	7.714	<.001
—	SCS *(path j)*	.592	.047	.596	.355	.353	12.512	<.001
—	SAT *(path k)*	.545	.076	.391	.153	.150	7.166	<.001
PCC	SAT *(path l)*	1.469	.169	.458	.209	.207	8.673	<.001
SCS	PCC *(path m)*	.161	.024	.369	.136	.133	6.689	<.001
—	SAT *(path n)*	.525	.077	.374	.140	.137	6.800	<.001

b. Regressions: High Individualism/Low Collectivism (Paths in Figure 4)

IV	*DV*	*B*	*SE(B)*	*β*	R^2	R^2 *adj.*	*t*	*p*
PSE	SCB *(path a)*	.434	.066	.297	.088	.086	6.603	<.001
—	DCC *(path e)*	.133	.025	.247	.061	.059	5.406	<.001
—	PCC	.341	.025	.543	.295	.293	13.735	<.001

—	SCS *(path f)*	.496	.069	.319	.101	.100	7.137	<.001
—	SAT	.643	.089	.321	.103	.101	7.202	<.001
DCC	SCB *(path b)*	1.152	.116	.424	.179	.178	9.932	<.001
—	PCC	.325	.053	.279	.078	.076	6.159	<.001
—	SCS	1.817	.106	.628	.394	.393	17.124	<.001
—	SAT	1.064	.168	.286	.082	.080	6.342	<.001
POS	SCB *(path c)*	.241	.086	.131	.017	.015	2.807	.005
—	PSE *(path d)*	.310	.057	.247	.061	.059	5.405	<.001
—	PCC	.211	.036	.267	.071	.069	5.881	<.001
—	SCS	.213	.091	.109	.012	.010	2.327	.020
—	SAT *(path g)*	.843	.111	.335	.113	.111	7.562	<.001
SCB	PCC *(path h)*	.194	.018	.452	.205	.203	10.769	<.001
—	SCS *(path j)*	.600	.041	.564	.318	.316	14.491	<.001
—	SAT *(path k)*	.439	.061	.321	.103	.101	7.196	<.001
PCC	SAT *(path l)*	1.471	.133	.462	.213	.212	11.061	<.001
SCS	PCC *(path m)*	.146	.018	.361	.131	.129	8.233	<.001
—	SAT *(path n)*	.562	.054	.437	.191	.189	10.327	<.001

For both groups, PSE and DCC had direct effects on SCB and all consequent variables, and SCB had significant direct effects on all consequences. POS had a significant effect on PSE, PCC and SAT in both groups, and had significant effects on SCS in the HILC group but not in the LIHC group, which corresponds with the lack of correlation. All paths in the original model had significant effects with the exception of POS as a predictor of SCB (*path c*) in the LIHC group (p=.050).

Table 9. Regression Results between Antecedents and Strategic Career Behaviours

a. Regressions: Low Individualism/High Collectivism							
Outcome: Strategic Career Behaviours (SCB)							
R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*	
.531	.282	7.89	36.869	3	*282*	<.001	
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path a^)*		.444	.079	5.639	<.001	.289	.599
DCC *(path b^)*		1.164	.165	7.055	<.001	.839	1.489
POS *(path c^)*		.047	.090	.526	.599	-.130	.225

Perceived Organisational Support Excluded

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	Δ*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*	Sig. ΔF
.530	.281	7.88	.277	2	*283*	<.001	.599

Main model	*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE	.452	.077	5.881	<.001	.301	.604
DCC	1.166	.165	7.074	<.001	.841	1.490

Note: N= 286

b. Regressions: High Individualism/Low Collectivism

Outcome: Strategic Career Behaviours (SCB)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
.472	.223	8.03	42.963	3	*449*	<.001

Main model	*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path a^)*	.275	.065	4.256	<.001	.148	.402
DCC *(path b^)*	1.017	.117	8.711	<.001	.787	1.246
POS *(path c^)*	.122	.079	1.546	.123	-.033	.277

Perceived Organisational Support Excluded

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	Δ*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*	Sig. ΔF
.468	.219	8.04	2.391	2	450	<.001	.123

Main model	*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE	.300	.063	4.765	<.001	.176	.423
DCC	1.014	.117	8.679	<.001	.785	1.244

Note. N= 453; Confidence for all CIs in output: 95.0000

No of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

In the presence of PSE and DCC, the significance of POS as a predictor of SCB declined for both groups, remaining insignificant for LIHC (p=.599) and becoming insignificant for HILC (p=.123). This suggests that the effect of POS on SCB may be mediated by PSE or DCC, or both. Excluding POS had no significant effect on the predictive capacity of the models for either group.

Table 10. Mediation Results between Antecedents and Consequences of Strategic Career Behaviours, Perceived Organizational Support Excluded

a. Mediations: Low Individualism/High Collectivism

i. Outcome: Perceived Career Control (PCC; Blue paths, Figure 3)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.591	.349	3.26	50.447	3	282	<.001		*Indirect effects on PCC*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path o)*		.294	.034	8.716	<.001	.228	.360	.0599	.0172	.0284	.0949
DCC *(path r)*		-.010	.074	-.140	.889	-.156	.135	.2444	.0456	.1588	.3368
SCB *(path h^)*		.104	.025	4.243	<.001	.056	.153				

ii. Outcome: Subjective Career Success (SCS; Red paths, Figure 3)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.668	.447	6.88	75.895	3	282	<.001		*Indirect effects on SCS*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path p)*		.183	.071	2.577	.010	.043	.324	.3111	.0505	.2168	.4129
DCC *(path s)*		.952	.156	6.096	<.001	.644	1.259	.6369	.0976	.4582	.8370
SCB *(path j^)*		.412	.052	7.940	<.001	.310	.514				

iii. Outcome: Career Satisfaction (SAT; Green paths, Figure 3)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.478	.228	11.16	27.824	3	282	<.001		*Indirect effects on SAT*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path q)*		.618	.118	5.243	<.001	.386	.850	.2226	.0628	.1098	.3534
DCC *(path t)*		-.078	.259	-.303	.762	-.587	.431	.7558	.1435	.4869	1.0548
SCB *(path k^)*		.393	.086	4.568	<.001	.223	.562				

Note. N= 286

b. Mediations: High Individualism/Low Collectivism

i. Outcome: Perceived Career Control (PCC; Blue paths, Figure 4)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.624	.389	3.06	95.340	3	449	<.001		*Indirect effects on PCC*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path o)*		.278	.025	11.345	<.001	.230	.327	.0596	.0121	.0370	.0853
DCC *(path r)*		.048	.048	.990	.323	-.047	.142	.2017	.0340	.1416	.2728
SCB *(path h^)*		.130	.018	7.272	<.001	.095	.166				

ii. Outcome: Subjective Career Success (SCS; Red paths, Figure 4)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.715	.512	6.77	156.955	3	449	<.001		*Indirect effects on SCS*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path p)*		.164	.054	3.013	.003	.057	.270	.2377	.0416	.1570	.3205
DCC *(path s)*		1.327	.106	12.473	<.001	1.118	1.536	.4449	.0665	.3236	.5830
SCB *(path j^)*		.360	.040	9.065	<.001	.282	.438				

iii. Outcome: Career Satisfaction (SAT; Green paths, Figure 4)

R	*R-sq*	*MSE*	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*					
.421	.177	11.31	32.172	3	449	<.001		*Indirect effects on SAT*			
Main model		*Coeff (B)*	*se*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PSE *(path q)*		.456	.091	5.033	<.001	.278	.634	.1470	.0347	.0833	.2187
DCC *(path t)*		.556	.178	3.131	<.001	.207	.905	.3836	.0897	.2170	.5697
SCB *(path k^)*		.260	.066	3.921	<.001	.130	.390				

Note. N= 453; Confidence for all CIs in output: 95.0000

No of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

For both groups, all three models were significant and PSE remained a significant predictor of PCC, SCS and SAT in the presence of SCB and the other antecedents, but also had significant indirect effects for all three consequences, suggesting that the effects of PSE on the consequences are partially mediated by SCB for both groups.

For the LIHC group, DCC was not a significant predictor of PCC or SAT in the presence of SCB and the other antecedents, but had significant indirect effects for these consequences, and remained a significant predictor of SCS with significant indirect effects, suggesting that the effects of DCC on PCC and SAT are mediated by SCB for this group, but that SCB only partially mediates the effect of DCC on SCS.

For the HILC group, DCC remained a significant predictor of SCS or SAT in the presence of SCB and the other antecedents, but was not a significant predictor of PCC, yet had significant indirect effects for all consequences, suggesting that the effects of DCC on SCS and SAT are partially mediated by SCB for this group, and that SCB full mediates the effect of DCC on PCC.

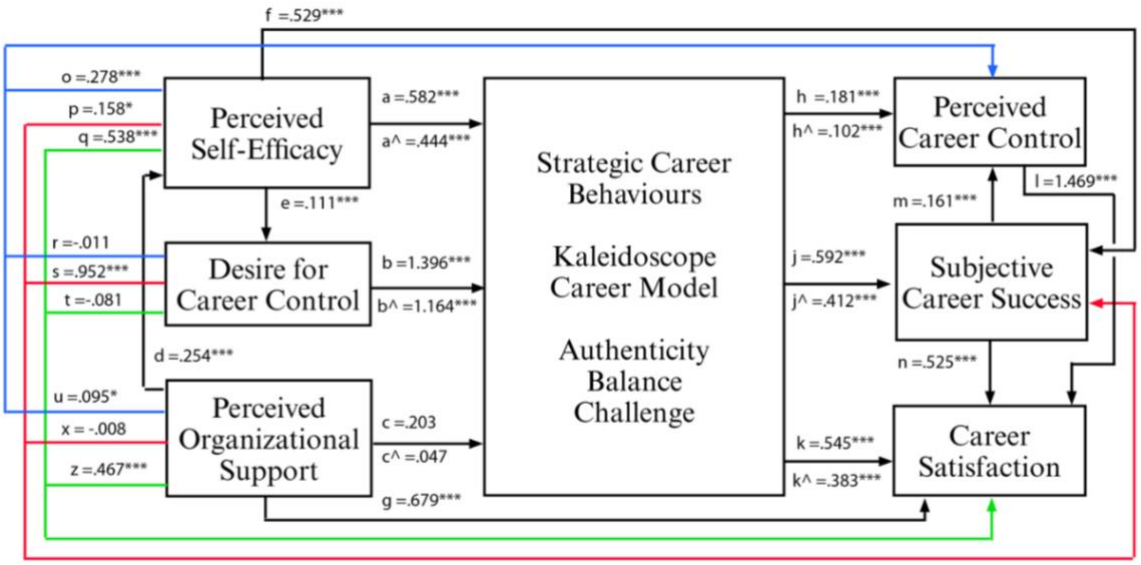
For the LIHC group, POS remained a significant predictor of SAT and a significant but weak predictor of PCC in the presence of SCB and the other antecedents, but not a

significant predictor of SCS and did not have significant indirect effects in any of the relationships with the consequences, suggesting that SCB does not mediate any of these effects for this group.

For the HILC group, POS remained a significant predictor of SAT and a significant but weak predictor of PCC in the presence of SCB and the other antecedents, but not a significant predictor of SCS, yet had significant indirect effects in all three relationships with the consequences, suggesting that SCB partially mediates the effects of POS on PCC and on SAT and full mediates the effect of POS on SCS for this group.

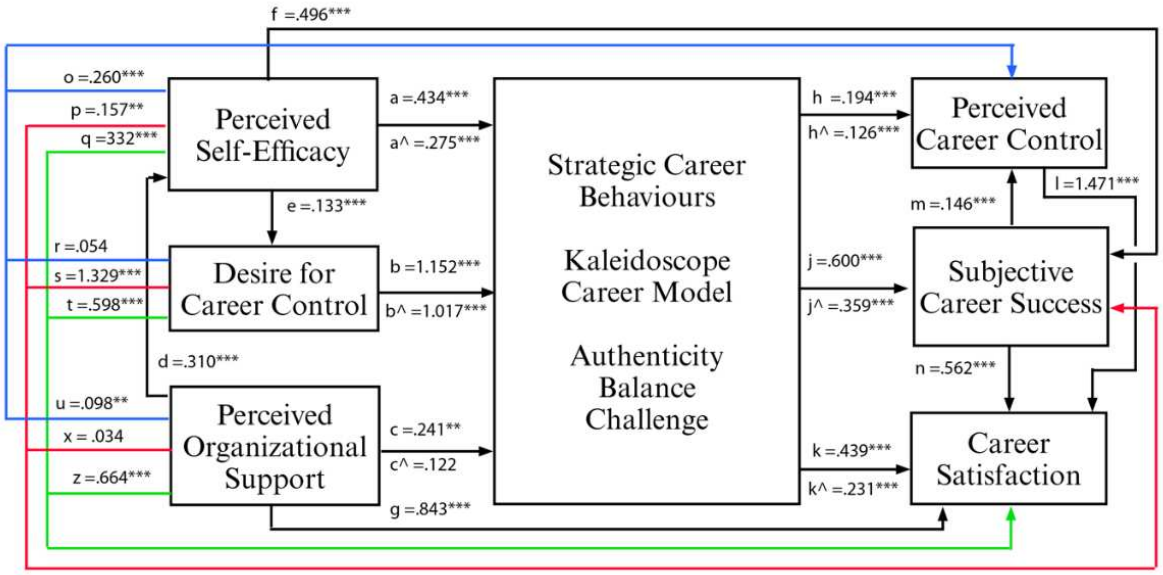
Completed models for both groups including the effect sizes are displayed below in Figure 3 (LIHC) and Figure 4 (HILC).

Figure 3. Analysed Unstandardized Coefficients of the Career Management Model for Low Individualism/High Collectivism Group



*$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$; Coloured lines: indirect effect of each antecedent variable on Perceived Career Control (blue), Subjective Career Success (red) and Career Satisfaction (green) when the relationships are mediated by Strategic Career Behaviours.

Figure 4. Analysed Unstandardized Coefficients of the Career Management Model for High Individualism/Low Collectivism Group



*$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$; Coloured lines: indirect effect of each antecedent variable on Perceived Career Control (blue), Subjective Career Success (red) and Career Satisfaction (green) when the relationships are mediated by Strategic Career Behaviours.

Discussion

The results of the t- and X^2-tests (Table 5) showed no significant differences in age, gender, parenthood, company type or size, or the measures of perceived organisational support, perceived career control and salary comparisons. While the differences found in marital status, educational level and employment status may be explainable conceptually in a comparison along the cultural line of individualism, as they would be expected to interact in myriad ways with the importance one places on family and community, previous studies making similar comparisons offer only mixed results from which to form expectations regarding the presence or lack of differences in these variables. Some studies have shown correlations or differences, such as Adamovic (2022), which showed a correlation between individualism and both age and gender, and Ganesh et al. (2019), which showed differences in age and gender between the respondents from different countries. Yet, others have found no differences (Noordin et al., 2002), mixed differences (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2020; Otto & Dalbert, 2011), or simply did not consider these variables in their comparisons. It is reasonable to suggest that these differences are characteristic of the sample (those in both

the present study and in previous ones), and not of the general population, as there do not appear to be any such trends in the country-level data for the EU (EUROSTAT, 2023). If the differences, or lack thereof, shown in the present results do represent differences at the population level, these remain to be investigated, and whether significant differences in these variables exist along the individualism/collectivism cultural lines would require a broader analysis with a much larger and more representative sample size.

The difference found between the two groups in their levels of perceived self-efficacy lends some support for *H5*. However, the differences found in desire for career control, strategic career behaviours, subjective career success, career satisfaction, average net salary, percentage salary increase, and number of promotions were not expected and will need further investigation to determine any possible underlying mechanism.

Despite the significant differences in the means of PSE between the two groups, there were only minimal face-value differences between the groups in the outcomes for PSE in its relationships with the other variables in the model. However, these would need further analysis to determine any statistically significant differences to provide any conclusive support for *H5*.

As in study 1, the measures for OCS provided only mild and mostly insignificant correlations between the other variables for both LIHC and HILC groups. Again, this may be due to operational limitations which are considered below in the general discussion.

For the LIHC group, POS did not significantly correlate with DCC, SCB or SCS. For the HILC group, POS also did not significantly correlate with DCC, but did significantly correlate with SCB and SCS. Apart from these and the OCS measures, all other variables had moderate to strong significant correlations for both groups.

The results for the regression analyses for both groups were similar to those in study 1, with only a few exceptions. For the LIHC group, POS did not significantly predict SCB or SCS. These relationships were significant for the HILC group, however POS only explained 1.5% of the variance in SCB and 1.0% of the variance in SCS.

Similarly, for both groups, when the antecedents were combined, the model was a significant predictor of SCB, but POS didn't contribute significantly, mirroring the results found in study 1. Results from the mediation analyses also showed similar results to study 1 for both groups, with only a few exceptions, as follows.

In the LIHC group, POS had insignificant indirect effects in the meditation models predicting PCC, SCS and SAT. POS had only a weak significant direct effect on PCC and a moderate significant direct effect on SAT in the respective models. Also, in the LIHC group, DCC became an insignificant direct predictor of SAT in the mediation model (while for HILC group the effect became greater), while still showing significant indirect effects, suggesting that, in contrast to the combined results, SCB fully mediates the effect of DCC on SAT for the LIHC group.

The presence of these significant direct effects combined with insignificant indirect effects, suggests that for those in low individualism/high collectivism cultures, feeling supported by one's organisation is more important as a direct measure of career satisfaction and a sense of control, which has been suggested by the early findings of Hosftede (1980) and those of many others (e.g., Benson et al., 2022; Brown et al., 2021; Casper et al., 2011; Diener et al., 2018; Gelfand et al., 2017; Horsley & Anton, 2022; Hytter, 2007; Tao, 2014; Qiu & Dauth, 2022). There is one possible interpretations of these results that follows this line of reasoning. Those in low individualism/high collectivism cultures are more likely to have an external locus of control compared to those in high individualism/low collectivism cultures (Vieluf et al., 2013). This would suggest that any desire for career control would have less importance in the outcomes, as those outcomes are less dependent on individual motivations and perceived self-efficacy and more dependent on the community to keep the individual engaged in career behaviours. This would align with Vieluf et al. (2013), who found a negative correlation between self-efficacy and collectivism, although Wu (2009) showed no difference in self-efficacy levels along individualism/collectivism lines, and Ganesh et al. (2019) found a positive correlation with (horizontal) collectivism.

While these results provide mixed support for *H5*, they also suggest significant differences along the *Individualism vs Collectivism* cultural index for many other variables. These potential differences and their mechanisms will require further analysis that is presently beyond the scope of this thesis.

General Discussion

The aim of the present study was to analyse the antecedents and consequences of strategic career behaviours among a sample of European remote workers, and to compare results of this analyses according to differences in cultural values.

Results from both sets of analysis (Studies 1 & 2) showed that the measures of objective career success, namely the percentage salary increase of the previous 6 years and the number of promotions over the same period, had at best mild correlations between the other variables, with most being insignificant. Based on these results, OCS was removed from the model and was not considered in the subsequent analyses. Besides this, most other variables in the model were correlated, with the exception of DCC with POS in all models, and POS with SCB and SCS in the LIHC model.

In the regression analyses of the general model, POS predicted PSE and SAT (*paths d, g*), suggesting that a feeling of support from an organisation is an important factor in developing a positive view of one's capabilities. For remote workers, this may be even more important, as a greater sense of self-efficacy is required to overcome the challenging tasks posed by the remote/at-home telework environment (King, 2000; Kossek et al., 1998; Raabe et al., 2007; Van Vianen et al., 2008). Receiving support from one's organisation is also important for well-being (Desrosiers, 2001). This would explain the effect POS had on SAT in the present results (*path g*). PSE predicted DCC (*path e*), which aligns with the arguments of King (2000, 2004) that increases in PSE occur when exercising career control produces positive outcomes that drive the desire for more career control.

In the general model, PSE, DCC and POS all had significant direct effects on SCB when considered individually (*paths a-c*). However, when the antecedents were combined, only PSE and DCC continued to have significant direct or indirect effects, whereas POS had only insignificant effects. Again, this may be due to the role agency plays in the variables. Whereas PSE and DCC are measures of internal agency, POS is dependent on the actions of an external agent. Alternatively, the effect of POS on PSE, DCC or SCB may depend on the importance placed on it by individuals as a precursor to feelings of PSE or DCC, or as a motivator for engaging in strategic career behaviours. This difference in importance may be a matter of cultural difference, and the differences in the effect size between the LIHC and HILC groups suggests this, although the effects of POS remained insignificant for both groups.

Results from the mediation analysis suggest a potential for PSE and DCC to mediate the effects POS has on SCB, PCC and SAT. While PSE predicted SAT, it accounted for less variance than had been found in the prior study of Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) , which may be due to the use of an alternative measure of career satisfaction

(Greenhaus et al., 1990 vs. Briscoe et al., 2021 [achievement]). The effect of PSE on SCS (*path f*) supports findings from previous studies (King, 2000; Tannenbaum et al., 1991) showing an effect of self-efficacy on job performance and motivation which in turn can affect SCS (Heslin, 2005).

Most of the antecedents remained significant direct predictors of the consequences, with the exception of DCC for PCC and POS for SCS. Though all antecedents were shown to also have indirect effects. This was also mostly true for the analysis between the LIHC and HILC groups. The only exceptions were that for the LIHC group POS had insignificant indirect effects on the consequences and DCC has insignificant direct effects on SAT. Only the relationship between desire for career control and perceived career control and that between perceived organisational support and subjective career success were fully mediated by strategic career behaviours.

The mediation by SCB of the effect of DCC on PCC suggests that in order to achieve a sense of career control from a desire for it requires individuals to make plans and take actions to develop their careers. Furthermore, the mediation by SCB of the effect of POS on SCS suggests that turning organisational support into feelings of success also requires taking specific actions to take advantage of that support. A potential explanation of the variation in these outcomes across cultural differences is provided in the Study 2 discussion above.

The fact that the other relationships showed both direct and indirect effects suggests that further investigation is needed to determine other mediating or moderating variables in the complex interactions between the antecedents and consequences of strategic career behaviours.

Limitations

Sample

Responses were received from residents of 17 different countries across Europe. However, a third of those were from Portugal (31.9%), a quarter from Poland (26.0%), and another quarter from Italy, Spain and Greece combined (26.4%). That equates to 58.3% of respondents residing in southern European countries, and only 15.7% from northern European countries other than Poland, with only Hungary (N=32, 4.3%) and the United Kingdom (N=35, 4.7%) individually contributing more than 1.5%. While of the southern European countries only Portugal and Greece were classified as low individualism/high

collectivism (38.7%), the findings may be characteristic of southern European countries, and the comparisons between countries may be affected by the cultural idiosyncrasies of Poland.

Most respondents (76.2%, N=523 of 686) reported salaries below 1500€ and reported earning average (57.0%) or below average (39.8%) wages compared to their colleagues. This presents two issues: if the sample is only representative of low-salary countries, that may affect the engagement in strategic career behaviours; and, if the sample is representative of individuals with low wages, regardless of country averages, this may indicate a self-selection bias when respondents are reimbursed for completing the questionnaire. Respondents received £2.51 (~2.89€) for valid completion of the questionnaire, which took on average 15 minutes to complete. The effective value of this reimbursement would differ for those earning different wages. Indeed, the sample may be representative of lower-than-average-incomes, with the average upper bounds of monthly salaries is 1600€, well below average for Europe (37,500€ per annum; EUROSTAT 2022).

Most respondents were unmarried (67.5%, N=499) or had no children (86.5%, N=639), and the average age was 27.64 years, despite the range extending from 18 years to 70. This may represent a self-selection bias, as those young, unmarried or without children can complete a questionnaire with fewer competing demands on their time.

Measures of objective career success

The measures for OCS were self-reported number of promotions received and percentage increase in salary within the last 6 years. The scale for increase in salary ranged from -100% to +100%, which restricted the capacity for some possibilities to be accurately reported. While a salary can't be reduced by more than 100%, it can be increased by more than 100%. An individual working part-time while studying and making 1000€ per month, and then graduating into a salary of 4000€ per month would see a 300% increase in their salary. Restricting the scale to +100% did not allow for such instances to be accurately reported. Furthermore, the self-report nature of the measure required respondents to make a roundabout calculation of the percentage increase, which may have led to a large variability in the accuracy of the response and hence may help explain, along with the other factors, why OCS failed to correlate with the other variables in the model (in both the previous and present studies) when operationalised in this way.

Conclusion

Remote working has grown in prevalence since the onset of the Covid-19 pandemic, and there are many unique challenges face by workers, especially those working from home, in developing and managing their careers. Hence there is new-found reason to investigate the career management strategies and outcomes of those participating in this new way of working and to support those individuals in managing their careers. The current state of the literature investigating interactions between the variables in our model have been so far mostly pairwise, and only a portion of those are focused on remote workers, and an even smaller portion on European remote workers.

The present research aimed to extend the work by Sotto-Mayor (2021) and Sotto-Mayor et al., (in press) and analyse their model of antecedents and consequences of strategic career behaviours among teleworkers across Europe. It also aimed to analyse the differences in these outcomes when comparing respondents based on their resident country's score on Hofstede's (2001) Individualism vs Collectivism cultural values index.

The results showed that personal factors such as perceived self-efficacy and a desire for career control are important determiners of workers engaging in strategic career behaviours. Engaging in these behaviours is in turn important for achieving control, success and satisfaction in one's career. When comparing respondents based on individualism vs collectivism, the results showed that a desire for career control was more likely to lead to career satisfaction for those from countries high on individualism. The results also showed that feeling supported by the organisation you work for improves the chances of feeling in control of your career, as well as more satisfied with that career.

These results suggests that by encouraging employees to take control of their careers and by helping them to gain the tools that lead them to feel a greater sense of self-efficacy, supervisors and human resource managers can indirectly improve the sense of control, success and satisfaction their employees have in their careers, which may also have immeasurable positive effects on the culture and wellbeing of the organisation.

Furthermore, if the results from the cultural comparisons hold through further analysis, supervisors and human resources managers from cultures high on individualism and low on collectivism may also be able to make greater gains in their employees' career satisfaction by encouraging their employees to take control of their careers.

Luckily for supervisors and human resources managers, they can imbue a greater sense of career control and satisfaction in their employees simply by making them feel supported by the organisation they work for. This could be achieved by offering opportunities for employees to improve their skills in a supportive and collaborative environment, or by improving the internal communication channels within the organisation so that employees can voice issues and participate in the decision-making that affects them.

The present research will go towards developing additional recommendations and career management strategies for organisations and individuals engaged in remote working across the European continent, while accounting for the nuanced differences in national cultures, and in the goals and beliefs of individuals that can affect their career outcomes.

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