Comprehending Contemporary Career Success - Linking Career Self-Management, Career Competencies & Career Equality

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	An analytical review of recent advances in the literature on career success is presented in this article. We examine studies from the fields of organizational behavior (OB) and organizational psychology (OP), stressing the unique viewpoints, advantages, and disadvantages of each discipline. We then make an effort to bring these perspectives on career success into harmony in order to propose fruitful new study avenues. The essay begins by considering many conceptions of both subjective and objective career success and how valuable each is to the area. Subsequently, we delve into various classifications of career success predictors derived from the economic, sociological, and social-psychological viewpoints employed in both OP and OB. These include social capital and sponsorship, human capital, internal and external labor markets, individual variations that are both fixed and adaptable, and career self-management practices. Within each of those sections, we offer research recommendations; additionally, we offer an integrative research agenda centered around multiple emerging issues and theoretical vantage points, promoting future investigations into the effects of career shocks, marginalized group experiences, sustainable careers, and alternative work arrangements on career success. **Keywords:** career success, career self-management, career competencies, internal labor markets, career equality

1. INTRODUCTION

It is appropriate for academics to consider and write on job success at this time. The effects of the COVID-19 epidemic are still being felt in the workforce, as seen by a number of events dubbed the Great Resignation, the Great Reshuffling, Quiet Quitting, and the Return to the Office dispute. These terms allude to historically high rates of labor market disengagement and job switching among companies, professions, and independent contractors as employees look for more pay, better benefits, more flexibility, and a deeper sense of purpose in their work lives. From lower-paying jobs in retail and hospitality to nursing and other skilled jobs in OECD member countries, from entry-level manufacturing jobs in China and Southeast Asia to highly sought-after technical jobs worldwide, the effects are being felt across occupational and geographic spectrums (Fuller & Kerr 2022, Tharoor 2021). Wages in low-paying occupations have started to rise after decades of stagnation, despite a reduction in labor productivity (Bureau Labor Stat. & US Dep. Labor 2022, Gould & Kandra 2022). The shock of the worldwide pandemic may have caused people to reevaluate how they view their jobs, think back on their lives, and fully appreciate the boundaryless nature of work and careers. Only from a career perspective can such phenomena be properly comprehended, thus it is a good time for us to consider the advancements and difficulties in the field of professional success study. To help clarify the scope of the current research, we offer a brief outline of the source disciplines that have historically informed the study of professional success in Section 2 below. The notion of career success is examined from both traditional and innovative angles in the third segment. The seven main theoretical and disciplinary viewpoints are used to

review and categorize the factors that determine professional achievement in Section 4. In Section 5, a study program for career success is outlined from five positive perspectives. Throughout this analysis, we present a critical perspective on the topic of career success research in an attempt to encourage good development.

2. SCOPE OF REVIEW

The two linked but distinct academic traditions that give this journal its name, organizational psychology1 (OP) and organizational behavior (OB), have been the main hubs for career success research for the past thirty years. These academic traditions are not strictly distinguishable from one another, but they do have unique viewpoints, theories, and methodological guidelines. For instance, researchers who identify as work and organizational psychologists (OB) usually draw from management and source disciplines like sociology and economics, whereas researchers who identify as work and vocational psychologists (WOB) frequently draw from theories of work, occupational, and vocational psychology. Furthermore, OB is mainly concerned with workplace behaviors, general OB constructs, and objective work and career results, while OP is primarily focused on internal psychological processes, career-specific constructs, and subjective career outcomes. Other distinctions include preferred journal outlets (e.g., Journal of Applied Psychology and Personnel Psychology or Journal of Vocational Behavior and Career Development International) and geographic location (e.g., Europe or the United States), which may seem like arbitrary but significant differences. This review centers on the idea that these two "invisible colleges" (Crane, 1972) have been studying the same phenomenon, but they have been doing so in different ways. At times, they have duplicated each other's research or have pursued entirely different avenues of investigation, but they have been working toward understanding the same phenomenon in parallel. Each research tradition can benefit from knowing and understanding the other in greater depth, borrowing, refining, or refuting ideas where necessary, thereby moving toward a more coherent and comprehensive understanding of career success.

3. CONCEPTUALIZING AND RE-CONCEPTUALIZING CAREER SUCCESS

Even though the concept of career success might seem obvious—that is, you can tell it when you see it—many believe that it is a social construction rather than an objective reality that is ingrained in knowledge of a specific historical period and location. As a result, there are numerous, constantly evolving viewpoints on the concept (Dries et al. 2008). According to Arthur et al. (1989, p. 8), a career is the "evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time." According to Judge et al. (1995), career success is defined as the favorable material and psychological results or achievements that arise from certain professional activities and experiences. Both objective and subjective career outcomes are included in these definitions. When we talk about outcomes that can be measured and independently verified, we're talking about objective career success (OCS). Examples of these outcomes include salary, rank in an organizational hierarchy or professional title attained, quantity or speed of promotions, and occupational status. According to Gattiker and Larwood (1986), they serve as an intersubjective benchmark that the incumbent or peers can use to assess their own level of accomplishment in comparison to others. In this way, social comparisons with others are indirectly reflected in OCS indices. On the other hand, subjective career success (SCS) describes a person's cognitive assessment and emotive response to all elements of their profession, including elements with more peculiar personal values and meanings as well as elements with objective consequences. Due to its self-referential frame of reference (Gattiker & Larwood 1986), SCS is far less susceptible to be impacted by comparisons with peers.

Over the past 20 years, there has been a lot of discussion about the career success construct, despite its rather simple description. With changes in the nature of occupations itself came shifting notions about what makes a successful career. The most well-known example of this was the advent of the boundaryless or, perhaps more generally, contemporary career, as Arthur & Rousseau (1996) identified (Arthur 2008). These researchers contended that if the conventional career path of vertical advancement inside a single organisation was obsolete, SCS might take the stage and OCS would lose significance. A number of academics (such as Arthur et al. 2005 and Heslin 2005) have advocated for a more nuanced understanding and assessment of SCS. Without making direct links to problems in the larger body of OB literature, the OP literature placed a great deal of focus on extending the sphere of career success. The argument against the applicability of conventional career theory still influences how job success is conceptualised and quantified in the modern era. Though we present a critical perspective in the hopes of forging a new consensus, we feel that further investigation into the subjective definition of career success will yield decreasing benefits in comparison to more urgent issues.

3.1. Objective Career Success: Critiques and Replies In this section, we briefly review the well-established critiques of OCS and offer a number of reasons to value OCS as an important career outcome.

3.1.1. critiques of a career's objective success. The shortcomings of OCS indicators have been the subject of extensive conceptual work (e.g., Heslin 2005). This argument holds that objective measures of career success, like salary attainment or hierarchical level, are flawed because they ignore the subjective aspects of career success that each individual experiences, like job satisfaction and meaningful work, and are

tainted by external influences, like occupational wage structures. Furthermore, the new career structure would lead employees to place less value on objective outcomes and greater value on the subjective and sometimes idiosyncratic aspects of their work and careers.

3.1.2. reassessing the objective success of a career. While acknowledging the veracity of these concerns, we believe that some of these criticisms—particularly those from the original poster—exaggerate the shortcomings of OCS models and obstruct crucial avenues for further research. First of all, the fact that these indicators are objective is a valuable quality in and of itself that shouldn't be disregarded. After all, evaluating career success objectively avoids methodological problems of inflated effect sizes owing to common method variance and permits cross-person comparisons (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Second, OCS constructs, like salary, are a direct measure of a single career goal to be achieved, contrary to the assumption made by the criterion deficiency and contamination critiques that they are a measure of career performance (actions that are believed to lead to goal achievement) (Campbell & Wiernik 2015). Lastly, when it comes to research, it is customary to include profession as a control variable. This enables researchers to make generalizable conclusions about the factors influencing career success across a variety of occupations. Practically speaking, salary disparities between occupations that result from societal or economic processes must to be taken into consideration when choosing a job rather than being seen as unimportant variables.

In the 1990s, scholarly critiques of OCS have become increasingly prescriptive in addition to these methodological critiques of the area. Career experts maintain that because there are less opportunities for vertical migration inside businesses, persons in the modern career age should or will focus more on SCS goals and less on OCS achievements. This viewpoint has several problems. First, although it is true that over the past thirty years, the average employment duration has dropped, there is little evidence to substantiate the claim that during the 1990s, organisational tenure abruptly and substantially changed (Chudzikowski 2012, Rodrigues & Guest 2010).

Second, OCS may be a more coveted outcome than ever before because professional advancement within the company has become rarer. As a result, competition for the few internal promotions may be more fierce. Third, the career literature's de-emphasis on OCS may be more of a rhetorical device normalising the loss of organisational support for career growth and secure organisational careers than an empirical finding about employees (Inkson et al. 2012). Finally, since at least some people will always be interested in learning how to get larger amounts of these material outcomes, studies of OCS will always be pertinent. The WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialised, Rich, and Democratic) (Henrich et al. 2010) samples that are frequently the subject of career study may have the advantage of emphasising personal significance in one's profession (Inkson et al. 2012). According to recent qualitative research conducted in the US and other countries, working adults continue to place a high value on security and financial success (Mayrhofer et al. 2016, Seibert et al. 2013). From an equity standpoint, workers in nontraditional work arrangements and historically marginalised groups—such as women, racial and ethnic minorities, individuals with nontraditional sexual or gender orientations, individuals with disabilities, and displaced immigrants—are also likely to continue to be highly interested in OCS (Ashford et al. 2018, Blustein et al. 2019).

In conclusion, OCS is still significant and relevant. Instead of giving up on this result, we could expand our definition of the career success domain to include both SCS and OCS in order to address the shortcomings of OCS. Because of these criticisms, research on career achievement that takes into account both OCS and SCS has been prevalent for a while, but it may be decreasing. While less than half of the career success research Spurk et al. (2019) evaluated included both OCS and SCS measures, Arthur et al. (2005) found that 65% of career success studies published in management journals included both. We recommend, when possible, the inclusion of both types of outcomes for developing and testing career success models, unless there is a well-articulated theoretical reason to focus exclusively on one.

3.2. Subjective Job Success: Advancement and Unresolved Problems Extensive research endeavours, particularly within the OP field, have concentrated on expanding the scope of the SCS architecture in order to more accurately represent the dynamic nature of professions. Shockley et al. (2016) reviewed the literature from 2003 to 2014 and discovered that 74% of the included papers operationalized the concept as a global success evaluation or career satisfaction. Here, we review the efforts to define a more comprehensive, multidimensional conceptualization of SCS. Following that, we examine numerous key issues that have emerged regarding the conceptualization of SCS that we believe need to be resolved to move research on SCS forward.

3.2.1. improvements to the notion of subjective career success. Significant advancements have been achieved in determining the entire spectrum of SCS features or dimensions. Greenhaus et al. (1990) developed the career satisfaction scale, which has been the most widely used measure of SCS. It is conceptualised as a single dimension expressing satisfaction with many objective and subjective variables as well as overall satisfaction related with achieving one's career goals. However, recent studies conducted in the US, Europe, and in a cross-cultural setting (Briscoe et al. 2021, Dries et al. 2008, Seibert et al. 2013, Shockley et al. 2016) have improved our knowledge of what constitutes the "meaning" of career success—that is, the variety of factors that individuals consider when evaluating their professional success. The content domains

of professional success found in a number of these research are integrated in Table 1 (for more thorough evaluations, refer to Dries et al. 2008 and Shockley et al. 2016). These eight main dimensions—which centre on people's experiences or satisfaction with—financial concerns, (b) advancement in responsibility, status, and influence, (c) interpersonal relations, (d) challenge and mastery, (e) meaning and impact, (f) self-development, (g) career opportunities and control, and (h) the work-life interface—are the result of this integration of SCS conceptualizations. In addition, an overall assessment of one's SCS or satisfaction with one's career is also part of several frameworks.

Despite these significant advancements, to date, there has been little use of the new scales in empirical work. For example, the promising multidimensional views of SCS offered by Shockley et al. (2016) and the Cross-Cultural Collaboration on Contemporary Careers (5C) group (Briscoe et al. 2021) have, thus far, mostly been used as organizing schemes for literature reviews and conceptual papers (e.g., Spurk et al. 2019). In fact, most empirical studies citing Shockley et al.'s work still used Greenhaus et al.'s career satisfaction scale to measure SCS. Similarly, empirical studies using the 5C scale are starting to appear, although most have thus far focused primarily on the financial success facet (e.g., Bagdadli et al. 2021, Smale et al. 2019). Although this may be due to the newness of the scales, resolution of remaining issues may be necessary before scholars can make full use of these new conceptualizations, not least of which is the incremental value of these longer scales over the much shorter global career success scales.

3.2.2. advancing the study of subjective career success. The conceptual and empirical overlap between the new professional success constructs and the established constructs in the OB literature must first be addressed. Based on earlier SCS measurements, Ng & Feldman (2014) reported a revised meta-analytic correlation between career success and job satisfaction of 0.61. Even more overlap is suggested by a number of the dimensions that have emerged from more recent SCS scales. Aspects of career success, such as recognition, meaningful work, quality of work, and positive relationships at work, have been identified (Briscoe et al. 2021, Shockley et al. 2016). However, these dimensions seem to overlap with aspects of job satisfaction that have previously been identified (Weiss et al. 1967)2 or intrinsic job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham 1975). Similarly, it is probable that the work-life balance aspect of SCS will coincide with current work-family balance metrics (Carlson et al. 2009). These SCS scales pose concerns about contamination with other constructs, even though they might offer a more detailed picture of job success. We argue it is critical that scholars are careful and consistent in how they conceptualize and operationalize these constructs and will need to focus on incremental validity above and beyond existing OB measures. dimensions are correlated, researchers will likely need to use structural equation modeling techniques

Table 1 Selected subjective career success conceptualizations

	Gattiker & Larwood 1986	Greenhaus et al. 1990	Dries et al. 2008 (conceptual only)	Seibert et al. 2013	Shockley et al. 2016	Briscoe et al. 2021
Financial	Financial	Income	Interpersonal achievement ▪ Security	Financial success	Not included	Material concerns ▪ Financial security ▪ Financial success
Career advancement	Hierarchical	Advancement	Interpersonal achievement ▪ Advancement	Power and status	Influence	Not included
Interpersonal relations	Interpersonal	Not included	Interpersonal affect ▪ Recognition ▪ Cooperation	Not included	Recognition	Social relations ▪ Positive relationships
Challenge and mastery	Job	Not included	Interpersonal achievement ▪ Performance	Not included	Quality work	Not included
Meaning and impact	Not included	Not included	Interpersonal affect ▪ Perceived contribution	Not included	Meaningful work	Social relations ▪ Positive impact
Self-development	Not included	Skill development	Interpersonal affect ▪ Self-development ▪ Creativity	Knowledge and skill development	Growth and development	Learning and development
Career control	Not included	Not included	Not included	Employability and desirable job opportunities	Authenticity	Entrepreneurship
Work-life interface	Not included	Not included	Not included	Not included	Personal life	Social relations ▪ Work-life balance
Overall	Not included	Progress toward career goals Achievement of career goals	Interpersonal achievement ▪ Satisfaction	Not included	Satisfaction	Not included

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Second, when the number of SCS dimensions rises, the issues of multidimensionality and dimension weighting also become more important. For theory creation and testing, many scholars in the larger field of management may favour a shorter, unidimensional scale, even when distinct dimensions may be diagnostic for applied purposes (Briscoe et al., 2021). It is a difficult task to model one or two OCS indications and the independent SCS facets at the same time. Can one use a single dimension, if it is unique, or does one have to use them all and create different hypotheses for each one? Although some items on the SCS scales (e.g., Greenhaus et al. 1990, Turban & Dougherty 1994) tap into multiple unique aspects of an individual's career, some of the scales are conceptualised as unidimensional. While other measures are intended to evaluate several discrete aspects, the authors propose that a single career satisfaction measure can be obtained by unit-weighting the subfactors (Seibert et al. 2013). Others, such as the scale developed by Briscoe et al. in 2021, specifically advise utilising the dimensions as independent measures but incorporate importance weights to create an overall SCS scale. Therefore, we think that there will need to be some agreement on how various SCS metrics should be applied.

It may be helpful to review earlier research on job satisfaction. Ironson et al. (1989), for instance, discovered that certain job satisfaction facets were more effective at predicting particular criteria than a composite scale. However, their global measure of job satisfaction was especially helpful in predicting broad outcomes, like the intention to leave, and it explained variance in the specific criteria beyond the five specific facets. The takeaway for research on career success may be that while global measures of SCS are best suited for evaluating overall SCS or serving as a predictor of a wide range of subsequent career behaviours, like job or career turnover, specific dimensions of SCS are best suited for specific career predictors or interventions (see Spurk et al. 2019).All things considered, by using a tailored method to gauge SCS, the OP (multidimensional preference) and OB (unidimensional preference) domains could benefit from one another. More precisely, when researchers are interested in predictors, causes, or interventions theoretically linked to particular parts of a career, they should use fine-grained SCS assessment instruments. However, short unidimensional or global SCS measures, such as those published by Greenhaus et al. (1990), are probably the most suited when researchers employ SCS as part of a larger study model that aims to develop and evaluate theories regarding the overall notion of SCS.

Finally, a lot of research has been done on the arbitrary definition of career success. The emerging content dimensions' similarity indicates that we may have reached saturation, as defined by qualitative researchers. Considering the aforementioned advancements in identifying the components of SCS, it is doubtful that exploratory study on the subjective definition of professional success would produce hitherto undiscovered SCS dimensions that are broadly applicable to a variety of professions, at least not in the near future. Therefore, it's time to compile our knowledge of SCS facets and refine it through additional empirical research. However, there are still a lot of methodological issues that need to be resolved in order to fully understand how the career success construct was conceptualised. Table 2 provides an initial roadmap for further research in this field. These questions, as this table indicates, go beyond content-related concerns and force researchers to consider career success as a construct that is unique from other outcomes in the OB literature. After that, we'll talk about a number of classes of job success predictors that have been studied in the OB and OP literature.

PREDICTORS OF CAREER SUCCESS
Several important areas of professional success indicators are covered in this section. This review is explicitly not arranged in accordance with a single overarching theoretical approach, which we believe to be premature and detrimental to the subject at this time, but rather according to the various source disciplines and the basic theoretical orientations to which they adhere.

Table 2 Choices in the conceptualization and measurement of career success

Type of career outcome	Measurement strategy	Frame of reference	Dimensionality of measure

Nature of the career outcome
■ In principle, objective and verifiable
  ☐ Salary, number of promotions, rank, occupational status
■ Subjective, but relatively cognition-based
  ☐ Progress relative to peers or personal goals
■ Subjective, affective, idiosyncratic
  ☐ Sense of purpose in meaningful work
	Source of measurement
	■ Company archival data or objective rating
	  ☐ Occupational status
	■ Panel dataset
	  ☐ Job title
	■ Self-report
	  ☐ Salary, career satisfaction
		Comparative frame
		■ Progress relative to your own career goals
		  ☐ Presumably set at some previous time and not updated based on subsequent career events
		■ Evaluation relative to what your peers have achieved
		  ☐ Evaluation relative to the age/time standards of the profession
			Single dimension
			■ Global items designed to form a single latent construct
			  ☐ e.g., I am satisfied with my career
			■ Composite, made up of subdimensions
			  ☐ Unit weighting of items or subdimension scores
			  ☐ Dimensions combined based on individual importance weights

Motivational basis of outcome
■ Extrinsic
  ☐ Money, rank
■ Instrumental
  ☐ Status and influence
  ☐ Learning and growth
■ Intrinsic
  ☐ Meaningful work
	Measurement strategy for self-reports
	■ Descriptive
	  ☐ I have opportunities for promotions.
	■ Evaluative
	  ☐ How satisfied are you with your opportunities for promotions?
		Time frame
		■ Current state
		  ☐ How satisfied are you with your career?
		■ Past trajectory of your career
		  ☐ Looking back over the path of your career…
		■ The future trajectory of your career
		  ☐ This organization has career opportunities that are appealing to me.
		■ Longitudinal data collected at multiple points in time
		  ☐ Y1, Y2, Y3
			Multidimensional
			■ Include all dimensions or only specific dimensions
			■ Will specific hypotheses be formed for each dimension?

Moreover, we included several categories that are leveraged less often in OP and OB career success research.

4.1. Human Resources A number of important economics theories have been appropriated by academics studying career achievement, major among them being human capital theory (HCT) (Becker 1964). The rational expectation of the net financial and psychological benefits that such expenditures would generate over the course of a person's lifetime was the basis for the design of HCT, which was intended to explain the degree of investment in education. It is predicated on the idea that work experience, education, and training boost worker productivity, which the labour market rewards with better pay and status jobs, raising OCS. Spurk et al. (2019) found HCT the most frequently used theory in the career success literature prior to the year 2000, most often used to explain OCS.Career researchers have used HCT, primarily from the OB traditions, to support the inclusion of factors like employment gaps, work experience, educational attainment, and training participation—usually as control variables (Judge et al. 1995, Seibert et al. 1999, Wayne et al. 1999). In their meta-analysis, Ng et al. (2005) discovered substantial relationships between pay and human capital factors, but little to no influence on promotions and generally insignificant effects on career satisfaction.

Notwithstanding these conclusions, HCT as a model of job success has flaws. First, HCT has evolved into a kind of loose theoretical catch-all for structures that better suit various viewpoints than the theory. Ng et al. (2005), for instance, classified social capital, political knowledge, and career planning under the HCT rubric. Second, individual qualities and productivity or performance are linked by mediating variables specified by OB theories of work performance (Campbell & Wiernik 2015). This crucial relationship has been questioned by later human capital economists (Tan 2014) and is absent from the research on careers. It is crucial to verify these theoretical presumptions in light of recent meta-analytic research (Van Iddekinge et al. 2019) that demonstrates only a weak and inconsistent association between prehire work experience and job performance. Third, there is scant evidence connecting performance to the OCS constructions of pay raises and promotions, even if there is a relationship between HCT conceptions and work performance (see Breaugh 2011). To completely comprehend the entire causal chain from HCT constructions to performance to promotion and pay increases, a broader contextual understanding of managers' perceptions regarding promotability and the promotion process is required. Overall, we believe HCT remains valuable, yet more research is required to understand the processes linking these constructs to career success.

4.2. Labour markets, both internal and external According to the internal labour market (ILM) approach, one needs an understanding of how promotions are distributed inside organisations in order to comprehend careers. An ILM is a confined organisation where employee wages and promotions are controlled by an organisational set of rules and processes, according to economists Doeringer & Piore (1971). Internal

promotions and lateral job movements remain a significant part of most careers, even though careers that develop within a single organisation are becoming less prevalent (Bidwell 2013). As a result, the sociological and economic perspectives that highlight the internal mechanisms involved in determining promotions are still applicable.

The effect that rivalry, relative status, and promotion history have in internal career mobility is examined from a variety of angles. A historical or pathdependent model of mobility was supported, for instance, by Rosenbaum's (1979) articulation of tournament theory, which demonstrated that workers who received promotions early in their careers had increased odds of receiving promotions in the future and generally reached higher levels. In actuality, staying on too long at any rank decreased the likelihood of getting promoted again. In more recent times, researchers studying management have discovered proof that promotion trajectories (Alessandri et al., 2021) and performance trajectories (Sturman, 2003) influence promotions that follow. Once more, there may be a crucial but as of yet understudied factor in the relationship between job performance and promotion: senior managers' assessments of an employee's promotability (Seibert et al. 2017, Wayne et al. 1999). A different line of inquiry has looked more closely at how ILMs influence the success and career pathways of employees. For instance, Keller (2018) and Bidwell & Keller (2014) provided examples of how internal promotions improve employee performance and retention for the company. According to Dlugos & Keller's (2021) research, if an employee isn't given indications about future promotion chances, they may decide to leave the company. The interaction between internal and exterior labour market movements has been the subject of additional research. Bidwell & Briscoe (2010), for example, demonstrated how technology workers create their own interorganizational career ladder by favouring employment in large organisations early in their careers, presumably to take advantage of training opportunities, and then moving later in their careers to organisations that focused on their occupational specialty, presumably to capitalise on their accumulated skills. Greater managerial responsibility, higher pay, and higher career satisfaction were most likely to result from upward mobility within a single organisation, according to research by Bidwell & Mollick (2015). In contrast, external moves typically resulted in higher pay compared to staying put, but relatively smaller increases in responsibilities and career satisfaction than internal upward mobility. Overall, research in this field demonstrates that ILMs are important, as workers use a combination of costs and benefits to implement their career goals in both internal and external labour markets. There was a time when organisational career systems were a hot issue (Sonnenfeld & Peiperl 1988). As the setting in which professional success occurs, we implore OP and OB scholars to give ILMs and career systems more (re)emphasis.

4.3. Developmental networks, developmental support, and sponsorship Early in the 1990s, academics studying organisational behaviour started to identify and take into account relationships and social support at work as factors that affect career success. Turner (1960) used the contest versus sponsored mobility framework as a main point of reference to describe various educational systems. When it comes to careers, contest mobility refers to a structure where advancement within the company is determined by performance or merit. On the other hand, sponsored mobility refers to an organisational career system where people are chosen early in life based on their potential for success and receive special treatment to elevate them to elite rank. The sponsorship perspective has been applied in practice to explain why career success should be positively correlated with a variety of forms of interpersonal support, such as mentorship from senior managers, supervisor support, and high-quality leader-member exchange relationships (e.g., Dreher & Bretz 1991, Wayne et al. 1999). Higher OCS and SCS are linked to organisational assistance in the form of training and career development chances, according to meta-analytic results (Ng et al. 2005). Likewise, one's career is probably going to benefit from having a high-quality exchange relationship (leader-member interaction) with one's leader (Wayne et al. 1999). Generally, rather than being a theory of the internal promotion system itself, the contest versus sponsored mobility approach has been employed as a framework for organising constructs. Because career success is influenced by both performance and assistance from powerful individuals within the organisation, both the contest and sponsorship constructions are relevant to it. Similar to HCT, the contest/sponsorship model is less utilised to produce original and distinct hypotheses and more used to validate particular variables and observed effects (Hambrick 2007). Since the theory is specified at the organisational or business unit level, we would have to operate there if we were to investigate this framework as a theory. We might inquire, for example, about how much sponsorship matters to different organisations. Has the increased prevalence of competition from outside hires made sponsorship less significant? Do processes like cumulative advantage, investment, and differential sponsorship matter more to the organization's core members than to its periphery members? The study topics listed above are only a few instances of the ones we think could aid OP and OB scholars in their understanding of professional success.

A substantial amount of study looks at how professional success is affected by workplace mentoring, which is described as a learning connection between a less experienced person and a more senior or experienced person. Given the recent review by Eby & Robertson (2020) in this journal, we just touch on this topic briefly. According to those authors, there was a lot of early interest in the theory that minorities and women had a harder time in the workforce because they didn't have the same mentor support as their male counterparts. However, later studies found little evidence linking a person's race or gender to being a protégé (O'Brien et al. 2010, KammeyerMueller & Judge 2008). Overall, the benefits of having a mentor are minor to moderately beneficial for SCS and small to no effect for OCS (Allen et al. 2004, Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge 2008). There

is a great deal of variation in these results, which implies that moderators will play a part in further studies. For instance, deeper levels of resemblance between the protégé and the mentor as well as traits like personality, interpersonal skills, and positive self-concept are linked to better results (Eby et al. 2013).

Work that comes after includes actions taken by the employee to obtain support from others, such networking and social media. Meeting people who could be useful in one's profession is the main goal of networking (see also Sections 4.5 and 4.6). The focus of social network study is on how building a strong network of supporting relationships at work might affect one's career. For instance, Higgins & Thomas (2001) looked at the network of developmental relationships among solicitors and discovered that the likelihood of junior solicitors being promoted to partners six years later was predicted by the average position of the constellation of developers. Seibert et al. (2001) looked at the structural characteristics of the developmental network of employees, emphasising the social resources that the ties to development could access, the strength of the developmental ties, and the extent to which ties might reach across social groupings that would not otherwise connect. They discovered that a network that reached individuals in a wide variety of organisational tasks and levels was linked to a preponderance of weak relationships and ties that crossed structural gaps, which in turn led to higher OCS and SCS. Collectively, these studies reveal that career success is not solely determined by the quantity of developmental assistance one receives, but also by the degree to which the constellation of one's developmental ties covers several social spheres and reaches influential others.

4.4. Women's Career Equality and Gender Here, gender is defined as the combined impact of biological and social influences on the experiences of men and women, rather than as a simply demographic characteristic (Wood & Eagly 2010). Numerous OB studies and global business surveys have demonstrated that there has been a persistent gender difference in leadership roles and pay for decades (Joshi et al. 2015, Judge & Livingston 2008). Accordingly, women's professional equality research centres on how much more access to job options and equal work, career, and nonwork outcomes women have than males (Kossek et al. 2017). Three broad theoretical perspectives are used to examine women's career (in)equality: career preferences, work-family conflict, and gender bias. A comprehensive review of this research is beyond the scope of our article, so we only briefly summarize the basic findings here.

According to Kosek et al. (2017), the career preference perspective ascribes a portion of the disparity in women's professional success to the variations in men and women's work interests, ambitions, and demands. For instance, women pick lower-paying jobs because they value work-family balance and the chance to collaborate with others more than males do (Barbulescu & Bidwell 2013). According to the work-family viewpoint, women suffer higher levels of work-family conflict, which is linked to career inequality. Gendered differences in the division of domestic labour, perceived work-family pressures, and the differential effects of family structure may have complex influences on women's career opportunities and outcomes, even though meta-analytic results show gender differences in work-family conflict to be negligible (Shockley et al. 2017). For instance, the kaleidoscope model developed by Mainiero & Sullivan (2005) indicates that women's careers are not as linear as those of males, and that women prioritise work-life balance difficulties in their mid-career, whereas men do not. According to recent study (Frear et al. 2019), women accrue less human capital, work fewer hours, and have lower career centrality, all of which are consistent with the opting-out approach. Congruent with the pushed-out viewpoint, a wealth of evidence indicates that stereotypes, organisational cultures hostile to female leaders, and gendered role expectations all contribute to a work environment that is detrimental to women's professional development (Hebl et al. 2020). Throughout their careers, women have more challenges and hurdles than men, but they also receive less opportunities and support (Lyness & Thompson 2000). While Joshi et al. (2015) presented meta-analytic evidence indicating that gender differences in performance evaluation across multiple job sectors were significantly smaller than gender differences in salary and promotions, Frear et al. (2019) only offered contradictory findings regarding the unequal effects of women's career-related attributes on OCS. Sitzmann & Campbell (2021) discovered a correlation between the degree of religiosity at the national level and the gender wage gap's magnitude in over 100 nations globally, indicating that national culture has a significant moderating role. Ng & Feldman (2014) discovered that, with regard to SCS, women did not report lower levels of professional satisfaction than did males. The opting-out and pushed-out viewpoints are easily contrasted, but they do not preclude one another as reasons for the women's OCS disparity. Gender bias, the unequal distribution of household work, a lack of employment assistance, and national culture can all give the impression that women have chosen to opt out when, in reality, their decision is influenced by external contextual factors. However, considering the constant results regarding the opting-out perspective, professional equity instead of equality may be a better framework for this study. Future studies in this field could productively concentrate on these intricate relationships between various levels of analysis and the efficacy of theory-based practical interventions intended to sever this connection (Kossek et al. 2017). The study of women's careers may help career scholars develop more comprehensive career success models by adding some of the key characteristics and behaviours found in this research. Professional researchers ought to, at the very least, look for gender disparities in the models they evaluate.

4.5. Stable Individual Differences OP scholars have long seen personality and other individual difference constructs, such as interests and values, as central to career processes, such as occupational choice (Tokar et al. 1998). However, it is the OB scholars who typically view individual differences as determinants of career success, the subject of this review.

4.5.1. Individuality. Scholars in OB connected both OCS and SCS to a set of consistent dispositional qualities (e.g., Judge et al. 1999, Seibert & Kraimer 2001). Personality qualities have been shown to be predictive of job success in meta-analyses (Ng et al., 2005). For instance, people who are less neurotic and more extroverted, conscientious, and earn better salaries also tend to get promoted more frequently and have greater job satisfaction. It's interesting to note that openness to experience is only positively connected with compensation and job satisfaction, while agreeableness correlated adversely with salary and promotions. According to Ng et al. (2005), the Big Five personality traits generally have greater effects on SCS than on OCS.

Apart from the Big Five, a number of research studies have recognised proactive personality as a crucial factor in determining professional success. This personality trait offers additional explanatory power beyond a wide array of individual and occupational characteristics (Seibert et al. 1999). Erdogan & Bauer (2005) demonstrated that proactive personality only predicted SCS when person-organization or person-job fit was high. Seibert et al. (2001) demonstrated that proactive personality influenced career success through a set of proactive behaviours, including career self-management (CSM) behaviours. A meta-analysis by Ng et al. (2005) revealed a favourable correlation between proactive personality traits and job satisfaction, pay, and promotions. Career success has also been consistently associated with the core self-evaluation trait, a wide personality component based on the common variance among neuroticism, locus of control, generalised self-efficacy, and self-esteem and considered to represent fundamental appraisals of the self (Ng & Feldman 2014). Using archival data, Judge & Hurst (2008) demonstrated how core self-evaluations, partially mediated by educational attainment, predict entry-level pay and occupational achievement as well as the pace of increase in pay and occupational status over a 25-year period.

We offer some suggestions for improving academics' comprehension of personality features as indicators of professional success. Firstly, while research indicates a correlation between personality qualities and OCS and SCS, further investigation is necessary to determine the precise timing and mechanism of this relationship (see, for example, Seibert et al. 2001). Theoretically, OB academics have started to create models that link personality to career performance by incorporating task and interpersonal behaviours as well as organisational contextual factors (Heslin & Latzke 2019, Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller 2007). These models have not yet been put to the test. Second, it is important to investigate how personality dimensions relate to the freshly added SCS domain. Third, it would be beneficial to investigate how personality qualities affect job success from an insider's point of view. A framework explaining how situational cues and personality traits may interact to explain when and why traits predict job success was established by Heslin et al. (2019). A viable path for the future is to keep developing theories to comprehend the function of personality in career success.

4.5.2. Both emotional and cognitive intelligence. Another extensively researched individual difference construct that has been connected to career success is general mental ability (GMA). This is particularly true for OCS outcomes like money, hierarchical position, and occupational prestige. The study's use of temporal dynamics and longitudinal data is one of its strongest points. Dreher & Bretz (1991), for instance, discovered that the effect of GMA on job level attainment is larger for those who did not experience early career success. This finding suggests that high merit—that is, the capacity to acquire knowledge and abilities related to the work—can compensate for a lack of early sponsorship. According to Judge et al. (2010), high-GMA people had faster increases in their income and professional status over a 28-year period, in part because they had received more education and training. Additional research indicates that even fifty years after graduation, GMA and particular cognitive skills can predict the prestige of an occupation (Lang & Kell 2020). Because GMA is included in many large archival datasets, research on GMA has advanced the most in applying temporal study methods to link individual differences to developmental behaviour and future career outcomes. However, the datasets place some restrictions on the variety of career behaviours and career success outcomes.

Emotional intelligence (EQ) facilitates interpersonal efficacy, whereas cognitive intelligence facilitates learning and problem solving. Beyond GMA and the Big Five personality traits, Garcia & Costa (2014) demonstrated that EQ contributed a considerable amount of variance to the prediction of pay and career satisfaction. According to Rode et al. (2017), those who possess emotional intelligence are more likely to be well compensated due to their capacity for forming close bonds with others. EQ research is still in its infancy. In order to fully comprehend how the entire spectrum of professional success outcomes are generated, research on GMA and EQ, like that on personality, would benefit from increased integration with career choice and other process models.

4.6. Career Self-Management Practices The CSM literature is concerned with the actions people do to mould their careers. While theories of occupational choice and development have long piqued the interest of

vocational psychologists, OB researchers have concentrated on the methods people utilise to accomplish their professional objectives after entering the workforce for pay. CSM models are frequently conceptualised within a broader dynamic self-regulation framework, which encompasses goal-setting, plan and strategy development and implementation, goal monitoring, and goal modification (Lord et al. 2010).

Numerous CSM frameworks are being consideration. While specific names vary amongst frameworks, they generally encompass activities like goal-setting and planning, skill-building, seeking feedback, networking, nominating oneself for opportunities, and activities related to job mobility (e.g., Gould & Penley 1984, Kossek et al. 1998, Noe 1996, Strauss et al. 2012, Sturges et al. 2002). These CSM models make sense intuitively, but there is conflicting empirical evidence on their ability to predict career success. Positive effects of CSM behaviours on OCS and SCS have been found in a number of studies (e.g., Abele & Wiese 2008). Other research, however, discovered that CSM was only somewhat associated to SCS (De Vos et al. 2009, Smale et al. 2019). Overall, the data linking CSM to professional success is inconclusive. It's unclear why this is the case. One hypothesis is that trustworthy findings cumulation is being hampered by the lack of construct validity and clarity regarding the particular characteristics of CSM. Moreover, although some longitudinal (Sturges et al. 2002) and quasi-experimental (Kossek et al. 1998) methods were used, samples were frequently ad hoc, data were cross-sectional self-reports, sample sizes were modest, and analytical procedures were simple. Lastly, although concentrating on the straightforward direct consequences for particular behaviours, CSM models frequently neglect to take into account elements of the occupational or organisational context.

Theoretical models integrating CSM behaviours with modern career orientations (Hirschi & Koen 2021) or with career decision-making competences (Klehe et al. 2021) have been recently put up by OP scholars. All things considered, it is still unclear why and how CSM might improve job success.

4.7. Individual Differences That Are Modifiable Since training and intervention can modify these categories, OP scholars have been particularly interested in modifiable individual differences. This is because the field's fundamental goal stems from its roots in vocational psychology. These constructions may hold the most promise for integrating OP and OB perspectives on career success; nevertheless, before such a productive synthesis can be accomplished, a number of important concerns need to be answered.

4.7.1. modern perspectives on careers. According to the boundaryless (Arthur & Rousseau 1996) and protean (Hall 1996) career perspectives, employees would or should embrace new expectations and attitudes in order to succeed in the modern career age. Briscoe et al. (2006) operationalized two elements of the protean career attitude: values-driven and self-directed, whereas the boundaryless career attitude includes favourable attitudes towards both psychological and physical mobility. Overall, the usefulness of these modern career orientations has been demonstrated by empirical study. The various aspects do not, however, seem to be reliable indicators of professional success. For example, meta-analytic results demonstrate a reliable relationship between the self-directed aspect of the protean career attitude and multiple SCS characteristics, such as work-life balance, professional satisfaction, and general well-being. Nonetheless, the correlation between other variables and SCS outcomes is far less consistent. Furthermore, they don't seem to be strongly connected to OCS. For instance, physical mobility preference is adversely correlated with work satisfaction and is only marginally correlated with turnover intentions (Li et al. 2022, Wiernik & Kostal 2019). It is also not consistently correlated with compensation or promotions.

Notwithstanding the encouraging outcomes, we believe that if these conceptions are to be really useful, conceptual and empirical advancements are required. In contrast to the four-factor structure proposed by Briscoe et al. (2006), Wiernik & Kostal's (2019) meta-analytic result of a two-factor structure is consistent with Gubler et al.'s (2014) call for better consistency and conceptual clarity on the nature of these constructs. Given the robust associations between career attitudes and personality qualities like self-efficacy and proactive personality, construct validity is also a cause for worry (Wiernik & Kostal 2019). Additionally, there have been suggestions for more detailed theoretical models that may incorporate, for instance, specific career meta-competencies required to successfully perform modern career attitudes (Gubler et al. 2014, Hall et al. 2018). Li et al. (2022) suggest that enhanced theoretical correlation between career attitudes and CSM behaviours, along with more precise details about how these behaviours align with the employment situation, could potentially bolster their predictive power for career success.

4.7.2. Career resources and competences. Scholars from OP have recently conducted research on professional competency frameworks, which was primarily done by OB researchers in the past. One area of study that emerged directly from counselling psychology (Super et al., 1996) is career adaptability, a psychosocial tool that people employ to overcome obstacles in their careers. Four career adaptability resources were identified by Savickas & Porfeli (2012): confidence, control, curiosity, and worry. Numerous job behaviours and outcomes have been linked to career flexibility by empirical research (Johnston 2018). professional adaptability has been linked to both objective (like income) and subjective (like professional satisfaction, employability, and promotability) career success, according to a meta-analysis by Rudolph et al. (2017).

A second area of study is employability, which is defined as a person's capacity to take advantage of job opportunities both within and between employers over time (Forrier & Sels 2003, Fugate et al. 2021). The construct emerged almost simultaneously in the OB and OP disciplines (Fugate et al. 2004, Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden 2006). The construct's dimensions, which include openness to change, proactivity, work identity, and career motivation, are commonly defined as having two components: a proactive component that entails preparing oneself for change and a reactive component that involves flexibly adapting to changes that occur (Fugate & Kinicki 2008, Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden 2006).

Empirical research indicates that employability competencies can enhance OCS and SCS (e.g., Bozionelos et al. 2016, Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden 2006).

Though not particularly intended as a career competency, the political skills construct is a third stand-alone competency emerging from the OB research that is a significant predictor of career success. The four dimensions of political skill are apparent sincerity, social astuteness, interpersonal influence, and networking ability. Ferris et al. (2005, p. 127) defined political skill as "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organisational objectives" (Ferris et al. 2007). According to the findings of meta-analyses, political knowledge and abilities are associated with salary attainment, hierarchical position, and career satisfaction (Munyon et al. 2015, Ng et al. 2005). Additionally, a cross-cultural meta-analysis conducted by Chen et al. (2022) indicates that the effects are more pronounced in eastern cultures compared to western cultures and at the management level as opposed to the employee level. The perspectives on political skills align nicely with an understanding of careers within an organisational environment, and a more sophisticated understanding of the mediators—such as reputation and self-efficacy—is still being developed.

A significant amount of study has also been conducted by academics on integrative models based on resources or competences connected to careers. The knowledge, skills, and abilities believed to enable people to successfully advance their professions have formed the foundation of several career competency frameworks (Eby et al. 2003, Hall 2002, Parker et al. 2009). In order to quantify how well people reflect on their motivation and strengths for their careers, network and market themselves, investigate job opportunities, and create career plans, Akkermans et al. (2013) developed an integrative model and assessment scale. Empirical evidence has been found in research to link these job qualities to SCS and, to a lesser extent, OCS (e.g., Blokker et al. 2019; Akkermans & Tims 2017). Career resources are the subject of an even more comprehensive integrative model created by Hirschi et al. (2018). They characterise career resources as anything that aids a person in achieving their professional objectives. The career resources framework, which is based on a questionnaire they designed, identifies four major types of resources: human capital, environmental, motivational, and CSM resources. These resources are represented by 13 separate aspects. According to Hirschi et al. (2018), career resources have a predictive impact in SCS and OCS.

It is an interesting and helpful exercise for career scholars to try to arrange career constructions around important groups of competencies. There is still a great deal of theoretical and empirical uncertainty, nevertheless. For instance, while all competency models list several aspects, they don't provide a compelling theoretical justification for why these particular qualities alone have an impact on career success. They also don't say whether the elements have to be present simultaneously, or interact, in order to have a good effect, or if they just work as main effects. Moreover, no model explicitly accounts for contextual contingencies in its forecasts. Furthermore, the nature of the structures itself is not entirely clear. Unhelpfully, employability has been conceptualised as a competency, a personal resource, a psychosocial construct, a disposition, and a perspective. These distinctions are crucial because the nature of the construct affects measurement, intervention technique, theory formulation, and research design. Additionally, these competency frameworks and other models, like CSM, overlap. For instance, most of these competency models include elements of self-nomination, networking, and career exploration and planning—all of which have already been examined as CSM dimensions. This is troublesome because it leaves people unsure of the precise distinctions between, say, networking as a resource, expertise, and CSM strategy. To provide more examples, consider the following: proactive personality has been positioned as an adaptivity element (Rudolph et al. 2017), a psychological resource (Hirschi et al. 2018), a "knowing why" capacity (Eby et al. 2003), and a component of employability (Fugate & Kinicki 2008). At least when it comes to meta-competencies—which are broad abilities that help students acquire more specialised work competencies—academics should contrast various competency models in order to develop a more condensed set of constructs (Akkermans et al. 2013). Considerable research needs to be done in this area to develop specific, accurate, and parsimonious models of competency and career success.

5.CONTEMPORARY CAREER SUCCESS: AGENDA FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In this paper, we examined the advancements made in the subject of professional success, offered criticisms, and offered suggestions for future research. We emphasised the areas where the OP and OB viewpoints may complement one another while also pointing out disparities between them throughout. We conclude our study with five research directions that, when combined, could improve our understanding of career success and fortify the links between OP and OB research (see Table 3).

5.1. Extending Research on Career Success Using the Career Sustainability Lens A new study paradigm called "career sustainability" has promise for improving integration across the OB and OP domains. In this quickly growing body of research, there is a growing understanding that a career is sustainable if it enables an individual to lead a happy, healthy, and productive life throughout their lifetime (De Vos et al. 2020). That is, in order for a career to be long-lasting, individuals must determine whether it aligns with their present mental and physical capabilities in order to enable a dynamic balance between productivity (such as performance, citizenship behaviour, and OCS), health (such as physical and mental health), and happiness (such as various aspects of SCS) (Greenhaus & Callanan 2022, Heijden van der et al. (2020). For example, if a person has been productive and received multiple promotions recently, but their work is too demanding and overwhelming, it could negatively impact their engagement and overall happiness, as well as their physical and mental health, indicating a lack of long-term sustainability. On the other hand, if a person continually performs poorly at work even when they enjoy it a lot and are in good health, they will probably lose their job, which will reduce the longevity of their career.

Table 3 Suggestions for future research

Topic area	Key points
Career sustainability	■ Career sustainability refers to a dynamic balance of happiness, health, and productivity over the life course. ■ The sustainable career perspective allows for the inclusion of both objective and subjective elements of career success, as well as the importance of health in career development and success. ■ This perspective emphasizes the interplay between individual and contextual factors and the importance of adopting a temporal perspective on career success.
Career shocks	■ Career success research has typically focused on planned and agentic perspectives, but sudden disruptions in career paths, known as career shocks, can also have an impact on career success. ■ The career shocks perspective integrates theoretical frameworks from different disciplines and can be connected with the notion of career sustainability. ■ More research is needed to clarify the role of event characteristics, how shocks impact career success, and which types of shocks relate to different facets of objective and subjective career success.
Socially marginalized and underrepresented groups	■ Considering the career success of socially marginalized groups through a sustainable career lens is important but has been overlooked in the literature. ■ Future research should examine how intersectionality—the interaction between race and gender—impacts career success among marginalized groups. ■ Stigma theory could help identify different characteristics of stigma, stigma management strategies, and social contexts that influence career success for marginalized groups.
Alternative employment/work arrangements	■ Alternative work arrangements, such as self-employment and gig work, have received limited attention in career research despite their increasing prevalence. ■ The choice or necessity of entering into these arrangements can impact the career success of employees. ■ Important questions to investigate include the factors that impact OCS and SCS for entrepreneurs (and other nonstandard workers such as agency and gig workers), the career trajectories of individuals who transition between paid employment and self-employment, and how career success is affected by time spent in entrepreneurship.
Theoretical clean-up time	■ Career scholars have generated a broad range of constructs but have often been vague regarding their nature, leading to construct proliferation and redundancy. ■ Future research should focus on empirical studies designed to test the untested theoretical mechanisms, prune unnecessary complexity and redundancy, and conduct comparative theory testing to eliminate weak or redundant theories of career success.

This viewpoint is encouraging for a variety of reasons. First, the sustainable career viewpoint helps researchers to reconcile OP research, which primarily focused on aspects linked to happiness, with OB research, which primarily focused on factors related to productivity. This allows scholars to integrate both objective and subjective dimensions of professional success. It also introduces the viewpoint of health. Aside from the work-life viewpoint, there is a dearth of research on the relationship between mental and physical health and career development and success in the domains of OP and OB. Second, and this is a proposal for future study we have made in various domains, the sustainable career approach openly acknowledges an active interplay between individual and contextual antecedents and potential moderators of professional success. It urges researchers, for instance, to look at the ways in which people's career success may be impacted by the interactions between externally valued elements of human and social capital and individual professional meta-competencies and self-management behaviours. Third, the sustainable career paradigm emphasises how critical it is to see job success from a temporal perspective. As we have often observed, a large number of studies on job success are still cross-sectional. These research can still improve our understanding of career success, but they can not account for the dynamic shifts in the relative importance of

different job issues and how those shifts affect career success. A useful approach is to look at both long-term change and short-term dynamics.

5.2. Including Career Shocks in Research on Career Success In recent years, the majority of career success research has adopted an agentic and planned viewpoint (Inkson et al. 2012). However, abrupt changes in people's job pathways probably also have an impact on career success. Expanding upon Lee and Mitchell's (1994) unfolding model of turnover, Seibert et al. (2013) proposed the concept of career shocks, which are characterised as disruptive events, either positive or negative, that prompt contemplation of altering one's career behaviour or path (also see Akkermans et al. 2018). Recent empirical research indicates that shocks may be crucial in entrepreneurship and career transitions such going from school to the workplace or back to school (Blokker et al. 2019; Rummel et al. 2021; Seibert et al. Kraimer et al. (2019) linked career shocks to career success. Overall, the career shock perspective emphasizes the way external events can precipitate relatively sudden career decision making that alters the trajectory of one's career and ultimately career success.

Because it draws on a variety of theoretical frameworks from other disciplines, the career shocks viewpoint can be a useful contribution to career success research in OP and OB (Akkermans et al. 2021a). Researchers have started to make theoretical and empirical connections between career shocks and the idea of career sustainability (e.g., Blokker et al. 2019, Greenhaus & Callanan 2022, Pak et al. 2021). However, additional research is required to improve theoretical processes (e.g., how do shocks affect career success), career outcomes (e.g., which types of shocks connect to different features of OCS and SCS), and conceptual clarity (e.g., the significance of event characteristics) (Akkermans et al. 2021b). Overall, the integration of the career shocks perspective with the long-term balance of satisfaction, health, and productivity identified by the sustainable career perspective holds considerable future promise.

5.3. Professional Achievement in Socially Excluded and Underrepresented Groups Examining career success from a sustainable career perspective also means taking into account different groups and their distinct career paths and environments. We now discuss recommendations for future study on socially marginalised groups, such as racial and ethnic minorities, that have not gotten much attention in the literature on career success. Similar to women (described in Section 4.4.3), stereotypes and biases affect minorities negatively throughout their careers, resulting in poorer OCS and SCS (Greenhaus et al. 1990, Landau 1995). Little study in the subject of careers has, to now, concentrated particularly on the distinct theoretical mechanisms that might influence the professional paths of these members of marginalised groups.Here, we highlight identity theory and stigma theory as two theoretical vantage points that hold great promise for further investigation. First, despite the fact that identity theory has been widely applied in the literature on job success (Ashforth & Schinoff 2016), less focus has been placed on the role that identity plays in helping marginalised groups achieve career success. Future study should examine how intersectionality—the interaction between race and gender—may affect job performance, as many identities can either increase or decrease stereotypes (Kang & Bodenhausen 2015). (Galinsky et al. 2013, Johnson et al. 2012). Academics ought to look at the particular difficulties faced by various identity-related clusters as well as the external factors that affect their ability to succeed in the workplace. Secondly, the perspective of stigma theory (Crocker et al., 1998) could be beneficial. When someone "possesses (or is thought to possess) some attribute or characteristic that conveys a social identity that is devalued in some particular context," they are considered stigmatised (Crocker et al. 1998, p. 505). Scholars studying OB have looked at stigma on both an individual and professional level (Ashforth & Kreiner 1999, Zhang et al. 2021). According to a recent review, stigma can be treated differently and has a variety of features, such as malleability and controllability (Zhang et al. 2021). Furthermore, context is crucial because stigmas are socially produced. For example, removing the stigma attached to women and other marginalised groups might assist lower obstacles and prejudices towards them (Kossek et al. 2017). This is achieved through organisational support for inclusion. Overall, future research could examine how different characteristics of stigma, stigma management strategies, and social context influence the career success of socially marginalized group members.

5.4. Success in Your Career and Alternative Work Arrangements Though attention has been focused on the structure of modern job relationships, career perspectives have not kept pace with the variety of specific forms that alternative work arrangements take in today's workplace. In a recent review, Spreitzer et al. (2017) defined these arrangements in terms of three underlying dimensions of flexibility: employment relationship, work scheduling, and location. These arrangements ranged from standard workers with flexible schedules or locations to part-time and on-call workers, contract, temporary, and platform-mediated (gig) workers. The degree to which employees choose or are forced into these arrangements will probably decide how much of an impact they have on their ability to succeed in their careers. According to Ashford et al. (2018), there are a few essential CSM behaviours that, while not wholly novel, acquire additional significance and importance when implemented outside of an established organisation. They also propose specific markers of professional achievement for these people, such as the heightened significance of psychological health, energy, and education. Owing to the proactive career and relational behaviours that Ashford et al. (2018) highlight in their model, career scholars studying OP and OB are in a unique position to investigate the effects of

alternative work arrangements on these employees' productivity, well-being, and happiness (i.e., career sustainability). Examining the structural and psychological connections outlined in these models is a key area of career success research.

Career scholars have given self-employment as a stage in people's career paths comparatively less consideration in relation to alternative forms of employment (Burton et al. 2016). Contrary to popular belief, the majority of entrepreneurs have extensive work experience in a particular industry prior to launching their own business (Sørensen & Fassiotto 2011). Throughout their careers, many people may alternate between periods of paid employment and self-employment, entering, leaving, and reentering entrepreneurship (Feng et al. 2022). Those who are interested in successful career transitions can investigate a variety of subjects. What are the differences between the careers of family business employees and entrepreneurs, for instance, and those in standard employment? How would time spent in entrepreneurship affect career success, considering that prior experience as an entrepreneur is expected to limit career options in paid employment (Waddingham et al., 2023)? What aspects of an entrepreneur's OCS and SCS are most important, and how do careers in entrepreneurship change over time? All things considered, we urge academics to concentrate their research more often on employees in diverse job configurations.

5.5. Theoretical Reconstruction Time Spurk et al. (2019) recently looked at the popularity of various hypotheses that are used to forecast professional success. Within 14 more broad theoretical approaches, they classified at least 44 theories. Just 23 (or 8.6%) of the 266 papers they analysed directly contrasted various theoretical stances. As noted by others (Cronin et al. 2021, Le et al. 2010), Spurk et al. observe that such variability of techniques is likely to impair the collection of knowledge in an area. Career scholars have produced a wide range of constructs, as we have shown in previous sections, but they have frequently been quite ambiguous about what those constructs actually are. Examples of such constructs include stable traits, attitudes, orientations, career (meta-) competencies, career capital, career resources, and CSM behaviours. The OB literature has addressed the issue of concept proliferation, but it remains unresolved. Frequently, these identical variables appear as operationalizations of distinct constructs that function in various theoretical models (Le et al. 2010). Furthermore, broad frameworks like the theory of contest versus sponsored mobility or the theory of conservation of resources, while potentially helpful as organising schemes, may be employed more as a front for theoretical legitimacy than as a means of producing insightful theory (Hambrick 2007). In light of this, our final recommendation for future research is to support empirical studies that aim to test the theoretical mechanisms that have not yet been proven in broad frameworks, to eliminate weak or redundant theories of career success through comparative theory testing when direct comparability is possible, and to trim superfluous complexity and redundancy from unit-level theories. (Leavitt et al. 2010). It is our aim that after the jumble of competing theories and overlapping notions is cleared out, we can start building more detailed models that explain the moderating factors and mediating processes leading to professional achievement.

6. CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Our goal in conducting this critical evaluation was to identify ways in which researchers from OP and OB backgrounds, as well as others, could collaborate and improve our knowledge of career success through further research. We have provided numerous avenues for further research on professional success, including its conception, nomological net, and application to various target groups. Ultimately, the most significant research challenge we may have is this one: let's break free from disciplinary boundaries and pool our collective experience and knowledge to develop the field of career success studies.

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