

Career development and well-being

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IOP2604 Course notes

1. Introduction

This text has been adapted from the course content of IOP2606. It is particularly relevant to both modules, but with a different focus.

In the organisational context a career or occupation is regarded as a structural sequence of work experiences which promote employee development and advancement within an organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). A career is unique to each person and created by particular choices of the individual. In the 21st century workplace a career includes not only an occupation, but also pre-vocational and post-vocational concerns together with an integration of work with a person's other life roles, such as family, community and leisure time. A career can then be viewed as a property of the person rather than the organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

From an individual perspective Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2012) describe a career as significant learnings and experiences through the acquisition of knowledge and skills that reflect a person's vocational life, direction, competencies and accomplishments throughout their forms of employment. People therefore match their careers with personal aims, life purpose and competencies (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). It is clear that a career is not a biographical succession of work experiences, but rather the collected learning and skills enrichment from the accumulated experiences constituting a career.

2. Career development in the workplace

The rationale for career development is the effective nurturing of talent, specific company knowledge and the successive deployment of workforce capabilities to enhance work performance within the organisation.

Career development involves a person's career choices throughout a person's career lifespan, a lifelong process and evolution of a person's identity with regard to work, the transition, induction and adjustment to work and the ongoing adjustments adults make as they incorporate new learning about themselves and the world of work into their career behaviour (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

2.1. Developmental processes, self-concept and occupational choice

Various authors have formulated developmental theories as part of personality theories, as theories on specific aspects of development (e.g. cognitive development) and as separate career development or choice theories (e.g. Holland, Super and Ginzberg). Ginzberg (1972) views occupational choice as a lifelong process of decision-making in which individuals seek to find the optimal fit between their career preparation (and goals) and the realities of work. Earlier vocational

choices influence later occupational behaviour, and occupational behaviour can change when the individual changes through work and life experiences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs and Mensele (2016) will often move and recycle through the various career stages over a lifespan as tasks, transitions and traumas ensue, prompting re-exploration and re-establishment – see figure 1.

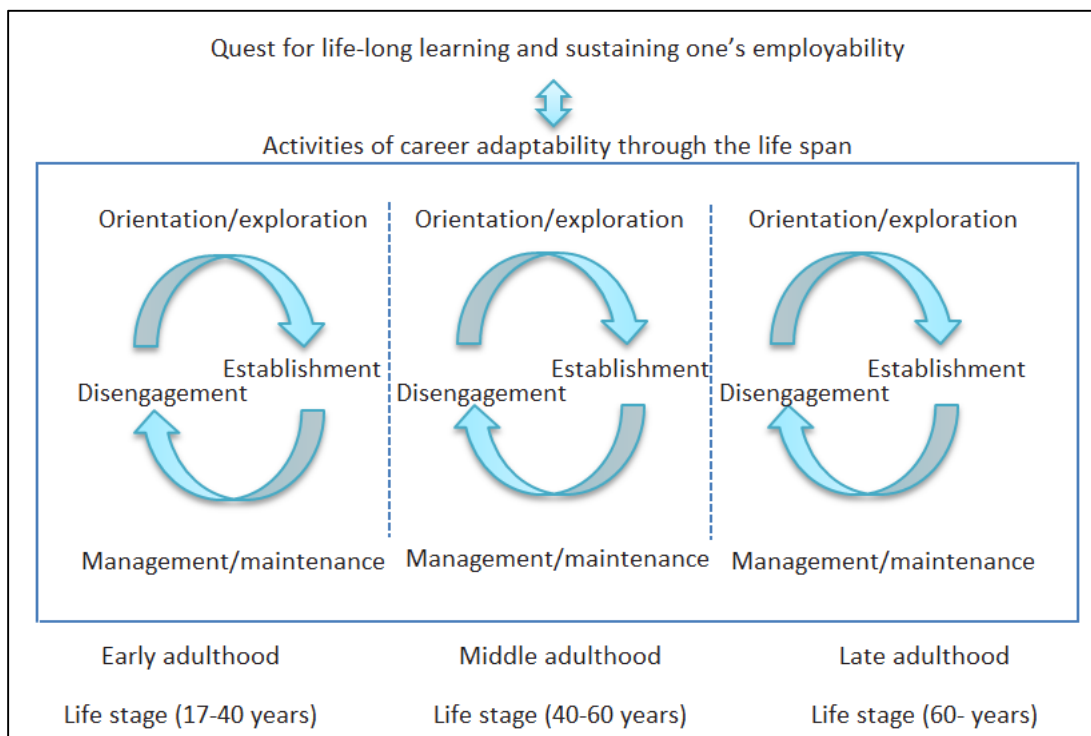


Figure 1: Mini-cycles of learning through developmental career stages across the adult career life cycle

2.2. Learning developmental tasks

Developmental theories do not necessarily contain specific concepts about occupational choice. However, they refer to necessary conditions, influencing factors, certain critical growth processes and stages, and developmental tasks that prepare people to be sufficiently mature to manifest certain behaviour at certain times in their lives. In a way, these progressive developmental behaviours provide timelines or norms against which people can be compared. In developmental theory, for example, mention is made of the hierarchical evolution in development (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). This refers to the progressive development in biological and physical functions; cognitive development which arises from having a general cognitive sense of knowing and recognising to use specific cognitive processes and skills when applicable; and growing from a more concrete way of thinking to a more complex, abstract and integrated way of using mental capacities in association with other personal abilities. According to Ginzberg, the most important developmental skills that an individual should acquire are reality testing, self-evaluation and a relevant

time perspective. The final vocational choice is then an indication of the individual's level of vocational maturity (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

These mostly biologically determined functions are accompanied by progressive developments in people's emotional, social and moral functions, which should ensure appropriate emotional and social responses in their environments (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.3. Self-concept in occupational choice

As you will remember from previous studies, literature has many words and concepts related to the self through various theories such as those of Allport, Rogers, Erickson and Frankl, to mention a few (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013).

Self-concept relates to the psychological self which, according to Coetzee et al (2016), "constitutes the organisation of conceptions about qualities, characteristics, values and capabilities that individuals attribute to themselves". The self-concept influences people's career behaviour, attitudes and choices. Once stabilised through the various career life stages, the self-concept functions as a stabilising force comprising the values and motives that an individual will not give up if forced to make a choice (Coetzee et al, 2016). However, in the complexities of today's workplace, people may be forced to be flexible and to compromise in work that may not always be an optimal fit with their career preferences and capabilities. The psychological adjustments required to navigate these complexities provides an opportunity for growth, but depending on the degree to which the individual's neural structures are wired for approach vs avoidance motivational schemas, such psychological adjustments may be a challenge for individuals.

Super developed a theory that combines self-image and developmental concepts. This theory emphasises interaction between personal and environmental variables in vocational behaviour. Super regards vocational choice as a dynamic and continuous development process where the individual forms a progressive synthesis of their self-concept, vocational concepts and the economic and social requirements of society. The individual's self-image relates to their abilities, interests, values, needs and expectations. The individual's vocational concept is the knowledge and impressions that they have acquired from experience (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

From childhood, the individual imitates their parents and other people, and identifies with them and the occupations and occupational concepts that they represent. At the same time, these experiences serve as an extension of the individual's self-image, and the child tests their self-image and vocational concepts in play, fantasy and during interaction with friends and family. The individual's vocational choices or decisions are aimed at those roles that correspond to the developing self-image concept (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In psychological assessment aimed at placing people in certain situations or training them (e.g. for study choices, job selection and promotion of employees to higher level jobs), the level of development and readiness to act in these positions is considered. An important aspect of development is whether the individual has grown to be mature, that is, able to be independent and responsible at different stages in life.

2.4. Expectancies and values

Cognitive and other appraisal processes have a strong influence on how people make career-related choices and decisions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It is for this reason that theories which emphasise cognitive processes (such as cognitive development, expectancy, perceptions, decision-making and problem-solving) are classified as process theories. The assumption here is that people have the ability to appraise information about themselves and their environments in order to decide on action or to make assumptions. People form cognitive constructs or schemata that include their own attributes, what they can do and cope with, and the attributes of the world, including schemata and constructs about their work life and workplaces. Part of this cognitive appraisal process entails people's valuing of events according to aspects which they value most and which are most important to them. It is significant that people form expectancies that their needs and goals will be fulfilled or rewarded if they make the effort to pursue a certain career or select a certain job or organisation. This cognitive valuing process of expectancies arguably also forms part of an employee's decisions and choices when an organisation is accepted after the selection process, and during and after an employee's orientation and socialisation into an organisation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). When an employee's expectations are disappointed or their values are incongruent with the values of the organisation, it creates window of incongruence. If this window of incongruence is tolerable, the individual is likely to engage in creative problem solving and find innovative solutions. If the window of incongruence is intolerable, the individual is likely to engage in avoidance behaviours, which may be expressed as work dysfunctions.

2.5. Self-controlled career choices

In career counselling practices and career management, it is now accepted that employees should take proactive responsibility for their career development, while employers should encourage development and provide the necessary opportunities to employees (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The idea of self-responsibility and self-management of occupational choices in life coincides with the assumptions implied in motivational concepts, such as intrinsic motivation and the idea that people should be free to make their own choices in life. In educational practices this may translate to allowing young people to explore on their own and to be creative and entrepreneurial. In behaviouristic and social cognitive learning theories, the ideas of self-regulation and self-efficacy indicate people's abilities to control behaviour and to believe in their ability to be successful in specific endeavours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Self-controlled occupational choices can also be related to positive psychological concepts (think of the positive psychology models in learning unit 1), which emphasise the intrinsic potential to develop optimally and achieve self-actualisation, as well as to concepts which emphasise personal control in life (such as internal locus of control, self-efficacy, learnt resourcefulness, sense of coherence and personal hardiness). These concepts contain the idea of self-control and also that people have (or can be taught to have) intrinsic resources to cope and to adapt, to face challenges and to deal with problems positively and meaningfully (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The underlying developmental processes emphasised in these concepts are criticised for being too subjective because they do not acknowledge that many

career choices are based on the objective knowledge of the person and the workplace. Another consideration is that too much emphasis is placed on the individual's subjective expectations and aspirations in vocational choice. Vocational choice often depends on the opportunity structures available to individuals, first in education and subsequently in employment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Career structuring and design is therefore a dynamic process between the subjective expectations and aspirations of the individual, the opportunity structures available and the individual's ability to create opportunities.

3. Occupational problems

In many cultures people have extremely high expectations of their careers. Any inability to develop careers (e.g. failure to be promoted, indecision and uncertainty or inability to adapt to workplaces) is regarded as a problem and a weakness that should be rectified. With finer analysis, though, it becomes clear how many of these situations and problems involve choices and decisions which entail the employee in interaction with career or work demands. A further observation is the many instances in which individual difference factors play a role, which supports the research indicating the role of personality factors in work dysfunctions and in counterproductive behaviours (Cullen & Sackett, 2003, and Lowman, 1993, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The following classification entails more than occupational choice only; it also refers to or implies other types of work dysfunctions which may result from poor adjustment and performance in organisations:

3.1. Classification of career adjustment and work performance problems

Although Campbell and Cellini's taxonomy (1981, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) for adult career problems overlaps in some instances with some of the other work dysfunctions, it is more specifically directed at problems that arise during various career transitions and work performance in organisations. This taxonomy is based on many career development theories and research on adult career development problems in order to identify career development tasks and subtasks, and possible problems during four career development stages (Campbell & Cellini, 1981, and Lowman, 1993, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1. Problems in making career decisions

1.1 Starting work

- a. lack of awareness of the need for a decision
- b. lack of knowledge of the decision-making process
- c. awareness of the need to make a decision but avoiding personal responsibility for decisions

1.2 Gathering information

- a. inadequate, contradictory and/or insufficient information

- b. information overload (e.g. too much information, which confuses the decision-maker)
- c. lack of knowledge of how to gather information (where to obtain information, how to organise and evaluate information)
- d. unwillingness to accept the correctness of the information because it does not agree with the person's self-concept

1.3 Generating, evaluating and selecting alternatives

- a. difficulty in deciding because of conflicts between multiple career options (too many equally attractive career choices)
- b. failure to generate sufficient career options because of personal limitations such as health, resources, ability or education
- c. inability to decide because of the threatening effects of anxiety, such as fear of failure when attempting to fulfil the choice, fear of social disapproval and/or fear of commitment to a course of action
- d. unrealistic choice (aspiring to goals that are either too low or too high, based on criteria such as aptitudes, interests, values, resources and personal circumstances)
- e. interfering personal constraints that impair choices (e.g. interpersonal influences and conflicts, circumstances, resources and health)
- f. inability to assess alternatives because of lack of knowledge of the evaluation criteria (criteria could include values, interests, aptitudes, skills, resources, health, age and personal circumstances)

1.4 Formulating plans to implement decisions

- a. lack of knowledge of the necessary process and steps to formulate plans
- b. inability to use a future time perspective in planning
- c. unwillingness and/or inability to obtain the necessary information to formulate a plan

2. Problems in implementing career plans

2.1 Personal attributes of the individual

- a. failure to take the steps necessary to implement the plan
- b. failure or inability to successfully complete the steps necessary for goal achievement
- c. adverse conditions of or changes in family situation

2.2 Characteristics external to the individual

- a. unfavourable economic, social and cultural conditions
- b. unfavourable conditions in the organisation, central to the implementation of career plans
- c. adverse conditions of or changes in the individual's family situation

3. Problems in organisational or institutional performance

3.1 Shortcomings in skills, abilities or knowledge

- a. insufficient skills, abilities and/or knowledge on position of entry post (underqualified to perform satisfactorily)
- b. deterioration of skills, abilities and/or knowledge in the position over time because of temporary assignment to another position, leave and/or lack of continual practice or development of the skill
- c. failure to modify or update skills, abilities and/or knowledge to stay abreast of job changes (job obsolescence following new technology, tools and knowledge).

3.2 Personal factors

- a. personality characteristics incongruent with the job (e.g. values, interests and work habits)
- b. debilitating physical and/or emotional disorders
- c. adverse off-the-job personal circumstances and/or stressors (e.g. family pressure, financial problems and personal conflicts)
- d. occurrence of interpersonal conflicts on the job specific to performance requirements (e.g. getting along with supervisor, co-workers, customers and clients)

We will now discuss some specific issues concerning occupational choice and withdrawal.

3.2. Vocational choice uncertainty

Career maturity refers to the level of people's vocational development, attitudes and decision-making skills at different stages of life. Career maturity is a function of people's developmental history, age, sex, behaviour styles and socioeconomic factors. Their inability to make choices or to perform developmental tasks at specific points in their career development may lead to stress and emotional problems (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

Vocational uncertainty has many causes, for example adjustment problems, indecision, incongruence between personal attributes and the requirements of the job, and behavioural traits such as dependence, choice anxiety, a lack of information

and intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicts. These factors may determine people's career concepts, their attitudes towards work or work ethic, attitudes towards learning, attitudes towards employers and a positive or negative view of their roles which will determine their attitude and expectations on entering a job, adapting to it and developing in it (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

3.3. Difficult transitions in career development

Throughout career development and in life, employees and people have to go through critical phases of development. Note that some changes may be voluntary and some people seem to go through certain changes more easily than others. The degree of difficulty of change depends on a person's readiness and willingness to change, specific personality profiles and related behaviours, what they think about changes and adjustment, and their previous experience with change and the coping mechanisms they use to deal with the change processes and its consequences. One such change which is still debated results in the so-called midlife crisis in the adult life stage (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

Apart from the influence of choosing an occupation, entering a career and later retiring, the so-called midlife period (30 to 40 years) is regarded as an important period of adjustment for some people, both male and female, characterised by the midlife crisis. This midcareer crisis is brought about mainly by people's fear of ageing, their questioning their self-esteem and the purpose of life, uncertainty about future career development and an awakening of what they have achieved and where they are going, according to Schreuder and Coetzee (2016). Manifestations of this stage include changing jobs, substance abuse, poor interpersonal relations, anxiety, depression, hypochondria, marital problems, adopting a new (sometimes strange) lifestyle, problems with physical health and appearance and a decrease in sexual energy (Levinson, 1977, Warshaw, 1979, and McClean, 1979, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In the work context this is generally a time of reappraisal of the past and a long-term appraisal of career plans (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Oncoming retirement and retirement itself also lead to stress-inducing uncertainty, fears of not being cared for, boredom and feelings of worthlessness.

3.4. Withdrawal behaviours

According to Ledimo and Matjie (2011), withdrawal behaviours imply the opposite to the choice to be or to stay in a workplace. These are choices which refer to a misfit or non-fit between employee and organisation, because one or both of them cannot meet the expectations of the psychological contract and would thus prefer to escape the unsatisfactory work and work relationship. You should know that many individual attributes (like self-esteem, self-actualisation, needs and expectations) are major influences in job motivation and work performance. Organisational withdrawal, which eventually results in physically leaving the workplace, can manifest (possibly even progressively) in lateness, absenteeism and personnel turnover, resignation, job change and retirement (all voluntary), whereas non-voluntary withdrawal can manifest in lay-offs and dismissals. Another form of withdrawal is psychological absence (as opposed to physical withdrawal), which is reflected in attitudes and emotions such as dissatisfaction, a lack of commitment, loafing, wasting time and daydreaming. In other words, the employees are present at the workplace but merely

as “silent partners” who still reap the benefits of employment. Yet they do not enjoy their work and do not contribute wholeheartedly to organisational goals. Destructive forms of this type of passive withdrawal may manifest in drinking, drug abuse and malicious gossip at work, and retirement decisions may leave employees demotivated and not actively involved in many work activities.

A pattern analysis of withdrawal behaviours may confirm the idea that these behaviours are all part of a progressive disengagement process or even a working style associated with some kind of inability to fulfil all the requirements of the adult productive or work role. Lowman (1993, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) defines this class of behaviours as a work dysfunction or work performance impairment, the cause of which may lie in the employee (e.g. emotional problems) or in the interaction between the employee and the work environment.

3.5. Personnel turnover

Personnel turnover or job changing is generally preceded by thoughts of leaving and a stated intention to leave the workplace. According to Miner and Brewer (1976) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011), personnel turnover relates to general job dissatisfaction with regard to organisational and work variables. The variables include work attitudes (work commitment, job dissatisfaction) towards managerial practices, the quality and nature of working conditions, remuneration, work group attitudes and the workers' feelings about the way they are treated by management. Emotional conditions such as anxiety, depression, neuroses, personality problems, alcohol and drug addiction, physical diseases and age can contribute to personnel turnover.

There should be a clear distinction between the types of personnel turnover (and different forms of absenteeism) in order to plan a more effective course of action. Functional personnel turnover means that the organisation summarily allows the individual with a negative evaluation to leave. Dysfunctional turnover occurs when the organisation allows people to go without trying to retain them, although it would like to. Dalton, Krackhardt and Porter in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) point out that these categories (together with voluntary, involuntary, unavoidable and controllable desertion) have to be taken into account to establish the true effect of personnel turnover.

Certain high levels of leaving jobs are manifested by the so-called “drifter” and “hobo” employees. Drifters move between transient and contractual jobs and seem to have little work commitment, work ethics or loyalty to employers. They are seemingly not conscientious, place a high value on leisure time or other non-work interests, and will respond to job dissatisfaction by leaving jobs without trying to solve or improve matters. Hobos may be employed in many types and levels of jobs, and may even have entrepreneurial attributes. These employees may be very conscientious for shorter times; however, they are always or consistently on the move, and always want another job or career (not necessarily better) but cannot make long-term commitments (Rosse & Noel, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

3.6. Absence behaviours

Absenteeism refers to unscheduled non-attendance at workplaces or work activities when employees are expected to attend. Stable periodic lateness can usually be

coupled with leisure time, income trade-offs and family responsibilities, while random lateness refers to sometimes uncontrollable events like accidents and transportation problems. Absence from work could be a main indicator of organisational stress and incurs great costs, especially in the loss of productivity. Illness, especially respiratory problems, stomach disorders, gynaecological problems (menstruation, menopause, spontaneous abortions) and stress conditions, such as headaches, insomnia, fatigue, heart problems and endocrinal disorders, are responsible for most absences. Other factors that contribute to absence include dissatisfaction with organisational and work factors, for example insufficient training and supervision, disturbed work relationships, poor work group cohesion and morale and physical job design (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Absenteeism or withdrawal behaviours could also be a manifestation of undercommitment, especially if this type of behaviour points to anti-organisational behaviour such as dishonesty, laziness and disloyalty. Also read section 4.5.3 and 4.5.4 in learning unit 4.

3.7. Influences of withdrawal behaviours

Personality factors

Under absenteeism and personnel turnover, we referred to specific contributing factors. If work attendance is seen as a combined action energised by a work contract, the motivation and ability or opportunity to attend work, various work attitudes and values, and external demands from family and other responsibilities, it is obvious that there could be many causes for withdrawal behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Research shows that withdrawal behaviours correlate positively, although not always strongly, with job dissatisfaction and lower involvement. Job satisfaction, which may relate to general dissatisfaction or to specific job characteristics, does not explain all the variances in withdrawal behaviour. A great deal of research is still needed to understand the dynamics of withdrawal behaviour, especially with regard to individual difference factors, which are mostly neglected in the many models on withdrawal behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

All withdrawal behaviours are really about disengaging from organisational or work activities, and various personal factors may contribute to or modify withdrawal behaviours, such as length of service, age, health status and family responsibilities. An interesting idea is that withdrawal behaviour at work is merely a symptom of a general uncertain or ambiguous attachment behaviour style and uncertain behaviours in some people, which they try to cope with through absence, turnover, or “withdrawal” or “job hopping”. Rosse and Noel (2003) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) suggest that withdrawal behaviours can be seen as people's adaptive and coping responses to unhappy work experiences or dissatisfying work, which may help our understanding of employee withdrawal behaviours.

Biographical factors

Although age and gender do have an influence, they are modified by factors such as period of service and changes to people's circumstances and personalities that come with age. In general, age seems to have a negative correlation with turnover and various indices of absence behaviour which, according to developmental theory, can be attributed to greater job involvement, responsibility and wisdom that comes with older age. Period of service may also come into play in the sense that older employees may have to "set an example" to younger employees and they do not want to lose their accumulated benefits (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Regarding gender, previous beliefs that women are more absent or are responsible for more staff turnover, probably as the result of their family responsibilities, seem to be invalid. This is especially true in smaller families (not many family members who can have problems), and if many friends and relatives are available to help with family care. In bigger families and when there is little support for child and family care, women may be absent more often (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Cognitive abilities

Cognitive factors may influence withdrawal behaviours indirectly if employees are getting bored because their jobs are too easy, or if they are experiencing too much stress because their tasks are too difficult. Also, very talented employees may be absent because they are job hunting or may have the perception that they will be able to find other employment easily if their absence behaviours result in them getting fired. Higher performance employees, who have strong abilities, may also have more freedom to be absent or arrive late, especially if other employees and even management are aware of their strategic importance (Rosse & Noel, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In general, high performance employees tend to have low levels of withdrawal behaviours because they may also have strong intrinsic motivation.

Types of personality traits

An early explanation for absence behaviour was absence proneness (similar to accident proneness); in other words, certain people just have the consistent tendency to be absent. This theory (as for job hoppers, drifters and hobos) received little support; however, research indicates that absence patterns across certain people and times are quite consistent. Past evidence of absence behaviours should therefore be a good predictor of possible future absences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Extroversion may be related to absence behaviour, because it has been shown that extroverted individuals may leave jobs on a more regular basis and after shorter periods, which may be related to getting bored with routine tasks. Employees with a strong external locus of control may withdraw more easily because they may feel less in control or less able to solve problems themselves, and would rather avoid possible problem situations. As a rule, introverts use fewer withdrawal behaviours, perhaps because they have a stronger perception of self-control. However, they may withdraw from jobs in which the person-job fit is poor and job satisfaction is low, for example in sales and managerial jobs where interaction with other people is emphasised (Rosse & Noel, 2003, and Furnham, 1997, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). An introvert may rather just resign as a form of passive rebellion and constructive job turnover, and find a position with a better person-organisation fit. The findings with regard to extroversion and introversion support the finding that employees who

perceive themselves as having a high degree of control show decreased withdrawal behaviours. These employees have positive attitudes towards work attendance, feel that they can attend to work and are aware of social pressures to avoid withdrawal behaviours.

The personality trait “openness to experience” (being imaginative, curious, original, broad-minded and artistically sensitive) may relate to withdrawal, because people with this trait may find it difficult to stay in one place for long or to get used to routine. These employees may also be more intrinsically motivated and may want autonomy in decision-making and movement. They may find it difficult to achieve job satisfaction in the usual job, may view their rewards differently and could, for example, see leisure time as a way to supplement their existing remuneration. On the other hand, employees who are very agreeable (trusting, cooperative, flexible) may be “stayers” because they interact well with others and usually also experience job satisfaction. These employees may not want to miss work because of their loyalty to their colleagues, and may have a role as “caretaker” in their work groups. The trait of conscientiousness (achievement-oriented, responsible, serious, persevering, hardworking, reliable, etc.) seems to predict withdrawal behaviours, since people who lack this trait are inclined to withdraw more easily in difficult work situations and employees in whom this trait is strong cannot fulfil their achievement orientation in their workplaces (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Orientations: interests and values

Strong interests and values (and related attitudes and interests) have been shown to predict job satisfaction and are important variables in employee-job-organisational fit. It seems logical that these employees will have a strong work ethic and will avoid withdrawal behaviours (Rosse & Noel, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Possible deviations from this positive work attendance motivation could be to attend to private (or non-work) interests and to family interests. Another possibility for withdrawal behaviours is whether the initial good fit between the employee and employer after some time does continue to satisfy the employee's needs, interests and expectations.

Emotions

Positive and negative affective dispositions and moods influence work-related attitudes and therefore job satisfaction. Employees with enduring positive emotional dispositions have feelings of wellbeing, experience work more positively and have little reason to use withdrawal behaviour. In contrast, employees with more negative dispositions experience negative emotions and moods which influence their work-related attitudes and may result in job dissatisfaction. Negative emotionality is also associated with more stress, frustration, emotional symptoms and somatic diseases, which may lead to more illness, complaints and absences, and withdrawal symptoms in work behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality factors loaded with emotional sub-facets, such as emotional stability or neuroticism, have been found to relate to withdrawal behaviour. Feelings of depression and anxiety may cause withdrawal behaviours inasmuch as withdrawal may alleviate stress, for example, in people who are afraid of criticism, failure or success. An interesting and more positive perspective of negative emotionality and withdrawal behaviours is that negative affectivity may moderate the relationship

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between job satisfaction and withdrawal cognitions or appraisals (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Depending on the type of withdrawal behaviour (whether it is forced, voluntary or traumatic), certain emotions may be relevant. Research indicates that certain common emotions are felt by all people who experience trauma. This also applies to people who withdraw from an organisation. Obviously, every individual experiences situations very differently and the intensity of emotions varies since it is determined by a person's assessment of situations, the importance of events and the person's coping resources. A list of possible emotions includes guilt, powerlessness, helplessness, pointlessness, self-blame, sadness, anger, fear, anxiety, disorientation, irritability, restlessness and withdrawal (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Some withdrawal behaviours indicate individual and organisational misfit and maladjustment to work demands. The negative consequences of withdrawal behaviours can be very costly and painful to individuals, organisations and society. Although more research is required into the general nature of withdrawal from organisations, more specific analysis should examine the precise meaning of individual differences in certain types of withdrawal. Examples are differences in coping with or resisting job dissatisfaction, impulsive withdrawal behaviours and choosing between types of withdrawal behaviour instead of total or impulsive withdrawal (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

4. Facilitating effective career development

There are various strategies for and approaches to career development, occupational choice and decision-making behaviour across the various stages of development and life. Of course, there is no one correct process or method to follow; the individual concerned should be allowed and helped to acquire occupational development competencies that would enable them to cope appropriately in certain situations and to realise their innate potential. This is especially true for the childhood stages, which are preparation for the adult working life and its choices at various stages. To improve occupational development and choice skills, the following suggestions can be considered. However, this is not a manual for specific methods and techniques (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- Assist young adults and employees in discovering themselves. They should get to know themselves and all their attributes, including cognitive abilities, personality traits, values, preferences, work ethics and work attitudes (also during transitions in their lives).
- Help young adults and employees to have realistic knowledge and expectations of the world of work and different occupations (also as the world of work changes).
- Assist people in understanding how they and their attributes fit certain career choices (jobs and study directions), and how this fit may change over time and situations.
- Allow people or employees to apply self-management in order to be in control of their own occupational choices and development.

- Facilitate self-control in young and experienced people by improving their self-efficacy beliefs and other resiliency factors so that they will be ready for and able to cope with work demands (also in more difficult situations).
- Facilitate and foster positive emotionality in people to enable them to assess life and work more positively, which may bring more job satisfaction.
- Make an early assessment of incongruent choices and reasons for job dissatisfaction and withdrawal behaviours, and also other work and career adaptation problems in order to be proactive.
- Provide counselling or guidance to employees who tend towards and manifest withdrawal behaviours in order to give them other mechanisms for coping with and adapting to job dissatisfaction or other issues.
- Use selection processes more effectively as person-job fit procedures by finding out more about each individual's background (history), values, personality traits, interests, attitudes, emotions and expectations, as well as the same factors in the organisation.
- Allow newcomers in organisations to have a realistic orientation and socialisation, and allow for possible changes in the original person-organisation fit arrangement as determined by the selection procedure and placement.
- Use effective motivational and work design strategies to ensure optimal person-organisation fit and work behaviours that will lead to job satisfaction and will avoid withdrawal and other counterproductive behaviours.
- Despite the new age in work and organisational cultures characterised by downsizing, mergers and discouragement of long-standing careers at one employer or in one job, the idea of a career still exists, and people still have dreams of developing and adapting successfully in a career.

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