

**CAREER BELIEFS, PERSONALITY AND
CAREER SUCCESS: AN INVESTIGATION OF
DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS**



By

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ABSTRACT

Career development theories emphasize the importance of individual's characteristics and cognitive processes for several career outcomes. Under the theoretical framework of Krumboltz's Social Learning Theory of Career Decision Making (1979), the present study aimed to explore career beliefs of the employed individuals and to investigate its direct and indirect relationships with personality and career success. More specifically, the study attempted to find out the predictive relationship between big five personality factors (i.e., agreeableness, extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience and conscientiousness) and two facets of career success (i.e. objective and subjective career success). Further, mediating role of career beliefs in relationship of personality factors and career success was also explored. Additionally, role of human capital and demographic variables were also studied. For the very purpose, present study was conducted in two parts comprising multiple phases. Career Beliefs Scale, Urdu version of NEO-Five Factor Inventory (Costa & McCrea, 1985) and Urdu version of Career Satisfaction Scale were utilized for assessing the constructs of the study. Part I dealt with preparation of the instrument for the study. An indigenous Career Beliefs Scale (CBS) was developed. Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) was translated into Urdu language. This part also dealt with establishing construct validity through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and criterion related validity for CBS and construct validity for CSS through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). EFA of CBS resulted in two factor structure (named as Facilitating Career Beliefs and Career Myths) of the instrument while CFA of CSS confirmed its uni-dimensional structure. The findings also

provided the evidence of the sound psychometric properties of the two measures. Part II consisted of pilot study and main study. The pilot study aimed to check the trends of data for present sample and main study aimed for testing proposed hypotheses. The two instruments finalized in Part I and Urdu version of NEO-FFI (Chishti & Kamal, 2002) originally developed by Costa and McCrea (1985) was administered on 690 full time employed adults with average age of 32 years, working in banks and telecom sector. The sample comprised of 400 males and 176 females working in government, semi-government and private banks and telecom organizations from Rawalpindi, Islamabad and Lahore. The findings revealed that among personality factors, conscientiousness and extraversion significantly predicted subjective career success, whereas among demographic variables only age significantly predicted subjective career success. Both types of Career Beliefs i.e. Facilitating Career Beliefs and Career Myths proved to be significant predictors of subjective career success. On the other hand, for objective career success, gender and age from demographic variables and education and work experience from human capital variables acted as significant predictors. Among personality factors, agreeableness and neuroticism significantly predicted objective career success. Career myths also significantly negatively predicted objective career success. Overall, human capital and demographic variables resulted to be better predictors of objective career success. The study also found the evidence that Facilitating Career Beliefs and Career Myths partially mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and subjective career success. Career Myths also partially mediated the relationship between agreeableness and objective career success. Gender was found to play moderating role in the relationship between human capital (work experience) and objective career success.

Group wise comparisons showed that male employees experienced higher levels of objective career success as compared to female employees. Employees working in semi-government experienced higher objective career success while employees in government experienced higher subjective career success. Results also showed that employees who are married, who have employed spouse and those working on permanent basis had higher levels of objective and subjective career success as compared to employees those are unmarried, don't have employed spouse and those working on contract basis. Employees working in banks and semi-government tended to have higher objective career success as compared to those working in telecom, government and private sectors. On the other hand, employees working in government sector possessed higher levels of career myths and experienced higher subjective career success as compared to those working in semi-government and private sectors. Implications of the present study are discussed under career development perspectives and career counseling process. Limitations have been acknowledged and future research directions have been suggested accordingly.

Chapter- I**INTRODUCTION**

Career Development has been a significant focus of investigation in management and organizational literature. This process has been viewed as overall collection of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic, and chance factors that combine to influence the nature and importance of work in an individual's lifetime (Maddy-Berstein, 2000). Viewing it another way, it is the way through which people identify as how they relate to the world of work and their role in it (Hansen, 1976). The influences and outcomes of career development are one aspect of socialization as part of a broader process of human development.

Subsequently, researchers continued to identify personal and organizational factors that facilitate the process of career development. Among the outcome factors, career success is one of the ultimate goals of career development. Career success is not only of concern to individual but also to organizations as individual's career success eventually contribute to organizational success. Researchers have been trying to investigate the different clusters of variables as predictors of career success (Converse, Pathak, Haddock, Gotlib, & Merbedone, 2011; Judge, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Bretz, 2004; Loi & Ngo, 2010; Ng, Eby, Sorenson, & Feldman, 2005). Among these, individual predictors such as demographic, dispositional and behavioral variables as well as organizational such as structural and other workplace dynamics have been included. The present study has not only focused on personality factors as predictors of career success but cognitive process for career has also been catered.

Role of personality in career development is well documented and personality has been found to play an important role in many domains of organizational behavior (Barrick & Mount, 2005). In recent decades relationship of personality with career success has been well researched (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Other than personality, employees' beliefs about their careers also play a significant role in career success. In addition to investigations of the direct relationships between personality and career success, researchers are now focusing on the process through which personality exerts influence on career success (Abele & Spurk, 2011). The present study attempts to focus on career beliefs as a process through which personality affects career success.

People's beliefs include their mental representations of the nature and workings of the self, of their relationships, and of their world. From infancy, humans develop these beliefs and representations and many prominent personality theorists even acknowledge that they are a fundamental part of personality. As Dweck (2008) argued that beliefs lie at the heart of personality and adaptive functioning and that they give us unique insight into how personality and functioning can be changed. Beliefs are central to the way in which people wrap up their experiences and carry them forward, and that beliefs should play a more central role in the study of personality as well as different human experiences.

Moreover, the process of career development; for which personality, career beliefs and career success are planned to be studied, is important for both employees and employers. There may be several unintended and undesired changes as well as consequences that can change the entire scenario. In such a situation both employees and employers must be ready to keep with the changing environment and act accordingly. Employees continuously need to upgrade their skills and competencies to

meet the current demands where as organizations must be ready with those employees who can handle the pressure efficiently and cease the risk of falling prey to the changed scenario. Therefore, understanding the importance of career development is necessary for both the parties.

The present study is different in the context as it is going to focus on personality factors in combination with person's cognitive framework as predictors of career success. Career beliefs which constitute the cognitive framework to view career life have been taken as predictor as well as mediator between personality factors and career success. In the following sections, variables of present study and literature review supporting the significance of relationships have been discussed.

Career Beliefs: Nature and Theoretical Foundations

Career beliefs are assumptions one holds about oneself and the world of work, which influence one's career development (Krumboltz, 1994). This construct has been defined in various ways such as, Arulmani, van Laar, and Easton (2003) viewed this as a cluster of attitudes, opinions, convictions that seem to cohere together to create mind-sets that provide a basis to people's orientation to the idea of a career. Peterson, Sampson, Reardon, and Lenz (1996) defined career beliefs as positive and negative thoughts or assumptions people hold about themselves, occupations, and the career development process. It has been considered that one's beliefs about oneself and the occupational world influences one's way to deal with career related decision and activities (Amundson, 1997; Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1996).

A number of researchers are in agreement that beliefs are shaped through individuals' learning and contact with the environment (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Krumboltz, 1979; Rokeach, 1972). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) considered beliefs as a person's personal opinions about oneself and the one's environment. They theorized three types of beliefs including descriptive beliefs (developed because of one's direct observation and experience with an entity), inferential beliefs (formed on the basis of earlier beliefs about specific objects) and informational beliefs (presented by external sources, such as books, media, peers, colleagues etc).

Beliefs provide a foundation to form a person's conceptual configuration. On the basis of significant beliefs, one develops a particular approach towards an object; as a result, one forms a related intent that may affect one's behavior. One assesses the precision of one's beliefs by judging against others' opinions, and the feedback offers a basis for amending their original beliefs.

Two sophisticated theoretical positions, the Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994) and the Social Learning Theory (Mitchell, Jones, & Krumboltz, 1979) have emerged in the literature, that offer valuable theoretical vantage points from which career development in contemporary contexts could be examined.

Social cognitive career theory (SCCT). Employing Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, Lent et al. (1994) proposed Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), which inspects the way in which beliefs about personal efficacy functions in a system of sociological, cultural and economic effects on career decision-making behavior. The theory specifies that the process of forming a personal career is a

product of a relationship between the social cognitive processes of self-efficacy, outcome expectations and goal setting behavior (Bandura, 1986; Lent et al., 1994). It is speculated that these social cognitive mechanisms can be affected by environmental factors such as different socialization and by the internalization of these factors (Lent et al., 1994). It is proposed that when prospects are restricted, career guidance based on conventional systems such as the examination of interest and ability may be essential but not enough. SCCT recommends that an in-depth consideration of the person's belief systems may be significant in such scenario.

Social learning theory of career decision making (1979). Utilizing the social learning theory of Bandura (1977), Krumboltz's Social Learning Theory of Career Decision Making (1979), nowadays called as Happenstance theory (Krumboltz, 2009), Krumboltz proposed a system for understanding career-related behaviors. According to this perspective, one's personality, choices, and behaviors are learned on the basis of two kinds of experiences:

Instrumental learning. It happens when one's behaviors are rewarded or punished. Consequently, one is likely to replicate the behaviors that are positively reinforced, but stay away from the behaviors that are penalized.

Associative learning. It takes place when one links the emotionally neutral incident/stimulus with an affective incident/stimulus, observe others' behaviors, or get new information through media.

Krumboltz (1979) also discovered four types of factors that affect career development:

Genetic endowment. This refers to innate features that may shape one's capability to attain certain academic and occupational choices and skills. It comprises racial background, gender, physical outlook, abilities, and disabilities.

Environmental conditions. These include economic, social, political and cultural factors which are not in one's control, but which may influence one's career development in some manner.

Learning experiences. Every person has distinctive learning experiences through associative and instrumental learning processes resulting in variety of career choices and goals.

Task approach skills. Interface among genetic endowment, environmental conditions, and learning experiences, people form their own task approach skills and use them for dealing with tasks or problems they face. These skills comprise of performance levels, values, work patterns, cognitive schemas, and emotional reactions.

The above four factors help to form one's overall belief systems. Krumboltz (1979, 1983) considered the belief system as personal generalizations in an effort to characterize their own perceptions of self and environment. People continually

observe themselves and evaluate their performance against their own or others' criterias; consequently, forming their self-concept, or self-observation generalizations. Self-observation generalizations refers to one's values, interests and attitudes; and they may be explicit or implicit self-statements. People's assumptions about the environment are world-view generalizations. They are formed from individuals' observations and interface with the environment. World-view generalizations are used to guess what will happen in the future and in other environments.

Mitchell and Krumboltz (1996) uttered that people's beliefs about themselves and occupational world affect their attitude to learn new skills and ultimately influence their ambitions and behaviors. Krumboltz (1991) asserted that individuals' interests and values are formed through one's learning experiences, and both of them constitute self-observation generalizations. He illustrated that how one go about career related activities is based on what one believe about oneself and the occupational world. For instance, an individual who believes he/she has the capability and an interest in understanding human beings tends to opt psychology as a field or as a profession. In another case, if one believes the agriculture field will prosper in the future will adhere to agriculture-related careers.

Beliefs are the generalizations that are developed through the learning process from personal observations and deductions. Although these beliefs may not always be true but they influence people's behaviors despite whether they are correct or not. Krumboltz (1994) asserted that beliefs are neither good nor bad. A belief can be facilitative for one person but can cause hindrance for other. Therefore, whether a person's belief is functional or dysfunctional depends on the person and the situation. A dysfunctional belief becomes problematic when it dampens people from

investigating related career information and involving in career activities. Adaptive beliefs facilitate the achievement of goals while inaccurate beliefs may hinder the way to meet goals.

False and dysfunctional beliefs can also play a significant role in career development. Early literature has extensively illustrated variety of faulty beliefs that create maladaptive career-related behaviors. The terms irrational career beliefs, negative career belief and career myths have been used interchangeably in literature. Career myths refer to false assumptions and generalizations about the career and related decision-making process (Amundson, 1997). These myths are common beliefs internalized from family or societal messages.

Thompson (1976) talked about seven fallacies found in his career counseling experience. These included viewing vocational planning as very accurate, considering career decisions as final, reliance on other sources for career decision making, misconceptions about direct link between interests and abilities, irrationality about going through every possible choice in every career decision, dichotomization of career decision as success and failure and finally assuming that passing time leads to better decision making.

Woodrick (1979) recognized 19 career myths. Close to the flawed belief identified by Thompson, the extra career myths identified by Woodrick's work were: the myth of work as the central considering it as the most important part of one's life, the perfect job myth which refers to belief that there is the perfect job waiting somewhere for the person and the myth that happiness depends upon occupational success not on the process for working for career goal. The other myths included considering work as a calling myth which take only one career where one can

perform best, the myth of work ethic which emphasize the hard work as the only variable for the success and my son (daughter) the doctor myth which highlights the importance of occupational status for defining one's worth. In addition to these, the myth of rationality has belief that one should rely only on rational approach for decision making, the myth of sex role is associated with traditional gender stereotypical roles at workplace and the expert myth emphasize the emphasized the importance of experts in guiding career decisions. Another was college as vocational training myth which has belief that going to college can give better jobs, the myth of chance implied that luck or environment is the main determinant of career and the myth of intuition referred to significant role of intuitions in career related decisions.

Later, Lewis and Gilhousen (1981) added one more irrational belief suggesting that following a set of well-known will lead to a superior life. This belief also presumed that the achievements of younger generation must be more than parents.

Nevo (1987) detected ten maladaptive career beliefs that add to clients' problematic career-related behavior. Two faulty beliefs, that are different from those already mentioned were associated to please other people by career and assumption that entering into career would resolve all life dilemmas.

Atta (2009), while doing a research on public sector employees in Pakistan studied role of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and life satisfaction as predictors of career negative thoughts. He found that all these variables strongly negatively predicted negative career thoughts.

Realizing the importance of career beliefs, adequate attention has been given to assessment of career beliefs.

Measures of Career Beliefs. Keeping in view that having irrational assumptions may hinder progress toward career goals, leading to dissatisfaction due to inappropriate coping skills or a lack of action, it seems significant to identify individual's career beliefs. Literature showed multiple approaches in measurement of career beliefs, some of which are as follows:

Krumboltz's Career Beliefs Inventory (CBI). It was devised as a tool to enhance individual's insight about their career beliefs and to evaluate the possible effect of these beliefs on career related behaviors during counseling process (Krumboltz, 1991). It has 96 items organized into 25 scales. The CBI was criticized because of low internal consistency measure of some subscales (Dolenz, 1993; Fuqua & Newman, 1994; Turner & Conkel, 2011). There had also been concerns regarding how career beliefs measured through CBI defined and related to career progress (Wall, 1994).

Chinese Career Beliefs Inventory (CCBI). Yang (1996) constructed and standardized the Chinese Career Beliefs Inventory for measuring the career beliefs possessed by students.

Career Beliefs Patterns Scale (CBPS). Arulmani et al. (2003) developed Career Beliefs Patterns Scale (CBPS) tapping different kinds of career beliefs including proficiency, persistence and control and self direction beliefs. Participants are presented with vignettes of real situations and are required to indicate on a 7 point

scale, the extent to which they agree with the manner in which the character in the vignette resolved the career preparation issue. This instrument has been developed for students.

While analyzing the current scenario, it is found that there are instruments available for measuring career beliefs; and CBI (Krumboltz, 1999) is the more frequently used instrument for career counseling, exploring the client beliefs in depth; and it has a sound theoretical background. But using entirely western constructs and items, researchers may take the risk of missing some important indigenous non-western cultural insight (Stewart et al., 1999). Moreover, Mahadevan (2010), while exploring relationship between career beliefs and acculturation among international students found low reliabilities of CBI. He took sample from Indian, Chinese and Korea and administered CBI on them and found low reliabilities of CBI on all these three Asian students samples. Although CBPS developed in India may be more relevant because of cultural relevance, but is not applicable for employed adults. So this situation motivated the researcher to develop an indigenous instrument to assess the career beliefs which should be applicable to employed adults.

Career Beliefs and Career Related Behaviors

Literature shows that most of the researches on career beliefs are conducted on samples of students. Such as Murry (1989) in his study on undergraduates, found that decidedness associated negatively associated with avoidance and positively with undecided stigma. In another study, Ryan-Jones (1990) concluded that college students with low decidedness were inclined to believe that career decisions were

based on external forces, and they were contented with their levels of career indecision. Enright's (1996) study indicated that college students with higher levels of self-doubt about career decision-making faced higher levels of career indecision. Lunney's (1993) study using the students of Liberal Arts disclosed that decided students expressed stronger career beliefs about hard work, in their abilities to beat obstacles, and in their own control over consequences. On the other hand, undecided students conveyed more readiness to depend on expert advice, but were much less eager to think about flexibility in career choice and to take risks. Chi (1994) found that students facing problems in career decision making tended to agree more with obedience and avoidance; while students actively seeking career decision making seemed to agree more with hard work and control. They also believed that decision-making should be vigilant, that interest is same as ability, and that the attributes of the individual and the environment should go with each other.

In same way, Luzzo (1997) observed that students perceiving more career barriers were less inclined to believe in that they had control over these hurdles and they didn't believed in their responsibility about career related decisions. On the other hand, confident participants possessed adaptive career beliefs. Leu's (2000) research indicated that students facing problems in career-decision making tended to avoid challenges, rely on other sources for decisions, feared of failures and set lower goals. Similarly, Millar and Shevlin (2007) found that adolescents who believed that they had control over their career development process were likely to engage in career exploration activities as compared to those who believed in external forces affecting their vocational development. Adaptive career beliefs have been found to be related to

improved career decision making process (Sadeghi, Baghban, Bahrami, Ahmadi, & Creed, 2010).

Further, Arulmani et al. (2003) studied the relationship of socioeconomic status on the career beliefs of high school students in India and found significant differences in career beliefs between students belonging to high and low SES. These researchers provided the evidence that students from lower SES were likely to place a lower emphasis on learning work skills proficiencies as compared to students from high SES. Students from high SES believed that they can create opportunities for them while students from low SES expressed low control over their lives. Similarly, students from high SES believed in persistence despite career goals difficulties while students from low SES believed in low persistence in such scenario. Over all, students from lower SES showed negative career beliefs.

While exploring career beliefs of inner-city adolescents, Turner and Conkel (2011) identified six types of career beliefs: success is related to effort, job satisfaction, work interest and liking, flexibility/adaptability, achievement and persistence, and toleration of uncertainty. A majority of these young inner-city adolescents believed that their success was not related to their efforts and had beliefs inconsistent with flexibility/adaptability.

While, some of the researches have also focused the adult employed population but there is a small number of such researches. Niles and Sowa (1992) examined Career Decision- Making Self-Efficacy (CDMSE) with general self-efficacy, personality hardiness and career beliefs. The results indicated that CDMSE was significantly and positively related to general self-efficacy.

Mitchell's (1993) study of adults going through midlife career changes indicated that maladaptive career beliefs hampered career exploration behavior. Related cognitive restructuring program, employed for exploring their beliefs, found successful for increasing career exploration behaviors. Leu (2000) found that respondents' indecision was strongly affected by perfectionism. While, Neault (2002), in her research on a sample of managers in Canadian organizations explored how career management strategies predict career success. She found the evidence that career beliefs related to persistence and willingness to take risks were the best predictors of career success.

Liu (2003) in a research on relationship between career resilience and career beliefs found that maladaptive career beliefs were inversely related with career resiliency. A resilient individual held less irrational career beliefs, was more self-confident, tended to involve in planning for future, was flexible, but expressed stronger concerns about career. Career belief related to hard work, occupational status, career related decision making, role of fate for career were recognized as better antecedents of career resilience. That is, respondent having higher career resilience considered work as the central important part in one's life, assumed all professions have an equal status, took responsibility for career related decisions and believed in that the future is controlled by one's own hands.

Research revealed that individuals facing problems in career decision making likely to feel less control over their problems, possess beliefs on avoidance, perceive more hurdles, have self-doubt, and rely on other sources for their career decision-making. On the other hand, people facing no difficulty in career decisions found to have more adaptive career beliefs and were more confident. They felt control over

consequences, believed in one's ability to defeat career barriers and also believed in hard work (Liu, 2003).

Career Beliefs and Demographic Variables

Among demographics, most of the researches have explored the gender differences in career beliefs but these research findings do not provide consistent findings. Some researches found a few significant gender differences. As Murry (1989) observed that male students were likely to believe strongly in inappropriate striving for career and avoidance relate to career decision making than female students. Ryan-Jones (1990) observed that female students were likely to believe that a college education was a significant for obtaining a good job. Krumboltz (1991) observed gender differences in their beliefs related to persistence in uncertain situations indicating that women were more willing to work hard in case of uncertain goals. Holland, Johnston, Asama and Polys (1993) found that women tended to consider work transitions or search for a new job as compared to men.

Yang (1996) found significant gender differences among students on many career beliefs. Female students possessed less irrational career beliefs than male students. Liu (2003) found that males were likely to possess more irrational and sex role stereotypical career beliefs than females. Females tended to avoid career decision-making as they believed that future is unpredictable. Male participants considered salary as the most significant factor when choosing a profession. Previous studies also found that while making career decisions salary was more important for

males (Chiou; Yang, as cited in Liu, 2003). This might be due to the fact that males hold the responsibility for major income earner in most families.

Investigation of career beliefs among employees working in traditional and non-traditional occupations have also been focused in researches. Jackson's (1995) research indicated that in traditional occupations women expressed lower levels of beliefs in value of hard work, achievement orientation, overcoming hurdles, persisting in uncertain situations and taking risks than women in non-traditional occupations .

Stone (1996) provided a similar research evidence. She asserted that women in non-traditional careers were likely to believe hard work brings success and that they can overcome obstacles. These women were likely to search variety of jobs, gave more importance to intrinsic satisfaction and were better in tolerating uncertainty. These women tended to possess lower levels of work related stereotypes, whereas their career beliefs were likely to be more flexible and open. Moreover, Stone (1996) argued that older women tended to be more persistent in case of uncertain outcome. On the other hand, younger women were likely to have greater control over their career decisions, attach more importance to intrinsic satisfaction, and possessed less career related stereotypical views. Frome (1998) observed that women holding sex role stereotypes, showed a preference for flexible jobs enabling them to meet their family responsibilities, perceived less responsibility for providing the family with income and tended to place less importance on their career.

In addition to these demographic, research evidence related to other demographic variables as age, work experience and nature of organizations is present in literature. Liu (1997) found that the older teachers possessed more irrational career beliefs. On the other hand, Murry (1989) observed that irrational beliefs is negatively

associated with age and work experience. Liu (2003) also got the evidence that younger employees possessed higher levels of irrational career beliefs than older participants.

Related to relationship between work experience and career beliefs, Chi (1994) showed that students without work experience expressed lower self-confidence and higher avoidant beliefs related to career decisions; while students having work experience believed more in hard work and possessed more flexible beliefs.

Liu (2003) demonstrated that employees working at public institutions believed that once a career decision is made it should not be changed and emphasized monetary rewards as primary concern while making career choice. These employees believed in finding congruency between person and job, and showed less were less aspiration for appreciation and accomplishment. Moreover, they tended to sacrifice family life for work.

Career beliefs held by individuals belonging to cultural groups also vary and this is supported by research evidence. It has been found that career beliefs patterns of Asian student population are very different from European American students (Bishop, Bauer, & Becker, 1998; Weissberg, Berensten, Cote, Cravey, & Heath, 1982). Watts (1996) observed that Asians were likely to have stronger community and family orientation and they preferred combined career decision making as compared to European-Americans who seemed to be more inclined towards individualism. Tang, Fouad, and Smith (1999) found that Asians were more restricted in their occupational choice and were likely to pursue a limited range of occupations. Similarly, Lightbody, Nicholson, and Walsh (1997) provided the evidence that

Asians' career choice was much influenced by respectability of related careers. Beliefs about prestige of occupation played important role in middle high SES families in India (Desai & Whiteside, 2000).

Arulmani (2012) found that among Indian students there existed four types of career beliefs which facilitated and hindered their career exploration. These beliefs were about persistence efforts towards career, beliefs about proficiency in for abilities required in career, beliefs in having disadvantages because of socioeconomic status and believing in conformity for career related behavior.

An interesting finding by Mahadevan (2012) was noted that within Asian sub-cultures, differences in career beliefs existed. He investigated three Asian students sample from China, Korea and India. He found that the three groups differ in their career beliefs. Therefore, he recommended not to generalize the findings from only one study to whole Asian or Non-Asian cultures.

A very less research has considered role of personality traits in career beliefs. Holland et al. (1993), in their research showed that neuroticism (negatively), and extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (positively) associate with beliefs about the importance of working hard, risking, and persisting when faced with obstacles suggesting that individuals with these traits may be successful in executive positions. Neuroticism correlated negatively, while extraversion and conscientiousness correlated positively, with beliefs about the importance of achievement and openness. Finally, openness correlated positively with beliefs about the importance of improving oneself and of intrinsic satisfaction and negatively with a belief that a structured work environment is important. Wu (1991) showed that state

and trait anxiety mediated relationship between career decision-making beliefs and career decision-making behaviors.

As discussed earlier and supported by research evidences, it becomes clear that career beliefs have been mostly studied in relation to career behavior mostly among students. Furthermore, only two studies have addressed how personality is associated with career beliefs. This identified gap in the present knowledge motivated the researcher to explore how personality can bring differences in career beliefs among employed adults.

Personality

The idea that personality relates meaningfully to the kinds of careers people chooses and how they perform in those careers has a long history with no signs of reduced interest (Borgen & Lindley, 2003).

Many definitions of personality are prevalent in literature as Larsen and Buss (2005) defined personality as the set of psychological traits and means within the individual that are organized and relatively enduring and affect one's dealings and adjustments with physical as well as psychosocial environment. While Osif (2005) defined personality as the distinguishing impression a person makes on others and the configurations inside a person that explain why he or she creates a particular impression on others.

Theoretical Perspectives of Personality

Contemporary vocational psychology is dominated by two very different models of personality including trait and social-cognitive perspectives (Swanson & Gore, 2000). The trait approach focuses on a small number of global personality dimensions that are considerably heritable and stable (Costa & McCrea, 1994). On the other hand, social-cognitive perspective focuses on people's specific beliefs and cognitions that can change over time and these are the often best predictors of people's behavior in the domain at any given time (Bandura, 1997, 1999).

Five factor model got maximum support and attention from personality researchers. This model was originally based on a combination of the lexical and statistical approach. Allport and Odbert (as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005) started lexical approach and identified 17953 trait terms from the English language. Allport and Odbert (as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005) divided the original set of trait terms into 4 lists which are stable traits, temporary traits, social evaluations and physical terms. The list of terms from the first category consisting of 4,500 presumably stable traits was used by subsequently by Cattell (as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005) as a starting point for his lexical analysis of personality traits. Cattell could not subject his list to a factor analysis. Instead, he reduced the list to a smaller set of 171 clusters by eliminating some and lumping together others. He ended up with a smaller set of 35 clusters of personality traits.

Fiske (as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005) took a subset of 22 of Cattell's 35 clusters and discovered, through factor analysis, a five factor solution. In historical treatments of 5 five factor model, therefore, Fiske is noted as the first person to

discover a version of 5 factor model but he is not credited with having identified its precise structure. Tupes and Christal (as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005) made the next major contribution to the five factor taxonomy. They examined the factor structure of the 22 simplified descriptions in eight samples and emerged with five factor model. In 1981, Goldberg and then in 1985, McCrae and Costa replicated this factor structure (as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005). The five factor model has proven to be astonishingly replicable in studies using English language trait words as items (Goldberg, as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005). In its modern form, the five factor taxonomy has been measured in two major ways. One way is based on self ratings of single word trait adjectives such as talkative, moody, organized etc (Goldberg as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005) and one way is based on self ratings of sentence items (McCrae & Costa, as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005). The five factor structure has been replicated extensively among English speaking samples.

Five factor model of personality. Some personality researchers have criticized Cattell for presenting too many factors. Eysenck was also criticized for presenting too few factors (Schultz & Schultz, 2001). Costa and McCrae (as cited in Schultz & Schultz, 2001) began an extensive research program while working at the Gerontology Research Center of the National Institutes of Health in Baltimore. They identified five factors of personality which are extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness and openness to experience.

Consensus is emerging that a five-factor model of personality, often termed the “Big Five” (Goldberg, 1990), can be used to describe the many salient aspects of personality. The Big Five can be found in virtually any measure of personality (e.g.,

McCrae & John, 1992), including the analysis of trait adjectives in many languages, factor analyses of existing multidimensional measures, and decisions made by expert judges based on existing measures (Mount & Barrick, 1995). Evidence indicates that the Big Five are fairly heritable and stable over time (Costa & McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1989), although the environment undoubtedly plays a role.

The detail of five factors of personality is as under:

Extraversion. Extraversion refers to the level of sensory stimulation with which one is comfortable (McCrae & John, 1992). High scorers on this trait are generally sociable, assertive, active, bold, energetic, adventuresome, and expressive (McCrae & John, 1992). In contrast, those who are low in extraversion are fearful, submissive, silent, and reserved. Extraversion has been found to relate positively to job performance in occupations that need social interactions (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Openness or intellect. Openness refers to the number of interests to which one is attracted and the depth to which those interests are pursued (McCrae & John, 1992). The concept of openness to experience is somewhat related with other dispositional traits such as creativity, inquisitiveness, unconventionality, autonomy, and change acceptance. High scorers on this trait tend to experience new things in life for example experimentation with new foods, and a desire for new experiences (Buss, as cited in Larsen & Buss, 2005).

Agreeableness. Agreeableness refers to the number of sources from which one takes one's norms for right behavior (McCrae & John, 1992). High scorers are sympathetic, kind, warm and understanding while low scorers on this trait are unsympathetic, unkind, and cruel. Agreeable individuals are liked by other individuals because of possessing the above traits. High scorers do not indulge in conflicting matters and make efforts to spend harmonious life. While low scorers tend to be aggressive and engage into a lot of conflicts (Larsen & Buss, 2005).

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness refers to the number of goals on which one is focused (McCrae & John, 1992). High scorers on this trait are organized, neat, orderly, practical and honest while low scorers are disorganized, disorderly, careless and impractical (Larsen & Buss, 2005). Hard working and punctuality along with other reliable behaviors displayed by conscientious individuals lead them to greater job satisfaction, greater job security and committed social relationships (Larsen & Buss, 2005). According to Barrick and Mount (1991), conscientious individual perform better at work. Conscientiousness is considered to be the most important personality dimension that is linked to job performance (Barrick et al as cited in King, George, & Hebl, 2005). Conscientious employees are thought of as taking initiative in problem solving at workplace (Elanain, 2007).

Neuroticism. It is defined as a general tendency to experience negative affects such as fear, sadness, embarrassment, anger, guilt, and distrust. It is the degree to which a person is calm and self-confident as opposed to anxious and insecure (McCrae & John, 1992). Individuals who are emotionally stable tend to be secure and

calm, and therefore more likely to control their impulses and cope with stress. Past research indicates that emotional stability predicts job performance (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). Besides conscientiousness, emotional stability is considered to be a reliable and valid predictor of job performance across occupations and work tasks (Barricket al., 2001)

Personality and Career Related Behaviors

In recent years, assessment of work-related personality characteristics has become an increasingly vital function of human resources and other organization units working with the responsibility for employee selection. The field of personnel assessment has enlarged from a focus on job-related knowledge, skill, and abilities (KSA's) to include KSAO's where "O" refers to other personal characteristics, especially personality traits. It is now identified by researchers and practitioners alike that personality plays a key role in career related behaviors and experiences (Levy et al., 2011).

Literature has well established that personality play significant role in career related behaviors. As, Barrick and Mount (1991) reported that personality affects an individual's performance once he is hired into an organization, while Borgen and Lindley (2003) asserted that personality and career behavior interact to a significant extent. Many other studies have been conducted to explore relationship between personality traits and job performance. These studies indicated significant relationship between personality traits and job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991, 2005).

Barrick and Mount (1991) investigated relationship of big five dimensions to job performance criteria (job proficiency and training proficiency) for five occupational groups (professionals, police, managers, sales and skilled). Conscientiousness was proved to be a valid predictor of all job performance criteria for all jobs. Extraversion proved to be valid predictor for two occupations involving social interactions, managers and sales (across criterion types). And both openness to experience and extraversion proved to be valid predictors of the training proficiency criterion (across occupations).

Rogers, Creed, and Glendon (2008) in their research on role of personality in career planning found that openness and conscientiousness have direct relationships with planning and indirect relationships with planning via self-efficacy and goals. These findings suggest that individuals who are conscientious and open to experiences are more likely to engage in career planning. Conscientiousness and extraversion were found to have indirect relationships with exploration via self-efficacy and goals. The indirect relationship between personality and choice actions (planning and exploration), via self-efficacy and goals, supports other research that found a relationship between conscientiousness and self-efficacy and goals (Ilies & Judge, 2002). Extraversion and neuroticism were not found to be associated with career planning, while openness and neuroticism were not related to career exploration. Agreeableness was also unrelated to planning or exploration, a finding consistent with Reed, Bruch, and Haase (2004) in relation to exploration activities.

Tokar, Fischer, and Subich (1998) in an excellent literature review covering from 1993-1997 compiled literature on role of personality in vocational behavior.

They concluded that neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness emerged most frequently in relation with vocational behavior.

Salgado (1997) performed a meta-analysis about the relationship between Big Five Personality traits performance using three criteria (i.e., supervisory ratings, training ratings, and personnel data) and across five occupational groups including professionals, police, managers, sales, and skilled labor. Results revealed that conscientiousness and emotional stability were valid predictors for all performance criteria and most occupational groups.

Farrukh (2009) conducted a research on telecom employees to find out the relationship of personality traits with innovative work behavior among telecom employees. She found that extraversion agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience were positively related to innovative work behavior. While neuroticism found to be negatively related to innovative work behavior.

A good deal of the personality and job satisfaction (which has also been considered as indicator of subjective career success) literature has focused on the personality variables of negative affectivity (or neuroticism) and positive affectivity (the core of extraversion). For example, Cropanzano, James, and Konovsky (1993) found that both lower negative affectivity and higher positive affectivity predicted global job satisfaction. Decker and Borgen (1993), Necowitz and Roznowski (1994), and Parkes, Mendham, and Rabenau (1994) all found that negative affectivity predicted lower job satisfaction. Alpass, Long, Chamberlain, and Mac-Donald (1997) reported that negative affectivity predicted unique variance in job satisfaction for a large sample of mostly-male military personnel in New Zealand but not for an ex-military sample.

Meir, Melamed, and Dinur (1995) established that Israeli professionals' job satisfaction associated negatively to negative affectivity and positively to self-esteem (which is related to lower neuroticism and higher extraversion and conscientiousness). Longitudinally, Spector and O'Connell (1994) found pre-job negative affectivity not to predict employees' job satisfaction approximately one year later. Judge found that employees' job satisfaction was positively related to a more positive affective disposition.

Tokar, Fischer and Subich (1998), in a sample of employed adults, observed that low levels of neuroticism and higher levels of extraversion significantly contributed to higher job satisfaction. Moreover, they found that Big-Five personality predicted a small amount of variance in job satisfaction.

Judge, Heller, and Mount (2002) in their meta-analysis about job satisfaction and Big Five Factor Model observed the neuroticism having the strongest negative relationship with job satisfaction followed by positive relationship with conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and then openness to experience. Only relations of neuroticism and extraversion with job satisfaction generalized across 163 independent samples of meta-analysis.

Shafique (2008) investigated the personality attributes as predictors of job satisfaction among non-managerial staff. She concluded that emotional stability and openness to experience positively predicted job satisfaction.

Tesdimir, Asghar, and Saeed (2012) conducted a research on personality and job satisfaction (taken as indicator of career success) among pharmaceutical employees in Turkey. They found a strong positive relationship between extraversion,

agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and job satisfaction, while neuroticism was found as negatively related to job satisfaction.

Gunkel, Schlaegel, Langella, and Peluchette (2010) while concluding the research on personality traits and career decisiveness in three countries including China, Germany and US suggested that Big Five personality traits are associated with broad range of career beliefs. Tokar et al. (1998) showed that facets of personality including neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness might be related to vocational behavior in terms of occupational interests, career indecision and job satisfaction.

Melamed (1995) investigated the moderating role of gender between relationship of personality and career success. Extraversion significantly correlated with career success in case of men. Further, gender was found to moderate significantly the relationship between personality and career success, with extraversion important only for men and overall personality explaining more variance for men than for women.

Orser and Leck (2010) investigated the moderating role of gender in career success outcomes related to human capital and demographic variables. They found compensation and ascendancy gender gap in much evident shape. Gender was found to be a significant moderator playing role in human capital and demographic predictors for career success.

Mainly researchers, as reviewed earlier in the current chapter, have focused on direct relationship between personality and career success but recently another line of researches have started focusing to investigate the intervening variables in this relationship. Some have tried to explore which variables act as moderator or mediator and affect this relationship. Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008) found direct relationship of

personality with career success in addition to its indirect relationships through social networks operationalized through relationship closeness and developer assistance.

Ng and Feldman (2010) investigated the mediating role of conscientiousness and cognitive ability in human capital and career success. They found that these factors mediated the effect of educational attainment and tenure on extrinsic career success.

Abele and Spurk (2011) explored mediational role of self-efficacy and career-advancement goals between personality and objective career success. They found that all big five personality factors except openness to experience exerted indirect influence on salary through career advancement goals and contractual work hours.

Converse, Pathak, Haddock, Gotlib, and Merbedone (2011) investigated and found the direct and indirect effect of proactive personality and self-control through educational attainment on extrinsic career success.

The extensive literature discussed in the above section clearly indicates the significant role of personality in vocational behavior. Personality in relation to career success is a very well-researched area but the role of career beliefs in this relationship is neglected in literature. This knowledge gap made the researcher interested to explore this phenomenon. Moreover, these relationships are not studied in Pakistani culture which provided the need for this exploration.

Career Success

In the field of career development, employees' career success has long been recognized as crucial factor for not only individual but as well as for organization

(Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). Career success is a way for individuals for satisfying their needs of achievement and power. Research on career success is both beneficial for individual and organization. It is in benefit for the individual as it indicates who can get ahead and why and thus can improve quality of life (Kilduff & Day, as cited in Lau & Shaffer, 1999). The biggest, most valuable asset any organization has is its people, because all management plans for success enhancement are carried out, or fail to be carried out, by people (Darling, 1999). Therefore, increased attention has been paid to various factors that affect individual's career success.

Career success is defined as the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes from one's own work experience (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). There have been many views related to career success. Gattiker and Larwood (1986) talked about job success, interpersonal success, financial success, hierarchical success and life success as components of career success. Schien (1978) conceptualized career success as consisting of technical/functional competence, general managerial competence, security/stability, autonomy/independence, entrepreneurial creativity, service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge and life style. Parker and Chusmir (1991) as a result of their research viewed in terms of status/wealth, contribution to society, family relationships, personal fulfillment, professional fulfillment and security.

Dyke and Murphy (2006) in their qualitative analysis of gender differences in career success defined the construct in terms of balance, relationship, recognition and material success. Lee et al. (2006) in their qualitative analysis of career success perceptions yielded three types of themes about career success. One included

organization-based as peer respect, upward mobility and recognition. Personal themes included indices like having a life outside work, learning, growing and enjoyment in interesting work. Other themes included performing well and making a contribution in explaining the construct of career success. Hennequin (2007) after exploring the perceptions about career success among blue collar workers concluded that managerial career success, psychological career success and social career success should also be considered. According to him, managerial success including monetary rewards, fringe benefits, hierarchical position and number of promotions. Psychological career success included career satisfaction, job success, inter-personal success and life balance, while social career success included social status, recognition and reputation.

Most prevalent operationalization of career success found in the literature is in two facets. Sturges (1999) and Nabi (2001) also followed this intrinsic and extrinsic taxonomy of career success. One includes variables that measure objective or extrinsic career success. These are mostly concerned with observable and measurable outcomes as pay, promotions and occupational status (Dries Pepermans, & Carlier 2008). Objective career success is related to the class of distant profession or occupation that is described by the society, individual's friends and family, customs, and defines the steps to success. Improved job safety, extensive breaks are the straight type of changes in career and promotion where as different work positions are the ladders towards the success. Objective career success has been defined in terms of pay and promotions in various studies (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986).

The second face of the career success has been associated with the intrinsic or subjective aspect of this phenomenon. This has been defined in terms of subjective

judgments of people about their career achievements such as job and career satisfaction (Burke; Judge et al., as cited in Ng et al., 2005). In late 70's, the significance of subjective success was further explained by Van Maanen and Schein (1978). Additionally, Maimunah and Roziah (2006) narrated the significance of subjective success together with objective career success. It is important to go through the value of one's skilled life and understanding the psychological wellbeing of employee which can be obtained only by explaining subjective career success with objective career success. An individual's own principle of ambition is termed as subjective career success. Schein (1978) narrated that it is essential that one should go for the satisfaction of the job by means of the individual's position as well as measuring the economic requirements. Subjective career success is totally opposite from objective career success because it cannot be easily measured as it calculates the essential outcomes of job (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986). Satisfaction of job is the key factor of subjective career success. Job satisfaction is considered as subjective career success because individuals who are considered successful are satisfied with various kinds of their profession (Judge et al., 1999).

Theoretical foundations of career success

Various theoretical frameworks have explained phenomenon of career success. Generally, these theoretical frameworks emphasize individual's characteristics and organizational role in this phenomenon. Most of the researches rely upon following theories for understanding this construct:

Human capital. According to Becker (1993), the theory of human capital explains that individuals who do not perform well in career related skills do not receive favorable and better result, where as one's with those skills succeed. Successful individuals are the one's with greater job related knowledge as well as fair practice related to career capabilities and potential, which are two core elements of human capital. Two key assets of human capital are work experinece as well as job related knowledge and individuals possessing both these qualities turn out to be more efficient and informative. Job related practice always compliments one's job and work efficiency. Becker (1993), extends that job related knowledge and practice are the personal assets of an individual that are given by the hard working sector of an industry, these reserves lead to increase in wages and number of promotions. Organizations reward investment individuals make in them. Career-wise enhancement and grooming of an individual is the result of process of human capital.

Social capital. An important plus point that maintains and enhances the society is social capital. Well organized and well running society as well as constructed and strong organization is also contributed by social capital. Coleman (1990), Putnam (1995), and Scopol (2003) narrated that, for the improvement and benefit of an individual's life, social capital is very essential. Major observation of social capital is social reliance. It is essential for the social association to build and raise social beliefs (Kay & Hagan, 2003). Fukuyama (1995) argued that social capital or higher altitude of assurance within the organization results in great victory for the organization itself. Cohen and Prusak (2001) believed that a lot of profit is granted by

the elevated rank of social capital to the organization, among which is lesser turnover rates, that proposes superior job satisfaction among employees.

Sponsored mobility and contest mobility model. Upward mobility is related to career success as individuals who consider themselves more victorious and have the ability to step ahead towards the societal or organizational hierarchy. Turner (1960) suggested that sponsored mobility and contest mobility are the two types of upward mobility. Despite being developed more than half a century ago, this framework provides a major theoretical guide in current career research (e.g., Cable & Murray, 1999; Judge et al, 2004; Ng, Sorensen, Eby, & Feldman, 2007).

A contest mobility model explains that all individuals fight for upward. Whereas, a sponsor-mobility model allows the chosen ones by the authoritative to attain upward mobility. Even though both the systems are entirely dissimilar from each other, they are both not importantly commonly special (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999).

The contest-mobility model explains that it is one's effort and efficiency towards one's job and accumulating worth to the organization that creates the biggest variation in moving forward in an organization. It is only an individual's own capability and assistance which takes one to the forefront. Individuals fight and struggle with each other for improvement in a reasonable and clear environment and who ever exhibits supreme achievements obtain success. Cable and Murray (1999) found a significant result that periodical reports in careers of doctoral students and predicted job proposals with salaries greater than the reputation of the instructive organization. Contest mobility model explains that individuals in hold, cannot

essentially conclude which individual will get upward mobility. By means of this model, it can be suggested that the individuals who start slowly are still capable of success by dedicating more effort and essential time.

Where as, the sponsored-mobility model explains that in assisting employees to develop their careers, organizations also recognize high-potential executives who can contribute to organizational success in the long run. Individuals in power give extraordinary concentration to these individuals by providing them sponsoring activities in order to be successful. Thus, individuals near the beginning of victory have more chances in obtaining sponsorship, and the individuals who dislike it are expected to be eliminated from such sponsored actions. Once noticed as powerful individuals, the selected ones are provided with sponsored activities to make them even better and discriminate them from the powerless individuals. Those selected by the powerful are permitted to begin the competition prior with higher energy, are expected to be champions. In addition, employees who are satisfied with their careers are less likely to leave their organizations (Ding & Lin, 2006). As compared to a contest-mobility model, people in a sponsored-mobility model lack individual judgment, knowing if they can achieve success or not, particularly if those individuals are not recognized as powerful in the beginning.

In understanding career success, both the contest-mobility system and the sponsored-mobility system are helpful. Both the systems propose it is a career success that is widely a combination of two significant categories; working more efficiently and being granted sponsorship. Working hard means enhancing one's capabilities, techniques and knowledge must be granted in career (e.g., Cable & Murray, 1999). On the other hand, achieving sponsorship means biased enlightenment of career

success i.e., experiencing career in the form of competition. Cooper, Graham, and Dyke (1993) suggested that one is comparable to the members who are in hold exhibit an optimistic point of view, discriminate themselves from others, and connect in self-promotion in order to succeed.

Career Success as an outcome variable. Literature on career success identifies the following clusters of variables as predictors of career success.

Human capital. It refers to individual's educational, personal and professional experiences (Becker, 1993) that can boost their career attainments. These variables include number of hours worked, work centrality (i.e. job involvement), job tenure, organization tenure, work experience (number of years worked), willingness to transfer, international work experience, education level, career planning, political knowledge and skills and social capital (i.e. quantity or quality of accumulated contacts). Ng et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis on career success showed that human capital indices yielded weak to moderate effect size for the prediction of career success. Number of working hours, work centrality, education level, career planning and social capital were found to be positively related with salary, promotion and career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005).

Socio-demographic Variables. These variables including gender, marital status, racial background and age and these are also significant in predicting career success. Ng et al. (2005) found that older, married, White employees reported high salary attainment and promotions (indicators of objective career success). While in

predicting subjective career success, only race and marital status were found statistically significant. Punnett et al. (2007) conducted research in nine countries and found that married and older women experienced higher career success as compared to unmarried and young women. Inceoglu, Segers, Bartram, and Vloeberghs (2008) asserted that women are less driven by objective measures of career success such as money, status, and promotion and more by job security and are choosing the kind of career that enables them to be successful on their own terms, to find their balance (Heslin, 2005). Women are more subjectively career successful because they have very low anticipation of achievements i.e. number of promotions, increased wages in contrast with men (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995).

Stable individual difference predictors. These include personality variables like openness to experiences, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. In addition to these dimensions, other stable individual differences like locus of control, proactivity, cognitive ability have also been explored. Career success has been widely researched with personality traits. There has been a lot of research on five factor model traits and career success. Conscientiousness has been generally positively correlated with measures of intrinsic career success, though the multivariate analysis evidence is far less consistent (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). Judge et al. (1999) found that conscientiousness strongly predicted extrinsic success. Seibert and Kraimer (2001) found that conscientiousness failed to predict salary and number of promotions. Ng et al. (2005) found the positive correlation between conscientiousness and objective and subjective career success indicators.

Regarding emotional stability, research evidence indicates that those who score high on emotional stability are more satisfied with their jobs (Judge et al., 2002) and lives (Deneve & Cooper as cited in Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). Bozionelos (2004) found that emotional stability failed to predict subjective career success. Ng et al. (2005) found in their meta-analysis that neuroticism negatively correlated with intrinsic and extrinsic career success. Summing up the previous studies, Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2007) stated that emotional stability is positively related to intrinsic and extrinsic career success.

Judge et al. (2002) in their meta-analytic study found out that extroverts report higher levels of job satisfaction. Bozionelos (2004) found that extraversion negatively associated with extrinsic career success. Looking at extroversion, Seibert and Kraimer (2001) found that extraversion positively predicted earnings and promotions. Ng et al. (2005) found the positive correlation between extroversion and objective and subjective career success indicators. So again, inconsistent findings for extraversion and career success are observed.

Openness to experience in relation to career success has been researched and weak or no relationship has been found. Meta-analysis by Judge et al. (2002) shows the weak association of openness with job satisfaction. Boudreau, Boswell and Judge (2001) found that openness failed to predict subjective career success. Seibert and Kraimer (2001) concluded that openness was unrelated to career satisfaction. For extrinsic career success, Boudreau et al. (2001) found that openness failed to significantly predict any aspect of career for American or European executives. Seibert and Kraimer (2001) found that openness to experience negatively predicted earnings and was unrelated to number of promotions. Ng et al. (2005) found that

openness to experience was weakly and positively related to salary and intrinsic career satisfaction but unrelated to promotions.

For agreeableness, Judge et al. (2002) found the evidence of positive but modest relationship with career success. Boudreau et. al (2001) found that agreeableness negatively predicted salary, promotions and job level. While Seibert and Kraimer (2001) found that agreeableness did not predict salary or promotions. Bozionelos (2004) found that agreeableness negatively predicted objective career success. Ng et al. (2005) found that agreeableness was negatively correlated with extrinsic career success and modestly positively with intrinsic career success. So it appears that agreeableness is weakly positively related to intrinsic career success but negatively related to extrinsic career success.

In addition to big five factors of personality, Converse et al. (2011) conducted a research on role of proactive personality and self-control in extrinsic and intrinsic career success. They found that proactive personality and self-control predicted salary and occupational prestige through educational attainment. This indicates more proactive and more self-controlled individuals tend to achieve higher levels of education and these accomplishments are rewarded with greater income and prestige. In terms of intrinsic success, findings did not support proactive personality and self-control as predictors of career satisfaction through occupational opportunity for achievement. The results indicated that those higher in proactivity and self-control are often found in occupations involving greater opportunities for achievement and accomplishment, but that achievement opportunity did not significantly relate to career satisfaction.

Ng et al. (2005) also found that proactivity was positively related to extrinsic but more strongly with intrinsic career success. Locus of control was found to be unrelated to promotions, weakly related to salary and strongly related to intrinsic career success. Cognitive ability was found to be positively related with salary.

Longitudinal studies from Higgins, Dobrow, and Chandler (2008) and Saks (1995) reveal an influence of self-efficacy on job satisfaction or perceived career success. Furthermore, participants with higher occupational self-efficacy at graduation were found to be more satisfied with their careers seven years later than those with lower occupational self-efficacy (Spurk & Abele, 2009).

Organization Related Variables. Organizational aspects influencing subjective career success include role conflict, role ambiguity, perceived mentoring, supervisory support, developmental assignments. Mentoring (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Fagenson, 1989; Joiner, Bartram, & Garreffa, 2004), perceived supervisory support (Kirchmeyer, 1998), training received by individuals (Ng et al., 2005; Wayne et al., 1999) were found to be positively linked to subjective career success. Mentoring includes coaching, support, and sponsorship, providing employees the technical and interpersonal skills, and visibility opportunities that enable them to succeed in their careers (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991). Having a mentor positively influences compensation (Whitely et al., 1991; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993); promotability (Wayne et al., 1999), and salary grades (Daley, 1996). On the other hand, role conflict (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981) and role ambiguity (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999) were found to be negatively associated with job satisfaction.

Several other organizational factors like organization size also found to be significant for career success. Whitely and Coetsier (1993) reported that organization size positively relates to number of promotions and salary levels offered to employees. Organizational justice including subtypes distributive and procedural justice has been found to predict career success (Oh, 2013). Organizational support has also been found to predict career success in Chinese organizations (Loi & Ngo, 2010). Munir (2013) also found that perceived organizational support positively relates with career success among Pakistani bank employees. HR practices of the organization have also been found to affect career success (Kats, Emmerik, Blenkinsopp, & Khapova, 2010).

Rationale of the Study

Career development is a broader field in organizational psychology. Many theoretical paradigms have tried to capture and explain this phenomenon. Ranging from trait perspective to social cognitive perspectives, all have tried to elucidate this significant career aspect. This process is a life long process and has important role in one's well-being. Literature in previous section has highlighted the significance of cognitive and personality factors in career success.

As with all other human behavior, work occurs within a social context which is characterized by patterns of beliefs and ways of thinking. Research in Asia (Arulmani et al., 2003; Arulmani, 2009; Arulmani & Abdullah, 2007) has shown that social cognition played a powerful role in orientation to work and career. Krumboltz, employing Bandura's Social learning theory have tried to address the role of career beliefs in career development. Career beliefs serve as a cognitive base that influences individual's attitudes and behavior (Lounsbury, Moffit, Gibson, Drost, & Steven, 2007). There has been much research on establishing the relationship between career beliefs and career experiences as Spurk and Abele (2009) in their research on full time employed personnel found that occupational self-efficacy beliefs had a positive impact on career success.

The current work environment has been endlessly experiencing negative changes such as economic downsizing and restructuring resulting in fewer hierarchical positions but at the same time the need for improving productivity while keeping a pace with continuously changing technology has also increased. In such scenario, employees are expected to be interested in their work, educationally prepared, flexible, adaptable and have high tolerance to ambiguity in employment

prospects (Lapan, 2004; Turner & Conkel, 2010). On the part of organizations, this requires a careful succession planning of employees and developing and preparing them continuously for filling topmost designations in future.

This process starts with carefully selecting the personnel with salient human capital so that there are more chances to have more productive human force. Despite the same educational background and labor market conditions, some employees are more successful than others. This indicates that career success also results from individual differences (Hall, 2002). These factors can be differentiated into distal and proximal variables (Abele & Spurk, 2011). Previously, self-efficacy beliefs and personal goals have been studied as proximal variables (Spurk & Abele, 2009). Following the same argument, career beliefs is taken as proximal variable affecting career success in the present study. This also signifies the importance of personality attribute in addition to human capital variables like education, experience, age etc. As personality traits are stable in adults (Costa & McCrae, 1994) and from life span development perspective (e.g., Seifert, Hoffnung, & Hoffnung, 2000), they are antecedent to job and career experiences. Moreover Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, Argyropoulou, Drosos, and Terzaki (2012) suggested to investigate career beliefs in relation to personality characteristics as it is assumed that personality traits are associated with a broad range of career belief and performance variables, irrespective of occupation and nationality (Gunkel et al., 2010). Extensive literature review in the previous section indicated that personality play a significant role in career related experiences. Mediating role of career beliefs in personality-career success relationship has not been studied earlier.

In Pakistan, Kiani (2010) conducted research on high school students to find out the relationship between personality traits and vocational aspirations. He found

the modest correlations among personality traits and vocational interests. He suggested that there may be moderators intervening personality-vocational interest relationship. This can be taken as one evidence for the motivation to study the mediating role of career beliefs in personality-career success relationship.

Analyzing Pakistan's scenario in terms of career development, a challenging situation is observed. As unemployment rate is increasing, getting opportunities for career development are very tricky. Our socializing agents promote more stereotypical beliefs related to career emphasizing some occupations as more respectful as compared to others. Gender wise preference for careers is still dominant. Opportunities for differential career development also vary as per different employment settings. There are contractual jobs as well as permanent jobs. Employees working on contractual jobs have specific timelines associated with their jobs while permanent employees have security in terms of their earnings. Similarly, there are organizations which are owned by government while private organizations have different organizational set ups. Semi government organizations are owned by government as well as private share holders. These variations have effects on career beliefs as well as career success experiences and the present study also aimed to investigate these differences.

Holland et al. (1993), in their research studied how personality related with specific career beliefs. They found that neuroticism (negatively), and extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (positively) associate with beliefs about the importance of working hard, risking, and persisting when faced with obstacles suggesting that individuals with these traits may be successful in executive positions. Neuroticism correlated negatively, while extraversion and conscientiousness

correlated positively, with beliefs about the importance of achievement and openness. Finally, openness correlated positively with beliefs about the importance of improving oneself and of intrinsic satisfaction and negatively with a belief that a structured work environment is important. These evidences created the interest for the researcher to find out how career beliefs are related to different personality traits and career success.

Furthermore, Barrick, Mount, and Judge (2001) emphasized the need to explore the process models of personality which attempt to explain how personality affects job performance which in turn influence career success. Boudreau et al. (2001) also suggested to investigate possible mediating influences for relationship between personality and career success. This was also taken as a starting point to explore how personality affects the career beliefs which in turn lead to specific career experiences.

Career beliefs have been mostly studied among student population but this construct is less investigated among employed population. Rafeal (2007) emphasized to career development needs of adults in 21st century as this population segment is facing unique career changes due to uncertainties of the economic environment and technological changes. These challenges are much frequent now which have never been before in the history. Moreover, most of the research evidences are based on Western cultures and there is limited evidence is available for Asian countries. Given the limited availability of empirical findings on career perceptions, experiences, and outcomes of employees in other Asian countries (Tu, Forret, & Sullivan, 2006), more studies are needed to gather empirical data to evaluate the applicability of existing theoretical framework across countries and provide new insights (Loi & Ngo, 2010).

Most of the available instruments for assessing career beliefs are relevant for student population and are developed in Western culture. Using entirely western constructs and items, researchers may take the risk of missing some important indigenous non-western cultural insight (Stewart et al., 1999). Lowe (2005) observed that career beliefs, as measured through instruments developed on individualistic cultures, considered career beliefs such as other's approval important as maladaptive while such beliefs are normative in collectivistic culture. So viewing beliefs system seeing through other culture lens is not appropriate. Leung (2005) elaborated the need for developing culture specific instruments for testing career theories. Furthermore, Cheng (2004) also highlighted the need to reduce the scarcity of quantitative and qualitative evaluations of career beliefs. This pointed towards the need of developing an indigenous tool for tapping career beliefs among employed adults. Moreover, as suggested by Austin, Dahl and Wagner (2003) career beliefs may be manifested in various ways during the different stages of career decision making process affecting individual's behavior. This elaborates the importance of this phenomenon in life-career development. Furthermore, identification of adaptive and maladaptive career beliefs can help in improving career outcomes. Researchers have shown that less adaptive career beliefs can be transformed (Kovalski & Horan, 1999; Luzzo & Day, 1999; Schnorr, 1998) and correcting maladaptive career beliefs can lead to higher career success (Cheng, 2004). Thus, they are of pivotal nature for facilitating career development process.

In this background, where the personality-career success is well established in literature but possible mediating role of career beliefs is missing in empirical findings, the present research is intended to fill this knowledge gap. Moreover, there is a dearth of empirical evidence even on personality-career success relationship in our culture.

This research is aimed to add something new to the existing body of literature and explore the well-established relationships here in our culture. In addition to this, human capital variables and socio-demographic variables have also been studied in relation to their role in experiencing both facets of career success. i.e. objective and subjective.

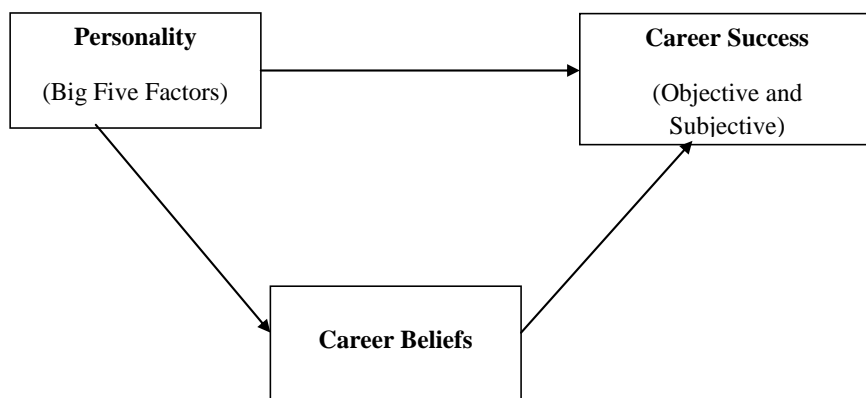


Figure1. Conceptual model of relationships among study variables

Chapter-II**OBJECTIVES, DEFINITIONS AND RESEARCH DESIGN****Objectives**

The present study focused on examining relationship between personality factors and career success. In addition to this, it aimed at exploring career beliefs and their role in relationship between personality and career success. For this, following specific objective were aimed to be achieved.

1. To explore career beliefs of employed men and women.
2. To study how personality and career beliefs are related among employed men and women.
3. To assess the relationship between career beliefs and career success among employed men and women.
4. To examine the role of career beliefs in personality-career success relationship among employed men and women.
5. To investigate role of gender in the relationship between human capital and career success among employed men and women.
6. To study career beliefs and career success among employed women and men with reference to the different demographics (age, gender, marital status, family system, job status, nature of organization) and human capital variables (number of hours worked, work experience, education level).

Hypotheses

Following hypotheses were formulated to test for the present study.

1. Neuroticism negatively predicts objective and subjective career success among employed men and women.
2. Conscientiousness positively predicts objective and subjective career success among employed men and women.
3. Extraversion positively predicts objective and subjective career success among employed men and women.
4. Human capital variables (number of hours worked, work experience, education level) and demographic variables (age, gender, marital status) are better predictors for objective career success than subjective career success.
5. Facilitating career beliefs are positively related with objective and subjective career success among employed men and women.
6. Career myths are negatively related with objective and subjective career success among employed men and women.
7. Men employees possess higher levels of career myths as compared to women employees.
8. Women employees have lower objective and subjective career success as compared to men employees.
9. Gender moderates the relationship between human capital variables and career success (objective and subjective).

Definitions of Variables

Career beliefs. Career beliefs are defined as positive and negative thoughts or assumptions people hold about themselves, occupations, and the career development process (Peterson et al, 1996).

In the present study, scores on newly developed Career Beliefs Scale has been used for representing respondents' career beliefs. *Facilitating Career Beliefs* refer to those career beliefs which are positive and facilitate career development. This subscale has items referring to themes in value of hard work, flexibility, proactivity in career decision making etc.

Career Myths refer to stereotypical beliefs like lack of flexibility gender stereotypical division of careers, unequal status of different occupations and considering work as the most central part of life etc.

Personality. Personality can be defined as consistent behavior patterns and intrapersonal processes originating within the individual (Burger, 2010).

In the present study, five factor model of personality has been used. These five factors include openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. Higher scores on these five factors indicate higher levels of these traits and vice versa.

Career success. Career success is defined as the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes from one's own work experience (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001).

Two facets of career success have been used in the present study.

Subjective career success. Higher score on Urdu translation of Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus et al, 1990) higher reflects higher subjective career success and vice versa.

Objective career success. Higher monthly salary and higher number of promotions achieved in career reflect higher objective career success. As income and number of promotions data is typically skewed so following Grehart and Milkovich's (1989) recommendation data for objective career success has been transformed using natural log transformation to normalize the data. This procedure has been used in many researches (e.g. Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge et al., 1995; Kerr & Kren, 1992; Li, 2013; Poon, 2004; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001; Sutin, Costa, Meich, & Eaton 2009; Valcour & Ladge, 2008).

Human capital. It refers to the individual's educational, personal and professional experiences that can enhance their career attainment (Becker, 1993). In the present study, years of education and total work experience are taken as indicators of human capital.

Instruments

Career Beliefs Scale. An indigenous scale for tapping career beliefs of employed individuals has been developed in the current study. It has 42 items arranged in two subscales i.e., facilitating career beliefs and career myths.

Facilitating Career Beliefs has 30 items having no reverse scored items. It refers to those career beliefs which are positive and facilitate career development. This subscale has items referring to themes related to value of hard work, flexibility, proactive approach in career decision making etc.

Career Myths has 12 items having no reverse scored items. It refers to stereotypical beliefs to career as gender biased career categorization, lack of flexibility, unequal status of different occupations and considering work as the most central part of life etc.

The items are responded in five point rating scale. The response categories are from “*Strongly Agree*” to “*Strongly Disagree*”. The instrument has no composite score. Independent Scores on each subscale is interpreted for assessing career beliefs of respondents.

NEO-Five Factor Inventory. Big five traits have been measured by using NEO-FFI (Costa & McCrea, 1985) which is a shorter version of NEO PI-R. Urdu translation by Chishti & Kamal (2002) was used in the present study. Alpha indices for subscales reported by them ranged from .73-.89. It assess big five traits including openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism. It has 60 items, 12 for each trait. The items are in five point rating scale format. The options ranged from *Strongly Agree*=5 to *Strongly Disagree*=1. Following items measures big five traits.

Neuroticism. It is the tendency to experience negative emotions and distress in reaction to stressor. Items 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36, 41, 46, 51, 56 measure this trait.

Extraversion. It is the tendency to experience positive and general activity level of person. Items number 2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37, 42, 47, 52, 57 measure this trait.

Openness. It refers to the levels of curiosity, independent judgment and conservativeness. Items numbers 3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38, 43, 48, 53, 58 measure this trait.

Agreeableness. It is the tendency to be altruistic, sympathetic, and cooperative. Items numbers 4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39, 44, 49, 54, 59 measure this aspect.

Conscientiousness. It assesses one's level of self-control in planning and organization. Items 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, 50, 55, 60 measure this trait.

NEO-FFI has reverse scored items too. Items 1, 3, 8, 9, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 23, 24, 27, 29, 30, 31, 33, 38, 39, 42, 44, 45, 46, 48, 54, 55, 57, 59 are reverse scored.

Career Satisfaction Scale. Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990) translated in the present study, has been used to measure subjective career success. This is a measure of subjective career success. It assesses general satisfaction with career outcome, as well as satisfaction with career progress. It is a five item scale with Likert type 5 response categories. The response categories ranged from *Strongly Agree* to *Strongly Disagree*. Alpha reliability index for the scale reported by Greenhaus et al. (1990) was .88.

Research Design

To fulfill the mentioned purposes, the research was designed as followed:

Part 1: Development/Translation and Validation of Research Instruments

Part II: Pilot study and Main Study for Hypotheses Testing

The present study was carried out to explore the role of career beliefs in relation to personality and career success in employed men women in our culture. In Part 1, research instruments were intended to be finalized including their development, translation and validation. Part I was further divided into two phases having multiple steps. Phase I dealt with development and validation of Career Beliefs Scale while Phase II dealt with translation and validation of Career Satisfaction Scale.

Part II was also divided in two phases. Phase I consisted pilot study while Phase II was planned to determine the predictive role of personality and career beliefs for career success of employed men and women. Role of personality in career beliefs and career success was also investigated among employed men and women.

PART I: DEVELOPMENT/TRANSLATION AND VALIDATION OF INSTRUMENTS

This part was conducted to prepare instruments to be used for meeting the objectives and testing hypotheses of the present study. This part had the following objectives:

1. To develop and validate an indigenous measure for assessing career beliefs of the employed adults
2. To translate and validate Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990) in Urdu.

This part further comprised two phases with multiple steps.

Phase 1: Development of Career Beliefs Scale

In this phase, an indigenous instrument for measuring career beliefs of employees was developed and validated that aimed to be used in next part of the present study. This objective was achieved in following steps.

Step I: (Exploring indigenous career beliefs and generation of item pool).

As a first step, efforts were made to understand the construct of career beliefs in depth. Extensive literature review was done to understand the nature of career beliefs.

Theoretical paradigms (Bandura, 1986; Lent et al, 1994; Mitchell et al, 1979) covering this construct, researches and available assessment tools (Arulmani et al, 2004; Krumboltz, 1991; Yang as cited in Liu, 2003) were explored in detail.

After reviewing the existing literature, a list of questions was formulated to be asked in focus group discussions (See Appendix A).

Focus Group Discussions.

Objective. The main objective of conducting focus groups was to gain an indigenous understanding of the construct. The questions were focused to probe what type of career beliefs employed people in our culture possess. Altogether, four focus groups were conducted.

Participants. Only volunteers were taken into sample. Focus Group 1 comprised eight women (5 married; 3 unmarried; all holding Masters degree employees from telecom company. Their work experiences ranged from 4 months to 8 years. Focus Group 2 comprised eight male employees (7 married, 1 unmarried; holding bachelor to Masters Degree) from telecom company. Their work experiences ranged from 1 year to 15 years. Focus Group 3 included eight women (2 married, 5 unmarried; holding Bachelors to Masters Degree) employees from banking sector. Their work experiences ranged from 1 month to 3 years. Focus Group 4 included nine men (4 married, 5 unmarried; holding Bachelor to Masters Degree) employees from banking sector. Their work experiences ranged from 1 year to 7 years.

Wide range in work experience helped the researcher to understand the changes in career beliefs which may be due to work experience.

Procedure. On the basis of literature review, focus group guideline was developed. This guideline was followed for conducting focus group discussions. Each focus group discussion lasted from forty five minutes to one hour. The focus group discussions were recorded manually by a helper and were also recorded in audio form. The researcher herself conducted these discussions with one facilitator.

Results. As a result of FGDs and literature review, it was felt that an indigenous instrument is needed to be developed. It was also observed that participants used the words job, profession, work to refer career. These terms have been used interchangeably to refer to career in the instrument. On the basis of FGD about career beliefs, various themes were analyzed and statements were prepared. A total list of 79 (See Appendix B) items was prepared for further process. The sources for item generation included literature and indigenous information from FGDs.

Step II: Expert evaluation of Items.

Objective. This step focused on finalizing the items with the help of experts.

Procedure. In this step, the items developed in the previous step were given to three subject experts. The experts were experienced researchers in organizational psychology field. One was holding PhD degree while two were PhD scholars. This committee of three psychologists scrutinized all the items carefully aiming to discard the duplicated ideas and retain the appropriate items. The statements showing same themes were merged into one item. They provided feedback on items and suggested to discard some of the items and to rephrase few items.

Result. As a result, 74 items were finalized for CBS (See Appendix C). Likert type scoring was decided with five point response format for the scale. There was no reverse scored items in the scale.

Step III: Determining factor structure of Career Belief Scale. Step III focused on exploring factor structure of the newly developed CBS. Factor Analysis is a statistical technique to identify the structure of a set of variables and to reduce a data set to a more manageable size while retaining as much of the original information as possible (Field, 2005). Further, item-total correlations and alpha coefficients were also calculated as evidences psychometric properties of scale.

Sample. A sample of 350 full time working individuals from bank employees, nurses and college teachers of Rawalpindi and Islamabad was taken. The sample included 65% women employees and 35% men employees, 74% were having permanent jobs while 26% employees were working on contract basis and 64% were married and 36% unmarried. 47% of employees were having Masters and above education, 31% had Bachelors degree and 10% had Intermediate degree. The sample was approached on convenience basis and only those participants were included who volunteer to participate in study.

Instrument.

Career Beliefs Scale. 74- items Career Beliefs Scale (CBS) developed in phase I of present study was used in this phase. Response categories ranged from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree and scoring assigned to these categories ranged from 1 to

5. There was no reverse scored item. The items tap career beliefs of employed adults. Career beliefs related to hard work, role of fate, stereotyping of careers, importance of financial outcomes, prestige for occupations, decision making responsibility, recognition of work, work-family balance, importance of learning, career choice were there. The items pertained to beliefs such as *“Parents should not interfere in their children’s career related decisions”*, *“Women should stay at home and men should go out to earn money”* etc.

Procedure. Permission was taken from the head at workplaces from where the data was collected. Only volunteers were included. 246 questionnaires (indicating response rate of 70%) were returned. Out of these filled questionnaires, 18 were discarded as they were not filled properly and there were many missing data. As a result, 228 questionnaires with complete information were retained. Respondents provided their written consent and were assured of confidentiality and were requested to provide honest responses. Respondents were given CBS, developed in the first step, to get filled. Some of them returned questionnaires after an hour or so while some respondents returned the questionnaires on the next day. Researcher thanked for their support.

Results.

Exploratory Factor Analysis. The newly developed Career Beliefs Scale was subjected to exploratory factor analysis. First of all, data were checked for normality and appropriateness of data for exploratory factor analysis was checked by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure. KMO is specifically suitable for the data if the ratio of

participants to variables is less than 5:1, which is the case in the present study and has been considered as acceptable by Reise, Waller and Comrey (2000). If the value of KMO is less than .6 (Garson, 2008), the data set may not be appropriate for factor analysis. The value of KMO is .78, in the current study which revealed the appropriateness of data for factor analysis.

A principal component analysis with varimax rotation was done for this purpose. Varimax rotation was chosen as it is one of the most commonly used types of orthogonal rotation which produce factors that are unrelated. Varimax also maximizes the interpretability of the factors (Kahn, 2006) using the maximum amount of variance (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). This rotation gave 22 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. These factors explained 65.97% of the total variance.

While deciding about the number of factors to be retained, using multiple approaches for factor extraction has been recommended in literature (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, Black, 1998; William, Brown & Onsman, 2012). In the present study, Kaiser's (1960) criteria considering eigen values of factors, Cattell's (1966) scree plot and Costello and Osborne's (2005) criteria for number of strongly loading items has been considered. Kaiser's (1960) rule suggests to consider only those factors who have eigenvalues greater than one. Catell's (1966) approach involves the visual exploration of a graphical representation of the eigenvalues. Costello and Osborne (2005) suggested that 5 or more strongly loading items (.50 or above) should be there in a factor for that factor to be retained. Following these criterias, two factor structure of CBS was decided to be retained.

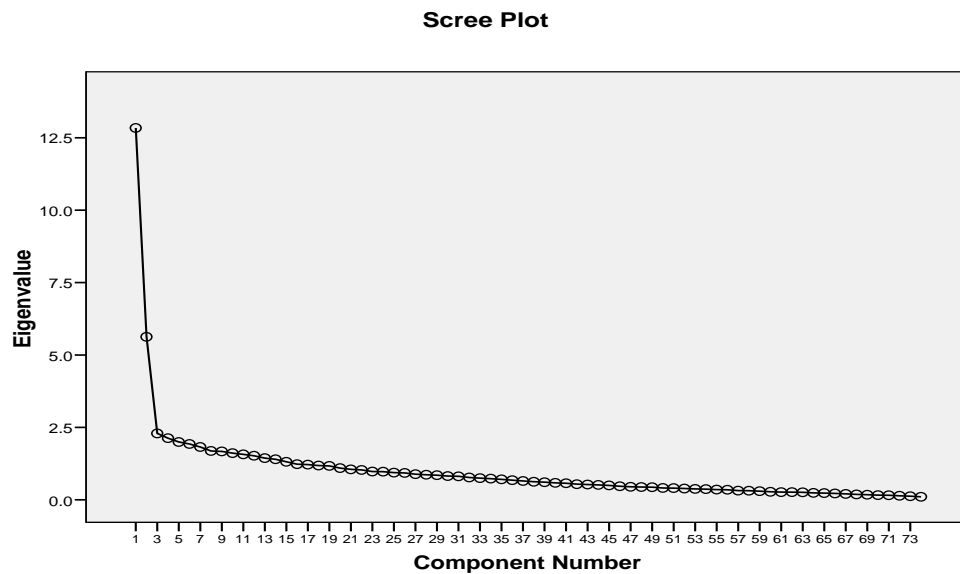


Figure 2. Scree Plot of Career Beliefs Scale

Table 1

Eigen Values and Percentages of Variances Explained by Two Factor in the Factor Solution obtained through Principal Component Analysis (N=228)

Factors	Eigen Values	Percentage of Variances	Cumulative Percentage
Facilitating Career Beliefs	14.22	19.22	19.22
Career Myths	4.94	6.68	25.91

Table 1 is showing the eigen values, percentage of variance and cumulative percentage of the two factors. Overall, the two factors explained 25.91% variance.

For items retention, it was decided to retain an item which has, i) factor loading equal or greater than .40. (Stevens, 1992), ii) do not load on more than one factor above than .40 (Hair et al., 1998). This criteria for retaining items is very

common in psychological research (Kahn, 2006). Following this criteria and trying two factor solution, the items loaded on these two factors in the following way as shown in the table below.

Table 2

Factor structure of Career Beliefs Scale (N=228)

Item No.	Factor 1	Factor 2	Item No.	Factor 1	Factor 2
48	0.73	-0.07	9	0.46	-0.05
40	0.71	0.04	19	0.46	0.12
70	0.70	-0.17	14	0.44	-0.16
50	0.68	0.03	33	0.44	-0.08
32	0.67	-0.09	44	0.44	0.14
25	0.65	-0.14	49	0.43	0.06
17	0.63	-0.08	27	0.43	0.07
41	0.62	-0.11	58	0.43	0.02
38	0.61	0.02	15	0.42	0.04
46	0.59	0.08	59	0.42	0.18
29	0.56	0.00	61	-0.07	0.63
12	0.55	-0.07	52	0.21	0.60
8	0.55	-0.08	18	-0.06	0.58
74	0.55	0.03	68	-0.23	0.58
51	0.54	-0.10	20	-0.09	0.57
45	0.53	0.07	37	-0.10	0.54
23	0.52	0.08	11	-0.12	0.52
39	0.52	0.04	30	-0.11	0.52

Continued...

Item No.	Factor 1	Factor 2	Item No.	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	0.51	-0.01	67	-0.06	0.49
35	0.51	0.02	64	-0.35	0.49
43	0.51	-0.11	4	-0.07	0.48
56	0.50	-0.06	10	-0.03	0.48
22	0.49	-0.23	71	-0.04	0.43
16	0.49	-0.10	66	-0.01	0.42
42	0.48	0.20	7	0.18	0.41
34	0.48	0.13	69	0.11	0.41

Table 2 gives factor loadings of items of CBQ on two factors. Items having loading equal and above than .40 are shown only. In this way, item number 1, 8, 9, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22, 23, 25, 27, 29, 32, 33, 34, 35, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 48, 49, 50, 51, 56, 58, 59, 70, 74 loaded in factor I. While item numbers 4, 7, 10, 11, 18, 20, 30, 37, 52, 61, 66, 67, 68, 69, 71 loaded in factor II. From these items, further item numbers 7, 15, 21, 27, 35, 42, 44, 61, 74, 59, and 71 were excluded as they loaded on more than one factor in 25 factor solution. These extracted factors were labeled as Facilitating Career Beliefs (30 items) and Career Myths (12 items). Higher score on Facilitating Career Beliefs indicated that the respondent possesses more facilitating career beliefs. Higher score on Career Myths showed that the respondent possessed more career myths.

Table 3

Item-total correlation of Career Beliefs subscales (Facilitating Career Beliefs, Career Myths) with its items (N=228)

Item No.	FCB Total Score	Item No.	CM Total Score
1	.45	45	.52
8	.50	46	.58
9	.45	48	.71
12	.53	49	.41
14	.42	50	.66
16	.41	51	.53
17	.59	56	.47
19	.43	58	.46
21	.40	59	.45
22	.50	70	.68
23	.43	4	.52
25	.60	10	.51
29	.55	11	.54
32	.65	18	.58
33	.45	20	.57
34	.47	30	.56
35	.51	37	.55
38	.56	52	.54
39	.54	66	.42
40	.66	67	.49
41	.61	68	.56
43	.49	69	.42

Note. FCB = Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM = Career Myths

Table 3 shows the item-total correlations of the items with their respective total subscales. The correlation coefficients ranged from .42 to .71. at significance

level of .05 and .01. This is an evidence of high construct validity of the subscales of Career Beliefs Scale.

Step IV: Convergent and discriminant validity indices of CBS. In this phase empirical evidences for validation of CBS were determined. Though, factorial validity has been established in previous phase, subsequently, discriminant and convergent evidences were also established to strengthen the construct validity of CBS. Based on Krumboltz's (1991) procedure for validation of CBI, career satisfaction and personality was decided to be taken for construct validation.

Objective. This phase aimed at establishing convergent and discriminant validity evidences for newly developed Career Beliefs Scale.

Instruments.

Minimarker Personality Inventory. Minimarker Personality Inventory (Saucier, 1994) with 40 items comprising five personality traits was used for assessing big five factors of personality i.e., agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability. Urdu version of this instrument by Manzoor (2000) has been used in this phase. It is a 9 point rating scale ranging from extremely inaccurate to extremely accurate.

Career Beliefs Scale. Forty two items scale developed in Phase I of the study was used for assessing respondent's career related beliefs. It has two subscales.

Facilitating Career Beliefs has 30 items having no reverse scored items. It refers to those career beliefs which are positive and facilitate career development. This subscale has items referring to themes in value of hard work, flexibility, proactivity in career decision making etc.

Career Myths has 12 items having no reverse scored items. It refers to stereotypical beliefs like lack of flexibility gender stereotypical division of careers, unequal status of different occupations and considering work as the most central part of life etc.

The items are responded in five point rating scale. The response categories are from “*Strongly Agree*” to “*Strongly Disagree*”. The instrument has no composite score. Independent scores on each subscales are interpreted.

Career Satisfaction Scale. Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus, et al., 1990) comprised 5 items to assess respondent’s satisfaction with one’s career. This scale was translated in Urdu in the present study which was used in this step.

Sample. The sample included 100 employees from banking and telecom sectors. The sample included 57 males and 43 female employees. Mean age of the sample was 25 years, educational qualification ranged from Intermediate to Masters. Majority of the participants were holding Bachelors degree. 60% of them were working on contract basis while 40% on permanent basis.

Procedure. Permission was sought from the head of the organization and respondents were approached at their workplace. Only those who volunteered were

taken for the sample. Respondents were assured of confidentiality and informed consent was also taken. They were thanked too for their cooperation.

Results. Statistical analysis of the data collected provided the following evidences of validity for CBS.

Table 4

Correlation between CBS subscales and Mini Marker Personality factors on employed adults (N=100)

Scales	α	$M(SD)$	Facilitating Career Beliefs	Career Myths
Openness to Experience	.62	26.14(4.72)	.51**	-.20*
Conscientiousness	.56	27.17(4.63)	.62**	-.29**
Extraversion	.58	24.77(4.43)	.27**	-.36*
Agreeableness	.59	29.48(5.03)	.71**	-.42**
Neuroticism	.64	23.94(3.33)	.05	.06
Facilitating Career Beliefs	.90	107.02(18.42)	-	-
Career Myths	.67	34.88(7.37)	-	-

** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$

Table 4 shows the relationship between CBS subscales and big five factors of personality. FCB is positively related with openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness and has non-significant relationship with neuroticism. On the other hand, CM is showing negative relationship with extraversion and

openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness and non-significant relation with neuroticism.

Table 5

Cronbach's alpha coefficients, mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients among Career Beliefs subscales and Career Satisfaction (N=228)

Scales		α	$M(SD)$	Facilitating Career Beliefs	Career Myths	Career Satisfaction
Facilitating Beliefs	Career	.85	109.58(12.68)	-	-.01	.31**
Career Myths		.78	36.55(8.56)	-	-	-.10
Career Satisfaction		.84	17.29(5.35)	-	-	-

** $p \leq .01$

Table 5 is indicating the concurrent validity of CBS. There is a significant positive relationship between facilitating career beliefs and career satisfaction. While small negative but non-significant relationship is indicated between career satisfaction and career myths. The table is also showing alpha coefficients of Facilitating Career Beliefs and Career Myths i.e. .85 and .78. These values indicate strong reliability indices.

Phase-II: Translation and Validation of Instruments for measuring Career Success

Besides developing Career Beliefs Scale, instruments for measuring career success and was also needed. For this purpose, Career Satisfaction Scale was chosen. It has been widely used as an indicator of subjective career success (Judge et al., 1999; Ng et al., 2005).

Objective. This phase aimed to translate and validate Career Satisfaction Scale for employed adults. Although sample of the study was bilingual but to make it more user friendly it was translated in Urdu.

Instrument.

Career Satisfaction Scale. Career Satisfaction Scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) was chosen. This is a measure of subjective career success. It assesses general satisfaction with career outcome, but also satisfaction with career progress. It is a five item scale with Likert type 5 response categories. Permission was taken from the author about translating and using this instrument (see Appendix E).

Step 1. Translation of Career Satisfaction Scale. For Urdu translation of Career Satisfaction Scale, it was decided to follow three translation guidelines recommended by Brislen (1980).

- (1) Maximizing the content similarity between the original test and the target language version.
- (2) Maintaining the relatively simple language level of the original test, and

- (3) Translating the test without substitution or elimination of any item.

The translation was carried out with the help of bilinguals the details are as follows:

Bilingual Experts. Five bilingual experts were contacted by the researcher for the purpose of translations and adaptation. They were fluent in understanding and comprehension of both languages. Three of them had M.Phil degree in Psychology while two had Masters degree in English.

Procedure. All the bilingual experts were approached by the researcher and were briefed about the research purpose for their better understanding. These translators fit into the criteria as described by Brislen (1980) who believed that;

1. Translators have clear understanding of the original language.
2. Have a high probability of finding a readily available target language equivalent so that he/she does not have to use unfamiliar terms and
3. Are able to produce target language items readily understandable by the eventual set of respondents.

These translators were given instruction about the translation procedures and were requested to translate items as much accurately as they can so that it convey same meaning.

After receiving all translations, a committee approach was adopted to select most appropriate and accurate translations.

Committee Approach. Committee based on two Ph. D, and the present researcher analyzed the Urdu translated items. Committee members analyzed each item, so as to check if translated items carry the exact meaning as the items in actual scale. Only those items were chosen which convey feeling connotation rather than the literal meanings of the original words. Committee members also evaluated the translated items with reference to context, grammar and wording, but the emphasis was given to conceptual equivalence in order to provide for common meaning and legitimate comparison between the original and target material.

All the accurately translated items of Career Satisfaction Scale were enlisted and given to bilingual experts for back translation.

Back translation of Career Satisfaction Scale. Most of the cross – cultural researchers recommends back translation in which a source language material is translated into a target language and then back translated into a source language by independent translators working alone or in committee. Berkanovic (1980) has shown that instrument translated through double procedures show higher reliabilities than those that are translated from source to target language only.

The details of back translation procedure are as follows:

Bilingual Experts. Five bilingual experts were included in the back translation. Three of them had M.Phil degree in Psychology while two had Masters degree in English. They were all unfamiliar with the original English version of the scale.

Procedure. All the bilingual experts were briefed about the scales and were instructed to back translate the Urdu items. Instructions for the back translation were same as given for translation procedures. All the items of scales were taken to the committee for final selection.

Committee Approach. The committee consisted of one Ph.D, one M. Phil and the researcher of the present study. Committee analyzed the original and back translated items. Only those items got selected that convey same meaning as that of original scale items. No item was eliminated from the scale. After the process of back translation a final list of items were selected for further validation of the instrument (See Annexure G).

Step II. Validation of Instrument. Phase II consisted of the validation of Urdu translated version of Career Satisfaction Scale instruments to be used in the present research.

Objectives.

1. To establish the reliability and validity evidences of Career Satisfaction Scale.
2. To conduct confirmatory factor analysis for translated versions of Career Satisfaction Scale

Instrument. Urdu version of Career Satisfaction Scale translated in Phase II of Part I of the current study was used.

Sample. A sample of 350 full time working individuals from bank employees, nurses and college teachers of Rawalpindi and Islamabad was taken. This step used the same sample that was used in step III of Part I of the current study. Further details of the sample are available in Table 1. The sample was approached on convenience basis and only those participants were included who volunteered to participate in study.

Procedure. Permission was taken from the head at workplaces from where the data was collected. Only volunteers were included. 246 questionnaires (indicating response rate of 70%) were returned. Out of these filled questionnaires, 18 were discarded as they were not filled properly and there were many missing data. As a result 228 questionnaires with complete information were retained. Respondents provided their written consent and were assured of confidentiality and were requested to provide honest responses. Respondents were given Career Satisfaction Scale, translated in the previous step to get filled. Some of them returned questionnaires after an hour or so while some respondents returned the questionnaires on the next day. Researcher thanked for their support.

Results. The data after checking for missing data and normality assumptions (through frequencies and descriptive) were put to test. The missing items were imputed using mean substitution on that particular variable. Although this approach has its limitations ;list wise or pair wise deletion was still avoided.

Kline (2005) suggest that only variables with skew index absolute values greater than 3 and kurtosis index absolute values greater than 10 are of concern for

data exploiting normality assumption. Since none of the variables has problematic levels of skewness as well as kurtosis the data was finally subjected to Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Factor structure of Career Satisfaction Scale using CFA through AMOS graphic (version 18.0) was determined. Item total correlation and reliability indexes of the resulting factor structure after CFA were computed. Results are presented in the tables given below.

Table 6

Estimation of fit indices for Career Satisfaction Scale (N=228)

Model	X^2	Df	X^2/df	CFI	NFI	RMSEA
Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS)	4.81	3	1.60	.99	.99	.03

Table 6 gives fit indexes of Career Satisfaction Scale. Model fit indexes are in the acceptable range following Kline's (2005) criteria. The model fitted the data very well and confirmed the uni-factor structure of the instrument.

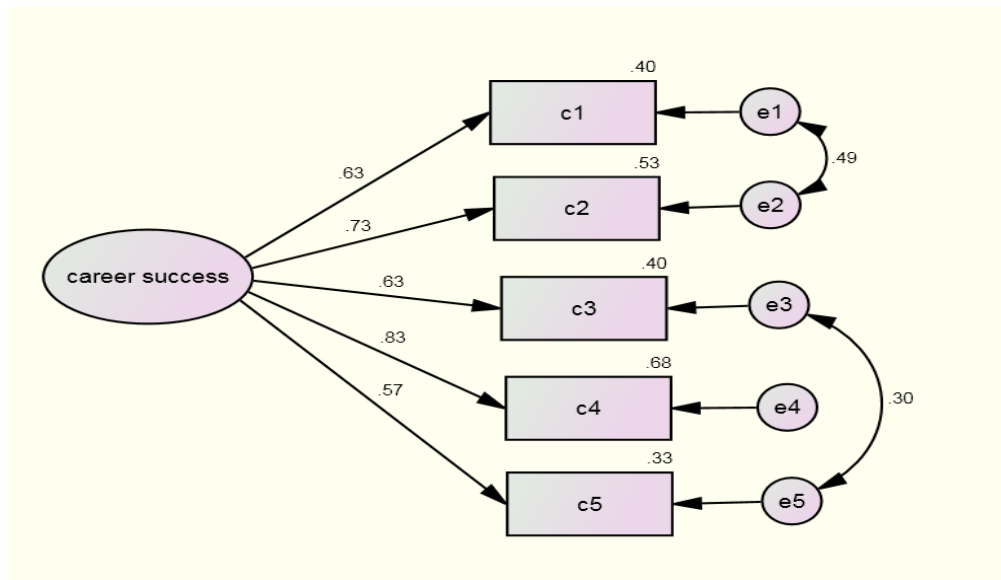


Figure 3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Career Satisfaction Scale

Table 7

Factor loadings of Career Satisfaction Scale (N=228)

	Estimate	C.R.(t-value)	Std. factor loading	SMC
Career satisfaction → c1	1.000		.63	.39
Career satisfaction → c2	1.03	16.93	.73	.52
Career satisfaction → c3	.98	10.66	.63	.40
Career satisfaction → c4	1.23	11.52	.83	.68
Career satisfaction → c5	.84	9.85	.57	.32

Table 7 above shows the construct validity of the career satisfaction scale. All the items have good factor loadings i.e., >.50.

For establishing psychometric properties, alpha coefficient, item-total correlation coefficients were computed. The alpha coefficient was .83, which provided evidence of good reliability of the instrument.

Table 8*Item total correlations of Career Satisfaction Scale (N= 228)*

Items Number	<i>r</i>
c1	.78
c2	.82
c3	.77
c4	.80
c5	.71

Table 8 is showing the item-total correlation coefficients on career satisfaction scale. The range of correlation coefficients of items with total scale score is from .71 to .82 with $p < .05$ and $p < .01$. These high and significant co-efficient provide the validity evidence of translated version of career satisfaction scale.

Discussion. Existing literature has well supported that identifying individuals' career beliefs is important because having irrational assumptions may hinder progress toward career goals, thus leading to dissatisfaction due to a lack of action or inappropriate coping skills. Similarly, facilitative career beliefs play positive role in career related behavior and experiences (Arulmani et al., 2003; Turner & Conkel, 2011). Part I of the present study aimed developing an indigenous scale for measuring career beliefs. As discussed earlier that cross cultural differences may play significant differences in developing one's career beliefs (Hardin, Leong, & Osipow, 2001; Leong, 1991; Lowe, 2005); and existing measures (Krumboltz, 1991; Yang, 1996) are designed for Western population and showed low reliabilities on Asian Culture

samples (Lakshmi, 2010). For the very purpose, first of all, literature review and focus group discussions were held for understanding this phenomenon in our specific culture. The finalized 79 items were evaluated through experts for face validity. Afterwards, the developed items were tested for psychometric properties. This whole procedure resulted in the development and validation of Career Beliefs Scale (CBS).

As it is well established that to explore the factor structure of any new construct Principal Component Factor Analysis with Varimax rotation provides the simplest interpretations of the factors (Lorenzo-Seva, 2003). The findings of Principal Component Factor analysis revealed two factor solutions for the employees of Pakistani organizations. Based on Krumboltz's (1999) assumptions about career beliefs, these subscales were labeled as Facilitating Career Beliefs and Career Myths. Facilitating Career Beliefs including themes regarding beliefs about hard work, persistence, intrinsic satisfaction from work, attempt to find fit between person and job and taking personal responsibility in career decision making. While Career Myths included themes of having beliefs about gender stereotypical division of careers, unequal status of different occupations and considering work as the most central part of life. Higher scores on Facilitating Career Beliefs indicated having more facilitating career beliefs while high scores on career myths assumed to show as having more career myths. Pearson product correlation between Career Myths and Facilitating Career Beliefs was found non-significant. On the basis of this, it was decided to interpret the scores on the two subscales separately.

After determining factor structure, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for estimating the reliability of two scales of CBS. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), argued that alpha coefficients should be applied to all new measurement

constructs because it provides a good estimate of reliability. The findings show pretty satisfactory values (i.e., .85 for Facilitating Career Beliefs and .78 for Career Myths). To strengthen our assumption of internal consistency, item total correlations were also computed and all the items were found positively correlated with the total score of both the subscales of CBS. The coefficients ranging from .40 to .71 for Facilitating Career Beliefs and from .50 to .58 for Career Myths. All the item-total correlations were above .30 with statistical significance, indicating satisfactory results (Field, 2005). These findings are indicators of strong construct validity of the two subscales of CBS as they showed significant correlations (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997).

As substantial amount of attention has been paid in the past 25 years to the issue of construct validation in the behavioral and organizational sciences. Construct validation is important because establishing the substantive validity of a construct before examining its construct validity may lead to the accumulation of knowledge that later must be discarded (Schwab, as cited in MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005). Though, factor analysis depicts sufficient construct validation of any measure, to verify the findings, further, discriminant and convergent validity was also established. Whenever there are high construct inter-correlations, there is a need to assess discriminant validity, in order to have confidence in subsequent research findings (Farrell, 2010). This type of validity evidence is also a form of construct validity. Discriminant validity tests whether concepts or measurements that are supposed to be unrelated are, in fact, unrelated and convergent validity on the other hand, refers to the degree to which two measures of constructs that theoretically should be related, are in fact related (Campbell & Fiske, 1959).

For present study, discriminant and convergent validation is determined by correlating scores of CBS with personality traits. The same procedure has been followed by Krumboltz (1999) for validating Career Beliefs Inventory. Krumboltz (1999) found that positive career beliefs were positively correlated with extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience and conscientious, whereas, negative career beliefs were negatively related with openness to experience, agreeableness, extraversion and conscientiousness. Whereas, dysfunctional career beliefs were positively associated with neuroticism.

Career beliefs and personality are treated as independent constructs. Our findings indicate some significant positive relationship among personality dimensions and career beliefs components. Definitely CBS is not a personality inventory but these findings make sense conceptually. Openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness has found to be positively related with facilitating career beliefs. Employees having high levels of conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion and openness to experience tended to believe in hard work, persistence, maintaining balance in work and personal lives, equal status of professions and also try to find jobs according to their interests. While being high on extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness is negatively related with possessing career myths. It indicates that employees preferring social group participation, cheerful, seeks excitement and altruistic by nature possess less career myths. Such employees do not possess gender stereotypical classification of occupations and do not take career as the central part of their lives.

Concurrent validity is a form of criterion related validity which provides the ease of collecting data on the main variable and the selected criterion simultaneously.

It refers how an instrument predicts the selected criteria (Anastasi, 1988). It was explored how scores on Facilitating Career Beliefs and Career Myths are related with the criteria of career satisfaction among employed adults. There are empirical evidences (Krumboltz, 1999) that positive career beliefs were positively related with work satisfaction and negative career beliefs were negatively related with work satisfaction.

CBS was correlated with career satisfaction among employed adults for determining its concurrent validity. It was assumed that higher levels of facilitating career beliefs would be related with higher levels of career satisfaction. On the other hand, as career myths and career satisfaction would have inverse relationship. The results of this study supported this assumption for facilitating career beliefs. This is indication that having facilitating career beliefs is important for career satisfaction but not career myths. Krumboltz (1999) also found that employed people who were more satisfied with their work believed in hard work and more open in employment decisions.

After founding satisfactory results for the validation of CBS, it can be claimed confidently that CBS is a reliable and valid measure for assessing career beliefs of employed adults in our culture.

This part of the current research dealt also with the translation and adaptation of Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS). After getting permission from the author, CSS was culturally adapted. As Goh and Yu (2001) elaborated that for adaptation of a career measure, the researcher should try to establish language equivalence through back translation strategy and should conduct psychometric evaluation for the translated version so that cross-cultural equivalence can be established (Creed, Patton,

& Watson, 2002; Tien, 2005). Following these guidelines, first CSS was translated in Urdu following Brislin's (1980) committee approach method involving forward and backward translation of the instrument.

For validation purpose, data was subjected to Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to test measurement model of CSS. There is as such no simple rule for differentiating good or bad models, but there are general guidelines for evaluating the acceptability of a model. Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2009) suggested that it should be enough to report three or four indices including at least one absolute index and one incremental index in addition to the Chi-square value and degrees of freedom. Following this suggestion, the present study reported Chi-square, the associated degrees of freedom (df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) representing absolute fit measure, which is the most widely used index (Byrne, 2001), comparative fit index (CFI) as incremental fit measure and lastly normed fit index (NFI) as parsimony fit index. Therefore, Normed Chi-square value between 2-5, $RMSEA \leq .05$ suggest close approximate fit, values between .05 and .08 suggest reasonable error of approximate fit and $\geq .10$ suggest poor fit, CFI greater than roughly .90 indicate good fit and NFI .95 is considered as suggesting a good fitting model. It is though note worthy that all these indexes provide us with a chunk of picture regarding researchers model fitting the data, thus none of the values must be taken as absolute (Kline, 2005) and index of previous researches using the study variables were taken into account while considering the model fit for the present data. The present study found the reported indices of RMSEA, CFI, NFI and Chi-square in acceptable range. The data fitted the model very well and confirmed the uni-dimensional factor structure of CSS.

In some previous studies, the one factor model of Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990) has been found. Wolff and Moser (2008) translated the instrument in German language and confirmed unidimensional factor structure of CSS ($\chi^2(5) = 9.17, p = .08$; RMSEA = 0.059; CFI = 1.00).

Kong, Cheung, and Song (2011) conducted a study on Chinese hotel managers. They also conducted CFA for this scale. CFA results confirmed one factor model fairly ($\chi^2 = 9.0, df=4, CFI=0.99, GFI= 0.99, RMSEA=0.06$) on their data.

According to Hair et al. (2009), the validity of measurement model depends upon the acceptable levels of goodness-of-fit for model and evidence of construct validity. One of the evidence of construct validity is factor loadings of items. Table 7 presented factor loadings of the items. All items have loadings greater than .50 which presents the satisfactory levels of construct validity of the instrument as stated by Hair et al. (2009). The respective absolute t- values of all factor loadings were greater than 1.96 indicating high level of construct validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2009).

In addition to CFA, item-total correlations have also been computed for validity evidence. These correlations were significant and confirmed unidimensionality of the scale too. Cronbach's alpha has been computed for validity evidence. Its value is .83, which indicates reasonably good evidence of reliability.

Overall the results provide the evidence that the new Career Beliefs Scale is a reliable and valid measure for assessing career beliefs of employed adults. The evidence also suggests that the Urdu translated version of Career Satisfaction Scale is applicable in our culture and represents the one factor model as it has been used in other cultures.

Chapter-IV**PART- II**

Part II of the study was divided again into two phases. First phase comprised of pilot study while second phase was conducted to test hypotheses of the study.

Phase I. Pilot Study

Objectives. Pilot study had following objectives to be achieved.

1. To establish the psychometric properties of the instruments to be used in main study.
2. To explore the trends of data emerging from the drawn sample.

Instruments.

1. Career Beliefs Scale (developed and validated in part-I of present study).
2. Urdu version of NEO-Five Factor Inventory (originally developed by Costa & McCrea, 1985) translated by Chishti & Kamal (2002)
3. Urdu version of Career Satisfaction Scale (originally developed by Greenhaus et al., 1990) translated in part-I of present study.

Sample. The sample consisted of 140 full time employed men and women in working in banking and telecom sectors. 76% of them were males and 20% females, 37% from banks and 37% from telecom sector, having average age of 33 years, having average 15 years of educational experience and average work experience was 8 years. Further details are in given table. Sample was drawn from lower and middle management holding jobs involving human interaction as the dominant part. Only those volunteer employees were taken who had minimum one year work experience.

Table 9*Sample demographic descriptive for pilot study (N=140)*

Variables	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	106	75.7
Female	28	20
Missing Cases	6	5
Family System		
Nuclear	67	47.9
Joint	62	44.3
Missing Cases	11	8
Marital Status		
Married	91	65
Unmarried	38	27
Missing Cases	11	8
Working Status of Spouse		
Having Employed Spouse	37	26.4
Having non-employed spouse	82	58.6
Missing Cases	21	15
Sector		
Banks	52	37
Telecom	52	37
Missing Cases	36	24
Job Status		
Permanent	75	53.6
Contract	60	42.9
Missing Cases	5	4

Continued...

Variables	Frequency	%
Nature of Organization		
Govt.	33	23.6
Semi govt.	28	20
Private	63	45
Missing Cases	16	12
Compatibility between degree and career		
Yes	103	74
No	31	22
Missing Cases	6	4
Get training in last six months		
Yes	38	27
No	97	69
Missing Cases	5	4
Willingness to transfer		
Yes	66	47
No	70	50
Missing Cases	4	3

Procedure. The branch managers of various banks and telecom companies in Rawalpindi, Islamabad were contacted and requested for permission for data collection. After getting permission, employees were contacted and were told about the research objectives. They were assured about the confidentiality of data and their participation purely on volunteer basis. They were given booklets having three instruments. Some of the respondents filled the questionnaires on the same day while some returned the next day. Total 250 questionnaires were distributed and 154 were returned. After screening the data, 140 questionnaires were used for pilot study. The respondents were thanked for their cooperation.

Results. In order to fulfill the objectives of the study and to test the hypotheses formulated, following series of statistical analysis was done.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables (N=140)

Variables	No of Items	α	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Range		Skew
					Potential	Actual	
Career Beliefs Scale							
Facilitating Career Beliefs	30	.90	120.43	16.07	30-150	75-149	-.79
Career Myths	12	.79	37.71	9.07	12-60	15-54	-.29
NEO- FFI							
Openness to experience	12	.21	20.86	4.53	12-60	12-31	-.27
Conscientiousness	12	.66	31.92	5.51	12-60	18-45	.17
Extraversion	12	.66	35.80	5.91	12-60	22-50	-.20
Agreeableness	12	.76	37.32	7.83	12-60	17-59	-.32
Neuroticism	12	.76	33.37	7.98	12-60	13-52	.05
Career Satisfaction	5	.76	19.84	2.99	5-25	12-25	-.43

Table 10 is showing the descriptive statistics including Cronbach's coefficients, means, standard deviations, score ranges, and skewness details. All scales do have moderate to high internal consistency evidences except openness to experience. Data on all variables showed normal distribution having skewness values in acceptable range.

Table 11*Correlation matrix among the study variables.(N= 140)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.Age	-	.14	.79**	-.22*	.05	-.06	.01	.09	-.008	-.02	-.01	-.03	.42**	.65**
2. Education (yrs)		-	.02	-.14	-.16	.14	.01	.15	.08	.20*	-.08	.06	.44**	.23**
3. Total Work Experience			-	-.11	.05	.01	.05	.10	.07	-.008	-.09	.07	.34**	.61**
4. Working Hrs.				-	-.01	.04	.10	.04	.10	.07	-.14	.01	-.01	-.15
5. Neuroticism					-	-.62**	.17*	-.49*	-.61*	-.39*	.19*	-.13	-.10	-.04
6.Extraversion						-	.01	.48*	.61*	.62*	-.12	.28**	-.009	.01
7. Openness to experience							-	.25*	.07	.17*	-.38**	-.04	-.01	.09
8.Agreeableness								-	.63*	.46*	-.39**	.15	.19	.29**
9. Conscientiousness									-	.54*	-.20**	.20*	.12	.06
10. Facilitating Career Beliefs										-	-.08	.34*	.13	-.01
11. Career Myths											-	.17*	-.18*	-.32**
12. Career Satisfaction												-	-.01	-.10
13. Log of Monthly Salary													-	.57**
14. Log of Number of Promotions														-

** $p < .001$, * $p < .005$.

Table 11 shows relationship between all the study variables. Among personality factors, extraversion and conscientiousness showed significant relationship with career satisfaction. Facilitating career beliefs and career myths both found to be positively related with subjective career success. For objective career success, where two indicators have been used in the study naming monthly salary and numbers of promotions, only agreeableness has shown significant positive relationship. While demographic and human capital variables showed strong correlations with both measure of objective career success but non-significant relation with subjective career success.

For career beliefs, all personality five factors have shown significant weak to moderate relationship. With facilitating career beliefs, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness showed positive while neuroticism showed negative relationship. For career myths, only neuroticism had positive relationship while other four factors have negative relationship with career myths.

Talking about the relationship between career beliefs and career success, both facilitating career beliefs and career myths have showed positive significant relation with subjective career success (i.e. career satisfaction). For objective career success career myths is significantly negatively related with both indicators of objective career success.

Discussion. This phase was conducted to recheck the psychometric properties of the instruments to be used in the main study. All scales and subscales showed moderate to high internal consistency evidence. Only openness to experience showed very low Cronbach's alpha coefficient. But there have been many researches in

Pakistan which showed the same evidence. Burki (2009) found the alpha coefficient for openness to experience as .35, Fayyaz (2008) as .38, Kiani (2010) as .36. Reason behind this is the fact that in our culture, society demands conformity behavior, innovative and creative ways or experiences are not much encouraged. It is the part of socialization here to inculcate the value of conformity, because of this reason; we are not very open to new experiences. Current socio-political as well as economical conditions of our society in terms of unemployment, economical crises also add up to be less flexible. Moreover the results showed that actual range of scores in the data was from 12-31 which shows very small range. Considering these reasons, it was decided to go for the main study with the same instruments.

Correlation analysis was done to see the trends of relationships between study variables. Correlations coefficients ranged from small to moderate sizes. Some relationships among variables were found in the expected direction such as personality-career beliefs relationship, human capital-career success relationships and to some extent personality-career success relationships. Some unexpected findings such as career beliefs-career success were found too. These relationships were taken to be studied in details in the upcoming main study involving hypothesis testing.

Chapter-V**PHASE II: MAIN STUDY**

This phase dealt with main study of the present research and involved hypotheses testing. For this, following objectives were decided to be achieved.

Objectives

The present phase focused on examining relationship between personality factors and career success. In addition to this, it aimed at exploring mediational role of career beliefs in relationship of personality and career success. For this, following specific hypotheses were aimed to be tested in this phase of the study;

Hypotheses

Following hypotheses were formulated to test for the present study.

1. Neuroticism negatively predicts objective and subjective career success among employed men and women.
2. Conscientiousness positively predicts objective and subjective career success employed men and women.
3. Extraversion positively predicts objective and subjective career success employed men and women.
4. Human capital variables (number of hours worked, work experience, education level) and demographic variables (age, gender, marital status) are better predictors for objective career success than subjective career success employed men and women.

5. Facilitating career beliefs are positively related with objective and subjective career success.
6. Career myths are negatively related with objective and subjective career success.
7. Men employees possess higher levels of career myths as compared to women employees.
8. Women employees have lower objective and subjective career success as compared to men employees.
9. Gender moderates the relationship between human capital variables and career success (objective and subjective).

Instruments

Following instruments were used for main study.

1. Career Beliefs Scale (developed and validated in part-I of present study).
2. Urdu version of NEO-Five Factor Inventory (originally developed by Costa & McCrea, 1985) translated by Chishti & Kamal (2002)
3. Urdu version of Career Satisfaction Scale (originally developed by Greenhaus et al., 1990) translated in part-I of present study.

Sample

The sample consisted of 590 full time employed men and women working in banking and telecom sectors. The inclusion criteria for sample was having minimum one year work experience and working in those jobs where human interaction was the dominant part of their job. Sample belonged to lower and middle management. 68% of sample included men and 31% women, among these 60% were married and 40% unmarried. 54% of the respondents were having permanent jobs while 44% had

contractual jobs. Mean age of sample was 32 years, having mean work experience of 7 years. More details are in the table below.

Table 12

Sample demographic descriptive for main study (N=590)

Variables	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	400	67.8
Female	176	30.6
Missing Cases	14	2
Family System		
Nuclear	307	52.0
Joint	252	42.7
Missing Cases	31	5
Marital Status		
Married	345	60.1
Unmarried	229	39.9
Missing Cases	16	3
Working Status of Spouse		
Having Employed Spouse	148	25
Having non-employed spouse	384	65
Missing Cases	58	10
Sector		
Banks	393	66.6
Telecom	126	21.4
Missing Cases	71	12
Job Status		
Permanent	320	54.2
Contract	262	44.4
Missing Cases	8	2

Continued...

Variables	Frequency	%
Nature of Organization		
Govt.	304	51.5
Semi govt.	61	10.3
Private	206	34.9
Missing Cases	19	3
Compatibility between degree and career		
Yes	412	69.8
No	168	28.5
Missing Cases	10	2
Get training in last six months		
Yes	114	19.3
No	464	80
Missing Cases	12	2
Willingness to transfer		
Yes	195	33.1
No	382	64.7
Missing Cases	13	2

Procedure

The branch managers of various banks and telecom companies in Rawalpindi, Islamabad and Lahore were contacted and requested for permission for data collection. After getting permission, employees were contacted and were told about the research objectives. They were assured about the confidentiality of data and their participation purely on volunteer basis. They were given booklets having three instruments. Some of the respondents filled the questionnaires on the same day while

some returned the next day. Total 1000 questionnaires were distributed and 712 were returned. After screening the data, 590 questionnaires were used for main study. The respondents were thanked for their cooperation.

Results

In order to fulfill the objectives of the study and to test the hypotheses formulated, series of statistical analysis were done.

Table 13

Descriptive statistics for main study variables (N=590)

Variables	No of	α	Mean	SD	Range		Skew
	Items				Potential	Actual	
Career Beliefs Scale							
Facilitating Career Beliefs	30	.87	121.97	13.69	30-150	68-150	-.96
Career Myths	12	.80	39.71	9.18	12-60	15-60	-.39
NEO- FFI							
Openness to experience	12	.17	33.54	4.73	12-60	21-46	.11
Conscientiousness	12	.62	43.37	6.01	12-60	25-60	.28
Extraversion	12	.59	41.75	5.95	12-60	27-57	-.13
Agreeableness	12	.73	36.45	7.51	12-60	17-59	-.13
Neuroticism	12	.75	32.56	8.03	12-60	13-56	.02
Career Satisfaction	5	.73	20.01	2.97	5-25	11-25	-.84

Table 13 is showing the descriptive statistics including cronbach's coefficients, means, standard deviations, score ranges and skewness details. All scales do have moderate to high internal consistency except openness to experience,

extraversion and conscientiousness. It was decided after these results to go for further analysis of item correlations of these scales to improve the reliability of these scales. Data on all variables showed normal distribution having skewness values in acceptable range.

Table 14

Item-total correlation for neuroticism and extraversion (N=590)

Item No.	<i>r</i>	Item No.	<i>r</i>	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1	.30**	2	.26**	4	.38**
6	.47**	7	.27**	9	.32**
11	.55**	12	.36**	14	.55**
16	.20**	17	.40**	19	.25**
21	.46**	22	.02	24	.37**
26	.55**	27	.15**	29	.23**
31	.27**	32	.19**	34	.39**
36	.10**	37	.47**	39	.48**
41	.53**	42	.16**	44	.46**
46	.24**	47	.19**	49	.30**
51	.32**	52	.24**	54	.35**
56	.56**	5	.15**	59	.30**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 14 shows the item-total correlations of related items with total scores on neuroticism, extraversion and agreeableness. Neuroticism and agreeableness subscale showed acceptable validity evidence. But to improve the reliability of extraversion, item numbers 22 and 27 was deleted which improved the reliability coefficient to .62.

Table 15

Item-total correlation for openness and conscientiousness (N=590)

Item No.	<i>r</i>	Item No.	<i>r</i>
3	-.16**	5	.15**
8	-.08	10	.13**
13	.16**	15	.41**
18	.16**	20	.33**
23	.08**	25	.35**
28	-.18	30	.40**
33	.19**	35	.25**
38	-.31**	40	.09*
43	.29**	45	.18**
48	.16**	50	.31**
53	.26**	55	.45**
58	.12**	60	.13**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 15 shows the item-total correlation of openness and conscientiousness. Four items of openness showed negative correlation with total score on openness.

After excluding item no. 3, 8, 23, 28, and 38 the reliability was also improved from .17 up to .53.

Above table also shows the item-total correlation of conscientiousness. After deleting item no. 10, 40 and 60 the reliability improved from .62 to .65.

Table 16*Correlation matrix among the study variables.(N= 590)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.Age	-	.27**	.88*	-.00	-.05	.04	-.04	.03	.06	.02	-.02	.09*	.55**	.54**
2. Education (yrs)		-	.16**	.00	-.10*	.07	.01	.09*	-.00	.09*	-.12**	-.00	.40**	.18**
3. Total Work Experience			-	.04	-.04	.02	-.01	.04	.07	-.00	-.08*	.04	.50**	.57**
4. Working Hrs.				-	-.02	-.00	.09*	.12**	.087*	.07	-.21**	-.04	.06	.11**
5. Neuroticism					-	-.61**	.16**	-.49**	-.63**	-.35**	.26**	-.12**	-.12**	-.02
6.Extraversion						-	-.02	.48**	.62**	.52**	-.20**	.19**	.06	.01
7. Openness to experience							-	.21**	.07	.15**	-.27**	-.03	-.06	.06
8.Agreeableness								-	.63**	.48**	-.49**	.06	.04	.17**
9. Conscientiousness									-	.46**	-.35**	.20**	.08*	.07
10. Facilitating Career Beliefs										-	-.15**	.27**	.02	.02
11. Career Myths											-	.20**	-.11**	-.26**
12. Career Satisfaction												-	.04	-.05
13. Log of Monthly Salary													-	.48**
14. Log of Number of Promotions														-

** $p < .001$, * $p < .005$.

Table 16 shows relationship between all the study variables. Among personality factors, three traits naming neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness showed significant relationship with career satisfaction which has been taken as indicator of subjective career success. For objective career success, where two indicators have been used in the study naming monthly salary and numbers of promotions, only neuroticism and conscientiousness have shown significant results. For number of promotions as indicator of objective career success, only agreeableness has shown significant but weak positive relationship ($r = .17^*$). For career beliefs, results are much distinctive. All personality five factors have shown significant weak to moderate relationship with facilitating career beliefs, neuroticism has negative while other four factors have positive relationship. For career myths, all five factors have showed significant results ranging from weak to moderate range. Only neuroticism has positive relationship ($r = .26^{**}$) while other four factors have negative relationship with career myths.

Talking about the relationship between career beliefs and career success, interesting findings have been found. Both facilitating career beliefs and career myths have showed positive significant relation with subjective career success (i.e. career satisfaction). For objective career success career myths is significantly negatively related with both indicators of objective career success ($r = -.26^{**}$ with number of promotions; $r = -.11^{**}$ with monthly salary).

Human capital variables including working hours, work experience and years of education have shown non-significant relationship with subjective career success. While for objective career success, they have shown significant positive relationships. While for number of promotions, all three are positively related. Age is significantly

positively related with both dimensions of career success (i.e. objective and subjective career success). For subjective career success, it has shown weak but significant relationship ($r = .09^*$).

The table is also showing the relationship between dimensions of career success too. Both indicators of objective career success have shown moderate positive relationship ($r = .48^{**}$) while subjective career success has shown non-significant relationship with both indicators of objective career success.

Predictors of Career Success. To test hypotheses of predictive nature, linear and multiple regression were conducted. Only those relationships were taken to regression analyses that showed significant correlations. Data was checked for possible multicollinearity, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values of all variables were below 10, indicating no multicollinearity.

First subjective career success was taken as dependent variables and simple linear regression analysis were done to see various predictors. Among demographic only age had significant relationship with subjective career success.

Table 17

Simple regression analysis for age predicting subjective career success (N= 581)

Predictors	<i>Subjective career success</i>					
	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>
Age	.09	.008*	.03	.01	.09*	2.17
<i>F</i>	4.75*					

Table 17 shows the results of prediction of age for subjective career success. This model is statistically significant $F(1, 579) = 4.75$; $p < .05$ and explained .8% of variance in subjective career success.

Table 18

Hierarchical regression analysis for personality factors predicting subjective career success (N= 590)

Predictors	<i>Subjective Career Success</i>			
	<i>Model III</i>			
	<i>Model I B</i>	<i>Model II B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>
(Constant)	16.56***	15.62***	14.48***	(11.16,17.79)
Conscientiousness	.19***	.12**	.14**	(.01,.14)
Extraversion		.10*	.12*	(.008,.12)
Neuroticism			.04	(-.02,.05)
<i>R</i> ²	.038	.045	.046	
<i>F</i>	23.27***	13.91**	9.47**	
ΔR^2	.038	.007	.001	
ΔF			13.8	

*** $p < .00$, ** $p < .001$, * $p < .0001$

Table 18 shows that three personality factors explained 4.6% variance. Among these three, conscientiousness strongly predicted subjective career success followed by extraversion while neuroticism could not significantly contribute.

Table 19

Hierarchical regression analysis for career beliefs predicting subjective career success (N= 590)

Predictors	Subjective Career Success		
	Model I <i>B</i>	Model II <i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	12.90***	1.06***	(10.81,14.98)
Facilitating Career Beliefs	.26***	.30**	(.05,.08)
Career Myths		.24***	(.05,.10)
R ²	.07	.13	
F	45.54***	44.78**	
Δ R ²	.07	.06	
ΔF		.76	

*** $p < .00$, ** $p < .001$, * $p < .0001$

Table 19 indicates that both types of career beliefs are significantly predicting subjective career success. Both cumulatively explaining 13% variance in the dependant variable.

Predictors of objective career success. Human capital variables, demographic variables, personality variables and career beliefs were tested as predictors of objective career success.

Table 20

Hierarchical regression analysis for demographic variables predicting objective career success (N= 543)

Predictors	Monthly Salary			
	Model III			95% CI
	Model I <i>B</i>	Model II <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	
(Constant)	4.03***	3.99***	4.02***	(3.95,4.08)
Age	.55***	.54***	.48***	(.01,.01)
Gender		.13***	.12***	(.02, .09)
Marital Status			.13***	(.02,.09)
R ²	.30	.32	.34	
F	239.19***	129.88**	92.60**	
Δ R ²	.30	.018	.015	
ΔF			146.59	

*** $p < .00$, ** $p < .001$, * $p < .0001$

Table 20 shows that demographic variables are strong predictors of monthly salary as indicator of objective career success. The three variables explained 34% of variance in monthly salary.

Table 21

Hierarchical regression analysis for human capital variables predicting monthly salary (N= 543)

Predictors	Monthly Salary		
	Model I <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	Model II 95% CI
(Constant)	3.53***	3.61***	(3.34,3.73)
Years of Education	.40***	.32***	(.04,.06)
Work Experience		.44***	(.01, .01)
<i>R</i> ²	.16	.35	
<i>F</i>	104.34***	148.82**	
ΔR^2	.16	.19	
ΔF		44.48	

*** $p < .00$, ** $p < .001$, * $p < .0001$

Table 21 shows that human capital variables are strong predictors of monthly salary as indicator of objective career success. These two variables explained 35% of variance in monthly salary.

Table 22*Hierarchical regression analysis for personality factors predicting monthly salary**(N= 590)*

Predictors	Monthly Salary		
	Model II		
	Model I <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	4.43**	4.63***	(4.32,4.54)
Conscientiousness	.08*	.009	(-.004,.005)
Neuroticism		-.11*	(-.00,.00)
<i>R</i> ²	.007	.015	
<i>F</i>	4.03*	4.42*	
ΔR^2	.007	.008	
ΔF		.20	

****p* < .00, ***p* < .001, **p* < .0001

Table 22 shows the results for personality factors predicting monthly salary. Conscientiousness and neuroticism explain 1.5% variance for monthly salary.

Table 23

Simple regression analysis for career myths predicting monthly salary (N= 580)

Predictor	Monthly Salary					
	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>
Career Myths	.10	.01*	-.003	.001	-.10**	2.61
<i>F</i>	6.83**					

Table 23 is showing the predictive strength of career myths for monthly salary. Career myths negatively predicted monthly salary and explained 1% variance in salary.

Table 24

Hierarchical regression analysis for demographic variables predicting number of promotions (N= 543)

Predictors	No. of Promotions			
	Model III			
	Model I <i>B</i>	Model II <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	-.42***	-.47***	-.46***	(-.54,-.38)
Age	.55***	.54***	.51***	(.01,.02)
Gender		.15***	.14***	(.04, .11)
Marital Status			.06	(-.008,.07)
<i>R</i> ²	.55	.57	.57	
<i>F</i>	240.87***	133.65**	90.18**	
ΔR^2	.30	.02	.003	
ΔF			150.69	

****p* < .00, ***p* < .001, **p* < .0001

Table 24 shows that demographic variables are strong predictors of number of promotions as indicator of objective career success. The three variables explained 57% of variance in number of promotions.

Table 25

Hierarchical regression analysis for human capital variables predicting number of promotions (N= 543)

Predictors	No. of Promotions			
	Model I <i>B</i>	Model II <i>B</i>	Model III <i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	-.34**	-.24**	-.49**	(-.76, -.23)
Years of Education	.18***	.09***	.09***	(.005, .03)
Work Experience		.52***	.52***	(.01, .02)
Working Hours			.09**	(.009, .05)
<i>R</i> ²	.03	.30	.31	
<i>F</i>	19.13***	119.88***	83.42***	
ΔR^2	.03	.27	.01	
ΔF			100.75	

*** $p < .00$, ** $p < .001$, * $p < .0001$

Table 25 shows that human capital variables are strong predictors of number of promotions salary as indicator of objective career success. The three variables explained 31% of variance in number of promotions.

Table 26

Simple regression analysis for agreeableness predicting number of promotions (N= 577)

Predictor	Number of Promotions					
	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>
Agreeableness	.16	.02*	.006	.001	.16**	4.11
<i>F</i>	16.89**					

Table 26 shows the results for agreeableness for predicting number of promotions. It explains 2% variance for number of promotions.

Table 27

Simple regression analysis for career myths predicting number of promotions (N= 580)

Predictor	No. of Promotions					
	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>
Career Myths	.25	.06**	-.007	.001	-.25**	6.36
<i>F</i>	40.53**					

Table 27 is showing the predictive strength of career myths for number of promotions. Career myths negatively predicted number of promotions and explained 6% variance in number of promotions.

Mediating Role of Career Beliefs between personality and career success.

Step-wise multiple regression was performed to explore role of career beliefs as mediator using Baron and Kenny (1986) causal-steps approach.

Table 28

Mediating effect of facilitating career beliefs between personality factors and subjective career success (N=529)

Variables	Subjective Career Success		
	Model I <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	15.05***	11.96***	(8.33,15.56)
Neuroticism	.03	.03	(-.03,.05)
Extraversion	.08	-.004	(-.06,.06)
Conscientiousness	.17*	.12*	(.005,.13)
Facilitating Career Beliefs		.22***	(.02,.06)
<i>R</i> ²	.04	.08	
<i>F</i>	8.74**	11.81**	
ΔR^2	.048	.035	
ΔF		3.07	

*** $p < .00$ ** $p < .001$, * $p < .005$.

Table 28 is showing the mediating role of facilitating career beliefs between personality factors and subjective career success. Sobel test statistics with $z = -4.55$, $p = .001$ shows here that facilitating career beliefs are partially mediating the relationship between conscientiousness and subjective career success.

Table 29

Mediating effect of career myths between personality factors and subjective career success (N=529)

Variables	Subjective Career Success		
	Model I <i>B</i>	Model II	
		<i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	15.05***	10.97***	(7.37,14.58)
Neuroticism	.03	.01	(-.03,.04)
Extraversion	.08	.07	(-.02,.09)
Conscientiousness	.17*	.25***	(.07,.20)
Career Myths		.24***	(.05,.10)
<i>R</i> ²	.04	.10	
<i>F</i>	8.72**	14.87**	
ΔR^2	.048	.054	
ΔF		6.15	

*** $p < .00$ ** $p < .001$, * $p < .005$.

Table 29 shows the results that career myths are mediating the relationship between conscientiousness and subjective career success. Sobel test with $z = 5.85$, $p = .001$ confirms its role as partial mediator.

Table 30

Mediating effect of career myths between agreeableness and objective career success
($N=529$)

Variables	No. of Promotions		
	Model I B	Model II B	95% CI
(Constant)	-.046	.345***	(.16,.52)
Agreeableness	.18***	.002	(-.001,.005)
Career Myths		-.24***	(-.009,-.004)
R^2	.03	.07	
F	18.02**	22.22**	
ΔR^2	.033	.045	
ΔF		4.2	

*** $p < .00$ ** $p < .001$, * $p < .005$.

Table 30 shows the mediating effect of career myths between agreeableness and number of promotions. The effect of agreeableness became non-significant after adding career myths in second model. This was judged to be statistically significant using the Sobel test, $z = -5.52$, $p = .001$. Results indicate full mediation.

Moderating role of gender between human capital and career success. In order to investigate the moderating role of gender in relationship between personality factors and career success, hierarchical regression analyses have been done as per described by Cohen and Cohen (1983). Predictor variables were entered first, and the interaction term were entered in the second step. In order to avoid multicollinearity problems predictors and moderators variables were centered to mean (Aiken & West,

1991). Moderating role of gender was investigated only for those personality factors which were found to be significantly related with career success.

Table 31

Moderating effect of gender between human capital variables and monthly salary (N=561)

Variables	Monthly Salary		
	Model II		
	Model I <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	3.47***	3.32***	(2.77,3.86)
Education	.33**	.36**	(.03,.08)
Work Experience	.42**	.46**	(.01,.02)
Working Hours	.03	.06	(-.03,.06)
Gender × Education		-.036	(-.04,.02)
Gender × Work Experience		-.036	(-.04,.02)
Gender × Working Hours		-.030	(-.05,.03)
<i>R</i> ²	.37	.37	
<i>F</i>	79.34**	45.23**	
ΔR^2	.37	.001	
ΔF		34.11	

*** $p < .00$ ** $p < .001$, * $p < .005$.

Table 31 is showing the moderating effect of gender between human capital variables and salary (objective career success). Among three variables, no variable is moderated by gender.

Table 32

Moderating effect of gender between human capital and number of promotions (objective career success) (N=561)

Variables	Number of Promotions		
	Model I <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	95% CI
(Constant)	-.53***	-.31**	(-.90, .27)
Education	.10**	.06	(-.01,.03)
Work Experience	.52***	.32***	(.007,.01)
Working Hours	.09**	.06	(-.03,.07)
Gender × Education		.03	(-.03,.04))
Gender × Work Experience		.24**	(.03,.11)
Gender × Working Hours		.03	(-.03,.05)
R ²	.33	.35	
F	67.07**	40.80**	
Δ R ²	.33	.01	
ΔF		26.27	

*** $p < .00$ ** $p < .001$, * $p < .005$.

Table 32 is showing the significant moderating effect of gender between human capital variables and number of promotions (objective career success). Among three variables, only one variable i.e. work experience is significantly moderated by gender. For explaining it further, mod graph is used.

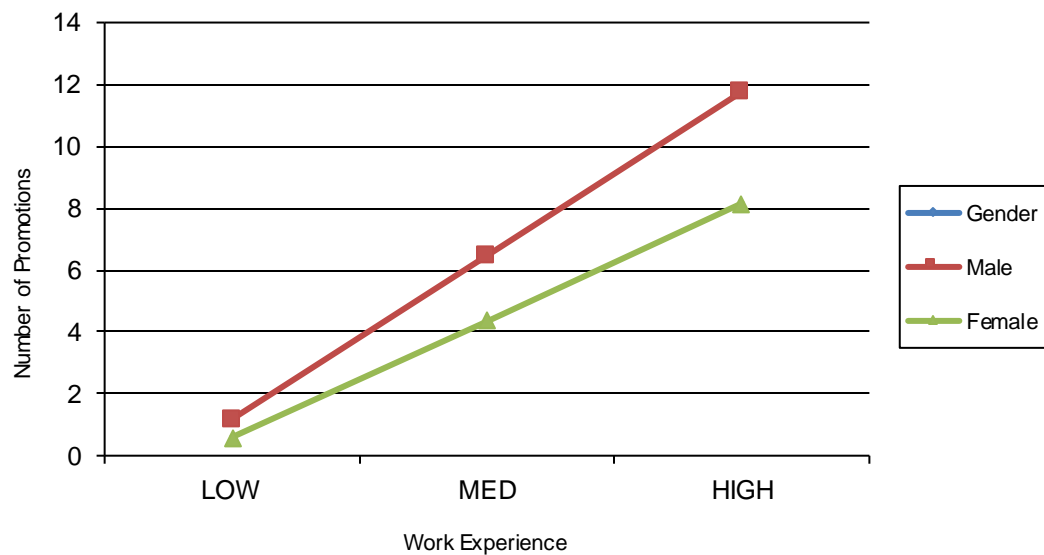


Figure 4. Mod Graph for gender as moderator between number of promotions and work experience

Figure 4 is showing mod graph which is displaying that relationship between work experience and number of promotions (objective career success) is stronger in males as compared to females. Mod graph is software has been used for presenting this figure. It is a program which allows to present statistical information obtained from multiple regression for the graphical display of statistical interactions (Jose, 2013).

Group differences on study variables. Sample was compared in many groups to see the differences on study variables. Independent sample t-test and Analysis of Variance have been conducted to meet these objectives and testing of hypotheses.

Table 33

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for gender differences on log monthly salary log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =576)

Scale	Male		Female		<i>t</i> (574)	<i>p</i>	95% CI		<i>Cohen's d</i>
	<i>(n</i> = 400)		<i>(n</i> =176)				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>					
LMS	4.56	.22	4.48	.18	4.08	0.00	0.04	.11	0.39
LNP	.19	.25	.10	.18	4.28	0.00	0.05	0.13	0.41
CS	19.98	3.02	20.23	2.79	.93	0.34	-0.77	.27	-0.08
FCB	121.29	13.91	123.28	13.10	1.60	0.10	-4.41	.44	-0.15
CM	39.71	9.09	39.90	9.25	0.23	0.81	-1.81	1.43	-0.02

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB= Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 33 presents gender differences on study variables. Male and female employees have significant difference only on both indicators of objective career success ($t = 4.08$, $p = .000$ for monthly salary; $t = 4.28$, $p = .000$ for number of promotions). Male employees have shown higher objective career success as compared to females. Significant gender differences have not been found for other variables.

Table 34

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for marital status differences on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =574)

Scale	Married		Unmarried		<i>t</i> (572)	<i>P</i>	95% CI		<i>Cohen's d</i>
	<i>(n</i> = 345)		<i>(n</i> =229)				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>					
LMS	4.61	.20	4.44	.18	9.71	0.00	0.133	0.20	0.89
LNP	.23	.26	.08	.17	7.58	0.00	0.11	.19	0.68
CS	20.22	2.87	19.69	3.06	2.14	0.03	0.04	1.03	0.17
FCB	121.85	13.97	121.67	13.30	0.15	0.88	-2.11	2.47	0.01
CM	39.41	8.98	40.17	9.59	0.23	0.33	-2.29	0.79	-0.08

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB=

Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 34 presents differences of married and unmarried employees groups on study variables. Married and unmarried employees have significant differences on both dimensions of career success. Married employees have higher objective career success ($t = 9.71$, $p = .000$ for monthly salary; $t = 7.58$, $p = .000$ for number of promotions). They have also shown higher subjective career success ($t = 2.14$, $p = .03$) as compared to unmarried employees. Significant differences have not been found for other variables.

Table 35

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for job status differences on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N = 582)

Scale	Permanent		Contract		<i>t</i> (580)	<i>P</i>	95% CI		<i>Cohen's d</i>
	<i>(n</i> = 320)		<i>(n</i> =262)				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>					
LMS	4.64	0.20	4.42	0.17	13.41	0.00	0.18	0.24	1.00
LNP	.26	.26	.06	.15	10.92	0.00	0.16	.24	.94
CS	20.06	2.90	19.94	3.07	0.47	0.63	-0.36	0.60	.04
FCB	121.87	13.96	121.93	13.34	0.05	0.95	-3.49	-.50	-0.004
CM	38.75	9.12	40.75	9.12	2.63	0.00	-2.29	0.79	.21

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB= Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 35 presents differences of employees working on permanent basis and contract basis on study variables. These two groups of employees have significant differences on both dimensions of career success and career myths. Permanent employees have higher objective career success ($t = 13.41$, $p = .000$ for monthly salary; $t = 10.92$, $p = .000$ for number of promotions). While employees working on contract are found to possessing more career myths as compared to permanent employees ($t = 2.63$, $p = .00$). Significant differences have not been found for subjective career success and facilitating career beliefs.

Table 36

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for groups on the basis of having compatibility between job and degree on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =580)

	Having		Not Having						
	Compatibility		Compatibility						
	(n =412)		(n =168)				95% CI		
Scale	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (578)	<i>P</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>Cohen's d</i>
LMS	4.60	0.20	4.39	0.17	11.82	0.00	0.17	0.24	1.13
LNP	.21	.26	.08	.17	5.72	0.00	0.08	0.17	.59
CS	20.27	2.86	19.38	3.13	3.32	0.00	0.36	1.42	.29
FCB	121.84	13.52	122.10	14.07	.20	0.83	-2.71	2.20	-.01
CM	39.81	9.08	39.57	9.35	.29	0.77	-1.40	1.89	.02

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB=

Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 36 presents differences of employees having compatibility between degree and job and those who do not have this compatibility on study variables. These two groups of employees have significant differences on both dimensions of career success. Employees having compatibility between degree and job have higher objective career success ($t = 11.82$, $p = .000$ for monthly salary; $t = 5.72$, $p = .000$ for number of promotions) and subjective career success ($t = 3.32$, $p = .00$) as compared to the other group. Significant differences have not been found for career beliefs.

Table 37

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for groups on the basis of receiving professional training in last six months on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =474)

	Received		Not Received						
	Training		Training						
	(n =113)		(n =333)				95% CI		
Scale	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (445)	<i>P</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>Cohen's d</i>
LMS	4.51	0.26	4.56	0.22	1.86	0.06	-.09	0.00	-.20
LNP	0.25	0.25	0.18	0.25	2.65	0.00	0.01	0.12	.28
CS	19.73	3.21	19.88	3.09	0.43	0.66	-.81	0.52	-.04
FCB	122.59	12.96	121.44	15.71	0.70	0.48	-2.05	4.36	.07
CM	38.90	9.10	37.36	9.20	1.54	0.12	-.42	3.49	.16

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB= Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 37 presents differences among employees receiving professional training in last six months and those who do not on study variables. These two groups of employees have significant differences just on one indicator of objective career success. Employees receiving training have received higher number of promotions ($t = 2.65, p = .00$) as compared to the other group. Significant differences have not been found for other study variables.

Table 38

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for groups on the basis of willingness to transfer on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =575)

Scale	Willing to transfer (n =195)		Not Willing to transfer (n =382)		<i>t</i> (573)	<i>P</i>	95% CI		<i>Cohen's d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
LMS	4.56	0.22	4.53	0.21	1.39	0.16	-.01	0.06	.13
LNP	0.27	0.25	0.12	0.22	7.22	0.00	0.10	0.19	.63
CS	19.27	3.29	20.43	2.70	4.52	0.00	-1.66	-.65	-.38
FCB	122.35	14.50	121.58	13.32	0.63	0.52	-1.60	3.14	.05
CM	37.07	9.10	41.11	8.89	5.12	0.00	-5.59	-2.49	-.44

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB=

Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 38 presents differences among employees who are willingness to have transfer and those who do not want on study variables. These two groups of employees have significant differences on one indicator of objective career success, subjective career success and career myths. Willing employees have received higher number of promotions ($t = 7.22$, $p = .00$), showed higher level of subjective career success ($t = 4.52$, $p = .00$), as compared to the non-willing employees. While non-willing employees have shown possessing higher career myths as compared to willing employees ($t = 5.12$, $p = .00$). Significant differences have not been found for other study variables.

Table 39

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for groups based on family systems on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =559)

	Nuclear Family		Joint Family				95% CI		
	(n =307)		(n =252)						
Scale	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (557)	<i>P</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>Cohen's d</i>
LMS	4.55	0.21	4.53	0.21	1.23	0.21	-.01	0.05	.09
LNP	0.17	0.25	0.15	0.22	.99	0.32	-.02	0.06	.08
CS	20.33	2.75	19.96	3.05	1.47	0.14	-.11	0.84	.12
FCB	121.78	13.38	122.29	14.04	0.44	0.66	-2.79	1.77	-.03
CM	40.16	8.89	39.80	9.32	0.46	0.64	-1.16	1.87	.03

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB= Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 39 presents differences among employees living in nuclear and joint families on study variables. These two groups of employees have shown non-significant differences on all study variables.

Table 40

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for groups on the basis working status of spouse on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =532)

Scale	Having Employed Spouse (<i>n</i> =148)		Not Having Employed Spouse (<i>n</i> =384)		<i>t</i> (530)	<i>P</i>	95% CI		<i>Cohen's d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	
LMS	4.59	0.18	4.53	0.21	2.84	0.00	.01	.09	.30
LNP	0.22	0.26	0.15	0.23	2.86	0.00	0.02	0.11	.28
CS	20.60	2.34	20.04	2.99	2.04	0.04	.02	1.09	.20
FCB	122.85	13.38	121.73	13.20	0.86	0.38	-1.40	3.63	.08
CM	40.74	8.52	40.06	9.06	0.78	0.43	-1.01	2.37	.07

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB=

Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 40 presents differences among employees having employees spouse and non-employed spouse on study variables. These two groups of employees have significant differences objective career success and subjective career success. Employees having employed spouse have higher objective career success received higher number of promotions ($t = 2.84$, $p = .00$ for monthly salary; $t = 2.86$, $p = .00$ for number of promotions) as compared to employees having non-employed spouse. This group has again found to have higher level of subjective career success ($t = 2.04$, $p = .04$), as compared to the other group of employees. Significant differences have not been found for career beliefs.

Table 41

Mean, Standard deviation, and t-values for employees working in banking sector and telecom sector on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N = 519)

Scale	Bank		Telecom		<i>t</i> (517)	<i>P</i>	95% CI		
	Employees		Employees				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>Cohen's d</i>
	<i>(n</i> = 393)		<i>(n</i> = 126)						
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>					
LMS	4.58	0.17	4.48	0.27	4.90	0.00	.06	.14	.44
LNP	0.16	0.24	0.14	0.21	.84	0.39	-.02	0.06	.08
CS	20.17	2.81	20.02	2.93	.53	0.59	-.41	0.72	.01
FCB	121.45	12.84	122.70	12.41	0.95	0.33	-3.81	1.31	-.09
CM	40.27	8.97	40.99	8.05	0.79	0.45	-2.47	1.05	-.08

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB= Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths

Table 41 presents differences among employees working in banking sector and telecom sector on study variables. These two groups of employees have significant differences just on one indicator of objective career success. Bank employees have found to get higher monthly salaries as compared to employees working in telecom sector ($t = 4.90$, $p = .00$). Significant differences have not been found for other study variables.

Table 42

Analysis of Variance for differences among employees groups from different nature of organizations on log monthly salary, log number of promotions, career satisfaction, facilitating career beliefs and career myths (N =571)

Variables	Employees in Government Organizations (n = 304)		Employees in Semi-government Organizations (n = 61)		Employees in Private Organizations (n = 206)		F	i-j	Mean D.(i-j)	SE	95% CI	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD					LL	UL
LMS	4.55	.14	4.58	.26	4.51	.28	3.41*					
LNP	.12	.22	.29	.27	.20	.24	14.28**	sg>gv**	.16	.03	.24	.08
								pr>gv*	.07	.02	.12	.02
								sg>pr*	.08	.03	.00	.17
CS	20.58	2.49	19.50	3.31	19.42	3.27	11.15**	gv>sg*	1.08	0.40	.10	2.05
								gv>pr**	1.16	.26	.53	1.78
FCB	121.63	13.01	119.26	15.52	123.89	13.34	6.63**					
CM	41.96	7.88	38.50	9.53	37.24	9.78	18.51**	gv>sg*	3.45	1.23	.49	6.41
								gv>pr**	4.71	.79	2.81	6.62

Note. LMS= Log Monthly Salary, LNP= Log No. of Promotions, CS= Career Satisfaction, FCB= Facilitating Career Beliefs, CM=Career Myths, sg=Semi government,

gv=Government, pr=Private, Between group $df=2$, within group $df=568$, group total $df=570$; * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Table 42 presents differences among employees working in government, semi government and private sector on study variables. These three groups of employees have significant differences on all study variables. Post-hoc differences could not be found on monthly salary and facilitating career beliefs but these groups differed significantly from each other on these variables. Employees working in semi-government organization are found of getting higher number of promotions as compared to employees working in government and private organizations. Government employees are found to have higher level of subjective career success as compared to the employees working in semi-government and private sector organizations. Similarly, government employees are found to have higher level of career myths as compared to employees working in semi-government and private organizations.

Chapter V**DISCUSSION**

Social learning theories emphasized the role dispositional and cognitive aspects as well as learning experiences in career development. Furthermore, Krumboltz (1979) highlighted the role of career beliefs specifically for career related behaviors and outcomes. Based on these theoretical frameworks, the present study focused on exploring career beliefs of the employed adults working in banking and telecom sectors holding jobs which dominantly involved human interaction. Furthermore, its role between the relationship between personality factors and career success was explored.

Extensive literature review related to career beliefs and its measurement pointed out the need for developing an indigenous instrument for assessing career beliefs. The first part of the research involved development of Career Beliefs Scale. The process involved gathering conceptual understanding of the construct through focus group and then finalizing the items by subject matter experts. Later on, evidences for its psychometric properties were established employing exploratory factor analysis, concurrent, criterion related validity processes and computation of alpha reliability coefficient. Part I of the study also included translation (Greenhaus et al., 1990) of Career Satisfaction Scale in Urdu. The translated version was validated through confirmatory factor analysis, item-total correlations and alpha reliability coefficient. The findings provided the evidence of reasonably good psychometric properties of the two instruments.

Part II of the study included two parts. In part I pilot study on a smaller sample to recheck the psychometric properties of the instruments to be used in main study and also to explore the data trends. The findings of pilot study revealed that the three instruments i.e., Career Beliefs Scale, Urdu version of Career Satisfaction Scale and Urdu version of NEO- Five Factor Inventory (Chishti & Kamal, 2002) showed satisfactory evidences of psychometric properties except one subscale i.e. openness to experience of NEO-Five Factor Inventory. Previous studies conducted in Pakistani sample have shown low indices of this subscale too (Burki, 2009; Fayyaz, 2008; Kiani, 2010). Keeping these in mind, same instrument was retained to be used in main study for hypotheses testing.

Phase II of Part II of the study included main study for hypotheses testing. First of all, data was subjected to normality testing. Descriptive statistics shown in Table 13 showed that the data is normally distributed while the cronbach's alpha of the instrument ranged from .17 to .87. Table 14 and 15 shows that three subscales of NEO-FFI including openness to experience, extraversion and conscientiousness posed problems due to their low alpha reliabilities. To improve the reliabilities of these scales, following Tavakol and Dennick's (2011) suggestions, two items were deleted from Extraversion which improved reliability from .59 to .62. These two items had low item-total correlation coefficients. To improve the reliability index of openness to experience, four items those showed negative item-total correlation were not included for further analysis. Deletion of these four items raised the cronbach's alphas from .17 to .53. In the same way, three items of Conscientiousness scale were not included for analysis in order to improve the reliability from .62 to .65. These items again showed low item-total correlations. There are some research evidences for using briefer

version of NEO-FFI, as Abele and Spurk (2011) used six items for each five factors of personality of this instrument based on their factor loadings. Bashir (2013) recently, faced the same type of problems in her study while using this scale on Pakistani sample, she also did not include those items which created problems and lower the reliability indices of NEO- FFI. Following such examples, effort was done to have instruments yielding reliable data. Moreover, McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata and Terraccian (2011) found in their review of psychometrics of NEO-PI from different cultures, that lower alphas are expected in case of short forms of NEO-PI as it increases the heterogeneity of items which in turn affects alpha of the instrument.

After this, correlation coefficients were computed among main study variables. Table 16 shows this correlation matrix. One of the objectives of the research was to study the relationship between personality and career beliefs. Correlation between big five factors of personality and career beliefs showed that all four factors except neuroticism showed weak to moderate positive relationship with facilitating career beliefs. Neuroticism showed significant negative relationship with facilitating career beliefs. For career myths, only neuroticism showed positive relationship while other four factors had negative relationship. Very less research evidence is available on personality and career beliefs relationship. Holland et al. (1993), in their research also found that neuroticism (negatively), and extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience and conscientiousness (positively) associate with beliefs that help executives to be successful in their careers. Levin (as cited in Krumboltz, 1999) found that extraverts compared to introvert were more likely to believe in hard work and had more desire to excel.

Hypothesis 5 assumed that there would be positive relationship between facilitating career beliefs and objective and subjective career success while hypothesis 6 stated that career myths would negatively relate with both facets of career success. Correlation between big five factors and two facets of career success i.e. objective and subjective career success was computed. The results showed that both facilitating career beliefs and career myths were positively associated with subjective career success. Although for objective career success facilitating career beliefs had no significant relationship while career myths showed significant negative relationship. In this way, both of the above mentioned hypotheses were partially supported. Holland et al. (1993) found that those employees believing in hard work were more likely to be successful in their careers. Cheng (2004) also found that adaptive career beliefs were positively associated with subjective career success. Although positive relationship between facilitating career beliefs and subjective career success is justified and expected, but positive relationship between career myths is surprising. This finding can be explained by Lowe's (2005) findings that beliefs which have been considered as maladaptive like valuing others approval for one's career and depending on others for career decision making are norms of Asian societies because of its collectivistic nature. In this way, having such beliefs contribute to psychological feelings of satisfaction among collectivistic culture members.

Regarding human capital variables (work experience, education level, and number of working hours) and career success relationships, results showed that these had non-significant relationship with subjective career success while for objective career success; they have shown significant positive relationships. Among these variables, work experience has shown stronger positive relationship as compared to

years of education with monthly salary while working hours is found to have non-significant relationship. While for number of promotions, all three are positively related with strongest relationship with work experience followed by years of education and working hours. It can be concluded by these findings that human capital is strongly associated with objective career success but not with subjective career success. Being well-educated and having rich working experience brings increased income and number of promotions but does not make one feel successful. Ng et al. (2005) got the same evidence in their meta-analysis that human capital variables strongly positively correlated with salary and number of promotions but non-significant with subjective career success. Melamed (1996) found that educational attainment enables one to get returns in terms of compensation level. Eddleston, Baldrige and Viega (2004) found the same relationship of education with management level. Tremblay, Gianecchini and Wils (2007) found that work experience as indicator of human capital significantly predicted number of promotions but was non-significant predictor for subjective career success. Orser and Leck (2010) also validated the same finding. This finding basically support contest mobility perspective which asserts that people compete with others and those who contributes more value to organization and possess more abilities get advancement. As subjective career success is a more complex side of career success which is rooted in many related aspects as life balance, life satisfaction, interpersonal phenomenon human capital variables may not sufficiently influence this construct. So these findings provided evidence for in the support of our related hypotheses.

Table 16 is also showing the relationship between dimensions of career success too. Both indicators of objective career success have shown moderate positive

relationship which indicates that both represent objective career success appropriately. While subjective career success has shown non-significant relationship with both indicators of objective career success which lead us to conclude that both dimensions of career success (i.e., objective and subjective career success) are different and should be dealt separately. Previous findings (Judge et al, 2004; Ng et al., 2005; Tu et al., 2006) suggested some relationship between the two facets of career success but also assumed and treated them differently in analyses. These results let us think that having high salary and getting promotions does not made our sample feel successful in their career.

Regarding personality and career success relationship, among big five personality factors, neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness showed significant relationship with subjective career success. Among these three, extraversion and conscientiousness showed weak but significant relationships. Neuroticism showed weak negative relationship with subjective career success. For objective career success, neuroticism was found to have weak negative relationship with monthly salary while conscientiousness was found to have very weak but significant positive relationship with monthly salary. For number of promotions as indicator of objective career success, only agreeableness showed significant but weak positive relationship.

After computing correlation coefficients between study variables, it was decided to take the significant relationship to regression analyses to test the hypotheses of predictive nature. Human capital variables, demographic variables, personality factors and career beliefs were taken as predictors of objective and subjective career success.

For subjective career success, among demographic variables, only age showed significant relationship. Regression analysis presented in Table 17 shows that age positively predicted subjective career success but explained only .8% variance in subjective career success. Ng et al. (2005) found that age positively associated with objective career success. For subjective career success, it has shown weak but significant relationship. Although previous researches found no relationship between age and subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005; Rasdi, Ismail, & Garavan, 2011) but the present research found very weak but positive relationship. Ng et al. (2005) asserted that as skills, experience and savvies accumulates with age, resultant career success also improves. Albrect (2001) asserted that older employees bring loyalty and experience to the organization and are more contented. McEvoy and Blahna (2001) put forward another reason for higher career satisfaction among older employees and argued that older employees can fulfill a personal need for emotional fulfillment through work by engaging in mentoring and also fulfilling need for being considered as useful.

After demographic variables, personality factors were taken as predictors of subjective career success. For testing hypotheses related to personality and career success relationship (Hypothesis 1-3), big five factors were checked for their predictive strength for career success. Conscientiousness, extraversion and neuroticism were included for regression analysis. When these three were entered one by one to check for their predictive strength, neuroticism lost its predictive strength (see Table 18). Conscientiousness emerged as better predictor of subjective career success as compared to extraversion. In this way, among big five factors of personality, conscientiousness and extraversion stand out as significant predictors of

subjective career success. Although these explain 4.6% variance in subjective career success. These findings supported hypothesis 2 and 3 but did not support hypothesis 1. These findings are in line with previous research evidence (Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge et al., 1999, 2002; Levy et al., 2011; Ng et al., 2005; Siebert & Kraimer, 2001, Sutin et al., 2009). Lounsbury et al. (2007) established that personality dispositions including emotional resilience, optimism and work drive stood as most significant factors predicting subjective career success across 14 occupations. These are much related to the features of extraversion and conscientiousness. While in professionals providing customer services, extraversion and conscientiousness acted as significant predictors of subjective career success. Barrick, Mount, and Judge (2001) in their second-order meta analysis found conscientiousness as a valid predictor across all types of performance measures in all occupations. Reason stated for these relationship is that positive relationship between career success and conscientiousness is linked through achievement orientation of conscientiousness (McCrea & Cost, 1991). For extraversion this association may be explained through the tendency to experience positive moods and more rewarding experiences.

Career beliefs were also checked for their predictive relationship with subjective career success to meet the present research objectives. Results in table 19 showed that both significantly positively predicted and explained 13% variance in subjective career success. Facilitating career beliefs acted as better predictors than career myths but interestingly both contributed positively. The reason behind this relationship can be explained in terms of our cultural norms. As these myths are contributing to employees subjective feeling of career success not the objective one. This shows that we feel more positive about our careers if we are acting in line with

the cultural norms. On the other hand, career myths are negatively related with objective career success, implying that these career myths are handicapping for employees for upward movement in careers but psychologically they are important to feel successful in careers because of being members of collectivistic society. In the same line facilitating career beliefs are again important for subjective career success but not for objective career success. These interesting findings make us to assume that for feeling successful one should have beliefs that help our career growth but within the boundaries of our culture norms but for extrinsic career success career myths act as hindrances.

After subjective career success, a series of regression analyses was conducted for various variables as predictors of objective career success, as two indicators naming monthly salary and number of promotion have been used, so analyses have been done with both indicators. First, monthly salary was regressed for demographic variables which showed significant correlations. Age, gender and marital status were tested step-wise for their predictive strength. All acted as significant contributors when taken at the same time too (see Table 20). When combined, these variables explained 34% variance and age stood out as the most influential predictor. This cluster of variables explained 57% of variance in number of promotions. But for number of promotions, marital status could not act as significant predictor (see Table 24). These finding is in line with previous research evidence (Ng et al., 2005; Rasdi et al., 2011).

After demographic variables, human capital variables were regressed for monthly salary. Years of education and work experience both acted as significant predictors and explained 35% variance in monthly salary (see Table 21). Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge and Piccolo (2008) found positive relationship between education and

salary. Work experience turned out to be better predictor of monthly salary as compared to educational qualification. For number of promotions, educational qualification, work experience and number of working hours all significantly predicted. Collectively, they explained 31% of variance. Work experience acted as stronger predictor as compared to other two human capital variables for number of promotions as well as monthly salary. Experience lends to development of a wide array of skills, abilities, insights, and values that increase individual's capacity for effective functioning in their organizations (De Pater, Van Vianen, Bechtoldt, & Klehe, 2009). So it becomes clear that work experience gets rewarded in terms of salary levels and hierarchical movements in banking and telecom sector. Chen (2007) also found that career tenure significantly predicted compensation. Rasdi et al. (2011) found that human capital and demographic variables are better predictors of objective career success as compared to subjective career success. Ng et al. (2005) had the same findings regarding human capital and career success relationship.

Taking personality factors as predictors of objective career success, results showed that taken alone conscientiousness explained 0.7% variance but when neuroticism was taken in the model conscientiousness lost its predictive strength and neuroticism significantly negatively predicted monthly salary. When taken together, conscientiousness and neuroticism explained 1.5% variance which is very small (see Table 22). For number of promotions, only agreeableness showed positive relationship. When taken to simple regression, it explained only 0.2% variance in number of promotions (see Table 26). It becomes clear that neuroticism negatively influences objective career success while agreeableness positively influences objective career success. Reasons are given in terms of tendency to experience

negative emotions for neurotics which may provide hindrances for better performance. On the other hand, agreeableness is important in jobs having human interactions, considering this these findings can be justified. Over all, these results indicate that personality factors are playing a small role in predicting objective career success as compared to human capital and demographic variables.

In the last career beliefs were taken as predictor of objective career success. For monthly salary career myths acted as negative predictor of monthly salary explaining 1% variance. For number of promotions, career myths also acted as significant negative predictor explaining 0.6% variance (see Table 23). So facilitating career beliefs did not associate significantly with objective career success but career myths negatively affected objective career success. These findings let us assume that possessing higher levels of career myths block objective career success but contributes in subjective career success.

Over all, if we talk about objective career success, human capital and contest mobility theory gets support from the present study which emphasizes the importance of skills, abilities and values which employees bring to organization. These contributions are rewarded by employers resultantly. These findings support hypothesis number 4 which assumed that human capital and demographic variables would be better predictors of objective career success than subjective career success. While for subjective career success, personality factors and cognitive processes play much significant role than demographic and human capital variables. These findings makes sense that as subjective career success is more complex and is more affected by psychological factors and cognitive processes.

Conclusively, the predictors identified in the present research, are very much in line with across culture researches in career success area. Such as Rasdi et al (2011) investigated the predictors of Malaysian's managers' objective and subjective career success. She found out that predictors of subjective and objective career success were different. She investigated human capital, demographic, structural and individual variables as predictors. Among these, objective career success was predicted by human capital and demographic while subjective career success was predicted by individual, structural and demographic variables. Chen (2007) investigated human capital and social capital as predictors of Taiwan employees. The findings revealed that human capital predicted extrinsic but not intrinsic career success. If the findings are compared to the findings of the contrasting culture then it is observed that Boudreau et al. (2001) found in their US employees sample that personality big five factors predicted strongly intrinsic career success as compared to extrinsic career success. While human capital variables turned out to be better predictors of extrinsic career success than intrinsic career success. It can be inferred that for predictors of two facets of career success there is much similarity across cultures and there may be other significant factors influencing these relationships.

One of the objectives of the study was to explore the role of career beliefs between personality and career success relationship. To achieve this objective, career beliefs as mediating variable have been studied. Baron and Kenney (1986) approach has been used. According to their criteria, there were three personality factors which showed significant association with career success and career beliefs. These factors included neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness. First facilitating career

beliefs were studied as mediator and results are given in Table 28. It was seen that when these three factors are entered at the same time, only conscientiousness maintained its predictive association and extraversion and neuroticism could not contribute significantly in the model. When in the next step, facilitating career beliefs were entered, effect of conscientiousness was reduced but the amount of variance explained was increased by .4%. Facilitating career beliefs acted as stronger predictor as compared to conscientious. Further, Sobel test confirmed this as partial mediation. These results make us to conclude that effect of conscientiousness on subjective career success is mediated by facilitating career beliefs as including this variable as predictor increased the explained variance and reduced the effect of conscientiousness.

Similarly, when in separate analysis career myths was explored as mediator between these personality factors and subjective career success, same results were found (see Table 29). Addition of career myths as mediator increased the explained of subjective career success from .4 to 10%. Sobel test confirmed this role as partial mediator. Career myths acted as stronger mediator as compared to facilitating career beliefs. There is no research evidence for this finding. But related constructs like Abele and Spurk (2011) found the evidence that relationship between conscientiousness and objective career success was mediated by career-advancement goals not by occupational self-efficacy. Comparing with finding it can be explained like as for objective career success motivation variables like career related goals may act as mediator but for subjective career success career related beliefs may be more important as subjective feeling of success can be achieved through what one thinks and what one achieves. Hall (2002) asserted that career success is not only affected by

demographic and human capital variables but individual differences are also important. These differences can be further explained in terms of distal and stable variables like personality and more proximal like goals or beliefs.

For objective career success, only agreeableness showed a small but significant positive relationship. Career myths were studied as mediator in this relationship using Baron and Kenney (1982) approach. Results indicated (see Table 30) that career myths acted as strong mediator as after inclusion of this variable, the effect of agreeableness became non-significant and explained variance increased. Sobel test confirmed this as full mediation. Career myths acted as strong negative predictor of number of promotions. Although there is not research evidence for this mediational role, but the finding of agreeableness for having positive association with objective career success was surprising as it was contrary to bulk of research evidence on this relationship. Existing literature (Abele & Spurk, 2011; Boudreau & Roswell, 2001; Ng et al., 2005) found negative relationship between agreeableness and objective career success and non-significant too (Siebert & Kraimer, 2001). Siebert and Kraimer (2001) found that relationship between agreeableness and objective career success was moderated by type of occupation. Barrick et al. (2001) found the positive relationship between agreeableness and objective career success. They stated that in jobs involving human interaction agreeableness might be the single best predictor of job performance. This finding can be understood if we a little bit detail where it can be seen that the relationship between agreeableness and career myths is negative and relationship between career myths and number of promotions is again negative but relationship between agreeableness and number of promotions is positive (see Table 16) . These results can be interpreted in this way that positive relationship

between agreeableness and number of promotions is spurious as it is contrary to existing literature but actually it is because of mediation of career myths. These finding implies that agreeableness at banking and telecom sector makes one having less career myths which results to have higher objective career success.

It was also hypothesized in the study that gender moderates the relationship between human capital variables and career success. Results showed (see Table 31) that there is no moderation of gender between human capital variables and monthly salary. But for number of promotions, gender moderated its relationship between with work experience (see Table 32). Modgraph was used to elaborate this finding. This finding suggests that relationship between education and working hours is no different for the two gender groups but males are more rewarded for promotions on the basis of their work experience but for females this relationship is not much stronger. Ng et al. (2005) found the evidence that gender moderated relationship between organizational tenure and number of promotions. Orser and Leck (2010) also found evidence for moderating role of gender between experience and career success. This may be due to the lack of training and development opportunities preparing them for higher management positions (Russel & Eby, 1993). It is also asserted that human capital variables are better rewarded for men than women (Evers & Sieverding, 2013). Another reason may be women may themselves be not involved in promotion seeking opportunities and processes because of their home roles as promotions also brings lot of responsibilities (Hakim, 2006; Powell & Mainiero, 1992). Ng et al. (2005) asserted that organizations may be more concerned about salary equity for both gender as possible inequity for salary is more tangible indicator of gender discrimination while number of promotions is less visible as compared to monthly salary. This

phenomenon can be explained in terms of glass ceiling effect which is evident in corporate practices and policies for promotions (Oakley, 2000). Due to this reason, despite of having same work experience women may be given less chances for ascendancy in organization. This explanation is strengthened as the sample was from banking and telecom sectors which are non-traditional for women. These findings partially support our related hypothesis.

Considering group differences, gender differences were hypothesized to be present for career success and career beliefs. Comparison of these two groups for these variables showed that there existed significant differences only on objective career success (see Table 33). This finding is very much in line with previous researches (Abele, 2003; Spurk & Abele, 2009; Chenevert & Tremblay, 2002; Greene & DeBacker, 2004; Kirchmeyer, 1998; Li, 2013; Melamed, 1995; Ng et al., 2005). But these differences are only on objective career success, the reason behind this may be the nature of organization. As both banking sector and telecom sector is considered as non-traditional for females in Pakistani society so they are not able to get higher compensation and number of promotions. The same finding was reported by Tang (1997) when she found the same in female scientist and engineers. This difference can also be explained in terms of glass ceiling effect. Nonsignificant differences on subjective career success may be due to this factor that as in the present study it was found that there is no relationship between objective and subjective career success. That is why, being promoted and getting higher level of salary may not bring psychological feeling of success. Cheng (2004) also did not find any gender differences on subjective career success. Abbasi (2012) observed no gender difference on bank employees' life satisfaction (which is also considered as a part of career

success). This non-significant gender difference in career-satisfaction may also be due to shifting standards (Biernat & Billings, 2001) because it is well known that women on average are less successful in their careers so they may set lower standards for their careers. That is why; despite of lower salaries and promotions, they are equally satisfied as their male counterparts. These results partially support our hypothesis regarding gender difference for career success.

Results of the present study did not support the hypothesis regarding gender difference for career beliefs. Although Liu (2003) found that males possessed higher degree of stereotypical beliefs as compared to females. But our findings are not in the same way. Both male and female employees possessed career myths and facilitating career beliefs at the same level.

Differences for married and unmarried employees were also explored for career success and career beliefs. Results (see Table 34) show that married employees experience higher career success (both objective and subjective). Ng et al. (2005) found the same result. While there has not been any difference in career beliefs.

Some other demographics were also explored for their relationship with main study variables. Results showed (see Table 35) employees working on permanent posts experienced higher level of both facets of career success as compared to contractual employees. The reason is the job security brings a sense of stability which may contribute to psychological feeling of career success. Nabi (1999) found that employees having employment security experienced higher levels of subjective career satisfaction. Employees working on contractual posts possessed higher levels of career myths as compared to permanent employees.

Another interesting finding is that employees who feel that they have compatibility between their educational attainments and job experienced higher level of career success as compared to those who do not perceive this compatibility (see Table 36). The reason seems obvious that when one performs a job for which that person has been trained in educational life, one possess higher level of skills and abilities that is rewarded by organization in terms of salary and promotions. This is reflection of person-job fit paradigm. This compatibility also brings a psychological feeling of congruence and leads to subjective career success.

Whether receiving professional trainings makes a difference for career success and career beliefs was also explored. This factor only created difference for number of promotions (see Table 37). It again confirms human capital variables as professional trainings add up to the value of employee for organization which may help one to get more promotions. Another related factor was whether willingness to be transferred to other location creates difference for career success and career beliefs. Comparison of groups on their willingness and non willingness showed that willing employees got more promotions but non-willing employees experience subjective career success. This finding may be different if it is studied in organizations where relocation of employees is facilitated and added fringe benefits are offered. This is again in support of human contest model of career success. Interesting finding is this that employees who were not willing to be transferred possessed higher levels of career myths.

Employees living in joint family were compared on study variables with employees living in nuclear family system. Findings showed non-significant differences. Another related comparison was between groups of employees having

and not having employed spouse. Results showed that employees having employed spouse got higher career success (both objective and subjective).

Some demographics related to nature of organizations from where the sample of the study had been drawn were also investigated for their relation with study variables. As the sample included employees from banking sector and telecom sector, these two groups were compared and the results showed that employees working in banking sector experience higher objective career success as they got higher salaries as compared to telecom sector. Employees in the sample were taken from government, semi-government and private organizations. These employees were compared through ANOVA with post hoc test (see Table 42). The results were quite interesting as they exhibited that employees working in semi-government organizations experienced higher objective career success as compared to employees from other two types of organization. Tremblay et al (2007) found non-significant differences in objective career success for public and private sector employees. Government employees experienced higher level of subjective career success and possessed higher levels of career myths as compared to other groups. In Pakistan, working in government sector organization brings a profound sense of subjective feeling of career success because of job stability. Tremblay et al. (2007) found that public sector employees experienced higher subjective career success as compared to private sector employees. Nabi (1999) found employment security significantly related to subjective career success. It is also a fact that salary levels of semi-government organizations are much better that is why their employees experience higher objective career success.

Summarizing the findings of the present study, it can be stated that an employee experiencing higher objective career success is one who is male, married, well educated, well experienced, working on permanent jobs, receive professional training, perceive compatibility between one's educational qualification and career, is willing to be transferred, working in banks from semi-government sector, have high levels of agreeableness and low levels of career myths. An employee experiencing high levels of subjective career success is one who is married, well-experienced, perceive compatibility between educational attainment and career, is not willing to be transferred, working in government organization and possess higher levels of conscientiousness, extraversion and has high levels of facilitating career beliefs as well as career myths. While drawing these interpretations, one should keep this thing in mind that the sample taken in the present study is only from banking and telecom sectors which are non-traditional for women. So these interpretations have low external generalizability for interpreting characteristics of a successful person in career overall.

Conclusion

The study was conducted to explore career beliefs and their role on personality-career success relationship. The study revealed that newly developed Career Beliefs Scale is a valid and reliable instrument for assessing career beliefs of the respondents. The study found that career beliefs are strongly related with big five personality factors and with career success too. For objective career success, human capital and demographic variables are stronger predictors as compared to personality

and career beliefs. While for subjective career success, career beliefs and personality factors are better predictors as compared to human capital and demographic variables. The study also concludes that career beliefs mediate the relationship between personality factors and subjective career success. Gender has found to moderate the relationship between human capital and objective career success.

Limitations and Suggestions

Like all others, this study has many limitations which should be taken care in future studies. First, all the data used in present study is self-reported which might have brought validity issues in this study. Future studies should utilize multiple methods to improve the validity of the results.

Secondly, the cross-sectional design of the study limits the conclusions that can be drawn about the causality. For causality nature of relationships, other related research designs that may involve multiple studies can be attempted in the future.

Sample was taken only from two service providing sectors including banking and telecom sectors. This is strength and limitation at the same time. This factor increased internal validity of the results but lessened its external validity. Future researches can include multiple sectors like manufacturing and others to compare these variables across the organizational sectors.

Sample of the present study only involved employees holding jobs having human interaction as dominant part. This is again strength of study too to control the variation of jobs held. Future researches may compare studied variables for jobs involving and not involving human interaction.

NEO-FFI used for assessing big five traits posited psychometric problems. Future researches may focus on the problematic items in depth.

Only exploratory factor analysis of newly developed Career Beliefs Scale was conducted. Future studies need to replicate the factor structure of this instrument. Furthermore, Career Beliefs Scale can be translated in English language to improve its utility for English speaking population.

Career beliefs of employed adults were only investigated in the present study. Future researches should validate this instrument for student population because of the significance of career counseling needs for the particular group.

For assessing subjective career success in the current study only one indicator i.e. career satisfaction has been used. Latest researches are making use of other related indicators as life satisfaction; work-life balance etc. Future investigations should make use of multiple indicators for subjective career success too.

Implications

The study has many theoretical as well as applied contributions. It provides an indigenously developed instrument for assessing career beliefs. This instrument can be helpful for research purposes as well as career counseling process. This study gives an optimistic picture about personal cognitive process as career beliefs served as better predictor of subjective career success. In order to intervene effectively for career development programs it provides the base that career beliefs can be the starting point. Given the limited research in this area, further research is needed to validate these findings in future.

This study has implications for the community and families too. As career beliefs are learned through many sources, thus, parental role and society need to gauge which career beliefs they are providing to the children.

Findings of the study are helpful for the employers and employees too. Banking and telecom sector employees can utilize these findings to understand that what leads to career success. Human resources practitioners can know what human capital, demographic and personal factors are more beneficial for their organizations. This knowledge can develop their insight for better human resource processes like selection, training, development, placement and compensation.

Last but not the least, this study contributes to the field of career counseling field. Career beliefs can be tapped and clients can be made aware of their belief system affecting their career development process especially in the recent global economic recession. Furthermore, cultural sensitivity on the part of counselors is recommended as career beliefs related to sex stereotypes contribute to explain subjective career success in the sample of the study while previous researches linked such beliefs to lower career success.

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