

alternatives for those who are pursuing higher education without particular interest or purpose. Simultaneously, the industrial sector faces acute manpower shortage, and the demand for vocationally trained workers is growing in geometric proportions. Yet, the number of individuals opting for vocational training is few and these students largely come from lower income groups (Rao & Shankar, 1977; Desai & Whitesaid, 2000; Arulmani, Van Lear & Easton, 2001). Beliefs and mindsets, therefore, seem to play a significant role in the way individuals and families are oriented to career preparation and development in India.

2.3. Quarter Life Crisis

Individuals are considered career undecided if they have either not established a career goal or they have set a career goal over which they experience uncertainty or discomfort. The early life structure for early adulthood ranges from age 22 – 28 years. Having already selected an occupation and an initial job, a critical first task of the early career is to become established in one's career and organisation. The new employees must not only master the technical aspects of his or her job, but also, must learn the norms, values and expectations of the organization. He needs to be accepted as a competency contributor to the organization.

2.3.1. Characteristics of Quarter-Life

- Feeling 'not good enough' because one cannot find a job that is at one's academic/intellectual level;
- Frustration with relationships, the working world, and finding a suitable job or career ;

- Confusion of identity;
- Insecurity regarding the near future;
- Insecurity concerning long-term plans, life goals;
- Insecurity regarding present accomplishments;
- Re-evaluation of close interpersonal relationships;
- Disappointment with one's job;
- Nostalgia for university, college, high school life;
- Tendency to hold stronger opinions;
- Boredom with social interactions;
- Loss of closeness to high school and college friends;
- Financially-rooted stress; (overwhelming college loans, unanticipated high cost of living, etc.)
- Loneliness;
- Desire to have children;
- A sense that everyone is, somehow, doing better than you .

This catch-22 is tough for college students: one must have a degree to get hired, but cannot get hired without 1-2 years of practical experience. This cycle is infuriating for recent graduates. The few graduates that do land a job after graduation usually have to work 12-15 hours per day at a job, but the job is not of their interest. The quarter life crisis or early life crisis is essentially a period of anxiety, uncertainty and inner turmoil that often accompanies the transition to adulthood and hence not getting qualitative work after their college just adds fuel to the fire and hence, after a couple of initial years at work, they suffer from quarter life career crisis. Based on literature review the researcher felt that Quarter Life Crisis with both the gender needs to be studied, along with employees with

varying years of experience and the four sectors .This gives rise to the first set of hypothesis.

As the first objective refers to an exploratory study, the hypothesis in this case is not formulated.

H2: There is a significant difference between Quarter Life Crisis of the employees with varying years of experience

H9: There is a significant difference between Quarter Life Crisis of male and female employees.

H13: There is a significant difference between Quarter Life Crisis across industries.

The Career Preparation Process Model

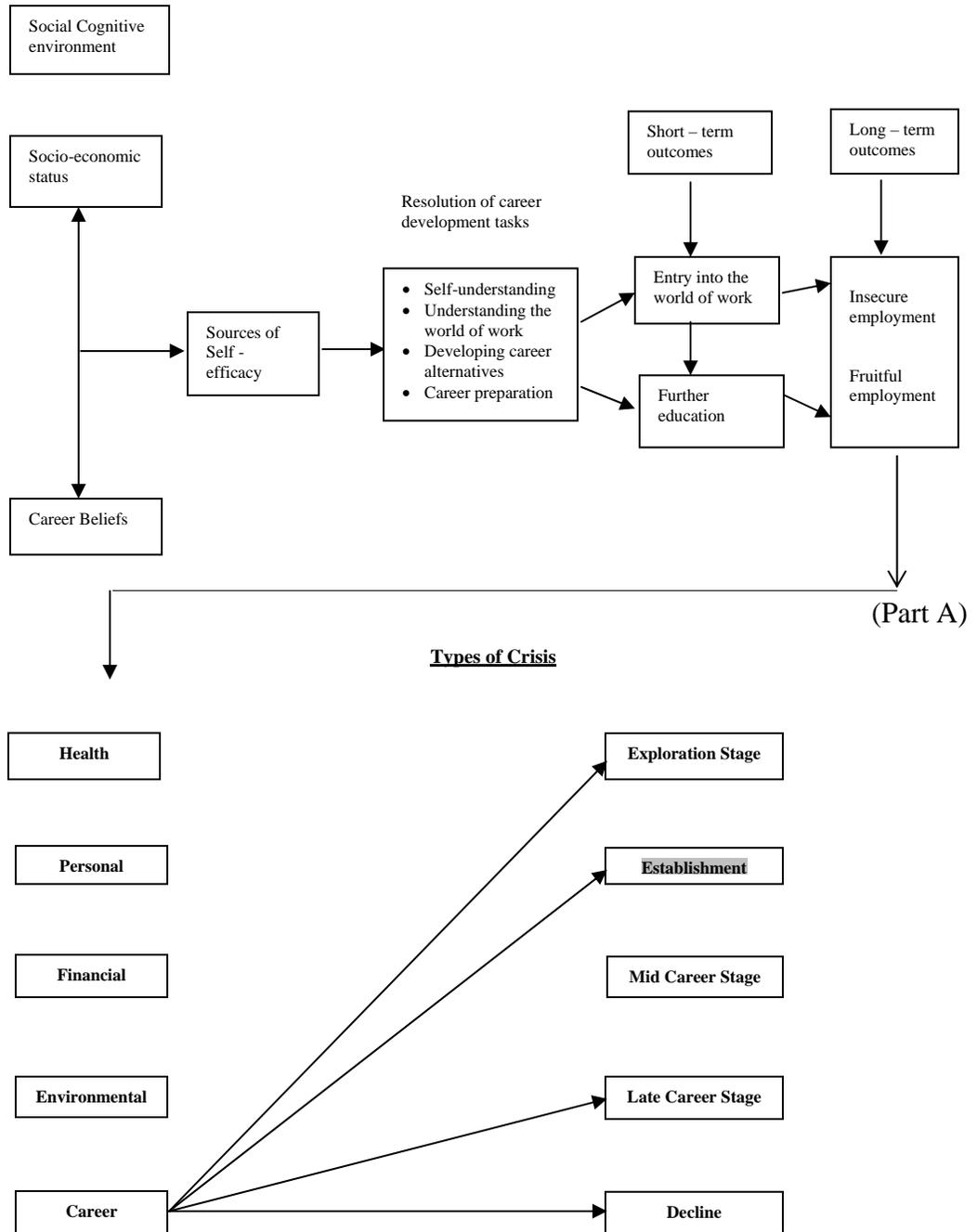


Figure no.2.4 (Part B)

Source: Part A: Arulmani, G & Nag-Arulmani,S.(2004). Career Counseling: A Handbook, 2004
 Part B: Developed by the Researcher

Part A of the model has been done in a cultural context in lower Social Economic Indian societies by Arulmani, G & Nag-Arulmani, S (2004),the model has been modified and extended by the researcher to adapt it to the study .

Various Stages in One's Life

Stage	Life's	Age
1	Infancy (Birth)	2 yrs
2	Early Childhood	2-5 yrs
3	School	5-9 yrs
4	Pre Adolescence	9-12 yrs
5	Adolescence	12-18 yrs
6	Early Life	18-23 yrs
7	Quarter Life	23 - 28 yrs
8	Stabilizing	28 - 35 yrs
9	Mid Life	35 - 45yrs
10	Later Life	45 - 60 yrs
11	Retirement	60 onwards

Table no. 2.2.

This chart has been prepared by the researcher after reviewing the works done by researchers such as Erikson (1956) Super (1957) and Douglas Hall (1976) in this area. This also partly coincides with the works of Levinson and his colleagues (1978) wherein Ages 22– 28 are called 'entering the adult world'.

2.4. Self Efficacy

Career counseling has grown increasingly complex in recent years. Current theories have gone beyond traditional formulations of matching persons and environments to considering broader socio cultural and cognitive factors. Researchers and practitioners in the field of vocational psychology have contended that effective career counseling requires the treatment of career concerns and psychosocial issues, as well as knowledge and efficacy regarding a variety of current career counseling skills (Chan, Reid, Roldan, Kaskel, Rahimi, & Mpofu, 1997; Lucas, 1993; O'Brien, Heppner, Flores, & Bikos, 1997).

Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as: "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments". According to Bandura (1997), self efficacy influences (1) the courses of action people choose to pursue, (2) how much effort people will put forth in a given endeavor, (3) how long they will persevere in the face of obstacles and failure, (4) people's resilience to adversity, (5) whether someone's thought patterns are self hindering or self-aiding and (6) how much stress and depression is experienced in coping with taxing environmental demands.

The central role of self-efficacy in human agency makes it an important and useful construct for empirical research. Because self-efficacy is a task-specific construct (Bandura, 1997), any attempt to measure self-efficacy should be contextually sensitive to the setting in which the behaviors occur. A rich and robust body of literature documents the relationships between self efficacy beliefs for teachers and students and their relationship to teaching and learning (Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, 1998). Self-efficacy has received extensive

attention and support in the literature as it relates to career development and academic and career decision making among women and students (Bvars, 1997; Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Gainor & Lent, 1998; Schaefer, Epperson, & Nauta, 1997; Tang, Fouad, & Smith, 1999).

The Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCOT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) provides a conceptual framework, which examines school counselors perceived efficacy in performing and the importance of the activity in relation to various career counseling competencies. The SCOT emphasizes the role of self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations in shaping interests, actions and performance.

Outcome expectations are beliefs about the probable outcome of behaviors. The perceived value or importance of the behavior and its anticipated results relate to interest in performing the behavior (Lent et al., 1994). According to the SCOT, interests lead to career-related actions and performance. Thus, it is valuable to learn about self-efficacy and perceived importance of career counseling competencies because counselor's perceptions regarding their ability to perform an activity and the relevance of the activity to their career counseling will influence their interest in that activity. Interest, in turn, affects actions and performance related to the activity (Lent et al, 1994).

In addition to studying the cognitive factors of career self-efficacy and importance, contextual factors affecting school counselors' practices were also considered. The SCOT states that contextual factors, such as an individual's work environment, affect learning experiences and influence career-related beliefs and actions (Lent et al., 1994). Based on this, we would predict that the setting in which vocational psychologists work will influence their beliefs about efficacy and importance. For example, beliefs about the importance of career counseling

competencies may be different for professionals employed as school counselors than for those employed as counselor educators and career guidance consultants.

The SCOT is a relatively recent career theory that has sparked much interest in the field of career counseling. In the past few years, researchers have been working to develop adequate scales for measuring SCCT constructs. O'Brien and colleagues (1997) developed the Career Counseling Self Efficacy Scale (CCSES), to measure career counselors' perceived competence in 10 key areas that were believed to encompass effective career counseling: creating a working relationship, conceptualizing underlying issues, developing counseling goals, applying career theory, making assessments, interpreting assessments, exploring options, making decisions, implementing programs, and working through special issues (O'Brien et al., 1997).

Building on Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory and Hackett and Betz's (1981) extension of self-efficacy theory into the career domain . Lent et al. (1994) expanded the concept of self-efficacy in the context of a conceptual model in which career development is viewed as a process that incorporates a person's cognitive processes, environment and contextual factors. Of particular interest within this framework is the construct of career self-efficacy and the influence of contextual variables (e.g. perceived barriers, acculturation and role model) on the formation of self-efficacy beliefs and career considerations. According to SCCT, contextual variables can have an indirect influence on self-efficacy and goals as background variables as well as a direct influence at the point in which decisions are made as proximal variables.

2.4.1. Research Studies - Self Efficacy & Social Cognitive Theory

An article by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1981) presented a social cognitive framework for understanding three linked aspects of career development: (a) the formation and elaboration of career relevant interests, (b) the selection of academic and career choice options, and (c) the performance and persistence in educational and occupational pursuits. The framework, derived primarily from Bandura's (1997) general social cognitive theory, emphasized the means by which individuals exercise personal agency in the career development process, as well as extra personal factors that enhance or constrain agency. More specifically, the authors focused on self-efficacy, expected outcome and goal mechanisms and how they may interrelate with other person, contextual and experiential learning factors

Since it was first introduced some twenty-five years ago, Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) has inspired a large and diverse body of research in social psychology. It has been used as a conceptual framework for explaining a variety of human phenomenon including academic performance, achievement behavior, alcohol and drug abstinence, career choice, decision making, gender differences in performance, goal setting and motivation, healthy life-style choices, job performances, sport and motor performance, and different forms of political participation. The SCT framework depicts any human phenomenon as being the result of a dynamic process consisting of reciprocal relationships among three categories of factors: the individual's social cognitions, the individual's behavior and the social context. Empirical support for the model is impressive (Locke, 1997).

Viewing leadership through the lens of SCT suggests that to fully understand the interactive and social nature of the leadership process, three categories of leadership variables must be considered. They are (1) leader behaviors, (2) the characteristics of the leadership situation, and (3) the leader's social cognitions. The actions of leaders, their personality traits and the factors in the environment have already been thoroughly studied by leadership researchers (House & Aditya, 1998; Phillips, 1995). Leaders' social cognitions have not been studied. Social cognitive theory provides a framework for understanding the nature of leaders' cognitions and the process by which these cognitions interact to produce leader behaviors.

The social cognitions involved in the self-regulation model include (1) the perceptual mechanisms that guide attentional and attributional processes (the causal reasoning process), (2) task schemata comprised of task-relevant knowledge, skills, and abilities, (3) personal goals, (4) task strategies or action plans, and (5) self-efficacy beliefs. The most influential of these cognitive structures, according to Bandura (1997), is self-efficacy, which is one's perceived capability to, "mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action necessary to exercise control over events in one's life" (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy is critical to the self-regulation process because it directly impacts the other four cognitive variables. Empirical findings based on SCT have validated the causal linkages among the five social cognitions comprising the self-regulation framework (Bandura, 1997).

2.4.1.1. Self-Efficacy Theory

The applicability of self-efficacy theory to vocational behavior was first suggested by Hackett and Betz (1981; Betz & Hackett, 1981) and has now been investigated

empirically in numerous studies. Briefly, as originally proposed by Bandura (1977), self-efficacy expectations refer to a person's beliefs concerning his or her ability to successfully perform a given task or behavior. Because self-efficacy expectations are behaviorally specific rather than general, the concept must have a behavioral referent to be meaningful. One could refer to perceived self-efficacy with respect to mathematics, initiating social interactions, investing in stocks, or fixing a flat tire. Because each type of self-efficacy is discussed in reference to a specific behavioral domain, the number of different kinds of self-efficacy expectations is limited only by the possible number of behavioral domains that can be defined. For the present purposes, any behavioral domain important either for choosing a career (e.g. career decision-making skills) or to succeed in a specific career (e.g. quantitative skills, leadership skills) may be relevant for the counselor and client to consider in counseling.

The concept of self-efficacy expectations is particularly useful for both understanding and modifying career behavior because it is embedded within Bandura's (1997) theory. Self-efficacy expectations are postulated by him, to have at least three behavioral consequences, they are: (a) approach versus avoidance behavior, (b) quality of performance of behaviors in the target domain, and (c) persistence in the face of obstacles or disconfirming experiences. Thus, low self-efficacy expectations regarding a behavior or behavioral domain are postulated to lead to avoidance of those behaviors, poorer performance of those behaviors, and a tendency to "give up" when faced with discouragement or failure.

More specifically, the concept of approach versus avoidance behavior is one of the simplest, yet one of the most profound in its impact, in all of counseling. In

the context of career development in particular, approach behavior describes what a person will try, whereas avoidance behavior refers to things he or she will not try. It thus encompasses both the content of career choice, that is, the types of educational majors and careers a person will attempt, and the process of career choice, that is, the career exploratory and decision-making behaviors essential to making good choices.

Determinants of Self Efficacy: The determinants of Self Efficacy are (a) performance accomplishments; (b) lower levels of emotional arousal; (c) vicarious learning or modeling; (d) social persuasion (e) goal setting and (f) outcome expectations.

Performance Accomplishments: Research has shown that performance accomplishment in career counseling has a positive impact on developing self-efficacy and interest (Heppner et al., 1996). With a sample of 290 counseling graduate students, Heppner and her colleagues (1996) found that the most positive influences on attitudes about career counseling involved working with career clients. In their qualitative comments, trainees indicated that they found the experience of integrating emotional-social and career concerns in the practice of career counseling exciting, challenging, and interesting. Perhaps positive experiences with career counseling can alter negative outcome expectations and lead trainees to experience the positive self-satisfaction inherent in providing vocational services.

Physiological and Emotional State of Arousal: People partly rely on their physiological and emotional states to assess their own capabilities and personal stress reactions tend to be interpreted as the precursor to poor performance. Such misinterpretations of physiological and emotional arousal could lead to low self-

efficacy beliefs for that particular career development activity. Career decision-making is often associated with high levels of stress, confusion and bewilderment. Quite often, admission into important courses is contingent on success in the face of intense competition. Sometimes, career choice could be associated with disappointments. When a career aspirant repeatedly interprets negative emotional states and uncomfortable physiological states as evidence of personal inadequacy for career development activities, self – efficacy beliefs for these activities could go down.

Modeling or vicarious learning: Modeling or vicarious learning of successful career counseling strategies can also contribute to developing robust efficacy beliefs. Trainees who are exposed to interesting client case presentations that result in positive outcomes might develop heightened efficacy beliefs.

Vicarious experience could be a powerful influence on career development. Those who have achieved career success could become role models and enhance young career aspirant's self-efficacy for career preparation. Being exposed to the failure of important role models could also have an impact on career development. The environment that socially and economically disadvantaged young people are a part of and the role models they are exposed to, often reflect failure experiences, with the bitter and defeatist attitudes of adults often being transmitted to the younger generation. Negative vicarious experiences such as these could contribute to lower self – efficacy for career preparation.

Social / Verbal Persuasion: Social persuasion is a third way of strengthening people's beliefs that they have what it takes to succeed. People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master given activities are likely to

mobilize greater effort and sustain it than if they harbor self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies when problems arise. To the extent that persuasive boosts in perceived self-efficacy lead people to try hard enough to succeed, they promote development of skills and a sense of personal efficacy.

Verbal persuasion can also be potent if professors are excited about and interested in career counseling. Conversely, Heppner and her colleagues (1996) found that students reported that well-taught courses that emphasize active learning and a holistic approach to career counseling were the second most important experience in developing positive attitudes toward career counseling (actual experience in counseling clients being the first). Positive outcome expectations regarding practicing career counseling could be developed if professors would point out the physical, social, and self-evaluative rewards that result from skilled career counseling.

Verbal persuasion refers to the individual being persuaded and encouraged by someone else that they possess the capabilities to master a task. Consistent verbal feedback that questions a person's capabilities could lead to an avoidance of challenging activities and promote the tendency to give up quickly in the face of adversity. Bandura (1995) says that by constricting activities and undermining motivation, disbelief in one's capabilities creates its own behavioral validation.

Goal Setting and Planning: This mechanism described by the Social Cognitive Theory that could be closely linked to career planning behavior. Setting a goal may be defined as the determination to engage in a particular activity or to affect a particular future outcome (Bandura, 1995). Goals operate principally through people's capacity to symbolically represent future outcomes and to react self-

evaluatively to their own behavior, based on internal standards of performance. Career plans, decisions, aspirations and expressed choices are all essentially goals mechanisms. Goals are an integral aspect of career choice theories. The Social Cognitive Theory holds that goals play an important role in the self-regulation of behavior. Goals help people organize and guide their behavior and sustain it over long periods of time, even in the absence of external reinforcement.

Outcome Expectations: Outcome expectations are consequences that a persons' anticipation would result from performing particular behaviors. Bandura (1978) describes an outcome expectation 'as person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes'. Outcome expectations have a special relevance to career development that often occurs in an environment characterized by imperfect linkages between the quality of performance and outcomes. For example, a person with high self- efficacy for the social sciences may choose to avoid careers related to the humanities if she anticipates negative outcomes from choosing to enter such careers. These anticipated negative outcomes might be non-support from significant others, work / family conflict, low levels of prestige attached to these careers, and so on. On the other hand (particularly in the Indian situation), more positive outcomes may be expected with careers in the sciences. Career decision-making, therefore, could be strongly influenced by what the career aspirant anticipates to be the outcome of making a certain kind of a choice.

2.4.2. Career Decision Self Efficacy

Because of its importance to career decision making and career interventions, career decision self-efficacy has received probably the most research attention relative to other domains of career behavior. Career decision self-efficacy was

originally defined by Taylor and Betz (1983) as the individual's belief that he or she can successfully complete tasks necessary to making career decisions. Career decision-making self-efficacy has been measured using the task domains of accurate self-appraisal, gathering occupational information, goal selection, planning, and problem solving. Probably because of its centrality to successful educational and career outcomes, factors related to career decision-making self-efficacy and the design and evaluation of interventions have received extensive attention from researchers (Betz & Luzzo, 1996).

Research indicates that career decision-making self-efficacy is related to other indices of adaptive career decision making. For example, there is ample evidence that career decision-making self-efficacy is inversely related to career indecision (Bergeron & Romano, 1994; Betz, Klein, & Taylor, 1996; Taylor & Popma, 1990). Career decision self-efficacy has also been shown to be related to high versus low vocational identity (Robbins, 1985), more adaptive career beliefs (Luzzo & Day, 1999), fear of career commitment (Betz & Serling, 1993), and career exploratory behavior (Blustein, 1989). Peterson (1993) found that career decision self-efficacy was related to academic persistence versus dropout in underprepared college students and that it surpassed all other variables as a predictor of academic and social integration of college students. Other studies have suggested that career decision self-efficacy can be increased through verbal persuasion, one of Bandura's (1978) postulated four sources of efficacy information (Luzzo & Taylor, 1994), through attributional retraining (Luzzo, Funk & Strang, 1996) and through a videotaped intervention designed to increase women's perceived career options (Foss & Slaney, 1986).

Scores on the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale (CDMSE; Betz, Klein, & Taylor, 1996) have been found to be moderately related to other measures of self-efficacy. For example, Betz and Serling (1993) found statistically significant correlations of .53, .21, and .29 with the Verbal, Quantitative, and Aesthetic subscales of Osipow and Rooney's (Osipow, Temple, & Rooney, 1993; Rooney & Osipow, 1992) Task-Specific Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (TSOSS) in a sample of 90 students. Betz and Klein (1996) reported correlations of .38, .37, and .26 between CDMSE scores and mathematics self-efficacy.

2.4.3. Performance as a Career Counselor

Lent and his colleagues (1994) also hypothesized that ability and prior performance, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and performance goals contribute to performance. In our example, prior counseling ability, career counseling self-efficacy, and goals should contribute directly to engaging in and performing competently in career counseling. Positive outcome expectations and self-efficacy would also influence performance indirectly through performance goals. Thus, training for students that (a) enhances career counseling self efficacy, (b) promotes positive outcome expectations, and (c) fosters goals related to providing career counseling should increase the likelihood that they will aspire to practice career counseling and become proficient in vocational interventions.

However, Bandura (1986) suggested that the most facilitative level of efficacy is that which slightly exceeds one's skill level, because this could motivate individuals to attempt behaviors that are likely to result in positive performance. Although increasing efficacy may seem like a reasonable goal, careful attention to appropriate levels of efficacy is critical to avoid over- and underestimates of

students' capabilities (O'Brien, Brown, & Lent, 1995). Too much confidence in performing career counseling might result in perceptions that vocational work is not challenging, important, or complex-beliefs promulgated by training programs in which less experienced students are assigned to counsel career clients

Influences on Career Development: Genetic endowments: Every individual possesses a set of traits, abilities and other characteristics, which are inherited. Race, sex and physical attributes (e.g. height, musculature, etc.) are examples of inherited, biologically determined influences on career development.

Environmental conditions: Career development is influenced by a variety of forces from the environment. Economic conditions, the type of job opportunities available, the educational system, prevailing attitudes to careers, are all examples of influences from the environment.

Learning experiences: A vital point made by the Social Learning Theory is that individuals have a particular history of past learning experiences. The quality of exposure to the world of work and the positive or negative impressions that have accumulated about a specific career area, work together to create a learning history that is unique to every individual. An individual's attitude toward work evolves over time and the quality of learning experiences mould career choices.

The Outcome of influences: According to Krumboltz's (1979) formulation, these influences work together to create certain outcomes that have a direct impact on career development.

According to Krumboltz's (1979) formulation, personal interests, values and task efficacy emerge as part of a person's self-view, which has an impact on that individual's career development and choice behavior. Self efficacy is a construct that acquires meaning within the context of a set of tasks. Our field experience indicated that an important career development task confronting the Indian high school student has to make a decision regarding what he or she is going to do after high school. In its most fundamental form this decision centres around preparing for a future career by pursuing further education or discontinuing education to seek employment. Based on the literature review, the researcher felt the need to study career decision self efficacy across industries, for both the genders and with the employees varying years of experience. This leads us to the next set of hypotheses:

H3: There is a significant difference between Career Decision Self Efficacy of the employees with varying years of experience.

H10: There is a significant difference between Career Decision Self Efficacy of male and female employees.

H14: There is a significant difference between Career Decision Self Efficacy across industries.

2.5. Career Anchors

Younger employees seek lateral rather than hierarchical career paths and these paths, upheld by career values or anchors, increasingly cross international borders. As never before, employees are questioning their need for job security and are seeking new definitions of organizational justice as a personal reaction to downsizing (Brockner and Greenberg, 1990; Dobbin and Boychuk, 1999; Feldman and Bolino, 2000; Fish, 1999; Greenberg, 2001). These assumptions are being challenged in today's complex world of job arrangements with highly divergent and diverse career paths (Bonner, 1997; Bridges, 1994). Early career research in the 1950s redefined "jobs" as a continuum of career experience rather than "just a job" (Miller and Form, 1951; Super, 1957). The earliest models emphasized the movement from college to stable professional employment, usually for a limited number of employers (Bridges, 1994; Schein, 1978). Holland (1973) developed the first and still most widely accepted theory related to career interests, which included elements of career congruence, consistency, and differentiation. These seminal studies lay the groundwork for Schein's (1974, 1978) development of his theory of "career anchors", exploring a broader view of careers by examining the interrelationships between individuals' career motives, talents and value

2.5.1. Career Anchors Theory

Edgar Schein (1975, 1978 and 1987) suggests that the life experiences that people undergo give them a more accurate and stable 'career-self-concept', a construct which he labels 'career anchor'. A career anchor has three components: (1) self-

perceived talent and abilities; (2) self-perceived motives and needs; and (3) self-perceived concept attitudes and values.

The first two are based on actual experience in a work setting, while the third is derived from the individual's reaction to a variety of norms and values encountered in different social and work situations. Schein (1978) regards a career anchor as: 'That one element in a person's self-concept, which he or she will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices (Schein, 1990).He posits that an individual's future career choices are affected as he matures and his anchor stabilizes'.

Career anchor theory was developed by Edgar Schein (1978) at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in the 1960s. The theory stemmed from a 10-12 year longitudinal study of 44 MBA graduates using in-depth interviews to examine job histories and the reasons behind career decisions. Career anchors emerged as a way of explaining the pattern of reasons given by the graduates as they progressed through their careers. While the research was built around a study of managers, career anchors are now widely applied to all levels of employees. Schein's (1974, 1978) career research questioned how and why individuals make career decisions. He conducted a longitudinal study from 1961 to 1973 in which he assessed the career motivations, educational and occupational histories, work values, work attitudes, future plans, ambitions, values, and self-concepts of 44 randomly selected Master of Business Administration (MBA) students. The result was the development of his theory of career anchors, which he defines as 'motivational/attitudinal/value syndrome that guides and constrains the person's career" (Schein, 1974).

A career anchor is a descriptive and predictive tool that "serves to guide, constrain, stabilize and integrate the person's career" (Schein, 1978). It is "inside the person, functioning as a set of driving and constraining forces on career decisions and choices" (Schein, 1978).

Schein (1974) concluded that five 'career anchors' existed, along with their inherent motivations. They were:

- Technical/functional competence (achievement of expert status among their peers);
- General managerial competence (willingness to solve complex, whole-of organization problems and undertake subsequent decision-making);
- Autonomy/independence (personal freedom in job content and settings);
- Security/stability (long-term employment for health benefits and retirement options); and
- Entrepreneurial creativity (opportunity for creativity and identification of new businesses, products or services).

Subsequent research (Derr, 1980; DeLong, 1982) added three more categories:

- Service/dedication to a cause (working for the greater good of organizations or communities);
- Pure challenge (testing personal endurance through risky projects or physically challenging work); and
- Lifestyle (obtaining balance between personal and the family's welfare with work commitments).

One of Schein's (1974, 1978) basic theoretical premises is that individuals' career values, motivations and attitudes are consistent throughout their careers after an initial adjustment following the first three years or so of workplace experience. According to Schein (1978), a person's abilities, motives and values are mutually interactive and inseparable. He also developed the theory of 'internal' careers (individuals' subjective opinions) and 'external' careers (the progression of positions or jobs). Schein (1980) describes internal careers as those "activities designed to help individuals develop a clearer self-concept around their own occupational activities, a set of plans that make sense to the individual". Additionally, the internal career 'reflects the goals and values held by an individual in relation to his working life and the criteria of success by which he judges himself' (Van Maanen and Schein, 1977). External careers refer to the "actual job sequence that specifies a path through an occupation or organization" (Schein, 1980).

The career anchor or career orientation is significant because it influences career choices, affects decisions to move from one job to another, shapes what one is looking for in life, determines an individual's view of the future, influences the selection of specific occupations and work settings and affects the employee's to his or her work experiences (Schein, 1975). Measuring an individual's career anchors makes explicit the career orientations of that individual employee. This information may allow the organization to restructure jobs to respond to individuals needs. It also serves as a useful information base for individuals contemplating career change and for organizations seeking to help individuals plan their careers (DeLong, 1982; Igarria, et al., 1991). Ginzberg and Baroudi (1988) noted that building a dual career ladder was the most commonly recommended Human Resource Management solution in research literature. The

dual career ladder allows an individual's career to progress in either technical or managerial directions. The dual ladder, however, may not deal effectively with the various career options desired by employees as it options will be sufficient. Baroudi (1988) provides evidence that such a division is ineffective.

An important point about Schein's (1990) career anchor theory is that despite numerous researchers' follow-up studies which have sought to refute the theory, the basic typology has held firm. These studies (Barth, 1993; Bonner, 1997; Hopkins, 1976; McLees, 1988; Pavel, 1991) have considered single professions, applied abstract concepts and used different research methodologies in examining career anchors. Schein's (1990) typology of career anchors is as follows:

- Technical/functional Competence: Primarily excited by the content of the work itself; prefers advancement only in his/her technical or functional area of competence; generally disdains and fears general management as too political.
- General managerial Competence: Primarily excited by the opportunity to analyze and solve problems under conditions of incomplete information and uncertainty; likes harnessing people together to achieve common goals; stimulated (rather than exhausted) by crisis situations.
- Autonomy/independence: Primarily motivated to seek work situations which are maximally free to organizational constraints; wants to set own schedule and own pace of work; is willing to trade-off opportunities for promotion to have more freedom.
- Security/stability: Primarily motivated by job security and long- term attachment to one organization; willing to conform and to be fully socialized into an organization's values and norms; tends to dislike travel and relocation.

- Entrepreneurial creativity: Primarily motivated by the need to build or create something that is entirely their own project; easily bored and likes to move from project to project; more interested in initiating new enterprises than in managing established ones.
- Service/dedication to a cause: Primarily motivated to improve the world in some fashion; wants to align work activities with personal values about helping society; more concerned with finding jobs which meet their values than their skills.
- Pure challenge: Primarily motivated to overcome major obstacles, solve almost unsolvable problems or to win out over extremely tough opponents; define their careers in terms of daily combat or competition in which winning is everything; very single-minded and intolerant of those without comparable aspirations.
- Lifestyle: Primarily motivated to balance career with lifestyle; highly concerned with such issues as paternity/maternity leaves, day-care options, etc.; looks for organizations that have strong pro-family values and programs.

Schein (1978) claims that each individual has only one true career anchor which emerges after the person has accumulated a meaningful amount of life and work experiences. Schein's (1978) main contribution is that his work describes how a stable career identity is formed and distinguishes this process from initial vocational choice (Feldman and Bolino, 1996).

According to Schein (1990), when individuals achieve congruence between their career anchor and their work, they are more likely to attain positive career outcomes, such as job effectiveness, satisfaction and stability. However, because people do not always work in jobs that fit their career anchors, large variations in job outcomes occur in the population. On the whole, however, individuals with congruence will most likely achieve higher career outcomes than those who have

failed to attain it. Schein (1978) and his students performed 15 studies on managers. The largest contained 44 participants (Schein, 1978), and the average sample size was 23 (Schein, 1987). Feldman and Bolino (1996) and Yarnell (1998) criticized the small homogeneous samples. Subsequently, Feldman and Bolino (1996) suggested that future research should: use heterogeneous samples such as Nordvic's (1991); and test the hypothesis that compatibility between a person's job and his career anchor leads to higher positive job outcomes.

Schein's (1978) work has made a major contribution to how career scholars conceptualize the development of a stable career identity and distinguish that process from initial vocational choice (Feldman and Bolino, 1996). On the other hand, the career anchor theory has several key limitations. First, though it is well known and widely used both by individuals and organizations, it has been subject to limited empirical investigations (Arnold, 1997; Yarnall, 1998). For example, the empirical validation of career anchor classification deserves future attention due to the inconsistency of results (Feldman and Bolino, 1996). Second, the idea that individual has only one stable dominant career anchor has been questioned. Schein (1990) himself also sees that anchors may appear to be changed through work experience that leads to greater self-discovery, but still sees that there is one dominant anchor to be observed. Some other authors see that career orientations can change with age and due to external influences (Derr, 1986; Yarnall, 1998). This is linked to different traditions in psychological research. Third, Feldman and Bolino (1996) see that it is possible for individuals to have both primary and secondary career anchors. Contradictory to expectations, Schein's (1978) own empirical findings indicate that approximately one-third of the respondents report that they have multiple career anchors. For those individuals with multiple career anchors, an important factor to consider is whether those career anchors are

complementary or mutually inconsistent (Feldman and Bolino, 1996), i.e. whether it is possible to find a job which fulfils both or all preferences.

Although numerous models and explanations of adult career development exist (Dalton et al., 1977; Levinson et al., 1978; Veiga, 1983), many of these earlier models concentrate on life stages, which are now viewed as less appropriate in a turbulent external environment where age-related progression is no longer typical (Herriot and Pemberton, 1996). Additionally, only a few of the models have gone on to become available in commercial test form and have consequently had a greater impact on practitioners. Those that have included Schein's (1978) career anchor questionnaire, Super's (1988) career concerns inventory and Derr's (1986) career success map. All three of these models are used as a basis for occupational choice. However, the particular advantage of Schein's (1975) and Derr's (1986) models are that they recognise the need for a balance between the individual and organisations, rather than having a purely individual focus.

Anchors are therefore broader than just values as they emphasise discovery through work experience and the importance of feedback in shaping development. They serve to explain how and why an individual interacts with the organisation, as the theory states that an individual will not give up their predominant career anchor if a choice is available i.e. an employee will not take on a job where the needs of their career anchor are not met, if there is an alternative. This view is supported by Hall (1976) who states that an individual's values are acquired through work experience.

Career anchors have been applied in many ways. It has been shown, by Hsu et al. (2003) that the knowledge of career anchors can provide the employer with a means of providing appropriate incentives to retain individual employees with

very different motivations. In addition, its relevance has been shown (Yarnall, 1998) in the UK in relation to length of service and grade-related differences.

2.5.1.1. Talent-based anchors consisting of three aspects

Managerial competence: This concerns managing others; advancement, responsibility, leadership and income are all important. They tend to be generalists and regard specialist posts only as a means of gaining some relevant experience. According to Schein (1996), this ranks in the top third, accounting for 25 per cent of individuals' responses. He predicts that its importance will increase with changing working practices. Marshall and Bonner (2003) ranked it in the bottom third with only 14 per cent responses.

Technical/functional competence: This concerns the content of the work itself, prefers advancement in a technical area rather than in general management. This anchor, according to Schein (1996), was equally top in the ranking whereas with Marshall and Bonner (2003), it was only ranked fifth. Schein's (1996) prediction for the future popularity of this anchor is ambiguous, arguing on the one hand that technology is becoming more important, but on the other, it is not seen by many as a basis for a career.

Entrepreneurial creativity: This anchor is motivated by the need to create or to build something to be identified with. More interested in setting up new projects rather than managing the existing ones. Both Schein (1996) and Marshall and Bonner (2003) gave it a low ranking. Schein (1996) predicts an increase in ranking due to the shift towards subcontracting. Small and McClean (2002) reported fewer females with this orientation.

2.51.2. Need-based anchors consisting of three aspects

Security and stability: This is mainly motivated by long-term job security and attachment to one organisation and being willing to adapt to norms and standards. Schein (1996) ranks this in the second level, whereas Marshall and Bonner (2003) rank it at the bottom of the scale. Schein (1996) predicts that it will become less popular as a result of the increasingly transient nature of employment.

Autonomy and independence: This concerns independence from an organisation and individual freedom. Both Schein (1976), and Marshall and Bonner (2003) rank this in the second tier. Schein (1996) considers that this may be more typical of older workers, who have the personal and financial security to be more independent and self-willed.

Lifestyle: This is primarily concerned with aspects of the whole life, balancing the career with the family and other interests. Schein (1996) ranks this amongst the bottom tier of anchors, but Marshall and Bonner (2003) rank it at the top. It could well be that this discrepancy is largely a function of the particular student sample employed in the Marshall and Bonner (2003) study. Schein (1975) however, predicts an increasing emphasis on this anchor with the growing proportion of dual career (job and family) individuals.

2.5.1.3. Value-based anchors consisting of two aspects

Pure challenge: This is primarily concerned with overcoming obstacles or problems, concerned with competition and winning. Schein (1996) ranks this in the bottom third, but Marshall and Bonner (2003) rank it second to top.

Service and dedication to a cause: This is largely concerned with improving the world, helping society, anxious to work in a field which meets their values, rather than their skills. Schein (1996) ranks it amongst the bottom third, but predicted an increase with growing emphasis on ecology and recycling. Marshall and Bonner (2003) placed it about mid-point in the ranking.

2.5.2. The MIT 21st Century Scenarios and Career Anchors

In thinking about the 21st Century, a group of MIT researchers concerned with organization design has developed some possible scenarios as a way of identifying some of the primary issues that may face organizations. These scenarios are not meant to be predictions of what will happen. Rather, they are designed to focus thinking on some of the critical dimensions that may determine the future evolution of organizations. A group of faculty worked for over a year identifying the dimensions and thinking through their implications. Organizational size and degree of centralization emerged as two such critical dimensions leading to the following scenarios. In one scenario, one can imagine the world becoming more and more dominated by a small number of very large organizations that will centralize a few key functions and develop broad policies toward careers and employment covering very large numbers of people. Such global organizations could then be joined as a lifetime proposition and one's basic career identity would be defined by the global super-unit, but the actual career moves would still allow for variety because the organization would have many sub-units doing different things.

The other major scenario is that the world will increasingly break up into smaller and more varied kinds of organizations that will constantly change their shape, their personnel and maybe even their missions and primary tasks. One would join

such organizations on a temporary and perhaps part-time basis and would never define one's career in terms of any one of these organizations. There would be no common policies regarding pay and benefits, and individuals would manage their economic affairs themselves. Externally defined careers would become rarer and rarer, and the need for clear internal career definitions would become psychologically more and more important.

A third possibility is that both of the above scenarios will materialize, that there will be a few super-organizations operating on a global scale and a great number of smaller organizations many of whom would operate as subcontractors to the large units. The individual career occupant would have to choose early in the career whether to link to the large global organizations or move among the smaller and temporary systems that will evolve.

Career anchors emerge for individuals who have worked for at least 3 to 5 years (I-Chiu Chang et al, 2007, Bromley Kniveton, 2004, Verena Marshall and Dede Bonner, 2003) as they collect information about their values, needs, and self-perceived talents through actual work experience. An incongruence between an individual's career anchor and the work environment leads to dissatisfaction. Feldman and Bolino (1996) proposed that it might be possible for individuals to have both primary and secondary career anchors. They argued that multiple career anchors could exist for an individual for two main reasons.

2.5.3. Existence of Multiple Career Anchors

Research on business and managerial careers has shown that most people can be described in terms of the five anchors discussed: 1) security/stability; 2)

autonomy and independence; 3) entrepreneurship; 4) technical/functional competence; and 5) managerial competence. However, this does not mean that one would not find other dominant themes in careers. For example, some people develop an over-riding need for variety and change in their careers and will choose only jobs which continue to provide such opportunities. Some people develop very strong needs to ally themselves to a particular cause such as environmentalism and will choose only jobs which provide them opportunities to further the particular values which they hold. Some people develop overriding need to be helpful to others, to use their talents and skills in the so-called helping professions in which interpersonal skills play a dominant role. Some people are primarily oriented toward the exercise of power and influence. However, need for power and influence are often met within the context of the other anchors, especially the managerial anchor.

Variety needs are often met in managerial jobs and indeed, are one of the major reasons why people pursue management. Needs to serve a cause or to be involved interpersonally and in a helping role are often met through becoming a specialist in certain kinds of technical or functional area, such as personnel or organization development. What is ultimately important is for each person in a career to become aware of those needs, talents, and values which he or she will not give up if forced to make a choice, and to describe them in ways that make sense to the person.

If employees can advance up a technical ladder and get into technical or functional management, they can avoid asking themselves the question of whether they really prefer to stay in their specialized area or want to advance into general management. If they can work in a stable organization which gives them both

security and a reasonably autonomous work situation, they can avoid asking themselves the question of which need is more important to them. If one is forced to make a choice, even in a hypothetical situation in an interview, and if one has had 5 to 10 years of work experience, one can, with relatively little difficulty, become conscious of one's internal hierarchy and decide which needs or values are really the ones one would hold on to. And it is important for career self-management to go through such an exercise so that when one is confronted with real career choices, one can base one's decisions intelligently on one's real needs.

2.5.4. Change in one's Career Anchor

Employees have not been studied for a long enough period of time to really determine how careers evolve. But if the process of learning about oneself leads to a clearer and more articulated self-image, a clearer picture of what we are good at, want and value, that such a self-image would increasingly become a stable part of the personality. It seems unlikely to a technical/functional kind of person would at mid-life suddenly want to become a general manager unless he or she had wanted that all along and had simply lacked the opportunity to develop the skills. Similarly, one rarely sees a general manager becoming a specialist later in life, unless he or she had wanted that specialty all along and had only been waiting for an opportunity to get into it. Some technically/ functionally anchored managers who get promoted into general management do that job for a while without ever learning to really like it. Instead, they wait to be promoted out of it into staff jobs in headquarters organizations and are much happier once they are back in their functional area. Their job changed but their career anchor did not. And people often are forced to work in areas which are inconsistent with their

career anchors. If they happen to have some talent and if their choices are limited they will work in the incongruent area, but their career anchor will not change as evidenced by their relief when they finally get back into a more congruent area.

The best way to determine a career anchor is 1) to identify all the major choices one has made from school on relating to jobs and career, and 2) to figure out what the reasons were for making those choices. Once the reasons have been identified, one then looks for the pattern in those reasons. If several patterns are revealed which suggest that the person has been able to meet multiple needs in his or her career thus far, it is important to project future choices and to invent hypothetical situations which would force a resolution between different categories. Based on the above literature review, the researcher felt the need to study Career Anchors with both the genders, with the employees varying years of experience and across all four industries. This leads us to the second set of hypotheses.

H4: There is a significant difference between Career Anchors of the employees with varying years of experience

H11: There is a significant difference between Career Anchors of male and female employees.

H15: There is a significant difference between Career Anchors across industries.

2.6. Career Satisfaction

One way that organisations may meet this challenge is to support employees to develop their own careers and increase their career satisfaction. This approach is consistent with the recommendation that organisations perform a new supportive, rather than directive, role in enabling their employees' career success (Baruch, 2006). Organisations can adopt strategies to enhance employees' career satisfaction and so potentially increase the organisations' ability to attract and retain these employees.

The kind of role that organisational support can play in employees' career satisfaction, it is important to also consider the role that individuals play in their own career success, particularly given the trend towards more individualistic career management in the last few decades (Baruch, 2006). Exploring the impact that organisational and individual difference variables have on career satisfaction will result in a more comprehensive understanding of these relationships and also offers the opportunity to merge the two, often distinct perspectives provided by (worker-focused) vocational psychology and (employer focused) organisational psychology (Lent and Brown, 2006).

Organisational career management is a risk management process (Baruch, 2006). Therefore, examining the relative contribution that it makes to employee career satisfaction can assist organisations in determining whether investment in supporting employee career development will derive adequate benefits and enable organisations to better design career development strategies to achieve desired outcomes. From an employee perspective, understanding how personality, behavioural and environmental factors function together may offer the

opportunity to assist people to become as satisfied with their careers as nature and environmental factors support (Lent and Brown, 2006).

Career satisfaction was measured using the five items from Greenhaus et al. (1990). This instrument has been widely used in prior research (Aryee and Debrah, 1993; Burke and MacDermid, 1999). The items in the instrument asked respondents to indicate their agreement or disagreement with each statement based on a seven-point scale. Sample items include “I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career” and “I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward achieving my overall career goals”.

While traditionally a career was considered to be confined to professionals or those who advanced through organisational hierarchies, today the term “career” is more broadly applied and is commonly considered to be the lifelong sequence of role-related experiences of individuals (Hall, 2002). Building on this definition, ‘career success’ can be defined as the “positive psychological and work-related outcomes accumulated as a result of one's work experiences” (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001)

Distinction has been made between objective and subjective indicators of career success. Objective career success refers to the work experience outcomes, such as status, promotions and salary that are objectively observable (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). Traditional career research focused predominantly on objective measures of career success (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988). This focus was consistent with the predominance of hierarchical organisations where employees' career success was largely defined by promotion, rank and retention (Hall and Chandler, 2005).

Measuring only objective criteria of career success, however, is deficient, since people also value subjective outcomes such as development of new skills, work-life balance, challenge and purpose (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988; Heslin, 2005). Also, having achieved objective career success does not necessarily mean that people are satisfied with their career (Hall, 2002). Lastly, some objective career success measures appear less relevant today, since organisations are more constrained in providing these opportunities (Heslin, 2005). One way to deal with the limitations of defining and measuring career success using objective criteria is to supplement these with measures of subjective career success.

Subjective Career Success: Subjective career success refers to individuals' evaluation of their career progress, accomplishments and anticipated outcomes, relative to their own goals and aspirations (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). The change in focus to subjective career success, where the criterion for success is internal rather than external, is also consistent with the change in the career context where individuals are expected to self-manage their own careers rather than rely on organisational direction (Hall and Chandler, 2005; Hall and Marvis, 1995).

Subjective career success has most often been operationalised as job satisfaction or career satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2004; Heslin, 2003; Ng et al., 2005; Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). For example, in a recent review of career success studies, 20 out of a total of 49 studies operationalising subjective career success included measures of career satisfaction and 11 studies included measures for job satisfaction (Arthur et al., 2005). Alternatively, a recent meta-analysis included only studies measuring career satisfaction to operationalise subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005). While there appears little general consensus about the

relative merits of both measures, one perspective considers job satisfaction as an inadequate measure of career success, since subjective career success indicates satisfaction over a longer time frame and wider range of outcomes, such as sense of purpose and work-life balance, than job satisfaction (Heslin, 2005).

Career Satisfaction measures the extent to which individuals believe their career progress is consistent with their own goals, values and preferences (Erdogan et al., 2004; Heslin, 2003; Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). As indicated earlier, Career satisfaction is often measured using the career satisfaction scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). The vast majority of studies measuring career satisfaction use this scale. For example, of the 20 studies measuring career satisfaction referred to above, 14 studies used the career satisfaction scale (Arthur, 2005).

Proactive personality: Proactive personality or disposition is a stable individual difference construct that differentiates individuals based on the extent to which they take action to influence their environment. People with a proactive disposition tend to identify opportunities and act on them, persevering until meaningful change occurs in their environment (Crant, 2000). Proactive personality has demonstrated significant positive relationships with career satisfaction and career management behaviours (Chiaburu et al., 2006; Seibert et al., 2001).

2.6.1. Pathways to career satisfaction

Contextual or environmental factors can influence the career satisfaction of employees by enhancing employees' participation in career management behaviours. The model also proposes that stable individual differences, such as proactive personality, also influences career satisfaction via career management

behaviours: people with a proactive disposition are more likely to engage in career management behaviours and be more satisfied with their careers.

2.6.2. Organisational Support for Career Development and Career Satisfaction

A goal-specific environmental support and resource, such as organisational support for career development, which provides social and material support for one's personal goals, is likely to be a significant predictor of career satisfaction (Lent and Brown, 2006). Conversely, the absence of such supports, or presence of contextual obstacles, is likely to impede goal progress and reduce satisfaction. This direct link to career satisfaction is predicted in the extended model of SCCT (Lent and Brown, 2006),

Till date, the evidence about the amount of variance in career satisfaction explained by organisational support for career development is mixed (Ng et al., 2005). This variability could partly be explained by the lack of empirical research testing theoretical models that uniquely predict subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005; Seibert et al., 2001; Wayne et al., 1999). For example, many studies examining the influence of Organisational Support for Career Development on career success make similar predictions for both objective and subjective career success and control for variables that have a greater relationship with objective than with subjective career success. Lack of research which makes this distinction is of particular concern, since recent meta-analytic results suggest that there is a significant difference between the predictors of objective and subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005). Specifically, Organisational Support for Career Development (including career sponsorship, supervisor support and training and development opportunities) and stable individual differences (such as proactive

personality) were more strongly related to career satisfaction than to salary and promotion, measures of objective career success (Ng et al., 2005).

Support for the relationship between organisational support for career development and career satisfaction was provided in two recent meta-analyses (Allen et al., 2004; Ng et al., 2005). Significant positive relationships were found between mentoring and employee career satisfaction, with effect sizes ranging from 0.21 to 0.29 across up to ten studies (Allen et al., 2004). Significant effect sizes ranging from 0.38 to 0.46 were also found between Organisational Support for Career Development (career sponsorship, supervisor support and training and development opportunities) and career satisfaction across up to 18 studies (Ng et al., 2005). Analyses showed however, that the meta-analytic correlations between self-report measures were significantly higher than correlations between self-report and objective measures, suggesting that perception bias may be inflating these correlations (Ng et al., 2005).

Moderate support for a positive relationship between organisational support for career development and employee career satisfaction was also found in two cross-sectional studies, comprising employees from private and public sector organisations in the United Kingdom and Israel (Orpen, 1994; Pazy, 1988). In both studies, the items developed to represent characteristics of an effective organisational career management system loaded on three factors: career management policies, employee career development and career information.

2.6.3. Career Management Behaviours

Participating in career management behaviours that are directed at achieving personally valued goals in the career domain are also expected to promote an

individual's career satisfaction and success (Crant, 2000; Lent and Brown, 2006). Pursuing personally relevant goals is a key way that people can contribute to their own wellbeing and enables the exercise of personal agency in career satisfaction. To the extent that an individual can set and work towards their own goals and perceive that they are making progress, they are capable of promoting their own career satisfaction (Lent and Brown, 2006).

Meta-analytic support also exists for the positive relationship between individual career management behaviours and career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005). Significant effect sizes of 0.33 and 0.28 were found respectively for career planning and employee networking behaviour on career satisfaction across up to eight studies (Ng et al., 2005). While most studies exploring these relationships are cross-sectional, there is also support for the positive impact of career management behaviours on subjective career success three years later (Wiese et al., 2002).

Wiese et al. (2002) surveyed 82 young German adults (age range 28 to 39 years) employed in a range of professions including physicians, lawyers, scientists, bank employees, hotel managers and police officers. The study measured participants' career management behaviours and their subjective success in the work domain (career satisfaction) at Time 1 and three years later. Participants' career management behaviours at Time 1 predicted 14 per cent of the variance in participants' career satisfaction three years later, after controlling for career satisfaction at Time 1. Career management behaviours at Time 1 however, did not predict significant additional variance in career satisfaction when career management behaviours at Time 2 were also considered. The predictions of

SCCT and the model of proactive behaviours, supported by these meta-analytic and longitudinal results.

Mediating role of career management behaviours between Organisational Support for Career Development and career satisfaction : The extended model of SCCT predicts that in addition to a direct relationship between Organisational Support for Career Development (goal specific environmental resources) and career satisfaction, Organisational Support for Career Development may also indirectly impact satisfaction via goal pursuit (career management behaviours) (Lent and Brown, 2006). The model of proactive behaviours also predicts that the presence of contextual factors, such as organisational support and resources, will facilitate an individual's proactive career behaviours and career success (Crant, 2000).

While there is indirect support for the impact of organisational support for career development on individual career management behaviours (Kossek et al., 1998; Noe, 1996), empirical evidence for the mediating role of career management behaviours between organisational support for career development and career satisfaction is limited (Nabi, 2003). For example, in two recent studies of university students conducted by the same research team (Lent et al., 2005), one study found support for this mediating relationship, while the second study did not. In the first study of 177 students, significant relationships were found between environmental resources and academic goal progress and between goal progress and domain satisfaction for both the academic and social domain. In the second study of 299 students a strong predictive relationship was found between goal progress and satisfaction, but not between environmental support and goal progress (Lent et al., 2005). Nevertheless, based on the predictions of SCCT and the integrated model of proactive behaviour, it is expected that individuals will be

more likely to take actions to achieve their career goals and career satisfaction if they have access to organisational (environmental) support and resources to pursue these goals (Crant, 2000; Lent, 2005).

According to the model of proactive behaviour (Crant, 2000), an individual's disposition or personality will also influence the extent to which they take the initiative to engage in career management behaviours and achieve career satisfaction. Therefore, this suggests that individuals with proactive dispositions are more likely to engage in career management behaviours and experience greater career satisfaction than individuals with lower proactive tendencies. A recent meta-analysis found that proactive personality was strongly related to career satisfaction with an effect size of 0.38 found across three studies with over 1,000 participants (Ng et al., 2005). Significant relationships between proactive personality, career management behaviours and career satisfaction were also demonstrated in a longitudinal study

A study investigating the career behaviours and strategies of 496 full-time employees found that proactive personality explained additional variance in career satisfaction, after controlling for several demographic, human capital, organisational, motivational and industry variables (Seibert et al., 1999). Two years later, the researchers found that the relationship between proactive personality and career satisfaction was mediated by innovation, political knowledge and career management behaviours (Seibert et al., 2001).

Consistent with previous research (Ng et al., 2005; Seibert et al., 2001), this study found that proactive personality was significantly positively related to career satisfaction. The study also found that career management behaviours mediated the relationship between proactive personality and career satisfaction. These

results support the model of proactive behaviours, which suggests that highly proactive individuals are more likely to achieve greater career satisfaction than less proactively inclined individuals, by engaging in proactive career behaviours (Crant, 2000). The results also support the theoretical proposition by Lent and Brown (2006) that specific personality traits (proactive personality) impact satisfaction via behavioural means (career management behaviours).

Individual characteristics: The individual characteristics that were examined were organizational tenure, job tenure and health status. It was expected that tenure in the organization and tenure on the job would be significantly negatively related to career satisfaction. Morrow and McElroy (1987) found that satisfaction with promotions declined as organizational tenure and positional tenure increased. Older individuals with more tenure in the organization are more likely to be plateaued (Alien et al., 1998; Alien et al, 1999) and career plateauing has been found to be associated with reduced career satisfaction (Chay et al, 1995; Gerpott and Domsch, 1987; Greenhaus et al, 1990; Lee, 2003). Gattiker and Larwood (1988) and Lee (2003) found that people who had been in their jobs longer were less satisfied with their careers than people with shorter job tenure. Organizational and job tenure was therefore predicted that it would be significantly negatively related to the career satisfaction of older managerial and professional employees.

Organization-related factors : The organization-related factors included perceived efforts by one's organization to retain its older managerial and professional employees, perceived support from one's organization, training opportunities provided by one's organization to older managerial and professional employees and perceptions of career plateauing. There is empirical evidence that organization-related factors influence women's career satisfaction. Burke (2001)

and Burke and McKeen (1995) found that support and encouragement, training and development, and challenging jobs were significantly related to the career satisfaction of managerial and professional women. Women who received more support and encouragement, who received more training and development, and who were given more challenging work assignments were more satisfied and successful in their careers. However, these managerial and professional women tended to be in the early rather than the late career stage. Older women face multiple inequalities in the workplace - as women and as older workers (Merkes, 2003; Still and Timms, 1998). Thus, it is currently not known the extent to which these same relationships will hold for older managerial and professional women.

Opportunity structures play an important role in the career success of people in their later work lives (August and Quintero, 2001). Training opportunities represent one specific type of opportunity structure. McKeen and Burke (1991) found that managerial and professional women who participated in a greater number of training and development activities were more satisfied with their careers than managerial and professional women who had limited participation in these activities. There is empirical evidence that older workers are less likely to be selected for training or retraining than younger workers (Greller and Simpson, 1999; Salthouse and Maruer, 1996). Employers show little interest in upgrading the skills of late career individuals (Greller and Stroh, 2003). The career satisfaction of older women will be influenced by training opportunities. Older managerial and professional women who lack access to training opportunities to update their current skills or to learn new skills are less likely to experience career success and therefore are less likely to be satisfied with their careers than older managerial and professional women who are provided with these types of opportunities.

Although career plateauing has been shown to be significantly negatively related to career satisfaction, we know very little about career plateauing among older managerial and professional women. Two forms of career plateauing: was studied - hierarchical plateauing and job content plateauing. Hierarchical plateauing results when individuals have little chance of further vertical movement within an organization whereas job content plateauing occurs when individuals are no longer challenged by their work and job responsibilities (Alien et al, 1998). Advancement opportunities decrease with age for both men and women (Alien et al, 1998; Gerpott and Domsch, 1987). However, it is possible that older managerial and professional women will not experience career plateauing in the same way as their male counterparts. Alien et al. (1998) found that women managers perceived that there were fewer advancement opportunities available to them than did men.

Many older managerial and professional women have experienced barriers to advancement opportunities throughout their career. Women are more likely to face prejudice and discrimination, start their careers later, have employment gaps, experience work-family demands, lack mentors and sponsors, and be denied access to challenging assignments (Burke and McKeen, 1994, 1995). Mavin (2000) reported that women tend to experience lateral career paths rather than vertical ones. Still and Timms (1997) noted that the structural and cultural barriers that shape the early careers of women do not diminish as women age and that the careers of older women continue to be influenced by these barriers. It would therefore be expected that older managerial and professional women will perceive relatively high levels of hierarchical plateauing.

Study of careers has become an important aspect in the fast changing organizational context. It has come to be increasingly recognized at present, that career management is the responsibility of both the individual as well as the organization. This empirical study tries to understand the important elements of individual and organizational career practices that affect an employee's career effectiveness. Most of the previous studies have used the objective terms of career success such as remuneration and position as the criterion variable. But, since career outcome expectations vary across individuals and also since the concept of career itself has evolved over time, it was decided to use a more comprehensive concept of career outcome namely career effectiveness as the outcome variable. Career effectiveness as defined by Hall (2002) has both long-term orientation such as identity and adaptability as well as short-term orientation such as career attitudes and performance. Further both behavioral aspects such as performance and adaptability and individual subjective aspects such as identity and attitudes make it a more comprehensive way of assessing career outcome. The results of this research study indicate that individual determinants such as career planning and knowledge of organizational politics and organizational level determinants such as training and development support, quality of performance feedback and supervisory support explain significant variances in the determination of employee career effectiveness.

2.6.4. Career Effectiveness

The career effectiveness could be measured through performance, attitude, identity and adaptability. Performance could be measured along extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions. For the present study we would be considering the perceptual measure of intrinsic career success as an indicator of performance as

reflected in the rating of performance by self and by the supervisor. This has support from the finding of Orpen (1994), who found that career management was significantly more correlated with the experiential aspects (perceived career success) of the career effectiveness than those for the external indicators of salary growth and promotions, which were used as the objective measures of career success in many previous studies. The supportive relationship of supervisors enriches managers' careers (Baird & Kram, 1983 as in Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley, 1990). The support may take the form of career guidance and information, performance feedback, and challenging work assignments that promote development. Career counseling that addresses both individual and organizational concerns has also been cited as one of the major organizational development activities (Baruch et al, 2000). The individual concerns relate to such issues as advancements to positions of greater responsibility or pay, lateral positions to more desirable positions or solving problems associated with the present job.

In Indian organizations, formal career counseling and workshops may not be in vogue and most of the counseling is expected to be provided through the supervisor. Hence, the supervisory support is a critical variable associated with the employee career advancement, considered in the present study. Kidd and Smewig (2001) found that employees who saw their supervisors as giving them trust and the authority to do the job were more committed to their organization, as were those who perceived their supervisors to engage in feedback and goal-setting. Gutteridge & Leibowitz's (1993) findings suggests that there is a need for more and better training of supervisors in order to accomplish their multiple roles as coaches, developers and creators of links to business strategy to their subordinates.

Career satisfaction reflects how people feel about their career role and their career success. The findings of most studies show that organization-related factors are especially important in fostering the career satisfaction of older managerial and professional women. For older managerial women, a challenging job and perceived support from their organization are associated with greater career satisfaction. The career satisfaction of older professional women is also enhanced by a challenging job as well as the perceived efforts by their organization to retain its older managerial and professional employees. Although, the findings of this study provide some insight into the factors that contribute to the career satisfaction of older managerial and professional women, further research is needed to identify other determinants of the career satisfaction of this group of women.

As a result of actively searching for opportunities, computer professionals are able to stay on top of developments in the industry. When computer professionals feel assured and confident about their professional status, they are more satisfied with their careers. Prior studies have found that there is a positive correlation between career strategy and career satisfaction (McKeen and Burke, 1993). This relationship is likely to exist among computer professionals because those who use career strategy are able to enhance their professional standing, and this leads to their career satisfaction. That is, professional enhancement mediates the relationship between career strategy and career satisfaction. This leads us to the last set of hypotheses.

H5: There is a significant difference between Career Satisfaction of the employees with varying years of experience.

H6: There is a significant relationship between Quarter Life Crisis and Career Satisfaction of employees.

H7: There is a significant relationship between Career Self Efficacy and Career Satisfaction of employees.

H8: There is a significant relationship between Career Anchors and Career Satisfaction of employees.

H12: There is a significant difference between Career Satisfaction of male and female employees.

H16: There is a significant difference between Career Satisfaction across industries.

2.7. Research Gaps

The researcher attempted to study the area of Quarter Life Crisis with regards to Career Satisfaction. So far, as seen in the review of related literature, there have been very few studies done on Quarter Life and none with regards to the area of Quarter Life Crisis and Career Satisfaction. This study also attempted to see if employees have the career decision self efficacy with respect to their careers. The related literature on career decision self efficacy has been used on employees in the school and college level, but, the researcher (with due permission from the author) has attempted to use in the early stages of one's career. The Career

Anchors review of related literature, so far has indicated that very few studies have been done on employees with less than three years of experience. The researcher wanted to use the Career Anchors study on employees with the experience range of 1 – 6 years. The researcher also wanted to study all of the above in Indian context.

2.8. Review of Chapter

In conclusion to the review of existing literature, it can be established that Career Decision Self Efficacy and career anchors are crucial in deciding the Career Satisfaction of an employee in the early stage of one's career. Most of the research studies done in the field of career counseling, have studied only Career Anchors or Career Decision Self Efficacy alone, none of the studies have focused on Career Satisfaction in the early stages of one's career. These studies give an overriding significance to the field of career counseling as a whole .Based on previous literature and the emerging gaps, hypotheses had been framed at each stage. Having illustrated all the major hypotheses, the following chapter offers a detailed view of the methodology used in the research.