

PERCEIVED HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND
CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOURS: TEST OF A THEORETICAL
MODEL

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Abstract

This Master's thesis fits into the theme of the relationship between human resources management practices and organizational results, particularly regarding the theories of career management. The primary purpose of this study is to investigate whether employees' perceptions of human resources management practices are predictive of their commitment to career self-management behaviours, and whether managers' emotional intelligence concerning the regulation of emotions and work engagement has an impact on this association. Data used in this study was obtained from a sample of 432 Portuguese employees in the banking sector. A series of linked hypotheses were tested using the SPSS macro PROCESS with an examination of the mediation model.

The results show that perceived human resources management practices have a positive impact on career self-management behaviours and that this enhancing effect is mediated by managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement. This study contributes to knowledge on new careers, as it sheds light on the process through which organizational career management initiatives can enhance desirable career outcomes (through fostering self-directed career attitudes). Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: Human Resources Practices, Emotional Intelligence, Career Self-management Behaviours, Engagement

Classifications according to the JEL Classification System:

M54 Personnel Economics: Labor Management

O15 Economic Development: Human Resources; Human Development

Resumo

Esta tese enquadra-se na temática da relação das práticas de recursos humanos e os resultados organizacionais, nomeadamente respeitante às teorias de gestão de carreiras. O principal objetivo é investigar se a perceção dos trabalhadores das práticas de gestão de recursos humanos é preditiva do seu comprometimento com comportamentos de autogestão de carreira, e se a inteligência emocional dos gestores em termos de regulação de emoções e o *engagement* no trabalho têm impacto nesta associação.

Os dados foram obtidos de uma amostra de 432 trabalhadores portugueses do setor bancário. Foram testadas uma série de hipóteses associadas entre si, utilizando o SPSS macro PROCESS, com uma análise de modelos de mediadores. Os resultados mostram que a perceção das práticas de gestão dos recursos humanos tem um impacto positivo nos comportamentos de autogestão de carreira – e que esse efeito é mediado pela regulação de emoções dos gestores e pelo *engagement*. Este estudo contribui para o conhecimento sobre as carreiras modernas, pois enaltece o processo através do qual as iniciativas de gestão de carreiras levam aos resultados esperados (através da promoção de atitudes de carreiras de autogestão). São ainda discutidas as implicações para a teoria e para a prática.

Palavras-chave: Práticas de Recursos Humanos, Inteligência Emocional, Comportamentos de Autogestão de Carreira, *Engagement*

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All our dreams can come true if we have the courage to pursue them. – Walt Disney

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List of Abbreviations

CSM – Career Self-Management

CSMB – Career Self-Management Behaviours

EI – Emotional Intelligence

HR – Human Resources

HRM – Human Resources Management

HRMP – Human Resources Management Practices

MROE – Manager's Regulation of Emotions

PHRMP – Perceived Human Resources Management Practices

ROE – Regulation of Emotions

WE – Work Engagement

Introduction

Many of today's organizations compete and try to survive by cutting prices and costs through the redesigning of business processes. In this context, new thinking and new approaches have become necessary for organizations to survive and to create sustainable growth and development. (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Employees are always competing, and the competitive atmosphere between co-workers does not bring the best work outcomes (Fletcher, Nusbaum, 2010). Digitalization has also brought several new challenges which, despite all their advantages, are also a significant source of stress (Barley, Meyerson, Grodal, 2011; Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, 2013).

Owing to the variable climates and crises, today employees can no longer expect to work in one organization for a lifetime (Savickas, 2012) and organizations can no longer take for granted the commitment of their employees (Cavanaugh & Noe, 1999; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). New forms of work, such as moving from project to project with flexible working hours, are emerging and demand flexible, adaptable and resourceful employees (Savickas, 2011; Savickas, 2012). Consequently, due to globalisation, economic and political crises and technology invasion, entering the modern world of work requires much more effort, more in-depth knowledge about oneself and greater confidence than ever before (Savickas, 2011). Various individual assets, such as flexibility, willingness to learn and ability to quickly adapt to changes are necessary for functioning successfully in a rapidly changing world. Thus, career practitioners and theorists are providing new career explanations and new constructs such as personal career management, career adaptability, and career resources.

Social science naturally seeks to respond to the needs of society. The most recent organizational psychology literature emphasizes that, contrary to the peculiarities of the twentieth century, today the environment of an individual is dynamic, career choices can be made at any age and repeatedly, and career usually develops in several organizations with multidirectional advancement (Baruch, 2004). Due to the changes in societies, work environments and organizations, the focus of career theorists and practitioners has shifted from the traditional aspects of career, such as vocational choice, organizational commitment and person-job fit, to new career challenges, such as adapting to changes and transitions, career self-management and self-actualization in different career and life commitments.

This issue of career management has attracted considerable interest within the academic and business communities, as in recent years the perception of work in terms of career has changed. Because of the new challenges that the twenty-first century has brought to both employees and organizations, the budgets to promote the development of employees have been limited, which has affected career management initiatives. As a consequence of this, modern employees have had to be the primary responsible for directing, developing and managing their own careers. This is the motto for the key subject of this Master's thesis: Career Self-Management Behaviours (CSMB). The main purpose in this research is to explore how this can be promoted among the employees and for this, a conceptual model of relationship patterns involving CSMB was developed, which represents their association with perceived human resources management practices (PHRMP), and the mediating effect of managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement.

Concerning antecedents, the current study investigates a bundle of perceived HRMP and their role in encouraging employees' proactive career behaviours. Within the "new career" era, it is essential to know whether employees who are more active in career self-management see this as a substitute for organizational support or if, on the contrary, this raises their expectations about it.

In addition, this study examines how managers' emotional intelligence regarding regulation of emotions and work engagement affects CSMB. Through an assessment of these relationships, this study proves to be relevant for both employees and employers. Since engagement seems to be contagious and may spread across work teams, leaders play a unique role when it comes to fostering work engagement. Furthermore, regarding the fact that employees can continue developing themselves throughout their careers, it is important to understand the role of the manager in this association with CSMB.

This Master's thesis is organized in two distinct parts: literature review and empirical study. In the literature review, fundamental theories concerning the main concepts are presented and discussed. This first part has four chapters in the following order: Career Self-Management Behaviours, Perceived Human Resources Practices, Emotional Intelligence – Managers' Regulation of Emotions, and Work Engagement. The second part - empirical study - begins with the presentation of the model and its hypotheses, then follows with a description of the research methods used in the master's thesis. Next, the

results of the statistical analysis are presented, the findings and its theoretical and practical implications are discussed and recommendations for organizations are made. Lastly, the limitations of the present study are recognised, and directions for future research are suggested. The study ends with a short conclusion.

I) Literature Review

1. Career Self-Management Behaviours

Career development issues have been an interest and a concern, especially for managers of Human Resources Development (HRD), in managing employees (Blustein, 1997; Taveira & Moreno, 2003).

Career development is a conventional approach for organizations to guarantee the availability of human resources who have the competencies and sufficient experience to meet appropriate organizational needs (Panggabean, 2001). Planning and career development involve two essential processes: career planning and career management. The first one starts with the single employees and in this context, they need to precisely evaluate and know their career goals and interests, identify the kind of career opportunities that exist and what needs to be done to upgrade their career. Improved careers need to be related to improved knowledge and competence of employees to answer the challenges of the organization (Anderson et al., 2015). According to Tohardi (2002), the factors that affect the employee's career are the attitude of people in the work environment (supervisors, peers and subordinates), experience, education, achievements and fate.

Over decades, changes in the socioeconomic environment have changed the concept of career. Before these new ideas appeared, traditional careers were predominantly planned and determined by the organizations, with emphasis placed on well-defined structure, hierarchy and formality (Hofstetter & Rosenblatt, 2016). These traditional careers can be characterized as based on the assumptions of the "old psychological contract", with respect to which organizations offered stability of employment, and structured career paths providing opportunities for upward advancement, in exchange for employees' loyalty and long-term commitment (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Baruch, 2006; Zaleska &

de Menezes, 2007). Traditionally, careers were long-term contracts between the employees and the organizations, and this offered security for both. However, the current fast-moving environment has created a world of increasingly more short-term agreements and quick changes that emphasize the issues of career management, which are now in the hands of the individuals who need to set goals and strategies, and demand feedback to successfully develop themselves and manage their careers.

The notion of "new career" differs from the traditional idea in that the responsibility for managing one's career has moved from the employer to the employee (Arthur et al., 2005; Sullivan, 1999). As a result, new concepts have appeared such as the boundaryless career and the protean career. These concepts emphasize the role of the individual as the primary actor in managing his/her career and consider career self-management a prerequisite for career success (King, 2004). However, organizations still have an essential responsibility since they form the context in which career development takes place (Eby et al., 2005).

Career self-management refers to the proactivity employees show with respect to managing their careers and includes activities such as collecting information about existing or possible career opportunities, seeking feedback about one's performance and competencies, and creating career opportunities through networking and actions aimed at enhancing one's visibility (King, 2004; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Orpen, 1994).

Most people want to believe that their careers are their property, as the nature of organizational life is becoming more unpredictable. With this in mind, career self-management can be the way to achieve personal and professional goals and career success. Moreover, some people may not have access to organizational career support and may therefore be forced to seek out opportunities, update their skills and competencies and extend their networking.

The boundaryless career is defined as a career that is independent of organizational and traditional arrangements and involves taking opportunities offered by different employers - it is the unfolding sequence of a person's work experiences over time across multiple employment settings (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Thus, it implies that individuals need to be less attached to a single organization and develop career strategies that may involve working in several companies. Individuals that have embraced this type of career need to be more proactive (Jackson, 1996) in career management and lifelong learning, in building career networks, coping with challenges and adjustments, and achieving

psychological success (Mirvis & Hall, 1994). In the boundaryless career, the emphasis is on inter-firm mobility and unpredictability (Sullivan, Carden & Martin, 1998), and workers in this career will move across jobs, firms and eventually occupations. To the degree that their boundaryless career leads to multiple employer settings, they will repeatedly be organizational "new-comers", and will experience repeated cycles of organizational socialization (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998). The boundaryless career perspective suggests that people must show enterprise skills and take responsibility for their career development, driven by a unique set of personal needs (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). Hence, the boundaryless career concept widens our perspective toward a range of possible career types both within and across organizations. From a boundaryless career perspective, career development needs to strengthen the individual's self-direction and adaptability within a more transactional employment context, and is determined by his/her ability to engage in beneficial exchanges.

The protean career concept encompasses the full extent to which individuals demonstrate a self-directed and values-driven career orientation in their career management (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). A person with a protean career orientation is motivated to follow her unique path – a path that expresses one unique human potential and facilitates growth. Pursuing this kind of career calls for a new type of personal capability and career meta-competencies, such as the identification of growth through self-reflection and self-learning, and adaptive personal change or transformation. Another essential characteristic is the fact that the person's definition of success is internal (Hall & Chandler, 2005). Hence, the protean career requires the person to monitor and assess the job market, anticipate future developments and trends, gain the necessary skills and qualifications, and adapt quickly to thrive in an ever-changing workplace. In this type of career, the employees direct their own career as opposed to the organization deciding on their career direction; their decision making is governed by their own values, and the concept of career success is defined by the individual rather than by the organization or society.

Both career approaches – boundaryless and protean – are proactive, characterized by self-reliance and increasing employer independence, but generated different coping mechanisms (application of different skills and strategies), which in turn resulted in different work outcomes. While individuals with a boundaryless mindset tended to seek external support, which led to their active engagement in job searching activities, those

with a protean attitude were more likely to deal with career-related problems through their identity awareness, which in turn, resulted in their psychological well-being.

There is an evident relationship between the boundaryless and protean careers and the notion of CSM. The boundaryless career is characterized by the employees' independence from the organization and is associated with taking individual responsibility for career management. However, the link with the protean career is stronger, in that both concepts (protean career and CSM) imply consistent self-direction in career development and management, ability to adapt in terms of learning demands, being driven by the person rather than by the organization, goal-orientation, and feelings of responsibility for own career choices and moves (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Briscoe et al., 2012).

Regarding career self-management, King (2001) proposed a 4-stage model of CSM in organizations: (1) charting the landscape, (2) identifying gatekeepers, (3) implementing policies, (4) evaluating strategies. The first stage consists of the acknowledgement of organizational politics, culture and strategy; the second stage involves identifying relevant individuals for one's career development and objective decision-makers; the third stage is about taking actions aimed at influencing the gatekeepers in one's own favour; and the fourth stage involves reflection on the effectiveness of the adopted approach and consideration of alternative or supplementary procedures.

CSMB can be defined as "career behaviours aimed at coping with external and internal career demands that help individuals become independent career actors who self-manage their careers" (Klehe et al., 2011). CSMB is also described as a set of adaptive strategies and actions, enabling efficient functioning in the contemporary context of change, undertaken with the aim of achieving one's own career objectives (Lent & Brown, 2013).

2. Perceived Human Resources Management Practices

In today's competitive world, many organizations are placing a greater emphasis on their HRM practices as a means of generating positive individual and organizational outcomes, in order to ensure a competitive advantage. Several studies have investigated the impact of HR practices on organizational performance and, over the past decades, researchers have suggested several HRM practices that have the virtue of enhancing and sustaining

organizational performance (e.g.: Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003; Albrecht et al., 2015; Ybema, Vuuren & van Dam, 2017).

Authors such as Walton (1985), Arthur (1994) and Gooderham, Nordhaug, & Ringdal (1999) have proposed two categories of HRM practices that other authors have also discussed. On the one hand, there are the calculative or control HRM practices such as performance-related pay. On the other hand, there are the practices labelled commitment-based or collaborative such as employee general briefings that aim to foster employer-employee mutuality of interest. While the control approach seeks to improve efficiency by enforcing employee compliance, the commitment approach aims to shape attitudes by forging psychological links between organizational and employee goals.

However, the most conceptual theory about HRM practices is the one that divided HRM into three main perspectives: universalistic, contingency and configurational (Delery & Doty, 1996). The universalistic perspective is concerned with best practices and works based on the assumption that there is an association between HRM practices and organizational performance. Pfeffer (1999) identified 16 HRM practices that lead to improved performance, such as employment stability, selectivity in recruiting, superior wages, incentive pay, employee ownership, information sharing, participation and empowerment, and training and skill development. Contingency theories assume that the relationship between HRM practices and performance will vary according to various external and internal influences – it suggests that HRM practices can only have a positive impact on performance if they are consistent with an organization's strategy (Martin-Alcázar et al., 2005). Finally, the configurational perspective argues that the effect of HRM on organizational performance is linked to the introduction of an effective combination of HRM bundles (MacDuffie, 1995).

With the aim of identifying and clarifying the associations between individuals and organizations, several kinds of research have been done. In 1997, according to Meyer and Allen, the most relevant thing to do is to comprehend and implement a complete series of practices, or a system of HRM practices, and not see them as isolated. Sing (2004) has also suggested that human resources policies must be made compatible with business planning. HRM comprises a range of methods (e.g. recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and career management) aligned with the business strategy.

HRM practices allow organizations to manage their workforces. The recruitment practice, for example, refers to the way in which the company operates with regard to potential candidates whose specific competencies it needs (Barber, 1998; Gomes & Neves, 2011). On the other hand, the selection practice involves a systematic assessment of potential candidates for a given vacancy, usually carried out using mechanisms like interviews or psychological evaluation tests (Ribeiro, 2002). The training and development practice helps companies to promote the attitudes, behaviours, skills, and knowledge of their employees based on a planned and systematic learning process (Ceitil, 2002). Performance appraisal can be defined as the intentional and routine monitoring of employees' performance at work, including the achievement of tasks, objectives, and duties (Fernandes & Caetano, 2002). It is strongly connected to other HRM practices, serving as a provider of information for planning and career management, for the attribution of rewards and benefits, and as a measure for evaluating the effectiveness of recruitment, selection, and training (Torrington, Hall & Taylor, 2008). Despite being implemented for these specific purposes, HRM practices can also be executed for instigating a positive work environment (de Vries, 2001). The evolution of HRM practices can help companies to improve business performance and achieve higher levels of satisfaction (Becker & Gerhart, 1996).

Employees' perceptions of HRM practices influence their reaction to institutions, and these reactions are displayed in a range of emotional, attitudinal and behavioural results (Edgar & Geare, 2005; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Employees' perception of HRM is thus fundamental and, to some extent, even more valuable than implemented HRM practices because they are predictors of other employee reactions (Guest, 2001; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Whitener, 2001; Wright & Nishii, 2007).

When employees feel valued by employers, they tend to reveal stronger job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, and well-being at work (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Gonçalves & Neves, 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). However, the pattern of responses tends to be the opposite when they are displeased with the way their employer manages the workforce, and adverse reactions such as absenteeism, counterproductive behaviours, turnover intentions, and turnover behaviours are frequent in this situation (Guchait & Cho, 2010; Huselid, 1995; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

The past of HRM in organizations proves how these practices are linked to the social, economic, political and technological contexts. To handle the changes that occurred in the late twentieth century/early twenty-first century - that were characterised by the technology prosperity – and in order to guarantee a greater commitment from their employees, organizations found new initiatives to encourage semi-autonomous/self-managed groups and to minimize centralized authority. Together with the restructuring that occurred in the 1980s, these more flexible forms of production organization resulted in the need for new organizational structures and to overcome work management models based on stability and employee loyalty (Tonelli, Lacombe & Caldas, 2002).

This atmosphere of change requires new strategies and management practices in order to retain the employees, as they are becoming increasingly trained to work in an environment of uncertainty and technology complexity. These unstable atmosphere brings up some questions related to the relative values of work, remuneration, leisure, personal life and organizational citizenship (Tonelli, Lacombe & Caldas, 2002) and it demands more action and cooperation from the workforce.

Many companies consider career management critical to contemporary HRM practice, and assist employees to manage their career. Studies (Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron, 2005; Khilji & Wang, 2007) have indicated that employees' career satisfaction depends on their perception of the organization's effort to support their career development needs. Most organizations value skilled employees and need to retain them for long-term employment. While companies are worried about the establishment and implementation of career management programs, individuals can also develop themselves without waiting for career development support from their organizations. Career self-management has been noted as vital to employees' career success, and found to be crucial for HR practitioners since it influences individuals' career outcomes (Popescu, 2015).

2.1. Perceived HRM Practices and CSMB

Career management is a critical challenge for HR professionals, and organizations must understand that employees bring different perspectives to career management. Each employee has their own set of past experiences and future priorities, which may or may not fit in with what their employer can provide in the long term. With the changing nature of careers and unstable employment, there is an increasing idea that the career progression

of individuals is their own responsibility, not the organization's (Clarke, 2008; Enache, et al., 2013; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Sturges et al., 2005). Nevertheless, organizations can still provide career development programs for employees (Barnett & Bradley, 2007). Organizational support for employees' career development consists of formal support (e.g. career planning and training) and informal support (e.g. mentoring and coaching) (Barnett & Bradley, 2007).

Describing career self-management as independence from organizational career management and trust in oneself, might suggest that individuals engaging in more CSMB would be less concerned with the career support provided by their organization.

Career management strategies are crucial to managing individuals' successful careers (Kahnweiler, 2006). Firstly, career self-management training programs ought to be designed by organizations to assist employees to play a more effective role in their own careers (Kossek, Robert, Fisher & Demarr, 1998). Additionally, HR professionals should be the leaders for individual career management (Kahnweiler, 2006; Van Veldhoven & Dorenbosch, 2008). In fact, HR professionals and HRM practices are the key actors in promoting employees' career self-management (Kahnweiler, 2006; Van Veldhoven & Dorenbosch, 2008), in that they frequently assist other employees to manage their careers (Kahnweiler, 2006), and therefore they should act effectively in their own career self-management so they can have credibility with other employees and managers (Kahnweiler, 2006). If HR professionals are ineffective in their own career self-management, the other employees may not trust them (Kahnweiler, 2006).

However, employees who are more active in taking CSM initiatives might be more concerned about influencing the decisions made by organizational representatives about career development. Therefore, these employees are able to expect more from their employers in terms of human resources management practices, because these practices will allow them to increase their influence on the achievement of desired career outcomes. When employees perceive that HRM practices are flexible to the point that they give them freedom to think and plan their own career, it is likely that they will take more CSM initiatives.

In view of the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Perceived HRM practices are positively related to CSMB.

3. Emotional Intelligence – Managers' Regulation of Emotions

Work is an emotional experience. It is a source of anger, distress, frustration, and embarrassment but also a source of pride, belonging, fulfilment, and excitement (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Boudens, 2005). These emotions derive both from work-related events and interactions, and from non-work-related feelings that employees bring with them to the job.

In recent decades, there has been an increasing interest in the concept of emotional intelligence. In 1995, Daniel Goleman wrote the book which made the idea widely famous and, since then, several definitions of emotional intelligence have been put forth. Goleman pointed out that EI consists of four competencies, with each one encompassing a number of skills: 'self-awareness' includes emotional self-awareness; 'self-management' is related to emotional self-control, adaptability, achievement orientation, and positive outlook; 'social awareness' embraces empathy and organizational awareness; and, at last, 'relationship management' comprises influence, coaching and mentoring, conflict management, teamwork, and inspirational leadership. In the year 2000, the same author stated that "emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive, understand effectively in the application of power and emotional sensitivity as a source of energy, information, connections, and influence of humanity."

Before Goleman's book, Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first ones to define emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action". They proposed a 4-dimensions' model of emotional intelligence: (1) Self-emotional appraisal – the individual's ability to understand deep emotions and be able to express these emotions naturally; (2) Other's emotional appraisal – the individual's ability to perceive and understand the emotions of other people; (3) Regulation of emotion – the ability of people to regulate their emotions, which will enable a more rapid recovery from psychological distress; (4) Use of emotion – the ability of individuals to make use of their emotions by directing them towards constructive activities and personal performance.

After this, a number of EI definitions were given by various authors but, for this study, we will use the description given by Salovey and Mayer in 1990, and we will focus our

research on the dimension "Regulation of emotions", particularly the regulation of emotions of managers/leaders and its impact on other employees.

Regulation of emotions is a critical component of emotional intelligence which describes the individual's ability to manage self-emotions. Therefore, it refers to the process by which individuals choose which emotions they express, in contrast to those they experience, in either a controlled or automatic way (Gross, 1999).

Emotion regulation includes all the efforts to increase, maintain or decrease one or more components of an emotion (Gross, 1999). Theorists have distinguished between two forms of emotion regulation that differ in their timing during the unfolding of an emotion: (1) deep acting – antecedent-focused emotion regulation; (2) surface acting – response-focused emotion regulation (Grandley, 2000; Gross, 1999). Deep acting concerns the manipulation of components of the emotion before the emotion is fully underway, and surface acting concerns the public display but not the internal experience of the emotion.

Theorists have also distinguished between two directions of emotion regulation: (1) emotion amplification that consists of initiating or enhancing public displays of emotions; and (2) emotion suppression that focuses on reducing or eliminating public displays of emotion.

People usually regulate their emotions and emotional displays to conform to the norms and expectations of the workplace as well as job role demands (Bono et al., 2007). Emotionally intelligent individuals understand that there are social rules with regard to emotional display and they regulate their actions according to those rules. Employees who identify with their work are more likely to feel authentic even when conforming to role expectations, such as demands of emotional regulation (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), and this is where leadership plays a role. Goleman (1998) noted that the very best corporate leaders, while diverse in their leadership style, share the characteristics of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. These skills allow superb leaders to understand their own as well as others' emotional makeup well enough to move people to accomplish organizational objectives. Emotional intelligence is a critical component of leadership effectiveness, as leaders mainly deal with teams (Goleman et al., 2006). Leaders motivate team members to work together towards team goals, and also serve as a transformational influence over team members. Thus, leaders challenge the members of the team to work towards increasing team effectiveness and

performance, facilitate team member interaction dynamics and build interpersonal trust (Prati et al., 2003).

Several kinds of research have indicated that leaders are accountable for some of the most significant and common determinants of employees' emotions (e.g., Dasborough, 2006; George, 2000; Pescosolido, 2002; Reichard & Riggio, 2008). Leavitt and Bahrami (1988) said that managing one's own emotions and those of employees, is as much a crucial managerial function as managing markets or finances. Furthermore, in 2001, Rafaeli and Worline concluded that "management's job has become the management of emotion."

In this context, leaders may use explicit emotional displays to impact employees' immediate behaviour. These displays can take different forms, such as yelling to boost anxiety or excitement, appearing severe to evoke a sense of gravity (Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007) and also the use of inspirational language to increase motivation (Kaplan et al., 2014). In each case, leaders influence subordinates' behaviours by evoking a certain emotional state. These displays serve distinct functions and result in several important outcomes. Leaders may use these displays to induce emotions that will directly impact the followers' job-related behaviour (Fitness, 2000; Sy et al., 2005). Leaders' emotional displays also impact the followers' affection, motivation and cognition, and in turn their task-related effort and performance (George, 1995; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002).

Bono and Judge (2003) demonstrated that managers' transformational leadership behaviours can influence employees' identification with their work and are a positive predictor of the extent to which employees feel that their work activities are self-congruent and consistent with their values and interests. Managers who engage in transformational leadership behaviours may also provide their employees with greater social support. In addition, such leaders may be able to cope with emotional regulation in more effective and less psychologically draining ways by helping employees to understand why and how positive emotional expressions contribute to work goals (Bono et al., 2007; Shamir et al., 1993).

Bracket et al. (2010) state that regulation of emotions is most effective when individuals can assess their feelings accurately and adopt approaches to change negative feelings. As emotions play an essential role in cooperative behaviours, an individual's ability to understand and regulate their own emotions can be a huge help in building quality

relationships with others (colleagues, supervisors, subordinates, etc.). Research has established that individuals with higher emotional intelligence have a more optimistic outlook, are confident and generally project a positive image, which is related to the fact that there is a strong correlation between regulation of emotion and emotional wellness (Lenaghan et al., 2007) that helps to reduce the potential for interpersonal conflict.

It is likely that leaders with high EI are essential to the success of the organization; therefore, the ability to understand the feelings of employees should be present in all leaders, enabling them to mediate when trouble arises in the organization and to manage their own emotions. It is the leaders who influence their subordinates' viewpoints and behaviours towards achieving the desired goals. A number of studies have concluded that managers and leaders who are able to use their knowledge and feelings positively, will have a competitive advantage over others. Leaders should also not ignore the effect of other's emotions on them. They can make decisions in the best possible manner if they know the impact of emotions in the workplace, which ultimately will result in the accomplishment of goals.

The workplace is a social setting filled with emotion. Emotions can facilitate effective teamwork or prove to be destructive and hinder productivity (Barthwal & Som, 2012). Organizational leaders need to find the best way to regulate and manage their own emotions so they can positively influence the level of affective commitment of others to the organization (Gholami et al., 2013).

3.1. Mediating effects of Managers' Regulation of Emotions in the Relationship between HRM Practices and CSMB

As organizations struggle to make the HR function more strategic and as their much-needed strategic agility appears increasingly related to emotional management (Huy, 2011), the exploration of emotional labour is critical to maintaining the well-being and performance of employees. Some HRM practices are crucial at this point to keep employees motivated and committed to the organization. EI plays a critical role in helping managers and employees to cope with the dynamic change in the business environment, and to recognize and perceive emotions and use emotional intelligence to manage themselves and their relationship with others. Organizations must coach their employees,

especially managers/leaders, to develop their interpersonal skills and to perform adequately on the job with other employees in the organization.

Regulation of emotions is critical for the reduction of interpersonal conflict and for effective job performance; and transformational leadership plays an essential role in these relationships (Prati et al., 2003). Based on a number of theories, managers' leadership behaviours exercise a continuous influence on employee optimism and enthusiasm which end up influencing organizational outcomes. Beyond the immediate effects on employee mood, these positive emotions have the potential to alter the overall work climate and job satisfaction. Employees who are optimistic are more likely to invest their time in helping others (Lee & Allen, 2002) and to persist in work tasks even in the face of difficulty (Bono et al., 2007; Seligman & Schulman, 1986).

EI has the potential to change the way one thinks and behaves within the workplace and in relationships with others (Cao & Fu, 2011). Therefore, it is essential to probe the broader spectrum of psychological mechanisms that allow individuals to flourish in their lives and enhance their career (Jamali et al., 2006). Since the attitudes of leaders influence the emotions of work teams, and since one of the factors that affects employees' careers is the attitude of supervisors in the work environment – which includes the regulation of emotions - the following hypothesis is stated:

H2: Managers' regulation of emotions mediates the association between perceived HRM practices and CSMB.

4. Work Engagement

To maximize profitability and conquer organizational goals, employers must be capable of recruiting, selecting, developing and retaining their employees. Nevertheless, the challenge today is not just in acquiring and keeping people, but also in engaging employees by capturing their minds and hearts at each stage of their work lives (Kaye & Jordan-Evan, 2003). The concept of work engagement is an essential organizational concept and is connected to productivity and commitment (Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). It can be defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind;

and its essential components are vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Schaufeli and Salanova (2009) presented the definition of these essential components: “vigour is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the readiness to put effort into one's work and persistence even in the face of difficulties; dedication refers to being actively involved in one's work, and having a sense of value, enthusiasm, pride, inspiration, and challenge; and absorption is described as being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties detaching oneself from work”.

However, before this concept was defined in 2002, engagement was characterized by energy, involvement and professional efficacy, which are the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). Kahn (1990) took a different approach, defining engagement as the harnessing of employees' selves to their work roles: engaged workers employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally and mentally in their performance.

Work engagement differs from other concepts such as satisfaction and organizational commitment from the viewpoint that it gives a more complex and thorough perspective on the relationship between the individual and work (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

The primary drivers of work engagement are job and personal resources. Job resources decrease the impact of job demands on burnout, are helpful for reaching work goals and stimulate individual growth, learning, and development. Engaged employees do seem to diverge from other employees concerning their characteristics. They score higher on extraversion and conscientiousness and lower on neuroticism. They also possess more personal resources, including optimism, self-efficacy, self-esteem, resilience and an active coping style (Bakker, 2009). Work that employees experience as meaningful increases their engagement to the degree that they feel their work makes an impact and contributes to the achievement of an intended purpose.

It is also important to emphasize the emotional component of work engagement. Employees bring energy to tolerate their day-to-day activities at work, and this energy is sustained/undermined through positive/negative emotions (Green et al., 2017). Since work engagement is the product of employees' emotional involvement at work,

connections with others may powerfully influence engagement. We can definitely recognize if some emotions are positive or negative. If a manager threatens job termination, this would be widely recognized as a dangerous act and would generate feelings of fear and stress; on the other hand, if a leader shows gratitude for a job well done, this would be a positive experience and should arouse feelings of excitement or pride (Green et al., 2017).

For instance, work engagement is positively related to social support from co-workers and superiors as far as performance feedback, coaching, job control, task variety and training facilities are concerned (Demerouti et al., 2001). Highly engaged employees are more likely to experience faster learning, improvement, career expansion, personal growth, and broadened focus and attention increasing their propensity to pursue and find different solutions to problems (Amabile et al., 2005). Employee engagement can be fostered mostly through organizational support and practices. If employees realize that resources are not available for them to perform their job, they become less engaged at work, which can lead to various undesirable workplace outcomes, including turnover (Johari et al., 2013).

Work engagement is a significant concept for employee well-being and work behaviours because: (1) it is a positive experience in itself (Schaufeli et al., 2002); (2) it is related to good health and a positive work effect (Demerouti et al., 2001); (3) it helps individuals derive benefits from a stressful job (Britt, Adler & Bartone, 2001); (4) it is positively related to organizational commitment (Demerouti et al., 2001) and is expected to affect employee performance (Kahn, 1990). Bakker et al. (2004, 2008) showed that engaged employees received higher ratings from their colleagues on in-role and extra-role performance, indicating that they perform well and are willing to go the extra mile.

In short, work-engaged employees have high levels of energy, are enthusiastic about their work, and feel that time flies because they are fully immersed in their work. Engaged employees have a sense of involvement and active connection with their work activities, and they see themselves as entirely able to deal with the demands of their job (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Compared to those who do not feel engaged, those who do, seem to be more satisfied with their jobs, to feel more committed to the organization with no intention of leaving it, and to enjoy excellent mental and psychological health exhibiting personal initiative, proactive behaviour, and learning motivation.

4.1. Mediating effects of Work Engagement in the Relationship between HRM Practices and CSMB

HRM aims to enable the organization to select and retain a skilled, committed and well-motivated workforce. HR provides all the conditions necessary for employees to increase their commitment by giving them greater individual responsibility for the work so that they can make a more significant contribution to decision making. The availability of flexible HRM also impacts employee engagement and job performance, because it is designed to retain a balance between work obligations and private obligations, through which employees can stay and become engaged in their work (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008). HRM has the potential to foster employees' engagement and enhance innovative behaviour. With flexible HRM, employees can decide by themselves how they will allocate time, energy and attention in their work (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010).

Measuring degrees of employee engagement provides data which enables actions to be taken at the point of business performance. For example, what employee engagement measures might do, is help HR professionals to look at all the elements that make up the employment experience and identify which of them, within their expertise, motivate employees to stay and which ones motivate employees to go above and beyond the simple requirements of their job (Albretch et al., 2015).

Empirical evidence (e.g. Gubman, 2004; Airila, 2014; Vance, 2006) has highlighted the crucial role of HRM practices in promoting high engagement levels among employees. If employees are happy and satisfied regarding training programs and career advancement opportunities in their organization and other HRM practices, they will be more motivated, committed and engaged at work (Cherrington, 1995; Johari et al., 2013). There is also a relationship between proactive career behaviours, such as networking or career initiative, and objective and subjective career success. This success may determine the level of engagement with the organization. The introduction of the concept of engagement to the idea of careers is vital because it can help individuals to find meaningful work in which they can fully use their skills, talents, and attributes.

From the preceding discussion, we expect that employees who positively appraise the HRM practices in their organization are more engaged with their work. Consequently, work engagement can link HRM practices with CSMB, in the sense that these practices

can increase or decrease the level of engagement of an employee. Furthermore, if employees feel engaged with their organization, they will want to build a medium/long term career plan and take actions to achieve success. On the other hand, if employees do not feel satisfied with HRM practices, there is a higher chance that they will not feel engaged with the organization and intend to leave it.

In light of the above arguments, the following hypothesis is presented:

H3: Work engagement mediates the link between perceived HRM practices and CSMB.

5. Serial mediating effects of Managers' Emotion Regulation and Work Engagement

In recent years, many kinds of research have been conducted to prove the impact of leaders' emotions on employees' willingness to engage (Bacigalupo & Hess, 2013; Gutermann et al., 2016). An "Employee engagement summary report" published in 2013, stated that the number of employees who are fully engaged is positively connected to the favourable emotions of leaders such as inspiration, happiness, enlightenment and enthusiasm, while the number of employees who are fully disengaged is closely linked to the negative emotions of leaders, like upset, fear, manipulation, boredom, etc. It is believed that EI is a better forecaster of excellence than general intelligence, and it might predict up to 80% of success in life. Moreover, it is also a good predictor of work outcomes including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work engagement, turnover and performance, as suggested by Daniel Goleman (1995, 1998, 2006).

Efficient, motivated, committed, engaged and productive staff can be found only where there are emotionally intelligent leaders (Avolio et al., 2004; Shuck & Herd, 2012). Consequently, institutions need stronger leadership to maximise efficiency. It is also essential to understand that leadership is the critical part in the process of decision making and overall management. It is likely that leaders with high EI are crucial to the success of the organization; therefore, the ability to understand the feelings of employees should be present in leaders, enabling them to mediate when trouble arises in the organization and to manage their own emotions (Cooper, 1997; Vakola, Tsaousis & Nokolaou, 2004; Stein et al., 2009). Emotionally intelligent leaders help an organization/institution to

consistently excel in all these areas. An organization/institution which has emotionally smart leaders, also has motivated, productive, efficient and devoted staff; and an organization/institution where people can understand emotions effectively, can work successfully together to achieve the desired objectives. In view of this, it is critical to promote HRM practices that support the development of employees and consequently their careers. This can be done through training for managers concerning the regulation of emotions – to positively affect their relationship with their work teams – and through encouraging work engagement in order to make employees feel valued within the organization and proud of working for it.

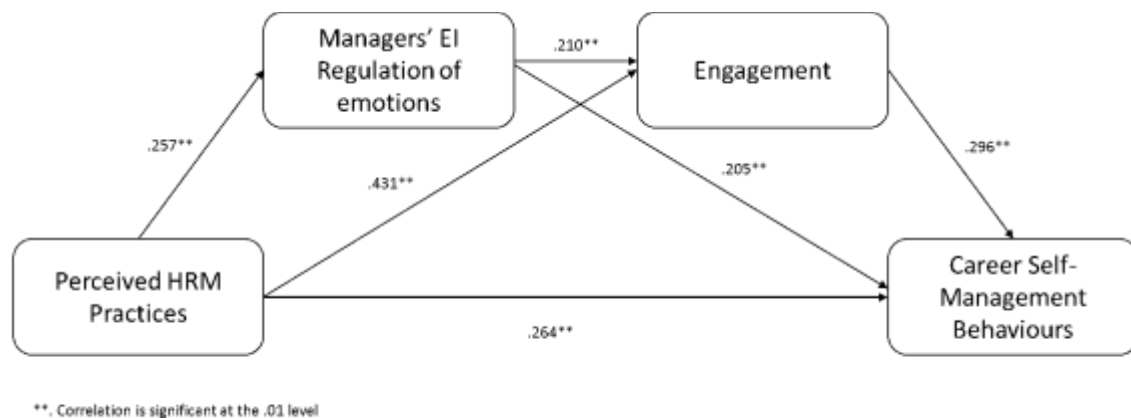
Considering the above arguments, the following hypothesis is presented:

H4: Managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement serially mediate the association between perceived HR practices and CSMB.

II) Empirical Study

This study suggests that perceived HRM practices, managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement influence career self-management behaviours. These research propositions are based on the literature review presented in the previous section.

Figure 1- Sequential mediation model with Managers' regulation of emotions and Work engagement as proposed mediators of Perceived HRM practices and CSMB



1. Methodology

a. Sample and Procedure

The data for this study was collected from 432 employees of a Bank in Portugal. The process of data collection took place in May 2018, and responses were collected online using a questionnaire in Qualtrics that was sent to the work email addresses of participating employees.

The participants' mean age was 41.80 years ($SD=12.02$), 50.7% were women, and 87.5% attended higher education. Regarding years of experience in the labour market, the participants' mean was 20.01 ($SD=12.63$), and as for years of experience in the Institution, the mean was 15.81 ($SD=12.48$). Of all the participants, 25.7% held a managerial position, of which at least 50% had held that position for seven years.

The survey was translated from English to Portuguese and was anonymous, ensuring the complete confidentiality of the responses. The title page of the survey included a short introduction explaining the aim of the study, assuring the responses' anonymity and clarifying the instructions to complete the questionnaire. There was also a space for the participants to state their agreement with and understanding of the instructions given.

The questionnaire was organized according to the variables under analysis, but without specifically mentioning them. Questions made use of various types of response scales and were grouped into sections: perceived human resources development practices, managers' emotional intelligence, career self-management behaviour, and engagement.

b. Measures

Perceived HRM Practices

The measure used to assess the respondents' experience of human resources practices consisted of nine items, each item representative of a different developmental practice: training and development, recruitment and selection process, employment stability, promotions and rewards, career management, performance appraisal, and feedback.

Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with the presented statements, such as "I am provided with sufficient opportunities for training and development", "I feel my job is secure". The response format consisted of a seven-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree). The scale's reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha score), was .878 in this study.

Career Self-Management Behaviours

To measure the degree of engagement in CSMB, we used the five-item Career Aspirations Scale (Tharenou & Terry, 1998). The scale items were examples of self-directed career management activities: "I have sought feedback on my job performance", "I have discussed my career prospects with someone with more experience in the department/organization". Participants were asked to specify the frequency with which they engaged in the listed CSMB, on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1=never to 7=very frequently). The scale's reliability was confirmed by its Cronbach's alpha score, which came to .855 in this study.

Emotional Intelligence

To measure the managers' emotional intelligence, a sixteen-item scale was used (Wong & Law, 2002), in which four items for each dimension of EI were measured: self-emotion appraisal (SEA), others' emotion appraisal (OEA), use of emotion (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE). The response format was a seven-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree).

In this study, only the responses related to the regulation of emotions (ROE) will be analysed. To measure the managers' emotional intelligence related to ROE, we used the following sentences: "She/he can control her/his temper and handle difficulties rationally", "She/he is quite capable of controlling her/his own emotions". The reliability estimate (Cronbach's alpha score) for this dimension of EI was .972 and for the overall managers' EI was .962.

Work Engagement

The scale used to measure the degree of engagement of the participants in this study was the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). The short-version consisted of nine items, such as: "At my work, I feel bursting with energy", "My job inspires me". UWES is a valuable tool for the measurement of work engagement as it has been validated in several countries all around the world including Portugal.

The nine items measured three dimensions – vigour, dedication and absorption – using three elements for each dimension. Each item measured a dimension using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1=never to 7=always). The scale's reliability was confirmed by its Cronbach's alpha score, which was .930 in this study.

2. Results

The Pearson correlation analysis was used to determine the relationships between research variables. Table 1 includes the obtained findings and descriptive statistics.

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, and reliabilities for all study variables

| Variables | Mean | SD | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
|---------------------------|------|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1.Perceived HRM practices | 4.35 | 1.09 | (.878) | | | |
| 2.Manager's ROE | 4.69 | 1.55 | .257** | (.972) | | |
| 3.Work Engagement | 4.46 | 1.13 | .431** | .210** | (.930) | |
| 4.CSMB | 4.46 | 1.34 | .264** | .205** | .296** | (.855) |

Notes: n=432; ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); Numbers in parentheses are the Cronbach's α reliability coefficients

The figures presented in Table 1 show that a significant positive relationship was found between all variables. Closer inspection of the focal variables examined in this study shows that perceived HRM practices are positively related to the mediators – managers' regulation of emotions ($r=.257$, $p < .01$) and work engagement ($r=.431$, $p < .01$) - and to the outcome variable of career self-management behaviour ($r=.264$, $p < .01$). One of the mediators, managers' ROE, is correlated with the other mediator, work engagement

($r=.210$, $p<.01$) and with the outcome CSMB ($r=.205$, $p<.01$). Finally, the other mediator, work engagement, is positively associated with CSMB ($r=.296$, $p<.01$).

To determine the serial multiple mediation of the managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement, in the relationship between perceived HRM practices and CSMB, a sequential mediation analysis (Model 6 as described in PROCESS) was used. For this, a regression-based approach and bootstrap method were applied, as recommended by Hayes (2012; 2013).

Figure 1 describes all paths of the full process model, and related coefficients are shown in Table 2. Consistent with hypothesis 1, the total effect (c) of perceived HRM practices on CSMB was significant ($b=.32$; $t=5.68$; $p<.001$) and the total direct effect (c') without the effect of mediators was also found to be significant ($b=.17$; $t=2.78$; $p<.05$). Similarly, consistent with hypotheses 2 and 3, specific indirect effects through the managers' ROE ($b=.15$; $CI=.08$ and $.22$) and through work engagement ($b=.04$; $CI=.05$ and $.17$) were both found to be significant. Also in line with previous hypotheses, perceived HRM practices had a significant direct effect on the managers' regulation of emotion ($b=.37$; $t=5.51$; $p<.001$) and work engagement ($b=.42$; $t=9.00$; $p<.001$). In addition, as suggested in hypothesis 4, the specific indirect effect of perceived HRM practices on career self-management behaviours through managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement was significant with a point estimate of .01 and a 95% confidence interval ($CI=.00$ and $.02$).

Table 2 – Test of direct, indirect and total effects

| | β | SE | t | p | LLCI | ULCI |
|-------------------------|---------|-----|------|-----|------|------|
| Direct effects | | | | | | |
| PHRMP→MROE | .37 | .07 | 5.51 | .00 | .23 | .49 |
| PHRMP→WE | .42 | .05 | 9.00 | .00 | .33 | .51 |
| PHRMP→CSMB | .17 | .06 | 2.78 | .01 | .05 | .30 |
| MROE→WE | .08 | .03 | 2.38 | .02 | .01 | .14 |
| MROE→CSMB | .11 | .04 | 2.65 | .01 | .03 | .19 |
| WE→CSMB | .25 | .06 | 4.13 | .00 | .13 | .36 |
| Indirect effects | | | | | | |
| PHRMP→MROE→CSMB | .15 | .04 | | | .08 | .22 |
| PHRMP→WE→CSMB | .04 | .02 | | | .05 | .17 |
| PHRMP→MROE→WE→CSMB | .01 | .00 | | | .00 | .02 |
| Total effect | | | | | | |
| PHRMP→CSMB | .32 | .06 | 5.68 | .00 | .21 | .43 |

3. Discussion

This study aimed to explore the concept of career self-management behaviour, a concept that has recently attracted considerable interest, and how perceived HRM practices affect this organizational outcome. The key findings of this study are that proactive career attitudes can be developed, and employees' engagement in career self-management behaviours can be fostered by adopting a comprehensive bundle of human resources management practices. It was also found that managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement can improve this connection.

Empirical evidence supporting hypothesis 1 suggests that organizations can facilitate employees' engagement in CSMB by adopting a comprehensive bundle of HRM practices and by making them well perceived by their employees. This result is broadly consistent with the finding of Sturges et al. (2005) and Popescu (2015), of a positive relationship between organizational and individual career management initiatives. The confirmation of hypothesis 1 provides support to Lips-Wiersma & Hall's (2007) postulate that in modern careers, organizational and individual career management work hand in hand, and that the responsibility for career development is shared between the employer and the employee, given that for the practice of CSM, employees need guidance and encouragement.

Secondly, results showed that perceived HRM practices are directly related to managers' regulation of emotions. Managers should be deeply aware that most employees see them as an example to follow, thus they should manage their emotions according to the social rules and norms. In this respect, this study also corroborates the empirical findings of Ashforth & Humphrey (1993, 1995) and of Goleman (1998) who reported that emotionally intelligent leaders understand better their work teams and make them run to accomplish not only organizational but also personal objectives. Moreover, it reinforces what Leavitt and Bahrami stated in 1988, that managing one's own emotions, and those of employees, is as much a crucial managerial function as managing markets or finances. In this regard, Gholami et al. (2013) also indicated that leaders should understand the best way to regulate and manage their own emotions in order to lead others to feel part of the organization and, as a result, to have a better perception of HRM practices.

As mentioned previously, HRM practices have influence on the managers' regulation of emotions, and as predicted by Cao & Fu (2011) and by Jamali et al. (2016), one of the

factors that affect employees' careers is the attitude of supervisors in the work environment, which is supported by hypothesis 2.

As noted by Schaufeli et al. (2002), engaged employees have a sense of active connection with their work activities. In addition, several authors have claimed that HRM has the potential to foster employees' engagement; a fact that is also related to co-workers and superior support, to the feedback and coaching that is given, and to task variety and training facilities, as reported by Demerouti et al. in 2001.

Gubman and Schaufeli & Bakker in 2004, and Vance in 2006 proved that HRM practices are of vital importance to the level of engagement of employees, which is also demonstrated by this study. If employees have the perception that HRM practices are consistent and if they are satisfied with them, they feel more engaged. Hypothesis 3 showed that proactive career behaviours are positively related to work engagement which, in turn, is associated with perceived HRM practices, as was also mentioned by other researchers.

In view of all the associations that are explained above, it may be said that both the managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement mediate the relationship between perceived HRM practices and CSMB – which, in regard to hypothesis 4, the results confirm.

Concerning the established mediation effects, this study's findings suggest that facilitation of self-directed career management through organizational career management initiatives is the mechanism underlying the positive perception of HRM practices. Managers' regulation of emotions mediates this relationship in such a way that managers ought to know how to control their emotions because they are an example – employees should be able to look to their managers and see a career path and establish their own goals. Work engagement also mediates all these relationships, because when employees feel engaged in the organization, they care a lot more about organizational decisions and HRM practices through the awareness that it can affect their careers. As they feel more engaged and consequently more satisfied, they search for new ideas in order to help the organization grow, which can happen either through investment in the development of their skills or by being more proactive in their job. All these perceived HRM practices, managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement are positively related to career self-management behaviours.

4. Practical and Theoretical Implications

The findings discussed above have some practical implications for organizations, managers and HR practitioners. Since HRM practices, managers' emotional intelligence and work engagement have been shown to be favourable to the enhancement of career self-management behaviours, it is in the best interest of organizations to facilitate and promote interaction between these variables.

Career management is a critical challenge for HR professionals in the twenty-first century, and is crucial for developing and sustaining organizations in the long-term and for giving each person within the organization an essential focus for the future. However, short-term business horizons and a focus on financial results mean that the need for effective career management, with its more uncertain long-term outcomes, is often overlooked. Each organization, and especially the HR professionals within it, need to champion the cause of career management, helping every manager, senior executive, and individual employee understand and embrace their importance. The most important thing that organizations must grasp is that employers and employees bring different perspectives to the situation and that these differences have to be recognized and resolved. Each employee has their own set of past experiences and future priorities, which may or may not fit in with what their employer can provide in the long term. The challenge to organizations is to understand what type of careers they can offer and to formulate a consistent, collaborative and proactive approach to managing careers.

As for the employees, they should understand that successful career management is accomplished through regular habits of building relationships, engaging in career development conversations, updating the career development plan and setting new goals, since both life and career need to undergo change. Being proficient at career management also means possessing basic skills related to job searching and dealing with changes in a flexible manner. All of these can be considered career self-management behaviours.

It is also important to mention that merely relying on employees' spontaneous self-management initiatives without any career support, carries the risk that only the employees who are more focused on managing their career will actively search for organizational career support and opportunities, which is decisive for their career success and commitment to the organization. Hence, those who take a more passive stance towards their career development might become a group at "risk" because the lack of

organizational career management decreases their commitment and in turn will reduce their employability in the internal labour market. Therefore, it is vital that organizations lay the foundations for individual career management by providing employees with the necessary knowledge, since some employees want to engage in CSM but do not know how. Organizations could promote training on CSM techniques or learning methods in order to pass that knowledge to employees.

Organizations should also clarify the possibilities of career progression available to employees and facilitate the discussion with them regarding their career prospects, which would help their employees to visualize their future in the company. Another implication is that leaders/managers should serve as CSM role models, for this would give them credibility when they talk with their employees about the importance of proactivity. They should demonstrate their proactive involvement in career development, showing that this is the way to attain goals and achieve success.

The last implication is that the adopted HRM practices should always be internally consistent. Organizations should ensure that the adopted bundles have an impact on general satisfaction with the job and with the organization. For example, if career counselling is provided to clarify possible career paths and help set long-term goals, a formal mentoring program should also be implemented, to support employees in the process of reaching those goals. Regarding performance appraisal, a complementary peer and subordinate appraisal might be implemented to give employees a different view about their work and competencies, to provide them with a fuller picture of how they are perceived. Concerning succession planning, assessment centres could help to identify potential employees that could be developed to assume functions of greater responsibility or more specialized functions.

In summary, it seems plausible to assume that in this modern world, it is critical to invest in employees' development and provide them with the necessary CSM support, in order to have an efficient and competent human capital that can reach organizational results. Hence, and especially now, as HR development budgets are generally limited, the adoption of comprehensive human resources management practices could be turned into a firm's competitive advantage. More precisely, the establishment of developmental opportunities could ensure not only the attraction but also the retention and satisfaction of competent workforce, reasonably assuming that employees would think twice before

leaving the organization, being conscious that they might not have such opportunities for growth under any other employer.

In terms of theoretical implications, the current findings add value to the emerging body of literature on new careers and how these are mediated by other variables. Firstly, regarding other variables, this study seeks to address a gap in the literature by examining the role of emotional intelligence - the findings point to the potential of focusing on the manager's role and emotions as targets of career choice counselling, as it is expected that the other employees see the manager as an example in terms of career. Secondly, it adds to the research on career self-management behaviours and their relationship with perceived HRM practices, by including two mediators: managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement. Thirdly, it shows how organizations can promote initiatives to enhance their employees' desirable career outcomes.

5. Limitations and Future Research

This study presents some limitations that must be considered when generalizing its results. The first limitation is the fact that it was based on a sample of people from a single country and nationality (i.e. Portuguese), which might limit the generalizability of the finding - studies conducted in other countries could be of use to further attest to the general validity. Even though data regarding the perceived HRM practices were retrospectively collected, future investigation of the same model with a longitudinal design could be valuable to confirm the conclusions drawn in this study.

The present study has demonstrated that it is important to consider employee perceptions when evaluating the impact of HRM practices. Future research could assess the extent to which managers' perceptions of HRM practices influence their employees' perceptions, using multilevel data from different data sources within the organization. It might be that managers who have positive experiences of HRM themselves are able to shape their subordinates' perceptions and attitudes favourably towards HRM.

Usually, articles about CSM are only focused on the optimistic side of it - career self-management may therefore be beneficial for self-motivated, high-skilled employees seeking to adapt to a changing world of work, however, for less advantaged employees who struggle to mobilize the personal resources necessary to engage in it, CSM may be

undermining. In light of this, it is also important to give further thought to how the less advantaged employees could benefit from CSM.

Finally, we encourage researchers to evaluate the effect of age and work experience on career self-management behaviours, by adopting a longitudinal research design, to assess the impact of these two variables in career attitudes and management.

Conclusion

The present study has contributed to debates around career management, especially about career self-management behaviours, through their relationship with perceived HRM practices and the mediation of managers' regulation of emotions and work engagement. Through structural equation modelling of a sample of 432 respondents from one organization of the banking sector, we tested a number of hypotheses to determine how these factors are interrelated. We found that perceived HRM practices are positively related with career self-management behaviours through the secondary mediation of managers' regulation of emotion and work engagement.

In conclusion, this study shows that both organizations and individuals play an important role in career management, and that CSM is not a replacement for organization career support. It is just a new concept that can contribute to the achievement of positive career outcomes and enhance flexibility and adaptability. This implies that despite the rhetoric of "new career," providing career support to its employees remains an essential part of an organization's human resources policies.

We argue that the focus of HRM efforts should be firstly on implementing consistent HRM practices that promote high levels of performance and satisfaction. Secondly, it should be on effective selection, deployment and performance management of managers/leaders as they are the role model to other employees. In addition, employee engagement strategies should also be implemented. These factors together will create a virtuous cycle fostering engagement in career self-management behaviours.

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Annexes

Annex 1: Scales

| <i>Variables</i> | <i>Variables' translation to portuguese</i> | <i>Author</i> | <i>Article w/ scale</i> | <i>Items</i> |
|---|---|--|--|--------------|
| <i>HR Development Practices</i> | Práticas de Desenvolvimento de Recursos Humanos | Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) | Alfes, Shantz, Truss (2012) | 9 |
| <i>Leaders' emotional intelligence</i> | Inteligência Emocional da Chefia | WLEIS (Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale), 2004 | Rodrigues, N.; Rebelo, T.; Coelho, J., 2011 | 16 |
| <i>Career Self-Management Behaviour</i> | Comportamentos de autogestão de carreira | Tharenou & Terry (1998) | Tharenou & Terry (1998) | 5 |
| <i>Engagement</i> | Engagement | UWES (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale), Shaufeli & Bakker (2009) | UWES (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale), Shaufeli & Bakker (2009) | 9 |

Annex 2: Questionnaire

Indique, por favor, o grau de concordância, em relação à organização onde trabalha, com as seguintes afirmações:

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------|
| | Discordo totalmente | | | | | | Concordo totalmente |
| A minha organização oferece-me oportunidades suficientes de desenvolvimento. | | | | | | | |
| Recebo formação para desenvolver o meu trabalho. | | | | | | | |
| Na seleção de novos colaboradores é utilizado um processo de seleção rigoroso. | | | | | | | |
| Sinto que o meu trabalho é seguro. | | | | | | | |
| As recompensas que recebo estão relacionadas diretamente com o meu desempenho. | | | | | | | |
| A gestão de carreiras é uma prioridade. | | | | | | | |
| Tenho oportunidades de ser promovido/a. | | | | | | | |
| O sistema de avaliação de desempenho fornece-me um feedback de avaliação dos meus pontos fortes e fracos. | | | | | | | |
| Recebo feedback significativo sobre o meu desempenho, pelo menos, uma vez por ano. | | | | | | | |

Indique, por favor, o grau de concordância com as seguintes afirmações, tendo em conta a chefia que mais marcou o seu percurso profissional:

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---------------------|---|---|---|---------------------|
| | Discordo totalmente | | | | Concordo totalmente |
| Na maioria das vezes tinha uma boa noção das razões pelas quais tinha certos sentimentos. | | | | | |
| Compreendia bem as suas emoções. | | | | | |
| Compreendia verdadeiramente o que sentia. | | | | | |
| Sabia sempre se estava ou não contente. | | | | | |
| Reconhecia as emoções dos seus amigos através do seu comportamento. | | | | | |
| Era um/uma bom/boa observador/a das emoções dos outros. | | | | | |
| Era sensível aos sentimentos e emoções dos outros. | | | | | |
| Compreendia bem as emoções das pessoas que o rodeavam. | | | | | |
| Estabelecia sempre metas para si próprio/a, tentando em seguida dar o seu melhor para as atingir. | | | | | |
| Tinha por hábito dizer a si próprio/a que era uma pessoa competente. | | | | | |
| Era uma pessoa que se automotivava. | | | | | |
| Encorajava-se sempre a dar o seu melhor. | | | | | |
| Era capaz de controlar o seu temperamento, conseguindo assim lidar com as dificuldades de forma racional. | | | | | |
| Conseguia controlar bem as suas emoções. | | | | | |
| Era capaz de se acalmar rapidamente quando estava muito irritado/a. | | | | | |
| Possuía um bom controlo das suas emoções. | | | | | |

Indique, por favor, o grau de frequência com que tem realizado as situações abaixo descritas:

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|---|---|---|---|---|----------------------|
| | Nunca | | | | | | Muito frequentemente |
| Tenho procurado feedback no desempenho do meu trabalho. | | | | | | | |
| Tenho discutido as minhas perspectivas de carreira com alguém com mais experiência no meu departamento/organização. | | | | | | | |
| Tenho-me envolvido no planeamento da minha carreira. | | | | | | | |
| Tenho atualizado as minhas competências de forma a tornar-me mais competitivo/a para ser promovido/a. | | | | | | | |
| Tenho discutido as minhas aspirações com uma pessoa com um perfil sénior do meu departamento/organização. | | | | | | | |

Indique, por favor, o grau de frequência com que realiza as situações abaixo descritas:

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|-------|---|---|---|---|---|--------|
| | Nunca | | | | | | Sempre |
| No meu trabalho sinto-me repleto/a de energia. | | | | | | | |
| No meu trabalho sinto-me forte e vigoroso/a. | | | | | | | |
| Estou entusiasmado/a com o meu trabalho. | | | | | | | |
| O meu trabalho inspira-me. | | | | | | | |
| Quando acordo pela manhã sinto vontade de ir trabalhar. | | | | | | | |
| Sinto-me feliz quando estou a trabalhar intensamente. | | | | | | | |
| Tenho orgulho no trabalho que realizo. | | | | | | | |
| Estou imerso/a no meu trabalho. | | | | | | | |
| Esqueço-me de tudo o resto quando estou a trabalhar. | | | | | | | |