

The best career advice given to the young is: Find out what you like doing best and get someone to pay you for doing it (Whitehorn, n.d.).

The (*United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization* [UNESCO], 2014) has defined “youth as a period of transition from childhood dependency to adulthood independence”. It was estimated by the UN that world youth population constituted of 18 percent of the population globally in 1995 and 84% of the world youth were in developing nations. Youth has been categorized in varied age groups, United Nation has put youth within the age group as 15 to 24. The UN Habitat which is the governing body for providing youth funds worldwide has classified youth in the age cohort of 15-32. The Youth Charter of African Youth (2006) had placed youth in the age group of 15-35.

Visvanathan (2012) points out an interesting pattern to understand the defining parameters of youth in our country:

Youth in our country falls under a very ambiguous category. It's a phase between childhood and adulthood. But interestingly, youth overlaps both these categories and hence its classification is blurred. It is a lifestyle category, whose description is based on academics and career choices. For example, if you just do your graduation and start working, by the time you are 30, you are well settled in life and can hardly be termed youth. But if you choose to do your PhD, you will be studying till 29-30, and then start a career. If so, you fall into the 'youth' category. Sociologically speaking, youth is a misnomer — you can't define it because it depends on your lifestyle. And in India, which is such a diverse country, with youth belonging to different social and economic backgrounds; it's difficult to have just one definition (para.4).

The defining parameter of the national and international bodies is diverse. It could be conceptualized from this that the factors defining youth in a country could vary according to its demography, finance, economy, society and its culture.

The global data shows there is large number of youth worldwide. In the Asian Pacific region alone 60 percent of its population constitute of youth (Dev& Venkatanarayana, 2011). In India youth represents 27.5% of its total population. In a newspaper daily it was reported by Shivkumar (2013) by 2020 India will have the world's youngest work force with 64% of its population in the work front. The benefits which could be availed due to youth and the demographic dividend (demographic dividend is "when a county's working age population is larger than the population which is dependent") which is created because of them; would have enormous effect on the economy. It was predicted India will be the 4th largest economy of the world after US, China and Japan and it will contribute to about 5.5 to 6 percent to the world gross domestic product as presented in a World Bank report. Hence it could be speculated that youth could be an integral element for national development.

The problem, currently being faced by the European nations: ageing; will soon be faced by the other countries but not India due to its enormous human resource: youth. The population of India by 2020 is expected to be 1.3 billion and by 2035, 1.5 billion very close to our neighbouring nation China and the average age of an Indian would be 29. It could be a period of reaping the benefits of a youth bulge or the demographic dividend (Roy & Roy, 2014).

The statistics provided above shows the increasing number of youth. The larger the number of youth means lower dependent population and higher work force participants. The Planning Commission of India has also recognized youth as the most imperative segment of the community (Visaria, 1998).

It is believed that the youth can bring in economical, technological and even social changes. But the biggest challenge to the nation is how to harness the energy of this population (International Labour Organization). This challenge which has emerged because of the youth bulge is not a new phenomenon; as the west has faced it in the past.

The 1960's era, experienced widespread student unrest in Europe which led to a chain reaction in the Asian regions also. The mounting turbulence emerged in common primarily because the issues of the youth were universal, specifically - the problem of employment.

Several meetings and actions were undertaken to tackle this problem. In Asia the first meet for youth enlistment for expansion was held in Kathmandu, in year 1978 by UNESCO. Proceeding from the same lead to surveys and publications which showcased a very miserable condition of youth and it was recommended that any investment in youth will have rewarding outcomes. The UN announced 1985 as the 'international youth year'. Along with the foundation of the International Youth Year (IYY) UNCESO collaborated with the Association of Asian Social Science Research Councils (AASSREC) in Asia. This was done to assess the situation of youth in the Asian region and in reference to study the issues of unemployment in India. The Indian government formulated a policy exclusively for youth after celebrating the international youth year in 1985. Further this lead to the first national youth policy in the year 1988. It was identified that tackling the issue of unemployment was the major challenge. However, this challenge hasn't received much attention (Visaria, 1998). Though unemployment is identified as a very serious issue, the current statistics about it state clearly that not much is being done by (GOI) for its eradication or minimization. According to Moran (2014), "unemployment trend is progressive in the

negative sense it was 3.5% in 2011, rose to 3.6% in 2012 and had reached 3.7% in 2013. The global unemployment trend had predicted that it will rise to 3.8% in 2014". The education aspiration as well the attainment; for youth in the time period from 1961 to 2011 has increased many fold. In total one-third of the youth population had access to some educational institution in the period 2007-2008 (Dev & Venkatanarayana, 2011). This leads one to ponder over a very important question as to what would be the returns of the human capital (Mincer, 1958, 1962; Schultz, 1963 & Becker, 1964) the youth was investing in?

Let us presume that they will be employed after the completion of the program they have enrolled in, or subsequently after acquisition of a skill, or after getting trained. The situation however is very dreadful. According to a report by Labour Ministry's Youth -2014 one in three graduates up to the age of 29 were unemployed. It shows that the critical investment made by an average individual has high risk involved in the context of returns. There are also few studies available from the industrialized and the developing nations where the aims of traditional education and its outcomes are questioned (Raizen, 1991; Barnet, 1990; Hayes, 1987; Aeth, 1975).

This is indeed a gloomy scene of employability for youth in India. Therefore exploring and probing into the meaning of employment and employability is crucial.

Employability among youth: A dismal scenario

Hillage and Pollard (1998) explained "employability is about having the capability of gaining initial employment, maintaining it, and moving to new employment by one's choice" (para.10).

Wherein, getting employed/employment is having a job or work to do. Taking this idea further, the components of employability can be understood well in the Indian context after deconstructing the definition by Hillage and Pollard:

Employability is indicative of a person's capability of gaining the initial employment:

It is globally assumed that employment can be mainly obtained by attaining education (by investing in human capital). However, this remains a myth rather than a reality.

As rightly pointed out by an expert in the field of youth unemployment- Jeffrey (2014, para. 20), they (youth) “spend a lot of time on their degrees and ultimately realize that these degrees are not going to provide a passport into either the private sector jobs” or in the government sector.

Maintaining it: in the world of work today, sustaining oneself means skill up-gradation or getting additional certification or degrees (Twelfth five year plan 2012-2017).

The stiff competition in every sector medical, management, banking or engineering the number of job applicants are also on a constant rise. Maintaining one's worth in the job market has become a herculean task. This trend could be understood with a simple example, in a job entrance for a probationary officer in banking sector. The minimum qualification for this is graduation without any basic percentage bar. The entrance for the same position had 12,00,000 applicants last year competing for 22,400 seats (Nair, 2013). The applicants were not just simple graduates but also from technical and professional fields like engineering, agriculture, biotechnology, pharmacy etc though there were overqualified for the same position. The worst was witnessed in the era of youth bulge lately in the month of August and September 2015. The recruitment process for Grade-D government employees saw candidates with even masters and doctorate despite the education requisite being – ‘passed grade five’. This shows the miserable condition of the labour market in our country where youth aspire for stable job by ignoring, the hard toil, they have put in, just to make a living. Skill up gradation or maintaining a job, in this case, is a question unanswered.

And then moving to a new job or *work by one's choice*: This is explained well by Ginzberg (1984):

that career follows a developmental process. As a person enters into different phases of life, his or her views, and positions on career choice are defined and refined. Based on tentative evaluation, invalid choices are gradually eliminated, and more appropriate options are examined and narrowed down (pp.169-191).

But when there is no choice how can the youth of the country think about growth, movement or any form of development. This is evident when one looks at the data existing data on: graduates and unemployment or over qualified candidates aspiring for menial jobs.

It indicate's not only stiff competition but a cut throat level of competition. In an essay by (Kompier et al., 2014, p.109) the India Exclusion Report, it was stated that very low quality and very limited jobs have been added.

The jobs created are not in the formal sector resulting in, absorption of the labour force in the informal sectors. The report further says that employment opportunity in India has declined (in all the sectors public enterprises, private and even agriculture). Highlighting the bleak picture; the report further said that only 2.7 million jobs have been added in the years 2004 to 2010 versus 60 million half a decade ago (International Labour Organization, 2013).

This murky scenario is for the "educated/skilled" youth, there are hardly any official figures for the not so educated or unqualified. When we think of marginalized groups such as women, minorities, physically challenged, dalits, the availability of data for these groups is very thin. Thus, it is not possible to cover all the groups in the same

set of research. Hence, in the present work we have focused on youth in general from the career planning perspective.

Need for Synergy

Seeking employment or planning one's career requires one to be aware of his/her knowledge, skills, attitudes, ability, personality, interest, work values, environment and information about the labour market (Weinert, Baukens, Bollerot, Pineschi-Gapenne & Walwei, 2001). Ideally this condition could be facilitated by the policy makers wherein they equip the job seekers with skills that match the demand of the market. But this could work in the best manner if a two way process is followed.

Where the youth has the potential to introspect and the policy makers are supportive enough to provide the necessary skills required in today's world of work.

If a synergy could be created in this processes; then security through employment could be achieved and unemployment could be reduced. All this requires a robust system to be created that will help youth to take right career decision or plan their career well. After considering all the factors that could impact their employability such as labour market, skill requirements, cognitive, behavioural, socio-cultural and economical factors. In order to get this kind of information, proper training in the form of career counselling is required; which should begin in a youth life at an early stage.

Historical background of career planning in India

The Indian government was aware of the need for guidance and counselling and constituted the Acharya Narendra Dev Committee in 1938. Various other committees and commissions like "The Mudaliar Commission, 1952" ; "the Kothari Education Commission 1964-66" were formulated and it resulted in the formal beginning of counselling and guidance services at the national level.

The initial suggestion for the inception of a guidance centre for career and services related to it in India can be dated back to six decades (Barnette, 1954). The bachelors of education for teacher training have a paper educational vocational guidance and counselling which has major components of career planning of school students. National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) as a national body of education, has a yearlong program for career planning. The Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) had come up with an aptitude test ‘Students Global Aptitude Index (SGAI)’ at the class 10 level to help students decide their subject specializations based on their aptitude.

All these efforts seem very promising but the ground reality is different as career counselling programs have not been implemented in ways it was envisioned. There are no firm or strict guidelines for the same. Many schools are adopting these exercises as one of its initiatives, without much ground work which could benefit students in the long run.

There are many private vendors in India who have evolved in past 10-12 years. Example: Youngbuzz, Centre for Career Development, Career Smart, Mera Career Guide, Institutes of Career Studies and many more, claiming to provide career guidance to youth. Nonetheless, there is no standardized/scientific pattern followed by any of these agencies, except selling assessments under the broad umbrella term of psychometric tests. Sometimes these assessments are based on the aptitude of the student if he/she is achiever or an outperformer. Assessments are also based on the interest of the student if academics don’t provide any direction. Along with this, few other factors are considered like personality, socio economic status and at times- gender. Hence it will not be wrong to criticize the models these private vendors are promoting, because first these model are not comprehensive or inclusive enough (as

these are adopted from the west) to cater to a large population of youth. Secondly, these models are planned and implemented from a 'for profit perspective' without considering the context of delivery.

If one tries to observe where these career guidance vendor located are; there is the highest probability of finding 90% of them operating from the tier 1 cities. Can this be presumed from this observation that the process of career planning is an urban phenomenon and for only privileged few?

If this is true then the process of career planning would be relatively new to the youth from the tier 2 and tier 3 cities. This leads one to ponder on what mechanisms a youth follows for career planning; that has never undergone any career counselling process. Can this be hypothesized that the process of career planning in an Indian scenario starts late in a youth's life when she/he is forced to enter the job market or until she/he find a right job?

This research attempts to explore and argue about the intricacies of career planning in youth's life. It attempts to engage deeply with these questions- whether it is a process of well versed research before entering the work space. Or a youth's discovery after joining the workforce, to accomplish the consequences of efficient career planning in one's life.

There is a need felt to understand the nitty-gritty's involved in the process of career planning from defining relationship between education and employment, theories, history of career planning, its antecedents, mediators & consequences.

Acquiring education and gaining employment: A skewed relationship

The total number of universities in India in the year 2005 was 348 in comparison to just 28 in the year 1950 and the number of colleges has increased from 578 to 17,625

in the same period (Hasim, 2008). The enrolment rate in higher education has increased 10 fold from 0.17 million to 10.48 million. The GOI expenditure on education and skill development in budget of 2013-14 was 65,867 crore, which is increased by 12.3% i.e. 83,771 crores in the 2014-15 budget as observed in a report prepared by Deloitte- Budget 2014-15 Impact on education sector. Every year the number of school, colleges and universities is increasing. But is the number of jobs increasing at the same pace?

The data shows that the rise in the annual GDP is at the rate of 7.52% but the growth rate for employment is just 1.5% as reported in the India Exclusion Report 2013-14. If the numbers of students passing out of educational institutes do not have enough jobs and only few of them can get jobs then what would the rest do? According to the India Development Report (2008) “Out of six lakh engineering graduates produced by the engineering colleges, a mere one lakh get hired through on-campus interviews, another 2.5 lakh graduates manage to get jobs after some waiting period, and the rest are considered unemployable and end up in odd jobs”. The data presented above depicts the state of the professionally qualified graduates of the country. Comparing it with the state of graduates from non professional program one would deduce; it is ought to be dire. Another survey report by the National Sample Survey record showed that unemployment was higher in literates that too more among the urban population in comparison to the rural (Chauhan, 2014). The reasons identified for the same is the “lack of skill based employment opportunity in India” Kaur (2013).

Acquiring education and gaining employment are important steps in the process of career planning. However many factors play significant roles between these two crucial steps. The present research aims to explore the antecedents of the career planning process. The relationship between the antecedent-career planning and some

outcome variables indirectly through the mediator has also been explored. The research also aims to examine the consequences of career planning process. In brief the present study has been conducted in three phases:

- 1) Phase one explores the antecedents or the predictors of career planning process of youth. In this the predictors of career planning were personality, interest, work motivation, social support system, socio economic status, gender and work experience.
- 2) In phase two we have tried to see how career planning is mediated through networking and organizational career management in influencing the outcome variables (work engagement, happiness and career satisfaction).
- 3) In phase three of the research we have explored the consequences of career planning process of youth. In this stage career planning has been treated as predictor or the antecedent and employee engagement, happiness and career satisfaction were treated as criteria for the two groups of youth.

What is Career?

Career is defined as an individual's "course or progress through life (or a distinct portion of life)" (Oxford English Dictionary, 2012, para.1). There are number of ways the term career has been defined example (Gutek & Larwood, 1987, p.9) stated career "as a series of related jobs within an organization or different jobs within various companies". Career can also be defined as a person profession or work, or something through which one makes a living. This work also is remunerative in nature. A career is often composed of jobs held, titles accomplished over a long period of time rather than referring to one position. The conventional concept of career has been seen as progressing up an ordered hierarchy within an organization or profession. However,

in recent times new definitions of career have been proposed by the researchers like Hall (1976) protean career, boundary less career by (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), self managed career. These new forms of career have certain elements in common, and are different from the traditional career option on criteria like core values, mobility, success criterion, key attitudes, accountability etc. In these new careers the person is responsible for their career and not the organization he/she works for. Personal freedom and growth are the core values of the new career unlike the vertical advancement of the old notion of career. The new career is psychological or subjective experience of success is far more important than the objective parameter of success. And the key attitude is work satisfaction and professional commitment versus organizational commitment. This new version of a career makes it clear that the person is in charge of their career rather than the organization like the earlier times. The meaning of career has undergone change in the current scenario, and so the meaning of career planning.

WHAT IS CAREER PLANNING? Career planning was introduced to attend to the growing needs in society to find meaning/zeal in one's life. With half of today's workforce discontented with their career and college students changing specializations typically twice in their lifetime, has a monetary and affective impact on students and has become a national concern. There are a number of programs existing in the market to help students qualify for securing a seat in a college but with very minimal career guidance. Career planning goes much deeper by inspiring students to find their passion, establish goals and create action plans to achieve success .

The process of career planning begins in an average school going youth life's when he/she undergoes the process of subject selection. The process is very complex and difficult. The youth suffer if the selection procedure is not proper or if faulty or wrong selections are made based on inadequate knowledge. The youth suffer from problems like low self esteem and confidence, uncertainty about return of investment in education indecisiveness about their career/job (Mapmytalent, 2013).

To explain this Paul (2012), of TalentSprint, a leading training provider in the space of vocational education, wrote

80% of the people aspire to get 20% of the jobs. The former are not skilled enough to procure the latter and the rest of the jobs do not 'excite' the student pool. There exists a wide gap not just in skills, but also with respect to aspirations (p.6).

This issue is of great concern because the number of jobs is less in our country but still there are also a large number of vacancies which remain vacant.

The course of an individual career planning could be understood well with the help of career literature. For which a thorough Meta analysis of career theories are presented below.

Career Theory

The practice of career development/planning is an age old trend. In the west, the great Greek philosopher Plato pioneered the process, he used to evaluate and make suggestions to people about suitable occupations (Zytowski, 1967). In India it dates back to the time of gurukuls where the disciples were given elementary education of all forms, but the gurus after thorough, continuous evaluation and observation used to provide specific skill training to their pupil.

The modern day's application of this process is a by-product of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century's. The process of career development or planning that one sees today, has evolved from number of events and conditions prevailing in west. The emergence of the vocational guidance/ career counselling in the United States was evident because of the shift in the economy from agricultural to industrial.

With industrialization came urbanization and migration. People started moving towards the city and parts of the country where manufacturing plants were present and production was taking place. As the population was swelling at these places, there were developmental issues identified like placement of people in rapidly changing work structures, accommodation of migrants in work sphere, education of children, and creating a platform where the gap between school education and the world of work could be narrowed. Other prominent issues were: the modification in the family structure because of migration and urbanization, women entering work forces, changes in the child rearing practices etc. To sum it up; the career development/planning practices were the consequence of the economic, social and political movement in the west.

Relevance of Vocational Education

There were many historians in the past like Borrow, Brewer, Cremin, Stephens, who spoke of education and vocational guidance but Parsons (1909) is one of the founding figures in the area of vocational guidance. Parson was a civil engineer and a lawyer by profession; but was also an enthusiastic human reformist. He protested against the public school policy of bookish learning and recommended a balanced approach between industrial education and subject knowledge. Though there were models existing which matched the person's interest with the job openings; and other counselling processes and many researches were taking places in the universities of

Europe and USA but there was no formal theory existing about career development until five decades of the twentieth century.

The second decade of the twentieth century led to intelligence testing for war recruits by Binet, followed by work in Germany on types of personality and types of jobs, occupational choice and worker performance by Sprangers and Munsterberg (Hergenhahn, 2000). Davis and Weaver made the similar efforts in the United States on career problems of students (Schmidt, 2003).

However, the three step schema given by Parsons were the guiding blocks for the first five decades of the twentieth century in career development (Brown & Brooks, 1990) and the foundation of the vocational guidance movement (Srebalus, Marinelli & Messing, 1982; Super, 1983). The schema by Parsons (1909) is described below:

(1) a clear understanding of yourself, aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and knowledge of their causes; (2) a knowledge of the requirements, conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work; (3) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts (p. 5).

Parson's work was named as trait and factor theory and it dominated the sphere of vocational psychology for a very long time until the new writings and theories emerged namely by Rogers, Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad & Herma (1951); Super (1953); Roe (1956); Holland (1959); Bordin, Nachmann & Segal (1963); Dawis & Krumboltz (1979); Gottfredson; Peterson, Sampson & Reardon (1991); Lent, Brown & Hackett (1994); Brown & Crace (1996). There were many theories which even came, with revised versions however not all theories were given the same weight-age for their contribution in career development. Primarily, because the earlier theories

had its focus mainly on middle class male and work (Assessing Women in Engineering [AWE], 2005).

There are only five career theories which are referred by the current career practitioners and theorist. According to Leung (2008), big five career theories are “Theory of Work Adjustment, Holland’s Theory of Vocational Personalities in Work Environment, the Self-concept Theory of Career Development formulated by Super and Savickas, Gottfredson’s Theory of Circumscription and Compromise and the Social Cognitive Career Theory”. These five theories have been briefly discussed below:

The Theory of Work Adjustment: The Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Dawis, 2000, 2002, 2005), also called person environment theory (Dawis, 2000). The theory is about the person, environment it’s fit and interaction. The initial version of the theory dealt only with fit and not interaction. The TWA theory was first published in the year 1964. The description of the person in TWA theory had adopted the trait concept and the environment is referred as work environment. The recent revision of the TWA has evolved four adjustment styles that were used to explain person and environment fit for their correspondence. The four adjustment styles are: flexibility, activeness, creativeness, and perseverance. Both the person and the environment use these adjustment styles to deal with dis-correspondence and dissatisfaction in their career choices and development. This theory also has certain pitfalls, the theory of work adjustment does not study personality and interest but the concentration of the theory is on the person and environment (Rounds & Tracey, 1990; Chartrand, 1991). Thus requires more research on theories of career development.

Holland Theory of Vocational Personalities in Work Environment: Holland

assumed that vocational interest is an expression of one's personality, and it could be conceptualized into six typologies, which are realistic (R), investigative (I), artistic (A), social (S), enterprising (E), and conventional (C). Similar to the classification of the six vocational interest types, Holland (1985, 1997) also said that vocational environments could be arranged in the same manner. He further suggested that if there is a high degree of congruence between the interest and environment it would lead to vocational satisfaction and stability and vice versa. If a person is assessed on the Holland assessment it generates a three letter code (e.g. SEI, CRI) which would summarize one's career interest. The three letter code symbolizes the primary and secondary interest themes respectively. The six interest types are arranged in a hexagon format in order: RIASEC. The relationship between the interest types in terms of similarities and dissimilarities are portrayed by the distance between corresponding types in the hexagon. The consistency of one's interest scores can be determined by the distance in the final codes of interest. The types which are adjacent to each other have the highest similarity, types which are opposite have the least and the types which are separated by one interval have the moderate degree of similarity. The consistency among the score is used as "a measure of the internal harmony or coherence of an individual's type scores" (Spokane & Cruza-Guet, 2005, p. 24). There is another concept which is of importance in Holland theory is the concept of differentiation. Differentiation refers to whether high interest and low interest types as clearly distinguishable in a person's interest profile. A low interest profile that is low in differentiation resembles a relatively flat, versus a differentiated interest profile which has clear high or low scores. This process (differentiation) portray that

crystallization of interest has taken place and it depicts a person readiness for his/her career.

There are certain limitations to Holland's approach; the approach is said to be chauvinist or sexist (Weinrach & Srebalus, 1990; Brown, 1990). There were no changes found in the three letter interest code generated even after the elimination of test biases (Gottfredson, 1978). The validity of Holland's model has different findings in different culture. Sverko and Babarovic (2006) administered SDS on students in the age group of 15-19 and it was found that the degree of fit was higher for the students in the older age group than for the younger age students. In few more studies by (Law, Wong & Leong, 2001; Leung & Hou, 2005; du Toit & de Bruin, 2002) it was found that there was clustering in the six interest areas because of the cultural values- reflected in the educational, occupational or curriculum of the country. Leading to more research in the area of career development.

Self Concept Theory of career development by Super: Super (1969, 1980, 1990) suggested that career development/selection is essentially a process where a person develops or evolves his/her self-concept. Super (1990) assumed that self concept is a product of number of factors interacting simultaneously like environmental experiences, growth both mental and physical etc. According to Savickas (2002) self concept is a constructivist perspective and hypothesized on Super notion- self concept theory is essentially a personal construct theory, he theorizes "the process of career construction is essentially that of developing and implementing vocational self-concepts in work roles" (p. 155).

The origin of the self concept is of great importance in Super theory. A stable self concept could serve as a guide for career development. Self concept evolves as one

progress through varying life stages. For this Super (1990) proposed a life stages developmental tasks framework. According to this framework an individual has to manage the task socially expected of him/her in reference to their age. According to Super (1990) there are four stages of career development corresponding to different growth areas “growth (begin at birth), exploration (around age 14), establishment (around age 25), maintenance (around age 44) and disengagement (around age 60 & up)”. An added concept of importance in Super theory is career maturity it refers to the degree to which person is able to fulfill the developmental task pertaining to the stage they are in. Super also hypothesized that mini cycles consisting of first till last stages would likely take place within any of the five stages the person is in. This would be higher when a person moves from one stage to another.

However there are a few limitation of Super theory: the aspect of self concept in this theory has to be re-evaluated as it has emerged from an individualistic culture. This is because self concept and decision making varies from culture to culture especially the individualistic bent towards life may not be suitable in the eastern world. In the eastern world nature of any decision has to be negotiated and a balance has to be sorted between the self and the environment (here it constitutes the family, society or the group that one thrives in) for maximizing self fulfilment. Another concept of this theory- career maturity is debatable. In the Super theory he proposed that career maturity is attained as one progress well from one developmental stage to another. However not in all cultures the same pattern could be followed as presented in Super model. It was also suggested in some studies that career maturity could be replaced with career adaptability (Herr, 1997; Savickas, 1997, 2002, 2005). Post Super approach Gottfredson’s theory of circumscription and compromise emerged.

Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription and Compromise: Gottfredson's theory (1981, 1996, 2002, 2005) is among the few recent developments of career theories.

It's based on the principle: for career choices to be made one requires high level of cognitive proficiency. Gottfredson also suggested that progress is required in a child's chronological age as well as general intelligence level so he/she could organize and fuse complex organizational information. It was also believed by him that cognitive growth is essential for the development of cognitive maps of occupation and for conception of self. This could be used by an individual to evaluate the appropriateness of various occupational alternatives. Unlike other theories of career development the tenet of career selection is not a choice but career development was seen as a process of elimination and circumscription (setting limits or meanings). Gottfredson proposed a four stage developmental model of circumscription: stage 1) orientation to size and power, age (3-5); stage 2) orientation to sex roles, age (6-8); stage 3) orientation to social valuation, age (9-13); stage 4) orientation to internal unique self, age (14 and above).

Another component of the Gottfredson's theory is compromise from the external realities e.g. labour market dynamics, economy of the country, hiring practices, family obligation etc.

The components of the above mentioned stages and compromise help one to set limit or eliminate those occupation that do not fit with their preference for prestige and sex types.

Wherein Gottfredson's theory has its own limitations as the variables which are used in the theory to define are difficult to operationalise and generalize e.g. size and power, prestige, sex type's circumscription, compromise etc. There is not much existing research available internationally to validate its usefulness.

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT): is also a recent development in the career theories (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002; Lent, 2005) based on the Bandura's (1977, 1997) self-efficacy theory. SCCT is divided in three different stages and the stages are interrelated: (a) the development of academic and vocational interest, (b) how individuals make educational and career choices, and (c) educational career performance and stability. The three core variables that are affected are: self-efficacy, outcome expectations and personal goals. Lent (2005) defined self-efficacy as

“A dynamic set of beliefs that are linked to particular performance domains and activities” (p. 104). Self efficacy influences the initiation of any behaviours and persistence in the time of barrier. Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2002) defined outcome expectations as “personal beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behaviour” (p. 262).

Outcome expectations are the extrinsic reward one is expecting from the target behaviour if performed. Personal goals refer to one's intention to engage in certain activity to generate a particular outcome (Lent, 2005). The personal goals are like setting aims which gives person energy to persist a behaviour in absence of any external rewards. The core variables of the SCCT model influence the interest, choice, and performance. The model specifies that a person would develop interest in only those activities that he/she feels efficacious about and would hope that there would be positive outcome from the same. This process would be a continues cycle wherein a person would set goals for activities or task that they feel efficacious about and persist the same kind of behaviour without any external rewards even in the face of adversity. This leads to a formation of stable interest pattern in people.

The Social Cognitive Career Theory has its limitation emerged from the core variable of it models- self efficacy. Though self efficacy is said to be the proponent of interest it does not shield one from career in-decision making.

The literature available in the west describing varied milestones of career/vocational psychology is documented well because it is believed that the west was moving fast from a self sufficient agriculture based economy to an industrial-production based economy. And the after effects of industrialisation, were more or less, the impetus for the formal career psychology movement; along with its sound theoretical backdrop. Wherein in India, the concept of vocation or the definition of work; was different than the west. India was not exposed to the industrial revolution unlike the west. The concept of work or occupation selection was determined by the two systems: the varna system and the caste system. The Varna is an older system than the caste system; the varna was based on the four-fold classification of occupational roles ie the gunas the sattvik, rajasik, combination of rajasik and tamasik and the tamasik. According to the varna system the allocation of work was based on the natural tendencies a person had; that were: the gunas. Later a new system was evolved from the varna system i.e. the caste system. The caste system led to a many knotted sub system or sub caste leading to the formation of specialized groups for certain occupation/activity. The mobility from this system which was created was close to impossible as it then later became the part of family traditions and heredity acquisition. This was all so prominent until the British invaded India and it lead to the formalization of education and vocation.

Empirically the formal movement of career counselling can be traced back to early 1938 when the Acharya Narendra Dev Committee underlined the importance of

guidance in education. Various committees and commissions (e.g. The Mudaliar Commission, 1952; the Kothari Education Commission, 1964-66) since then had subsequently made recommendations for the formalization of guidance and counselling services at the national level.

The big five theory of career development have been the building blocks for career developments. Though all the approaches quoted above have its own set of problems, but in the present research work we have tried to study the impact of various antecedent of career planning in the phase 1 of the research. In the second phase we have tried to study how career planning impacts the consequences i.e. (employee engagement: vigour, dedication, absorption; happiness and career satisfaction) through the mediators networking organizational career management. And in the third phase the consequences of career planning is researched.

The present study has been conceptualized at three levels: antecedents,correlates (the mediators) and the consequences. The rest of the chapter is organized around these themes.

Antecedents of career planning process:

Personality

Personality is the blend of traits or qualities that typical makes up an individual. It also includes fairly consistent prototype of behaviour and affect of an individual.

Cattell (1965) tried to explain personality in an equation format $R=f(S, P)$ was (R) is behavioural responses of a person (S) is situation and (P) is personality. Cattell explains the behavioural responses (R) of a person is function (f) of the situation (S) confronted and individuals' personality (P).

Schultz & Schultz (2005) defines personality as “the unique, relatively enduring internal and external aspects of a person’s character that influence behaviour in different situations” (p.10). Personality refers to a pattern of collective behavioural, emotional, mental, and personal characteristics or trait . The research in the area of personality can be traced back to the era of great Greek philosophers Hippocrates, Plato, Aristotle. There after number of personality theories emerged: trait, type, psychodynamic, humanistic, biological, behaviourist and social cognitive. The trait theories of the personality have been the most dominate among all the approaches. The five factor model by McCrae & Costa or the big five had emerged because of decades of research in the area of personality where both these researchers were trying to find out about a bigger construct that would define personality holistically then limiting it to number of attributes (McCrae & John, 1992).

Personality is the most widely researched topic in psychology. Though; the concept of personality is also covered in the areas of researches of career planning but neither directly nor widely. It could be concluded from the empirical work existing that the construct of career planning (Gushue, Clarke, Pantzer & Scanlan, 2006; Rogers, Creed & Glendon, 2008), can be linked to career decision self efficacy (Taylor & Betz, 1983) including career indecision (Gianakos, 2001), career choice commitment (Jin, Watkins & Yuen, 2009; Wang, Jome, Haase & Bruch, 2006), pro-activity or career initiative etc (Bullock-Yowell, Andrews & Buzzetta, 2011; Hartman & Betz, 2007; Rogers et al., 2008; Wang, et al.,2006).

In the present research a shorter version of Eysenck’s Maudsley Personality Inventory (1959) is used. This personality inventory assesses two traits: neuroticism and extraversion. The current existing literature; in the areas of career and personality has mostly assessed the big five factor. However; the five factor model has also emerged

from the basic two tenets of trait research (Cattell, 1965; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1963). There are empirical evidences existing in literature for extroversion and neuroticism and how it affects the planning, exploration, decidedness, self efficacy, pro-activity and gathering of occupational information by people for their career. For e.g.: extroversion, and low neuroticism are the prominent personality traits relating to improved career information-seeking and decidedness (Lounsbury, Hutchens, & Loveland, 2005; Reed, Bruch, & Hasse, 2004). In a study done on the US and the Chinese college student it was found that there is a significant relationship between Career Decidedness Self Efficacy (CDSE) and extroversion and low neuroticism (Chen, Feng & Zuo, 2006; Hartman & Betz, 2007). However in the same time period a study conducted by Wang et al. (2006) on white college going students found that personality traits were independent of commitment process and when CDSE was infused as a mediator it fully mediated the relationship between extroversion and introversion. The results were partially different in the case of Asian and Asian Americans students both extroversion and introversion affected the career commitment directly and indirectly through CDSE. In most of the studies (Andrews, & Buzzetta, 2011; Hartman & Betz, 2007; Jin et al., 2009; Rogers et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2006), it was found that extroversion positively affected CDSE for both white as well as student of colour. Neuroticism affected CDSE negatively for college students of colour but not for whites. Similar results were found in studies from Australia (Rogers et al., 2008), China (Jin et al.,2009) African American and among Caucasian college students (Bullock-Yowell et al.,2011).

Also, in the review of literature it was seen that factors like extroversion and neuroticism are the consistent predictor of CDSE (Hartman & Betz, 2007). Similarly extroversion has been associated with openness to exploration and career planning;

whereas, people with neurotic traits engage in fewer such behaviours (Judge & Ilies, 2002; Tokar, Fischer, & Subich, 1998, Super, 1980). Evidence exist which depict positive relationship between emotional stability and career planning (Rogers, et al., 2008) or adaptive personality and career exploration (Kracke, 2002).

Research has linked proactive personality to career variables such as career success (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Seibert, et.al, 1999) and career initiative (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). It is also found to be positively associated with extraversion and negatively related to neuroticism (Major, Turner & Fletcher, 2006). There is gender similarity found in the relationship between personality and career decidedness (Lounsbury, Hutchens, & Loveland, 2005).

The limitation to restricting oneself with personality assessment for career planning could provide a very narrow view pertaining to parameters affecting career planning. It would be beneficial to review other factors affecting career planning few of them are described in detail below.

Interest

Vocational interest is one of many variables included in most models of career planning. Assessment of interests is an integral element in career planning interventions. Indeed, interests assessment is the most frequently assessed construct in career planning/decision (Rayman & Atanasoff, 1999). Interest can be defined as a preference for activities expressed as likes or dislikes (e.g., “I like golf” or “I dislike selling things”).

Vocational interest taking a formal shape can be dated back in the era of Parson. Post that many more theories had emerged but only 5 vocational theories were rooted

enough to survive the odds of criticism. They are: Holland's theory of vocational personality types and work environments; the theory of work adjustment; Super's life-span, life-span theory of career development; Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise; social learning theory of career choice and decision making and the social cognitive career theory. Though each of the theories mentioned above have certain elements of the construct-interest. However the Holland's theory of vocational personality types focuses most explicitly on interests (Holland, 1997).

In the current research work also the same approach is used for assessment. The SDS Self Directed Search form (R) developed by (Holland, 1994), was used for assessing the areas of interest, of the samples. The six areas of interest were: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional. Western researchers have proven that career and occupational interests emerge as early as in eighth grade among students (Tracey, Robbins, & Hofsess, 2005; Wimberly & Noeth, 2004). In another work by Tracey & Robbins, they had observed that the interest become clear as student's progress through high school. The interest of students tend to develop, at the same rate whether these interests include working with numbers or ideas, having technical and scientific careers such as engineering, or having social careers, such as teaching or social work. Interest assessment is said to be an effective tool in helping college students engage in career planning and exploration, including such activities as selecting a major, planning for employment after college, and choosing extracurricular activities of interest (Harmon, Hansen, Borgen, & Hammer 1994). In a study by Leuwerke, Robbins, Sawyer, and Hovland, (2004) they found that students who have interests that are consistent with their college majors, are more likely to remain in college. Further, they are more satisfied with their work. Other than college majors and career planning interest is found to be related to and is developmentally

influenced by certain other factors such as intelligence (Kaufman & McLean, 1998), personality (Barrick, Mount & Gupta, 2003; Holland, 1999; Larson, Rottinghaus & Borgen, 2002), heredity (Gottfredson, 1999; Lykken, Bouchard, McGue & Tellegen, 1993), traditions (Fouad, Harmon & Borgen, 1997), culture (Fouad, 2002) and gender (Harmon, Hanson, Borgen & Hammer, 1994). It is interesting to note here that there are a number of studies conducted on gender and interest. It is seen that interest as a factor is not gender neutral there were areas of interest where the researcher found males, had higher average scores on realistic, investigative, enterprising, and conventional interest while females would have higher average scores on social and artistic interests (Harmon et al., 1994; Fouad et al., 1997). And similar results were found in another study by Thompson, Donnay, Morris and Schaubhut (2004) in the last decade.

Despite Holland's (RIASEC) concept has its origin in the west and it is the most widely used tool for career assessment but the debatable question is - is RIASEC culture free? There are mixed responses for the same in the Asian context. In a study conducted on college students in Hongkong by Farh, Leong and Law (1998) the circular RIASEC model fit the sample well but not as well as it fits the US population. They found that individuals who had more traditional Chinese values are less likely to pursue careers that are in line with Holland's theory than individuals with less traditional Chinese values. However another study conducted in Singapore showed the same adequate stability in the RIASEC models as it was in the case of US population (Soh & Leong 2001). The similar findings were obtained when an assessment based on the tenets of RIASEC model was administered in India (Leong, Austin, Sekaran & Komarraju, 1998). Does SDS interest scale based on the RIASEC model help students? The results largely support the argument (Krivatsy & Magoon,

1976; McGowan, 1977; Zener & Schnuelle, 1976). The assessment of interest also increased the number of career alternatives considered and explored and decrease in need of counselling. This resulted in occupation fit because of increase in career search behaviour (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2000). In another work by (Zener & Schnuelle, 1976) on high school students who completed the SDS interest inventory reported lesser need to see a counsellor immediately than students who did not complete the SDS. However; a research done which involved the control group also showed no significant gains in career maturity after the administration of SDS (McGowan, 1977). College students taking the SDS have also been found not to differ from those in control conditions with respect to vocational identity or, need for occupational information (Micceri & Phelps, 2002), amount of career knowledge and perceived career decision-making competence (Healy & Mourton, 1984). A Meta analysis done by (Whiston, Brecheisen & Stephens, 2003) showed that a career intervention done with the help of SDS is not optimal because it has lesser effect than intervention which involve a counsellor. Though; there are mixed reviews regarding the influence of interest on career planning but in longitudinal studies it was demonstrated that there is considerable stability of interest over time Swanson (1999). Lubinski, Benbow and Ryan (1995) found that there is little change in interest of gifted adolescents.

To conclude it would be apt to consider Swanson (1999), opinion:

interests are particularly stable after the age of 30. The research on interest stability and change suggests that differences found in interests for different age group cohorts then are not likely due to changes in interest patterns over time. Instead, it is possible that age cohorts exposed to different environments

and differing opportunities to explore and develop interests may result in differing interest profiles (pp.135-158).

This could be considered as one of the reason to look at the some more factors which could influence career planning in a youth life. The next factor which is considered by the researcher is work value motivator.

Work Values/ Work Motivator

Work Values/work motivation play a central and vital role in a person's work life as work values have been argued to be "salient, basic, and influential" in guiding work behaviour (Ester, Braun & Mohler, 2006, p.92). Work values also have something in common with personal values (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999). Super (1970) defined work values as goals that one seeks to attain to satisfy needs which are intrinsically desirable. Feather (1982) views work values as a category of motives that act as principles or measure to rouse belief and actions related to career development. Authors also see work values as wide tendencies which makes one prefer certain characteristics of jobs, there outcomes and work environment (Furnham, Forde & Ferrari, 1999; Hofstede, 1998) some define it as desirable mode of behaviour (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998); still other see it as way of work life or ethics, ideologies or philosophies (Jones, 1991; Trevino, 1986). The pioneering work on values can be dated back to (1951) when Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma investigated the role of values in the occupational decision-making process. Dukes (1955) conducted a very famous study where he investigated how human values affect aspiration, choice and development of a person's vocation.

Work values have been related to career planning because work values have been considered as individual differences in career planning process (Holland, 1997; Super,

1980; Sverko, Barbarovic, & Sverko, 2008). It is evident as empirical research exist that in the process of career exploration, one goes on the quest of identifying their interest, abilities, preferences and their work values (Patton & Porfeli, 2007; Zimmer-Gembeck & Mortimer, 2006). It is rightly put by Zytowski (1994), in his work after reviewing the contributions of Super and Ginzberg on work values, that work values of late has become as abilities and interest in the context of career development.

Work values are characteristics that workers find most important and desirable in their jobs. Work values are said to be influenced by one social context as well basic individual needs, local culture (Hofstede 1998; Furnham, Petridges, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod, 2005). They are also influenced by age group (Johnson, 2002).

There are a number of definitions, by different researchers who have worked on this concept because of which there are different methods to evaluate work values (Furnham et al., 2005). Few examples are: Dawis and Lofquist (1984) were pioneers who studied values at work places they defined work values as “second-order needs” in work adjustment theory (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). They proposed six value dimensions that are organized into three sources of work environment reinforce: self (achievement and autonomy), social (altruism and status) and environment (safety and comfort). The self-determination theory (SDT) makes a distinction between intrinsic (fulfilling of inherent psychological needs such as autonomy and competence) and extrinsic (material aspects of work, such as pay, benefits and job security) work values (Kasser, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Based on the structural model of Elizur and colleagues (Elizur, 1984; Sagie & Elizur, 1996), they defined these dimension as cognitive, instrumental, social/altruistic and prestige values. Schwartz's (1992) four higher order dimensions of universal values were intrinsic, extrinsic, social and status categories.

All these models had some elements in common. In the current research work, we have used four dimensions of work values they are: survival and safety motives, affiliation motives, self-esteem motives, and fulfilment motives of by Braddy, (2008). It could be assumed that survival safety motives could be similar to the extrinsic values; affiliation to social values; self esteem motives to status and fulfilment to intrinsic. All these work values have implication on career/job selection, college major's selection, family formation etc. Johnson (2005) found that work values formulated before joining work force influences jobs, personality and also decision of family formation. Work values play a significant role in majors selection at college because there are differences found in the work values of different majors graduates (Cassar, 2008; Hagström & Kjellberg, 2007; Shaw & Duys, 2005). Students enrolled in medicine & natural science majors placed a greater emphasis on self-enhancement work values (e.g., achievement at work, advancement and promotion, as well as being fair and wanted prestige in their work) than students of humanities & social science majors.

Up till this stage in review of literature work values are seen as individual preferences. But are these preferences stable? There are evidences that the stability is influenced by age as it was found that level of stability was lowest during college years (18-22 years) and is more steady after entering the workforce (22 years and later). Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Alexrad, and Herma (1951) stated that values undergo several changes before finally stabilizing during late adolescence. In three different studies by Sheldon (Sheldon, 2005; Sheldon, Arndt & Houser-Marko, 2003; Sheldon & Kasser, 2001), it was found that values change because of liberal environment and unconstrained thinking away from the materialism and extrinsic values, similar findings were also reported by (Blomquist, Cruise, & Cruise, 1980; Kuh, 1976).

The reverse is also observed when people join work force. It is reported that they are more attuned to the realities of life making more money, having a comfortable lifestyle, keeping a family they are inclined towards the extrinsic and materialistic version of values and as and when they progress there is a shift in the value system towards the status and latter intrinsic values (De Cooman et al. 2009; Riordan, Griffith, & Weatherly, 2003; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008). Research also exist which state that age (Twenge, 2010); labour market, social policy, and educational or promotional opportunities (Super, 1995); economic change (Inglehart & Baker, 2000); environment (Brown, 1996) can affect and bring changes in work values. Brim and Kagan (1980) proposed that values tend to alter in the duration of one's life. Also Schwartz and Bardi (1997) pointed that individuals enhance the value of values they are not able to acquire and reduce the importance of values they are not able to attain.

Gender and work values have an important and significant relation. Personal value orientation has identified gender has an important orientation of values (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). It is believed that men prefer the extrinsic values more like authority, financial rewards, job security etc as well as status outcome like independence, mastery, dominance, and competitiveness (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Wherein, women are seen giving important to intrinsic aspects of work like affiliation and quality relationship with co-workers, supervisors (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). In a study by Johnson, (2005) the gender view surfaced as men and women entered their family life. Men were seeing their presence as providers so the focus was more on the extrinsic values because of which they could support their families and less on satisfaction derived from the other values. The relationship of extrinsic values and gender to occupational choice behaviour was also reported by Brady and Brown

(1973). Work values are said to be more stable than personality traits when vocational interest of adolescence are investigated Low, Yoon, Roberts and Rounds (2005).

Overall work values are more of intrinsic factors affecting career choices but there are certain social factors too which affect the career planning process.

Social Support

Gottlieb's (2000) view on social support are; "process of interaction in relationship which improves coping, esteem, belonging, and competence through actual or perceived exchanges of physical or psychosocial resources" (p.28). Researchers have described five types of social support as emotional, esteem, network, information and tangible support (Schaefer, Coyne & Lazarus 1981). The literature on social support (Ali & McWhirter, 2006; Ali & Saunders, 2009; Gushue & Whitson, 2006) shows a positive relationship with vocational outcome. It has been observed that lack of social support hinder the career development process (Lent et al., 2000). It was also found in a study by Quimby O'Brien, (2004) that both perceived barriers and social support were positively related to career decision.

In the present research work we have used the multidimensional scale of perceived social support it has three dimensions: family, friends and significant others. The work on review of literature for the three dimensions could be found below:

Family

The three dimensions of MSPSS has have been widely researched in the past as well and new studies emerge each year but the most well reached domain, among the three dimension, is family. Family in India is the most important institution. Indian culture is usually characterized as collectivist who emphasizes honesty, family devotion, and harmony. Hui and Triandis (1986) defined collectivism, which is the opposite of individualism as, "a sense of harmony, interdependence and concern for others"

(p.244). More specifically, collectivism is reflected in greater readiness to cooperate with family members and extended kin on decision affecting most aspects of life, including career, choices, mate selection & marriages (Hui & Triandis, 1986). Indian child rearing practices, family structure, hierarchical social organization and value systems promote social support and interdependence hence independent decision making may not be directly nurtured in an Indian child (Sinha, 1979). However, this needs to be really explored in the current scenario. The definition of family is complex in the world today; it may involve parents, kin, kiths and at times neighbours. But most of time the ultimate decision makers in the family are the parents.

Literature review on the issue of parental influence on career development emphasizes the role of the family in the development of several life stages (Whiston & Keller, 2004). Ferry (2006) reported that people who had no support by peer and family had difficulty making professional decisions. Qualitative research on social support demonstrates- people consider their families as considerable resource for gathering information about their career decisions and in seeking role model (Schultheiss, Kress, Manzi & Glasscock, 2001; Schultheiss, Palma, Predragovich & Glasscock, 2002). There is a belief among students who perceive they have support from their families because of which they would succeed, they also experience less career indecision, and easily adapt to the transition from the educational institution to occupation (Hamamcı & Hamurlu, 2005; Kenny, Blustein, Chaves, Grossman & Gallagher, 2003). It is also established in the review of literature that students who showed more affection towards their wards investigated more about academic and career options (Vignoli, Croity-Belz, Chapeland, de Phillipis, & Garcia, 2005). According to a study by Turner, Brent and Pecora, (2002), seventy three percent

working women specified that their father strongly influenced their career choice. A study conducted on the Asian American parents showed that they provided strong parental guidance to their children for their career (Leong & Serafrica, 1995). Family support in terms of emotional, financial, encouragement, guidance and open communication have found to be facilitating the career decision in a youth's life (Fouad, Kantamneni, Smothers, Chen, Fitzpatrick & Terry, 2008; Young, Friesen & Dillabough, 1991). It is evident from the data presented above, that family support is seen as the most integral support available for vocational or career decision (Paa & McWhirter, 2000; Whiston & Keller, 2004; Hartung, Porfeli & Vondracek, 2005). Latest study suggest: beliefs system of parents also influence youths ability viewpoint impacting youths accomplishment and career decisions (Gunderson, Ramirez, Levine & Beilock, 2012).

Friends

According to Obanewa (1994), peer groups are usually made up of playmates, friends or people within the same age bracket. They serve as confidants to their members. In most cases they belong to same social group where they share the same values and ideals. Our career paths is being influenced by the immediate environment conditions such as friends, peers and social networks (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1996). According to (National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling UK [NICEC],1996) identified number of factors that influence career decision in a young person's life, peers & friends were one such important factors. It was stated that peer and friend can offer new ideas and provide information but they can also exert pressure to conform when making choices thus an ambivalent state prevailed regarding the influence of friends and peers NICEC (1996). The similar findings were also reported by (Fisher & Padmawidjaja, 1999).The role of peer is important in a young person life

as it was observed people who didn't had any support had difficulties in professional choices (Ferry, 2006). Researches have shown that greater peer attachment was related to progress in committing to a career choice (Felsman & Blustein, 1999). In late adolescent career choices and planning are influenced by peer (Felsman & Blustein, 1999). It is seen that peer play significant role in decision of taking STEM subjects as careers in case of both boys and girls. Though it has also shown mixed results regarding its benefits (Crosnoe, Riegle-Crumb, Field, Frank, & Muller, 2008). In absence of mentors, peers may act as mentors and influence career decision making process in an individual's life (Kram & Isabella, 1985).

Significant others

Significant others are those individuals who are of sufficient importance in an individual's life. They affect an individual's emotions, behaviour and their sense of self. The term "significant other" was coined by Sullivan (1989). Woelfel (1967) defined "significant others as particular persons from whom the individual obtains his/her level of aspirations, either because they serve as models or because they communicate to him/her expectations of performance". Campbell (1968) observes that "the really meaningful significant others in the adolescent's life space are his fellow adolescents". Significant other in a youth's life could be a girlfriend or a boyfriend their spouse or either a person who he/she values the most. The relationship one forms with significant others are specific form of peer relationship and they also share a social network which is most influential in life phase like education, work life and marital plan. In a study by Otto (1977) the finding showed that girlfriend are significant others who influence young men career aspiration and achievement. In recent years the influence of significant people on one's career have attained much concentration (Ali, McWhirter, & Chronister, 2005; Gushue & Whitson, 2006; Lent et

al., 2000; Metheny, McWhirter & O'Neil, 2008). The number of research article written mostly on the two dimensions of social support is family and peer. However, the last dimension significant others is less researched overall. Though, as some of the quoted studies indicate that significant others could be a very important aspect of social support which needs to be taken up in the research. The present research has taken into account all the three aspects of the social support.

Socio Economic Status

According to American Psychological Association (APA) Task Force on Socioeconomic Status (2007) define socio economic status as

“socio-economic status is commonly conceptualized as the social standing or class of an individual or group. It is often measured as a combination of education, income and occupation. Examination of socioeconomic status; often reveals inequities in access to resources, plus issues related to privilege, power and control” (para.1).

Socio-economic status plays a significant role in an individual's life (Liu, 2002; Maher & Kroska, 2002) it is proven even in spheres like educational, occupational choices and in its attainment (Brown, 2000; Turner & Lapan, 2003). Researches show that there is positive relation existing between SES and persons (Bigler, Averhart, & Liben, 2003) educational expectation, aspiration (Bachmann & Dalton, 2002) career decision making efficacy (Ali, McWhirter & Chronister, 2005) and career maturity (Creed & Patton, 2003). The studies done in the late 70's and early 80's concluded that SES and the school attended had played a significant role in career maturity of people (Ansell & Hansen, 1971; Neely & Johnson, 1981). Brown, Darden, Shelton and Dipoto(1999) reported that adolescent from a lower SES background were likely

to have poor schooling, had few role models, less financial support and this influenced their self efficacy beliefs and career expectation in the negative sense. However the opposite existed for the upper SES adolescents which also favoured their growth (Neely & Johnson, 1981).

The review of literature in the western world has attributed that social cognitive variable about self, the world of work with socio –economic status influence career decision making (Wilgosh & Mueller, 1993; Chartrand & Rose, 1996). It also created a belief system in individuals. Further some study was done by the Indian researcher to study the effect of these belief systems developed by lower SES high school students. It was found that the students from these groups believed that they should not pursue further education; as it would not alter their present condition in any manner, which forced them to enter the workforce early without any proper education or skill (Arulmani, Van Laar & Easton, 2003). Studies suggest that these negative patterns are not internalized by an individual they are transmitted through a common culture which run in a community in forms of social learning. It influences an individual's skill development, belief systems and world view (Krumboltz & Nichols, 1990). This learned helplessness makes the youth from low SES backgrounds put less efforts in career development activities e.g. seek less guidance from school and parents regarding their career (Blustein et al., 2002). It is also observed in studies that students from low SES background have little knowledge about colleges, academics etc (Fallon, 1997; Valadez, 1998). Wherein, children from high SES background get more attention from their parents. As they engage them in learning opportunities, read more for their children, and have more meaningful and deeper conversations (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002).

This gap makes the students from low SES background often struggle to keep up with their classmates from higher SES households (Vail, 2004). In the existing literature Wong and Lui (2010) found that there is a positive association between socio-economic indicators and career advancement expectations. It was also discussed in the same study that income of parents and socio-economic status often set a stage for experience that influences many dimensions of their children's lives, including the educational opportunities. This was further supported by the socialization theories that people from privileged families, were exposed to greater educational opportunities and financial resources and exhibited higher career aspirations (Schoon, Martin & Ross, 2007; Schoon, Ross & Martin, 2007). Wont and Lui also reported in their research work students whose parents had low income were impacted by the economic restrains while making career choice. Gender also played a significant role in the career choices of individuals from varying economic background. In a study by Ashby and Schoon (2010) found that female adolescents from high income families were more likely to rate having a job that enables them to aim high, also their family acted as role models. Wherein, it was opposite for the female from low SES families it was seen they had no or low ambitions. It was also shown that the motivation of males from high SES family was not influenced by the income of their family but by the challenge of making good money (Ashby & Schoon, 2010). Another work of research by Jhaj and Grewal (1976) investigated about the aspirations of the high and low SES high school students it indicated that levels of occupational aspiration tend to follow a hierarchical order corresponding to the SES levels of the respondents. However in a study by Davies & Guppy (1997) the findings were: students from homes having low incomes were likely to opt for well-paid occupations. This is an

interesting lead; however, a lot of research is indeed needed to check the phenomena in the Indian setting.

Gender

In the INSTRAW glossary of gender related terms and concepts gender is defined as

“Gender refers to the array of socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis. Whereas biological sex is determined by genetic and anatomical characteristics, gender is an acquired identity that is learned, changes over time, and varies widely within and across cultures. Gender is relational and refers not simply to women or men but to the relationship between them” (para.5).

It is apparent from the definition above that gender is determined socially. There are set of roles emphasized for each gender. But there is wide latitude of acceptable behaviour for each gender (Hesse & Carger, 2000). However the definition or the description of gender above; doesn't speak about the distribution of resources or powers one attains being from a particular gender. WHO in 2001 defined “gender as it refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female at a particular point in time” (Bridge Report, 2006, para.6). The International Fund for Agricultural Development (2000) defines that “gender relations are complex systems of personal & social relation of domination and power because of which both the gender members are facilitated and through this the member of the gendered group have access to resources and power”(p.4).

Does gender influence one's career? Osipow & Fitzgerald (1996) stated that “Gender is clearly one of the most powerful of all influences on vocational behaviour” (p.63).

Women started to enter the work force by 1960's in the west wherein men were already the part of work force since the unrevealed era. According to Nieva & Gutek (1981) even though the number of women joining the work force had increased but they were largely present in the traditionally female oriented careers like nursing, teaching, social work, admin, clerical job. These careers were/are not only conventional but also paid less and had lower status (Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin & Frame, 2005). These jobs which were taken by women reinforced the stereotypical work roles (Watson, Quatman & Elder, 2002). This become an ongoing process which creates a vicious circle of low paying jobs and less work experience (because of leaves or break a woman take for social and biological obligation in her life) (Day & Newburger, 2002). The discrepancy in the earning of both the genders can be attributed to the traditional male and female role and occupation. Till date there exists a difference in the ratio of men versus women in professional/technical education as these were/are populated by the males. The numbers of women joining this work force are paid 20% less than men (Graham & Smith, 2005). This is another cause identified because of which women experience discrimination or quit and do not adopt these masculine careers. Lately researches have recognized gender as an organizing principle in all social institutions, from educational institutions, workplace to legal systems etc. This lead to growing demands of rectifying the gendered environment of socialization in schools. Number of studies and experiments were conducted to find out the underlying cause of this discrimination.

However, the teachers in the schools were emphasizing that their practice of teaching are 'just in nature' while teaching students of both the genders. Though, it was observed that the incidents of sexism were manifested in forty five percent of the eighty six classrooms. The most common practice initiated by teachers was sex

reinforcement, active discrimination through (linguistic usage, interpretation of literary texts, and visual displays). Lee (1994) reported in half of the eighty six classrooms observed in the study there were instances of equity- practiced. Equity practices framework leads to consider a conscious and differential treatment of girls and boys in order to achieve equal outcomes.

The teachers who practice it are resistant to sex-role stereotyping, compensatory recognition of female achievement, and affirmation of girl's abilities, skills and performance (Lee, 1994). All this affects the performance of the students whether its a boy or girl.

For some it could facilitate performances and for others it could act as a barrier. Few practices by the teachers affect the cognitive process of the students e.g. sex role tying (Allard, 2004; Robinson, 1992) or messages by the teacher (Jones & Dindia, 2004).

The biased expectations of teachers may then become self-fulfilling when students respond to them (a Pygmalion effect). Suppose math is considered as a masculine subject (Francis & Skelton, 2001) and if teachers have the same set of belief it would create a Pygmalion effect among girls leading to low self esteem for this subject. This is identified as one of the prime reason for losing interest in subjects that would have led to male dominated careers. There are a few other reasons for losing interest in male dominated career, low motivation provided by the teacher because of gender stereotypes associated with work or very few numbers of role models in some industries.

The same effect if applied to male's wherein math or science is repeatedly affirmed as male subjects would lead to self fulfilling bias of being good in the subject and hence taking it as formal careers (Francis & Skelton, 2001).

Career Planning and Work Experience:

The introduction of career such as traditional, protean and boundary less, open, new age; career planning appears to be an unending process. It is quite common that people change their jobs or altogether take a new perspective on their career and start afresh. There is evidence to suggest that work experience is important in identity formation and development of an independent self. Though the process is significant throughout one's life but is more salient in adolescent and young adulthood (Grotevant & Cooper, 1998; Zimmer-Gembeck & Collins, 2003). It is also observed that work experience helps an individual to dwell deep and introspect what are the qualities that she/he liked about their work what they enjoyed the most, this process also helps them to identify what they didn't like about their work. What skills were important in their first job or internship as compared to the next one? It also gives them space to explore about their career choices based on their gender, socio economic status, background, future plans etc (Finch, Shanahan, Mortimer & Ryus, 1991; Steel, 1991). Work experience also gives youth an opportunity to interact with others in the field, than just people from their close network (Finch et al., 1991; Feij, Whitely, Peiro & Taris, 1995; Kenny, Blustein, Chaves, Grossman & Gallagher, 2003). These new people whom they meet at work places, other than the safe family network one operates through, before joining work help youth to develop identities and make them imagine a new definition of possible self.

The additional information and resources shared by these new set of people in the network benefit individuals when they start working, provide knowledge about occupational options as these people also act as mentors and role models (Mortimer, Finch, Shanahan, & Ryu, 1992). Economists too emphasize that both education and work experiences are important for human capital formation (Becker, 1993). But all

this doesn't happen in a short span of time though, it is an ever evolving phenomena but it takes time for a new employees (a youth) to understand the dynamic of work and in parallel experience what this work brings along. This is not only explored from a lens of networking and organizational career management in our study but also from the perspective of how work experience affects one's definition of career planning and its consequences.

Thus, the present research aims to compare two groups of employees (that is less experienced viz-a-viz more experienced employees) in terms of antecedents, correlates and consequences. The first group comprised of youth with 0-2 years of work experience and the second group had youth with 4-6 years of experience. The bifurcation in the groups had been done based on the empirical data existing on labour statistics. It was shown in a report released by the United States department (Bureau of Labour Statistics [BLS], 2014) on employee tenure summary, that the median tenure of worker in the age groups of 25 to 34 is three years with their employer. In the same report it was also observed that a median number of years a salaried worker was employed with the same employer were 4.6 years and this data remained unchanged from 2012. It was also interesting to note that the seventy two percent of younger workers switched jobs in the tenure of less than a year and that percentage fell to nine percent with the worker in the age group of 55 to 64. Also, there were differences found based on the industry employees were employed in example the median tenure of employee in the management, professional service based occupation was 3.3 years, for education training and library was 6.2 years, for service and food industry was 2.2 years. In an article in people matter ninety one percent of millennial expect to stay with their employer for less than three years. Based on the literature existing on employee tenure it was assumed that the two groups could be bifurcated

on the years of experiences they hold. It was assumed that there would be differences found in the patterns of behaviour of employees who have just joined work also known as new entrants and re-entrants to the workforce in comparison to the employees who have worked for tenure of 4 to 6 years.

The second phase of the current research is to study the mediating role of networking and organizational career management: on the consequences of career planning process. Therefore the mediator variables in the context of career planning are discussed below:

Networking

Networking has been defined as act of making contacts, exchanging valuable professional information with people, groups and institutions. Networking is a relationship constellation that is typically characterized by fewer roles and that the relationship tends to be less intense and personal than a mentoring relationship. The behaviour patterns in networking are used often to build and maintain informal contacts which enhance career success (Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Michael & Yukl, 1993). Networking is said to be technique for maintaining and shaping career (Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Sturges Conway, Guest, & Liefoghe 2005). This informal relationship maintained through networking facilitates the performance of employees as because of this they are voluntarily granted access to number of organizational resources.

Networking is an essential quality required in today's world of work and employees are held responsible for their career progress and growth. The notion of career has drastically changed. Networking is a proactive approach towards work life which indeed is good for one's career (Forret & Dougherty, 2004; King, 2004). It is said to

be different from the reactive approach of work life, because it is directed towards an intended impact (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Researchers have observed in the past that successful managers use to spend seventy percent of their time networking and ten percent more time in routine communication (Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkrantz, 1988). It is found that networking behaviour is not restricted to office setting only but exists outside work places also (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Scholarly research has shown that networking is also positively related to objective and subjective measures of career success (Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Langford, 2000).

There were three central concepts identified in the area of networking: function, source, and structure (Podolny & Baron 1997). Network functions are the resources one has access to because of the set of relation he/she has with others. Podolny and Baron (1997) identified five distinct network functions: social support, mentorship, buy in (backing that comes from key members of the organization and is essential for a worker to succeed), strategic information, and task advice. They had also suggested that such resources may be affiliative, expressive, or instrumental.

Kin, friends, co-workers, and other professional contacts are sources of the network (Wellman & Wortley, 1990; Wellman, 1992). Network structure has an array of element, like tie-closeness, network range, and network strength (Burt 1992; Ibarra 1992; Podolny and Baron 1997).

The network size (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001) and strength (Higgins & Kram, 2001) are the two characteristics of network that influences the flow of information and power provided. The network size and its diversity are directly proportionate to the amount of information gained and utility of information (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Seibert et al., 2001). The strength of the network predicts about the solidarity (Adler & Kwon, 2002) present in the network and the reciprocity (Higgins & Kram, 2001) of

the influence members experience and exert on each other. Researchers have identified the role of the network range in one's career progress and change. Network range referred to the number of different relationship categories to which network members belong (example religious places, educational institutions, working spaces). It was found in studies that people with greater network range were more likely to change careers due to the exposure they have experienced.

Network closeness or tie closeness is reflected by the emotional intimacy among the members in the network. It provides emotional aid and companionship to members (Wellman & Wortley, 1990). Though this form of closeness help the network members but not in all aspects. Podolny and Baron (1997) found that network closeness is fruitful in the context of promotion. However it is not the case when one is seeking prospects like advancement where networks serve to provide task advice and strategic information functions. In this given case the weak tie network works Granovetter (1973, 1974). Researchers suggest that weak ties benefit people more, as they get information about employment - from acquaintances that inhabit varying social, professional, and geographic circles. Whereas close friends have access to the same information and they recycle that information among the network (Granovetter 1973; Burt 1992). A number of other studies have found that closes ties were beneficial for mentoring relationships whereas weak ties which are distant and dispersed were beneficial for job attainment and advancement (Granovetter 1973; Burt, 1992; Wellman, 1992). The description of network and its concept alone does not solve the riddle behind how networking helps and who benefits from networking. It is seen in the studies done that networking is more beneficial for men in comparison to women. The reasons for the same can be attributed to the less influential position of women in organization and lack of access to important contacts (Ibarra, 1993;

Wellington & Catalyst, 2001). It was also found in certain studies on networking that women mostly work for small organization, or places which have intimate culture (eg schools, hospitals etc). This reaffirms their socialized gender roles and lower the effect of networking benefits for advancement (Podolny & Baron, 1997; Burt, 1998). Studies on networking show: men occupy central position are more influential and powerful (Baker, 1994; Wellington & Catalyst, 2001) also inquire for increment in the pay (Wellington & Catalyst; 2001) when taking additional responsibility. Whereas, it is difficult for women because they always feel that they are on balancing beams managing family and work (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). However, there is some evidence showing that networking is one of the important strategies for women to break through the glass ceiling (Baker, 1994; Catalyst, 1999; Wellington & Catalyst, 2001).

Organizational Career Management:

“Organizational career management (OCM) has been described as a series of formal and less formal activities designed and managed by the organization to influence the career development of one or more employees” (Arnold, 1996 pp.511-20). Thereby, to improve organizational effectiveness. Orpen (1994) stated that “organizational career management covers the various policies and practices, deliberately established by organizations, to improve the career effectiveness of their employees” (pp.27-37). Organizational career management are experiences an employee obtains being part of the organization which help career growth. It involves work, initiatives, programs, policies or various projects and profile handled by an employee. Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne & Liden (2003) studied the relationship between organizational career management and perceived career support it was found that the career management

support given by organization was also seen as a form of perceived organizational support. Organizational career management can also be seen as formal and informal activities such as trainings, personal development plans, mentoring and networking (Kraimer et al., 2003; Sturges, Guest & Mackenzie Davey, 2000; Sturges, Guest, Convey & Mackenzie Davey, 2002).

Organizational career management is one of the important factors for employment. Armstrong and Murlis (2007) reported that new recruits do not hesitate asking about the organizational career management policies because of fewer promotion or low vertical movement opportunities in the organization. This has evolved because of the notion of boundary less career where both (DeFilippi & Arthur, 1994) the employer and employee understand that there is nothing as a lifelong career (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). Though till this date a concept of psychological contract exist (Rousseau, 1995) between the employer and employee. But the definition of career management has certainly changed. This phenomenon of organizational career management keeping the constraints of psychological contract and boundary less career can be understood with the help of the social exchange theory. Blau (1964) stated that if employees receive support from their employer in the form of career development (e.g. training, job enrichment etc), then in return they will be reciprocate appropriately (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Sturges et al. (2000) found that if organizational career management meets employees pre-joining expectation it increases the positive outcomes towards the organization. There is a link which exists between the organizational career support and perceived organizational support (POS) as it provides a sense of assurance that any aid required will be available to carry out a task/job effectively even in stressful situations (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993). In the similar line of

research, organizational career development is identified as a significant factor in employee's personal and professional development (Lee & Bruvold, 2003). Organizations managing employees careers by supporting their professional development is considered motivating (Gilley & Maycunich, 2000a, 2000b; Murphy, Cross, & McGuire, 2006; Tharenou, 2001). In a report by American Society of Career Development (2012) employers are doing a lot under the umbrella of organization career development. For example US organizations spent 156.2 billion dollars on employee training (ASTD, 2012). It was also in this report that direct expenditure on learning had increased from 2.7 to 3.2 percent and career planning of employees by the organization and has been found to be critical for keeping the valued employees in organizations (Gaffney, 2005). Similar findings were reported by Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997). Employees consider growth in the organization as very critical, be it with the help from the organization or by their own effort; it is the integral part of survival in the work setting. Branham (2005) identified seven reasons for employee's turnover and one of them was- little growth and advancement opportunities. Similar findings were also reported in Harvard Business Review by Hamori, Cao, and Koyuncu (2012) wherein the young managers reported that organization satisfies largely their on the job needs but not something beyond it like training, coaching etc which is the prime reason for many to quit.

Where to draw the line between the elements of organizational career management and self career management is a topic of debate (Gunz & Jalland, 1996). Some authors have criticized the demarcation boundaries (Cohen & Mallon, 1999) and explained- individuals construct their career within organizations with the help of organizational career management systems and not limiting their growth to personal management (Lazarova and Taylor, 2009). Hence it would be beneficial to see both

organizational career management and career management by oneself mutual and complementary (Sturges et al.2000 Sturges et al., 2002).

The third and the final phase of the current research, is to study consequences of career planning process of youth. In this regard work engagement, happiness and career satisfaction are discussed below:

Work Engagement

Work engagement is described as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is associated with vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002, p.74). Operationally the components of work engagement are described by Schaufeli, et al. (2002) as

Vigour refers to the high levels of energy and mental resilience experienced during work, the willingness to expend effort in one’s work, and persistence when facing difficulties. Dedication is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge, and is usually considered a further step of involvement. Absorption refers to being totally immersed in work during which time passes quickly and one finds it difficult to detach oneself from work (pp.71-92).

These three states are viewed as components required in the work setting for employees to be engaged. They are physical component: vigour (e.g., “At my work, I am bursting with energy”); emotional component: dedication (e.g., “I am enthusiastic about my job”) and cognitive component: absorption (e.g., “I am immersed in my work”). For Schaufeli et al. (2002) work engagement is a relatively stable state of mind: “rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour” (p. 74). It is also considered as a work related

mood (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). There are two theoretical frameworks of work engagement: job demand-resources model developed by Demerouti (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011) and the conservation of resources model (Hobfoll, 1998, 2001).

In the JD-R model, there are two processes, job demands (JD) and job resources (JR). JD refers to the physical, social, and psychological – such as cognitive or emotional – organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort (Demerouti et al., 2001). JD includes work overload, role stress, role conflict, time pressure, emotional demands, and work family conflict. JR refers to the physical, social, psychological, or organizational aspects of the job that may help individuals achieve work goals, reduce the level of JD and the related physiological and psychological costs, and promote individual development and progress (Hakanen et al., 2006; Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). JR includes job autonomy, job security, social support, performance feedback, organizational justice, and organizational climate (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). According to this model, the job demands predict work engagement negatively, and the job resources relate positively to work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). It is also proven that job resources act as a buffer against the negative impact of job demands (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005).

The resource based theory- conservation of resources (COR; Hobfoll, 2001) works on principles of maintenance and accumulation of valued resources. Additionally, the COR theory assumes that the relationship between resources and work engagement is not unidirectional, it is dynamic and mutual (Hobfoll, 2001). It means that employees having additional job resources are more likely to feel engaged in their work, which in turn can lead to gaining additional job resources (Hakanen, Peeters & Perhoniemi,

2011; Hakanen, Perhoniemi & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008; Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009; Weigl, Hornung, Parker, Petru, Glaser & Angerer, 2010; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009).

It is evident from these theories that job resources as well as personal resources (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008) are required for work engagement. Job resources represent characteristics of the job that are functional in obtaining career-related objectives and it helps to develop oneself and it also lessens the job demand (Demerouti et al., 2001; Tremblay & Messervay, 2011). There are few studies where career orientation is shown an antecedent of work engagement (Van, Deacon, & Rothmann 2010 ;Bakker et al., 2005, Hakanen, Bakker, Schaufeli 2006; Langelaan, Bakker, van Doornen & Schaufeli 2006; Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova,2007).

However researchers Mauano, Kinnunen and Ruokolainen, (2007), wrote research on work engagement has remained scarce because the concept is relatively new. It may be hypothesized that career planning and work engagement should be positively related to each other. The present research aims to explore this linkage indirectly in the phase two and directly in the phase three.

Happiness

Myers and Diener (1995) defined “happiness as the experience of frequent positive affect, infrequent negative affect and an overall sense of satisfaction with life as a whole” (pp.10-17). In a book on happiness by Veenhoven (2010), happiness is defined as “the degree to which an individual evaluates the overall quality of his/her life-as-a-whole favourably”. Happiness at workplace allows one to optimize performance and achieve potential results. As Aristotle (2002, 1102a3) words existed

in Kenny (1992) “happiness is the supreme good that supplies the purpose, and measures the value, of all human activity and striving. ‘It is for the sake of happiness’ he wrote ‘that we all do everything else we do’ ” (para.2). He also quoted that happiness is always sought for its own sake and never for the sake of anything else. According to (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002), happiness is the most sought after emotion in the world and is the precursor to the many activities and cognitions a human experiences at work place. Such as, income, favourable evaluations by a superior (Cropanzano & Wright, 1999), helping fellow workers (George, 1991), support from colleagues and supervisors (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998).

Three components of happiness as identified by Peterson, Park, and Seligman (2005) are hedonism, meaning, and engagement. Here they define hedonism as maximizing pleasure and avoiding pain (Waterman, 1993). Hedonism can be explained well with its element like pleasure, ecstasy, rapture, warmth and comfort. A life lead around these is a pleasant life. The next aspect of happiness is engagement and according to Csikszentmihalyi (1997), it is experienced by highly creative individuals who become completely absorbed in their work, losing all track of time. He also referred the same as flow, in which the feeling of being merged with the object is experienced. The concentration required when experiencing a flow uses up one’s cognitive and emotional resources completely. It is also said that this experience of flow has no shortcuts in fact it’s like identifying your highest or greatest strength and learning to use them often so you could experience the flow is engagement. The third facet of happiness is meaning, and meaning emerges from the feelings, one experiences; that they are part of something bigger than their self. Seligman (2002) defined these approaches/facets as three different but better routes to happiness in his positive psychology book. Researchers also suggest that happiness could be bifurcated into

two forms: hedonic and eudaimonic. In hedonic type of happiness self is given utmost importance. According to Baumgardner and Crothers (2009), hedonic happiness is what most people yearn for: a happy and satisfying life, in which good things and pleasant experiences outnumber bad ones. Whereas, the eudaimonic type of happiness incorporates concepts which are mightier than self e.g. realization, actualization, pursuit of a meaningful life, introspection etc. This bifurcation in the types of happiness is also culture specific. The eudaimonic type is practiced on the eastern side of the globe whereas the hedonic type is practiced in the west. This could have implications on the people practicing it because of their variation in cultures (Srivastava & Misra, 2003).

In addition, researches exist which show that people who are happy are also satisfied with their jobs and describe their jobs in a positive manner in comparison to people who are unhappy (Fisher, 2002; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Chermont, 2003). It is also found that happy people are popular and liked more. Burger and Caldwell (2000) found that people who were happy had a greater probability of attaining the chance for a second interview in comparison to their peers also the chance of getting employed again was higher for a happy person in comparison to an unhappy person (Marks & Fleming, 1999). Employees' happiness is a major research concern in an organizational field (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009).

Is there any connection between one's career planning and happiness? Career experiences and success both are positive and important determinants of happiness (Judge & Locke, 1993). Duffy and Blustein (2005) found that meaning and engagement had a significant and positive relationship with vocational identity among college students. It is also interesting to note that in a study by Peterson et al. (2007)

the hedonic approach to happiness was unrelated to the vocational identity achievement. Also in the same study it was observed that regardless of age or school level meaning and engagement were related to vocational identity achievement. The experience of meaning was seen as a vocational identity capital (Côté, 2002) which helps develop a more self-directed and successful coping strategies for developmental tasks, throughout an adolescent life. Peterson et al. (2005) found that young adults endorsed hedonism as the strongest of the three approaches to happiness. Career experiences have been found to be positively associated with happiness, however only a limited number of studies explored this relationship. Though, the relationship with career planning and happiness could not be found in the review of literature. It could be hypothesized that happiness could be the aftermath of effective career planning. Taking the same assumption exploring this relationship in the present research was decided.

Career Satisfaction

“Career satisfaction refers to a person’s subjective reflection and evaluation of his or her professional development across individually relevant dimensions” (Heslin 2005). In the definition above the concept of career satisfaction is viewed as a person’s subjective experience. The theoretical framework to explain career satisfaction would be through the fit theory (Kristof 1996; Caligiuri and Phillips 2003).

French, Rogers and Cobb (1974) explained this phenomenon through introducing a distinction between objective fit and subjective fit in the person–environment (PE) fit model. Here Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) defined objective fit as “the match between P and E as it exists “independently” of P’s perception’ and subjective fit ‘as the match between P and E as they are perceived and reported by P” (p.15). This

concept was further explained by drawing a distinction between career success and career satisfaction in a study by Ng , Eby, Sorensen, and Feldmam (2005). According to Ng et al. (2005) terms like ‘success’ is linked to objective and ‘satisfaction’ to subjective career experiences respectively. If we take the practitioners framework, then career success begins with career satisfaction. Most literature in the field relates to career success (Bozionelos, 2004; Seibert et al. 2001, Kraimer & Crant 2001). Career satisfaction tends to be seen as a subjective by-product of success. This was further emphasized in a work titled "conceptualizing and evaluating career success". Where objective career success is mainly seen/linked to promotion, pay and occupational status (Helsin, 2005) and subjective is defined by an individual's reaction or responses to his/her career experiences (Nicholson, 2000) i.e., career satisfaction. It is essential to take a note that success does not mean satisfaction or satisfaction is not success (Helsin, 2005). Overall it can be said that objective career success seems to be measured through tangible elements and mainly through external parameters (e.g. social position, income, occupational status etc), while subjective career success and satisfaction are evaluated through personal points of view. Though, Khapova, Arthur and Wilderom (2007) highlighted the need to explore the link between objective and subjective career outcomes.

Other than the link between the subjective and objective career outcomes the subjective career satisfaction is also related to personality. Seibert et al. (2001) reported that extraversion and conscientiousness are positively related to career satisfaction and neuroticism, agreeableness and openness are negatively related to career satisfaction. In a US based study on executives it was found that agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion positively correlated with career satisfaction (Boudreau, Boswell & Judge, 2001). Also, in a research work by Bozionelos (2004)

it was reported that extraversion correlated positively and significantly with career satisfactions of European executives. In contrast, they found that neuroticism correlated negatively with career satisfaction in both the US and the European executive samples. Similar results were also observed in a study by Seibert and Kramer (2001) on a sample of 496 workers. Research on personality, intelligence and career satisfaction done by Lounsbury, Gibson, Steel, Sundstrom, and Loveland (2004) suggested that a significant relationship between intelligence and career satisfaction is observed.

Networking is also said to be positively related to career satisfaction as it supplies individuals with mobility and job opportunities (Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003). Large networks help one to get emotional support, assistance at work and most of time information about other career opportunities (Seibert et al., 2001). Similarly there is also relationship observed between mentoring and career satisfaction. This study also emphasized the importance of a mentor because mentors are seen as key to career success. Mentoring has been associated with subjective outcomes such as career satisfaction (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz & Lima, 2004). Happiness is also found to be related to career satisfaction (Bretones & Gonzalez, 2010; Burke, 2001). There is an interesting finding reported in a research work of Burke (2001), using different samples of managerial and professional women in five countries: Bulgaria, Canada, Norway, Philippines and Singapore. The results indicated that managerial and professional women reported more subjective career success (e.g. job satisfaction, career satisfaction) and had higher levels of psychological well-being than men. Some other factors affecting career satisfaction are job-experience, salary hike (Seibert, Crant & Kraimer 1999), hours worked (Wallace, 2001) and satisfaction with the opportunity to achieve career goals (Reitman & Schneer, 2003).

To sum it up personality precedes all other factors affecting career satisfaction (due to its developmental perspective). Costa & McCrae (1994), in their review of personality stability literature states that somewhere between age 21 and 30 personality appears to take its final, fully developed form. Since personality affects all work related factors e.g. learning (Ford & Oswald, 2003), satisfaction (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002) and performance (Salgado, 1997). Hence if one has to study career satisfaction as a phenomenon should consider first controlling for personality traits. Therefore; given the time and energy that people typically invest to attain individually important needs and goals in their career, career satisfaction results partially from the subjective evaluation of whether these goals have been attained (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995).

The indirect relationship between the antecedent and the consequences through the mediator will be tapped through the mediation analysis. Mediation analysis will be run in the second phase of the study. As it is a novel methodology; very few research evidences, pertaining to the parameters, of the current study could be located.

However there is dearth of literature in the given area.

Mediation

The review of literature on the antecedent/X career planning, the mediators/M networking and organizational career management and the criteria/Y work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption), happiness and career satisfaction have been covered at length in the previous section of the chapter. In this section we run parallel multiple mediation analysis to explore the indirect linkages between predictor and the criterion through five mediators. The parallel mediation is done by the macro (process) of Hayes (2013). This process is a plug-in, which uses an

ordinary least squares or logistic regression-based path analytic framework for estimating total, direct, indirect and specific effects in multiple mediator models (Hayes, 2013). As process uses bootstrapping, therefore in order to make meaning out of the direct/indirect paths, bias corrected confidence intervals have been used at 95% level (Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). A diagrammatic representation of the model could be located in the chapter 2. The parallel multiple mediation model is similar as any simple mediation model where the independent variable affects the mediator variable and then the mediators variable carries the effect of independent variable on the dependent variable. In the parallel mediation model, there is the possibility of using maximum ten mediators simultaneously in one model. Five mediators have been used in the present research the detail of which can be found in the introduction as well as in the chapter on method. Hayes process yields direct effect (IV & DV), total indirect effect (all the indirect pathways) and specific indirect effects of all the mediators in the model along with their bias corrected confidence intervals. The direct paths between IV & DV have been covered already in the chapter above. This section explores indirect effect where the IV's effect is carried through the mediator on the DV. There are few studies where mediation technique is used in the context of career. Some of them are socio economic status and career (Ginevra, Nota & Ferrari, 2013); social support (Zhao, 2011); personality (Arora & Rangnekar, 2015); career engagement Kim et al. (2013); work engagement (Poon, 2013). In the quoted studies also, it is suggested, indirect pathways is a new phenomenon and the number of studies in the literature pertaining to this technique are limited. Hence the present research is a modest attempt to fill this gap.

In this research there was possibility of using mediators at 2 levels between antecedent of career planning (personality, interest, work motivation, social support

system, socio economic status, gender, work experience) and consequences (work engagement, happiness, and career satisfaction) and also between career planning and outcome variables work engagement: vigour, dedication, absorption; happiness and career satisfaction. The main thrust of this research has been to explore how career planning process would influence outcome variable directly or through mediators. However, career planning was used as an independent variable when mediation was introduced in the study because of two prime reasons.

1) In the review of literature of theories of career planning it was observed that not even a single paradigm of career planning exists which holistically covers the notion of career (Brief, 1998). Each theory had its own drawbacks but represented some component of career antecedents. In reference to this, (Chen, 2003; Savickas & Lent, 1994) have emphasized the need for the convergence of old and the postmodern theories. Because of this, studying career planning compositely was more fruitful.

2) Running mediation with number of antecedent of career planning would have made the results of analysis dispersed and cumbersome to comprehend.

The main thrust of this research has been to explore how the career planning process would influence outcome variable directly or through mediators. Following this line of argument the present researcher has also built/ introduced mediators in between career planning and outcome variables.

As the technique for mediation analysis is novel in the field of social sciences. The research literature using the same technique is also limited. But there are numbers of studies existing where the construct of career planning, networking and organizational career management has been studied and how these variable - networking and OCM are affecting the dependent variable i.e. work engagement, happiness and career satisfaction.

In a research work by (Forret & Dougherty, 2004) proposed networking as a technique for maintaining one's career (Sturges et al., 2005) in the same study networking is seen affecting subjective and objective career success/career satisfaction. Similar results were reported by (Michael & Yukl, 1993; Langford, 2000; Orpen, 1996). In a few more studies networking was found to be positively related to career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, Feldman, 2005; Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005; Hall, 2002).

In the same way for one to identify how organizational career management or networking, mediates the process of affecting the dependent variable e.g. work engagement, happiness and career satisfaction one should understand the five skill postulate by Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz (1999). According to Mitchell et al (1999) curiosity, persistence, flexibility, optimism, and risk taking, all five skill are required in the world of work today where one is uncertain about their career. Having these skills makes one- career ready. These five skills help an employee to attain job resources as well as converse these resources. These can also be seen as career planning skills which ideally should be available in an employee to survive in today's market place. Because of this organizational career management and networking mediates the effect on the dependent variable. This could be understood with the help the JD-R model i.e. the Job Demand-Resources model developed by Demerouti (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The job resource components of the JD-R model correlates well with the organizational career management as well as networking. And the job resources positively relate to work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). Similar format of findings were evident in the case of the conservation of resources theory by Hobfoll (2001) having more resources makes

one- more engaged (Hakanen et al., 2011; Hakanen et al. 2008; Weigl, et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Here resources are again linked to organizational career support provided to the youth by their organization.

The perceived organizational career management also significantly predicts employees' satisfaction and hence affecting career satisfaction (Eby, Allen, & Brinley, 2005; Sturges, et al., 2005; Sturges et al., 2002).

Happiness is the only DV where no study could be found linking career planning to the mediators networking or OCM through which the DV could be influenced i.e. the indirect effect could not be located for this variable in the theoretical sphere. But there were studies found which showed that there could be direct effect existing between career and happiness (Judge & Locke, 1993; Peterson, Ruch, Beermann, Park & Seligman, 2007). Though evidence could be located that there are number of studies existing when one wishes to explore organizational career management, networking, work engagement, happiness and career satisfaction but not many to understand how the dynamics of mediation works when career planning is being studied.

Rationale:

The process of career planning when done by the practitioners in the markets involves a thorough explanation of the psychometric report generated after an analysis. In the process career practitioners assess people interest, personality, aptitude and work values. Most of the practitioners in the area of career planning globally rely on the standardized scale for the same. Some of the Indian market players are: Mera career guide, Young Buzz, Jumpstart.

For tapping the components like socio economic status, educational majors or some components of the postmodern theories like gender, race, caste (in our nation) the practitioners prefer to use the basic demographic form.

The review of literature done to understand the theoretical framework behind career planning could be found in the section on the theories of career planning. Empirically five career theories have been seen to influence the theoretical and the practical application in the field of career planning.

However none of these theories cover the process of career planning in a holistic manner. The limitations of the career theories suggest that the theories are bigot, certain concepts are hard to operationalise (e.g. prestige), theories have a bend towards individualistic cultures etc. Based on review of literature it can be understood that in India there is no theory which is indigenous enough to explain this process for the varied population existing in the country. Though there is a large percentage of youth in India, but there is no process of career planning which is common for all.

In a report by Map My Career (2015) it was stated that an average Indian student starts to plan their career in eights standard. In recent studies by Yadav (2014), it was reported that only a small percentage of students are able to choose right career because they had consulted their parents, teachers or an elder members of their family and similar results were reported by Edward and Quinter (2011). Students self motivation and the motivation provided by their parents both has been seen in an Indian study as an important predictor of one's career (Reddy & Rajaram, 2015).

In another study by Shumba and Naong (2012) parents, teachers and students ability to identify career choice has been seen as factors influencing career. Peer pressure is also considered as an important factor influencing career choice (Arudo, 2008). All

the antecedents affecting career planning of youth have been covered well in review of literature.

Number of factors or antecedents have been identified which affect the career planning process of an individual but a youth still stumbles in their initial job or work due to no or poor information about the nature of work they would perform. This is because of wrong career (Salami, 1999) or specialization selection.

This scenario generally has two set of people: one who obtain some amount of career counselling and others who have not received any. It is also proven in the empirical work by OECD/ILO (Giving Youth a Better Start 2011) “high quality career guidance can help youth make better informed decision about their future”. In context of subject selection, major/specialization selections in college for better employment prospects.

However, career guidance/planning process suffers from issues like no support from the management in schools, poor or under qualified instructors, no resources or governing bodies existing for a timely exchange of information about the labour market and delays in career guidance (OECD 2011). Though there is some format of career planning practiced in schools or done by private vendors. It is limited to few and mainly existing in the tier 1 cities of the country. Some of these private vendors are trying to explore new markets in tier 2 cities but due to the lack of skilled and scalable resources they also experience constraints of this industry.

The scenario with a set of youth who have never experienced any aspect of career planning/counselling is a state of concern. This represents that career planning is in its infancy and its scope for growth in terms of the number of youth it has to cater is infinite.

The current state of youth, whether they have received any professional help or not in the areas of career planning is a matter of concern. This is because data existing globally shows a dismal scenario where it is hard for the employers to fill vacancies as requisite skills are missing in youth to perform in the world of work (Talent Shortage Survey, 2011). In India 51% of the employers reported the same. It could be concluded that there is lack of clarity in selecting subjects at school or majors at college which causes lot of difficulty to recruiters globally in recruiting employees. This was reported by 34 percent recruiters internationally in the Manpower group report on Talent Shortage Survey (2011)

There is widespread unemployment in the world. United Nation reported, in the World Youth Report (2012) reported 75.8 million youth were unemployed by the end of 2010. ILO reported youth unemployment rate of 40 percent globally. This led many youths to take any job or work, sometimes for making a living or to overcome the social pressures put by the society.

In this process where the youth took chances in their career has lead to a beneficial outcome in the future for them. And the same has been reported by (Bright, Pryor & Harpham, 2005; Chien, Fisher & Biller, 2006; McKay, Bright & Pryor, 2005; Pryor & Bright, 2007).

For the present study the researcher aspires to explore what the effects are of these planned chances one takes in their career? Are there any differences existing; in the groups of youth who have certain years of experience versus the fresher's. Does having years of experience makes a youth make better use of these planned chances or planned happenstance (Mitchell et al., 1999) in their career scenario? And will the element of this planned happenstance (in our study networking and organizational

career management) have different effects on the consequences of career planning i.e. work engagement of employees their happiness and career satisfaction.

Research Questions

1. What are the Antecedents of career planning among youth?
2. What would be the effect of antecedent on the consequences through the mediators for the two groups of youth?
3. What are the consequences of career planning of the two groups of youth?

Hypotheses

1. The influence of various antecedents (personality, interest, work motivation, social support system, socio economic status, gender and work experience) would be different for the career planning process of youth.
2. The relationship between career planning process and outcome variables shall be mediated through five mediators: strategies for networking, who are in your network, who do you contact in your career network and why, does having people from different domain help and organizational career management would be different for each group of youth.
3. The influence of career planning on work engagement would be different for each of the group.
4. The influence of career planning on happiness would be different for each of the group.
5. The influence of career planning on career satisfaction would be different for