THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF PERCEIVED EMPLOYABILITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PROTEAN CAREER ORIENTATION, AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND SUBJECTIVE CAREER SUCCESS AMONG ACADEMICS IN PAKISTAN

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ABSTRACT

The "new career" concepts found in the industrialized economies were studied since the implementation of career models in institutional environments having different social, cultural and political norms results in diverse patterns of career development. For carrying out the research, academics were chosen from Pakistan's private sector universities. The private sector is commercialized and innovative, and thus fits well with the career concepts discussed in the study. To give support to the conceptual framework, the researcher has taken the protean career theory as the underpinning theory. For sampling purposes, proportionate stratified sampling has been adapted. Simple random sampling has been utilized to select the academics within each stratum. The sample was chosen out of a total population of 4,994 academics present within the 35 private sector universities located across the country. The questionnaire was distributed among individuals after obtaining permission from the universities. The researcher managed to collect data from 192 respondents with a response rate of 55%. After data input, it was cleaned of missing values, outliers, and tested for normality. Hypotheses were measured with structural equation modeling and confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS software. The researcher found statistically significant relationships between (i) protean career orientation and perceived employability (ii) affective commitment and perceived employability (iii) affective commitment and subjective career success. Statistically insignificant relationships have been found between (i) protean career orientation and subjective career success (ii) perceived employability and subjective career success. However, no mediation was observed as the relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success is insignificant. The current study is among the first on academics in private universities in Pakistan to establish relationships based on subjective career success rather than job satisfaction.

Keywords: subjective career success, protean career orientation, perceived employability, affective commitment

ABSTRAK

Konsep “kerjaya baru” yang terdapat dalam sektor ekonomi perindustrian telah dikaji sejak pelaksanaan model kerjaya alam persekitaran institusi yang berbeza dari segi norma-norma sosial, budaya dan politik hasil daripada corak yang pelbagai untuk pembangunan kerjaya. alam kajian ini, responden dipilih dari kalangan ahli akademik di universiti swasta Pakistan. Sektor swasta yang bercirikan komersial dan inovatif, adalah bersesuaian dengan konsep kerjaya yang dibincangkan dalam kajian ini. Teori kerjaya Protean telah digunakan sebagai sokongan kepada kerangka kerja konseptual. Untuk tujuan pensampelan, sampel strata proporsional telah digunakan. Selain itu, persampelan rawak mudah turut digunakan untuk memilih ahli akademik dalam setiap lapisan. Sampel telah dipilih daripada sejumlah 4,994 ahli akademik di 35 universiti swasta yang terdapat di seluruh negara. Borang soal selidik telah diedarkan kepada responden setelah mendapat keizinan dari pihak universiti. Hasilnya, penyelidik berjaya mendapatkan maklum balas daripada 192 responden, dengan kadar respons sebanyak 55%. Selepas kerja memasukkan data, data seterusnya dibersihkan daripada nilai hilang, data terpencil, serta ujian untuk normaliti. Hipotesis diukur dengan pemodelan persamaan struktur dan analisis pengesahan faktor dengan menggunakan perisian AMOS. Kajian menunjukkan hubungan yang signifikan antara (i) orientasi kerjaya protean dan tanggapan kebolehkerjaan (ii) komitmen afektif dan tanggapan kebolehkerjaan (iii) komitmen afektif dan kejayaan kerjaya subjektif. Secara statistik, hubungan yang tidak signifikan telah ditemui antara (i) orientasi kerjaya protean dan kejayaan kerjaya subjektif (ii) tanggapan kebolehkerjaan dan kejayaan kerjaya subjektif. Walau bagaimanapun, tiada perantara yang dapat dilihat sebagai hubungan antara tanggapan kebolehkerjaan dan kejayaan kerjaya subjektif. Justeru, kajian ini telah mengisi jurang dan merupakan antara kajian yang pertama dalam kalangan ahli akademik di universiti swasta di Pakistan bagi mewujudkan hubungan berdasarkan kejayaan kerjaya subjektif dan bukannya kepuasan kerja.

Kata kunci: kejayaan kerjaya subjektif, orientasi kerjaya protean, tanggapan kebolehkerjaan, komitmen afektif

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BM	Boundaryless Mindset
CD	Competency Development
GMA	General Mental Ability
HEC	Higher Education Commission
HEI	Higher Education Institutes
HRM	Human Resource Management
KSAO	Knowledge, Skills, Abilities and Opportunities
MBA	Master in Business Administration
MD	Doctor of Medicine
MPhil	Masters in Philosophy
OMP	Organizational Mobility Preference
OSCD	Organizational Support for Career Development
PCO	Protean Career Orientation
PE	Perceived Employability
SCS	Subjective Career Success
AC	Affective Commitment
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
UK	United Kingdom

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The profitability of any business enterprise is dependent upon both hard skills and soft skills (Palumbo, 2013). The hard skills include administrative and technical know-how related to an organization like operating a machinery or proficiency in a computer language. Such skills are easily observable, quantifiable and measurable. The soft skills, on the other hand, are related to human resources and are hard to observe, measure and to quantify. Such soft skills include a positive attitude, being self-directed, acting as a team player, and having problem solving skills. The implementation of soft skills has a direct impact on the job satisfaction and subjective career success of professionals (Palumbo, 2013). Subjective career success is thus an important variable that is studied by human resource specialists. It has gained importance ever since the emergence of a protean work attitude (Joseph, Boh, Ang & Slaughter, 2012), the appearance of employability perceptions (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007) and employers' increasing concern about employees' affective commitment (Rasdi, Garavan & Ismail, 2012; Yu, 2012).

The main objective of the present thesis is to better understand the "contemporary career concepts" like protean career orientation, affective commitment, perceived employability in relation to the subjective career success among academics in Pakistan. These concepts are explained in light of the protean career theory that is the underpinning theory for the present research. The theory has an emphasis on dispositions, attitudes, identities, and beliefs leading to psychological success (Briscoe, Hall & De Muth, 2006; Hall & Chandler, 2005). The researcher has included academics as the population of interest as they are at the forefront for developing human resources (Iqbal, Arif & Abbas, 2011). Moreover, academics in the private sector of Pakistan are taken as the private sector is commercialized and innovative (Halai, 2013), and thus fits well with the career concepts as discussed. These “contemporary career concepts” are known by the “new deal” which does not guarantee permanent employment, but rather the onus of career development is on the individual (De Vos & Soens, 2008). This fact is also mirrored by Briscoe and Hall (2006). Briscoe *et al.* (2006) mention an increase in self-employment, independent contractors, private consultancy firms, and entrepreneurships as models of functioning in the modern career landscape.

Subjective career success has been used interchangeably as career satisfaction in the present study. Previous researchers, such as Ng, Eby, Sorenson and Feldman (2005) also used career satisfaction to represent subjective career success, while salary and promotion were used as representatives of objective career success. Similarly, Heslin (2005) used career satisfaction as the subjective evaluation of people's satisfaction with professional lives and thus reflecting subjective career success. Subjective career success is thus the psychological success characterized by a sense of personal achievement or family happiness, and has priority over objective measures of success like climbing up the company hierarchy or getting a fat pay check (Cabrera, 2009). Heidi Golledge, chief executive officer of CareerBliss.com, in ranking of “top 10 companies with biggest jumps in employee happiness” states:

> “We feel it is important to acknowledge the companies that have made significant strides in improving overall happiness in the workplace because employee happiness is key to company retention, long term success and overall human happiness” (Forbes, 2013, p.1)

Professionals in the advanced economies are thus looking to switch tasks, departments, and acquire new skills, so as to remain employable. Furthermore, the traditional paternalistic model of career movement by working for one employer during a lifetime is gradually losing its form. So, the career of today is characterized by flexible employment contracts (Singh, Ragins & Tharenou, 2009; Stumpf, Doh & Tymon, 2010; Van der Heijden, De Lange, Demerouti & Van der Heijde, 2009).

However, it is important to mention that career concepts like protean career orientation and perceived employability are new terms for Pakistani researchers, and are more prevalent in the developed economies. From the perspective of the United States of America (USA), for example, there has been a transition of careers in academe taking inspiration from and having turned towards a corporate direction, as universities have become consumer driven and business orientated (Baruch & Hall, 2004). According to Baruch and Hall (2004), a high level of autonomy (or “freedom”) that is a hallmark of protean career has always been part of the university culture. Academics function like “free agents”, and have a transactional contract with the university employers.

In recent times, therefore, a shift of protean and boundaryless corporate career models towards the original view of the academic as an autonomous profession is observed

(Baruch & Hall, 2004). With the emergence of protean career, the subjective part of success has gained more respect in academic circles, since protean career is “a path with a heart” or the ability of individuals to follow through their career aspirations and lifetime goals. Though, the traditional career paths still exist today, it has not yielded enough satisfaction for professionals. This has led to the popularity of protean career models (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

In the modern career landscape, the mere perceptions of being employable are also a source of career satisfaction, as perceptions have an affect on the individual’s behavior, reactions, and thoughts (Berntson, Näswall & Sverke, 2008). When the individual perceives as being employable, one’s beliefs in obtaining new employment opportunities are high. Thus, the perception of employability serves as an anchor in an ever changing and chaotic work place. Consequently, the emotional attachment of employees to the organization, whereby, employees identify with the organization is of utmost importance (Ghazzawi, 2008; Saari & Judge, 2004). According to Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011) employees that are high in affective commitment are also high in career satisfaction.

Above all, it can be argued from the Pakistani perspective that subjective career success is a crucial topic for research. Employees that are satisfied with their careers are an asset for the organization. The present study thus finds out the relationship of protean career orientation, perceived employability, and affective commitment with subjective career success of academics in the private higher education sector.

1.2 Problem Statement

The purpose of the current study is to better understand academics' subjective career success with regard to "contemporary career concepts" in private universities in Pakistan. It is agreed upon that academics are satisfied with their jobs and careers making student learning easier by imparting quality instruction to the pupils (Okpara, Squillace & Erondu, 2005). Dissatisfied faculty members do not perform at the best of their abilities, and are more likely to leave the organization (Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005). Departure of faculty members is likely to have a negative effect on the organization, where replacement of each faculty member is likely to run into thousands of dollars (Oshagbemi, 2003). This is especially important as higher education in the country (Pakistan) is becoming professionalized, and consumer-driven (Akhtar, 2010; Niazi & Mace, 2006; Qazi, Simon, Rawat & Hamid, 2010):

> "The number of private sector universities has surged from 25 (2001) to 53 (2010) and the private sector enrolments in higher education institutions increased from 43,873, a 15.8% of the total enrolment of 276,274 (2001), to 115,369, a 14% of the total enrolment which is 803,507(2009)" (Higher Education Commission, Statistical Information Unit, 2010, p.2 & p.10)

> "Stimulated by a burgeoning demand that the public sector is unable to meet, private sector institutions currently serve almost one-fourth of HEI enrollments. Private institutions are particularly active in the areas of business administration,

> computer science, and IT -- areas where employer demand is high" (Qazi *et al.*, 2010, p.6)

Considering the importance of career and job satisfaction as a topic of study especially in the higher-education private sector, the factors that cause dissatisfaction among academics need to be understood. There have been numerous researches published in Pakistan on the state of job satisfaction among the academics in the private sector in the last 10 years (Ahmad, Hussain & Rajput, 2012; Bilal, 2012; Chaudhry, 2012; Chaudhry, 2013b; Ghafoor, 2012; Khalid, Irshad & Mahmood, 2011; Mangi, Soomro, Ghumro *et al.*, 2011; Mumtaz, Khan, Aslam & Ahmad, 2011; Rauf, 2010; Sabri, Ilyas & Amjad, 2011). All of the researches as mentioned above have been done from the perspective of job satisfaction. To the researcher's knowledge, no research had been carried out regarding career satisfaction of academics in the country. There are limitations in using job satisfaction in place of career satisfaction since a person may be highly satisfied with the current job, and yet be unsatisfied with the career path that he or she is in (Punnett, Duffy, Fox *et al.*, 2007). According to Hall and Heras (2010), job satisfaction and career satisfaction are forms of work-related satisfaction but are distinct in nature. Career satisfaction is thus a more appropriate form for subjective career success. It is important for the researcher, therefore, to study career satisfaction as representative of subjective career success. The previous research, meanwhile, has focused on a particular city or province. This is evident from Appendix “O”. The current study takes academics across the country, and this gives a more generalizable finding on the state of subjective career success in the country.

Furthermore, the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success is ever more important in the academia as Baruch and Hall (2004) argued that academic careers are unique. According to these researchers, an academic at a university is considered an “autonomous professional” who takes on the responsibility of self-development. Academic careers are thus a role model for the “new careers” such as the protean career. However, the concept of protean career is seldom present in Pakistani literature, especially with regard to the subjective career success of private sector academics. The Pakistani researchers have discussed various factors like location, class size, experience, gender, age, education, pay, promotional prospects, recognition of achievement, administrative support, interpersonal relations, nature of work, autonomy, decision making ability, and fringe benefits to effect the job success (refer to Appendix “O”). But, there is no mention of protean career orientation in relation to subjective career success of academics. There is a study by Chaudhry (2013a) on the foreign multinationals operating in Pakistan with respect to the “new career” concepts like protean career attitude but it is a qualitative study and not focused on the higher education sector. It is, therefore, important to study the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success.

Protean career orientation, however, relates to skill development which leads to perceived employability and subjective career success (De Vos & Soens 2008; Kuijpers, Schyns & Scheerens, 2006). A discouraging figure, meanwhile, has been put fourth by the Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment (BEOE, 2015). The Bureau states that 2.5 million career dissatisfied Pakistanis have exited the country over the last five years, out of which 975 are teachers who left in 2014 alone. This trend, meanwhile has been increasing by the year, and is similar to almost all professions (refer to Appendix “P”). It is important for the researcher to find out whether current academics in the present time feel employable and believe that their chances of getting better employment are good enough. Therefore, the perceptions of getting a job of equal or better prospects is a relevant concept to study in the modern career landscape. Also, according to Van der Heijden and Bakkar (2011) and Van der Heijden, De Lange, Demerouti and Van der Heijde (2009), protean career orientation helps individuals in times of economic, organizational and employment hardships to maintain their employability, achieve career success and satisfaction. As such, Pakistan offers an interesting research context especially after the Global Financial Crisis of 2007-2012, and from a Pakistani perspective. The Pew Global research poll done right after the financial crisis states:

> “Roughly nine-in-ten Pakistanis believe the country is on the wrong track, and about eight-in-ten say the economy is in poor shape” (Pew Global, 2013)

Thus protean career orientation (PCO) needs to be studied in relation to perceived employability and from a Pakistani perspective as the implementation of career models in institutional environments having different social, cultural and political norms, results in diverse patterns of career development (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). The application of Anglo-American management techniques in non-Western countries like Pakistan leads to conflict of values and complex patterns of “hybridization” where both Eastern and Western values accommodate each other (Gamble, 2003).

Another variable that is being studied in the present research in relation to subjective career success is affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) describe in a meta-analysis on affective commitment, continuous commitment and normative commitment that affective commitment (AC) has weightage over the other two commitments, as it results in more favorable outcomes for both the employees and the employer. These favorable outcomes include lower absenteeism, better organizational citizenship behavior, high job performance, low turnover, reduced stress and work life balance (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The benefits of affective commitment have therefore, led the researcher to restrict the measurement of organizational commitment to affective commitment. The researcher, meanwhile, through exhaustive search did not find any research on the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success with regard to the private higher education sector of Pakistan. There has been research on the relationship between affective commitment and employability of a public sector university of Pakistan by Yousaf and Sanders (2012) but it is from the perspective of public sector and not private sector.

Furthermore, studies by Chughtai and Zafar (2006), Ghazzawi (2008), Malik, Nawab, Naeem and Danish (2010), Warsi, Fatima and Sahibzada (2009) and Yousaf and Sanders (2012) have indicated employees' emotional commitment towards the employers being positively related to skill development, employability and subjective career success. Research done in Pakistan by Ali, Khan, Qadeer *et al.* (2009), Chaudhry (2012), Rehman, Rehman, Saif *et al.* (2013), Malik *et al.* (2010), Khan, Nawaz, Khan *et al.* (2013) and Shah, Jatoi and Memon (2012) on academics in the private sector is from the perspective of organizational commitment as affecting the job satisfaction of faculty members. The present study, therefore, fills in the gap and studies the relationship between affective commitment, perceived employability and subjective career success. Considering the above mentioned problems and gaps in researches, the present study discusses the research questions as mentioned under 1.3.

1.3 Research Questions

The conceptual model as described in Figure 3.1 shows the various direct and indirect effects. These effects are also known as causal relationships. The relationships used to support the present study are given in the questions below:

1. Is there relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success?
2. Is there relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success?
3. Is there relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability?
4. Does perceived employability mediate the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success?
5. Is there relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success?
6. Is there relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability?
7. Does perceived employability mediate the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

In order to understand the relationships that exist between the variables, the following research objectives are formulated:

1. To determine the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success
2. To examine the relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability
3. To determine the relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success
4. To determine whether perceived employability mediates the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success
5. To find out the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success
6. To find out the relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability
7. To determine whether perceived employability mediates the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The subjective career success of private sector academics in the for-profit universities is focused upon in the present study. Other variables that are being used to support the dependent variable include the independent variables protean career orientation, affective commitment, while, perceived employability is taken as the mediating variable. The research paradigm for the present study is positivist, while, quantitative research methods are employed. Moreover, private sector academics have been taken from the country's "W" category private universities. The "W" category is being used, and represents the minimum quality benchmark given by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (refer to Appendix "D" for a list on the "W", "X" "Y" and "Z" category universities). Proportionate stratified sampling has been used at the initial level so that all academics have an equal chance of being selected. The population has been stratified according to the job rank: professor, associate professor, assistant professor and lecturer. Simple random sampling has been done to select the academics within each stratum. The total population for the study includes the 4,994 academics and the sample size is 351.

The underpinning theory used to support the research includes the protean career theory. The theory has been taken considering the various variables present in the hypothesized model. Hypotheses' testing is done by taking 5 direct relationships and 2 indirect relationships. However, before the model can be tested for the statistical significance or statistical insignificance among the different variables, the researcher conducted a pilot study to check for the content validity and internal reliability of the questionnaire. Finding the questionnaire to be reliable and valid, the researcher carried out the main survey by distributing the questionnaire among the subjects of the sample. After data was collected from the respondents, it was cleaned of missing values and outliers. Moreover, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) is done through structural equation modeling, and to check for the statistical significance.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study is important since it provides an overview of the academics working in the present day higher education industry of Pakistan. The academics are included in the study as they are at the forefront for developing human resources in any country (Iqbal, Arif & Abbas, 2011). The grooming and shaping of pupils by academics according to the social, cultural and economic requirements of the country is of utmost importance. Similarly, the academics are responsible for making universities a center for knowledge creation and idea generation. Academics thus help in making the social, cultural and economic lives of individuals better. Also, the private sector of the country is marked by a fast moving, hardworking and competitive environment. The focus of attention for research and development has shifted from the public to the private since the government has been providing 1.5 to 2.5 of the GDP to the universities during the last decade (World Bank, 2015). The private sector universities have thus been set up as an alternative to the state run universities to cater for the increase in demand for higher education.

Considering the importance of the private sector, there have been numerous researches on the job satisfaction of academics (refer to Appendix "O"). However, there have been no studies related to the private sector with regard to the career satisfaction of academics. Most of these studies deal with the demographic trends like gender, experience, qualification, age, and rank having their influence on job satisfaction. Some of the studies deal with psychological and organizational factors like stress and organizational commitment. Therefore, the current study's findings will provide the researcher with an insight into the career satisfaction of academics with regard to the “new career” concept of protean career orientation.

Besides protean career orientation, the study also looked into the affective commitment of the academics. The commitment of academics to the organization is important since they are a means to developing the human resources of the country (Bilimoria, Perry, Liang *et al.*, 2006; Capelleras, 2005; Chen, Yang, Shiau & Wang 2006; Kusku, 2003; Oshagbemi, 2003; Rhodes, Hollinshead & Nevill, 2007; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Tu, Bernard & Maguiraga, 2005). In the economically advanced countries like the United States academics are the springboard for developing new ideas, knowledge and innovations. They pave the way for social, economic and cultural development of any society. Therefore, it is all the more important for organizations to polish and groom their professional workforce so that they remain emotionally committed to the organization and display high levels of career satisfaction. Likewise, academics in the higher education industry of Pakistan cannot be ignored, and should be researched upon from the perspective of understanding their main grievances. The findings of the study, therefore, are significant as they will provide the researcher with some understanding of affective commitment, and whether it is leading to career satisfaction.

The present study will also be helpful in providing insights into the career satisfaction of academics with regard to their employability perceptions, especially during times of economic, technological, and organizational changes taking place around the world. The organization of today is marked by downsizing, organizational re-structuring and rightsizing; therefore, employees have to self-manage themselves so as to ensure their career survival (Bozionelos, 2003; Bozionelos, 2004; De Vos & Soens 2008; Hall & Moss, 1998; Kuijpers *et al.*, 2006; Fugate, Kinicki & Ashfort, 2004; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). These changes have impacted career attitudes and behaviors. As a result of the changes, the psychological contract of the present is rife with reciprocal relationships between the employer and the employee. It is all the more important to see whether the changes taking place in the world economy in the form of psychological contract changes, organizational re-structuring and the appearance of a protean career has had any effect on the career satisfaction of academics, especially in Pakistan. The present study is, therefore, important as it will provide insights into the relationship of protean career orientation with perceived employability and subjective career success.

Furthermore, the education industry of the country is monitored by the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan. The HEC is responsible for approving, monitoring, funding and controlling the education institutes of the country whether they be private or public (HEC, 2012). Likewise, the HEC lays out the quality standards for research and development of the country's academics. However over the passage of time, the focus of HEC has shifted towards the private sector universities since the public sector has not been able to adequately cope with the surge in students' demand for higher education. Therefore, there is a need to research upon and inform the Higher Education Commission of the satisfaction levels as enjoyed by the private sector academics. The findings of the study can help the HEC in faculty training and development purposes, and at the same time will serve as a point of reference for academics who would like to pursue their research in the area of career satisfaction.

1.7 Definitions of Key Terms

Definitions of key variables used in this study are as below:

Protean Career Orientation

According to Bridgstock (2007), protean career orientation is the degree of independence and proactivity shown by the individual during his or her career.

Affective Commitment

According to Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), affective commitment is the individuals feeling closer to the organization not only emotionally but also being involved with the organization and its goals.

Perceived Employability

According to De Cuyper *et al.* (2011), employability perceptions refer to individual beliefs about the possibilities of finding new, equal, or better employment.

Subjective Career Success

According to Greenhaus *et al.* (1990), subjective career success, refers to individuals' feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment in their careers.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The present thesis has been organized into six chapters. These chapters are summarized as follows:

Chapter one has presented the background of the study, problems statement, research questions, objectives of the research, scope of the study, significance of the study, and definitions of key concepts.

Chapter two has literature review on subjective career success, affective commitment, protean career orientation, and perceived employability which are the research variables. Moreover, chapter two presents the issues of career satisfaction among private sector academics, and the gaps in the literature.

Chapter three formally introduces the underpinning theory and the conceptual model, with detailed outlines of the relationships that exist between subjective career success, protean career orientation, perceived employability and affective commitment.

Chapter four discusses the design of the study, population, sampling design, measurements, data collection process, pilot study, introduction to data cleaning and structural equation modeling.

Chapter five discusses and presents the in-depth analyses of the outcomes of the data that have been collected by employing quantitative methods. The chapter specifically highlights the demographic profiles of respondents, data screening, measures of validity and reliability, path analyses and detailed analyses of the hypotheses testing.

Chapter six is the final chapter included in the thesis. It discusses in detail the results of the various hypotheses in chapter three. The chapter presents the theoretical and practical benefits of the present research, and the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contains issues related to subjective career success of academics, definitions and analyses of variables. After a detailed literature review of all the variables, the gaps of the literature are presented.

2.2 Issues of Subjective Career Success among Private Sector Academics of Pakistan

There has been a growing interest in studying the subjective career success of professionals working in the higher-education industry (Bilimoria *et al.*, 2006; Okpara *et al.*, 2005; Oshagbemi, 2003; Rhodes *et al.*, 2007; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Tu *et al.*, 2005). The reasons for this ever-increasing interest are that the higher education sector is labor intensive and the financial resources are largely dedicated to professional development.

Higher education institutes (HEI) are thus the backbone of any country (Niazi & Mace, 2006), and the most important factor in the social and economic development of a state. New ideas are generated and individuals attain competency through education thus accelerating the pace of technological transformation. Without a satisfied faculty, however, the education sector cannot flourish. Likewise, subjective career success among academics helps in the development of affective commitment and a desire to show performance for oneself and the organization (Khalid *et al.*, 2011). This performance is not based solely on job satisfaction but also requires a strong sense of career satisfaction with education as a profession. Thus, as a result of satisfaction with the career, quality teaching ensues, and this facilitates students learning.

Consequently, faculty satisfaction has always remained an important issue for researchers to study. According to Chaudhary (2013b), faculty satisfaction can be achieved through various external and internal factors such as health, job security, compensation and benefits, quality of work, quality of supervision, working relationships, peer pressure, organizational culture and helpful administration. The quality of academics, furthermore, is essential for a successful career among the faculty members. It is, therefore, important for universities to attract and retain the best and the brightest faculty members, and to understand the issues associated with career satisfaction of academics. Academic members satisfied with their jobs and careers make student learning easier by imparting quality instruction among the students. Dissatisfied faculty members do not perform at the best of their abilities in the classroom, and are more likely to leave the teaching profession. Such premature departure of a faculty member form the organization is likely to have an effect on the organization, where replacement of each faculty member is likely to run into thousands of dollars.

Also, it is important to mention that contemporary career concepts are absent in Pakistani researches related to the HEI's in the private sector. Pakistani researchers have discussed various factors like location, class size, experience, gender, age, education, pay, promotional prospects, organizational commitment, recognition of achievement, administrative support, interpersonal relations, nature of work, autonomy, decision making ability, and fringe benefits affecting job success (refer to Appendix “O”). Since the present study is based on the analysis of subjective career success of private university academics in the country, it is important to highlight previous research that has been done to understand the level of satisfaction of the target population.

The term “private university” with regard to the present study means any university that is not directly operated by the government but is subject to state regulatory authorities, and may be receiving some form of student scholarships from the government (Halai, 2013). There are two kinds of private universities that are operating in the country, for-profit universities that are run like a business organization and charge fees for the services provided. The second kind of private universities are supported by philanthropic donations but do charge some fees to offset the cost of education services provided. Data are hard to come by but the majority of private sector universities operating in the country are for-profit universities (Halai, 2013).

Private higher education institutes of Pakistan have been set up to promote higher education enrollments among students and to nurture a culture of research in the country. However, the private HEI’s are expensive for the average Pakistani as most private sector universities charge fee ranging from US$2,000 to $3,000 per year. In a country where the average per capita income as of Purchasing Power Parity is estimated to be US$ 4,840 per year (The World Bank, 2014), private HEI’s are beyond the reach of most Pakistanis. Critics of the private HEI’s are fearful that the commercialization of higher education has led to widespread discrimination between the rich and the poor (Niazi & Mace, 2006;

Sedgwick, 2005). Majority of the population in the country feel that private institutions serve as “cram centers” and are not providing quality education, and opportunities for research and development (Sedgwick, 2005). The scenario in the Pakistani private sector is aptly summarized by Qazi *et al.* (2010), who state:

> “Clearly, as the government is unable to catch up with the demand for education, the private sector is operating along commercialized and business orientated framework. This has resulted in formation of oligopolistic market system with the focus on profit maximization through price setting, product differentiation, and interdependence upon a handful of private run institutions” (p.6)

Furthermore, there remain loopholes in the private HEI’s that need attention and action. The private sector academics in Pakistan are faced with living standards that are not at par with those in the more technologically and economically advanced part of the world. When demography is closely examined in terms of age, gender, qualification, experience, status and income, it comes to light that certain academics seem to be enjoying more career satisfaction than others (Ghafoor, 2012). For instance, the male academics working in the private sector seem to be slightly more satisfied than their female counterparts. Permanent academic staffs are more satisfied than contractual academic staff. These findings are very much similar to those of Safaria, Othman and Abdul Wahab (2011) who found that permanent academic staff working in Malaysia and Indonesia are less burned-out and satisfied than the contractual staff. Also, according to Ghafoor (2012), academics holding a PhD degree are more satisfied than the academics with a master’s degree. Experience is also a factor that adds to career satisfaction.

However, contrary to the findings by Karsch, Bookse and Sainfort (2005), who found older employees more satisfied than the younger employees, Ghafoor (2012) describes younger staff members working in the private sector universities of Pakistan as more satisfied than the older academics with regard to the human resource practices of compensation, empowerment, promotion and evaluation. Similarly, intrinsic motivation factors like professional growth, good feelings about self and the organization, and opportunities for advancement are significantly tied in with career satisfaction. Extrinsic motivational factors like salary, status, working relationship with the supervisor, and company policies are also tied to career satisfaction (Ghafoor, 2012).

In another study, Mangi *et al.* (2011) observed a shortage of satisfaction among non-PhD faculty members. The staff was highly critical of the promotion, selection and compensation policies of the administration, and this trend was similar across both male and female academics. According to Mangi *et al.* (2011), the faculty members especially the non-PhD should be given their due role in the decision-making process so as to increase their job satisfaction. Recognition of positive work done by staff can also lead to a sense of relief among the members. It is for these reasons that the professional development of the faculty members is needed.

Also, it has been observed that the private sector of the country, especially the higher education, is playing its part in promoting quality education in Pakistan. However, there remain some issues, as male and female academics may not be at the same level in terms of career and job satisfaction. Ali *et al.* (2009) found male professors enjoying permanent job status more satisfied with the quality of the education especially in terms of curriculum and management. The administration of the private sector, however, is working hard in making the country attract academics with up-to-date knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and instructional strategies such as collaborative learning, problem-based learning, and case study methodology.

But there seems to be a lower level of human resource integration and development among the private institutions of Pakistan. In a study, Qadeer, Rehman, Ahmad and Shafique (2011) observed that the human resource management (HRM) practices and policies are having a high power distance that prevents the development, and further implementation of policies. According to Qadeer *et al.* (2011), for private institutes to flourish, the pitfalls of centralization, communication gaps and high-power distance have to be removed.

Aslam (2011) points out the need to have constructive communication between the administrators and academics so that the satisfaction of the academics can be maintained. The academics also need to be trained in semester system after recruitment, and modern teaching methodologies should be implemented. Furthermore, there is a need to develop a culture of positive criticism and feedback so as to monitor the training effectiveness of academics. There is a shortage of professional development among the faculty members that is affecting their career satisfaction. There is a need to develop the latest competencies so as to make the members employable in the labor market.

It can safely be asserted that the better the quality of the academics, the higher would be the standard of institutes in the country. The majority of the staff members of the private sector admit that to achieve career satisfaction and employability they must develop the latest knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA's) (Khan & Sarwar, 2011). Employability has thus become the worker's attitude towards employment. Employees, who hold a positive attitude towards employment prospects with regard to their KSA's, are seen as successful in re-entering the labor market (Fugate *et al.*, 2004). Proper training, meanwhile, enhances the skills set of a person. It could also boost the career attitude of the person who could become more performance-orientated, if provided with the right tools and techniques. Thus, in a study by Khan and Sarwar (2011) on academics in the private sector, it was discovered that the academic staff needed training in the areas of classroom management.

Likewise, administrators should strive hard by allocating both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to the faculty members so that they are satisfied with the working environment. In return, the academics could exhibit organizational citizenship behavior, and a sound performance that leads to subjective career success (Malik *et al.*, 2010). In their study, Malik *et al.* (2010) suggested that work, pay and supervision are predictors of organizational commitment for faculty members.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Chughtai (2003) among faculty members working in the city of Lahore, concluded that the academics seemed to be more satisfied when taking into account demographic characteristics like location, class size, experience, gender, age, and education. In addition, certain factors were also measured that included promotional prospects, recognition of achievement, administrative support, interpersonal relations, nature of work, autonomy, decision-making ability, fringe benefits and student quality. The results showed that location and class size had significant influences on the satisfaction of faculty members, whereas, gender, age, education, and experience had no relation to the satisfaction of academics. Likewise, pay, promotional prospects, and recognition of achievement were considered most important determinants of satisfaction. Another study by Khalid *et al.* (2011) also reported private sector academics to be more satisfied in terms of pay, promotional prospects and supervisory support. The study was conducted among academics in two universities in the province of Punjab.

It is, through effective management, adequate allocation and use of resources that the quality of education can be improved (Anwar, Yousaf, Shah & Sarwar, 2008). From various researchers as mentioned above, it is assumed that there are a number of problems and challenges faced by private sector academics. All these problems affect the subjective career success of academics. At the same time, the private sector university academics seem to be far better in objective measures of career success (Iqbal *et al.*, 2011; Khalid *et al.*, 2011).

It is brought to light from the above discussion that the effectiveness of educational institutes depends upon the performance of its staff members. High quality faculty is of utmost importance for the education sector. The rise of the private sector, especially during the last two decades, has brought with it a surge in the demand for talented academics (Ali *et al.*, 2009; Chaudhry, 2012; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Ghazi, Ali, Shahzada & Israr, 2010; Iqbal *et al.*, 2011; Khalid *et al.*, 2011; Khan & Sarwar, 2011; Memon, Joubish & Khurram, 2010; Niazi & Mace, 2006; Qadeer *et al.*, 2011). At the same time, private sector universities are offering competitive compensation packages for their staff. Because of such intense competition in the job market, universities are having a tough time attracting, training, and retaining academics. Good teachers after quitting from the organization also take with them the valuable resources in the shape of knowledge, skills and abilities, thus putting additional workload on the existing faculty members. It is of utmost importance for organizations, especially the profit-driven ones to prevent excessive turnover, and create an atmosphere where employees remain committed to the workplace.

Considering the above mentioned discussion on the issues affecting the subjective career success of academics, there is a need for further research in relation to contemporary career concepts.

2.3 Subjective Career Success

Subjective career success has been defined by Seibert, Grant and Kraimer (1999) as the evaluation of accomplishments, career progress, and anticipated outcomes relative to the goals and aspirations set by career enthusiasts.

From the definition of subjective career success, it seems clear that career is a process or pattern of events unfolding in the life of an individual. So career can be taken to be both descriptive and evaluative (Arthur, Khapova & Wilderom, 2005; Briscoe & Hall, 2006; De Vos & Soens, 2008). Career is descriptive for an individual, as it includes the life events unfolding such as job switches, transitions, joblessness, migrations and education. And career is also evaluative, meaning an increase in one's status, pay and rank.

It is important for the researcher to differentiate between life satisfaction, career satisfaction and job satisfaction. Life satisfaction is the cognitive component of subjective well-being (Martikainen, 2008). This viewpoint is quite similar to that of Bradley and Corwyn (2004) who argue that life satisfaction is the extent to which basic needs and life goals are met. If life goals are accomplished, satisfaction with life will also increase. Thus, life satisfaction is directly related to better physical and mental health. However, subjective career success is just one component of life satisfaction. Other components of life satisfaction include satisfaction with one's job, community, health, recreation, social life, marriage and religion (Lounsbury, Park, Sundstrom *et al.*, 2004).

In some literature on career studies, subjective career success is operationalized as career satisfaction or job satisfaction (Abele, Spurk & Volmer, 2011; Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003; Heslin, 2003; Lent & Brown, 2006; Margaret, Wendy, Mark & Charity-Ann, 2010; O'Neil, Bilimoria & Saatcioglu, 2004; Robert, 2010). Job satisfaction is the feeling one has after an evaluation of his or her job situation (Bilimoria *et al.*, 2006; Capelleras, 2005; Okpara *et al.*, 2005; Rhodes, Hollinshead & Nevill, 2007;

Saari & Judge, 2004; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Sultana, Riaz, Hayat & Sabir, 2009; Tu, Bernard & Maguiraga, 2005; Yousaf & Sanders, 2012). In a meta-analysis by Ng *et al.* (2005), subjective career success was operationalized only as career satisfaction. Researchers have thus tried to capture success in the form of career satisfaction or job satisfaction.

There are, however, limitations in using the term job satisfaction in place of career satisfaction since a person may be highly satisfied with the current job, and yet be unsatisfied with the career path that he or she is in (Riaz & Haider, 2010; Punnett *et al.*, 2007). An example is that of students postponing their studies by working part-time for minimal compensation, as the experience students have on the job will help in being well-rewarded after graduation. Therefore, high job satisfaction may give a false impression that one is having more than a successful career; yet, job satisfaction can never be a substitute for career satisfaction. According to Heslin (2003), career satisfaction is:

> "The actual and anticipated career-related attainments across (a) a broader time frame than job satisfaction, as well as (b) a wider range of outcomes, such as a sense of purpose and work-life balance" (p.265)

According to Hall and Heras (2010), job satisfaction and career satisfaction are forms of work-related satisfaction but are distinct in nature. Job satisfaction has been described by Wilson, Squires, Widger *et al.* (2008) as the emotional-affective response and more proximal form of satisfaction. Career satisfaction is, therefore, a more appropriate form for subjective career success. It pertains to one's current progress, the desired progress, and a judgment as to whether the progress is satisfactory. Thus, subjective career success is a broader aspect of one's job, organization and future goals (De Vos & Soens, 2008).

As with the modern career landscape, marked by an ever changing global business environment impacting the world of work, subjective dimensions have been introduced such as lateral job movements within the organizations, and less job security (Cascio, 2005). As a result of these lateral job movements, the nature of contract between the employer and the employee has changed from being relational psychological to transactional psychological. The relational psychological contract was, and still is, located within a single organization, in which there are hierarchical movements, stresses on salary increments, and is trust-driven. The transactional psychological contract, on the other hand, is the new career contract. It transfers the responsibility for training and development to the employees and at the same time creates career options (De Vos, Stobbeleir & Meganck, 2009a; Rigotti, 2009).

According to Callanan (2003), employees should take a more subjective view of career, and try to broaden the definition of career success. It is by taking a subjective view of career that employees achieve career success that is congruent with their ideals. By adopting a subjective, more boundaryless view of success, the employees move across different organizations, departments, occupations or even countries (Arthur, Khapova & Wilderom, 2005; Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Briscoe, Hall & De Muth, 2006; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Colakoglu, 2011; Eby *et al.*, 2003; Heilmann, 2011). Employees driven by subjective career success are able to achieve work-life balance, marketability and networking within and outside the workplace. However, professionals often overlook the real meaning of career success. They think of it in objective terms, which may lead to goals that are inconsistent with one's personal values.

Contrary to the above argument, findings by Stumpf and Tymon (2012) vividly depict a positive relationship between promotions (an objective measure of success) and subjective career success. According to the researchers (Stumpf & Tymon, 2012), promotions can provide for a challenging working environment and socio-economic benefits. Promotions have a positive impact on the intrinsic rewards held by employees, and this increases their subjective career success. However, another measure of objective career success, i.e. salary increase does not have a positive impact on career satisfaction, as it taken as an external reward that cannot increase job satisfaction but can only prevent job dissatisfaction.

It may also be added that achieving subjective career success is not an easy task as every organization has its own demands, pressures, and cultural requirements (Callanan, 2003). The fall of Enron, document mishandling at Arthur Anderson, dubious compensation packages at Tyco and the financial malpractices at World.Com are some of the glaring examples that highlight the very predicament where personal values may go against the organizational norms. Though these cases are old, they are still relevant today as employees are expected to have well-laid out goals with strategies that are consistent with one's values. In other words, those who remain true to their values, interests, and lifestyle preferences will achieve career success in the long run.

In various researches, therefore, it is held that organizational citizenship, and stable individual differences in the form of personality traits, locus of control, and cognitive abilities, are strongly linked to subjective career success (Akhtar, 2010; Heslin, 2003; Tan & Yahya, 2011; Judge, Klinger & Simon, 2010; Ng *et al.*, 2005). Researchers have thus come to a common understanding that though both objective and subjective career successes are correlated positively, they are empirically distinct concepts (Abele *et al.*, 2011; Abele & Spurk, 2009; Allen, 2011; Arthur *et al.*, 2005; Ballout, 2008; Bozionelos, 2004; Colakoglu, 2011; De Vos & Soens, 2008; Enache, Sallen, Simo & Fernandez, 2011; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Heslin, 2003; Judge, Klinger & Simon, 2010; Kuijpers *et al.*, 2006; Ng *et al.*, 2005; Rasdi, Ismail, Uli & Noah, 2009 ; Van der Heijden, De Lange, Demerouti & Van der Heijde, 2009; Volmer & Spurk, 2011). It has been observed that individuals earning a good pay check, and enjoying high status do not "feel" successful. A good salary and status is certainly important for one's career, but professionals also want to feel successful with regard to their aspirations, values and standards. Since subjective career success is intrinsic to the individual, it is seen as capturing the person's own judgments about career growth. These subjective judgments are often labeled as career satisfaction in some literature (Abele *et al.*, 2011; Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Lent & Brown, 2006; Margaret *et al.*, 2010; Ng *et al.*, 2005; O'Neil *et al.*, 2004; Punnett *et al.*, 2007; Riaz & Haider, 2010; Robert, 2010; Zaidi & Iqbal, 2012).

Satisfaction in terms of career is thus more of a "self-referent" subjective career success, where the individual compares his success against his own standards and aspirations

(Abele *et al.*, 2011; Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Dries, 2011; Heslin, 2003; Omar, Krauss, Sail & Ismail, 2011; Smith, 2002; Zikic, Novicevic, Harvey & Breland, 2006). An individual can, however, also compare his success against other people's aspirations and ideas. Comparison can be made against a reference person, a reference group or a social norm. This type of subjective career success is known as "other-referent" subjective career success (Abele *et al.*, 2011; Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Dries, 2011; Heslin, 2003; Omar *et al.*, 2011; Zikic *et al.*, 2006). Other-referent subjective career success tends to be associated with objective measures of success when being compared with other people. In an experiment on other-referent subjective success, Heslin (2003) found two-thirds of professionals employed using social comparison theory to achieve "other referent" subjective career success. The social comparison theory used by Heslin (2003) maintains that professionals are motivated when they evaluate their own outcomes, and those of other people. A typical example given by Abele *et al.* (2011) of other-referent subjective career success is when evaluating a movie of which there are barely any objective standards. So people consider others' judgments before passing any comments.

It is also important to know that most reputed multinationals conduct attitudinal surveys to gauge their employees' attitudes, and feelings towards organizational practices. Organizations are thus concerned about the subjective perceptions, and the quality-of-life of their employees. Such studies by employers into the subjective dimensions of success help in the development and implementation of effective career management systems that aid in recognizing individual needs and aspirations (Stumpf *et al.*, 2010).

Employee satisfaction is thus desired by organizations. Career satisfaction according to Oshagbemi (2003) is linked to organizational performance, staff performance and reduced labor turnover. On the other hand, disgruntled employees are prone to a lack of commitment towards their work and organizations. This culture of dissatisfaction results in absenteeism, and high turnover (Chen *et al.*, 2006). The indirect costs of dissatisfied staff are enormous, and are in the shape of increased recruitment, training, learning-curve inefficiencies and reduction in client-base.

2.4 Protean Career Orientation

Protean career orientation has been defined by Briscoe and Hall (2006) as a:

> "Career concept that encompasses the extent to which he or she demonstrates self-directed and value-driven career orientations in their personal career management" (Briscoe & Hall, 2006, p.4)

It has been defined by DiRenzo and Greenhaus (2011) as an individual managing his or her career in a proactive, self-directed way driven by personal values and subjective success criteria. The terms "protean career orientation" and "protean career attitude" are similar and measure the same dimensions of protean career: self-directedness and value-driven career orientations (refer to Appendix "C" for reply by researchers).

To understand protean career orientation better, it is important to review a brief history of the construct. The word "protean" is taken from the Greek word "Proteus" which symbolizes a Greek myth in which Proteus has a strange ability to change shapes in order to avoid threats (Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; Clarke, 2009; Enache *et al.*, 2011; Fugate *et al.*, 2004; Hind, 2005). The various researchers of career studies hold the view that a person holding a protean career orientation, much like the Greek myth of Proteus, will be independent, flexible, adaptable and versatile. Also, a protean career is marked by varied experiences that a person holds during his or her lifetime, especially in formal education, training and development, organizational changes, job changes and market upheavals. It is only through this life-long continuous learning that employees with a protean career adjust to newer skills, abilities and opportunities, and increase their chances of employability within the labor market (Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

Therefore, it is important to mention that with the advent of protean career orientation, and the breakdown of the “traditional career model”, continuous learning has become a sine qua non for the protean careerist. Employees in traditional employment settings show loyalty towards one employer (Briscoe, Hall & DeMuth, 2006). In return, the employing organization rewards the employees in the form of promotions, pay increases, increased power, and greater responsibility. Employees thus are able to stay in one organization for their entire life time.

However, with the emergence of more dynamic economic conditions marked by recessions, downsizing, mergers, acquisitions, and newer career structures, the various career attitudes and behaviors have changed (Forrier & Sels, 2003). The dynamic market conditions have resulted in the “protean career model”, which is more of an “adult-adult relationship”, where the individual takes charge of his or her own destiny (Abele *et al.*, 2011; Ballout, 2008; Bridgstock, 2009; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Cabrera, 2009; Cao, Hirschi & Deller, 2013; Cappellen & Janssens, 2008; Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; Clarke, 2009; De Cuyper *et al.*,2011; Dries, 2011; Grimland, Vigoda-Gadot & Baruch, 2012; Heilmann, 2011; Joseph *et al.*, 2012; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; Sargent & Domberger, 2007; Segers, Inceoglu, Vloeberghs *et al.*, 2008; Volmer & Spurk, 2011). Owing to this self-directed nature of the protean career architect, protean career is described as one that is under the control of the employee rather than the employer. So the protean careerist owing to his self-directed nature tends to change shapes to suit his or her own personal ambitions, and career goals.

Furthermore, internal and external environments contribute to the self-directedness of a person (Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Joseph *et al.*, 2012). Thus, there is a complex interplay of environmental conditions which affect the person driven by a protean career. These environmental conditions can be taken as globalization, knowledge-intensive economies, technological advancements, organizational downsizing or right-sizing, competitive pressures, work-life balance, decentralization, decreased job security, increase of workplace diversity, expanding outsourcing and increase in temporary or part-time workers (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Joseph *et al.*, 2012; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007).

The individually-driven protean career is also affected by changes in behaviors and attitudes. These changes in behaviors include an increase in life expectancy, prolonged working lives, professional commitment towards careers and the organizations, workplace diversity marked by various ethnicities working together for mutual good, changed family structures with dual-career-couples, single-working parents, an increase in elder-care responsibilities, and an inclination of professionals towards training, growth and development for the acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities. All of these fulfill the personal learning of the employees, and add to protean career orientation (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Briscoe, Hall & DeMuth, 2006; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Cabrera, 2009; De Vos & Soens, 2008; Grimland *et al.*, 2012; Sargent & Domberger, 2007; Segers *et al.*, 2008; Volmer & Spurk, 2011).

The above mentioned professional growth factors contribute to the self-directedness of protean careerists, making them move up and down the organization's hierarchy so as to fulfill one's personal needs and career aspirations. At the same time, protean career orientation (PCO) makes them motivated enough to act upon "professionally-driven" desires rather than just follow through the rigid traditional career structural arrangements (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; De Vos & Soens, 2008). Thus, the self-directed nature of protean career calls for individuals to realize one's career opportunities, and achieve employability within and outside the organization. Moreover, the changing nature of psychological contract from being relational to transactional has also resulted in employees managing their own careers (Ackah & Heaton, 2004; Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Clarke, 2009; De Vos, De Hauw & Van der Heijden, 2011; Dries, 2011; Rasdi *et al.*, 2009; Zikic *et al.*, 2006). The term protean career is thus the "new deal" marked by transactional psychological contracts and is introduced by researchers and practitioners as an alternative to the traditional job settings.

The term protean career has, therefore, become one of the emerging career concepts of the 21st century, and is a popular research subject. The "new career" calls for changing of employment attitudes among the workers so as to ensure their workplace survival. Since the protean careerist is driven by subjective career success rather than the objective measures of career success, the emphasis is on a meaningful career development plan that is in congruence with one's aspirations (Abele *et al.*, 2011; Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Sargent & Domberger, 2007). The personality of the protean careerist is intertwined with the individual's career so that a strong sense of calling remains paramount. The professional has the career speak for itself, and it is a means to personally meaningful goals. Protean career performance is thus defined by standards given by the individual rather than the organization (Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

It is quite clear that protean career is a personal endeavor where employees make themselves employable through a series of self-management activities so as to realize their full potential (Cao *et al.*, 2013; Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; Clarke, 2009). Briscoe and Hall (2006) tried to make sense of protean career orientation by differentiating between traditional organizations and modern-day organizations. According to Briscoe and Hall (2006), the term protean career orientation is basically an attitude that has a cognitive, an evaluative and a behavioral component. In the cognitive component, a set of beliefs about the career are formed; in the evaluative component, the good or bad in it are discovered; in the behavioral part of protean career orientation, reactions are built for or against the career.

Professionals with a protean career are therefore both self-directed and value-driven. These two components are a means to navigating the personal career so they serve as an "internal compass" (Hall, 2004). The self-directed types have an independent and proactive approach to their vocational career, whereas for the value-driven types, career choices rely on their own values, and norms. Furthermore, De Vos and Soens (2008) call protean career as the spark for career management behaviors like learning and development. In their experiment, De Vos and Soens (2008) found that employees with protean career orientation have a higher rate of subjective career success. The same study also reported that having a protean career orientation meant striving for success by first defining one's career path. Therefore, in a working environment marked by internal and external organizational changes, the individual's self-identity should be clear. This self-identity has the function of an "internal guide" when it comes to making decisions. It is therefore a matter of interest that individuals with a protean career orientation prefer occupations such as consulting, health care, research, marketing, sales and government service (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007).

From the literature review, is has become evident that protean career orientation is more of an Anglo-American perspective. However, there is a study by Chaudhry (2013a) on protean career among Pakistani managerial staff working in multinational corporations (MNC's). According to Chaudhry (2013a), Pakistani businesses do allow the permeation of "new career" concepts like protean career and let it flourish among some managerial staff members who are well-versed and open to Western-styles of management. However, such concepts are subject to the societal pressures prevalent in the country. These pressures include a collectivist mind set, job security, importance of networking, and elitism, which are reminiscent of a traditional Pakistani culture. Therefore, a unique pattern of “hybridization” results where Western concepts intermix with Eastern values.

2.5 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment has been defined in different literature reviews as the individuals feeling closer to the organization not only emotionally but also involved with the organization, and its vision and mission statements (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004).

Employees having affective commitment show enthusiasm for the organization, and “feel” satisfied working for it (Allen, 2011; Ballout, 2008; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Colakoglu, Culha & Atay, 2010; Lumley *et al.*, 2011; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; Segers *et al.*,2008; Yousaf & Sanders, 2012). Positive work experiences in the form of career satisfaction, and procedural fairness are actually a result of affective commitment. It is a “psychological state” that is characterized by an employee having a relationship or an emotional attachment with the organization. The psychological state here refers to the employees having internal perceptions about their working environment. The psychological state is also referred to as the psychological climate (Parker, Baltes, Young *et al.*, 2003). Various factors contribute to this psychological climate; these include autonomy, leadership, procedural fairness, employee development, and praise for work well-done.

Researchers have divided affective commitment into three categories: organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, and work experiences. According to Parker *et al.* (2003), “organizational characteristics” include the size of the organization, its autonomy, and the level of decentralization. “Personal characteristics” include age, gender, and tenure. While, “work experiences” include procedural justice and perceived organizational support. Affective commitment thus develops as a result of the organizational characteristics and an emotional bond among the employees, and the organization. This bond helps to build loyalty and trust towards the organization. Employees that are high in affective commitment develop a sense of belonging for the organization.

Affective commitment is directed towards the management, work group, subordinates and customers (Snape, Chan & Redman, 2006). In various researches, it has been shown that affective commitment towards the supervisor has resulted in positive associations with task performance (Cheng, Jiang & Riley, 2003), job satisfaction (Chen, 2001) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Wasti & Can, 2008), while, it is negatively related to turnover (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009). Also, according to social identity theorists (Van Vugt & Hart, 2004), there is a link between one’s personal beliefs and an organization’s mission statements as employees with affective commitment desire to be attached with the organization, and have a structural identity with it. In other words, affective commitment is the bonding together of the individual’s identity with that of the organization’s identity.

This is evident from a study by Grant, Dutton and Rosso (2008) who demonstrated that employees' involvement themselves in an organization's social support programmes led to a profound increase in affective commitment. This emotional attachment with the organization is due to a process known as "prosocial sensemaking", which results in employees changing their sense of self and organizational identity perceptions (Grant *et al.*, 2008). An increase in affective commitment is due to a sense of pride while working for the organization (Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera & Williams, 2006). A collective identity is thus produced among employees driven by affective commitment, resulting in pro-social behaviors. Employees driven by affective commitment have a tendency to share knowledge for the betterment of the organization and their careers. Affective commitment thus results when positive feedback is given by the employer, invoking feelings of workplace values to be in tandem with their own values.

Since affective commitment leads to involvement, and sense of belonging, various researchers have held that affective commitment is the most important out of the three components of organizational commitment (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009). Unlike the other two commitments, continuous commitment and normative commitment (which are a result of economic loss prevention and moral obligations towards the organization), affective commitment is intrinsic in nature (Becker & Kernan, 2003). Considering this viewpoint, Meyer and Allen (1991) described in a meta-analysis that affective commitment results in more favorable outcomes for both the employees and the employer. These favorable outcomes include lower absenteeism, better organizational citizenship behavior, high job performance, low turnover, reduced stress and work-life balance. The benefits of affective commitment have, therefore, led the researcher to restrict the measurement of organizational commitment to affective commitment.

2.6 Perceived Employability

Perceived employability has been defined as:

> "The individual's beliefs about the possibilities of finding new, equal, or better employment" (De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen & Mâkikangas, 2011, p.254)

When labor market shows signs of flexibility and unpredictability, the perceptions of being employable becomes even more important. Perceived employability, therefore, is the appraisal of one's possibilities of getting new and better employment (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). From a scholarly point of view, it is pertinent to clarify that perceived employability and self-perceived employability are the same concepts. According to Dr Berntson, an expert in the domain of employability studies (refer to Appendix "C" for his reply):

> "They are the same. If there shall be any differentiation it is between subjective (perceived or self-perceived) and objective employability. Or for that matter between internal and external employability, which on the other hand is a different issue" (E. Berntson, personal communication, April 23, 2014)

The term perceived employability has evolved over time. For a long time, employees considered moving vertically up the hierarchy as the preferred way to objective career success (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). However, with the changes taking place in the form of restructuring, downsizing and right sizing, employees are not sure of their working status in the organization. In some organizations, permanent employment has been replaced by temporary or contractual employment. The term “employability” has been introduced as a result of the changes taking place in the market place, and was considered in the 1950s and 1960s as the individual’s ability to become employed in the labor market (Fugate *et al.*, 2004). Employability has thus become the worker’s attitude towards employment, and the self-perceptions held during one’s career life-time. Employees, who hold a positive attitude towards employment prospects with regard to their knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA’s), are seen as successful in re-entering the labor market.

However, it was in the 1970s that attention began to be focused on developing the KSA’s. With recession at the end of the 1970s, KSA’s alone did not yield positive results for employees (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Groot & Maassen van den Brink, 2000; Sanders & Grip, 2004). The importance, however, lay in transferable skills such as social and relational skills. So, in times of recession, employability became an important dimension for an employee’s career development by laying the basis for transferable skills that aid in getting a new job. In the 1980s, the concept of employability became more of a meta-characteristic combining the attitudes, as well as the KSA’s that determined the relative potential of an individual in the labor market (Sanders & Grip, 2004; De Vos, De Hauw & Van der Heijdin, 2011; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). It affected the employees’ career stages whether he or she was at the beginning, middle or the end of the career. The term employability has thus received considerable attention from researchers, policy makers and businessmen since the 1990’s.

Divergent views came to the forefront, with some researchers suggesting labor market potential and skills as fundamental in determining employability (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Other researchers suggest that employability is important to the extent of utilizing it in organizations, and also to the extent of having knowledge of labor market, government and firm policies (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Sanders & Grip, 2004; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Still others insisted on employability as having the potential to influence careers, and to deal with changes in the labor market.

Considering all the divergent views discussed so far, there is no standard global definition of perceived employability, as the term may vary with the organizational culture, economic expertise and societal norms. The fall of life-time employment, and rise of service industry has also led to the variation in defining employability. Tin (2006) sheds light on the changing nature of employability. He mentions that the definition of employability has evolved, and has become apparent for professionals with the passage of time especially, with the rise of the global economy. Therefore, employability is more of an individual level responsibility rather than an organization level. At an individual level, employability is the overall market value of a person.

The concept of employability can be best understood in the following statements made by a chief executive officer of a company that is on the verge of downsizing:

> "We cannot guarantee anyone a job, but we are nonetheless obliged to provide employees reasonable opportunities to re-establish themselves, ideally on more favorable conditions, in the event of job loss" (Trapp, 2000, p. 2)

Perceived employability, therefore, is a reflection of the employees in the workplace; the more employable an individual feels, the less job insecurity and strain on his behalf. In an experiment to support this viewpoint, Berntson and Marklund (2007) studied a sample of employees living in Sweden. It was evident that employees having a good self-employability score had a better mental health with fewer psychological symptoms like aggression, stress, depression and job exhaustion. Also, these pleasant effects remained for more than a year among the employees.

Consequently, perceived employability can be said to be the “subjective part” of employability (Clarke, 2009; De Cuyper *et al.*, 2011; De Vos, De Hauw & Van der Heijdin, 2011; Kinnunen, Mauno, Makikangas, Na’tti & Siponen, 2011; Yousaf & Sanders, 2012). On the other hand, the objective employability dimension has an emphasis on the professionals’ educational and labor market positions held in the current organization or previous organization. Perceived employability is thus the current assessment of a professional’s capacity to find a job or navigate the world of work. It is a form of adaptability on behalf of the professionals to identify and realize ones’ potential for career, both within and outside the organization (Benson, 2006; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007).

Moreover, keeping in view the current job market conditions, organizations are now more adaptable. However, researchers of employability argue that many employers are willing to apply “employability security” within the organizations so as to cater for the development opportunities that aid in the accumulation of human capital (De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Forrier & Sels, 2003; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006; Van der Heijden & Bakkar, 2011).

2.7 Gaps in the Literature

The current situation, especially with regard to the subjective career success of academics in Pakistan, is open to question as most of the researches are done from the perspective of job satisfaction rather than career satisfaction. Also, most of the researches on subjective career success (Abele *et al.*, 2011; Allen, 2011; Ballout, 2008; Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Grimland *et al.*, 2012; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Ng *et al.*, 2005; Singh, Ragins & Tharenou, 2009) have been done from an Anglo-American perspective. Human resource management (HRM) practices in the country have been unexplored. Therefore, there is a need to shift attention from developed economies towards more emerging economies such as Pakistan. Also, Baruch and Budhwar (2006) called for a separation of the Asian and Western styles of career progression. They pointed out the fact that career success in the advanced economies of the Western hemisphere is mostly a result of individual and organizational practices, while in Asian countries it is tenure-based with emphasis on seniority. Moreover, as evident from the literature review, there is barely any study on the Pakistani academics from the perspective of "contemporary career".

Also in the literature review, it has been observed that De Vos and Soens (2008) discussed the effects of protean career orientation on subjective career success, with self-management behaviors as the mediating variable, while De Vos *et al.* (2011) had competency development impacting on subjective career success, with perceived employability as the mediator. The present study has perceived employability (PE) as a mediating variable, and fills in the conceptual gaps as discussed by De Vos and Soens (2008) and De Vos *et al.* (2011).

There are also gaps related to affective commitment. The recent studies on affective commitment have mainly focused on the organization or a group as the unit of study like leader-member exchanges as a mediator between job satisfaction and affective commitment (Ariani, 2012); the effects of perceived organizational support on employees' affective outcomes (Colakoglu *et al.*, 2010); the role of socialization tactics in the relationship between socialization content and newcomers' affective commitment (Maria, 2010); the relationship between affective commitment among supervisors and organization turnover (Wasti, 2002); and affective and normative commitment among supervisors and co-workers (Yousaf & Sanders, 2012). However, it is also important to gauge the affective commitment of individuals with regard to their subjective career success in the private sector of the country.

2.8 Summary

The chapter has presented in detail the various researches on the issues related to career satisfaction of academics in the private higher education sector of the country. It has also discussed the variables of subjective career success, protean career orientation, affective commitment and perceived employability. After a critical review of all the researches, it has presented the gaps in the study. The next chapter will discuss the underpinning theory, the conceptual framework, various direct and indirect relationships and hypotheses under study

CHAPTER THREE

THE RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 formally introduces the underpinning theory and the conceptual model, with detailed outlines of the relationships that exist between subjective career success, protean career orientation, perceived employability and affective commitment.

3.2 Underlying Theories supporting the Conceptual Framework

An underlying theory is the map that guides the researcher. It is a traveling map which a traveler keeps as he moves through an unfamiliar land, gathering as much knowledge as possible about the path, and the account of others who have embarked on a similar journey. Useful "survival tips" can be had, as he or she progresses along the way, and reaches the end point.

Likewise, at the start of any research, it is important to consider the underpinning theory that supports the knowledge base as proposed by the researcher. So, research is also a journey towards the final destination whereby developing new knowledge is a contribution to the field of study. The theoretical underpinning theory thereby provides the road map that guides the research. The researcher has taken the protean career theory as the underpinning theory to support the conceptual framework.

3.3 Protean Career Theory

Protean career theory has an emphasis on dispositions, attitudes, identities, and beliefs leading to psychological success (Briscoe *et al.*, 2006; Hall & Chandler, 2005). The theory suggests that having a protean career is tied with strong internal, psychological motivations. Also knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSA's) are needed for employability in the labor market (Lips-Wiersma & McMorland, 2006). The protean career is an extreme form of boundarylessness and career subjectivity (Baruch, 2004). Professionals pursuing a protean career try to maintain a psychological contract with themselves rather than with an organization. Such types assume responsibility for their career development, and try to shape themselves in accordance with the career desires and the changing market.

Therefore, a person pursing a protean career emphasizes a meaningful career path expressed by human potential (Hall & Chandler, 2005). Protean careerists have a sense of purpose, and try to inter-mix the career with the self. The protean career is an extension of self-expression or a vehicle for growth, and helps in achieving personally meaningful goals. It is evident from Table 3.1 that there are clear differences between a protean career and a traditional career.

Table 3.1
Elements in the Protean Career

Issue	**Protean Career**	**Traditional Organizational Career**
Who's in charge?	Person	Organization
Core values	Freedom Growth	Advancement, Power
Success criteria	Psychological success	Position level, Salary

Table 3.1(Continued)

Issue	Protean Career	Traditional Organizational Career
Important attitude Dimensions	Work satisfaction; professional commitment	Work satisfaction; organizational commitment
Important identity Dimensions	Do I respect myself? (self-esteem) What do I want to do? (self-awareness)	Am I respected in this organization? (esteem from others) What should I do? (organizational awareness)
Important adaptability Dimensions	Work-related flexibility, current competence (measure: marketability)	Organizational related flexibility (measure: organizational survival)

Source: Hall (1996).

3.3.1 Underlying dispositions of Protean Career Theory

The protean career theory suggests that there are certain underlying dispositions. It is important to highlight these dispositions so as to understand the underpinning theory, and as to how it supports the conceptual framework for the research. These dispositions may be labeled as values-driven, self-directedness, resilience, strong internal motivations, openness to career opportunities, a positive self-image, and positive interpersonal dispositions. All of these are discussed below:

3.3.1.1 Values-Drive, Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Directedness

The underlying disposition of intrinsic motivation is crucial for the protean careerists. As Gagne and Deci (2005) demonstrated, intrinsic motivation is tied in with career empowerment among Canadian technical and telemarketing workers. Internal motivation is thus a cause of reducing stress levels, increasing the protean attitude, and subsequent performance of the employees in their career. Besides, the other disposition of protean theory, i.e., “self-directedness” has been taken as an integral component of subjective career success (Arthur *et al.*, 2005; Briscoe & Hall, 2006). Likewise, Briscoe, Hall and De Muth (2006) also found support for this argument when they describe self-directedness to support career outcomes.

Moreover, based on the protean career theory, it is argued that individuals are driven by self-directedness, and thus adapt to the various performance and learning demands of their careers (Ryan & Deci, 2000). At the same time, the perception is that behavior among self-directed career enthusiasts is internally driven, and thus reflecting: “The inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise their capacities, to explore and to learn” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.70).

A promotion focus is thus exhibited, by proactively managing career development and seeing themselves as achieving the career related ideals. Therefore, a self-directed attitude in career management is positively related to high levels of affective commitment. As far as the values-driven predispositions of the protean careerist is concerned, a person is inclined to accepting and adopting the values as espoused by the organization and will develop an affective bond with the employing organization (Simo, Enache, Sallan & Fernandez, 2010). So the extent of affective commitment depends on matching the organizational values with one’s career values. In other words, a values-driven individual who has found an ideal place to fulfill his or her values develops a strong sense of "belonging" to the organization, and therefore, has a high affective commitment.

3.3.1.2 Proactivity and Openness to Opportunities

Both the elements of protean career "proactivity" and "openness to opportunities" have empirical evidence as leading to career success. The meta-analysis as done by Ng *et al.* (2005) revealed that both proactivity and openness to experience were significantly tied to subjective dimensions of career success. Also, in another study, Chiaburu, Baker and Pitariu (2006) found proactivity and openness to experience to be associated with perceived employability.

3.3.1.3 Resilience and Adaptability

Both "resilience" and "adaptability" have their relationship with career success. There is some support for this in the empirical studies done. For instance, Lounsbury, Loveland, Sundstrom *et al.* (2003) investigated 15 broad personality traits, and their relationship with career satisfaction among 6,000 individuals in the process of career transitions. In their study, Lounsbury *et al.* (2003) argue that the trait of emotional resilience is tied to both job and career satisfaction.

3.3.1.4 Agreeableness and Positive Interpersonal Orientation

"Agreeableness" is located among the Big Five personality traits. The meta-analysis as carried out by Ng *et al.* (2005) found agreeableness to be related to career satisfaction. Similarly, the underlying disposition of "positive interpersonal orientation" is tied with agreeableness. Also, Costa and McCrae (1992) have linked the concept of positive interpersonal orientation to "likeableness", "sociability" and "interpersonal warmth".

3.3.1.5 Positive Self-Image

Hall and Chandler (2005), King (2004) and Quigley and Tymon (2006) have described positive self-image to be related to employability. Moreover, studies by Day and Allen (2004) have described positive self-image to comprise four elements like self-esteem, locus of control, emotional stability, and self-efficacy. These four elements of positive self-image are found to be related to employability and job satisfaction.

3.4 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for the study is presented in Figure 3.1 which is based on the literature review. The terms conceptual framework and theoretical frameworks are used in the research as two different terminologies. The theoretical framework is based on one theory and is already proven by researchers and easily observable (Camp, 2001). For example, stimulus leads to response. According to Camp (2001):

"In general, a major stumbling block for many researchers in conceptualizing research is the development of an adequate theoretical framework for a study. Equally daunting is the problem of verbalizing the theoretical framework for the purposes of publication in the research literature." (p.3)

However, the conceptual framework is based on interrelationship among the different constructs under study and can later be turned into a research-based theoretical framework. The Figure below shows the conceptual framework.

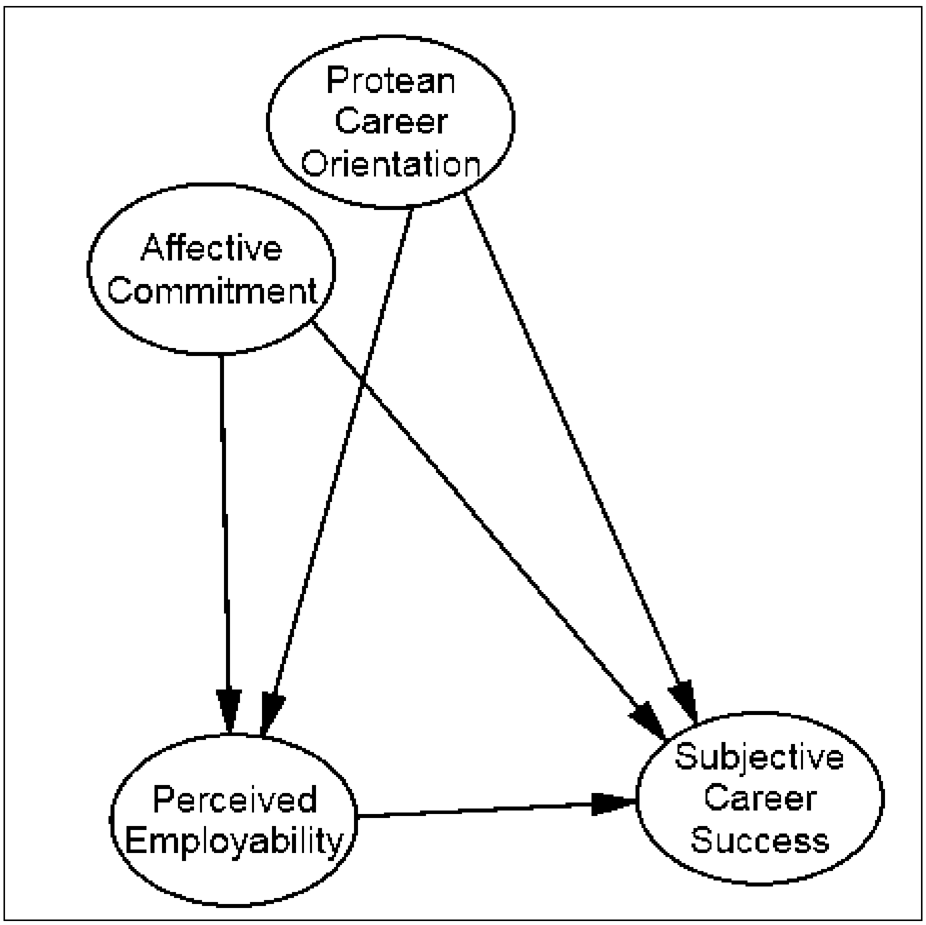

Figure 3.1
Conceptual framework showing the relationship among Protean Career Orientation, Affective Commitment, Perceived Employability and Subjective Career Success

Table 3.2
Direct and Indirect Relationships

Direct Relationships	Indirect Relationships
1.Relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success	1. Mediating role of Perceived Employability between Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success
2.Relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Perceived Employability	2. Mediating role of Perceived Employability between Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success
3.Relationship between Perceived Employability and Subjective Career Success	
4.Relationship between Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success	
5. Relationship between Affective Commitment and Perceived Employability	

3.5 The Relationship between Variables

The researcher has formed hypotheses to test the relationship between variables. The relationships among the variables are presented below, and have been formulated after extensive literature review. These are given as follows:

3.5.1 Relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success

With the emergence of linear career and transactional psychological contracts, company loyalty has been tarnished where career aspirants have become more self-driven rather than being reliant on the organization for their subjective career success (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). A process of negotiation takes place between the career aspirants and the

organizations (Clarke & Patrickson, 2008). Professionals thus expect little or no job security, frequent career transitions, and lower career satisfaction due to their strained ties within the unpredictable labor environment. This has resulted in the appearance of more dynamic career paths, such as protean and boundaryless careers where, professionals have taken the lead in managing their careers (Baruch, 2004; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).
Furthermore, it must be stated that subjective career success is an individual's perception of his or her career achievements, and is a reaction to the experiences unfolding in one's career (Sauer, Desmond & Heintzelman, 2013). These experiences have thus emerged with the evolution of protean career orientations. Hall (2004) describes protean career orientation as the "career learning cycle" in which the person with a protean career mindset tries to achieve psychological success. Also, the protean careerist sets a precedent for others to follow by setting challenging, yet realistic goals, and putting in one's best efforts resulting in the success of the person in his or her career. It is through these continuous learning experiences that psychological success is obtained. However, during the "learning cycle" the protean careerist continuously self-inquires to know why he or she is engaging in a certain action. This reflection helps the protean careerist in learning new experiences, and to adjust to better working conditions.

Protean career orientation is thus described as a feeling of personal agency, which makes an individual manage his or her own career (De Vos & De Soens, 2008). Also, according to Enache *et al.* (2011), self-direction shown by protean careerists is the individual's proactive approach for managing careers. So, instead of borrowing standards from the environment, the person following a protean career is dependent on his or her own values, and aspirations (Briscoe *et al.*, 2006). With "self-direction" as the guiding principle, the protean careerist tries to make the right career choices that are in congruence with his or her career goals (Briscoe *et al.*, 2006). The protean careerist, therefore, has an emphasis on "internal success". Proactive behaviors and openness, the two indicators of protean career orientation have been shown to have an association with subjective career success (Seibert *et al.*, 1999; Ng *et al.*, 2005).

De Vos and Soens (2008) have thereby categorically stated that the role of protean career orientation cannot be understated in the era marked by transactional psychological contracts and workplace insecurity. Moreover, De Vos and Soens (2008) experimented on Belgian employees when they found a positive link between protean career orientation and subjective career success. Thus, individuals that manage their careers by acting proactively are far more successful in their careers. Other researchers like Abele and Spurk (2009), Fuller and Marler (2009), Seibert *et al.* (1999) have also found a significant relationship to exist between subjective career success and protean career orientation.

Furthermore, in the context of a career driven by a protean orientation, the individual lays more emphasis on personal goals (Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011). Previous researchers (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Kelan & Jones, 2010; Nystrom, 2010) meanwhile have identified demographic variables such as gender, race, and education as influencing the career success of the professionals. Also, according to Eby *et al.* (2003), proactive personalities have an influence on career progression and career success.

There is a relationship between protean career orientation (PCO) and subjective career success as PCO develops the proactive dispositions and intrinsic motivations (Briscoe *et al.*, 2006). According to a study on self-initiated expatriates (SIE’s) by Cao, Hirschi and Deller (2013), PCO helps in managing careers of SIE's by fitting in with their career values, and thereby achieve high levels of subjective career success.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H1: There is a positive relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success

3.5.2 Relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Perceived Employability

The world of work in the contemporary era is being affected by various factors such as globalization, recession and technological advancements, all of which have emerged as a result of the upheavals in the economy (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Joseph *et al.*, 2012; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). According to Sullivan and Arthur (2006) careers of today are increasingly becoming haphazard and discontinuous. Traditional career models, though existing side-by-side with contemporary models, have yielded less career success. In contemporary career models, the worker is seen as self-reliant and takes full responsibility for career development.

So, it can be held that the very nature of work has “shifted dramatically since the days of the corporate career”, when the organization was in charge of the employees (Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009). As organizations continue to downsize, restructure and outsource, there has been an emphasis by the employees on the short-term, by becoming more flexible rather than achieving job security over the long-run. These changes taking place in the economy have transformed the career process. Previously, employment was marked by steady upward movements and loyalty shown towards the employer (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Joseph *et al.*, 2012). Nowadays, there is no guarantee of being employed with one organization for a life-time. Thus, employees try to self-manage their careers through making themselves employable in the labor market (Grimland *et al.*, 2012). The employability of the person thus depends on being flexible and adaptable so as to meet the new challenges in the economy.

As discussed above, the sole responsibility for developing the competencies is on the individual. Similarly, according to De Vos and Soens (2008), it is through PCO that individuals develop these competencies by self-managing and subsequently achieving perceived employability. Also, it is through protean careers that individuals value freedom and personal growth. Protean careerists are quick to adapt and reshape themselves according to the current market conditions (Hall, 2002). Employers, meanwhile, are seen as independent, and moving among different functions, organizations and industries, and breaking down the traditional assumptions of a career. An individual following a protean career thus incorporates the interests, relationships, and personal values outside the current workplace (Cabrera, 2007).

For instance, it is through being self-employable that the skills learnt are no longer firm specific; rather, they are adaptable, and transferable. Training, for instance, is not acquired through formal training programmes financed by the employer, but is more off-the-job, and hands-on. Similarly, perceived employability calls for goals to be set not according to the professional's age, but according to the capabilities, and skills of the individual (Segers *et al.*, 2008; Volmer & Spurk, 2011; Zikic *et al.*, 2006). It is interpreted that individuals driven by strong protean career orientations have control over themselves and engage in career self-management activities to build upon social and human capitals. Literature on protean career orientation by Enache *et al.* (2011), Fugate *et al.* (2004) and Hind (2005) establish the fact that protean careerists are driven by career-related competencies so as to maintain employability.

Furthermore, in a survey by De Vos and Soens (2008) on 289 Belgian employees who had received training on career counseling, it was found that protean career was related to perceived employability. Waters, Briscoe, Hall and Wang (2014) revealed that protean career orientation had a positive correlation with finding reemployment that is a precursor to career growth. According to Waters *et al.* (2014), PCO helps a person to express their values during times of unemployment and to retain a sense of identity despite being unpaid for so long.

Another study by Briscoe, Henagan, Burton and Murphy (2012) also found a positive relationship between protean attitude and employees developing career skills that helps to cope with uncertain work situations. The study was carried out on 362 employed workers in the United States during the Global Recession of 2007-2012. Therefore it is hypothesized that:

H2: There is a positive relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability

3.5.3 Relationship between Perceived Employability and Subjective Career Success

The economic conditions during the recession of 2007-2012 have called for workplaces to be more flexible so as to meet marketplace challenges. Likewise, Hall (2002) called for internalizing career success in times of economic uncertainties. There is also an emphasis on employees learning and adapting according to the changing workplace by shifting the motivations from being employer-orientated to being career-orientated. Therefore, continuous learning has become important for the workers in the contemporary era. Moreover, Hall (2004) states that such changes lead the employees to shift their attention towards a career path with a heart rather than moving up the organization's hierarchy. Hall (2003) says about protean career:

> "The central issue is a life fully worth living….The secret is to find your unique genius, your talents that you love to develop and use" (Hall, 2003, p. 9)

There have been thus changes in the psychological contract where, as a result of the transactional psychological contract, the individuals' responsibility for career development has increased (O'Neil *et al.*, 2004; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). Employees can, therefore, enhance their perceptions of employability through the ever increasing possession of skills.

There is empirical evidence to support that perceived employability and career outcomes are positively related to each other. Likewise, in the competency-based definition given by De Vos *et al.* (2011), perceived employability is taken as a human capital variable. According to human capital theory, employees invest in skills which lead them to greater employability in the marketplace (Ackah & Heaton, 2004; Ang, Slaughter & Ng, 2002; Benson, 2006; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Bridgstock, 2009; De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Kinnunen *et al.*, 2011; Omar *et al.*, 2011).

The contest mobility perspective of career success has similar premises. It states that individuals build upon their human capital competencies, so as to lead themselves to subjective career success (Ng *et al.*, 2005). In numerous studies, employability has been positively related to job and career satisfaction (Berntson & Marklund, 2007). Employability is thus considered as an important trait for those who perceive that there are a few job opportunities in the labor market. Uncertainty associated with unemployment may lead to a feeling of reduced well-being, but employability being a positive personality characteristic and psychological attitude may reduce these uncertainties (McKee-Ryan, Song; Wanberg & Kinicki, 2005). According to McKee *et al.* (2005), outcomes associated with reemployment should be assessed in terms of quality of one's reemployment. Researchers such as McKee-Ryan *et al.* (2005) define quality of reemployment as a "new employment" that is of equal if not less than the job that was lost before in terms of satisfaction. Consequently, coping with a job loss takes one form or another until the professional achieves a state of equilibrium with multiple life areas such as work-life balance. Therefore, it may be held that individuals who adjust to less than acceptable jobs are sacrificing their self-worth.

On a negative note, there has been little research done on the relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success. Empirical evidence is provided by De Vos *et al.* (2011), establishing the proposition that perceived employability is positively associated with subjective career success. In their research by De Vos *et al.* (2011), individuals with employment options are more satisfied with the job. Also, Cash and Gardner (2011), depict a positive relationship between hardiness and career satisfaction. According to Cash and Gardiner (2011), hardiness is related to employability, and is a multidimensional concept known for the individual's inclination to act rather than be passive about the outcomes. Eby *et al.* (2003) found a positive relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success when employees' skill building was shown to lead to career satisfaction and success. Also, Gowan (2012) identified four dimensions of perceived employability: career identity, personal adaptability, social capital and human capital. According to Gowan (2012), social capital particularly is related to career satisfaction since networking opens the doors to career opportunities.

Rothwell and Arnold (2007) describe a positive relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success in their study on 200 human resource professionals. According to Rothwell and Arnold (2007):

> "We suggest that subjective career success relates to an individual's perceptions of their past and present, such as how they feel they are doing up to now in relation to their "subjective timetable", while employability relates to their perceptions of the present and future, in that it concerns their self perceptions of how well they expect to be able to deal with a number of circumstances that may present themselves in the future, whether positive (e.g. promotion, selection processes) or negative (e.g. redundancy, downsizing) (p.35-36)

Furthermore, it should be mentioned that employability drive leads to proactivity and opportunities for career development (Chiaburu, Baker & Pitariu, 2006; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005). In their study on a Global Fortune 500 company, Joo and Ready (2012) depicted a positive relationship between highly career satisfied individuals and proactive personalities. According to Joo and Ready (2012), proactivity is independent of the efforts as displayed by the organizations and creates a culture of employability. It is thus assumed that:

H3: There is a positive relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success

3.5.4 Mediating role of Perceived Employability between Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success

An employee's commitment towards their organization has been affected by the appearance of a protean career, where organizations, due to their limited resources, cannot assure life-time employment. The concept of life-time employment has thus faded, and it is time to look beyond the job and to develop the career (Barbara & Wolfgang, 2010). Individuals should be on constant alert to the changes taking place around them. The role of the firm is thus reduced to that of a tool for providing employees all the necessary resources to manage their personal projects. Employees in such a scenario become mere change agents, and focus on themselves. Similarly, various soft and hard skills are acquired by the employees so as to increase their employability within the organization and maintain career satisfaction. Thus, a firm's management is no longer in charge of the employees' career development; rather, the power lies in the hands of the individuals to self-manage their careers. It is up to the workers to find the job that suits their tastes and lifestyles.

The more up-to-date literature on changing career perspectives thus shows the traditional career model as giving way to a protean career model (Benson, 2006; Bridgstock, 2009; Clarke, 2009; Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; De Cuyper *et al.*, 2011; De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Kinnunen *et al.*, 2011; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; Tin, 2006; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006; Van der Heijden & Bakkar, 2011; Van der Heijden *et al.*, 2009; Wittekind *et al.*, 2010; Yousaf & Sanders, 2012). The model is seen by researches as the model for the present and future in developing career satisfaction. It is characterized by lateral job movements, multiple employer relationships, flexible employment contracts, and multiple career changes (Fugate *et al.*, 2004; Sanders & Grip, 2004). The driving force for a protean career model lies in the fact that individuals will not be able to maintain job security in a particular organization, and will develop their careers through skill enhancement (Forrier & Sels, 2003). So, job security has been replaced by employability, and career is seen as a lifelong series of changes and continuous learning; what counts now is one's "career age", not "chronological age". Individuals in the protean career models are thus encouraged to aim for inter-organizational moves, transactional psychological contract, and above all to maintain employability. It is through employability that employees are proud of their personal work achievements.

Likewise, Briscoe *et al.* (2006) describe a protean career architect as being self-directed, values driven, and in line with the changing career patterns (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006; Van der Heijden & Bakkar, 2011; Van der Heijden *et al.*, 2009). Individuals with a protean career orientation tackle issues of organizational changes like delayering, temporary work arrangements, mergers and acquisitions in a more positive frame of mind. The orientation thus helps individuals in times of economic, organizational and employment hardships to maintain employability, and achieve career satisfaction.

Therefore, the old definition for a career, i.e., a course of professional advancement restricted to a hierarchal progression has been replaced by the new definition: the unfolding sequence of a person's work experience over time. With these new definitions come new perspectives on what is required to attain subjective career success from "knowing how" to "learning how" and from "job security" to "employability". It is thus hypothesized from the above mentioned discussion that:

H4: Perceived employability mediates the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success

3.5.5 Relationship between Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success

From the employees' perspective, affective commitment can lead to the built-up of self-esteem and psychological well-being. High affective commitment results in higher performance, lower costs of absenteeism, lower counter-productive behaviors, organizational citizenship behavior, lower turnout, and talent retention (Allen, 2011; Benson, 2006; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Colakoglu *et al.*, 2010; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Ghazzawi, 2008; Grant *et al.*, 2008; Lumley *et al.*, 2011; Malik *et al.*, 2010; Warsi, Fatima & Sahibzada, 2009). However, in recent years, organizations in almost all advanced countries have been facing problems of employee retention (Filstad, 2011; Yousaf & Sanders, 2012). These problems have resulted primarily due to the appearance of phenomena such as globalization, technological advancements, competition, and less job security. The human resource departments, therefore, are aware of paradigm shifts and have thus made organizational policies to not only attract but also to retain intellectual capital (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006).

Moreover, in times of changing employee commitments, the key priorities for organizations include attracting, and retaining personnel through creating a satisfying office environment for employees. In this way, a committed workforce adds to the intellectual capital of the organization. Also, one of the ways in which the organizations can be more competitive and retain labor force is by adding to the psychological success of the employees, and not just providing them with higher pay, power and promotion. In other words, employees having better intrinsic satisfaction are a boon for the organization.

Therefore, with the emergence of intrinsically motivated employees, the contract has changed from relational to transactional (Ackah & Heaton, 2004; Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Clarke, 2009; De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Dries, 2011; Rasdi *et al.*, 2009; Zikic *et al.*, 2006). In relational contract, there is an indefinite commitment shown by the employees towards the organization. In return, the organization offers its staff better wages, power and promotion through upward mobility. However, in the transactional psychological contract there is a partial commitment from both sides as the focus shifts to immediate, short-term gains.

As a result of this transactional contract, there are limited consequences for both the employer and the employee. In such contracts, organizations are expected to provide for professional career development opportunities that are perceived by the employees as a means to increase the satisfaction levels within the organization. Career satisfaction is thus a positive emotional disposition that has an effective response to any job situation (Ariani, 2012). Career satisfaction is the overriding feeling of well-being at one's working environment. It is internally driven and is dependent on the working relationship. Employees that are satisfied with their careers are shown to have higher affective commitment, perform more, show organizational citizenship behavior and support the organization's goals and objectives.

Therefore, the more committed the employee is towards the organization, while being involved in and identifying with the employer, the more satisfied he or she is likely to become. However, it is also pertinent to say that the exchange process affects the organizational commitment of employees (Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford & Wood, 2007). In other words, the employees evaluate the costs and the benefits attached to each job, and individually satisfy the needs and desires resulting in positive feelings towards the working environment. Moreover, there are various aspects of job that have an effect on the satisfaction of employees. These behaviors include work tasks, financial rewards, and promotional activities.

Furthermore, it is pertinent to inform that subjective career success (SCS) is an internally driven process and compares work experiences and established standards. SCS is thus influenced by both sociological and psychological factors (Heslin, 2003). When an employee becomes a part of an organization or a group, he or she will try to internalize the social norms and add meaning to work experiences (Bietry, Creusier, Laroche & Camus, 2014). This was discovered in an experiment by Bietry *et al.* (2014) on 1,100 employees where affective commitment was related to subjective career success. The higher the organization's efforts in caring for the well-being of the labor force, the higher was the emotional attachment towards the employer. Thus internalizing of social norms will form a cognitive structure, or frame of reference for subjective career success. This internalizing also plays an important part in personal expectations and is a vital part for those who are group-orientated (Leede, Looise & Riemsdijk, 2004).

Therefore, the more emotionally attached an employee becomes to the organization, the more he or she will subscribe to the values as espoused by the organization. According to Heslin (2005), affective commitment helps individuals to adapt career success norms that are in tandem with those as espoused by the organization. Thus, career satisfaction will be lower among those employees who have less commitment towards the organization. Conversely, organizations may start a virtuous circle when they look after the well-being of their employees, and thus encourage them to become emotionally attached to the workplace. This congruity, according to Erdogan, Kraimer and Liden (2004), forms one of the chief antecedents of subjective career success. According to Bietry *et al.* (2014):

> "Should the reciprocity norm be violated by one of the parties, that party will incur a penalty. The signal sent by the organization is then disturbed and the employee is unable to appropriate it. Overall, the subjective career success of dually committed individuals is likely to be lower than that of people who are committed mainly to the organization" (p.25)

So, it can be hypothesized that:

H5: There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success.

3.5.6 Relationship between Affective Commitment and Perceived Employability

On a positive note, perceived employability is taken as an asset on the part of the employee to increase performance and flexibility within the labor market (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Therefore, organizations are willing to invest in the employability of their workers so as to increase affective commitment towards the employer. Companies that are not able to provide job security to their employees are willing to invest heavily in employability so as to make sure the employees' skills are up-to-date and marketable. Companies thus can increase the affective commitment of their employees towards the organization by initiating competency development programmes such as personnel career plans and on-the-job training. This investment in the employability of its personnel increases the affective commitment of the employee towards the employer. Employees perceive the organization's investment in their career skills as a positive gesture, and thus reciprocate with relationships being built on norms of social exchange. Employees have an increased affective commitment when they perceive the organization cares about their retention, and that they have bright opportunities for finding better employment in case of downsizing or restructuring.

On the negative side, however, employability may lead to less commitment towards the organization as it leads to self-interest (Pearce & Randel, 2004). In other words, it can be said that employees with high perceived employability may resort to job hopping towards attractive and lucrative jobs. According to Pearce and Randel (2004), high perceived employment results in less commitment towards the organization. The highly employable workers have built up their expertise through years of socialization, skills development, and networking and are likely to show more commitment towards the profession rather than the employing organization. However, there are other factors that may affect the affective commitment of talented workers. Theses are the external environment, and the changes taking place in it. Contemporary management literature is filled with drastic changes taking place in the external environment due to the recession of 2007-2012 that has made the corporate world insecure. Several drastic measures have thus been taken by multinationals such as mergers, acquisitions, bankruptcies, and restructuring so as to cope with the recession.

On a negative note, Van den Berg and Van der Velde (2005) are of the view that organizations investing in employability of their staff members are at a risk of increased turnover before lucrative returns can be had on investment, which thus impairs the knowledge base of the organization. Kang, Gold and Kim (2012) are of the opinion that employable employees tend to decrease their affective commitment towards the organization since they have the belief that other organizations can cater for their skills in better ways. Similarly, Bernston, Naswall and Sverke (2008) are of the opinion that employability-driven employees have more at stake for their careers than the organization. Meanwhile, Kang *et al.* (2012) state:

> "One reason for the dissimilar features of impression management behavior compared to extra-role behavior may be that employable employees seek to maintain positive emotions, self-respect and affective commitment in times of

uncertainty and change and these may be more important aspects to consider than their adaptive tendency in terms of impression management" (p.325)

On a positive note, Lopes and Chambel (2012) studied the employability perceptions of temporary workers working in three distinct organizations. These researchers found training imparted by the employer to increase the employability as well as the commitment (affective) of the workers. These findings are in line with the "social exchange theory" that workers are inclined to reciprocate with positive attitudes toward the organization.

A reciprocal relationship between the employee and the employer is therefore observed such that both expect direct returns on their investments (Benson, 2006). For example, the employing organization expects top notch results from its employees for a competitive pay package, and the employees expect their KSA's to be built upon. Under this psychological contract, the sole responsibility for career-related issues is on the employee. Therefore, under the pretext of employment relations, employability becomes a commodity that is to be exchanged upon with better rewards, and is line with the human capital considerations (De Cuyper, Notelaers & De Witte, 2009). The rewards derived from having high employability perceptions are a precursor to high quality jobs to be had in the future. However, according to De Cuyper *et al.* (2009) less employable workers may think of the organization as a blessing in disguise and thus show high affective commitment towards it. From the above argument, it may stated that:

H6: There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability

3.5.7 Mediating role of Perceived Employability between Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success

Highly employable workers are at ease in finding new jobs (Nauta, Van Vianen, Van der Heijden, Van Dam & Willemsen, 2009). They have flexibility in the labor market to which such individuals have ready access. The term "employability perceptions" here refers to the likelihood of finding equal or better job in one's career or retaining the present job (Forrier & Sels, 2003). Perceived employability thus plays an important part in the career of a worker whether he or she is at the beginning, middle or final stage (Charner, 1988).

Organizations, however, may want to stimulate the employability of their employees by developing the individual's characteristics. For example, a large Dutch telecom company increased the employability of their staff by implementing an "employability website" through which employees can spend a budget on various programmes such as education, career guidance and attending workshops. These efforts by the organization were directed towards creating affective commitment by the employees so that they are more prepared for the upheavals in the labor market, as the industry giant is constantly changing and needs to downsize (Sjollema, 2007).

However, there is a dilemma being faced here as organizations wanting to stimulate the employability of the workers may not be able to retain the individuals (McQuaid &

Lindsay, 2005). According to McQuaid and Lindsay (2005), employability drive may be a precursor for increased turnover and thus a threat to the firm. Employability-driven employees have up-to-date skills and knowledge (Fugate *et al.*, 2004). As a result, employees may want to leave the job and find meaningful work somewhere else (McArdle, Waters, Briscoe & Hall, 2007).

Subjective career success, meanwhile, is about self-actualization, individualism, and satisfaction in the working environment (Baruch, 2004). The definition of contemporary career success according to Hall (2002) transcends in an upward manner in the hierarchy, across industries, and functions. Employees, however, are also affectively committed to their employer due to its fostering a culture of employability. Thus, organizations that succeed in creating a culture of employability also create positive attitudes among employees regarding job changes (Nauta *et al.*, 2009). An organization with an employability culture wants its employees to develop the latest skills set.

De Vos, Dewettinck and Buyens (2009b) discovered the relationship between affective commitment, perceived employability and subjective career success. De Vos *et al.* (2009b) studied 491 employees working in six organizations and found that those employees who initiated self-management behaviors received support from the organization. The study showed that employees benefited from self-management behaviors and thus possessed increased employability, affective commitment and subjective career success.

Furthermore, Meyer *et al.* (2004) while taking on the self-determination theory and the regulatory focus theory proposed that employees driven by a strong affective commitment are autonomous, intrinsically motivated and have a promotion focus. It can, therefore, be derived from this argument as proposed by Meyer *et al.* (2004) that employees having high affective commitment are also high in developing employability. It is brought to light from the above argument that employees exhibit affective commitment as long as the employer fulfills the psychological contract conditions, i.e., provides opportunities for continuous learning, which may lead to their eventual subjective career success. It is assumed from the above discussion that:

H7: Perceived employability mediates the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success

3.6 Summary

This chapter has explained the underpinning theories, the conceptual model, direct and indirect relationships, and the various hypotheses. The next chapter describes the design of the study, population, sampling, unit of analysis, reasons for taking “W” category private universities, measurement items, questionnaire design, results of pilot study, data analysis procedures and introduction to structural equation modeling.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research paradigm, design of the study, population, sampling design, measurements, data collection process, pilot study, data cleaning techniques and introduction to structural equation modeling.

4.2 Paradigm and Design of the Research

Before the researcher provides an explanation of the various methods used to gather data, qualitative or quantitative, it is important to know the philosophical underpinnings of the present study and the paradigm driving research. The word paradigm was used in 1962 by Thomas Kuhn in his book, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* and refers to:

> "A loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that orient thinking and research" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 22)

There are various paradigms used in research. These include the positivist paradigm, post-positivist paradigm, interpretive paradigm, critical paradigm and post-modern paradigm (Creswell, 2009). In order to choose the right paradigm, it is important to briefly highlight each one:

i. The positivist paradigm is a well known paradigm used throughout the world of research. It is also known as the "scientific paradigm" and is commonly used to test hypotheses. Such a paradigm is important for the social sciences, natural sciences and physical sciences, where a large sample is required (Creswell, 2009). The positivists are driven by quantitative research methods and use statistical tools and techniques so as to test for causal relationships.

ii. Post-positivist paradigm, meanwhile, is a milder' form of positivism that utilizes a mixture of both qualitative and quantitative research methods such as interviews, observations, questionnaire surveys and statistical tools (Creswell, 2009). Post-positivist paradigm is thus known as the "modern scientific model".

iii. The interpretive paradigm is of the view that "humans are qualitatively distinct", "reality is the sum of subjective perceptions" and "it is impossible to make predictions" (Creswell, 2009). According to the paradigm, people have a sense of purpose, goals and thus act according to their own interpretations, and definitions. Interpretive approaches rely heavily on qualitative research methods such as interviews, observation techniques and analyses of existing literature.

iv. The critical paradigm helps to resolve oppression and to resolve global issues. The purpose of the critical paradigm is to analyze the world through the political lens, in which the rich, the hegemony, and the politicians exert power over weaker groups (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The critical theory thus takes a historical stand. The goal of critical paradigm is emancipation of the oppressed classes. The paradigm puts various methods to use such as interviews, observations and textual analyses. Market research can use the critical paradigm, for example, to gauge the meaning of a particular product, and to know why consumers are resistant to buy a product?

v. Post-modernism is a view that tackles the modernist paradigm. It questions the modernist view of a universal truth, which can be uncovered through scientific methods (Feldman, 1999). Post modernist researchers are critical of the positivists and thereby, question the modern world of the early and mid-twentieth century characterized by industrialization. Post-modernists see communities governed by their own codes, culture, values, and commitment where, power is a “social production process”, created out of collective meaning. Such power is maintained in knowledge, and knowledge is an instrument of power used by people to make sense of reality around them.

The present research after review of all paradigms as mentioned above has followed the positivist paradigm founded by Comte in his book: *The Positive Philosophy of Auguste Comte*. The positivist approach is used since the paradigm offers a self-censured tool to check for data reliability and validity, and diminishes personal subjectivity that distorts the production of knowledge. Also, by using a positivist approach, the researcher is able to capture the difference that is found between existing theories and hypotheses formed, and thus, challenging previously held ideas to resolve for inconsistencies. The positivist approach is more suitable for business and career management studies as it is linked with variable analyses and quantification (Thomas, 2004). Positivists thus stress upon and determine the change in one variable causing change in another variable (causal relationships).

In order to understand the positivist paradigm better, it is important to know the structure of a paradigm. A paradigm consists of 4 main parts: ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Each of the components are briefly discussed below:

Ontology is basically the study of being. Ontology is primarily concerned with the reality or what is. Therefore, researchers need to be aware of things as they really are and how they work. Positivists are of the view that reality is not mediated through our senses. And, realism is of the view that things exist and are independent of the researcher. The ontology for the present research is, thereby derived from positivist view that the researcher and the reality are separate identities.

Epistemology is the form and nature of knowledge. Epistemology is concerned with the creation, acquisition and communication of knowledge. So positivist epistemology is related to objectivism. Positivists seek an unbiased approach to discovering reality, where the person who is researching and the thing researched upon are independent of each other. Or in other words, “meaning” resides within the object researched upon and not in the conscience of the researcher. The aim of the scientist is thus to obtain the meaning of the thing researched upon. Crotty (1989) explains this as:

> “A tree in the forest is a tree, regardless of whether anyone is aware of its existence or not. As an object of that kind, it carries the intrinsic meaning of treeness. When human beings recognize it as a tree, they are simply discovering a meaning that has been lying in wait for them all along” (p.8)

Every paradigm is thus a mixture of ontological and epistemological assumptions. These assumptions are reflected in the methodology and the method used. Epistemologically, most of the research on subjective career success has been from a positivist approach, e.g. Abele and Spurk (2009), Bietry *et al.* (2014), Colakoglu (2011), Enache *et al.* (2011), Nabi (2000), Ng *et al.* (2005), Simo *et al.* (2010) and Stumpf and Tymon (2012). Thus, the researcher has decided to adopt the positivist epistemological approach.

Methodology is the scheme or strategy that lies behind the method chosen. The methodology is therefore, concerned with the "what", "how", "where", "when", and "why" of data collection and analyses (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The methodology part questions as to how a scientist can go about finding whatever they believe can be known. Positivist methodologists are thus concerned with causal relationships, and use a deductive approach. Hypotheses are formed, standardized tests are taken, correlation studies are done, close-ended questionnaires are designed and data is collected through participants. Hypotheses are then tested for their eventual approval or disapproval (refer to section 3.5, section 4.5 and section 5.2 of the thesis for clarification on the positivist methodology).

4.2.1 Design of the Research

The design of research is defined as a guide that helps the researcher in collecting and analyzing the data (Bajpai, 2011; McNabb, 2004; McNabb, 2008). There are three types of research designs: exploratory, descriptive and causal. The researcher by following the “scientific process”, applies all the three research designs at different stages of research. In order to understand the three research designs, it is important to have a closer look at each one.

Exploratory research is a qualitative technique used to get insights into any research problem (McNabb, 2008). Extensive literature review using secondary data is carried out at this stage so as to sort out the relevant variables, to find out the theoretical framework and to develop the conceptual framework. The researcher studies different journals, books, magazines and newspapers to shed light on the issues related to the research gaps. Such a research design therefore, is rather unstructured by giving the researcher the freedom to understand the problem. It is at the explorative stage that the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, objectives of the research, significance of the study are presented. Key variables are defined conceptually and operationally. Furthermore, the hypotheses are developed describing the relationships between the various variables under study. The methodology along with the questionnaire is chalked out in the exploratory stage. A small pilot study is carried out to check for the validity and reliability of the instrument used. Refer to chapter one, chapter two, chapter three and chapter four of the thesis for details on the exploratory research design.

Descriptive research, meanwhile, describes the research by answering the: “who”, “what”, “where”, “how”, and “when” of research (Bajpai, 2011). However, the answer to “why” is not given at the descriptive stage but rather at the causal stage (Hair *et al.*, 2006). The researcher attempts to address “who” should be surveyed (individual, group or organization), “what” demographic characteristics of the respondents to measure (age, sex, income, experience or educational level), from “where” (city, group of towns, country-wise, or cross country), “how” data can be collected (method of data collection) and “when” to study (cross-sectional or longitudinal study). The structure of the questionnaire is thought out for the main survey in the descriptive research stage after removing for deficiencies in the exploratory stage. The researcher, thereby, finalizes the type of questions to ask whether close-ended or open-ended, adopt or adapt the instruments, type of Likert scale to use, wordings of the questionnaire and how to distribute the questionnaire: to mail questionnaire by post, email or conduct face-to-face interviews. Descriptive research can be carried out through cross-sectional or longitudinal designs (Malhotra, 2009). Cross-sectional research, for example, might attempt to establish the relationship between protean career orientations and subjective career success at a given time. The researcher might want to know whether protean career orientation reduces or increases subjective career success. Four different strata are included in the study, i.e. professors, associate professors, assistant professors and lecturers. So the researcher mails the questions related to protean career orientation and subjective career success. On the other hand, a longitudinal study might want to know the relationship between protean career orientations and subjective career success over an extended period of time. The present research, meanwhile, is cross-sectional in nature. This is due to time and budget constraints. It takes a snapshot of a population, and allows for conclusions to be drawn about a phenomenon in a given time that is representative of the entire population. The cross-sectional study allows the researcher to compare the variables at the same time. The researcher, therefore, examined the relationship between protean career orientation, affective commitment, perceived employability and subjective career success by taking a snapshot of the population working in the private sector universities. The main disadvantage of cross-sectional study is that the researcher might not know for sure what will be the level of subjective career success after 20 years. The researcher has included this as one of the limitations of the present research and it is presented in chapter six.

After exploratory and descriptive research designs, the final stage is the causal research design. It answers the "why" question of research. In causal research design, the researcher takes into account the various cause-and-effect relationships (McNabb, 2004). These causal relationships include the direct and indirect effects as depicted in Table 3.2 of the present thesis. The causal design thus may describe the effects of an independent variable "A" on the dependent variable "B". Also, a mediating variable "X" maybe introduced so as to find the indirect effect of X on both A and B. In the causal research stage, the raw data is first cleaned and checked for missing values, outliers, skewness, kurtosis, homoscedascity and multicollinearity before data analysis can be done. Furthermore, a correlational approach is more appropriate at the causal research stage as the researcher identifies the important factors that are associated with the problem. Besides, correlation studies are done to explain for the variance, and the nature of relationships that exist between the variables (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). After cleaning the data in the spreadsheet, data analysis is done using various statistical techniques. These techniques are mentioned in detail in section 4.9. After data analysis, the results are interpreted, and hypotheses are reviewed in terms of statistical significance or insignificance. The findings are then discussed in detail and seen in terms of the literature review and hypotheses formed.

4.2.2 Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods

The positivist viewpoint stresses upon quantitative rather than qualitative research methods. However, as a researcher, it is important to distinguish between the two methods. Research can be done through quantitative or qualitative or mix methods (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). The method chosen depends upon the conceptual framework, objectives of the study, questions of the study, resource availability, information desired, and population. The main difference between the two branches of data analysis are that qualitative analysis has a small sample size, and is exploratory in nature (Malhotra, 2009).

A small sample size in qualitative approach means that the researchers cannot generalize the findings of their research to the entire population. A qualitative study is, therefore, more appropriate to gauge the feelings and thought processes of the respondents. The qualitative study simply provides an in-depth analysis of the problem statement (Creswell, 2009; Zikmund, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). An example of qualitative research is the examination of information whereby the researcher looks for the variables that can cause career satisfaction. The data analysis would be done through interviews, case studies, ethnography or content analysis. There would be no statistical calculations involved in the entire process of data analysis.

In quantitative research, on the other hand, there is a rigorous analysis of data by calculations and statistical processes (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). An example of quantitative analysis is when the researcher wants to know whether protean career orientation is significantly linked to career satisfaction. Similarly, through quantitative research, the hypotheses can be proved or disproved by applying statistical methods. For the current study, the researcher finds the quantitative approach to problem solving more appropriate. This approach would help the researcher to find out the relationships that exist among the hypotheses formed. The researcher thus applies statistical techniques, to confirm or disaffirm a hypothesis (refer to headings 4.9.5: “structural equation modeling”). Besides, in the quantitative approach for data collection and analysis standardized questionnaires are distributed to the sample the findings of which can be generalized to the entire population (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). One of the most common methods in social science research is thus done through surveys and questionnaires. A random sample of respondents take the test, and complete the questionnaire related to the various variables under study.

4.2.3 A Hypothetico-Deductive Research

It is pertinent to mention that the present study is mainly derived from the existing literature of human resource management. The researcher has made an effort to explore various literatures in light of a research problem. The review of literature thus led to certain gaps. Exploration on specific aspects guided the researcher towards the formulation of a research model suitable for the research problem.

At an epistemological level, this study has utilized the hypothetico-deductive approach. The implementation of this approach for the present research is not unidirectional (from theory to the empirical), since there has been a return to analytical framework theory (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). This has led to the formulations of a set of assumptions that were tested through the collection of empirical data. Thus, in terms of method, a quantitative validation of the conceptual model of research by analyzing data collected through questionnaires is used. This is consistent with the objectives of the research aimed to test relationships between the various research variables.

4.2.4 Inferential and Descriptive Statistics

It is pertinent to inform that the present study has used inferential statistics rather than descriptive statistics. Inferential statistics refers to the statistics that relies on a sample to draw inferences from a larger set of data called the "population" (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). The reason for using inferential statistics includes the fact that it is impossible to ask each and every academic in the private sector about his or her career satisfaction. So the researcher asked a small number of academics within the private sector to draw inferences about the entire population of private sector academics.

Descriptive statistics, on the other hand, constitutes numerical values used to summarize or describe the "data". The word data here refers to the information that has been collected from an experiment, historical record or survey. If the researcher is analyzing the private sector academics, examples of a descriptive statistics are the "mean age" of academics or the "percentage" of male and female academics. So, descriptive statistics are just descriptive, and the researcher cannot generalize beyond the data at hand. To generalize the data, the researcher uses inferential statistics.

4.3 Reasons for studying "W" category Private Sector Academics

The Higher Education Commission (HEC) was formerly called the University Grants Commission (UGC). However, in year 2002, the government changed its name to Higher Education Commission due to the promulgation of Higher Education Commission Act (HEC, 2012). The HEC Act called for recognition of universities by the Government of Pakistan. Before the formation of the Higher Education Commission, the UGC was responsible for the recognition of universities.

The HEC is the body that is responsible for quality assurance, policy formation, institutional development and manpower provision of both public and private universities. The HEC has thus divided the private universities into "W" and "non-W" categories. In the "W" category, all private universities fulfill minimum requirements as set out by the HEC to select faculty members, admit students and to award degrees. While, in the "non-W" cadre there are several quality shortcomings such as the presence of part-time academics rather than full-time academics, a lack of infrastructure for research and degrees not recognized by the HEC (refer to the Appendix "D" for a complete list "W" and non-"W" category private universities).

Private universities, therefore, have quality inspections done by the HEC, and upon fulfilling certain quality parameters laid down by the Higher Education Commission the university is awarded a “W” category. The letter “W” is just a dummy variable that has no meaning in itself but resembles a quality standard met. Also, to provide better education to students, the HEC has “W-1” (meeting the minimum HEC requirement) to “W-4” categories (those with far superior academic, financial and physical infrastructure). So, the researcher has included all the “W” category private sector university academics since they fulfill the minimum standards set out by the government, and have degrees recognized by the HEC.

4.4 Population, Sampling Frame and Sample

The present research is based on inferential statistics. The term “inferential statistics” applies to the information obtained from the sample selected out of the total population of academics’ (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). The main goal of survey execution, therefore, is to collect data that represents the population under study (Hair, 2006; 2010; Hau & Marsh, 2004). According to Hair *et al.* (2010), the population is the complete collection of subjects of interest to be researched upon. From a given population, the researcher derives the sample. A sample is defined as an integral part of the population that is being researched; it could also be called the sub-collection of a given population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The term “population sampling” is thus a process of selecting representative elements or individuals from the population for the purpose of statistical measurement and analysis. The Figure below describes the sampling process:

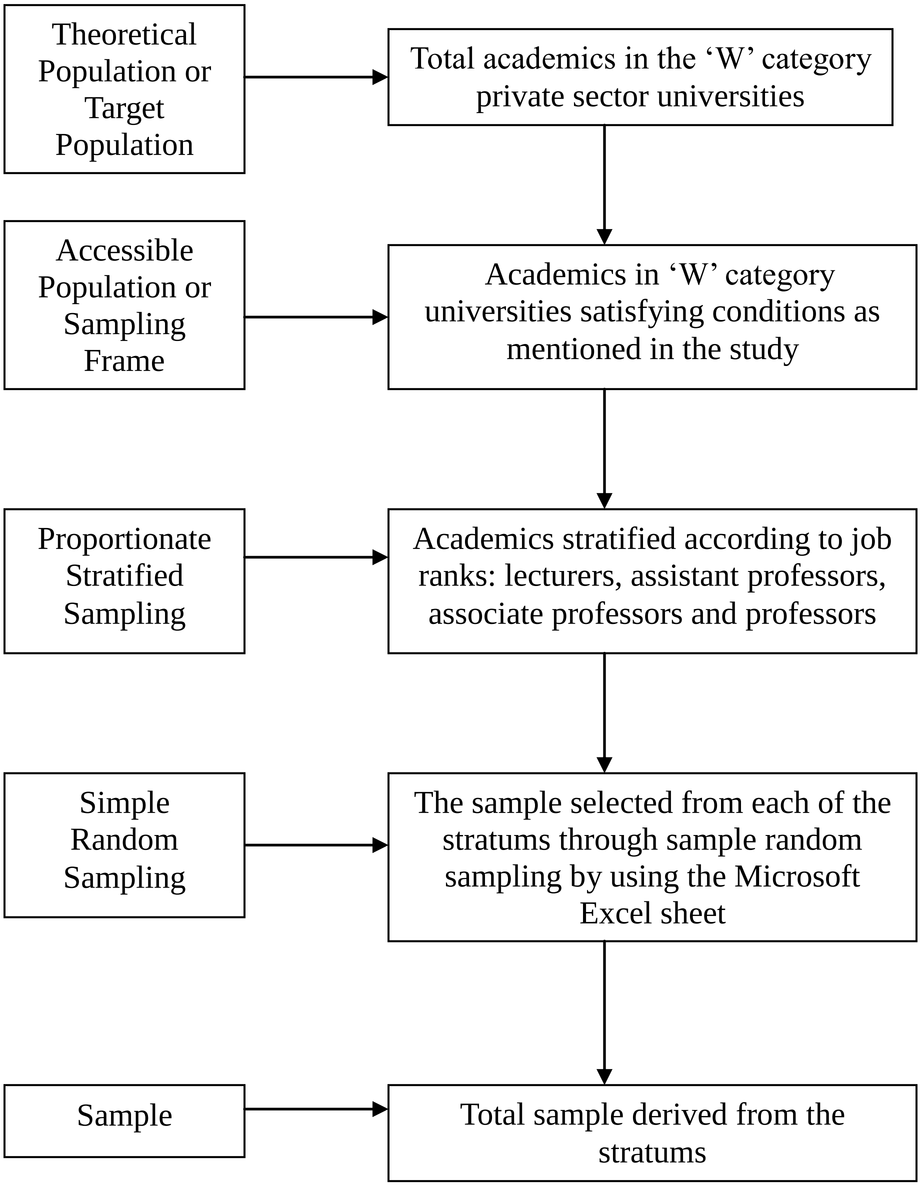

Figure 4.1
Population, Sampling Frame and Sample

The population for this study (or also called the "theoretical population") is all the academics in the "W" category private sector universities. Due to time and budget constraints, it is hardly ever possible to study the theoretical population, so the researcher has to have the "accessible population". The accessible population or the sampling frame includes all those private sector academics satisfying the following conditions: They are from a “W” category private university recognized by the HEC within Pakistan, and have job as professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, demonstrators or senior registrars as designated by the HEC.

Thus, the sampling frame should coincide with the population of interest. The term sampling frame is, however, a set of units from which the sample is drawn (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Table 4.1 below shows the sampling frame. It has been divided according to the various provinces of Pakistan.

Table 4.1
Sampling Frame of "W" Category Private University Academics

S.#	Name of University	Total
	Punjab Province	
1.	Beaconhouse National University	46
2.	Forman Christian College	175
3.	Hajvery University	157
4.	Lahore School of Economics	63
5.	Minhaj University	124
6.	The Superior University	40
7.	University of Central Punjab	216
8.	University of Lahore	530
9.	University of Management & Technology	292
10.	University of South Asia	37
11.	Lahore University of Management Sciences	147
12.	University of Faisalabad	186
13.	HITEC University	61
	Sindh Province	
14.	Aga Khan University	57
15.	Hamdard University	246
16.	Institute of Business Management	56
17.	Indus Institute of Higher Education	26
18.	Dadabhoy Institute of Higher Education	44
19.	Greenwich University	147
20.	Baqai Medical University	138
21.	Isra University	159

Table 4.1 (Continued)

S.#	Name of University	Total
22.	Sir Syed University of Engineering	264
23.	Textile Institute of Pakistan	14
24.	Shaheed Zulfiqar Ali Insitute of Business Administration	84
25.	Jinnah University for Women	216
	Federal Capital	
26.	Fauji Foundation University	188
27.	National University of Computer & Emerging Sciences	315
28.	Riphah International University	274
	Kyber Paktunkhan	
29.	Ghulam Ishaq Khan Institute of Engineering	40
30.	Abasyn University	122
31.	Gandhara University	13
32.	City University of Science and Technology	104
33.	Sarhad University	165
34.	Northern University	42
	Azad Kashmir	
35.	Mohi-Ud-Din Islamic University	206
	Total	**4,994**

The researcher found the details of the total faculty members through university websites. The universities that did not have well defined job ranks as set out by the HEC were not included in the sampling frame. Therefore, out of the 52 private universities, the researcher has chosen academics in 35 universities. The population within these 35 universities is the sampling frame for the researcher.

The sampling frame for the study is thus the 4,994 academics as described in Table 4.1 above. Note that for medical universities “demonstrator” and “senior registrar” are lecturer level posts in the non-clinical sciences and clinical sciences respectively. A demonstrator in the non-clinical sciences has a Bachelor of Medicine Bachelor of Surgery

(MBBS) degree from HEC recognized university. A senior registrar in the clinical sciences has a MBBS degree along with other qualifications: Doctor of Medicine (MD) / Doctor of Medical Science (DMS) / Fellow of College of Physicians and Surgeons (FCPS) / Master of Dental Surgery (MDS) degrees or has membership of Royal Colleges (UK) or is a Diploma holder of American Board or equivalent.

4.4.1 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis is defined as the one that is being measured in the study or what is being measured (Hair *et al.*, 2006, 2010). The unit of analysis, therefore, can be the individual, the organization, or a group of individuals. The research can also include dyads or triads. Dyad describes two people within the study who are distinct from one another; as husband and wife or manager and his juniors or blue collar and white collar individuals. Triads are three people being studied like the supervisor, his worker and the consumer. In social research, triads are less stable and less studied than are dyads. The unit of analysis for this research is the individual. Therefore, a sample of 351 individual academics is taken for this study.

4.4.2 Sampling Design

It is pertinent to mention again that the accessible population for the study is the 4,994 private university academic members. The researcher has drawn his sample from the accessible population as given in Table 4.1. Also, the sample is calculated at 95%

confidence level (CI) and margin of error is 5%. The 95% CI is in congruence with other studies on career satisfaction such as Ng *et al.* (2005).

To calculate the sample size, the researcher has adopted the: “Table for determining sample size for given population” from Krejcie and Morgan (1970). To obtain the sample, one needs only to see the Table at population given. According to the Table (refer to Appendix “M”), if the population is 4,994 then the sample size comes out to be 351 (between 4,500 and 5,000). Also, according to Hair *et al.* (2010) the minimum sample size depends on the following factors: Minimum 100 sample size, if there are 5 or less latent constructs and each latent construct has > 3 items, and Minimum 150 sample size, if there are 7 or less latent constructs and each latent constructs has > 3 items.

According to the above mentioned criteria as prescribed by Hair *et al.* (2010), the researcher with 4 latent constructs (subjective career success, protean career orientation, perceived employability and affective commitment) and each latent construct having >3 observed variables, thus aims for a minimum of 100 sample size so as to run in structural equation modeling. However, utmost importance is given to get as close as possible to the required sample size of 351.

The researcher has also employed proportionate stratified sampling so that all academics within the frame have an equal chance of representation and the sample is not biased towards any one rank. The various strata included in the study are thus based on job rank: professor, associate professor, assistant professor and lecturer. The stratification of academics according to rank is similar to that of other studies such as those by Chaudhry (2013b), Oshagbemi (2000), Oshagbemi, (2003), Mamiseishvili (2011) and Mamiseishvili and Rosser (2011). The breakdown of the population of research along the various strata is shown below:

Table 4.2
Breakdown of Academics according to Job Rank

S.#	Name of University	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Lecturers
	Punjab Province				
1.	Beaconhouse National	2	5	23	16
2.	Forman Christian College	39	23	84	29
3.	Hajvery University Lahore	22	-	15	120
4.	Lahore School of	21	10	32	-
5.	Minhaj University Lahore	1	2	16	105
6.	The Superior University	2	3	4	31
7.	University of Central	10	18	76	112
8.	University of Lahore	10	29	153	338
9.	University of Management	18	18	123	133
10.	University of South Asia	3	3	11	20
11.	Lahore University	99	39	9	-
12.	University of Faisalabad	186	11	32	109
13.	HITEC University Taxila	5	2	24	30
	Sindh Province				
14.	Aga Khan University	7	14	29	7
15.	Hamdard University	25	26	96	99
16.	Institute of Business	8	10	19	19
17.	Indus Institute	4	3	2	17
18.	Dadabhoy Institute of	5	2	6	31
19.	Greenwich University	4	9	37	97
20.	Baqai Medical University	50	21	61	6
21.	Isra University	25	18	44	72
22.	Sir Syed University	10	10	126	118
23.	Textile Institute of Pakistan	-	1	9	4
24.	Shaheed Zulfiqar Institute	7	3	50	24
25.	Jinnah University	20	17	61	118
	Federal Capital				
26.	Fauji Foundation	188	16	64	85
27.	National University	315	25	185	92
28.	Riphah International	274	26	105	114

Table 4.2 (Continued)

S.#	Name of University	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Lecturers
	Khyber Paktunkhan				
29.	GIK Institute	12	2	26	-
30.	Abasyn University	9	6	29	78
31.	Gandhara University	-	-	8	5
32.	City University of Science	15	16	23	50
33.	Sarhad University	13	2	49	101
34.	Northern University	7	9	5	21
	Azad Kashmir				
35.	Mohi-Ud-Din Isl.University	20	4	35	147
	Total	**482**	**403**	**1,761**	**2,348**

Moreover, simple random sampling (SRS) has been employed within each stratum so that every member within the given stratum has an equal chance of being selected. The Table showing the faculty members chosen through SRS within each stratum is given below:

Table 4.3
Total Population Stratum-Wise

	Total academics in each stratum	Percentage as of total population of academics (4,994)	Total academics as of sample size (351)*
Professors	482	9.70%	34
Associate Professors	403	8.10%	28
Assistant Professors	1,761	35.2%	124
Lecturers	2,348	47%	165
Grand Total	**4,994**	**100%**	**351**

*Figure obtained by multiplying 351 by percentage

4.4.3 Simple Random Sampling

Simple random sampling is a technique which is defined as a process whereby every member within the given population has an equal chance of being selected from the target population (Sekaran, 2003). The researcher decided to use the Microsoft Excel sheet for simple random sampling. This technique is mentioned by the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire (2015) in their "Online Help Documentation" and is also referred by Albright, Winston and Zappe (2010) in their book: *Data Analysis and Decision Making.*

For the method, 4,994 names had to be typed in Excel and four different sheets were created: sheet 1, sheet 2, sheet 3 and sheet 4 corresponding with the job rank: lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor and professor. Furthermore, the researcher created four separate columns within each sheet. The first column contained unique random numbers, the second column had the unique serial number given to each academic, the third column had the names of faculty members, and the fourth column had the names of the universities. Unique numbers were randomly generated from 1 to 1,000,000 with the help of formula: Rand ( ) * 1,000,000 so as to allow for simple random sampling. The researcher then sorted the column with random numbers from the smallest to the largest so as to select the top 34 professors, 28 associate professors, 124 assistant professors and 165 lecturers corresponding with the total sample size 351.

4.5 Measurements

The subsequent sections explain the instruments employed for each of the variables. A close-ended questionnaire was used to gather information about the four variables under study: protean career orientation, affective commitment, perceived employability and subjective career success. Moreover, all the questions and the Likert scales pertaining to the four variables have been adopted. Prior permission has also been obtained from the author whose instrument is being taken.

4.5.1 Subjective Career Success

Subjective career success has been used interchangeably as career satisfaction in the present study as well as by previous researchers (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Bridgstock, 2009; Fugate *et al.*, 2004; Ng *et al.*, 2005) used career satisfaction to represent subjective career success, while salary and promotion were used as representatives of objective career success.

Subjective career success is measured using the five items adopted from the “Career Satisfaction Questionnaire” developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990). Permission to adopt the instrument was acquired from the main author Dr Greenhaus (refer to Appendix “C”). The instrument used to measure career satisfaction by Greenhaus *et al.* (1990) has been used by other researchers such as Allen (2011), Abele and Spurk (2009), Barnett and Bradley (2007), Tan and Khulida (2011), Lee (2002), Park

(2010), Seibert, Grant and Kraimer (1999), Seibert and Kraimer (2001) and Simo *et al.* (2010).

However, there are also other instruments used to measure subjective career success. These instruments include those developed by Gattiker and Larwood (1986), Heslin (2003), Judge *et al.* (1999), Schneer and Reitman (1990) and Turban and Doherty (1994). The researcher has thus decided to adopt the instrument by Greenhaus *et al.* (1990) as it has an excellent internal reliability of α=.88, and is mostly used to measure career satisfaction. The various questions used in the current research are shown below:

Table 4.4
Items for Subjective Career Success

Variable	**Operational Definition**	**Items**
Subjective Career Success	It refers to individuals' feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment in their careers (Greenhaus *et al.*,1990)	1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career 2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals 3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income 4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement 5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills

Source: Greenhaus *et al.* (1990)

Furthermore, all the items are measured on a five point Likert scale from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5= Strongly Agree. The same Likert scale has also been used by other researchers such as Abele, Spurk and Volmer (2011), Allen (2011), Tan and Khulida

(2011) and Omar *et al.* (2011), while measuring career satisfaction using the Greenhaus *et al.* (1990) instrument.

4.5.2 Protean Career Orientation

Protean career orientation is measured using the "protean career orientation scale" (PCOS) developed by Bridgstock (2007). Permission to adopt the instrument was secured from the main author Dr Bridgstock (refer to Appendix "C" for permission letter). The questionnaire used is based on the protean career theory emphasizing dispositions, attitudes and beliefs leading to success in a non-traditional career (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Briscoe *et al.*, 2006; Hall & Chandler, 2005). Also, according to protean career theory, successful protean careerists possess a number of underlying dispositions. These dispositions are the base on which the questionnaire (PCOS) has been developed. These dispositions include: strong internal motivations (Gagné, Senecal & Koestner, 1997); self-directedness (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Hall & Chandler, 2005); proactivity (Briscoe *et al.*, 2006; Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003); resilience and adaptability (Lounsbury *et al.*, 2003); openness to career opportunities (Chiaburu, Baker & Pitariu, 2006); a positive self-image (Judge & Bono, 2001), and a positive interpersonal orientation (Seibert & Kramer, 2001). Thus, Bridgstock (2007) describes these dispositions in her own words:

> "Seven related underlying attributes or dispositions are commonly argued in protean career literature to lead to individual career success in the context of the non-traditional career pattern. These are: strong internal motivations; self-directedness; proactivity; resilience and adaptability; openness to career

> opportunities; a positive self image; and a positive interpersonal orientation. For the purpose of the present study, these seven underlying attributes comprise protean career success orientation" (p.11)

In her pilot study and main survey, Dr Bridgstock labeled the protean career orientation scale as "beliefs about the career", to make it more attractive and easily readable to the respondents in general. In email conversation with Dr Bridgstock (Appendix "C"), she describes this as:

> "Yes, I can confirm that the scale used measures protean career orientation and that it was labeled "your career beliefs" in the survey because to label the scale "protean career orientation" might be confusing for people who aren't familiar with the theory"

The researcher, therefore also labeled protean career orientation: "your career beliefs" so as to make less confusing for people who aren't sure about the theory. According to Barker, Elliot and Pistrang (2002), the golden rule to design a questionnaire that is easy by putting oneself in the shoes of the respondent. At the same time, it should capture all the elements as explained by the construct.

After the pilot study with 168 education students, Bridgstock (2007) reduced the number of items from 7 to 6 as the item "positive self image" was removed to make way for a more improved model fit. These 6 items of PCOS can be found in the thesis of Dr Bridgstock on page 214, Table 6.24 titled: "Final Protean Career Success Orientation Scale Items and Factors". Also, according to Bridgstock (2007):

> "It may be worthwhile to conduct further PCOS validation work with other populations of careerists" (p.214 of her thesis)

The researcher has therefore, decided to adopt the present instrument from Bridgstock (2007) since it measures on a single dimension of protean career orientation, has six questions and is thus more respondent friendly. The questionnaire has an excellent internal reliability with an alpha value of α=.85, and is greater than those developed by Briscoe *et al.* (2006), Baruch and Quick (2007) and Baruch, Bell and Gray (2005). The protean career orientation scale used by Briscoe *et al.* (2006) is long consisting of 14 items, and has two dimensions: self-directedness and value-drive. The alpha values of the two constructs is .75 and .70, respectively. Other instruments used to measure protean career orientation include those proposed by Baruch and Quick (2007) and Baruch, Bell and Gray (2005). However, they also have a relatively lower internal reliability with alpha values of α=.75 and α=.71, respectively.

The various research items adopted in the scale are shown below in Table 4.5. The instrument is measured on a six point Likert scale from 1=Strongly Disagree to 6=Strongly Agree.

Table 4.5
Items for Protean Career Orientation scale

Dimension	Operational Definition	Items
Protean Career Orientation	The degree of independence and proactivity shown by the individual during his or her career (Bridgstock, 2007)	1. I am self-directed and take personal responsibility 2. I am proactive 3. I am internally motivated 4. I have a positive interpersonal orientation 5. I am resilient and adaptable 6. I am open to opportunities

Source: Bridgstock (2007)

4.5.3 Affective Commitment

The researcher adopts the 6 item "Revised Affective Commitment Scale" used by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). Permission to adopt the instrument was taken from the main author Dr Meyer (refer to Appendix "C"). The original affective commitment scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) had 8 items. However, after confirmatory factor analyses, Meyer *et al.* (1993) reduced the number of items from 8 to 6. The items having the highest factor loadings were retained.

The affective commitment scale of Meyer *et al.* (1993) has been used by other researchers such as Bagraim (2003), Colakoglu, Culha and Atay (2010), Fu, Bolander and Jones (2009), Grant, Dutton and Rosso (2008), Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2002), Sersic (1999) and Tian, Zhang and Zou (2014). However, there are other affective commitment scales and include those developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe and Stinglhamber (2005) and Leonidou, Palihawadana and Theodosiou (2006). The researcher used the scale developed by Meyer *et al.* (1993) since it is among the most widely used instruments for measuring affective commitment. According to Ng and Feldman (2011):

> "More than half (52%) utilized the scales created by Meyer and his colleagues (Allen and Meyer, 1990 and Meyer *et al.*, 1993). Thirty-eight percent (38%) utilized the scales created by Mowday, Porter, and their colleagues (Mowday *et al.*, 1982 and Porter *et al.*, 1974). The remaining articles measured affective organizational commitment either with other validated scales (6%) or with new items created specifically for those studies (4%)" (p.5)

The instrument developed by Meyer *et al.* (1993) has an excellent Cronbach alpha value of α=.82 and uses the seven point Likert scale ranging from 1= Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree. Items 3, 4 and 5 are reverse-keyed items and are denoted by "r". Scores on these items are reflected (1=7, 2=6, 3=5, 4= 4, 5=3, 6=2, 7=1) before computing Cronbach alpha values in the pilot study (refer to "Pilot Study" for details on computation of reverse-keyed items). The questions as given in the instrument are shown below and refer to the affective commitment shown by professionals towards the organization.

Table 4.6
Items for Affective Commitment

Dimension	Operational Definition	Items
Affective Commitment	It is the individuals feeling closer to the organization not only emotionally but also being involved with the organization and its goals (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993)	1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization 2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own 3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization-r 4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization-r 5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization-r 6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me

Source: Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)

4.5.4 Perceived Employability

Perceived employability (PE) has the individuals' beliefs about the easiness of finding new employment. The scale to measure PE is adopted from De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen and Mâkikangas (2011). Permission to adopt the instrument was taken from the main author Dr De Cuyper (refer to Appendix "C"). De Cuyper *et al.* (2011) have used 4 items to measure perceived employability. According to De Cuyper et al (2011), items 1 and 2 have been taken from the measure as developed by Griffeth, Steel, Allen and Bryan (2005), while items 3 and 4 came from the measure developed by Berntson and Marklund (2007) and Berntson, Näswall and Sverke (2008), respectively.

The instrument on perceived employability developed by De Cuyper *et al.* (2011) has been chosen because of two reasons. Firstly, according to De Cuyper *et al.* (2011), the items stress upon the interaction between the individual's profile and the labor market. Secondly, they are akin to other measures in the field as developed by De Cupyer *et al.* (2008) and Rothwell and Arnold (2007). However, there are also other instruments to measure perceived employability. These include those by Berntson and Marklund (2007), Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006), Griffeth *et al.* (2005), Janssens, Sels and Van den Brande (2003) and Rothwell and Arnold (2007).

The instrument is measured on a seven point Likert scale from 1= Strongly Disagree to 7= Strongly Agree and has an excellent reliability value of α=.85 in Sample 1 and α=.80 in Sample 2 when used by De Cuyper *et al.* (2011) in their experiment. The research items are shown below:

Table 4.7
Items for Perceived Employability

Dimension	Operational Definition	Items
Perceived Employability	Individual beliefs about the possibilities of finding new, equal, or better employment (De Cuyper *et al.*, 2011)	1. Given my qualifications and experience, getting a new job would not be very hard at all 2. I can think of a number of organizations that would probably offer me a job if I was looking 3. My experience is in demand on the labor market 4. It would not be very difficult for me to get an equivalent job in a different organization

Sources: De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen and Mâkikangas (2011)

4.6 Questionnaire Design

Before going on to the details of the questionnaire used in the study, the researcher would first want to define a “questionnaire”. A questionnaire could be defined as a set or group of questions listed to provide data on certain variables based on the perceptions or feelings of other people called the respondents (Sekaran, 2003). The questions within the questionnaire could be “open-ended”, “close-ended” or “dichotomous”. For this study, the researcher has chosen, close-ended questions as they limit the respondents to a set of alternatives used in measuring the subjective feelings of the private sector academics. This is important as the expected responses are the guiding principle to a reliable statistical analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2006).

Since the topic of adoption is a sensitive issue and no survey is successful without a well designed questionnaire, the researcher therefore asked various academics regarding Likert scale adoption. The researcher had email conversations with Dr Roger (co-author with Dr Uma Sekeran in their book: *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach, 5th Edition*), Dr Liu (Associate Dean for Interdisciplinary Research at University of Buffalo), and Dr Hair (expert on structural equation modeling and author of the book: *Multivariate Data Analysis*). Their replies are given under Appendix "C"):

The questionnaire design is, thus an important stage for any research. Barker, Elliot and Pistrang (2002) and Dillman (2000) have put forth certain rules for designing a questionnaire. According to Barker *et al.* (2002) and Dillman (2000):

i. The golden rule of designing a questionnaire is putting oneself in the shoes of the respondent. The questionnaire thus should be easy and free of frustrations.
ii. The questionnaire is to be partitioned into various parts according to the variables and capture all concepts as described in the research questions so as to help in the hypotheses testing.
iii. The demographic part is placed at the end as it is better to start with the questions related to the main study variables.

Following the advice of Barker *et al.* (2002) and Dillman (2000), the questionnaire for the present study is in English. It is the official language of Pakistan and is widely understood in the country. The questionnaire, moreover, is divided into two parts. Part 1 had 21 items related to the variables: PCO, AC, PE and SCS, respectively. Part 2 of the questionnaire has seven demographic questions related to gender, age, job status, job rank, educational qualification, total experience in the current organization, and total experience in the private sector. In order to understand the demographic variables better, the definitions and explanation of each variable is given below:

i. Gender: By “gender”, the researcher means the sex of the individual which can be either male or female.

ii. Age: By “age”, the researcher means the chorological age, and is measured in years from the date of birth to date.

iii. Job Status: By “job status”, the researcher means either a “permanent” job status or a “temporary” job status. By permanent job status, the researcher means any academic who is working in the private higher education institution without limit of time. Temporary job status means a post other than a permanent job status.

iv. Job rank: By “job rank”, the researcher means the “designation” as defined by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan. These job ranks are as below, and are placed from junior to senior levels:

Lecturer / Demonstrator / Senior Registrar: A lecturer in a HEC recognized university generally requires no prior experience and 16 years of education. In medical universities “demonstrator” and “senior registrar” are lecturer level posts in the non-clinical sciences and clinical sciences respectively. A demonstrator in the non-clinical sciences has a Bachelor of Medicine Bachelor of Surgery (MBBS) degree from a HEC recognized university. A senior registrar in the clinical sciences has a MBBS degree along with other qualifications: Doctor of Medicine (MD) / Doctor of Medical Science (DMS) / Fellow of College of Physicians and Surgeons (FCPS) / Master of

Dental Surgery (MDS) degrees or has membership of Royal Colleges (UK) or is Diploma holder of American Board or equivalent.

Assistant Professor: An assistant professor in a HEC recognized university generally requires 4 years of teaching experience or 18 years of education. For clinical sciences, however, an MBBS/MD/DMS/FCPS degree along with Master of Philosophy or Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) is required. For non-clinical medical sciences, the criteria is 4 years teaching experience or 18 years of education with MBBS.

Associate Professor: An associate professor in a HEC recognized university generally has a total of 10 years teaching/research experience. However, for clinical medical sciences, the teaching/research experience for an associate professor is 8 years and for non-clinical medical sciences a total of 5 years post- PhD teaching/research experience is required.

Professor: A professor in a HEC recognized university generally has a total of 15 years of teaching/research experience. However, for clinical medical sciences and non-clinical medical sciences, the teaching/research experience for a professor is 10 years and 15 years, respectively.

v. Educational Qualification: By “educational qualification”, the researcher means the terminal degree obtained by an academic. There are 4 educational qualifications stated in the questionnaire: Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), Master of Philosophy (MPhil)/Master of Science (MS), Master’s and Bachelor’s. An academic with MPhil or MS has 18 years of education, an academic with Master’s has 16 years of education, whereas an academic with Bachelor level degree may have 16 years or 14 years of education depending upon whether he has a bachelor's according to the 2 years (4 semesters) system or bachelor's with 4 years (8 semesters) system.

vi. Experience in current organization (years): "Experience in current organization" means the total time in years the academic has spent teaching or doing research in the current private sector higher education institute.

vii. Total experience in private sector universities (years): "Total experience in private sector universities" means the total time in years the academic has spent teaching or doing research in the private sector higher education institutes.

There are thus a total of 28 questions, and each part has its own set of instructions (refer to Appendix "A"). The questionnaire is provided with a cover letter stating the purpose of the research. The arrangement of the questionnaire according to the sections is shown below:

Table 4.8
Section-Wise Arrangement of Questionnaire

Section	**Number of items**
Part 1	5 items on subjective career success adopted from Greennhaus *et al.* (1990)
	6 items on protean career orientation adopted from Bridgstock (2007)
	6 items on affective commitment adopted from Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)
	4 Items on perceived employability adopted from De Cuyper *et al.* (2011)
Part 2	7 Items on demography

4.7 Pilot Test

The pilot test was conducted after seeking due permission from the researchers whose questionnaire was being adopted. It is important to conduct a pilot study before the main data collection phase so as to establish the reliability of the measurement instruments, and to check for the content validity. The test took place in the month of May, 2014 and academics from a private higher education institute were taken from the country (Pakistan). Details of the pilot study are given below.

4.7.1 Internal Reliability

To check for the internal reliability of the instruments used, a convenience sample of 30 private sector university academics were chosen (this was after obtaining permission from the management to carry out the test). The sample number is in line with recommendations given by Malhotra (2009) who states that the sample size for pre-test is between 15-30 respondents. Meanwhile, Hair *et al.* (2010) and Byrne (2010) mentioned past instruments as a major criteria in measuring the internal consistency through the calculations of Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients (α).

In the present study, it is pertinent to mention that certain items related to affective commitment were reverse scored according to the instrument as adopted from Meyer et al (1993). This was after participants had responded to a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree. When items are reverse-scored, 1's changes into 7's, 7's turn into 1's, and all the scores in between become their appropriate opposite with 2's into 6's, 3's into 5's, 4's into 4's, 5's into 3's and 6's into 2's. There is a simple mathematical rule for reverse-scoring: reverse score(x) = max(x) + 1 – x.

Where max(x) is the maximum possible value for "x". In the present case, max(x) is 7 because the Likert scale only went up to 7. To reverse the score, the scores are added 7 + 1 = 8, and subtracted as shown: 8-7=1, 8-6=2, 8-5=3, and so on. In SPSS, the researcher reverse coded them by pressing "Transform" tab and then "Recode into different variables" so as to create new columns for each of three items reverse coded. New items are thus created that are reverse-scored. The original items are called AC_3, AC_4, and AC_5. And the reverse-scored items are AC_3r, AC_4r, and AC_5r. It is only after reverse coding is done for the affective commitment scale that the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients can be found. Thus, if the researcher had not reverse coded the items then this would have resulted in negative inter-item correlations and a lower Cronbach alpha value for the scale of affective commitment. The Table 4.9 below shows all the constructs having alpha values of more than .60. Also, refer to Appendix "E".

Table 4.9
Results of Reliability Analysis

Variable	Number of items	Cronbach Alpha
Protean Career Orientation	6	.79
Affective Commitment	5	.75
Perceived Employability	5	.63
Subjective Career Success	5	.82

Although a Cronbach's alpha of .70 has been widely accepted for adequate internal consistency, a value of .60 has also been considered acceptable (Ham, Kim, Jeong, 2005;

Ransford, Greenberge & Domitrovich *et al.*, 2009). According to Hair *et al.* (2010), "values of .60 to .70 are deemed the lower limit of acceptability". Hair *et al.* (2006) supported the view that in a study with a small sample size, low Cronbach alpha scores such as .60 can be taken as acceptable. Moreover, Flynn, Schroeder and Sakakibara (1994) argue that a Cronbach's alpha of .60 and above is effective reliability for a scale. In other views supporting α=60 or >, Moss, Prosser, Costello and Simpson (1998) have taken Cronbach alpha value above .60 as generally acceptable. Kline (1999) adds that with psychological constructs, values below α=.70 can realistically be expected because of the diversity of the construct being measured. For example, to say that Mr. ABC is highly introverted does not necessarily mean that he is behaving in an introverted way right now. Instead, it means that he has a general tendency to behave in introverted ways (being quiet, shy and self-centered) across a variety of situations. The Table 4.10 below describes the rule of thumb for acceptable levels of alpha values:

Table 4.10
Rule of thumb for describing Internal Consistency using Cronbach's α

Cronbach's alpha	**Internal consistency**
A ≥ .9	Excellent
.7 ≤ α < .9	Good
.6 ≤ α < .7	Acceptable
.5 ≤ α < .6	Poor
A < .5	Unacceptable

Source: Kline (1999)

4.7.2 Content Validity

The researcher checked for the content validity of the questionnaire in the pilot test stage. This is in addition to the internal reliability check as mentioned under headings 4.7.1. The content validity according to Sekaran (2003) is the assessment whether the items used in the questionnaire measure the construct under investigation. According to Burns and Grove (1993), a total of 5 to 10 experts are enough for establishing the content validity of a questionnaire.

Content validity for the present study is thus checked with 5 academics within the private university sector. These academics are experts as they hold a research degree (a PhD) in the area of Organizational Behavior /Human Resource Management. Since the researcher was in Malaysia at the time of the pilot study, it was more feasible to have telephonic meetings with each of the experts separately after emailing them the questionnaire. The experts thoroughly read all the questions so as to make sure they are adequate for the research. These individual experts are listed below:

i. Dr. Muhammad Zafar Iqbal Jadoon: Dean, Business School, University of Central Punjab, Pakistan.
ii. Dr. Muhammad Khan: Professor, Business School, University of Central Punjab, Pakistan.
iii. Dr. Tahir Masood Qureshi: Associate Professor and Director of Research, Business School, University of Central Punjab, Pakistan.
iv. Dr. Zahid Riaz: Assistant Professor, Lahore School of Economics, Pakistan.
v. Dr. Imran Hameed: Assistant Professor, University of Lahore, Pakistan.

The experts gave their verdict on the questionnaire. According to them:

i. The questions were legible, and comprehensive so as to ensure the content validity.

ii. The questions reflected the constructs as proposed in the study, and are thorough enough to explain for the statements and scale points.
iii. The questionnaire was easy enough for the respondents to understand and to complete in the allotted fifteen minutes.
iv. The Likert scales were sufficient enough to capture the constructs.

Thus, after having had sufficient internal reliability and satisfactory content validity report at the pilot study stage, it was decided to adopt the questionnaire without any changes, and to carry out the data collection for the main survey.

4.8 Data Collection

After having found the questionnaire to be reliable and valid at the pilot study, the researcher began the data collection process for the main survey from June till September, 2014. The researcher travelled to Pakistan for the survey and application letters bearing a return stamp and stating the purpose were mailed to the registrars/ human resource managers/ administrative staff-in-incharge of the selected 35 universities. The letter introduced the researcher, stating the confidentiality of the data collected and reminded them of research being done for academic purposes only (refer to Appendix "B" for a sample permission letter attached). The registrars were requested to grant approval for conducting the survey and appoint a "resource person" for facilitating with the research process. Permission was granted by 18 universities, and a "resource person" within the administration was appointed by the registrars for delivery and collection of questionnaires. The researcher was asked to report to the resource person for all correspondence related to data collection.

The researcher however decided to go ahead with the survey since the population within the 18 universities was located across Pakistan, and was sufficient enough to carry out the research. Thus, 18 individual envelopes were delivered by post to the resource persons of the respective university. A list bearing the names of the academics whose names were included in the sample were also sent along with the packet. The envelopes were delivered through mail carrying a return stamp. The researcher informed the resource persons on phone to distribute the questionnaire according to the sample chosen. The resource person meanwhile informed the respondents of the confidentiality and purpose of the research.

Questionnaires were collected by the resource persons from the respondents after four weeks. However, the response rate was a meager 94 and was insufficient for running in structural equation modeling using AMOS (Hair *et al.*, 2010). According to Garver and Mentzer (1999), Hoelter (1983), Kline (2005) and Sivo, Fan, Witta and Willse (2006), the minimum sample size required to perform data analysis in structural equation modeling should be near to 200. Also according to Hair *et al.* (2010), there should be at least 100 cases, and 200 cases are considered as the better choice when running structural equation modeling in AMOS. The researcher therefore, told the resource persons to wait till a sizable sample had been collected. Thus, a well-structured follow-up procedure was put into place as the data collection process is dependent upon the availability of filled-up questionnaires. In the fifth week, the researcher reminded the academics of the sensitivity of the survey and purpose of study. Permission letters were also attached along with the emails. The process was repeated after every two weeks till a sizable response rate was had. But despite these follow-up strategies employed, the response rate was low. The total number of questionnaires returned to the researcher was 194, which is 55% of the total sample size. The low response rate in the current study, however, is not a drawback. There are no hard rules as to an acceptable response rate. According to Hair *et al.* (2010):

> “As SEM matures and additional research is undertaken on key research design issues, previous guidelines such as "always maximize your sample size" and "sample sizes of 300 are required" are no longer appropriate. It is still true that larger samples generally produce more stable solutions that are more likely to be replicable, but it has been shown that sample size decisions must be made based on a set of factors” (p.636)

Based on the discussion above by Hair et al. (2010) on the appropriate sample size, the following suggestions for minimum sample sizes are offered by him:

i. Minimum sample size-100: Models containing five or fewer constructs, each with more than three items (observed variables).

ii. Minimum sample size-150: Models with seven constructs or less.

iii. Minimum sample size-300: Models with seven or fewer constructs.

iv. Minimum sample size-500: Models with large numbers of constructs.

The researcher, meanwhile, with 4 latent constructs and each construct having greater than 3 items has fulfilled the criteria for minimum sample size as given by Hair *et al.*

(2010). The Division of Instructional Innovation at the University of Texas (UTEXAS, 2011) has also certain guidelines on the appropriate response rates from various data collection techniques employed. These guidelines are mentioned below:

i. Mail: 50% adequate, 60% good, 70% very good.
ii. Phone: 80% good.
iii. Email: 40% average, 50% good, 60% very good.
iv. Online: 30% average.
v. Classroom paper: > 50% = good.
vi. Face-to-face: 80-85% good.

According to Baruch and Holtom (2008), the average response rate for individual-level research was 52.7% in 490 researches published between 2000 and 2005 in 17 refereed academic journals, while the average response rate for organizational-level research was 35.7%. Further, the mean response rate for individuals in the education industry was 49%. Incentives had minimal effect on the responses with almost 1% lower response rate than those who did not offer incentives (Baruch & Holtom, 2008).

4.9 Data Analysis

After the questionnaires were received, the researcher began the data analysis and hypotheses testing. Data analysis and hypotheses testing are done through the use of statistical tools like Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 18. The researcher employed SPSS to find out the missing data, non-respondent bias, outliers and normality, while, AMOS was used for conducting confirmatory factor analysis and testing for the hypotheses.

4.9.1 Analyses using SPSS

There are a number of benefits of SPSS over other statistical analysis softwares like Minitab, Strata, and SAS (Statistical Analysis Software). These benefits are given below: SPSS is focused on academic research and is the most popular tool used worldwide by novice researchers and statisticians. According to SPSS Inc., the tool is used by all 50 United States government departments, top universities in the US, top 22 commercial banks, top 18 insurance companies, and top 12 pharmaceutical companies. SPSS is thus easy to learn when compared to SAS and Strata (Acock, 2005). Both SAS and Strata are used by those who manage complex data and are developing or modifying statistical procedures. SPSS thus installs itself into the Microsoft Windows Operating System. Minitab, meanwhile, has less compatibility with other programs like Excel, making file imports more difficult. SPSS is stronger than Minitab for handling analysis in areas such as ANOVA (Acock, 2005).

SPSS is more user friendly as values and variables can be labeled for future references (Prvan, Reid & Petocz, 2002). The data files look much like Excel spreadsheets and can import almost all types of datasets. Excel sheets are imported using the menu (File>Open>Data), while Database and Text files can be brought in through importing wizards. One is able to change variable name, variable type, and decimals in the “variable view” tab. Data can also be manipulated by using the Transform>Compute function in SPSS. For descriptive statistics, the means and variances can be calculated by the “Analyze” tab in SPSS, i.e., Analyze>Descriptive Statistics>Descriptive. Also, linear regression can be analyzed using Analyze>Regression>Linear. SPPS also has the advantage of generating user friendly graphical reports like “QQ plot” to see normality of data (Acock, 2005). Such reports can be had from Analyze>Descriptive statistics>QQ plots. Thus according to Prvan, Reid and Petocz (2002), SPSS is the first choice for social science students. It is exceptionally good when using questionnaire data to produce quality outputs.

4.9.2 Analyses using AMOS

In the current research, structural equation modeling by AMOS is used for correlation analysis to describe the relationship between subjective career success and other variables. AMOS is thus used to theoretically test for the effects that exist among independent, mediating and dependent variables.

However, it is important to mention the reasons as to why the researcher used AMOS. There are a number of programmes for SEM generation besides AMOS. These include LISREL, SmartPLS, MPlus, R, EQS, CALIS, and SEPATH. All of these programs are recommended for conducting research, and can import a range of file types including SPSS data. However, the researcher has chosen AMOS since it is the most popular package with those getting started with SEM and the easiest to use in the Windows environment (Bryne, 2010). AMOS is licensed for use by SPSS and installs itself as a menu-item, while launching from the "Analyze" menu in SPSS. Structural equation modeling using AMOS thus has a number of benefits over other tools like LISREL, SmartPLS, MPlus, R, EQS, CALIS and SEPATH.

4.9.3 Data Screening and Preliminary Analysis

Data is checked for clerical errors before the statistical data analysis is carried out. The study, therefore, employed a series of data screening methods to check for the missing values, outliers, normality, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and common method variance. This initial screening is important as the distribution of data and the selected sample size has an effect on the data analysis techniques chosen, and the statistical tests to be carried out (Bryne, 2010).

4.9.3.1 Missing Data

In the realm of statistics, missing values occur when data values are not stored for the variable that is under observation. It is, however, common to come across missing values that can have a significant effect on the results. Especially, when running AMOS software, missing values can simply stop the tool to run properly (Hair *et al.*, 2010). According to Hair *et al.* (2010), the researchers should delete the case respondent that has 50% or more of missing values in them. Moreover, there are different techniques by which missing values can be removed. These include series mean, mean of nearby points, median of nearby points, linear interpolation, and linear trend at point. All five are explained below:

i. In series mean, the missing value is replaced by the mean value of other values for that particular variable.
ii. In mean of nearby points, the missing value is replaced by mean of surrounding values.
iii. In median of nearby points, the missing values are replaced by median of the surrounding values.
iv. In linear interpolation, missing values are replaced by a value that is intermediate between two values surrounding it.
v. While in linear trend at point, if missing values show an increasing or decreasing trend from the first to last case then the value is replaced according to that trend.

4.9.3.2 Detecting Outliers

In the present research, it is important to detect those data values that are different from the other values for the majority of the cases in the SPSS data set. Such values are known as outliers (Bryne, 2010). It is important to detect them early on before the data analysis begins, especially in the data cleaning stage since they have the ability to change the results by skewing correlation coefficients, and the lines of best fit. Moreover, it is imperative to highlight the types of outliers. These can be classified as univariate outliers or multivariate outliers.

i. A univariate outlier is one that has an abnormal value for a single variable. The univariate outliers are primarily concerned with the dependent variable in the data analysis (Bryne, 2010).

ii. On the other hand, multivariate outliers are those that have an unusual grouping of values for the variables used. Multivariate outliers are primarily concerned with independent variables in the data analysis.

In order to find out the outliers, whether they are multivariate or univariate, several techniques can be employed. The most common of these techniques is enumerating data points based on Mahalanobis distance measured from the expected values (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Hau & Marsh, 2004). The argument in favor of Mahalanobis distance is that it serves as an effective means of detecting outliers by putting a threshold that will help in explaining for a value as an outlier.

4.9.3.3 Assumptions of Underlying Statistical Regressions

Statistical tests are dependent upon certain assumptions about the variables that are being used in the data analysis. If the required assumptions are not met with, the data is not assumed to be trustworthy, and may result in Type I or Type II errors, over-estimations of significance, under-estimations of significance or effect sizes. Moreover, Pedhazur (1997) points out:

> "Knowledge and understanding of the situations when violations of assumptions lead to serious biases, and when they are of little consequence, are essential to meaningful data analysis", (p.33)

It is, therefore, assumed that for regressions to be carried out, the variables should have normality, linearity and homoscedasticity (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

4.9.3.4 Assumption of Normality

It is important to check for the assumptions of normality before regression analysis is carried out. The variable, if not normally distributed, may distort the results by skewing the data, distort the relationship between the variables, and the significance of test outcomes (Hulland, 1999). It is through correcting for the normality of data that the probability of committing Type I and Type II errors is reduced significantly, and thus increasing the accuracy of the research outputs (Bryne, 2010). The researcher, therefore, has to check for the abnormality in the data by cleaning it, through first finding out the z-score of items, and then transforming them into “cdfnorm” in SPSS 18.

4.9.3.5 Assumptions of Linear Relationship

For the standard multiple regression to estimate the relationship between the various variables, it is important that the relationship between the dependent and independent variables be linear. These assumptions of linearity are especially important in social science research, where non-linear relationships are evermore common. Moreover, in case the relationship between the dependent and independent variables is non-linear, there is a risk that the outcomes of regression analysis will underestimate the true relationship between the variables. According to Hair *et al.* (2010) there are two risks attached when the results are underestimated:

i. There are chances of Type II errors for the independent variable (IV).

ii. There are increased chances of Type I errors for multiple regression where there is over-estimation, and other independent variables share variance with that IV.

More importantly, researchers such as Berry and Feldman (1985), Cohen and Cohen (1983), Pedhazur (1997) have suggested three ways to detect non-linearity:

i. The first method as proposed is that there should be previous research to support the current analysis.

ii. The second method is to detect through residual plot examination. The plots used may indicate a linear or curvilinear relationship between the variables.

iii. And the third method is to run regressions analysis continuously to routinely check for curvilinear relationships.

4.9.3.6 Assumptions of Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is a term used in regression analysis meaning that the variance of all the variables, especially dependent variables (DV) is the same for all the data used in the study. Or, in other words, the variance for DV's is similar across the span of variables for the IV's. To check for the homoscedasticity of the variables in the present study, both graphical and statistical tools are used. The graphical method involves the box plot, while the statistical technique has the Levene statistics. However, none of the techniques is absolute.

4.9.3.7 Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) is a common problem in behavioral research. In CMV, the variance is attributed to the measurement method rather than the constructs that are being measured. An example of CMV is given by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) in which there is a relationship between construct “A” and construct “B”. The theoretical proposition shows that there is a correlation between the two constructs. However, if the construct “A” and “B” share similar measurement methods, then common method bias will come into play, and the correlations between the two constructs can be either inflated or deflated resulting in Type I or Type II errors.

4.9.3.8 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity refers to the relationship among the various independent variables for the study. When the IV’s are highly correlated, especially having r=.90 or above, they are said to have multicollinearity (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Multiple regressions, and structural equation modeling do not tolerate multicollinearity, and don’t contribute to a fit regression model.

4.9.4 Factor analysis

To determine the relation between the observed and latent variables, the oldest and most popular technique is the factor analysis (Bryne, 2010). It is through factor analysis that the researcher determines the covariances among the variables. Factor analysis, meanwhile, has a history of development and use in business research. In 1950, Spearman studied the variables that were categorized as unobserved hypothetically (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). He built upon the instrument for measuring the individual's ability using numerical and verbal reasoning (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). This instrument built by Spearman measured the general intelligence of a person. With the passage of time, the two-factor theory of measuring human ability came into being in which the specific factors were present. The theory was later extended upon, and many other factors were added. So, this analytic approach is known as factor analysis. Factor analysis is also called the modeling approach in which the various hypothetical constructs are studied (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Byrne, 2010).

There are two types of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analyses. Exploratory factor analyses (EFA) is when the goal of research is to determine the number of factors or latent constructs that are found in the observed measures (Hair *et et al.*, 2010). In confirmatory factor analyses (CFA), the already existent structures found in measures are tested and quantified. So the major difference between the two approaches of factor analysis is that CFA tries to confirm the details of factor structures, while, EFA determines the number of factors. In CFA, there is no discovery of a factor structure, and is, therefore, just a confirmatory process.

In the present study, the researcher has used CFA. The goal of the researcher is to test for the hypothesized relationship that exists in the factor structures. In CFA, the number of factors, and the underlying indicators are given in advance. Moreover, the researcher follows the three stages when doing a CFA. In the first stage, related theories are reviewed. In the second stage, hypothesized relationships are given the shape of a model, and in the third stage, the model is tested for internal and external consistency.

4.9.5 Structural Equation Modeling

According to Bryne (2010), the conceptual framework is a representation of the causal processes that run the observations of the multi-variables. The SEM terminology takes into consideration two important points:

i. The causal processes are represented by structural equations.

ii. And these causal processes can be modeled upon in a pictorial form to help in giving clarity to the model under study.

The benefits of structural equation modeling over multiple regressions thus include the following points:

i. More flexible assumptions even in the face of multicollinearity.

ii. Confirmatory factor analyses to reduce measurement error.

iii. Multiple indicators per latent variable.

iv. SEM's graphical modeling interface using AMOS.

v. Testing models overall rather than coefficients individually.

vi. Ability to test models with multiple dependents.

vii. Ability to model mediating and moderating variables.

viii. Ability to model error terms.

ix. SEM is a second generation of statistical techniques.

Also, SEM is usually viewed as a confirmatory rather than exploratory procedure. The confirmatory analyses model can be statistically tested by simultaneously running the entire set of variables. According to Hair *et al.* (2010), there are two types of variables: latent variables and observed variables. Latent variables cannot be measured directly but rather inferred from measured variables. Latent variables are also known as constructs, factors, or unobserved variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Examples of latent variables in this study are the four variables (protean career orientation, affective commitment, subjective career success and perceived employability). Observed variables, on the other hand, are used to define the latent variables. Observed variables are, therefore, also known as measured variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Examples of observed variables in the study include the twenty one items used to measure the four latent constructs.

In addition to the division of variables into latent and observed variables, the latent variables are further divided into exogenous and endogenous variables. The main difference between exogenous and endogenous variables is that an exogenous variable is not affected by other variables in the hypothesized model. On the other hand, the endogenous variable is affected by other variables in the study. The exogenous variables are the independent variables in the study and the endogenous variable is the dependent variable. The mediating variable meanwhile, can take the form of both exogenous and endogenous variable since the independent variables have an influence on the mediating variable. And both the independent and mediating variables have an influence on the dependent variable.

The relationships among the variables can also be classified into two types: directional and non-directional. The main difference between the directional and non-directional relationships is that the directional relationships are the linear hypothesized influences of one variable on another variable. However, the non-directional hypothesized relationships are the correlations among variables. Each of the directional and non-directional relationships have a numerical value associated with them. In case of directional relationships, the numerical values associated are known as regression coefficients whereas the numerical values tied to non-directional relationships are known as covariances or correlation values. The other word used for these regression coefficients and covariances are parameters (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The main objective of structural equation modeling is, therefore, to calculate the parameter estimates.

Also, according to Hair *et al.* (2010), a two-step structural equation modeling is employed in estimating the parameters. The first step includes the measured model, and the second step is the structural model. It is through the measurement model that the validity and reliability of the observed variables are assessed for each latent variable. On the other hand, the structural model specifies the relationship between the latent variables. The measurement model in the present study thus has four factors: protean career orientation, affective commitment, subjective career success and perceived employability. All the factors are inter-correlated, and have a number of observed variables, whose reliability is influenced by the random measurement error. Finally, in order to establish the validity and reliability of the hypothesized measurement model, each construct and their measurement items were thoroughly examined with the use of

AMOS. Item reliability of constructs has thus been evaluated by "item loadings". These loadings represent the correlation coefficients existing between the construct indicators and the latent variables (Bryne, 2010).

The confirmatory factor analyses, thereby, provides for the reliability and validity of the observed variables. The reliability here thus refers to the variance explained by the construct, and is measured by squared factor loadings. A high reliability is found to be present when each of the observed variables has a squared factor loading of more than .50. However, if the loading is between .30 and .50, it is considered moderate and below .30 is poor. Validity on the other hand, represents the degree to which the observed variables measure what they are supposed to be measuring. According to Hair *et al.* (2010), validity is attained when the relationship between the various variables under study including the latent and observed are statistically significant. Therefore, the fit for individual parameters was tested for their statistical significance. If the relationship between the two variables is at t-values $\geq .96$, and at $\alpha = .05$, then they are statistically significant.

After testing for the fitness of the parameters, the fitness of the entire model is assessed. However, certain fit indices were selected as recommended by Byrne (2010). These indices were the chi-square test, normed chi-square, goodness-of-fit index, adjusted goodness-of-fit index, comparative fit index, and root mean square error of approximation. These indices are explained below:

i. The chi-square test is known as the traditional fit index. It is denoted by the symbol "χ^2". If the value of the chi-square is non-significant then hypothesized model fits the data well. A normed chi-square can be achieved by dividing the ratio of chi-square by the degrees of freedom. The chi-square is, however, affected by the size of the sample, and the normality of the data. So, chi-square is used with other indices.

ii. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI) index are similar to the squared multiple correlations. They explain the sample variance and covariance depicted by the model. The main difference between the GFI and AGFI is that the AGFI is calculated after adjusting for the degrees of freedom in the model. The values for both GFI and AGFI range from zero to one, closer to one indicating a fit model

iii. The comparative-fit-index or CFI compares the hypothesized model fit with an alternate or null model. The value of CFI ranges from zero to one with values closer to one indicating a good CFI.

iv. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) represents the discrepancy between the population data and the hypothesized means. The RMSEA values of .50 and below are taken as a good fit. While, value of .50 to .80 are taken as moderate fit, and above .80 are taken as inadequate fit.

It is also a common practice in structural equation modeling to specify the path diagrams. For observed variables, the shapes used include squares or rectangles, whereas for latent variables and error terms, circles or ovals are used. The directional effects between the variables are shown by using a single-headed arrow line, whereas, for non-directional relationships double-headed arrow lines are used.

4.10 Summary

This chapter discusses the design of the study, population, sampling frame, unit of analysis, "W" category private universities, measurement items, questionnaire design, pilot study, data analysis procedures and introduction to structural equation modeling.

The next chapter has data analysis and findings. More specifically, it discusses the data screening and preliminary analysis, profile of the respondents, validity and reliability of measures, correlation analysis, confirmatory factor analyses, the measurement model, final model constructions, model fits, direct effects, indirect effects, and hypotheses testing.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 discusses and presents an in-depth analysis of the outcomes of the data that have been collected by employing quantitative methods. The chapter specifically highlights the demographic profiles of respondents, data screening, measures of validity and reliability, path analysis and detailed analysis of the hypotheses testing.

5.2 Response Rate

For complying with data collection requirements, the researcher distributed the questionnaires among the selected sample. Table 5.1 below shows the total questionnaires received.

Table 5.1
Response Rate

Total Sample Size	Respondents	Response Rate as of Distributed
351	194	55%

The response rate is obtained by dividing the number of individuals who submitted the completed questionnaire by the total sample size. Since the current research is stratified proportionately, it is important to provide for stratum-wise response. Refer to Table 5.2:

Table 5.2
Response Rate (Stratum-Wise)

	Respondents Stratum-Wise	Responses Received	Response Rate Stratum Wise
Professors	34	19	55.8%
Associate Professors	28	20	71.4%
Assistant Professors	124	45	36.2%
Lecturers*	165	109	66%
Total	351	193**	

*Lecturer level posts also include senior registrars and demonstrators.
** The total number 193 is less than the over all response received as there is a missing value in the "Job Rank".

5.3 Profiles of the Respondents

The demographic profiles of the respondents are presented under Table 5.3. The demographics analyses has been found using the SPSS software by running the "frequencies tab" (The demographic output is also shown under Appendix "F"). The Table below, meanwhile, shows the 194 respondents out of which 118 are males and 73 are females. The gender of three respondents has been found to be missing. The disparity between males and female academics as presented in the Table shows that less females are found to take up teaching roles at the university level. Besides gender, the age of the respondents tells us that 92 respondents or 47.4% belong to 22-32 years bracket. While, only 3 respondents are above 63 years of age. It is seen that with age comes experience, as only 7 respondents have 16 or above years of experience, while 100 respondents have 4 or less years of experience. The job rank shows professors as the least populated, while lecturers are the dominant group.

Table 5.3
Demographic Profile of Respondents

Variable	Category	Number of cases	%
Gender	Male	118	60.8
	Female	73	37.6
Age	22-32	92	47.4
	33-42	63	32.5
	43-52	23	11.9
	53-62	12	6.2
	63 or above	3	1.5
Job Status	Permanent	141	72.7
	Temporary	47	24.2
Job Rank	Professors	19	9.8
	Associate Professors	20	10.3
	Assistant Professors	45	23.2
	Lecturers	109	56.2
Educational Qualification	Doctor of Philosophy	34	17.5
	Master of Philosophy	91	46.9
	Master	59	30.4
	Bachelor	9	4.6
Experience in current organization (years)	4 or less	100	51.5
	5 to 10	72	37.1
	11 to 15	12	6.2
	16 or above	7	3.6
Experience in private sector universities (years)	4 or less	89	45.9
	5 to 10	64	33.0
	11 to 15	27	13.9
	16 or above	11	5.7

5.4 Missing Data

There are various reasons for missing data in the present research. These reasons include:

i. The respondents have accidentally left some items, if the questions are too long.

ii. Questions of sensitive nature such as those related to employability are left out since it is considered taboo to talk on job prospects and salary (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). It might be considered intrusive to talk on such subjects.

iii. Lack of knowledge about the various variables is also a possible reason for the missing data.

Thus, scales that seek to understand the affective, behavioral or cognitive dimensions have missing values. Such values, however, have a negative effect on the validity and reliability of data, if they are of a large number. The researcher calculated the missing values using the “Transform tab” and a new variable by the name of “nmiss” was created to sum up the missing values. The researcher utilized the SPSS command of “median of nearby points” to correct for the missing values. This technique helped the researcher since the data is automatically rounded off to a whole number.

In the present study, however, no case was deleted; as all cases had less than 50% of missing values (refer to Table below). Moreover, 164 individual cases were intact with no missing values, while 30 cases had missing values in them. These 30 cases had a total of 57 missing values; 18 were in the demographic data, while 39 were in the main measurement variables. Item “3” of the affective commitment scale meanwhile, is first of items that are “reversed scored”. So it might have taken the respondents by surprise. The details of the missing values are given below:

Table 5.4
Missing Values Item-Wise

Variable Name	Item Number	Missing Values	Percentage
Protean Career Orientation	Item 1	0	0
	Item 2	0	0
	Item 3	1	.5
	Item 4	1	.5
	Item 5	1	.5
	Item 6	0	0
Affective Commitment	Item 1	0	0
	Item 2	0	0
	Item 3	10	5.3
	Item 4	2	1.1
	Item 5	0	0
	Item 6	1	.5
Perceived Employability	Item 1	5	2.7
	Item 2	5	2.7
	Item 3	5	2.7
	Item 4	6	3.2
Subjective Career Success	Item 1	0	0
	Item 2	0	0
	Item 3	1	.5
	Item 4	1	.5
	Item 5	0	0
Demography	Item 1	3	1.5
	Item 2	1	.5
	Item 3	6	3.1
	Item 4	1	.5
	Item 5	1	.5
	Item 6	3	1.5
	Item 7	3	1.5

5.5 Detecting Outliers

The present study uses the chi-square statistics with Mahalanobis distance as a determinant of some threshold value that serves as the optimal value. The need to use chi-square statistics is in line with the arguments as given by Hair *et al.* (2010) who stressed that a new variable be created in SPSS. The researcher thus has created a new variable by the name of “MAH_1” through which a comparison is done between the chi-square, and the Mahalanobis output. The Mahalanobis distance is created by running simple linear regression and selecting one measurement variable as the dependent variable, and taking all other measurement variables as the independent variables. It is also important to know that the demographic data is not taken to calculate the Mahalanobis distance.

A new variable by the name of “sig_mal” has also been created to find out the values that are less than the threshold value of .010. In the “Numeric Expression” text box of SPSS “Compute tab”, the formula “1-CDF.CHISQ (Mah_1, 4)” is typed. The Mah_1 is the value of the statistic, while, 4 is the degrees of freedom that corresponds with the total number of constructs in the study. According to this newly created variable, a total of 6 cases out of the total 194 cases have been found to be of less than the threshold value of .010. Therefore, the researcher has decided to truncate these 6 cases so that outliers can be eliminated. In this way, the final analysis was done by taking 188 cases.

5.6 Assumption of Normality

The present study has taken into consideration certain visual inspections of the data by utilizing the stem and leaf plots, q-q plots, and box plots. This inspection of data is mandatory for checking the skewness and kurtosis, and to find out whether the data is normally distributed or not (kindly refer to Appendix “G” for q-q plots). Moreover, it is important to know that for the data to be normal, the skewness and kurtosis should be between the values of +1.5 and -1.5. The Table below shows the values to be falling under the required range. The researcher got theses values from SPSS “Explore tab” and then “Descriptives” Table.

Table 5.5
Skewness and Kurtosis of Measurement Variables

Variable Name	Skewness	Kurtosis
Subjective Career Success	.77	1.5
Protean Career Orientation	-.47	.21
Perceived Employability	-.80	.53
Affective Commitment	-.093	-.78

Moreover, according to Arbuckle (1997), deviations from the normality may or may not affect the data analysis results. As Arbuckle (1997) has mentioned that a departure from normality that is big enough to be significant could still be small enough to be harmless.

5.7 Assumptions of Linear Relationship

According to Berry and Feldman (1985), Cohen and Cohen (1983) and Pedhazur (1997), all items must be adopted from the previous research that are known to have a linear relationship. In the present study, therefore, the researcher has found linearity between the various variables. The hypotheses taken by the researcher thus show a linear relationship as protean career orientation, affective commitment, and perceived employability have a relationship to subjective career success as shown in the existing literature.

5.8 Assumptions of Homoscedasticity

Homoscedascity is the assumption that the variance around the regression line is the same for all values of the predictor variable. In the present study, the researcher has found no homoscedasticity by running the model in the AMOS software. The correlations among the exogenous variables are presented below:

Table 5.6
Correlations between Exogenous Variables

			Estimate
Protean Career Orientation	←→	Affective Commitment	.33
Protean Career Orientation	←→	Perceived Employability	.46
Protean Career Orientation	←→	Subjective Career Success	.26
Affective Commitment	←→	Perceived Employability	.35
Affective Commitment	←→	Subjective Career Success	.42
Perceived Employability	←→	Subjective Career Success	.28

The Table above shows that none of the independent variables are offending the estimates, as the covariance between the IV's is less than .80. Therefore, the chances of committing Type I errors are significantly reduced. Moreover, according to the scatter plot provided by SPSS, there is a rectangular pattern seen which shows that there is an absence of homoscedasticity (refer to Appendix "N").

5.9 Sample Size and Power

Large sample sizes call for more power for testing the parameters, and thus there is a reduced chance of committing Types II errors (Bryne, 2010). In Type II errors, there is the mistake of not rejecting some hypotheses when they should be rejected. However, when running structural equation modeling in AMOS, studies have confirmed that there should be at least 100 cases, and 200 cases are considered as the better choice (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Lower sample sizes results in negative error variance estimates for measured variables, and lowered accuracy of parameter estimates. In the present study, a sample size of 194 respondents has been deemed fit to run in SEM using AMOS.

5.10 Common Method Variance

In the present study, common method variance (CMV) has been minimized by following several techniques as proposed by Podsakoff *et al.* (2003).

i. One of the ways by which CMV has been minimized is by obtaining the measures of IV's and DV's from different sources, and different authors rather than from one source. All the measures in the present research thus have been taken from different authors and have good enough Cronbach alpha values.

ii. Another way by which CMV has been minimized is by taking different strata for the measurement of the criterion and predictable variables. Therefore, four different strata have been chosen for the measurement of the items (professors, associate professors, assistant professors and lecturers). Also, within the four strata, simple random sampling has been carried out, so that all academics have an equal chance of being selected.

iii. CMV is significantly reduced by providing for the anonymity of the respondents when filling up the questionnaire.

iv. Another way is to let the respondents know that there is no right or wrong answer, and that they should answer all the questions with the best of intentions.

v. Moreover, by introducing Likert-type scales, avoiding double-barreled questions, avoiding complex jargon and making sentences simpler; CMV is reduced.

However, on the negative side, the present study is based on self-reports, i.e., it has asked the respondents directly through the use of questionnaires. This may inflate the relationships that exist among the phenomenon being studied, and chances of common method bias can become obvious. However, since the theoretical base of management and behavioral studies is more or less based on a single source (use of questionnaire only), and while some of the correlations are inflated, common method bias should not be considered a fatal error (Spector 2006).

On a positive note, the current study found common method variance (CMV) to be absent after running in AMOS. The researcher did the CMV test to see if the majority of the variance can be explained by a single factor. If CMV is an issue, a single factor will account for the majority of the variance in the model (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). For this purpose, a common latent factor has been created in AMOS to explain for the variance among all observed variables. The common factor latent factor shows that it is explaining for 12% of the variance (.35^2 = .12), while, 88% of variance is explained by the proposed model. Thus, it can be claimed that common method bias is not a problematic issue in the present research as shown in the figure below:

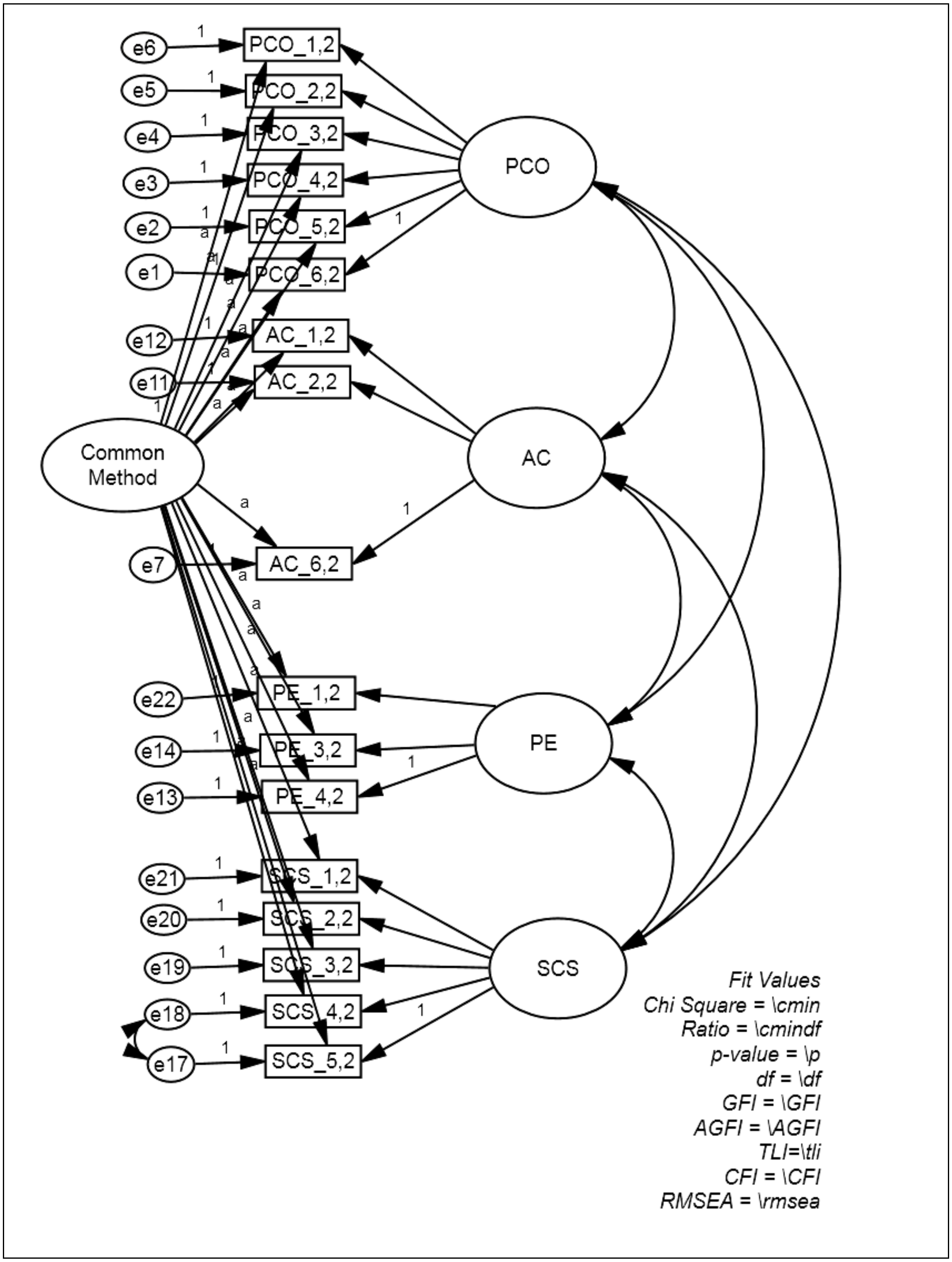

Figure 5.1

Common Method Bias output from AMOS

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

5.11 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is checked for in the Table known as “Correlations”. The relationships of independent variables with that of dependent variable should be near to or above .30. The details for multicollinearity are presented in Table 5.7 below:

Table 5.7
Correlations Table for Multicollinearity (AMOS output)

	SCS	PCO	AC	PE
SCS	1.00			
PCO	.26	1.00		
AC	.42	.33	1.00	
PE	.28	.46	.35	1.00

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

In the Table above, all the independent variables: protean career orientation, affective commitment, and perceived employability have values of .26, .42 and .28 respectively, which are almost equal to or above .30, and thus correlate well with the dependent variable, subjective career success. Likewise, the correlation for each of the independent variables should not be high as .70. In the above Table, all the IV’s have less than .70 correlation.

Moreover, SPSS performs additional measures like “multicollinearity diagnostics” to check for multicollinearity when performing multivariable regression (Bryne, 2010). The purpose of performing multicollinearity diagnostics is to pick up for values that may go unidentifiable for multicollinearity in the correlation matrix. The results for the multicollinearity diagnostics are presented below in Table 5.8, and can be seen in SPSS under the label called “Coefficients”. The two values given below indicate “Tolerance” and “Variance Inflation Factor” (VIF). The Tolerance calculates for the variability of a specific independent variable, and how much of it is not explained by other variables in the model (Bryne, 2010). The formula for calculating Tolerance is $1–R^2$. If the value for the variables is equal to or below .10, then it shows multiple correlations with other variables, and the presence of multicollinearity.

The other value that is of importance when looking into multicollinearity diagnostics is VIF, and is calculated by the inverse of the Tolerance value: 1 divided by the Tolerance. It is to be noted that values of VIF above 10 indicate multicollinearity. Moreover, in the Table below it can be seen that none of the values are below or above the cut-off points for Tolerance or VIF, respectively. Rather, they are between .84 and .94 for Tolerance and 1.061 and 1.188 for VIF.

Table 5.8
Collinearity Statistics showing Tolerance and VIF values

Model		**Collinearity Statistics**	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	PCO	.84	1.18
	AC	.94	1.06
	PE	.85	1.17

Dependent Variable: SCS*
*SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

5.12 Validity and Reliability of Measures

Content reliability is used to determine the hypothesized relationships and to know whether they measure the constructs or not (Hair *et al.*, 2010). For this purpose, the researcher did a critical evaluation of all the items' reliability to find out their loadings or the correlations between the hypothesized constructs. The Cronbach alpha value of .70 has been suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) while some researchers point to a lower figure of .60 (Hair *et al.*, 2006). The alpha values or the internal consistency among the items thereby, are used to represent whether the items hypothesized converge and measure the variables under study. Table 5.9 shows the alpha values from the pilot study and the main study (The values of Cronbach alpha from main study can also be found at Appendix "H").

Table 5.9
Cronbach Alpha Values

Construct	**Cronbach Alpha**	
	Pilot Study n = 30	Main Study n = 188
Protean Career Orientation	.79	.78
Affective Commitment	.75	.73
Perceived Employability	.63	.69
Subjective Career Success	.82	.85

Researchers (Bryne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2010) have concluded that internal consistency of various items can be evaluated by rule of thumb in which value of alpha that is greater than .90 is considered as excellent, an alpha value greater than .80 is considered as good, an alpha value greater than .70 is considered as fair, an alpha value greater than .60 is considered questionable, while an alpha value greater than .50 is acceptable for scientific research. Meanwhile, alpha values less than .50 are considered unworthy for academic pursuits (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The results above as presented in Table above show that the alpha values in the main study are even better than in the pilot study, and are deemed acceptable for academic research. Moreover, according to Hair *et al.* (2010), items that are well-structured, show a higher Cronbach alpha value, while items that are poorly structured have a lower Cronbach alpha value.

5.12.1 Measurement of Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is often used in behavioral sciences, and has been defined as testing the constructs that are expected to be related are, in fact, related (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Both convergent validity and discriminant validity are subtypes of construct validity. Construct validity is thus the degree to which an experiment stays true to or measures what it claims (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Convergent validity has been measured with the help of average variance extracted. Table 5.10 shows the results of loadings. This Table includes the items of the criterion and the predictor variables.

Table 5.10
Variance Extracted

Variable	Code	Standard. Reg. Weights	Squared Standard Reg. Weights	Standard. Error	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
SCS	SCS_1	.82	.67	.33	
	SCS_2	.80	.63	.37	
	SCS_3	.72	.52	.49	
	SCS_4	.76	.58	.42	
	SCS_5	.57	.33	.67	
		Σ	2.73	2.27	.55
PE	PE_1	.63	.40	.60	
	PE_2	.56	.32	.68	
	PE_3	.58	.33	.67	

Table 5.10 (Continued)

Variable	Code	Standard. Reg. Weights	Squared Standard Reg. Weights	Standard. Error	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
	PE_4	.66	.44	.56	
		Σ	1.48	3.52	.37
AC	AC_1	.82	.67	.33	
	AC_2	.75	.57	.43	
	AC_3r	.16	.03	.98	
	AC_4r	.23	.06	.95	
	AC_5r	.24	.06	.94	
	AC_6	.52	.27	.73	
		Σ	1.64	4.36	.33
PCO	PCO_1	.51	.27	.74	
	PCO_2	.60	.36	.64	
	PCO_3	.70	.49	.51	
	PCO_4	.77	.60	.40	
	PCO_5	.62	.39	.61	
	PCO_6	.49	.24	.76	
		Σ	2.33	3.67	.39

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

The cut-off point for loadings recommended by many statisticians is .50, while a loading of .40 and above are also seen acceptable for testing the validity of the instrument (Byrne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2006; John & Reve, 1982). The results in Table 5.10 thus reveal that most of the loadings are below the cut-off point of .50, but still acceptable since they are close to .40. Moreover, this situation where loadings are less than the cut-off point is not a cause of concern (Hatcher, 1994). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), if variance extracted is less than .50, but composite reliability (CR) is higher than .60, then the convergent validity of the construct is still adequate.

The formula for average variance extracted is as below:

$$\text{Average Variance extracted (AVE)} = \frac{\Sigma\ (\text{standardized SMC}^2)}{\Sigma\ (\text{standardized SMC}^2) + \Sigma\ \varepsilon j}$$

Where, "SMC" stands for Squared Multiple Correlation,

"Σ" stands for Summation, and "εj" is the standardized error.

Since the Table 5.10 for "variance extracted" is not depicted in AMOS or SPSS, the average variance extracted (AVE) has been calculated manually, i.e. the figures have been calculated by taking the square root of the loadings, and then dividing by the number of items in each construct. The figures for variance extracted are shown in the last column of Table 5.10.

5.12.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is a subtype of construct validity. The definition of discriminant validity has been given by Byrne (2010), in which he describes it as the degree to which a particular construct is different from the other constructs. Statisticians (Hair *et al.*, 2006) are of the view that validity discrimination can be calculated by either variance extracted or through chi-square comparison of the nested model. However, the researcher has used the variance extracted procedure for calculating the discriminant validity. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), for discriminant validity to be present, the square root of the variance estimates should be more than the correlation between any of the constructs. Table 5.11 below justifies this fact:

Table 5.11
Square Root of variance extracted (VE)

	PE	PCO	AC	SCS
Variance Extracted	.37	.39	.33	.55
Square Root of VE	.61	.62	.57	.74

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

Meanwhile, the correlation between the constructs is given below in Table 5.12, which shows that the square root of variance extracted is more than the correlation between any two latent constructs.

Table 5.12
Discriminant Validity

	SCS	PE	AC	PCO
SCS	1.000			
PE	.28	1.000		
AC	.42	.35	1.000	
PCO	.26	.46	.33	1.000

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

The results thus confirm that the validities of the constructs as taken by the researcher are high enough to merit studying. Moreover, according to Hair *et al.* (2010), for discriminant validity to be present, the values of variance extracted should be more than the maximum shared squared variance and average shared squared variance. Table 5.13 confirms this fact:

Table 5.13
Values of VE greater than MSV and ASV

	VE	**MSV**	**ASV**
SCS	.55	.18	.11
PCO	.39	.21	.13
PE	.37	.21	.14
AC	.33	.17	.13

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

5.12.3 Composite Reliability

Composite reliability is taken like the Cronbach alpha for internal consistency and reliability estimates. Ideally, a value of .70 and above shows a good acceptable figure (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The values for composite reliability are shown below in Table 5.18. It is calculated by using the formula as given by the researchers (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair *et al.*, 2006).

$$\text{Composite Reliability (CR)} = \frac{\Sigma\ (\text{Factor Loading}^2)}{\Sigma\ (\text{Factor Loading}^2) + \Sigma\ \varepsilon j}$$

Where, “CR” stands for Composite Reliability
“Σ” is for Summation, and “εj” = standardized error

Table 5.14
Composite Reliability

Variable	Code	Standard Regression Weights	Squared Standardized Regression Weights	Error	Composite Reliability
SCS	SCS_1	.82	.67	.33	
	SCS_2	.80	.63	.37	
	SCS_3	.72	.52	.49	
	SCS_4	.76	.58	.42	.86
	SCS_5	.57	.33	.67	
	Σ	3.67	2.73	2.27	
	Σ(fl^2)	13.45			
PE	PE_1	.63	.40	.60	
	PE_2	.56	.32	.68	
	PE_3	.58	.33	.67	
	PE_4	.66	.44	.56	.70
	Σ	2.43	1.48	2.52	
	Σ(fl^2)	5.91			
AC	AC_1	.82	.67	.33	
	AC_2	.75	.57	.43	
	AC_3r	.16	.03	.98	
	AC_4r	.23	.06	.95	
	AC_5r	.24	.06	.94	.63
	AC_6	.52	.27	.73	
	Σ	2.72	1.64	4.36	
	Σ(fl^2)	7.40			
PCO	PCO_1	.51	.27	.74	
	PCO_2	.60	.36	.64	
	PCO_3	.70	.49	.51	
	PCO_4	.77	.60	.40	
	PCO_5	.62	.39	.61	.79
	PCO_6	.49	.24	.76	
	Σ	3.69	2.33	3.67	
	Σ(fl^2)	13.61			

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

After calculating the composite reliabilities, the descriptive statistics of indicators are given below in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15
Descriptive Statistics of Indicators and Reliability

Variable Name	Number of Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability
SCS	5	3.79	.70	.85	.86
PCO	6	5.13	5.52	.78	.79
AC	6	4.86	1.12	.73	.63
PE	4	5.45	.93	.70	.70

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

5.13 Correlation Analysis

The accuracy of the research interpretations has been established through the Pearson correlation analysis as described in Table 5.16. The Table has come into existence through running SPSS, and it describes a detailed understanding of the type of relationships that exist among the various constructs. The Table gives positive values for all the correlations coefficients, and are statistically significant at p<.05.

Table 5.16
Pearson Correlation Analysis

		PCO	AC	PE	SCS
PCO	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	188			
AC	Pearson Correlation	.213**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003			
	N	188	188		
PE	Pearson Correlation	.369**	.181*	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.013		
	N	188	188	188	
SCS	Pearson Correlation	.235**	.131	.212**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.074	.004	
	N	188	188	188	188

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

However, Pearson correlation using SPSS has a number of disadvantages as it does not show the cause-and-effect relationships, the fit indices, direct and indirect effects, and the measurement errors. To offset the disadvantages of SPSS, the researcher has used the AMOS software.

5.14 Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) and the Measurement Model

It is through structural equation modeling that researchers can test the confirmatory factor analyses using the AMOS software. According to Hair *et al.* (2010), there are two parts to a structural equation model, the structural model and the measurement model. The path analysis may be called the structural model while, the measurement model is known as the factor analysis. The AMOS software thus gives rise to a measurement model that depicts the hypothesized relationships between the various constructs under study. Figure 5.2 below depicts the measurement model used in the study:

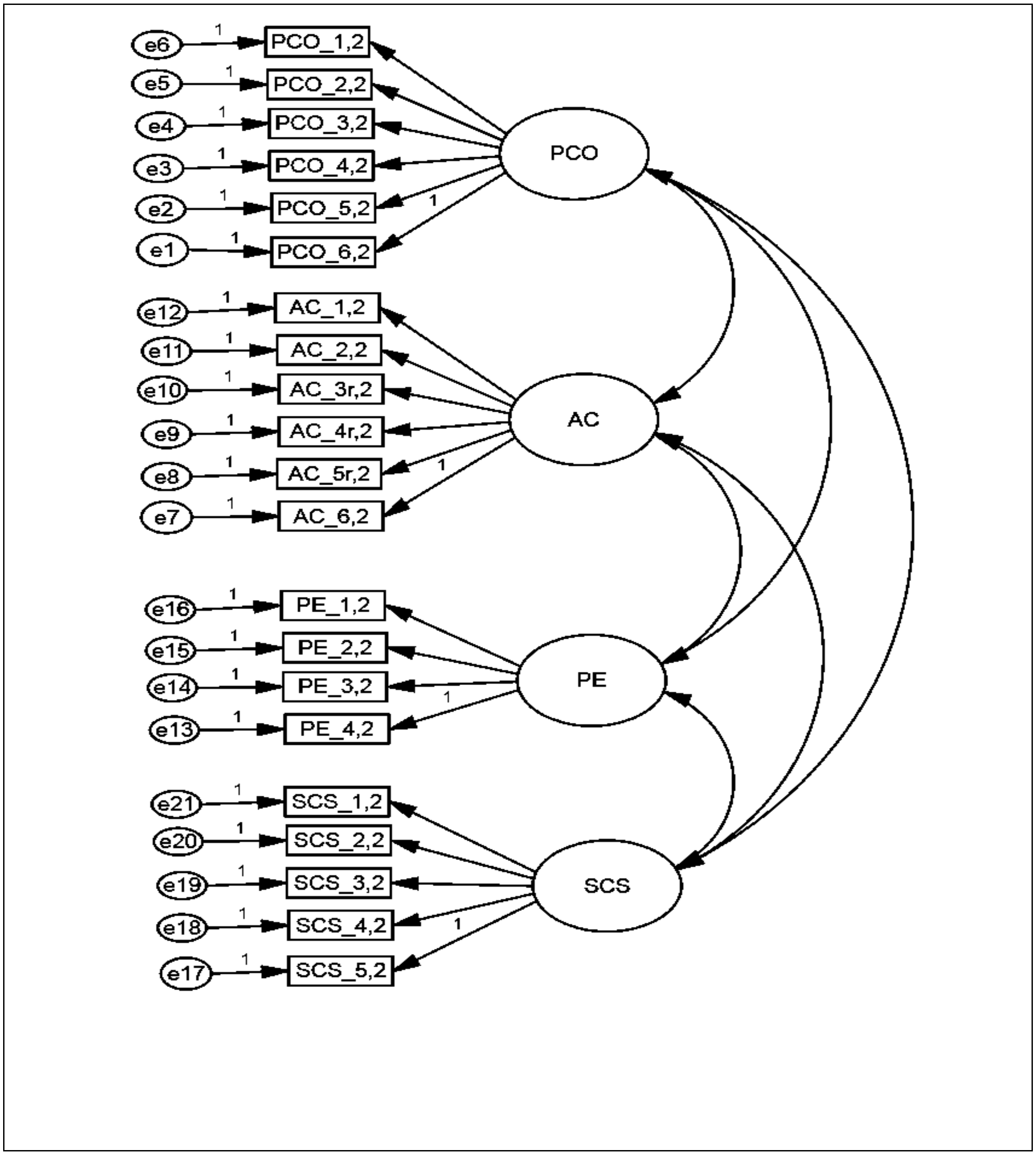

Figure 5.2

Hypothesized measurement model that is used for Confirmatory Factor Analyses

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

To establish the accuracy and effective comparison between each item's relative strengths, the study has conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the hypothesized measurement model (Bryne 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Below is the figure that describes the results of CFA.

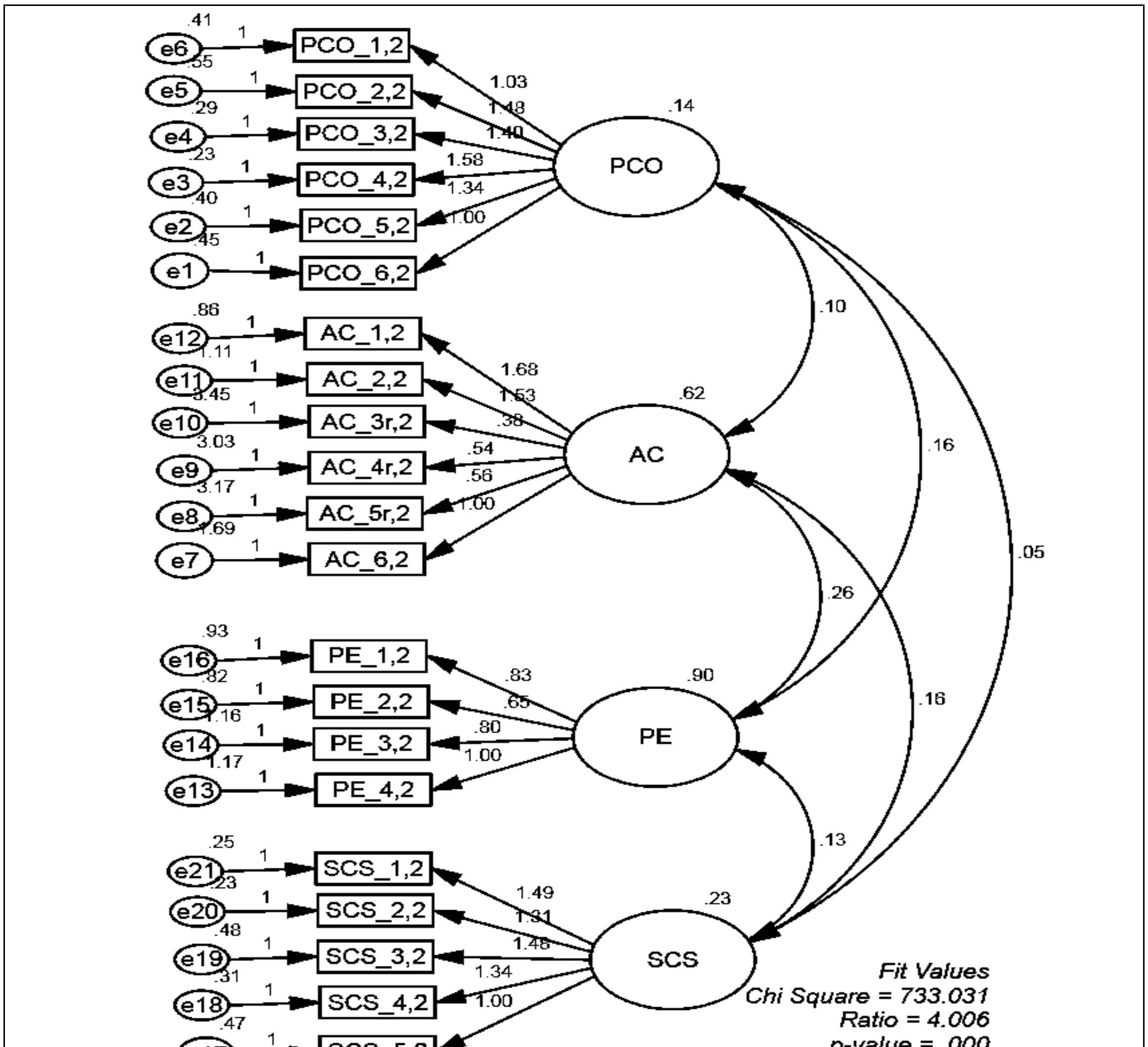

Figure 5.3

Measurement Model after running in AMOS

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

After running the measurement model, the values of goodness-of-fit, Tucker Lewis index (TLI), comparative-fit-index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were found to be less than the ideal values. It was therefore, decided to re-specify the model. The researcher followed certain steps so as to give way to better fit indices. According to Schumacker and Lomax (2010) and Urbach, Smolnik and Riempp (2010), items with factor loadings less than .70 should be deleted as they are unreliable. Thus, the items with factor loadings less than .70 were deleted. These items included AC_3r, AC_4r, AC_5r and PE_2. The model was run again as certain items were deleted.

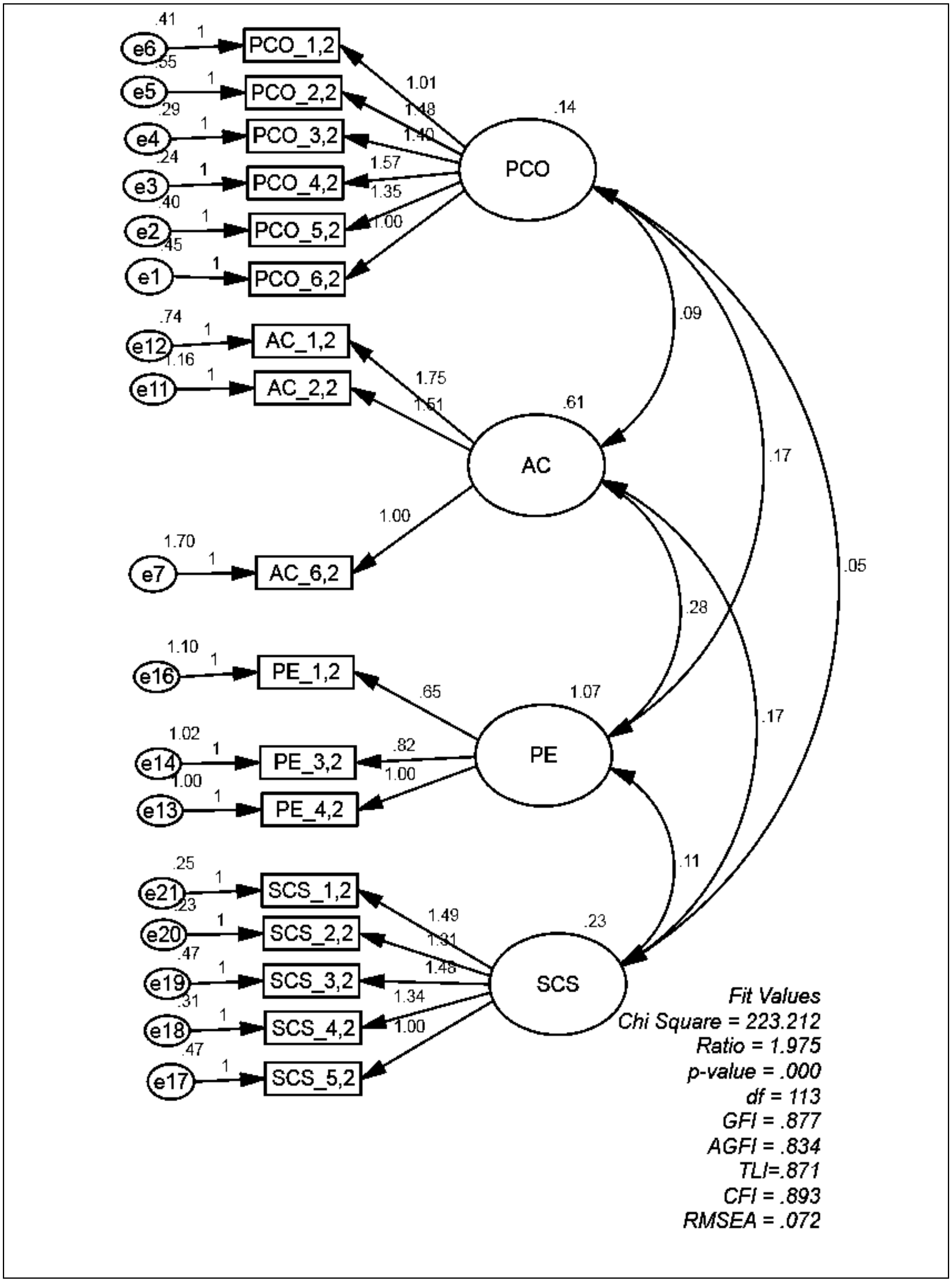

Figure 5.4

Measurement Model after Re-Specification

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

However, after re-specification the model fit indices were still not up to their ideal mark. So the researcher decided to co-vary e17 and e18 as the modification index (MI) was found to be high at 21.8 and par change greater than .10. Modification indices are an indication of how much the chi-square value of a model would drop, if the parameters were free instead of constrained or in other words, by how much the model fit would improve. Therefore, only a MI larger than 20 and a parameter change larger than .10 should be taken seriously, and co-varied so as to reduce the MI. Thus, after changes, the measurement model is taken which has reasonably fit indices. The final measurement model after re-specification is presented on the next page.

Moreover, the summary of indices as representative of the fit model is given below:

Table 5.17
Summary Statistics of Model Fit

Fit index	**Recommended value**	**Observed value**
Chi-square/degrees of freedom	≤ 3.00	1.19
GFI	≥ .90	.90
AGFI	≥ .80	.85
TLI	≥ .90	.90
CFI	≥ .90	.92
RMSEA	≤ .06 or ≤ .08	.07

As evident from the fit indices above the model is in good shape. No further items were deleted since according to Hair *et al.* (2006), it is desirable to have 3 or more items per construct to ensure better measurement properties. Also, according to Bollen (1989), it is preferable to use at least 3 or 4 indicators per latent construct to ensure proper identification, increase the chances of proper solutions, and to allow for estimating latent errors. The final model is presented as under:

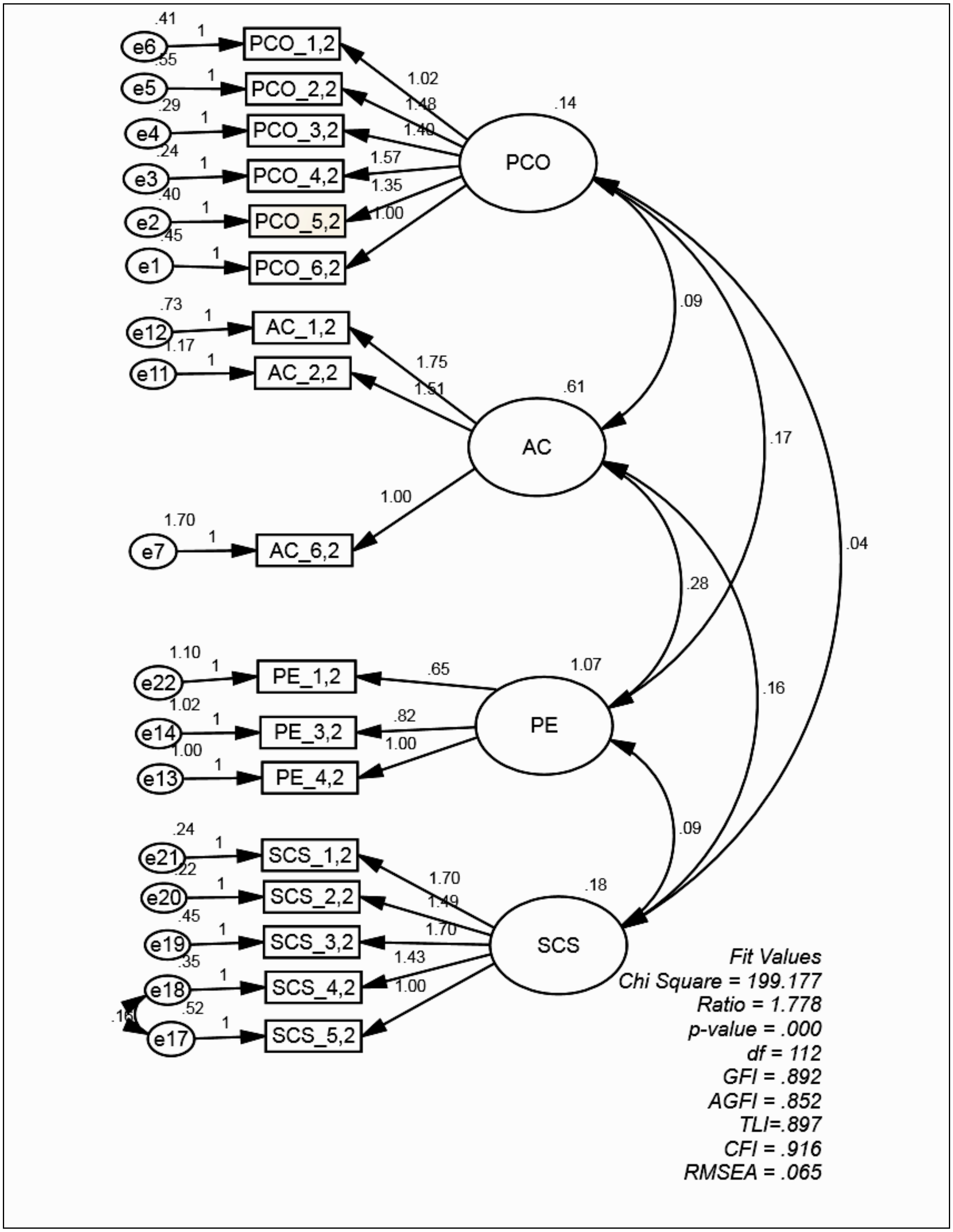

Figure 5.5

Final Measurement Model

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

The researcher has also presented with the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of independent, mediating and dependent variables so as to establish an accurate and effective comparison between each items' relative strengths. The CFA of exogenous variables is given below in Figure 5.6.

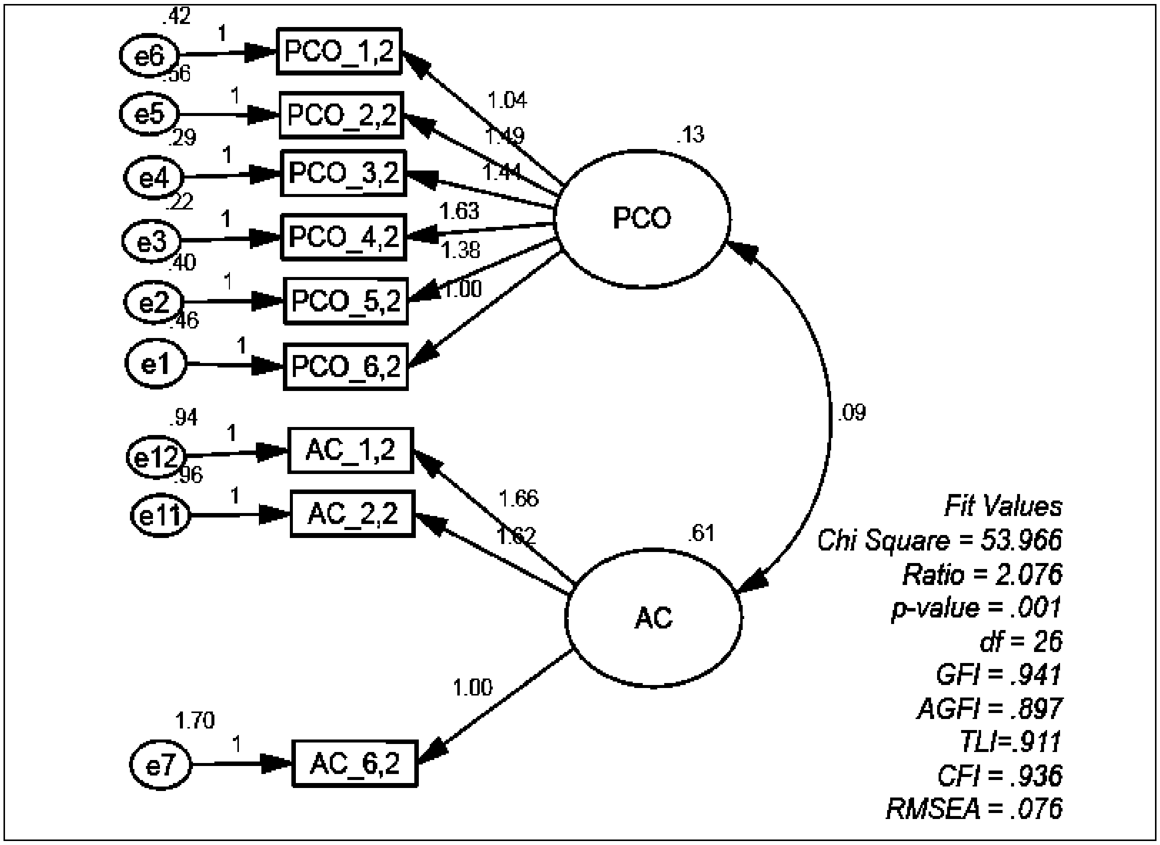

Figure 5.6
CFA for Exogenous Variables
PCO (protean career orientation), AC (affective commitment)

The Figure above shows reasonably good observed values with goodness-of-the-fit (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-the-fit (AGFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI), comparative-fit-index (CFI) and root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) all meeting recommended values. Similarly, the CFA of mediating variable is also given below:

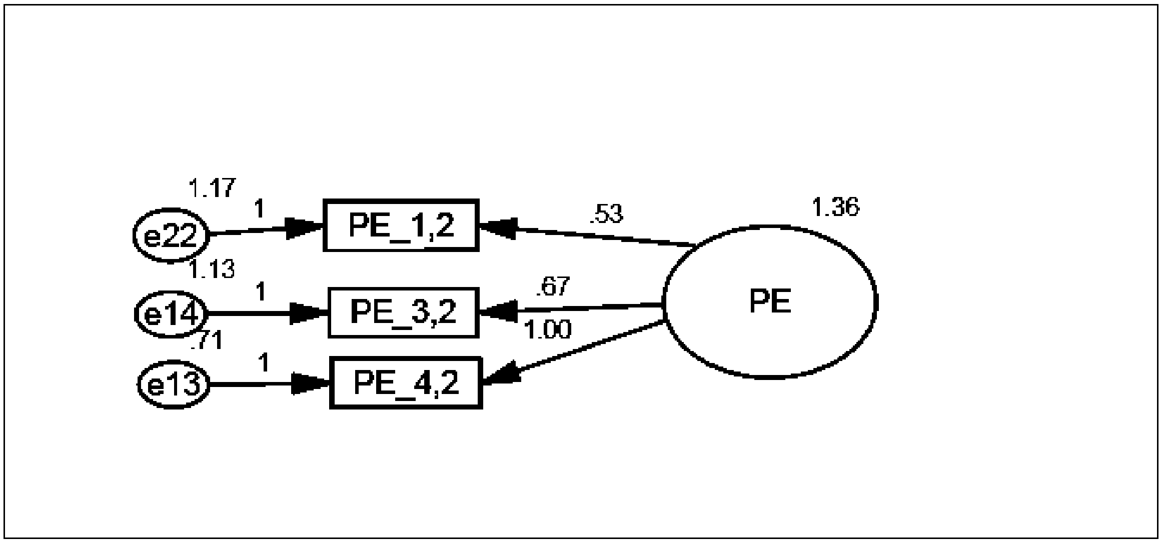

Figure 5.7
CFA Measurement Model for Mediating Variable
PE (perceived employability)

On a negative note, the above mentioned CFA model for the mediating variable does not have factor loadings above the .70 as recommended by most statisticians (Schumacker & Lomax 2010; Urbach, Smolnik & Riempp, 2010). However, according to Hair *et al.* (2010), factor loadings of more than .50 are to be retained, and above all, it is desirable to have 3 or more items per construct to ensure better measurement properties for each construct. In the above Figure, none of the items are below the threshold value of .50 and are therefore, retained.

The researcher, meanwhile, also conducted CFA on the endogenous variable. The Figure is given below:

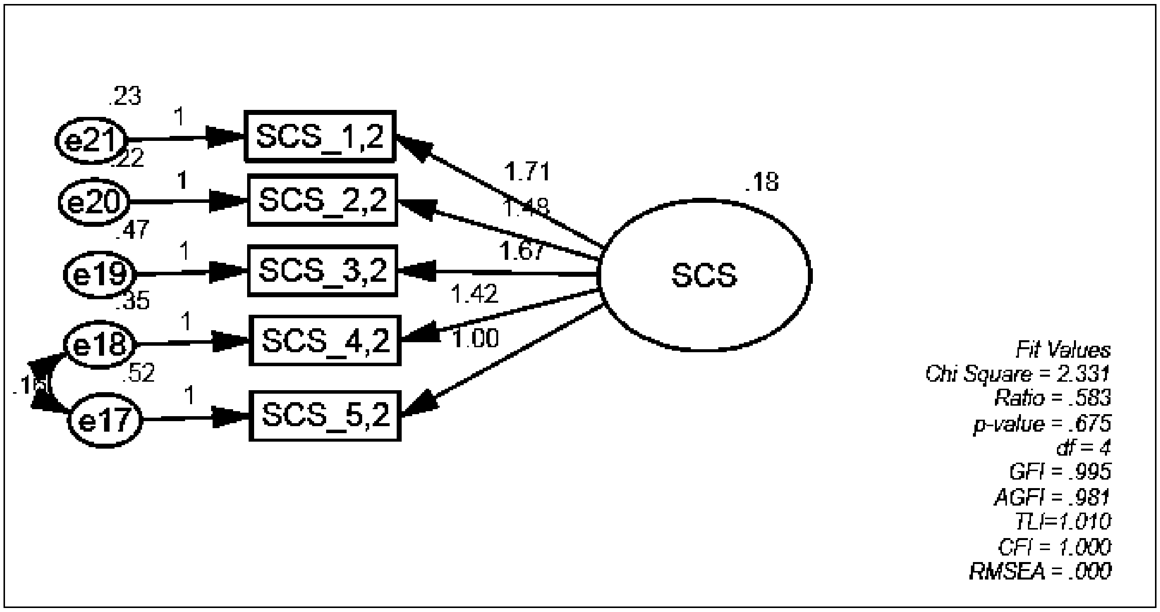

Figure 5.8
CFA Measurement Model for Endogenous Variable
SCS (subjective career success)

The Figure above shows reasonably good observed values with GFI, AGFI, and RMSEA all meeting recommended values.

5.15 The Structural Model

A structural model is defined as the causal and correlation links between the latent constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The structural model (SM) stage is the last stage in structural equation modeling after defining individual constructs, developing an overall measurement model, and assessing measurement model validity. The structural model thus assigns relationships from one construct to another based on the proposed hypothetical model. Or in other words, the dependence relationships that exist among the constructs representing each of the hypotheses are specified in the SM stage. The structural model is shown below:

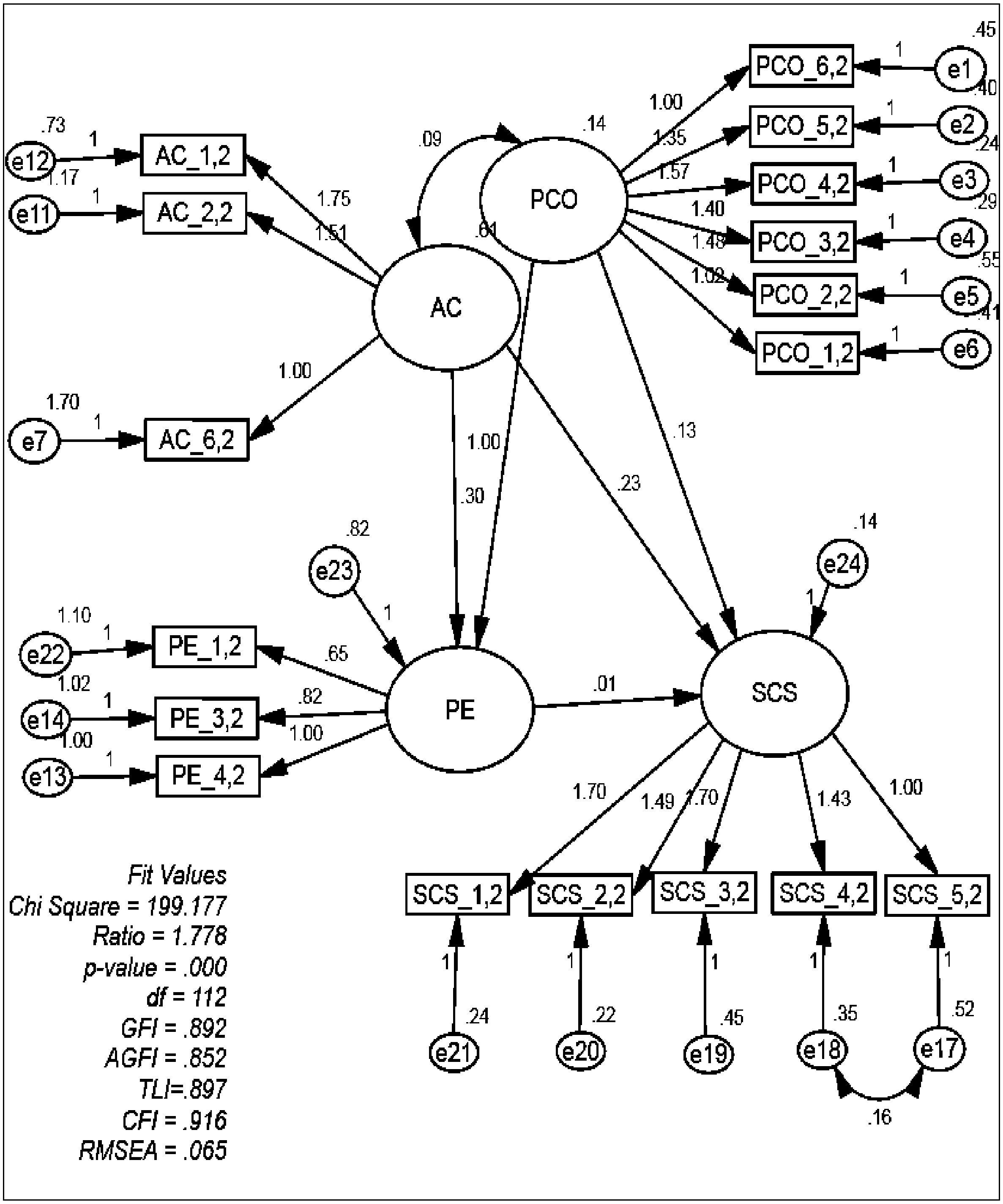

Figure 5.9

Structural Model and r^2

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

5.16 Final Model Constructions and Evaluations

The structural model is based on the 7 hypotheses developed through extensive literature review, and calls for the eventual testing of such hypotheses to see their statistical significance. The structural model also shows the values of squared multiple correlations for the endogenous variables: perceived employability and subjective career success. AMOS thus computes a squared multiple correlation for each of the endogenous variables. The values of r^2 are given in Appendix "I" and in Table 5.18:

Table 5.18
Squared Multiple Correlations (r^2) for Endogenous Variables

	Estimate
PE	.24
SCS	.23

SCS (subjective career success), PE (perceived employability)

The Table above shows the squared multiple correlation estimates for two endogenous variables. The value of .24 for PE denotes that the predictors of perceived employability: protean career orientation (PCO) and affective commitment (AC) explain for 24% of the variance in perceived employability, while the error variance of perceived employability is 76% (1-.24=.76 or 76%), i.e., 76% of variance is explained by "other" factors which are outside the control of the present study. The value of .23 for SCS meanwhile denotes the predictors of subjective career success: perceived employability, protean career orientation, and affective commitment explaining for 23% of the variance in subjective career success. And the error variance of subjective career success is 77% (1-.23=.77 or

77%). Moreover, the beta estimates Table 5.19 given below explains the direct relationships between the variables (also refer to Appendix "J").

Table 5.19
Standardized Beta Estimates (Direct)

			Estimate
PE	←	AC	.23
PE	←	PCO	.36
SCS	←	PCO	.16
SCS	←	AC	.42
SCS	←	PE	.08

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

The Table above shows the relationships between various variables. The weakest relationship is observed between perceived employability and subjective career success, with perceived employability (PE) explaining for only 1.8% of the variation in subjective career success (SCS). The strongest relationship is between the constructs of affective commitment and subjective career success, with affective commitment explaining for 42% of the variation in subjective career success.

5.17 Model Fit

The meaning of "fit" here is the ability of a model to restructure or reproduce itself especially with regard to its variance and covariance matrix. When a particular model is known as "good-fitting", it is an indication that there is consistency in model fitness, and no major re-specifications are needed. Moreover, there are various indices of goodness-of-fit. Researchers of structural equation modeling have recommended the use of more than one index for determining the fitness of the model. Based on these recommendations, Garver and Mentzer (1999) proposed the non-normed fit index or Tucker Lewis index; the comparative-fit-index, and the root mean squared approximation of error for finding the fitness of the model. The values of non-normed fit index and comparative-fit-index should be > .90, while root mean squared approximation of error should be < .08. Moreover, chi-square statistics or x^2/ Degrees of Freedom ratio should be less than three. In the present model, the researcher has found the following values of indices (also refer to Appendix "K"):

Table 5.20
Model Fit (1)

Index	Ideal Fit	Observed Fit
Non-normed fit index (NNFI) or Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	>.90	.90
Root Mean Square Approximation of Error (RMSEA)	<.08	.065
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>.90	.91
X^2/ D.F. ratio	Equal to or Less than 3	1.79

In addition to non-normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) and x^2/ Degrees of Freedom ratio, additional measures that are being used to check the fitness of the model include goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) (Sivo, Fan, Witta & Willse, 2006). Both of these indices were developed as a substitute to Chi-square test, and measure the proportion of variance being accounted for the estimated population covariance. By looking at the model's variances and covariances, one gets an idea of how close the model comes in replicating the observed covariance matrix. The values of goodness-of-the-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-the-fit index (AGFI) range from 0 to 1 with higher values being more tolerable. The values of GFI increases with large sample size, while it decreases with the increase in degrees of freedom. The cut-off point recommended for goodness-of-fit has been .90, while, for AGFI, the benchmark has been fixed at .80. However, owing to the sensitivity of both the indices, the index has become less popular, and some researchers even go to the point of discouraging the use of GFI. The values of GFI and AGFI observed in the study are shown below:

Table 5.21
Model Fit (2)

Index	Ideal Fit	Observed Fit
Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI)	>.90	.90
Adjusted Goodness-of-fit Index (AGFI)	>.80	.86

5.18 Direct Effects

The structural model describes the direct effects as one that goes directly from a variable to another within the hypothesized model. The results of the direct relationship are shown below (also refer to Appendix "L"):

Table 5.22
Directs Effects

			Est.	S.E.	C.R.	P	Status
PE	←	AC	.30	.14	2.15	.03	Sig
PE	←	PCO	1.00	.31	3.26	.001	Sig
SCS	←	PCO	.13	.11	1.15	.25	Not Sig
SCS	←	AC	.23	.07	3.54	***	Sig
SCS	←	PE	.007	.05	.16	.88	Not Sig

$P < 0.05$ *** Not Sig = Not Significant
SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

The Table above shows the direct effects between the variables. The highest significant effect has been found between the variables of perceived employability and protean career orientation with β= 1.00. Moreover, there are significant direct effects seen between (a) affective commitment and perceived employability, (b) affective commitment and subjective career success (c) protean career orientation and perceived employability. However, no significant direct effects were found between (a) protean career orientation and subjective career success and (b) perceived employability and subjective career success

5.19 Indirect Effects

There are two indirect effects in the present study. The first indirect effect is the relationship among protean career orientation, perceived employability and subjective career success. The second indirect effect is among affective commitment, perceived employability and subjective career success. Table 5.23 below shows the mediating relationships (also refer to Appendix “L”):

Table 5.23
Indirect Effects

Hypotheses	**Exog.**	**Mediating**	**Endo.**	**Indirect Effect**	**Result**
H4	PCO	PE	SCS	.007	Not mediating
H7	AC	PE	SCS	.002	Not mediating

SCS (subjective career success), PCO (protean career orientation), PE (perceived employability), AC (affective commitment)

The results of hypotheses 4 and 7 indicate that there are no mediating relationship of perceived employability between protean career orientation and subjective career success, and between affective commitment and subjective career success. For mediation to occur, the relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success should be significant, i.e., have a $p<.05$. Table 5.24 below indicated that the relationship is not significant:

Table 5.24
Relationship between SCS and PE

			Est.	**S.E.**	**C.R.**	**P**	**Status**
SCS	←	PE	.007	.045	.16	.88	Not Sig

SCS (subjective career success), PE (perceived employability)

5.20 Hypotheses Testing

The hypothesized relationships as presented show five direct relationships and two indirect relationships (refer to Table 5.25). The 7 hypotheses listed thus cover the theoretical relationships between the variables. Among these 7 hypotheses, 4 have been found to be statistically insignificant, while 3 are statistically significant.

The results of the structural analysis were based on minimum error of .05. This means that there is a 95% confidence that the same results would come into being if the data were collected again. The structural model also shows the structural path coefficients represented by the coefficient of (β) in the regression analysis. The purpose of this is to assist in the measurement of unidirectional relationships that are present between two or more factors. Below are the results of hypotheses formed in the study:

5.20.1 Relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success

In the first hypothesis, it was stated that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success. The relationship between the two variables has been found to be statistically insignificant as ß = .131, z-value = 1.15 and $p>.05$. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

5.20.2 Relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Perceived Employability

In the second hypothesis, it was stated that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability. The relationship between the two variables has been found to be statistically significant as ß = 1.000, z-value = 3.26 and $p<.05$. So the hypothesis is accepted.

5.20.3 Relationship between Perceived Employability and Subjective Career Success

In the third hypothesis, it was stated that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success. The relationship between the two variables has been found to be statistically insignificant as ß = .007, z-value = .16 and $p>.05$. So, the hypothesis is rejected.

5.20.4 Perceived Employability mediates the relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success

In the fourth hypothesis, it was stated that perceived employability mediates the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success. This fact has, however, not been supported in the data analysis as the relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success is insignificant, i.e., $p>.05$. So the hypothesis is rejected.

5.20.5 Relationship between Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success

In the fifth hypothesis, it was stated that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success. The relationship between the two variables has been found to be statistically significant as ß = .232, z-value = 3.54 and $p<.05$. So the hypothesis is accepted.

5.20.6 Relationship between Affective Commitment and Perceived Employability

In the sixth hypothesis, it was stated there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability. The relationship between the two variables have been found to be positive and statistically significant as ß = .300, z-value = 2.15 and $p<.05$. So the hypothesis is accepted.

5.20.7 Perceived Employability mediates the relationship between Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success

In the seventh and last hypothesis, it was stated that perceived employability mediates the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success. This fact has, however, not been supported in the data analysis as the relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success is insignificant, i.e., $p>.05$. So the hypothesis is rejected.

Table 5.25 below shows the summary of the hypotheses results:

Table 5.25
Summary of Hypotheses Results

#	Hypothesis	Results
H1	There is a positive relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success	Rejected
H2	There is a positive relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability	Accepted
H3	There is a positive relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success	Rejected
H4	Perceived employability mediates the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success	Rejected
H5	There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success	Accepted
H6	There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability	Accepted
H7	Perceived employability mediates the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success	Rejected

5.21 Summary

The data was cleaned for missing values, and outliers, and each factor construct was then tested for reliability and validity. The validity of the data was examined by checking the average variance extracted (AVE). Validity was present as the square root of values was greater than the correlation between any two variables. Moreover, the values were greater than maximum shared squared variance (MSV) and average shared squared variance (ASV). Composite reliability and Cronbach alpha values were also checked. The composite reliability is greater than .60, which is the figure needed for the research to proceed.

In the measurement model stage, items were deleted so as to develop a more parsimonious model that is helpful in the execution of the structural model. It was, therefore, decided to delete items 3, 4 and 5 of the affective commitment construct and item 2 of perceived employability scale. The final measurement model was thus adequate to provide goodness-of-fit. It was found in the structural model that 4 of the 7 hypothesized relationships were not insignificant while 3 were found to be significant.

The next chapter discusses in detail the results of the various hypotheses formed and the possible reasons for the significant and non significant relationships. Chapter 6 thus compares with the previous literature and points out certain implications. The chapter presents the theoretical and practical benefits of the present research, and the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 is the final chapter included of the thesis. It discusses in detail the results of the various hypotheses formed in chapter 3. The chapter presents the theoretical and practical benefits of the present research, and the limitations of the study.

6.2 Recapitulation of the Study Findings

Before a detailed discussion of the results of the study, it is important to recapitulate the research objectives. The research objectives to support the study's main goal were presented in chapter 1 and are repeated below:

1. To determine the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success
2. To examine the relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability
3. To determine the relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success
4. To determine whether perceived employability mediates the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success
5. To find out the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success

6. To find out the relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability
7. To determine whether perceived employability mediates the relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success.

After mentioning the research objectives, it is important to summarize again the research methods and findings from chapter 4 and chapter 5 so as to help in the discussion of objectives. As mentioned in chapter 4, this study collected data from the academics in Pakistani private sector universities. For ease of generalizability of the research findings, 351 questionnaires were randomly distributed among "W" category faculty members. Stratified proportionate sampling was done and the sampling frame is stratified according to job rank so that the sample may not be biased towards any one stratum. Stratified proportionate sampling and data collection method according to job rank is consistent with studies carried out by other researchers such as Chaudhry (2013b), Oshagbemi (2000), Oshagbemi, (2003) and Mamiseishvili and Rosser (2011).

As mentioned in chapter 5, a total of 194 questionnaires were returned to the researcher with a response rate of 55%. The final analysis in AMOS software however, had 188 cases after having found certain values to be less than the threshold of .01. The data showed no homoscedascity or multicollinearity as the values were below the cut off points of .80 and .70 respectively. The Cronbach alpha values in the main study were also slightly better as evident from Table 5.9. The researcher carried out the confirmatory factor analyses, and found certain parameters to be less than the threshold value of .01, and thus truncated them so as to make way for better model fit indices. The structural model was then developed which showed the direct and indirect effects. Moreover, a total of 3 hypotheses were found to be statistically significant with p-values less than .05 and thus were accepted while, 4 hypotheses were found to have p-values greater than .05 and thus were rejected. The fit indices of the structural model were, moreover satisfactory with acceptable goodness-of-fit index (GFI), root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), Tucker Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI) and x^2/ Degree of Freedom values.

6.3 Discussion

A detailed discussion of the objectives now follows.

6.3.1 Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success

Recapitulating on the effects of hypothesis one (H1): there is a positive relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success. This fact has not been supported in the research finding, as there is a statistically insignificant relationship between the two variables with $ß = .131$, z-value = 1.153 and $p>.05$.

Some of the reasons for this insignificant relationship is the fact that the “new career” concepts such as protean career are more akin to “individualistic” styles of management, and less prevalent in “collectivistic” Pakistani culture. According to Ohbuchi *et al.* (1999), individualistic counties like the United States tend to have preference for personal goals, whereas collectivistic societies like Pakistan are more likely to give rise to needs of the group. The Pakistani business environment is not as dynamic as the industrialized economies marked by downsizing, mergers, acquisitions, and more flexible career structures. The very concept of "downsizing" is a Western term, whereby Hirsch (1987) encouraged employees to always be prepared for job mobility especially in times of mergers, acquisitions, takeovers and downsizing. During the Global Economic Recession of 2007-2012, subjective career success was seen in light of protean career especially in Anglo-American literature (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Briscoe, Hall & DeMuth, 2006). The dynamic market conditions in the industrialized nations have thus resulted in the "protean career model", which is more of an "adult-adult relationship", where the individual takes charge of his destiny, and ensures career satisfaction.

Furthermore, the insignificant relationship between protean career orientation (PCO) and subjective career success (SCS) in the present study is not in congruence with the findings of Volmer and Spurk (2011) or those of De Vos and Soens (2008) who found individuals with protean career orientation having higher levels of career satisfaction. The findings are also not supporting Hall (2004) who described protean career orientation as the "career learning cycle". It is these continuous learning experiences that result in psychological success of professionals. The implication being carried forward from the present study is that the academics are not setting challenging goals, and putting in one's best efforts resulting in the satisfaction of academics in their career.

The present study also does not support the view given by Briscoe and Finkelstein (2009) who describe protean career actors as not particularly attracted to career development opportunities provided by the employing organization, and aim for alternative career development initiatives with external employers and organizations. The statistically insignificant relationship of protean career orientation with subjective career success thus depicts the fact that the academics are not yet fully ready for external career opportunities leading to psychological success. Academics are in a weak position to expect career management from the employer given the highly competitive labor market where positions are insecure and easily replaced. Academics are thus not encouraged to manage their own careers given the lack of external opportunity. Another implication of this finding is that the academics thus lack an internal guide which is crucial in making career related decisions that are the foundations for career satisfaction.

The findings of the present study are also not representative of the study conducted by Gasteiger (2007) who found a positive relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success. Gasteiger's (2007) study was conducted among German executives and professionals who are value-driven and self-directed, and thus representative of a protean career orientation. However, academics in Pakistan due to limited job market are not as self-driven as professionals in the more industrialized nations. The statistically insignificant relationship is, however, in congruence with the findings of Sullivan and Arthur (2006) who point towards protean career orientation being more of a "Western" concept found in individualistic societies; countries where the labor force is more mobile, and are focused on material rewards, and promotional gains.

The “new career” concept of protean career is not noticeable among the academics in the present study where, protean career orientation has a significant relationship with subjective career success. According to Chaudhry (2013a) the “new career” concepts such a protean careers are viewed as “luxury management terms” because they are more allied to the social and economic elite with greater affinity for Western ideals and who are in need to bolster the externalized nature of “contemporary career” precepts and the employment relationship.

The weak relationship between protean career orientation (PCO) and subjective career success (SCS) is also not supporting Enache *et al.* (2011), and Briscoe *et al.* (2006) who describe protean careerists as proactively managing their careers and making the right career choices that are in congruence with career goals. The findings are contrary to those of other researchers like Abele and Spurk (2009), Fuller and Marler (2009) and Seibert *et al.* (1999) who had found a significant relationship to exist between subjective career success and protean career orientation. Other reasons for the insignificant relationship is that in the competitive environment of Pakistan, academics are more concerned about job security, and climbing-up-the-ladder, if they continue to work for the same employer. At the same time, there is a lack of individual and personal development career planning for academics. As all individuals are unique, with different goals which change over time, career planning needs to be conducted in consultation with the employer.

6.3.2 Protean Career Orientation and Perceived Employability

A quick recapitulation of protean career orientation affecting the ability to acquire employability perceptions would lead this study into critically discussing hypothesis two. For hypothesis two (H2), this study has hypothesized that: there is a positive relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability. It is found there is a statistically significant relationship between the two variables as $ß = 1.000$, z-value = 3.26 and $p<.05$. Or in other words the extent to which academics display protean career orientation is adding to employment prospects.

The significant relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability is due to the complex interplay of external environmental conditions that contribute to employability. These conditions have been mentioned by Briscoe and Hall (2006), Joseph *et al.* (2012) and Rothwell and Arnold (2007) as globalization, knowledge-intensive economies, technological advancements, work-life balance, decentralization, decreased job security, increase in workplace diversity, expanding outsourcing and increase in temporary or part-time workers. All of these fulfill the personal learning of the employees, and add to the perceived employability of the academics. Besides, the individual is also affected by changes in behaviors and attitudes: increase in life expectancy, more professional commitment towards the careers and the organizations, changed family structures with dual-career-couples, more females entering the workforce, single-working parents, and an inclination of professionals towards training, growth and development.

The statistically significant relationships between the two variables affirms the view of Joseph *et al.* (2012) who describe the economic recession of 2007-2012 as a lesson for workplaces to be more flexible with emphasis on skill development. Of interest is that the academics in the private sector of the country have thus been affected by factors such as globalization. Likewise, Hall (2002) called for internalizing career success in times of economic uncertainties. The present research thus points towards an emphasis by academics on learning and adapting according to changing workplace by shifting the motivations from being employer-orientated to career-orientated. The findings of the present study, also agree with O'Neil *et al.* (2004); Rothwell and Arnold (2007) that there have been changes in the psychological contract, whereby the individuals' responsibility for career development has increased.

The academics can thus enhance their perceptions of employability through an increased possession of knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA's). The perceptions of employability include "career identity" that can influence the academics' adaptations and aspirations. Academics can infuse their scientific knowledge with entrepreneurial activities so as to continue their scientific work, and thus can become an active member of the organization. This can be done through commercializing their projects through research and innovation. The findings support De Vos *et al.* (2011) who claim that perceived employability is taken as a human capital variable. And, according to human capital theory, employees invest in skills, which leads them to greater employability in the marketplace (Ackah & Heaton, 2004; Ang *et al.*, 2002; Benson, 2006; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Bridgstock, 2009; De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Kinnunen *et al.*, 2011; Omar *et* *al.*, 2011). The present study agrees with De Vos and Soens (2008) that it is through protean career orientation whereby individuals develop competencies by self-managing, and subsequently achieve employability. According to Cabrera (2007), a protean career has the individual incorporating the interests, relationships, and personal values outside the current workplace.

An interesting finding of the present study is that the academics are learning skills that are no longer firm specific; rather, they are adaptable, and transferable. These skills might include collaborative learning, problem-based learning, and case study methodology. Thus academics with high employability have assets (e.g., knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes), which are held in esteem by the employer as they are valued and needed in the labor market. Thus these academics have something to offer to the employers, which makes them secure on the labor market; they can cope with the haphazard and chaotic labor market and today's requirement for flexibility.

Employability thus calls for academics to become more proactive with respect to their careers (Segers *et al.*, 2008; Volmer & Spurk, 2011; Zikic *et al.*, 2006). The significant relationship symbolizes academics engaging in career self-management activities to build upon social and human capitals. The study supports various literature on protean career orientation by Enache *et al.* (2011), Fugate *et al.* (2004) and Hind (2005) and depicts careerists driven by career competencies. The findings are in line with those of Waters, Briscoe, Hall and Wang (2014) who reveal protean career orientation having a positive correlation with finding reemployment, and is a precursor to career growth. The positive relationship supports the protean career theory which states that individuals are driven by protean career orientation, and adapt to the various performance and learning demands (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

6.3.3 Perceived Employability and Subjective Career Success

As theoretically argued previously in section 3.5.3, there have been changes in the psychological contract, with more emphasis laid on “internal success” (O’Neil *et al.*, 2004; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). At the same time, employees can, enhance the perceptions of employability through an increase of skills (Berntson & Marklund, 2007). The result from the hypothesis testing shows a statistically insignificant relationship as ß = .007, z-value = .155 and $p>.05$.

The insignificant relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success does not support the argument as posited by De Vos *et al.* (2011). According to De Vos *et al.* (2011), perceived employability is taken as a human capital. Professionals thus invest in their skills which leads them to greater employability in the marketplace. With a positive and yet statistically insignificant relationship, the academics are not skill-driven, with greater emphasis on developing their employability. The findings are also not supporting Cash and Gardner (2011), who found a positive relationship between hardiness and career satisfaction. Hardiness according to Cash and Gardner (2011) is related to employability, and is a concept known for the individuals to become positive about job outcomes. Thus, due to competition, fewer jobs, less upward mobility and centralization are hampering academics’ subjective career success. The insignificant relationship is not supporting Eby *et al.* (2003) and Rothwell and Arnold (2007) who found a positive relationship between skills-building and career satisfaction. The findings of the present study is not supporting Seibert and Kraimer (2001) who describe employability-driven employees as adaptive and willing to change personal factors such as knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA's) so as to meet the needs and demands of the external and internal environmental situations. Results of the present research are contrary to those of Berntson and Markland (2007) who mention perceived employability as a reflection of the employees' ability to attain better jobs in the workplace. The academics, due to weak employability perceptions, are not satisfied with employment prospects, and are feeling less secure.

6.3.4 Perceived Employability mediates the relationship between Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success

The results from the hypothesis testing reveal that there is no mediation as perceived employability does not have a significant relationship with subjective career success ($p > .05$). Individuals with a protean career orientation tackle issues of organizational changes like delayering, mergers and acquisitions in a more positive frame of mind (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Protean career orientation thus helps individuals in times of economic, organizational and employment hardships. Based on extant literature (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006; Van der Heijden & Bakkar, 2011; Van der Heijden *et al.*, 2009), the study has specifically established the mediating relationship of perceived employability with protean career orientation and subjective career success and thus tested hypothesis four (H4). However, the mediating relationship has not been observed in the present study. Some possible reasons are presented below.

This result means that employee commitment towards the organization has been affected with the appearance of protean career but to a very minimal extent. No mediation, however, is also going against the contest mobility perspective of career success (Ng *et al.*, 2005). It states that individuals build upon their human capital competencies, so as to lead themselves to subjective career success. The academics are thus not as skill-driven as compared to their counterparts in industrialized nations. The skills increase employability perceptions and maintain career satisfaction. The findings in relation to H4 are thus in opposition to those of Barbara and Wolfgang (2010) who mention the concept of life-time employment with one organization as fading. Thus, there is less emphasis by the academics learning and adapting according to the changing workplace by shifting the motivations from being employer-orientated to being career-orientated.

The insignificant relationship, also does not support the views of Benson (2006), Bridgstock (2009), Clarke and Patrickson (2008), De Cuyper *et al.* (2011), De Vos *et al.* (2011), Rothwell and Arnold (2007), Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) and Yousaf and Sanders (2012) that the traditional career model as giving way to a more protean career model. No mediation also means that there have been less than expected changes in the psychological contract as compared to their counterparts in the developed economies as revealed in the literature review given by Benson (2006), Clarke and Patrickson (2008), De Cuyper *et al.* (2011), De Vos *et al.* (2011), Rothwell and Arnold (2007), Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006), and Yousaf and Sanders (2012). According to De Cuyper *et al.* (2011) and De Vos *et al.* (2011), the transactional psychological contract has given rise to individual's responsibility for career development. Thus, job security is the driving force for the academics, and the "modern day career" concepts are relatively new terms for the Pakistani workplace. These concepts are more prevalent in the Anglo-American theory and practice where they relate to the economic crisis of 2007-2012, flexible employment contracts, and outsourcing.

In the age of protean career, according to Barbara and Wolfgang (2010), the role of organization is limited. In the "new career" the focus has shifted from the organization to the individual. However, no mediation means that the academics are sill focused on the organization for their career growth, and are not self-driven. So instead of lateral job movements, multiple employer relationships, flexible employment contracts, and "learning how", the Pakistani workplace, especially the private sector universities, is still focused on horizontal growth, organizational commitment, permanent jobs and "knowing how", while being exclusively focused on job security. The academics are still driven by the old definition of "career", i.e. a course of professional advancement restricted to a hierarchal progression rather than be replaced by the new definition: the unfolding sequence of a person's work experience over time.

6.3.5 Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success

Hypothesis testing result in relation to affective commitment and subjective career success reveals that there is a positive and significant effect of affective commitment on subjective career success ($ß = .232$, z-value = 3.54, $p<.05$). Affective commitment has been defined as the individuals feeling closer to the organization not only emotionally but also involved with the organization (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004). From the employees' perspective, affective commitment can lead to the build-up of self-esteem and psychological well-being. High affective commitment results in higher performance, lower cost of absenteeism, lower counter-productive behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, lower turnout, and talent retention (Allen, 2011; Benson, 2006; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Colakoglu *et al.*, 2010; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Grant *et al.*, 2008; Lumley *et al.*, 2011). The positive and significant relationship has indicated that affective commitment helps academics to become a part of family in the organization. The academics are thus emotionally attached to the university and show enthusiasm for it, and feel satisfied while working for it.

The outcome of this hypothesis testing has empirically substantiated the arguments of Heslin (2005) that the more committed the employee is towards the organization, while being involved in and identifying with the employer, the more satisfied he or she is likely to become. In other words, employment among private sector academics is still governed by the relational contract whereby, there is an indefinite commitment shown on behalf of the employees towards the organization. In return, the organization offers its staff better wages, power and promotion. Thus, affective commitment helps academics to adapt career success norms that are in tandem with those as espoused by the organization. Thus, career satisfaction will be lower among those employees who have less commitment towards the organization. The findings are also in congruence with Ariani (2012) that career satisfaction is a positive emotional disposition that has an effective response to any job situation. In the research, career satisfaction is taken as the overriding feeling of well-being at one's work environment (De Vos *et al.*, 2011). It is internally driven and is dependent on the working relationship. Also, according to Allen (2011), employees that are satisfied with their careers are shown to have higher affective commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and support for the organization’s goals and objectives. Therefore, it is inferred from data analysis that career development opportunities within the organization are perceived by the academics as a means to increase satisfaction levels.

The findings in relation to the present hypothesis are also in line with Boles *et al.* (2007) that the exchange process affects the organizational commitment of employees. The academics thus evaluate the costs and the benefits attached to their job, and individually satisfy the needs and desires resulting in positive feelings towards the working environment. Moreover, various aspects of job have an effect on the satisfaction of employees including supervision, co-worker support, tasks performed, financial rewards, and promotional activities.

The findings of the present study are also supporting Bietry *et al.* (2014) that when an employee becomes a part of an organization or a group, he or she will try to internalize the social norms and add meaning to work experiences. This was found in an experiment by Bietry *et al.* (2014) on 1,100 employees where affective commitment was related to subjective career success. Also, according to Leede *et al.* (2004), the higher the organizational efforts in caring for the well-being of the labor force, the higher is the emotional attachment of the employee towards the employer. An implication is that the internalizing of social norms by the academics will form a cognitive structure, or frame of reference for career satisfaction.

6.3.6 Affective Commitment and Perceived Employability

The result from the hypothesis testing in relation to affective commitment and perceived employability reveals that affective commitment is positively and significantly related to perceived employability (ß = .300, z-value = 2.149, $p<.05$). As mentioned in section 3.5.6 organizations are willing to invest in the employability of their workers so as to increase the affective commitment towards the employer. Companies that are not able to provide for job security, invest heavily in the employability of personnel so as to make sure the employees' skills are up-to-date and marketable (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Perceived employability is thus taken as an asset on behalf of the employee so as to increase performance and flexibility within the labor market, and is a direct result of their affective commitment towards the employer (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006).

The significant relationship between the two variables is in line with the findings of Lopes and Chambel (2012) who studied the employability perceptions of workers in three distinct organizations. The researchers (Lopes & Chambel, 2012) found training imparted by the employer to increase the employability of the workers was positively related to affective commitment. Companies invest in employability so as to make sure the employees' skills are up-to-date and marketable. Companies thus can increase the affective commitment of their employees towards the organization by implementing competency development programmes such as personnel career plans and on-the-job training. An important implication of this research finding is that the private higher education institutes in Pakistan increase the affective commitment of employees by providing a lucrative pay package, and initiating competency development programmes. These competency development programmes include certification in research methodology, teaching methodologies, and computer skills. This investment in the employability of its personnel helps by decreasing the uncertainty of finding another job. Academics perceive the organization's investment in their career skills as a positive gesture, and thus reciprocate with relationships being built on norms of social exchange. According to the social exchange theory workers are inclined to reciprocate with positive attitudes toward the organization.

The significant result also points towards the protean career theory that the extent of affective commitment depends on matching the organizational values with one's career values (Simo *et al.*, 2010). Organizations thus devote considerable time and effort to establish a "good fit" between people and their jobs since employers have the tendency to believe that certain people are better suited to perform some jobs than others. The findings are in line with Benson (2006) who states that there is a reciprocal relationship between the employee and the employer such that both expect direct returns on their investments. Thus, it is inferred from the hypothesis that the employing organization expects top notch results from its academics for a competitive pay package. The significant findings, meanwhile, are contrary to the findings of Van den Berg and Van der Velde (2005), Kang, Gold and Kim (2012) and Bernston, Naswall and Sverke (2008) who state that employability may lead to less commitment towards the organization as it leads to self-interest. In other words, it can be said that employees with high perceived employability may engage in job hopping towards attractive and lucrative jobs. However, in the case of the academics in the private academic sector of Pakistan, a significant relationship has been observed between affective commitment and perceived employability so no job hopping takes place.

6.3.7 Perceived Employability mediates the relationship between Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success.

After the data analysis, it is shown that there is no mediating relationship as perceived employability does not have a significant relationship on subjective career success ($p>.05$). Based on evidence from available literature (Nauta *et al.*, 2009; Sjollema, 2007) highly employable workers are at ease in finding new jobs, and thus progress in their careers. Organizations also want to stimulate the employability orientation of their employees by developing the related skills. The example given in section 3.5.7 was that of a Dutch company that increases the employability of their staff by developing an “employability website” and thus the affective commitment towards the employer.

The findings are thus opposed to the arguments as proposed by Nauta *et al.* (2009) and Sjollema (2007) who point towards the mediating effect between affective commitment and subjective career success. The academics thus do not fit in with the definition of “contemporary career success” as given by Hall (2002) that employees transcend in an upward manner in the hierarchy, across industries, and functions. Academics are, however, affectively committed to their employers due to their fostering a culture of employability. Thus, organizations that succeed in creating a culture of employability also create positive attitudes among employees regarding job changes (Nauta *et al.*, 2009). An organization with an employability culture wants its employees to develop the latest skills set. It is thus known through the data analysis of H7 that the academics do not have a high degree of flexibility in the labor market. This result of H7 is, however, consistent with McArdle, Waters, Briscoe and Hall (2007) that employees want to attain employability and to remain competent within a single organization. The academics are thus more focused on job satisfaction rather than career satisfaction. So according to Hall and Heras (2010) job satisfaction and career satisfaction are forms of work-related satisfaction but are distinct in nature; a person may be highly satisfied with the current job but still be unsatisfied with the career path that he or she is in. Career satisfaction, meanwhile, is a more appropriate form for subjective career success (Ng *et al.*, 2005).

Moreover, it is inferred from the insignificant relationship that academics are affectively committed to their current employer, as the organization is fostering a culture of employability, leading to perceptions of employability. The findings, meanwhile, are against those of De Vos, Dewettinck and Buyens (2009b) who discovered the relationship between affective commitment, perceived employability and subjective career success while studying 491 employees working in six organizations. It is thus brought to light from the above argument that academics exhibit affective commitment towards the employing organization as long as the academics feel that their values are fitting in with the organization's values.

6.4 Implications of the Study

The present study has put forward some theoretical and practical implications from the discussion part. These implications are beneficial for future research. Moreover, the study has made apparent certain practical implications for the academics working in the private education sector of Pakistan.

6.4.1 Theoretical Implications

The following theoretical implications were observed in the research:

6.4.1.1 Protean Career Orientation and Subjective Career Success

Regarding the relationship between protean career orientation and subjective career success, the concept of PCO has been observed to be not so prevalent among the academics in the present study. Academics are not opening up to career opportunities leading to psychological success, i.e. they are not overly-dependent upon externally driven career development opportunities. At the same time, more emphasis has been placed on objective measures of career success such as pay, as it is readily available within the working environment.

The findings are thus in congruence with those of Sullivan and Arthur (2006) who state that PCO is more of a “Western concept” found in industrialized nations, countries where workers are more mobile, and are more focused on material rewards, and promotional gains. Moreover, previous studies as mentioned in the problem statement had discussed location, class size, experience, gender, age, education, pay, promotional prospects, recognition of achievement, administrative support, interpersonal relations, nature of work, autonomy, decision making ability, and fringe benefits as affecting the job success of academics.

Meanwhile, the academics have not yet taken a transition from the “old career” to the “new career”. The work processes in “old career” were organized around hierarchical order, centralization, formalities, strict division of labor, fixed blueprints and linear timetables. Moreover, career paths were taken as loyalty-based psychological contracts, and there was a vertical movement seen in terms of income level and status. These objective measures served as means to providing job security to employees in exchange for loyalty.

6.4.1.2 Protean Career Orientation and Perceived Employability

The second theoretical contribution is the significant relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability. Academics are somewhat PCO driven and engage in career self-management activities so as to build upon social and human capitals. The findings are in congruence with those of Joseph *et al.* (2012), O’Neil *et al.* (2004) and Rothwell and Arnold (2007) who describe external environmental conditions like recession, globalization and trade barriers impacting the world of work. This also means that the employees of the private sector, especially the academics are trying their best to keep up-to-date and afloat in a competitive ever-changing environment. The study has shown that the academics working in the private educational sector of Pakistan are working in an innovative, flexible, and insecure environment where they have the capacity to showcase their knowledge skills, abilities and opportunities.

The significant relationship also points to academic careers as being unique and an academic considered an “autonomous professional” who takes on the responsibility of self-development. This is similar to the view of Baruch and Hall (2004). The findings reveal that the academics are self-directed as well as value-driven in their careers. An important finding is that the presence of a “new career” attitude is transforming the psychological contract among the academics from relational psychological to transactional psychological and, therefore, greater perceived employability is taking place.

Therefore, proactivity is shown on behalf of the academics where protean career influences perceived employability. This relationship goes a long way towards improving job performance and career outcomes. The self-identity part as present in the two variables of protean career and employability, takes the form of action or proactive orientation that helps the employees to alter the job situations to suit their own needs. This engagement in the work environment also reduces the anxiety and uncertainty inherent in the external and internal conditions. Moreover, the efforts as shown by the academics to procure their own personal ambitions can or cannot go against the organizational goals.

6.4.1.3 Perceived Employability and Subjective Career Success

The third theoretical contribution is related to the insignificant relationship between perceived employability and subjective career success. The employing organization is providing skills that are needed to increase their employability perceptions. However, the skill development has been short of providing career satisfaction to the academics. The findings of the present study are thus contrary to the research that employees learn and adapt according to the changing workplace by shifting the motivations from being employer-orientated to being career-orientated (O'Neil *et al.*, 2004; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). These findings confirm the fact that employment opportunities among the academics in Pakistan are not undergoing major shifts as those of their counterparts in the industrialized world depicted within the Anglo-American researches. In other words careers are still being seen in terms of security of job within a single organization, and employees are less employable across relevant labor markets. Likewise, the academics have not transformed themselves and are still organization-centered.

6.4.1.4 Affective Commitment and Perceived Employability

The fourth theoretical implication is the significant relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability. Academics are affectively committed to the employer, leading to perceptions of employability. Previously, Yousaf and Sanders (2012) had discussed the relationship of affective commitment and employability of a public sector university of Pakistan. The findings of the present study are in congruence with Benson (2006) who states that there is a reciprocal relationship between the employee and the employer such that both expect direct returns on their investments. Accordingly, the private sector universities have been able to realize the concept of perceived organizational support in valuing employees' contribution and caring about their well-being. According to the norm of reciprocity within the social exchange theory, employees that have higher levels of perceived organizational support, reciprocate with positive attitudes by showing affective commitment towards the employer. Human resource practices in private universities are thus at par with those in the public universities, especially with regard to training, team work, employee participation, compensation and job definition practices, and thus resulting in higher commitment of academics towards the organization. This is contrary to the findings by Iqbal, Arif, and Abbas (2011) who described human resource practices in the public sector to be better than those in the private sector.

6.4.1.5 Affective Commitment and Subjective Career Success

The fifth theoretical contribution is the significant relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success. Affective commitment helps academics in achieving subjective career success. Academics that remain committed to the organization are likely to be the ones that perform, display organizational citizenship behavior and contribute to their eventual career success. The relationship between affective commitment (AC) and subjective career success (SCS) fills in the gap, as the previous studies, Ali *et al.* (2009), Chaudhry (2012), Khan *et al.* (2013), Malik *et al.* (2010), Rehman *et al.* (2013) and Shah *et al.* (2012) had discussed the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction with respect to the academics. The finding of the present research is in line with Allen (2011), Benson (2006), Briscoe and Finkelstein (2009), Colakoglu *et al.* (2010), Field and Buitendach (2011), Grant *et al.* (2008) and Lumley *et al.* (2011) who describe the organization's efforts in caring for the well-being of the labor force, leading to emotional attachment towards the employer, and thus achieve career satisfaction.

6.4.1.6 Contribution to the Protean Career Theory

The present study also contributes to the underpinning theory, namely the protean career theory. The "value-driven" predisposition of the protean career theory describes a person as being inclined towards accepting the values as espoused by the organization, and thus developing an affective bond with the employer (Simo, Enache, Sallan & Fernandez, 2010). The affective commitment of the academics, therefore, depends upon matching the organizational values with their career values. Likewise, another relationship that has contributed to the underpinning theory is the statistically significant relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability. Hall and Chandler (2005), King (2004) and Quigley and Tymon (2006) have described "positive self-image" (a predisposition of protean career theory) to be related to perceived employability.

According to the theory, a person pursuing a protean career tries to maintain a psychological contract with himself rather than an organization. Academics thus assume responsibility for their career development, and try to shape themselves in accordance with the career desires and the changing market. Protean careers envision horizontally driven growth by expanding upon one's competencies in the shape of knowledge, skills, and abilities, making oneself employable, and achieving career success.

6.4.2 Practical Implications

The practical implications derived from the findings of the present study have some suggestions for the academics, management, the ministry, and human resource practitioners. These suggestions are helpful for learning, developing and achieving career satisfaction for both the present and future professionals.

6.4.2.1 Implications for Academics

Findings of the study have indicated that the academics in the private sector universities of the country have been affected by various factors such as globalization, recession and technological advancements. The academics are thus working under some uncertainty. The academics perceive that there are fewer employment options in the labor market, which is adding to career dissatisfaction. It is thus inferred from the results of the data analysis that the academics are feeling less employable due to weak employability perceptions. Job security, moreover, is the driving force for the academics. On a positive note, the significant relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability shows there is some emphasis by academics on learning and adapting according to the changing workplace by transforming the motivations from being employer-orientated to being career-orientated. As a result of the “new career” which is taking its root in Pakistan, contracts are thus becoming more transactional in nature. The change of contracts from relational psychological marked by indefinite permanent relationships to those of transactional psychological has resulted in limited implications for both the employer and the employees by focusing on the short-term. This shift in contracts has resulted in an increased mobility, individualism, autonomy and reduced organizational commitment for the employees. It is, therefore, important to know that the professional success of academics has a separate path that is rooted in the employee himself, and is independent of the emotional commitment shown towards the employing organizations.

Academics can, therefore, enhance their perceptions of employability through the ever increasing possession of knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA’s). Furthermore, certain job dimensions such as autonomy, positive feedback, variety and challenge can be added to make academics committed to the organizations. Certain degree of autonomy can, therefore, be given to the academics in choosing the text books, determining teaching methodology, setting grades, evaluating the course and scheduling of classes. Variety can also go a long way towards making employees more committed, by setting out the right balance between teaching and research. Currently, research is not a high priority for private sector universities, and more stress is laid on teaching classes. The academics are, therefore, working with a protean career identity especially with regard to increasing their employability whereby the boundaries between jobs, organizations and life roles are becoming increasingly blurred and individuals are expected to negotiate a greater number and variety of role transitions.

Affective commitment on the part of the academics towards the organization, has, however, been observed. This was found in the significant relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success. In return, the organization offers its staff better wages, more power and promotions through upward mobility. Career development opportunities within the organization are perceived by the academics as a means to increase satisfaction levels. The academics thus evaluate the costs and the benefits attached to their jobs, and individually satisfy the needs and desires resulting in positive feelings towards the working environment. At the same time, various aspects of job have an effect on the satisfaction of employees including supervision, co-worker support, task performance, financial rewards, and promotional activities. The internalizing of social norms by the academics forms a cognitive structure, or frame of reference for career satisfaction. Academics thus perceive the organization's investment in their career skills as a positive gesture, and reciprocate with relationships being built on norms of social exchange.

6.4.2.2 Implications for Management

Procedural justice and the way management rewards its employees can directly affect the level of academics satisfaction. If the academics perceive that the organization is fair in its implementation of the rules, procedures and practices, then this would create a positive image in the eyes of the employees for the organization. It would also enhance their willingness to stay in the organization for longer periods of time. Therefore, it is mandatory that the university rules, regulations, and policies should be made fairer and transparent. Since professional satisfaction in the form of subjective career success is an individual effort, and not dictated by the norms and values as espoused by the employing organization, the concept of career satisfaction can be taken to comprise of several factors. These factors play an important part in increasing the organizational commitment towards the employer, and contribute to the professional satisfaction of employees.

Moreover, in the case of the academics the relationship between the two variables of affective commitment and career satisfaction may be due to satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervisory support, communication, nature of work, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions and co-worker support (Spector, 2006). As Rothmann and Coetzer (2002) point out that professional satisfaction is an indicator of organizational performance, and is dependent upon various organizational and individual factors. It is, therefore a well-known fact realized by employers world-wide that for organizations to perform at their best, they must wield a satisfied labor force. Hence, the emergence of the statement: happy employees are in fact productive employees (Saari & Judge 2004).

It is also pertinent to mention here that in the current organizational contexts, brain drain has become a crucial issue for management. This issue is all the more important for the private sector universities where the academics are the intellectual capital for the employers. The management, therefore, needs to maintain sustainable competition by attracting and retaining satisfied employees who are committed to the professional careers and the organization. By promoting a committed work force, a presence of intellectual capital and lasting returns for the organization can be had. Moreover, according to Judge, Cable, Boudreau and Bretz (1995), psychological success is an effective tool at the disposal of the organizations, as employees that are intrinsically satisfied with their professional careers are a boon for the organizations.

6.4.2.3 Higher Education Commission of Pakistan and Human Resource Practitioners

The study can alert the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan especially the policy makers at the top of the education industry to realize that powers should not be concentrated in one person, and centralization is not the order of the day. Power should be devolved to the lower echelons especially the academics who are the real torch bearers for disseminating knowledge. The “new career” concepts as presented in the thesis are a proof that academics are changing for the better. This is especially evident in the significant relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability. It shows that academics are opening up to career development opportunities offered by the organization, and this has resulted in them becoming more employable in the labor market. The present study is of value to the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan, which is working as a ministry within the Government. The study can enhance the HEC’s willingness to invest more on career development of faculty members. This can be done by supporting talented and able academics in providing opportunities for study and research and enabling scholars to build expertise and networking within their fields. Fellowships can be offered for training and development purposes, and academics can be trained in more developed countries, so that when they return home with the latest knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA's), it can help strengthen the institution's human potential and increase the employability of the academics.

For the human resource practitioners and professionals, the study is helpful in pointing out the "new career" concepts. The new career concepts such as protean career are characterized by self-directness and value-drive. The practitioners will therefore have to develop the latest skills that are no longer firm specific; rather, they are adaptable, and transferable. Similarly, perceived employability calls for goals to be set not according to the professional's age, but according to the knowledge, skills and capabilities of the individual.

6.5 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Though the researcher has tried his best to fill in the theoretical, methodological and practical gaps related to the academics' career satisfaction, protean career orientation, affective commitment and employability, the study is not perfect and has several limitations. These limitations are given below:

Due to time constraints, the study focused on academics in the private sector. A more thorough research could be conducted if both private and public sector academics were chosen by the researcher. However, such a study would require an exhaustive effort to complete the study in the stipulated time frame. Also, professionals from other businesses can be included so as to widen the scope of the study. These professionals can be from the banking industry, small medium enterprises, local corporations, and multinational corporations. Also, the administrative staff working in the universities can be included so their career satisfaction can be compared to that of academics.

The second limitation is cross-sectional nature of the study. A cross-sectional study provides a “snap-shot” of the underlying problem at a particular point in time. Such a study does not provide definitive answers to the cause-and-effect relationships, and to what happens before or after the snapshot is taken. Future studies can apply more longitudinal approaches by taking several observations over a course of time, possibly covering several years.

The present study applies only one dimension of career success in the form of subjective career success. Future studies can apply the objective dimension of career success by looking into the pay, power and status concerns of the sample, which will provide a more comprehensive picture of the problem under study.

The study takes only a few independent variables for scrutiny: protean career orientation, and affective commitment. Future studies can also take into account demographic variables like gender, age, job status, experience, and work specialization as affecting the dependent variable. Studying the demographics will make the study more interesting since most of the studies on private sector academics have been from the perspective of demographics but are limited in scope, i.e. the studies represent a particular city or province but are hardly nationwide (refer to Appendix “O”). So the findings could not be generalized or applying to the academics in the country. The present study, meanwhile, takes academics across the country.

The fifth limitation is the use of only quantitative research methods for study. Future studies can look into a purely qualitative study employing case studies, observations and interviews. Alternatively future studies may consider mixed method approaches combining both qualitative and quantitative research methods.

The sixth limitation of the study is that no mediating relationship has been observed in a “collectivistic” county like Pakistan. As most of the researches on the “new career” concept are from the perspective of more liberal developed economies like those of USA, United Kingdom and the European Union, future studies can take an international perspective by taking into consideration the career success of academics working in two or more countries. As such a “collectivistic” country like Pakistan can be compared to an “individualistic” country like Germany to see their career satisfaction levels. Or two collectivistic cultures can be studied at the same time to see whether mediating relationships are observed among the professionals, i.e. a developing country like Pakistan can be compared to a developed country like Japan. Such a research meanwhile will take an exhaustive effort on the part of the researcher to complete the research within the stipulated time frame.

The seventh limitation is that the present study is based on self-reports, i.e., it has asked the respondents directly through the use of questionnaires. This may inflate the relationships that exist among the phenomena being studied, and chances of common method bias can become obvious. However, since the theoretical base of management and behavioral studies is more or less dependent on a single source (use of questionnaire only), and while some of the correlations are inflated, common method bias should not be considered a fatal error (Spector, 2006).

6.6 Conclusion

The conceptual framework empirically tested the effect of perceived employability mediating the relationship between protean career orientation, affective commitment, and subjective career success. Data collection for this research began with the pilot study that looked at the internal reliability and content validity of the questionnaire. After finding the questionnaire to be valid and reliable, the researcher conducted the main survey by sending the questionnaire to academics. The data was primarily screened in SPSS and then further tested in AMOS for confirmatory factor analyses.

Results of the findings have showed protean career orientation to have a positive and significant relationship with perceived employability. This means that protean career orientation is helping the academics develop competencies by self-management, and subsequently achieve perceived employability, while affective commitment has a positive and significant relationship with perceived employability or perceived employability is an asset on behalf of the academics. Also, there is a statistically significant relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success, i.e. from the academics perspective, affective commitment towards the employer leads to the built-up of self-esteem and psychological well-being. The other five hypotheses were rejected due to statistically insignificant relationship. On a positive note, all the gaps as presented in the problem statement have been filled, and various theoretical and practical contributions are derived from the study. These filled gaps and contributions are given below.

It is among the pioneer studies on academics working in private universities of Pakistan that establishes relationships based on subjective career success and not job satisfaction. The study presents a generalized perspective of career satisfaction by taking academics working in the HEC recognized “W” category universities across the country.

The present study, meanwhile, has discussed the “new career” concepts of protean career and perceived employability with regard to academics in the private higher education sector of the country. The present research on academics thus gives weight to Baruch and Hall (2004) who argued that academic careers are unique and an academic is considered an “autonomous professional” who takes on the responsibility of self-development. This fact was supported in the present study while finding a significant relationship between protean career orientation and perceived employability.

The present research also filled in the gap and studied the relationship between protean career orientation, perceived employability and subjective career success from the perspective of academics in Pakistan. However, the mediating relationship of perceived employability was not supported, meaning that there are also other factors that are impacting the subjective career success of academics. These other factors are to be discovered in future studies. The research has also filled in the gap by studying the relationship between affective commitment and perceived employability from the perspective of academics. Previous study by Yousaf and Sanders (2012) was from the perspective of public sector academics.

Another gap filled is the positive and significant relationship between affective commitment and subjective career success. The present research is thus in line with Allen (2011), Benson (2006), Briscoe and Finkelstein (2009) and Lumley *et al.* (2011). The previous researches such as Ali *et al.* (2009), Chaudhry (2012), Rehman *et al.* (2013), Malik *et al.* (2010), Khan *et al.* (2013) and Shah *et al.* (2012) carried out in Pakistan on private academics are from the perspective of organizational commitment as affecting the job satisfaction of faculty members. The present study, therefore, studies from the perspective of subjective career success.

The study also adds to the body of knowledge by discussing the conceptual frameworks of previous researchers: De Vos and Soens (2008) and De Vos *et al.* (2011). Moreover, De Vos and Soens (2008) discussed the effects of protean career orientation on subjective career success, with self-management behaviors as the mediating variable while De Vos *et al.* (2011) had competency development impacting on subjective career success, with perceived employability as the mediator. The present research, therefore, adds to the previous models and studied the relationship of protean career orientation on subjective career success, with perceived employability as mediating the two. The findings, furthermore, can help the HEC in recognizing the importance of the private sector in research and development and will serve as a point of reference for other academics and students.

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