

**A STUDY ON CAREER RE-ENTRY FACTORS IMPACTING
CAREER SUCCESS OF WOMAN PROFESSIONALS**

Thesis Submitted to
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For the Award of the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Under the Faculty of Social Sciences

By

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Under the Supervision of

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Certificate

Certified that this thesis titled “**A Study on Career Re-Entry Factors Impacting Career Success of Woman Professionals**” submitted to Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi, for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences, is a record of bonafide research done by Ms. Saleena M. under my supervision and guidance in the School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi-22. This work did not form part of any dissertation submitted for the award of any Degree, Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship or other similar title or recognition from this or any other institution. Also, certified that this thesis was verified for plagiarism using the CUSAT facility and found satisfactory. All the relevant corrections and modifications suggested by the audience during the pre-submission seminar and recommended by the Doctoral Committee have been incorporated in the thesis.

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Declaration

I, Saleena M., hereby declare that this thesis titled “**A Study on Career Re-Entry Factors Impacting Career Success of Woman Professionals**” submitted to Cochin University of Science and Technology, for award of Ph.D. Degree under the Faculty of Social Sciences, is the outcome of the original research work done by me under the supervision and guidance of Dr. D. Mavoothu, Professor, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology. I also declare that this work did not form part of any dissertation submitted for the award of any Degree, Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship or other similar title or recognition from this or any other institution.

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Dedicated to My Parents

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

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	1.7 <i>Organization of the Thesis</i>

This chapter tries to provide an introduction to the topic of the research. It brings out an over view of Indian Corporate sector: Nature and growth, woman labour participation in India and participation of woman in Indian corporate sector. Apart from these, it explains the relevance of the study, the objectives and expected contribution of the research. Organization of the thesis is the last part of this chapter.

1.1 Introduction

The role of women in the twentieth century experienced a radical transformation throughout most Western societies. But, in India it has undergone substantial changes only in the last twenty five years. The country has experienced rapid economic growth, structural shifts in the economy accompanied by high rates of urbanisation and an increase in educational attainment levels. Women employment participation has transformed dramatically in recent years. In the Indian socio-cultural environment, a woman is expected to carry out her commitments towards the various social roles she dons. A major cause for the increased participation of women in workforce is the re-entry of married women into the workforce. Women today are better educated and holding more jobs worldwide. Companies and enterprises have started to recognize the unique characteristics, attitudes, behaviours and managerial styles that women bring to the professional world and which are different from that of men. Management Gurus claim to be revaluing the feminine ‘soft skills’ as qualities necessary for corporate success. Part of the reason for this change in attitude is the movement of global competitiveness.

For women to be working as an executive is really a challenge to them in India. They have to manage and balance both their professional and personal roles simultaneously that might force them to take break in their career. Women go on a career break for various reasons such as motherhood, husband’s job re-location, marriage and job re-location, higher education, dependent care, job loss, unsuitable job environment or personal illness. The lack of flexibility, the inability to make an impact, and the limited opportunities for developments are other reasons they take that “step out”. As women increasingly combine motherhood and employment, they face both penalties and costs,

particularly on their re-entry into employment after a child-related career break. In the analysis between a corporate position with limited impact and the potential impact a woman can make with her family or community, many women executives and professionals revealed that the corporate role has too high of a price. Consequently, they contemplate how and when they will take a step out from their jobs. Although some never plan to return, many women do plan to get back into the corporate game and to re-engage as soon as possible, especially once they have some distance from their day-to-day demands. When on a career break, these women often feel disconnected from the labour market and from the sector and that their career break contributes to a knowledge gap and reduced confidence levels, loss of self-efficacy and a loss of opportunities to network; thus the longer break will lead to a greater impact in their career, particularly in re-entry.

After a break from the workforce, women re-enter to the work for several reasons, such as desire for intellectual challenge, an eagerness to return to the stimulation of the business environment, and economic necessity. Women returnees usually face quite a lot of difficulties in order to return. Despite their apparently realistic expectations, highly qualified women reported feeling frustrated and depressed as a result of their re-entry experiences. Employers discriminate against women who interrupt their own careers: a “family penalty” may exist because marriage and family are associated with interrupted careers for working and employers might regard career breaks as periods during which a person's human capital stagnates.

In spite of making significant enhancement in all the areas relating to women's career development, still there are crucial problems in it, one such a crucial problem is career re-entry. The review of literature reveals that though

extensive researches have been done on the career breaks and career re-entry of woman professionals in Western societies, the same is still in its nascent stage in the Indian context. The previous researchers in India have not much enthused to convey the existent issues experienced by the woman professionals, especially in the career re-entry and their career success. Recognizing the pitfalls can be of enormous help to the woman professionals as it might help them to take proactive measures to sustain their careers.

The present research is an attempt to enhance the understanding of the real factors impacting the career re-entry of woman professionals in their career trajectories. This research attempts to study the proactive measures for the re-entry of woman professionals and explain its relationship to enhance their career success.

1.2 An Overview of Indian Corporate Sector and Women Participation

1.2.1 Women Labour Participation in India

Woman workforce constitutes an integral part of total workforce in India. The participation of women in the labour force has always been inferior to that of men, in the rural as well as urban areas. The work participation rate for women has increased significantly. In 1981, work participation rate for women was only 19.67% which increased up to 22.73% in 1991, 26.68% in 2001 and 42% in 2010. In the women workforce, women from rural areas are greater in number as compared to the urban women.

Only 18% of the women are part of organized sector. And only 20 % of these are employed in urban areas. In India, female participation in the workforce is 42%, the female workers in urban India are 20%, and enrolment

in higher education is 40% as per 2010. The women employment participation in private companies is 23%, women in IT companies are 25 % and women participation in BPO companies are 50% (Karine Schomer 2010).

As per Census 2011, workers constituted 39.79% of total population whereas the ratios of woman workers are 25.52%. At India level the percentage share of woman as cultivators, agricultural labourers, workers in the household industry and other workers stood at 24.92%, 18.56%, 2.95% and 47.2% respectively. The percentage of woman workers to total female population stood at 25.5% which shows an increase in the 14.68% reported in 2001. Work participation rate of woman workers in rural areas stood at 30.0% which is higher compared to the urban areas. Amongst rural women workers, a majority is working in agriculture and some are employed in cottage industries. In the urban areas, woman workers are primarily employed in the unorganized sectors. Educated woman at the end of 2004 accounted for 25.8 % of the total educated job-seekers but, during the year 2011, proportion of educated woman job-seekers to the total women in the live register was reported at 85.3%. Among major states, Tamil Nadu reported the highest number of woman job-seekers (540.0 thousand) followed by Kerala (264.6 thousand) whereas, the lowest number was reported from Arunachal Pradesh (3.4%). As on 31st March, 2004, there were about 49.34 lakhs woman workers employed in the organized sector and in 2010 it has increased to 18% of total career participation in organized sector. As far as industries are concerned, in 2005, the manufacturing industry faced a dip of 1.1 % in women employment. On the other hand, other industries showed an increase in women employment, especially the IT sector. Woman labour participation is a driver of growth and therefore, the participation rates indicate the potential for a country to grow more steadily.

1.2.2 Participation of Woman Professionals in Indian Corporate

The Indian corporate sector has wide opened its doors of opportunities to competent woman professionals over the span of the last two decades. It has not been very long since the terms, “women” and “careers” came to be associated, in the Indian context. With India’s efforts in bridging the gap between educational attainments of both the genders, tasting success, the future does hold a lot of promise for woman professionals. Around 42% of university graduates in India are women. Across industries as diverse as banking to IT, the entry level Indian workforce does justice to the theme of gender diversity with women having proved their professional prowess. However, if one is to scan the levels of the Indian corporate hierarchy, a disappointing realization is that the proportion of women adorning senior positions is a meagre at 5%.

Only 5% of working women in India make it to senior leadership positions in the corporate sector, compared to the global average of 20%. The study revealed that in India, women's strength in the labour force stands at 28 % at the junior level, 14.91% at the middle level and 9.32 % at the senior level. From being the lowest in the list of overall women's participation in the workforce, India ranks at the top in the dropout rate as well. Forty eight percentages of Indian women abort their careers midway. Indian women drop out of the workforce much early in their career compared to their counterparts in other Asian countries. India is once again the worst performer in this regard, with 48% of women dropping out between the junior and middle level. The primary reasons often mentioned for the high dropout rate have been child care and family responsibilities, including care for the elderly. Though the initial career phases are relatively smooth for a woman, it is after she enters the institution of marriage that balancing home and work begin to take a toll on her.

Women often succumb to the 'daughterly guilt' where they take upon themselves the responsibility for the care of elders in the family and are thus forced to push their careers behind as 'secondary'. Many such women decide to abort their careers midway in the absence of support systems that could have helped sustain their careers. After meeting their family commitments, many women determined to get back to the career, but the re-entry experiences are not favourable for those women (McGrath et al., 2005). The employers discriminate them due to the depreciation of their human capital in the form of skill obsolescence, knowledge gap and reduced confidence level, etc (Herkelman, 1993; Panteli,2012; Lovejoy et al., 2011). The proper support system could have helped them to manage their career success. But, the employers underestimate the support women returning to the career need. The women who are looking for a job should also take some initiatives voluntarily to get back to the workforce and should adopt proper measures/strategies to achieve and maintain their career success.

1.3 Research Questions

1. In the context of career re-entry, are woman professionals really facing problems and struggling to manage their career success?
2. Which are the factors that affect the career success of re-entered woman professionals in Indian context?
3. To what extent the individual concerned (the re-entered woman) responsible in managing her own career?
4. How the various factors dynamically affect the overall career success of re-entered woman professionals?

1.4 Relevance of the Study

The re-entry of women into workforce has been a topic of interest to researchers since the late 1960s. A major ground of the increased participation of women in workforce has been the re-entry of married women into the career. After a career break, many women want to re-enter for various reasons. At the time of re-entry they face quite a lot of problems. It has been noted that women's re-entry into the workforce has been showing signs of more complex as a result of the multiple problems that re-entered women encounter when they return. Career re-entry is very difficult especially in the technology world. As technology changes very fast, the skills may become obsolete. Albeit, the ecosystem for women career re-entry is improving day by day.

Regardless of making significant improvements in all the areas relating to women's career and development, there are severe problems experienced by the woman professionals in post re-entry. Not many studies are available in this context of career success of re-entered woman professionals in India, hence, a lot more studies require in this area.

In the present study, the researcher has attempted to study the factors impacting career success of re-entered woman professionals. Study covers the career success of re-entered women by jointly assessing the career satisfaction and perceived employability of the re-entered woman professionals. Study identified various factors which affect the post re-entry of woman professionals. Study also covers the relationship between these career re-entry factors and career management behaviours of the re-entered women. Hence, the study analyses the effect of proactive measures (career management behaviours) in enhancing the career success of re-entered woman professionals

and providing a comprehensive outcome of the same. This study refers to the present scenario for the concepts included, and is geographically confined to South India.

1.5 Objectives of Research

- 1) The primary objective of this present research is to study the factors impacting career success of re-entered woman professionals.
- 2) To study the relationship between the career re-entry factors and the career management behaviours of woman professionals.
- 3) To study the relationship between career management behaviours and career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) of woman professionals.
- 4) To study the mediating effect of career management behaviours in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career success of woman professionals.
- 5) To make socio-demographic profile of the re-entered woman professionals.
- 6) To know the various reasons for career break and career re-entry of woman professionals and also to know the major challenges faced by them in re-entry and factors supported for the same.

1.6 Expected Contribution of the Research

The study, by analyzing the factors impacting career success of re-entered woman professionals, hopes to make a significant contribution to the existing body of knowledge in career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) of re-entered woman professionals. By assessing the various factors which affect the post re-entry of woman professionals and also by analysing the relationship between these factors and career management behaviours will contribute to advance the current understanding of the concepts in the present scenario. By responding to the need for a more systematic and critical examination of the factors impacting career satisfaction and perceived employability of re-entered woman professionals, the research will be able to provide more insight into the nature of career success of the woman professionals after their re-entry. The study, by explaining the significance of proactive measures like career management behaviours can be of enormous support to the woman professionals as it might help them to take proactive measures to sustain their careers and achieve career success. The empirical findings may lay a broad framework and solid foundation for future inquiry that would advance our understanding of the career success of re-entered woman professionals.

1.7 Organization of the Thesis

The factors impacting career success of re-entered woman professionals in this context is the main subject matter of the present research. The various factors which affect the post re-entry of woman professionals and the relationship between these factors and career management behaviours also analysed. The basic ground of the conceptualization of the research is that career re-entry factors influence woman professionals to internalize individual

career management behaviours/proactive behaviours. Adopting these behaviours in turn, lead to enhancement of their career success in terms of enhanced career satisfaction as well as perceived employability. Conceptualization of the model is derived from the extensive research and the conceptual model thus developed is tested for empirical validity by using the statistical method Warp-PLS Structural Equation Modelling.

The thesis is organized into 7 chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction: This chapter attempts to introduce the research topic, an overview of Indian corporate sector and woman participation, research questions, relevance of the study, objective of the research, expected contribution of the research and organization of the thesis.

Chapter-2: Review of Literature and the Conceptual Focus of the Study: Existing literature on career break and career re-entry, factors impacting re-entry, career management behaviours and subjective career success are reviewed extensively. This chapter also explained the conceptual focus of the study in detail.

Chapter-3: Research Methodology: Chapter begins with the rationale of the study followed by the statement of the problem. The chapter presents the objectives, definitions of the variables and hypotheses. The research method used for the present research and the measurement instrument used, method for data collection and sampling are also explained in detail.

Chapter-4: Data Collection, Reliability and Validity Analysis: The data collection records, analysis of socio-demographic features of the respondents and Reliability and Validity analysis of the measures used in the study are also presented in the chapter.

Chapter-5: Hypotheses Testing and Model Analysis: The testing of hypotheses, conceptual model analysis, measurement model analysis and the structural model analysis are reported in this chapter.

Chapter-6: Discussion of Findings: Summary of findings and discussion of findings are detailed in this chapter.

Chapter-7: Summary and Conclusion: This chapter provides the summary of research, theoretical and managerial implications of the study, limitations and the scope for future research.

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LITERATURE REVIEW & CONCEPTUAL FOCUS

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The chapter presents a detailed review of the existing literature on the issues and variables that form the focus of the research. The existing literature on career breaks and career re-entry of woman professionals are reviewed in detail. The five factors of career re-entry, career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals and career success: career satisfaction and perceived employability are the topics of the discussion of the present chapter. All the above aspects of the study are systematically discussed in this chapter. The chapter also presents the conceptual focus of the study in detail. The relationship between the constructs are reviewed and discussed comprehensively as a basis for the hypotheses developed which are presented in this chapter.

2.1 Introduction

Working women compose a large proportion of the workforce today. Interestingly, the attitude of society towards working women is also rapidly changing. There is a definite difference between woman executive and women who are not working. Woman professionals have to manage and balance their personal and professional life; as a result, they need to take a career break. The lack of flexibility, the inability to make an impact, and the limited opportunities for development are other reasons they take the career break. Career re-entry into the corporate is a dynamic process in which the re-entered women experience problems. It has been noted that women's return or re-entry into the workforce has been showing signs of becoming more complex as a result of the multiple problems that re-entry women encounter when they return to the job market after a period of absence. As women increasingly combine motherhood and employment, they face penalties, especially on their re-entry into the workforce after a child-related career break. Women who re-enter the profession report on conflicts and emotional distress about their roles and about self and interpersonal dissatisfaction.

After a hiatus from the workforce, women return to work for various reasons, such as desire for intellectual challenge, a keenness to return to the business environment, and for a financial necessity. Women transitioning back to work will often begin by working part-time, but lack of opportunity to make a valued contribution or to be considered for truly meaningful assignments, as well as ineligibility for benefits, eventually cause many to seek a full-time role. Understanding the research regarding re-entry women is an important step towards comprehending the reality of re-entered women.

The following session presents the detailed review of the career break and re-entry of the woman professionals. The five career re-entry factors, career management behaviours and career success of re-entry women professionals are reviewed in the successive sessions.

2.2 Career Break of Woman Professionals

“A career break is a period of time where an employee is not working for very specific reasons” (Institute of Physics, 2004). According to Rothwell (1980), this pattern includes an “in-and-out” period while children are young, followed by a part-time period, and eventually a return to full-time employment when the children grow up. Women are either pushed or pulled into the gap or enter to the break. Women are pulled into the gap seeking fewer work-related responsibilities and flexible work hours as they address their family needs - be they raising children, accommodating spouses' careers or caring for elderly family members. Women are also pushed away when they determine that their job is not satisfying or that advancement seems unattainable. Women have not enjoyed a good status in workplace settings either in managerial role or operative role if they have taken a career break (Arun et al., 2004).

Women who interrupt their careers experience downward mobility in salary and status. This is a function of employer discontinuity; career redirection towards lower status, lower paid sectors of the economy and part-time work; and skill obsolescence and the deterioration of human capital and productivity (Lovejoy et al., 2011). Career breaks contribute towards lower earnings growth. Many employers hold negative and stereotyped beliefs about women that married women or women with children are less committed to their work and their organizations (Herkelman et al., 1993). Furthermore, a woman may

see her career as supplementary (and therefore secondary) to her primary role in the family (Greyvenstein, 2000). Discrimination with regard to age is also seen as a significant problem (Lemmer, 1990). Recent studies show that discrimination on the basis of age is the single largest discrimination in the modern world.

As women increasingly combine motherhood and employment, they face both penalties and cost, particularly if they have taken career break in order to care of their young ones. The general labour market failure that penalizes motherhood should be addressed by the relevant measures related to their income, working hours, and the type and status of employment, particularly on their re-entry into employment and after a child-related career break (Arun et al., 2004).

In support of the above, Sainsbury (1996) and McDonald (2000) say, women who interrupt or restrict their careers due to childcare can face various problems such as depreciation of their human capital, loss of work opportunities, and risk of slower career progress.

Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) discuss explanations for opt-out revolution, and posits an alternate explanation of the kaleioscope career model that fits workers' concerns for authenticity, balance, challenge and the demands of their careers. In particular the kaleidoscope model fits women's careers as well as a means of understanding how women operate relationally to others in both work and non-work realms. Result shows that women shift the pattern of their careers by rotating different aspects in their lives to arrange their roles and relationships in new ways. Many women leave work to care for family, not all women are leaving corporations for that reason alone. Research has indicated

that women's turnover intentions were not predicted by family structure. Women reported they were leaving for the same reasons as male managers: lack of career opportunities in their company and other work-related predictors of turnover, such as job dissatisfaction and low organizational commitment. Women make career decisions based on a complex and inter-related set of factors, including job challenge and opportunities for advancement. While work/life programs are beginning, they must be coupled with challenging jobs and advancement opportunities for women.

Significant research concerning the re-entry of women into the workforce has been done in the United States (Dyer et al., 1991; Fagan and Williams, 1991; Padula, 1994). The Population of re-entry women was diverse and heterogeneous: they varied in age, marital status and socio-economic background. Today's women re-entering a profession could also be described as having multiple roles and responsibilities as family members, parents, community members, workers and students. They are having multiple roles and responsibilities. Almost all types of women are taking career break and willing to spend their life to meet their family requirements. Most of them are taking break with an intention of coming back to their work (Fagan and Williams, 1991).

The majority studies have measured the impact of career breaks despite of their type or rationale (Spivey, 2005), or only distinguishing between specific types of family leaves (e.g. household time, birth leave, parental leave) and/or unemployment spells (Albrecht et al., 1999; Gupta et al., 2002; Arun et al., 2004). Little research on career breaks investigates the impact of educational leaves separately. Some studies exclude people who interrupted their careers for educational reasons from their samples. However, generally

studies do not mention how they treat educational leaves (e.g. Arun et al., 2004; Gupta et al., 2002) or even join educational breaks with other types of breaks into one variable. Studies taking break duration into account, Albrecht et al. (1999) invariably observe a positive correlation between duration and wage penalty; the longer the interruption, the lower the subsequent wage. Studies examining curvilinear effects of career breaks (Baum, 2002; Spivey, 2005) observed a convex function. This implies that the subsequent wage weakens as the duration of the spell increases.

Women most often step out in order to care for children and enhance the quality of their lives. Women step out of the workforce to seek a more manageable balance in their lives. They want to be able to meet the multiple demands of work and family, and they want to do it as well. Actually women stay out longer than they anticipated. When women first step out, they feel energized and positive, yet when they attempt to return, they find the experience negative and depressing (McGrath et al., 2005).

Hewlett (2007) found that most career breaks were a result of complex interactions between ‘pull factors’ (centred within the family) and ‘push factors’ (centred at work). 45% of the participants in Hewlett’s study found that childcare can often be the trigger, though it could be an elder care issue (which often happens in a crisis rather than a planned situation) for those in the so called ‘sandwich generation’ (aged 41-55). But, 29% of the women in Hewlett’s sample took a break because their career was not satisfying: being under-appreciated or not gaining promotion was more frequent than being overworked.

Average occupational prestige of women's careers is lower for women who take a break from work than for those who work continuously. Women expecting to leave the labour force tend to choose lower-prestige occupations in anticipation of future career interruptions. Women who left their previous jobs for family-related reasons have less-prestigious jobs than women who quit their previous jobs for other reasons. Women decide to hold lower-prestige jobs prior to any career interruptions (Malo and Munoz-Bullon 2008).

Career breaks have been found to restrict career development, showed that career breaks are more imposing on career development, which make less the durable knowledge one has (Panteli, 2012). There are barriers that make it difficult to move across organizations, especially if time is taken off between jobs. Mid-career women were most interested in finding balance in their lives and the desire for authenticity increased across the lifespan (Cabrera, 2007).

When on a career break, these women who are looking for career re-entry often feel disconnected from the labour market and from the sector and moreover it contributes to a knowledge gap and reduced confidence levels. For this, engaging them in intervention programmes may not be sufficient for their return to employment, it is nevertheless expected to be an important step in their return-to-work journey. Intervention programmes are important in improving women's position in the IT sector, recognizing their potentials to act as a bridge for the transfer of knowledge (Panteli, 2012). In addition, the expectation that ICT workers should constantly update their skills means that being a returner might only be a short term barrier, which could be overcome by undertaking appropriate training courses. The location of ICT

companies is often cited as a barrier. However, rather than being employed by major multinational companies, in fact most ICT workers are employed by small and medium size enterprises (Marshall, 2010).

As women increasingly combine motherhood and employment, they face both penalties and cost, particularly if they have taken career break in order to care of their young (Arun et al., 2004). The numbers of working women have increased; the pattern of their labour force participation has remained relatively stable. The rise in activity rates, at least up to age 30, is the result of more women entering and re-entering the labour force, rather than of the more continuous employment of a relatively steady proportion of women. If family responsibilities were as determining as is generally said in the decision to stop working, the career profiles of the younger women would be much more continuous than those of their predecessors: the fertility decline, particularly among the under-30s, has theoretically reduced the responsibilities of motherhood (Kempeneers, 1992).

Childbearing is very likely to create career interruptions for married women. Prior labour market experience has a positive effect on the probability of return that diminishes in size as the career interruption progresses, additional children cause the hazard rate to rise more rapidly (fall more slowly), remaining employed late into pregnancy is a very strong indicator of post childbirth employment decisions, education has very little effect on the length of the career interruption following childbirth (Even, 1987).

Motherhood has a regressively detrimental effect on women's career progression. This suggests that the noble act of childbirth of woman professionals victimizing their career and career progression. This is a simplistic term which covers a more complex process related to the age of dependent children,

working hours and career breaks. The degree of women's restricted career progression is directly related to the school age of the dependent children: the younger the child the greater the detrimental impact (McIntosh et al., 2012).

The patterns of career interruptions due to childcare and their perception by women have changed over time depending on the institutional and legal context, and that the fall of the socialist regime had a significant impact on both behaviour and perceptions of Czech mothers (Valentova, 2009).

For women with young children, or those with other caring commitments such as for elderly relatives, there are often constraints on mobility and hours of work. The technology sector in particular has a reputation for its 'long hours culture' (Thomson, 2009). Although flexible work is possible and prevalent, it is difficult to find a job that is advertised as part time (Panteli, 2006); consequently, many returners seek and find ICT employment opportunities within other sectors, such as health or education, where the working norms are more easily combined with family care. Nevertheless this is often lowering skilled and lower paid than the work they did before their career break. In addition to early motherhood, mid-career is a point at which women's attrition rates rise due to issues such as isolation, mysterious career paths, hostile macho cultures, and systems of risk and reward and extreme work pressures (Hewlett et. al, 2008). For older women, there are barriers related to their age; indeed ageism was often mentioned as a reason for leaving the sector, with the prevailing culture dominated by young men (Marshall, 2010). Recruitment practices in the corporate sector make it hard for returners of any age. Many

companies use recruitment agencies that automatically screen out those without recent work experience (King et al., 2005).

Dex et al. (1996) uses the 1958 National Child Development Study cohort to model employment transitions around childbearing. They find that education is the main factor that secures women's job continuity after motherhood. It seems that higher the educational level, the chance of getting re-entry may be high. So, the highly qualified women may face lesser career re-entry barriers.

Working women continue to assume the primary responsibility for familial tasks (e.g. childcare), and most erudition on women's labour force participation shows that with the birth of a child, many women still drop out of the labour market, while some return to employment at a later stage. It may be important for organizations that employ and wish to retain highly qualified women to know how professional women integrate motherhood and career breaks into their working lives. Organizations will have to accommodate women who wish to take career breaks, in order to make maximum use of training and development invested in them. The nature of women's activities during their career break may be crucial in their ability to re-enter the labour market. The longer the career breaks, greater the likelihood that knowledge will become outdated and skills will deteriorate, thus adversely affecting women's opportunities for re-entry. Noted economist Paul Krugman (2013) says that long- term unemployment leads to unemployability. This may be true in the case of potential re-entry women too. Staying longer for re-entry weakens their employability.

2.3 Career Re- entry of Woman Professionals

An individual in a career re-entry mode is generally someone who has voluntarily or involuntarily taken time off from the workforce completely and now desires to once again engage in full-time employment. There is a group of individuals who previously left the corporate workforce and are now highly motivated to return. These are highly motivated and well qualified individuals with work experience. Woman professionals are much more likely than their male counterparts to interrupt their careers.

The term ‘woman returners’ has been used in the UK, certainly since the 1970s, to describe women coming back into paid work after spending a significant number of years raising children. In general, subsequent usage of this term has been to describe those women who have been absent from the labour market for a period of time and not those who take maternity leave and return to their previous jobs (Clem et al., 2010). Women who have taken maternity leave and come back to the same employer have different, although associated, issues. For them, getting back into the labour market is not the primary problem, but their career progression can often be hampered by even short periods of leave and subsequent part-time working. This may result in them leaving employment at a later stage, and not only immediately after the birth of their first child but also after every childbirth (Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), 2004; Hewlett, 2007; Herman, 2009).

Dex (1984) has categorized the sort of re-entry women: Women who return their career after all their children are born; or return their career between births but not after every childbirth; or they return their career after every childbirth. Women who have children but do not take any break in their career are called family formation continuous workers. McGrath et al., (2005)

reported that actually women stay out longer than they anticipated. When women first step out, they feel energized and positive, yet when they attempt to return, they find the experience negative and depressing. This may be due to over estimation of their self-confidence and too much optimism about the future environment in the organization/industries/economy. Women who re-enter the workforce are joining smaller companies. This may be by design or default. But most likely for the former reason in the sense that they tried medium or large company, but could not make it. Women who return to the workforce might shift industries and functional roles. This may be due to indulge in new interest and new areas or they made change due to the discomfort environment of their past industries or they may change due to the lack of career prospects for advancement. However, McGrath et al. (2005) reports that IT /ICT industries gained more as per the trend because more women are re-entered to these industries. The re-entered women shift their functional role as they may prefer to accept lower or comparable responsibilities. Higher positions always demand more responsibilities but the re-entered women choose manageable roles for balancing their both worlds.

Fagan and Williams (1991) reported that the population of re-entry women was diverse and heterogeneous: they varied in age, marital status, and socio-economic background. Women returnees usually face quite a lot of difficulties in order to return. A “family penalty” may exist because marriage and family are associated with interrupted careers for working and employers might regard career breaks as periods during which a person's human capital stagnates. Women have not enjoyed a good status in workplace settings whether in managerial or operative roles if they have taken a career break. Indirectly, it means discounting the value of their human capital. In the

analysis between a corporate position with limited impact and the potential impact a woman can make with her family or community, many women executives and professionals revealed that the corporate role has too high of a price. Consequently, they contemplate how and when they will take a step out from their jobs. But, indirectly it shows that the higher value of family commitments. No price can be attached to the reasons for career break. The career penalty can be measured quantitatively, but the qualitative benefits of career breaks may be immeasurable. So, the career break and career re-entry must be seen in relative term and not in absolute terms. Although some never plan to return, many women do plan to get back into the corporate game and to re-engage themselves as soon as possible, especially once they have some distance from their day-to-day demands, for which they have taken their career breaks. Career break and re-entry show that woman professionals can be successful in both the worlds.

Empirical research on the re-entry of woman professionals yet to be expanded, but the existing studies suggest that recent cohorts of educated women may indeed face considerable impediments to restarting their careers as well as penalties after re-entry. Hewlett and Luce (2005) conducted a national study of both off-ramping (synonymous with opting out) as well as on-ramping (referring to the resumption of work either with the same or different employer following a career break). They found that majority of the highly qualified professional women who had taken time out from their careers sought to return. Similarly, another study of 130 professional and managerial women by McGrath et al. (2005) found that, despite their apparently realistic expectations, these highly qualified women reported feeling frustrated and depressed as a result of their re-entry experiences. The

three primary obstacles they faced were a need for updated skills, the amount of time away from the job, and being older. So, it is explicit that skill up-gradation is must for re-entry woman. The industries like sports, especially in Tennis, there are many woman professionals who have managed to successfully combine the worlds of motherhood and profession. For instance, Kim Clijsters, the famous tennis player who retired from the team to have a family but she made “The Mother of all Comebacks” when she won the 2009 US Open a couple of years after retiring just 16 months after giving birth to her Kid. It clearly shows that if they come back strong with all their talents everyone forgets they were ever away in the field, their high performance always count.

Lovejoy et al. (2011) reported that the most remarkable and recurring findings in career return among women professionals is that women undergo a substantial shift in their career orientation and preferences after a career break, often redirecting away from former employers and careers (Hewlett and Luce, 2005; McGrath et al., 2005; Shaw and Taylor, 1999). Only 5 % of the highly qualified women in Hewlett and Luce (2005)’s nationally representative sample wanted to return to their former employers after a career break, and over half (54%) wished to change their profession or field. A total of 61 % of the women in McGrath et al. (2005)’s study changed industries and 54 % changed functional roles. Similarly, Shaw and Taylor’s study (1999) on the re-entry trajectories of professional women who had attended a professional updating course found that over half shifted to new(other than the former) professions, despite the fact that the course was specifically designed only to refresh skills in their former professions not to retrain them for new fields. This emphasises the importance and relevance of update training of any sort. Update training may give psychological confidence more than the domain confidence.

Women who returned to work reported that it was difficult to re-enter the workforce. The barrier to re-entry mentioned the most was having out-of-date skills due to the time spent out of the workforce (the difficulty of “keeping current on technology and work trends” while out of work) (Cabrera, 2007). Women returning to the labour market need training in both ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ skills. Generally, such training focuses on the updating of existing skills, confidence building, and training in new technology. Work experience may also contribute towards raising the self-esteem levels of those wishing to re-enter the labour market, who often feel that they lack the necessary work-related skills to compete (Equalitec, 2005).

Watkins(1988) discusses the issue of supporting women’s re-entry to the workplace. Re-entrants include displaced home-makers, women who are suddenly widowed or divorced. The economic consequences of career interruptions appear to increase if women stay out of the labour force for more than three years. Companies which acknowledge that woman professionals are the future of business provide benefits which include policies for expanded maternity leave, paternity leave, and modified paid personal or sick leave to stay at home with sick children or older frail adults. It seems that now even gender-neutral benefits are given to attract the women re-entry. Innovative and flexible childcare benefits are the most supportive of company benefits which include the provision of vouchers towards childcare, subsidies for places at local childcare centres, information and referral service and on-site childcare. Less expensive forms of support include more serious work place norms like the provision of child care room for use during school holidays; relaxation of telephone policies and the establishing of routine wok breaks for parents to telephone home and check on children after school. Flexi-time and job sharing

have also met with some support from organizations and work-at-home options have also increased significantly. Companies like Tata group offers internship for potential re-entry women in the name of SCIP (second career internship program). There are many corporate initiatives for women career re-launchers such as Career by Chance-HUL, Restart-GE, Starting Over-Mahindra Sthayam, Spring Board –Microsoft, Bring Her Back –IBM, etc.

Wessels (1982) mentioned that married women do not always have a free choice between working and not working. Most of the women stop working or wish to stop working after the birth of the first child, but they plan to return to their career when their children are grown up. Majority of fulltime employed married graduates were not seeking promotion because of domestic reasons including family planning, double work load and husband's employment mobility. In spite of the number of children still in the home married women with high career orientations reject promotion because of family obligations, especially if the children are pre-schoolers. Women compromise or suppress their own human capital in order to develop future human capital through their children for which they take career break. What a societal and national commitment!

Geber (2000) reports the patterns of their career breaks and return work are like many women consider raising of their children to be so important that they will stop working and forego that source of income in order to spend time with infants and young children. In the case of professional women, many put their careers on-hold during family formation stage. In this, he discussed a model which incorporates qualification and career breaks and is a process model, a lifelong learning and career pursuit in professional model. Family formation continuous workers are called career foregrounding (Continuous)

workers and Family formation discontinuous workers are called family foregrounding (discontinuous) workers. The serious continued pursuit of a career by the professional women is indicated firstly, by further study after an initial three year post-matriculation degree or diploma. Secondly, if additional qualifications had not been obtained before motherhood, serious career pursuit would be indicated by obtaining additional qualifications after the career break. Thirdly, serious career pursuit would be indicated by the type of work which women engage in after their re-entry to the work place. Professional women embark on further academic studies which may enhance their career prospects after re-entry. The presence of children may cause them to defer the serious pursuit of a career until their mid-thirties or later, yet nevertheless once they re-enter the workplace they pursue their careers with great determination and desire to achieve excellence at work. It seems that these two qualities of re-entered women play a major role in corporate re-thinking in favour of returners.

Kok et al. (2003) argue that the problems experienced by women re-entering education profession in South Africa are at three levels: within themselves, within their career and within the society. On the basis of these, they recommended that increase in maternity benefit as well as the introduction of paternity and childcare leave should be introduced to assist the woman educators to combine work and family responsibilities more successfully. Many women feel guilty leaving children, particularly young ones in a day care centre or other person's home. Good child care facilities are also essential for allowing re-entering women to combine family and workplace responsibilities. More promotion opportunities should also be provided for women who aspire to management position. Here, it is pertinent to observe that now the focus is

shifting from career re-entry to career success. It is the fact that there are enough facilitators for career re-entry, so the focus in future may be the post re-entry i.e. promotion, advancement and career success. Women who re-enter the workforce during early adulthood are likely to be subjected to considerable role stress as a result of conflict between families and work (Newman and Newman, 1991).

Clem et al. (2010) examined the experiences of women re-entering the SET (Science, Engineering and Technology) labour market after a break from employment. Those women who have been absent from the labour market for a period of time reports that women returnees' needs are more diverse and complex than recognized in the policy thinking and practice, and that these differ at specific points within the lifecycle. These differences include their relationships to the labour market, patterns of employment, reasons for leaving SET and obstacles to re-entry. Policy needs to reflect the diversity and changing situations of women returnees over the lifecycle, and needs to provide for a range of interventions that tackle different obstacles to women's return throughout their working lives. Career breaks, re-entry and career success may be the way of life for the future woman professionals. Now it is a new normal, but in future it may be a perfect normal.

The significant literature on re-entered woman professionals is that woman undertake a considerable shift in their career orientation and career preferences after a break and they often redirect away from the past careers (Hewlett and Luce, 2005). Lovejoy et al. (2011) find that when professional women redirect they often move from the corporate to the social service sector and from conventionally male-dominated professions to female dominated professions (Hewlett and Luce, 2005; McGrath et al., 2005; Shaw

and Taylor, 1999). For example, lots of the women who had made a professional change in Shaw and Taylor's (1999) study moved from professions in computing or the law into careers in education, while those who had the greatest professional continuity had already been working in female dominated professions such as teaching, nursing, etc before their career break. Also, Hewlett and Luce (2005) found that off-ramped women often re-oriented from the more lucrative corporate sector to caring professions as a result of a newfound desire to 'give back'. This give back attitude reinforces the returners' social commitment, as told earlier. Furthermore, the literature suggests that women's career re-orientation may be related, at least in part, to an increased preference for part-time work. After a family-related career break, woman professionals generally expressed a preference for part-time over full-time work (Healy, 1999). Women who re-enter the workforce are joining smaller companies and they shift industries and functional roles as they are not getting compatible jobs due to negative upshot of career break (McGrath et al., 2005).

2.4 Features Influencing Career Re-entry

2.4.1 Demographic Features

Fagan and Williams (1991) reported that the population of re-entry women was diverse and heterogeneous: they varied in age, marital status, and socioeconomic background. Allen and Meyer (1993) and Conway (2004) found age to be positively related to job satisfaction. In addition, older generations still consider career success relatively with objective criteria, like advancement or vertical upward mobility in salary and status, income, or authority (Gattiker and Larwood, 1986), compared to younger generations who are highlighting the subjective criteria of success at work and in life

(Judge et al., 1995; Nabi 1999; Poole and Bornholt, 1998). Findings from the study by Kim (2008) suggest that individuals in their younger ages build up expertise in areas that they truly enjoy and longed more for work-life balance compared to respondents in their mid and old ages. These managerial and professional women inclined to be in the early rather than the late career stage. Older women face multiple inequalities in the workplace as women and as older workers (Merkes, 2003; Still and Timms, 1998). The older professional women are less likely to be selected for training or retraining than younger workers. They are not getting adequate support and encouragement as employers show less interest in upgrading the skills of those older woman professionals and retaining them in the organization.

Today's women re-entering a profession could also be described as having multiple roles and responsibilities as family members, parents, community members, workers and students. Almost all types of women are taking career break and willing to spend their life to meet their family requirements. Most of them are taking break with an intention of coming back to their work. That is, they are mentally prepared to come back. The demographic features might influence one's decision to continue or interrupt their careers. The age, marital status and financial conditions might influence their career re-entry.

2.4.2 Personal Features

The major personal characteristics that influence the decision of taking career break of woman executives are different. Women go on a career break for various reasons such as motherhood, husband's job re-location, marriage and job re-location, higher education, dependent care (elder parents, husbands, children or other relatives) job loss, unsuitable job environment or personal

illness. The most common one being motherhood (Dyer et al., 1991; Fagan and Williams, 1991; Padula, 1994; Even, 1987; Dex, 1984, McGrath et al., 2005).

2.5 Factors of Career Re-entry: *Independent Variables*

Once the decision has been taken to return to the work force, re-entry women face problems on their actual return. Successful re-entry depends on how returned women resolve these problems. As stated above, there may be considerable differences in the nature of the problems experienced by returning women in the different life stages. Newman and Newman (1991) report that women also be likely to plan their careers and work participation around the life cycles of their families and will, at times, place their careers on hold or will sometimes permanently leave the workforce when their family responsibilities call for it. Women will try to limit their work participation while their children are growing up, but once the children are older, they may resume their careers. This is mainly because smaller children have a greater need for emotional and physical care, placing more demands on the mother's time. When children are older, women would not only have more time to devote to a career, but older women also tend to manage time better and will, therefore, experience less role conflict (Redelinguys et al., 1999).

The problems that the women experience during mid-life are, therefore, more likely to be centred on choices about careers than the issues such as marriage or children (Turner, 1995).

From the works of Griffioen and Van der Westhuizen (1999), it seems that the different categories of problems are generic and applicable to all re-entry women. The researcher (Venter, 1971), as quoted in Beyers (2001) and Padula (1994) classified their categories according to a prior research. In the

review of Beyers (2001), it appears that the issues in re-entry experienced by the women returners can be categorised as follows:

1. Problems within persons (intrapersonal factors),
2. Problems within the work situations (work factors)
3. Problems at management level (management factors)
4. Problems within career (career factors)
5. Problems within society (societal factors)

From this review, the career re-entry factors can be defined as the factors that influence perception of problems in the form of intrapersonal, work, management, career and the society, experienced by women who have re-entered their career. These factors are reviewed in the successive sessions.

2.5.1 Intrapersonal Factors

Beyers (2001) categorized problem within person (intrapersonal problems) as one of the factors experienced by the women in re-entry. The intrapersonal re-entry issues are perceived as deficiencies or inadequacies which exist within persons [i.e. re-entry women] (Greyvenstein, 2000). According to Murray (1994), as quoted in Beyers (2001), role conflict, stress (Steinberg, 1993), guilt and loss of self-confidence (Van Deventer, 1998); Fourie, 1997), as quoted in (Beyers, 2001), can be seen as major intrapersonal issues faced by the re-entering women. Kok et al. (2003) also suggest that problem within a person is one of the level of problems experienced by the re-entry women.

2.5.1.1 Role Conflict

According to Van Deventer (1998), as quoted in Beyers (2001), the roles refer to different positions that any individual has to fulfil in society or to society's socialized view concerning expectations about an individual's

behaviour under specific circumstances. In the case of a working woman, the following roles are seen as the most important: spouse, mother, employee (Redelinghuys et al., 1999).

It is important to mention that women might also have other roles. Normally, they are the providers of family health care needs and thus must often assume the role of family caregiver for elderly, sick or disabled relatives who live either in their home or nearby (Facione, 1994). Role conflict is a psychological state, often below the level of awareness, arising when two or more important values are perceived as incompatible, usually that of homemaker and worker (Tipping and Farmer, 1991).

O'Connell (1994) maintains that home work and the family affect every aspect of women's lives: their socialization and education, their sexuality, the way in which they are expected to behave as women, wives, and mothers and in their careers. The above relationships between home work, family and career causes conflicting roles and expectations for career women (Greyvenstein, 2000b). Re-entry women whose primary responsibility is to raise children and manage their households, often experience role conflict (Padula, 1994). Redelinghuys et al. (1999) maintain that women who enter the workforce after a period of absence are not always able to devote the same attention to all their roles.

A reason that may perhaps contribute to role conflict in women and specifically re-entry women is traditional values (Greyvenstein, 2000b:32). Women who are the products of traditional families are conditioned to accept traditional values and divisions of work based on gender. Redelinghuys et al. (1999) and Greyvenstein (2000) report that women and men view women's

traditional and primary allegiance to be the family. As a result of this stereotypical gender based view, employed women spend considerably more time on household tasks than their husbands (Van Dijk & Siegers, 1996). In addition, women bear almost the sole responsibility for the care and well-being of children. Emmons (1990) report that American working mothers with pre-school-age children are doing more childcare than their spouses, especially in areas of physical care, getting up during the night, staying home with sick children and driving children to day care and other activities. In The Netherlands, women spend almost twice as much time on housework and looking after the family as men, namely 17.7 hours per week as compared to 9.4 hours of their husbands (Vermeulen & Ruijs, 1997).

The time spent on homemaking and childcare adversely affects the career development of women and particularly women's advancement in the management hierarchies (Greyvenstein, 2000). Consequently, women are forced to adopt various strategies for coping with home and work, such as limiting career aspirations and postponing attempts to gain promotion while children are young (Geber, 1999).

Redelinghuys et al. (1999) report that South African women experiences role conflict to a certain extent, but it does not create any serious hindrance in their work and home life. They make a few assumptions regarding this apparent lack of role conflict experienced by south African women as women do not think it strange to have careers, they are, therefore prepared to, and are capable of juggling the demands of their different roles successfully. Husbands support the women, physically and psychologically to such an extent that most role conflict is alleviated. Moreover, women perceive gender discrimination in the work setting as a more serious area of concern than role conflict. This

results in itself point out that women see themselves as equal to their male counterparts in their abilities and, therefore, want to be treated as equal to men.

2.5.1.2 Stress

Miller defines stress as “the physical, mental or emotional reaction resulting from an individual's response to environmental tensions, conflicts, pressures”. A person's reaction to stress may be clearly visible to both the individual and to those with whom he or she spends time. The reaction may also be subtle, with the individual unaware of the effects of stress until an illness or disorder surfaces.

Van Zyl and Pietersen (1999) report that career women experience considerable stress and pressure because they have to face the different demands as a worker and as a home maker, they have to be everything to everybody. Career women have to be the homemaker, the supportive wife and mother and at the same time, a good employee.

Steinberg (1993) categorized four levels of stress experienced by the career women, which are individual stress, interpersonal stress, environmental stress and organisational stress. Individual stress can be described as an intrinsic stress which exists within the individual. Interpersonal stress refers to stress within the individual as a result of interaction with other persons. Environmental stress is the result of conditions outside the workplace, for instance the family. Organisational stress refers to stress as a result of conditions within the workplace, for example the demands of the work and relationships with colleagues.

A potential environmental stressor is role conflict (Greenhouse and Gallanan, 1994). Stress can arise from the role conflict between family and work (Newell, 1996; Porteous, 1997). Subsequently, it is likely those women who try to cope by meeting the demands of multiple roles are those most at risk in relation to stress-related illnesses (Dyer et al., 1991). One category of workers for whom the transmission of stress between work and home is particularly problematic is re-entry women, who are attempting to nurture a family and go through a career at the same time (Padula, 1994).

According to Ferreira (1991), as quoted in Beyers (2001), potential organisational stressors are changing and renewal within the organisation, poor interpersonal relationships within the organisation, the individual's role in the organisation, the work structure of the organisation, the work conditions within the organisation and time management of the individual within the organisation. Steinberg (1993) also argues that change in an organisation is a potential organisational stressor.

2.5.1.3 Guilt

Van Deventer (1998) as quoted in Beyers (2001) describes guilt as a painful, personal emotion that leads to a feeling of self-denial and to psychological and physical problems. Adding to usual childcare problems such as the availability and affordability of childcare, working women often shoulder anxiety and guilt as a result of spending time away from their children (Newell, 1996). Herkelman et al. (1993) report that, especially re-entry women feel guilty leaving children, particularly young ones in day care centres or in another person's home when they return to work.

2.5.1.4 Loss of Self-Confidence

Low self-confidence can be described as the level of self-satisfaction experienced by an individual (Fourie, 1997), as quoted in Beyers (2001). Working women frequently experience low self-confidence as an obstacle in their career development. Women are perceived by the wider society in a number of stereotyped ways and this may be put forward as a reason for low self-confidence (Van Deventer, 1998). A society with stereotyped gender views strengthens the attitude that women do not have the necessary abilities to succeed in a career (Greyvenstein, 2000). For that reason, low self-confidence is often the product of a system where women have no opportunities to develop self-confidence (Van Deventer, 1998), as quoted by Beyers (2001).

Lemmer (1990) reports that re-entry women go through a loss of self-confidence during their career break. Rees (1992) argues that lack of self-confidence is probably one of the factors in many re-entry women's willingness to accept demotion on return to work and the tendency to opt for typically female work and choice of part-time work instead of full-time work.

Herkelman et al. (1993) reported that returning women might question their competence and at the same time feel they could be doing more challenging and meaningful work. Re-entry women may compare themselves unfavourably with their peers who have been working while they have been homebound. If a re-entry woman was trained professionally before she dropped out to raise a family, she may be discouraged by how far behind she is and how much catching up there is to do.

Padula (1994) stated a number of problems regarding re-entry and self-confidence are depicted: Returning women face problems in self-concept and

self-perception and have been reported to have significantly lesser academic and leadership self-concepts than re-entry men. Women who are in re-entry are frequently starting over after having previously experienced success and have proved their value as members of adult society. Although re-entry women have developed lots of skills pertinent to continued schooling and work through such experience as homemaking, parenting and volunteering, re-entry women often undervalue their actual capabilities.

In opposition to the conditions of the above two studies concerning re-entry women, it may be recommended that re-entry women experience a lack of professional identity. After having been deeply preoccupied with the role of wife/mother during a career break, re-entry women no longer identify with the professional role which their education and training have prepared them for (Lemmer, 1990). The absence of a professional identity may imply that returning women must learn once more to make out with the profession to which they aspire.

2.5.2 Work Factors

Beyers (2001) argued that problems within work situations can be considered as significant issue faced by women in re-entry. The lack of opportunities for in-service training is an issues experienced by the re-entry women within the work situation (Ferreira, 1991). The issue of in-service training refers to the requirement that exists for re-entry women to catch up on skills, knowledge and experience (Fagan and Williams, 1991) and to the lack of retraining programmes (Geber, 1999) in the work situation. Griffioen (1999) reported that the meaningfulness and interesting nature of work, as well as the interpersonal relationships in a work situation, can cause problems within work.

2.5.2.1 In-Service Training

Fourie (1997) as quoted in Beyers (2001), that in-service training is the effort that an organisation makes to equip a worker for his/her task. Potgieter (1993), as quoted in Beyers (2001), discusses that in-service training, as part of personnel development, is directed at the attainment of short term effective results.

In-service training sometimes creates expectations that are too high (Steinberg, 1993). For instance, women educators may attend courses outside their field of interest, only to grow in a certain area of their careers. An additional issue may be that management teams in organisations are usually responsible for creating opportunities for in-service training (Ferreira, 1991), as quoted in Beyers (2001). However, it gives the impression that several organisations do not efficiently satisfy this necessitate for in-service training courses particularly for women.

Fagan and Williams (1991) report that women returning to work or careers after an interruption in employment are faced with the necessity to catch up on skills, knowledge and experience. It may be concluded that the longer the career break, the greater the likelihood that knowledge will become outdated and skills will deteriorate, thus adversely affecting women's opportunities at re-entry.

2.5.2.2 Skill Obsolescence

Sainsbury (1996) and McDonald (2000) report that women who interrupt or restrict their careers due to childcare can face various problems such as depreciation of their human capital, loss of work opportunities, and risk of slower career progress.

Leaving the work force, even for short periods of time, or cutting back on career involvement to meet growing family demands, is likely to have negative effects on a woman's career, as well as on the career opportunities available to women in general (Emmons et al., 1990). Furthermore, Herkelman et al. (1993) reports that dropping out of the workforce removes women from a dynamic work situation with improved technology and practices. As a result, women who attempt to re-enter professional practice following a period of absence may find that the knowledge and technology explosion has left their qualifications and past experience outdated and inadequate for functioning in today's work situation.

When on a career break, these women often feel disconnected from the labour market and from the sector and that their career break contributes to a knowledge gap and reduced confidence level (Panteli, 2012). Fagan and Williams (1991) further report that re-entry women are faced with problems of not knowing what their knowledge gap is and of lacking a system of support to structure their relearning efforts. Panteli (2012) reports that for the issue of reduced confidence level and knowledge gap, engaging them in an intervention programme may not be sufficient for their return to the employment. It is nevertheless expected to be an important step in their return-to-work journey. Intervention programmes are important in improving women's position, recognizing their potentials to act as a bridge for the transfer of knowledge.

2.5.2.3 Retraining Programmes

The need for a system of support and professional retraining programmes regarding women's re-entry and training is apparent (Bird, 1999). Many organisations in the UK and the USA have designed retraining programmes for returning women (Fagan and Williams, 1991; House of Commons, 1998).

Additionally, some organisations in the UK and the USA are beginning to make re-entry easier for women by being less rigid in their demands and more aware of the need for employees to balance work and family demands (Geber, 1999). The retraining programmes in the above mentioned countries are aimed at the specific needs of returning women, such as professional updating courses. Further, Panteli (2012) reports that for the issue of reduced confidence level and knowledge gap, engaging them in an intervention programme may not be sufficient for their return to employment, it is nevertheless expected to be an important step in their return-to-work journey. Intervention programmes are important in improving women's position, recognizing their potentials to act as a bridge for the transfer of knowledge.

Geber (1999) argued that retraining programmes for women do not appear to exist in South Africa. In his study regarding the re-entry of South African women explains that less number of women in his study received training within their organisations, majority of the participant felt the need for advance training and have consequently provided it for themselves and often at their own expense and retraining programmes need to be developed by organisations in South Africa.

2.5.2.4 Nature and Type of Work

Griffioen (1999) reports that work contributes to the experience of work satisfaction as it satisfies overall needs as well as the need for self-actualization. Monotony and routine can be demotivating. Routine work leads to frustration, boredom, lack of motivation and to dissatisfaction in the work situation (Van der Westhuizen, 1999). Griffioen (1999) reports that the successful completion of difficult problems and aims contributes to work satisfaction.

2.4.2.5 Interpersonal Relationships within an Organisation

Ferreira (1991) states that the interpersonal relationships within the work situation included the workers' relationship with superiors, peers and subordinates. The quality of management by superiors affects behaviour, attitudes and effort of workers (Van der Westhuizen, 1999). In this view, hints and positive replies of superiors are important as these influence work satisfaction (Griffioen, 1999).

In several work situations few opportunities for interaction with colleagues exist and this may show the way to feelings of isolation among workers (Ferreira, (1991), as quoted in Beyers (2001). The workers may experience their problems as unique due to the lack of work circumstances where common problems can be discussed. Vander Linde et al., (1999) furthermore reports that, career women, specifically women educators, experience burnout due to lack support from colleagues.

2.5.3 Management Factors

Van der Westhuizen (1994) argued that intentional or unintentional discriminatory practice on the part of employers and the absence of legislation and policies are the major issues faced on management level by the re-entry women. Herkelman et al. (1993) discuss that majority of the employers hold negative and stereotyped beliefs about women like, married women, especially for women with children are less committed to their work and their organisations.

2.5.3.1 Employer Attitudes

Stereotyping and misconceptions about female employees result in undervaluing women. One of the major myths is that married women in

particular or women with children are less committed to their work and their organisations (Herkelman et al., 1993). In addition, Greyvenstein (2000) discuss that a women's income is seen as supplementary to the male breadwinner's income, for that reason the career is seen as supplementary to women's primary role in the family.

Lemmer (1990); Van Zyl and Pietersen (1999) discuss that forms of discrimination most often experienced by women, and specifically re-entry women, are lower work rewards and differential treatment concerning promotion. Greyvenstein (2000) reports that differential treatment regarding promotion often occurs at some stage in the hiring process when selections by employers take place according to stereotyped gender role criteria. Szechy (1997) argue that prejudices as stated above make it difficult for women to get promotions or new appointments when in competition with men. Lemmer (1990) further reports that many employers hold negative and stereotyped beliefs about re-entry women. Gerdes et al. (1990), as quoted in Beyers (2001), argued that the age of re-entry women seems to play a significant role in discrimination by employers. Women who re-enter during their forties or fifties, regardless of qualifications, face age discrimination. Lemmer (1990) continued that not only they are nearer to retirement, but their lengthy absence from their profession counts against them.

2.5.3.2 Legislation

International research reports a noticeable increase in concerning gender equity in employment (Greyvenstein, 2000). It resulted in different actions for the advancement of the status of women in several countries. In a few countries, policies founded on government equity laws have been formulated to improve equity for all women (Nyman, 1997). In addition, Greyvenstein

(2000) reports that affirmative action has been introduced in various countries to ensure the implementation of equity laws and policies.

Lemmer (1990) reports that the legislation referred to above creates the general climate, which will either encourage or discourage re-entry of women. Bird (1999) reports that the presence of anti-discriminatory legislation, such as in Great Britain, will make sure a more worthwhile return for the woman considering re-entry. For instance, work policies in Great Britain encourage professional bodies to allow women to remain in contact with their employers while on a career break scheme and offer updating courses for women wishing to return (Brine, 2000).

In countries like South Africa, there are laws and policies exist to protect and/or advance groups, such as women who have been disadvantaged or unfairly discriminated against in the past. The establishment of the Human Rights Commission and the Commission on Gender Equality indicate a government commitment to eliminate gender discrimination (Nyman, 1997). However, there seems to be no law or policy specifically formulated to protect or advance women returning to the work force after a period of absence.

Geber (1999) suggests flexible and more innovative organisational policies dealing with maternity leave. Therefore, it may be suggested that the following issues regarding maternity leave must be raised: an increase in the maximum period of maternity leave to four months and provision for greater flexibility in the taking of maternity leave by organisations. For example, an increase in maternity benefits and the introduction of paternity and childcare leave will assist many women to combine work and family responsibilities (Nyman, 1997).

As a result of the above issues of disagreement concerning maternity leave, South African women often prefer to take a career break (Geber, 1999). Career breaks are closely related to maternity leave as they provide women with the opportunity to have a break in their careers which is longer than the time usually allocated for maternity leave as stipulated by labour laws (Redelinghuys et al., 1999). Career breaks due to child-bearing, however, adversely affect the career development of women and particularly women's advancement in the management hierarchies (Greyvenstein, 2000b). Geber (1999) reports that the women who returned to the organisations where, employed at a lower level than they originally employed before.

2.5.4 Career Factors

There are many issues faced by the re-entering women within their career. Insufficient remuneration and the lack of prospects of promotion are the major issue experienced within the career of the women re-entering to the workforce (Waldfogel, 1998). Interruption of work often leads to decreases in remuneration and impacts on the prospect of promotion that's major issue faced by the re-entering women (Dex et al., 1998). Gender inequities with regard to management positions may be marked as a problem facing re-entry women.

2.5.4.1 Remuneration

Griffioen (1999) reports that finance satisfies psychological and security needs. For instance, O'Connell (1994) reports that women's self-perception is improved by the knowledge that they are contributing financially and visibly to the household. Though, finances can become a demotivating factor if salaries do not keep pace with personal and physical needs. This is particularly

apparent in the education profession. Griffioen (1999) states that finances, or a lack of finances, are an important reason for teachers who leave the education profession.

Women who interrupt their careers and leave the work force for family responsibilities often return to find that their remuneration lags behind those of women at comparable stages in their careers who did not leave the work force (Glass and Estes, 1996). For instance, in the United States, mothers at age 30 earn on average only 70% of men's pay, while non-mothers earn 90%. In Britain, mothers at age 33 earn only 64% of men's pay, while non-mothers are earning 84% of their male counterparts' earning (Waldfogel, 1998).

In the studies of Jacobsen and Levin (1995) and Waldfogel (1998), the following are the reasons as to why American and British re-entry women might have lower remuneration. The women who leave the workforce and later re-enter do not build up seniority, which in itself, often leads to higher remuneration. The second reason was the women who return to the workforce are less likely to receive on-the-job training to increase their productivity and thereby raise their remuneration. The third reason was that when women are not in the workforce, their work skills may depreciate and the fourth reason was that employers may view gaps in history as a signal that women who leave may do so again. Several employers would therefore hire them for less important and lower paying work to limit the impact of a future decision to leave, and on the other hand, structural 'family barriers' such as the lack of family leave might slow down the progress of mothers in the work market.

2.5.4.2 Promotion Prospects

Steinberg (1993) argues that the lack of promotion opportunities for women and especially women educators is a problem. Stey (1990) as quoted in Beyers (2001) reports that promotion indicates an increase in responsibility and this is typically accompanied by an increase in status as well as in a higher post.

Women who attain promotion to managerial positions are still a minority, particularly in the area of educational management. Fourie (1997) as quoted in Beyers (2001) report that reason for the lack of promotion opportunities may be that only some women apply for promotion posts in the education profession, irrespective of their marital status, qualifications or their competence.

According to Vander Westhuizen and Hillebrand (1990), as quoted in Beyers (2001), the reasons which explain women's reluctance to apply for promotion posts are lack of mobility because women are usually obliged to stay in the area in which their husbands work and lack of self-confidence among women educators. It required to be noted that women are as interested in promotion as men are. They do not believe that they are not entitled to promotion (Van Deventer and Van der Westhuizen, 2000). Though, women are more aware of discrimination in the work situation and this leads to low expectations concerning the successful application for promotion posts (Van Deventer, 1998).

Women's re-entry into the work force after a period of absence has been a crucial point in their working careers. Researchers (Newman and Newman, 1991, Szechy, 1997) maintain that a career break has a detrimental effect on promotion prospects for women. A possible explanation is that employers

might discriminate against returning women with family responsibilities (Szechy, 1997:103). Another explanation may be that some of these returning women have lost occupational status partly from taking a long break and partly from returning to a part-time work (Dex et al., 1998).

2.5.5 Societal Factors

The principles of a society may be viewed as problematic if a person's (i.e. re-entry woman) values differ from those of the society (Van der Westhuizen, 1999). The societal role perception is significant faced by them. The lack of workplace nurseries and after-school and holiday play schemes (Redelinghuys et al., 1999) and the lack of emotional support are also issues with in society.

2.5.5.1 Childcare Arrangements

Wilson (1997) reports that the insufficient provision of childcare facilities is an issue which can impede women in the workforce as well as in the promotional aspirations, particularly for women with children, the decision to return to the work force raises the issue of childcare. Greyvenstein (2000) argue that the necessity to find suitable childcare has been considered as a problem facing re-entry women. Before a woman with children can re-enter employment, she must build sufficient arrangements for the care and supervision of her children (Lemmer, 1990).

O'Connell (1994) states that good quality childcare facilities are vital to allow parents to combine family and workplace responsibilities. These are non-existent in some countries and in persistently short supply in most countries. There is a difficulty of both availability and affordability of childcare in the UK (Newell, 1996). A particular feature of the UK is the high

number of women working part-time, which is a function both of the uneven domestic load and the absence of State-provided childcare facilities (Rees, 1992). State provision of pre-school childcare in the UK lags substantially behind European provision, as nurseries are still rare. Although there is an increasing number of government subsidized after-school and holiday play schemes, demand still far exceeds supply (Wilson, 1997). Rees (1992) reports that Employers' strategies for childcare in the UK have tended to focus on workplace nurseries, but they are not necessarily the most appropriate solution. In the first case, they only address the needs of parents with pre-school children. They do not help women with older children after school, during school holidays and at half term or on occasions when children of any age are ill. Consequently, majority of parents rely on a mix of voluntary and private provision, supported by family and friends.

Similar problems regarding childcare arrangements are experienced in The Netherlands (Wilson, 1997). A demand exists for childcare provision even though the number of childcare facilities has increased. Subsidized childcare is available for only five per cent of children under the age of four. Under this age, children of working parents attend part-time playgroups, full-time or part-time day care centres or the children are looked after by childminders or relatives. From the age of four, children are taken care of at primary schools. Most schools finish at three o'clock, but provision of after-school childcare between then and six o'clock is limited. Waiting lists are enormous in the larger cities and such facilities are non-existent in the smaller towns and villages. Many women find it difficult to arrange care for sick children. The high cost of childcare in The Netherlands is also a serious issue.

In the study of Redelinghuys et al., (1999) regarding South African working mothers, 91% of the respondents pointed out that lack of day care for children as a shortcoming. An overseas idea that has not yet had much following in South Africa is the idea of workplace nurseries (Katz, 1992). Redelinghuys et al., (1999) further reported that the provision of childcare facilities such as after-school and holiday play schemes is inadequate.

Glass and Estes (1996) discussed that in the USA, there is also a shortage of qualified affordable childcare. Especially, more attention needs to be paid to childcare requirements of low income employed parents (Turner, 1994). A great demand subsists for preschool childcare provision in the USA. In 1982, 6% of infants, 12% of toddlers and 27% of older pre-school children with an employed mother were enrolled in a centre-based programme as their primary arrangement. From 1983 to 1993 the above numbers rose to 19%, 24% and 39% respectively (Hofferth, 1999). The high use of childcare for infants in the USA reflects the fact that half of the mothers are back at work 6 months after the child's birth.

Newell (1996) states that issues regarding the availability of pre-school childcare are experienced in Denmark, as a total of 48% of children below three years of age are in publicly-funded childcare facilities. This is the highest percentage in Europe. This percentage increases to 84% for the three- to six-year old group.

Viewed in opposition to this background, it is obvious that there is a substantial amount of variability across nations regarding the degree and kind of responsibility for children that will be assumed by governments. Of all the industrialized nations, the USA and South Africa accept the least public responsibility for young children (Lubeck, 1995).

One solution concerning childcare arrangements and re-entry women is for husbands to share in homemaking and childcare (Herkelman et al., 1993). Holtzman and Glass (1999) reported in their study that employed mothers are better able to accommodate work and family responsibilities when their husbands or partners participate in child-rearing tasks. According to them, employed mothers who are satisfied with their childcare arrangements and whose spouses share family care experience significantly better mental health. Thus, a change in the attitudes of men about work and family responsibilities may open pathways into return to work for women (House of ' Commons, 1998).

2.5.5.2 Societal Role Perceptions

Vander Westhuizen (1999) reports that if the society's values (whether religious, economic, cultural, political or social) are different from those of women these society factors will have a demotivating effect on women. Greyvenstein (2000), reports that the career women are subjected to traditional patriarchal and stereotyped views of gender roles held by the society. For instance, family and home responsibilities are a major stereotypical gender based problem (Rudduck, 1994). The society views women's primary allegiance to be the family and this causes conflicting roles and guilt for working women (Van Deventer, 1998).

2.5.5.3 Emotional Supports

Furthermore, a typical career woman often lacks social support in the form of emotional support from family members, and does not have access to information and advice on problems experienced (Van Zyl and Pietersen, 1999). The above factors may contribute to the high level of stress experienced by career women members.

The literature review furthermore revealed that there may be substantial differences in the nature of the problems experienced by returning women in the different life stages. For example, women who re-enter the education profession during early adulthood are likely to be subjected to considerable role stress as a result of conflict between families and work (Redelinghuys et al., 1999). However, women who re-enter the profession during mid-life are more likely to experience problems centred on choices about careers than on issues such as marriage or children.

2.6 Career Success

Though traditionally a career was considered to be confined to professionals or those who advanced through organisational hierarchies, today the term “career” is more broadly applied and is commonly considered to be the lifelong sequence of role-related experiences of individuals (Hall, 2002). Building on this definition, “career success” can be defined as the “positive psychological and work-related outcomes accumulated as a result of one’s work experiences” (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). According to Arthur et al. (2005), ‘career success’ is defined as “the accomplishment of desirable work-related outcomes at any point in a person’s work experiences over time”. Career success is an outcome of a person’s career experiences. It as well accommodates two meanings of success suggested by the Oxford English Dictionary (1989), specifically ‘the attainment of an object according to one’s desire,’ and ‘the prosperous achievement of something attempted.’ The first meaning suggests a form of success that is personally (i.e., subjectively) desirable, while the second recommends a form of success-prosperity- that is likely to rely on (largely objective) social comparisons. These alternative meanings recommend that, as with careers, there are two distinct ways of viewing career success.

Distinction has been made between objective and subjective measures of career success. Objective career success refers to the work experience outcomes, such as status, promotions and salary, which are objectively observable (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). Traditional career research focused predominantly on objective measures of career success (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988). Conventionally career researchers have focused on objective indicators of career success similar to organizational position or attained promotions (Arthur et al., 2005; Bozionelos, 2004). This focus was consistent with the predominance of hierarchical organisations where employees' career success was mostly defined by promotion, rank and retention (Hall and Chandler, 2005).

Measuring just objective criteria of career success, nevertheless, is deficient, since people also value subjective outcomes such as development of new skills, work-life balance, challenge and purpose (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988; Heslin, 2005). In addition, having achieved objective career success does not truly mean that people are satisfied with their career (Hall, 2002). After all, some objective career success measures appear less relevant today, as organisations are more constrained in providing these opportunities (Heslin, 2005). The means to deal with the limitations of defining and measuring career success using objective criteria is to supplement these with measures of subjective career success. In the background of boundaryless careers, with a growing prominence on inter-firm mobility and unpredictability, researchers progressively speak of the personal meaning of career success as the prime focus for evaluating careers, i.e. subjective career success (Hall, 2002).

2.7 Subjective Career Success

Subjective career success refers to individuals' evaluation of their career progress accomplishments and anticipated outcomes, relative to their own goals and aspirations (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). According to Van Maanen (1977), "Subjective career success may be defined as the individual's internal apprehension and evaluation of his or her career, across any dimensions that are important to that individual". The change in focus to subjective career success, where the condition for success is internal rather than external, is also consistent with the change in the career context where individuals are expected to self-manage their own careers rather than depend on organisational direction (Hall and Chandler, 2005).

In a study by Seibert et.al 1999, Subjective career success refers to feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment regarding one's career. Subjective career success has most often been operationalised as job satisfaction or career satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2004; Heslin, 2003; Ng et al., 2005; Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). *Career satisfaction* is the most frequent operationalization of subjective career success (Heslin, 2005). For instance, in a latest review of career success studies, 20 out of a total of 49 studies operationalising subjective career success incorporated measures of career satisfaction and 11 studies included measures for job satisfaction (Arthur et al., 2005). On the other hand, a recent meta-analysis incorporated only studies measuring career satisfaction to operationalise subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005). Whereas, there appears small general consensus about the relative merits of both measures, one perspective considers job satisfaction as an inadequate measure of career success, since subjective career success indicates satisfaction over a longer time frame and wider range of outcomes, such as sense of

purpose and work-life balance, than job satisfaction (Heslin, 2005). In a milieu of boundaryless careers, satisfaction with one's career status, rather than objective position, is viewed as the most important indicator of career success (Heslin, 2005; Seibert et al., 1999).

Above and beyond career satisfaction, in an employment circumstance characterized by instability and uncertainty, the extent to which individuals believe to be employable in their current organization or on the external labour market is a significant dimension of subjective career success (Bird, 1994; Eby et al., 2003; Sullivan, Carden and Martin, 1998). Hence, the study addresses both individuals' (career re-entry women) feelings of career satisfaction and their feelings about being employable.

2.7.1 Career Satisfaction: The Dependant Variable

Career satisfaction measures the extent to which individuals believe their career progress is consistent with their own goals, values and preferences (Erdogan et al., 2004; Heslin, 2003; Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). Career satisfaction is a significant topic in career research since subjective feelings of success are related to many aspects of work behaviour and well-being (Abele and Spurk, 2009; Ng, Eby, Sorensen and Feldman, 2005). However, applied psychology and career research (Hall, 2002; Roe, 2008; Van Der Heijden, Schalk, and van Veldhoven, 2008) necessitate more studies that explicitly address the role of time and focus on the question 'what happens' rather than 'what is' (Roe, 2008). A developmental and applied perspective on career research requires measurement tools that are reliable for assessing mean change over time (Chan, 1998).

Career satisfaction as individuals' idiosyncratic evaluations of their own careers is often seen as one central indicator of subjective career success (Abele, Spurk, and Volmer, 2011; Boudreau, Boswell and Judge, 2001; Judge, Cable, Boudreau and Bretz, 1995; Ng et al., 2005). Subjective career success, or career satisfaction, is concerned with the idiosyncratic evaluations individuals make of their own careers (Judge et al., 1995; Melamed, 1996). As such, subjective career success, inquires not only about success, but also about progress to date, meaningfulness, future prospects, and so on.

Intrinsic career success can be measured in terms of career satisfaction, refers to the factors that are in the job or occupation itself and is dependent on incumbent's subjective evaluation regard to their own goals and expectations (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). Career satisfaction derived from the individual's appraisal of his or her career development and advancement across many jobs (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley, 1990).

Career satisfaction is the evaluation of an individual's progress towards meeting different career related goals (e.g., income, achievement, development, etc) and career-related successes (e.g., overall career success; see also Hofmans, Dries and Pepermans, 2008). The Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS; Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley, 1990; Hofmans et al., 2008) is a widely accepted measure of career satisfaction. Moreover, it is considered "the best measure available in the literature" (Judge et al., 1995).

Daniel Spurk et al., (2011) analysed the longitudinal measurement invariance of the CSS and modelled intra-individual changes in professionals' career satisfaction as one important indicator of subjective career success in a time interval of 5 years. Based on the above study, Daniel Spurk et al. (2011)

report that persons with initially high career satisfaction scores show a steeper decline over time is noteworthy. They discussed this and it might be that very high enthusiasm at the beginning of one's career will lead to disappointment after a short time; whereas an initially more 'modest' satisfaction may lead to a more realistic view of one's career. Although, persons with initially very high satisfaction scores do not necessarily have the lowest satisfaction levels at the end of the period, counsellors, and personnel developers should be aware of possible dissatisfaction due to initially too high satisfaction scores. They argued that, one solution might be to prepare the clients to deal with a potential subjective decline experience in a positive way. Also, Daniel Spurk et al., (2011) states that special career development tools covering this topic could be developed in order to motivate 'oversatisfiers' over time. Finding from the study (Raabe et al., 2007) is that the CSS can be used as an outcome measure in career intervention programmes.

Shifts in career satisfaction in this kind of programmes may be attributable to true quantitative changes and not to qualitative shifts in the meaning of the construct (de Jonge et al., 2008). Work-family conflict has been found to be negatively related to several variables that are linked to career satisfaction, such as career progression (Stroh, Brett and Reilly, 1996) and career involvement (Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh and Reilly, 1995). Results from the Neg et al. (2005) support the positive relation between individual career management behaviour and career satisfaction.

There is empirical evidence that organization-related factors influence women's career satisfaction. Results of the studies of Burke (2001) and Burke and McKeen (1995) revealed that support and encouragement, training and development, and challenging jobs were significantly related to the career

satisfaction of managerial and professional women. Armstrong 2005 et al. reports that career satisfaction reflects how people feel about their career role and their career success. The results of their study revealed that organization related factors are highly significant in fostering the career satisfaction of old managerial and professional women. Many researchers consistently found that career satisfaction is not significantly affected by demographic factors (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988, 1989; Martins, Eddleston and Veiga, 2002).

Despite this interest in career satisfaction, its role in the context of women career re-entry remains a comparatively under-researched concept and has therefore received only trivial empirical research attention in this context.

2.7.2 Perceived Employability: Dependant Variable

In common, the concept of employability has mainly to do with how easy it is for someone to get a new job. Employability is used on the micro as well as macro levels of the labour market, and it is used in partly different ways on the three different levels (Forrier and Sels, 2003). Initially, it is used in accordance with governmental policies, which aspire at attaining full national employment. Subsequently, employability is utilized as a measure of an organization's ambition to attain some kind of numerical and functional flexibility. In this regard, employability concerns the managerial aspect of matching the demand side with the supply side of labour force. In other words, employability refers to the firms' ability to acquire the proper number of workers with the exact competence at any given time. For acquiring this organizational flexibility, employees must have adequate skills and knowledge (Sparrow, 1998). Lastly, employability may be observed in consideration to the individual's perception, referring to what the individual thinks of his or her job prospects (Forrier and Sels, 2003).

At the individual level, a few different aspects of employability are concerned. It is possible to examine employability by dividing it into three different phases. (Hillage and Pollard, 1998). The first is when the individual at his/her initial stage of working life, endeavours to acquire a job and therefore enters the labour market. In this phase, employability concerns how individuals without a job establish themselves in the labour market. Study in this area concern, as, how unemployed, disabled, or freshly graduated individuals enter the labour market (Bricout and Bentley, 2000; Finn, 2000; Harvey, 2001). In the second phase, individuals are mainly concerned about maintaining their employment, which necessitates being capable to stay attractive to their employers. Research in this area point out that there is an association between the individualization of the labour market and employees' striving to be employable (Garsten and Jacobsson, 2004). Finally, being able to obtain new employment becomes crucial at the third phase. The possible reasons for wanting to change jobs include career, income, family situation, organizational changes, and the work environment, etc.

According to Forrier and Sels (2003), "employability refers to the employee's chance of finding alternative employment, either on the internal or the external labour market". This concept has been measured using both objective and subjective indicators. Authors like De Jong and Schalk (2005); Elman and O'Rand (2002); Forrier and Sels (2003); Van Dam (2004); Virtanen et al. (2003); Worth (2002) have used objective indicators associated to human capital or career indicators to measure employability. A few instances are education, training, occupational position or the number of job changes.

Authors like Berntson et al. (2006); Berntson and Marklund (2006); De Cuyper et al. (2008) have measured employability in relation to subjective indicators, for example, “employees’ perceptions of the available alternatives in the internal and/or external labour market”. The study follows this subjective approach for following reasons. First and foremost, the way people interpret reality decides individuals’ feelings and behaviours. This assumption is a fundamental one in the social sciences, as formulated in Thomas’ theorem: “If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences” (Thomas and Thomas 1928). For instance, when people are employable in relation to objective indicators, such as training, experience, etc., but they do not perceive themselves as such; their feelings will be congruent with their interpretation of reality. Subsequently, consistent with stress theories, ‘individuals’ reactions to stressors are partly dependent on individuals’ cognitive appraisals of the potential stressors (Lazarus and Folkman 1984). Finally, objective indicators may be unsuccessful to account for the labour market situation when trying to predict real chances of re-employment (Trevor 2001). In this logic, its usefulness may depend mainly on the particular segment of the economy in which the worker is employed (De Grip et al. 2004).

According to Rothwell et al. (2009), employability has mainly three perspectives. Initial one, employability at national workforce level is related to government policy; second, employability within human resource management considers employability as a human resource strategy, and third is the individual perspective emphasizes what people believe their employment options are (Rothwell and Arnold, 2007). In the present study, this subjective approach was adopted corresponding to certain earlier studies (Berntson et al., 2006; De Cuyper et al., 2008a; Rothwell and Arnold, 2007). Therefore, in this study

employability refers to individuals' perceptions of their chances of obtaining a new or an alternative employment.

In keeping with Berntson and Marklund, (2007), perceived employability concerns the employee's perception about her chances of landing a new job or the employee's belief about how simple it would be to find new employment (Rothwell and Arnold 2007). Perceived employability augments feelings of being in control over one's career (Fugate et al., 2004).

Comparable to Berntson, Sverke and Marklund (2006) and Berntson and Marklund (2007), this study focuses upon perceived employability, namely the employee's perception of her possibilities to achieve a new and equal job. This definition has several advantages such as: it is compatible with more general definitions, like the one introduced earlier namely 'the individual's ability to get and retain a job, or to obtain a desired job' (Forrier and Sels 2003; Fugate et al., 2004; Aroneca et al., 2007; Rothwell and Arnold 2007). Subsequently, the definition takes on a subjective approach by focusing on the employee's perception. The assumption is that this perception develops from the individual's interpretation of the labour market condition and/or from his or her ability to create the necessary labour market transitions (Hillage and Pollard 1998; Brown, Hesketh and Williams 2003; Forrier and Sels 2003; McQuaid and Lindsay 2005), including features such as the individual's know-how, skills, physical and cognitive suitability, career development, learning, specialization, knowledge of the labour market, willingness to change jobs, and his or her proactivity and adaptability (Gazier 1990; DeFillippi and Arthur 1994; De Vries, Gru'ndemann and Van Vuuren 2001; De Grip et al. 2004; Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden 2006), an supposition that was confirmed in the longitudinal study by Wittekind, Raeder

and Grote (2010). Perceived employability is supposed to accommodate a few or all of these aspects.

A person with high employability feels that it is easy to attain new employment. Studies report that both the individual (skills and attitudes) and the contextual characteristics possibly will be important determinants of employability (Berntson, Sverke and Marklund, 2006; Forrier and Sels, 2003). A major portion of employability research centres on individual characteristics, like adaptability assets (Fugate, Kinicki and Ashforth, 2004), attitudes (Kluytmans and Ott, 1999), and skills (Silla, Gracia, and Peiro', 2005).

As employability is normally seen as dynamic, it is conditional upon time, context, and individual circumstances, the use of subjective measures as good as they are capable of capturing the interplay between contextual and individual factors that underlie all employability definitions (Trevor 2001; Aroneca et al., 2007). This is less noticeable with objective measures, like the workers' educational or occupational position. An additional strong argument supporting the selection for a subjective measure, especially in this circumstance, the employees are likely to act upon their own perception rather than upon any objective situation, an argument that leads in the area of psychological research (Katz and Kahn 1978). The implication is that it is the employee's subjective evaluation that counts, no matter what they are receiving as an objective measure.

Nele De Cuyper, Beatrice I.J.M. Van der Heijden and Hans De Witte (2011) examined interaction between perceived employability and job satisfaction and found that perceived employability relates negatively to job satisfaction. There appeared to be no significant association between perceived

employability and job satisfaction. Perhaps job satisfaction is conditional upon specific features of the present job rather than upon any job opportunities in the future or upon issues related to the career as a whole, the labour market, or the employee's human capital.

Fine definitions of employability highlight skills and dispositions that might appear as an individual attractive to potential employers, frequently focusing on short-term employment outcomes. These kinds of definitions have, reasonably, often been adopted by employer organisations. The Confederation of British Industry (1999) defines employability as being 'the possession by the individual of the qualities and competencies required to meet the changing needs of employers and customers'. The Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ACCI) and the Business Council of Australia (BCA) represent employability skills as 'skills required not only to gain employment, but also to progress within an enterprise so as to achieve one's potential and contribute successfully to enterprise strategic directions' (ACCI and BCA, 2002).

Perceived employability contributes to some conceptual grounds with perceived ease of movement and perceived job alternatives. Perceived ease of movement concerns the perceived ability to move to another job and the individual's mobility. Similar to perceived ease of movement, Perceived employability puts a relatively strong emphasis on the individual's ability. In fact, employability literally combines the word employment and ability; ability in this case reflecting the employee's stock of skills and competences relative to labour market demand. The concept perceived job alternatives has been ascribed different meanings, but is mostly measured in terms of quantity and/or quality of job alternatives (Steel and Griffeth, 1989). Like perceived job

alternatives, Perceived employability accommodates the worker's perceived possibilities for new employment (Berntson, Sverke, and Marklund, 2007). However, Perceived employability also accounts for the worker's specific profile and labour market demand.

Narrow employability definitions have been adopted and promoted in Australian Government policy documents since the beginning of discussions on graduate employability in Australia. The recent Graduate Employability Skills report commissioned by the Business, Industry and Higher Education Collaboration Council (Precision Consultancy, 2007) intended to be a comprehensive review of employability skill development, assessment and reporting in Australia, continued to focus on generic and discipline-specific skills and initial employment outcomes. This approach is also usually found in joint university and business publications (Hager, Holland, and Beckett 2002) and various lists of graduate generic skills produced by many Australian universities (Precision Consultancy, 2007, p. 68). The 'narrow' approach to employability, focusing on initial graduate destinations, is also evident in the approach adopted by funding bodies to assess graduate employability.

While broader outlooks of employability remain dominant in Australian higher education, there exist conceptualisations which hint at more holistic approaches, variously acknowledging: labour market and personal characteristics (McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005); disciplinary differences (Barrie, 2004, 2006); and placing work into context within the individual's life (Rychen and Salganik, 2003).

A number of lists of generic employability skills have begun to accommodate notions of employability as encompassing more than short-term

specific employment outcomes. Skills necessary for employability in a broader sense have been discussed at an overarching ‘enabling conception’ or ‘translation conception’ level (Barrie, 2004). In contrast, both career motivation and career commitment highlight the individual’s aspirations as the starting point for career development. Regardless of this difference, a relationship may exist since employees who are more interested in their personal development may also have more positive attitudes towards employability interventions (van Dam, 2003b).

Ruth Bridgstock (2008) argues that in the context of a rapidly changing information and knowledge-intensive economy, employability involves far more than possession of the generic skills listed by graduate employers as attractive. Rather, for optimal economic and social outcomes, graduates must be able to proactively navigate the world of work and self-manage the career building process. A model of desirable graduate attributes that acknowledges the importance of self-management and career building skills to lifelong career management and enhanced employability was presented. Ruth’s study revealed that a wider range of employability skills than just generic competencies, encompassing notions of career and self-management, can be seen to have positive effects on graduate learning outcomes and employability and also at a broader economic level. There would appear to be economic benefits if higher education providers begin to play a more active role in developing students’ career management skills.

In topical years, perceived employability has received escalating research attention; together its antecedents (Berntson et al., 2006; Wittekind et al., 2010) and outcomes (Berntson and Marklund, 2007; De Cuyper et al., 2008a) have been examined. Regardless of all this interest, perceived

employability remains a relatively less-researched concept, and its role in the context of women career re-entry especially has thus far received only minor empirical research attention.

2.8 Career Management Behaviour: The Mediating Variable

Career management behaviours are the actions that individuals take to achieve their career goals. These behaviours occur when individuals choose to initiate and intervene in their career situation in such a way that the individual acts in a desired direction, rather than responding passively to an imposed change (Crant, 2000). These behaviours are referred to alternatively as “career enhancing strategies” (Nabi, 2003), “context-specific proactive behaviours” (Crant, 2000) and “career goal-directed activities” (Lent, 2004). These behaviours include career exploration and planning, skills development, networking and promoting one’s achievements (Claes and Ruiz-Quintamilla, 1998; Kossek et al., 1998; Nabi, 2000, 2003; Noe, 1996; Orpen, 1994).

Sturges et al., (2002) depicted that the career self-management behaviours explain the extent to which individuals engage in networking, visibility behaviour, skills development and mobility-oriented behaviour.

Career self-management is under the control of the individual and consists of gathering “information and plans for career problem solving and decision-making”. Career self-management contains “the personal efforts made by individuals to advance their own career goals which may or may not coincide with those their organizations have for them” (Orpen, 1994). It involves two main behaviours: one relating to continuous improvement in one’s current job and the other related to movement; job mobility preparedness”. The choice depends on the type of career strategy that they are

pursuing (Sturges et al., 2005). This supports the findings of the study by D.Mavoothu (2006) that the contest-mobility (such as professional ambition, need for personal growth, need for power and promotion process) is more pronounced than the sponsored-mobility (such as ethnic/regional consideration) in Indian context. It seems that the individual's efforts play a major role in their career advancement.

In such a turbulent environment, the concept of career self-management has become important as the essential nature of careers has shifted. As the nature of organizational life is becoming unpredictable or even chaotic as many have argued, self-management of one's career may be the only way to navigate through a turbulent world. Therefore, we can frequently observe that responsibility for career management has shifted to a position where the onus for managing the career rests with the individual who is taking the initiative to set career-related goals and devise appropriate strategies to achieve them. Today, a typical career involves multiple organizations and often dissimilar roles in those organizations. Even employers increasingly expect individuals to take responsibility for managing their own careers. This suggests that the individual career is becoming a supply-driven from demand-driven.

Crites (1969) illustrated the vocational adjustment mechanisms as the process of achieving satisfactory performance in an occupation after the point of entry. Crites (1969, 1976) discussed that a worker is motivated, either by internal or external stimuli, to behave in certain ways on the job, first, similar to seek acceptance from their fellow workers, strive for prestige and recognition or achieve greater job freedom. Or, when a worker is thwarted in this behaviour either by some external circumstance (frustration) or competing

response tendencies (conflict), the worker attempts to adjust by making some response, which will eradicate the thwarting conditions or reduce the tension they arouse. Or, if the worker makes an effective response he or she is readjusted vocationally and experiences job satisfaction or job success. Crites argued that the process is a developmental one that takes place, in different contexts and with different kinds of thwarting conditions and force for adjustment, over the whole course of the career from occupational entry to retirement. He again argued that the anxiety and tension aroused by conflict and frustration in such situations act as drive stimuli for the behaviour of the individual, and motivate people to use a variety of work-adjustment mechanisms such as an acquiescence or compliance control or manipulation, compromise, and integrative responses. The coping responses recognized by Crites are analogous to those described in the accounts of career self-management which explore the behaviours and coping strategies that people use to conquer career barriers (Inkson, 2000; London, 1998).

Crites (1976) point out that, through the successful use of adjustment mechanisms to overcome thwarting conditions, people master the career development tasks appropriate to their stage of vocational development.

People use a range of behaviour that is intended to prevail upon the decisions made by individuals who are in a position to influence their desired career outcomes. That behaviour is career self-management. Individuals use it with an objective of eradicating or resolving the thwarting conditions they would or else experience in their careers and thereby exhibiting adaptive behavioural responses to career development tasks (Savickas, 1994; Super, 1957; Tiedeman, 1971).

Career self-management is a topical issue in today's working life. Due to rapidly increased flexibility in the labour market, individuals cannot rely on being employed by only one organization throughout their working careers (Baruch, 2004). Therefore, as the responsibility in career management has shifted towards the individual, she has to adopt a more active role in managing her own career development and in remaining competitive on the labour market (Clarke, 2009).

Career self-management is a dynamic process, concerning implementation of a set of co-occurring behaviours, which can be categorized into following behaviours: Positioning behaviours are those concerned with making sure one has the contacts, skills and experience to achieve ones desired career objectives or outcomes. Influencing behaviours are concerned with keenly attempting to influence the decisions of key individuals to those desired outcomes. Boundary management behaviour is concerned with balancing the demands of work and non-work domains. These behaviours may be deployed with strategic intent, but they may also be used in an ad-hoc manner as a response to the immediate demands of a exacting situation, therefore, the term behaviour is preferred here to the term strategy used by other researchers (Barney and Lawrence, 1989; Gould and Penley, 1984) and in prescriptive accounts of career self-management (King, 2001).

Positioning behaviour include the strategic choice of mobility opportunity, relates to the initiation of job moves, or acceptance of proposed changes made by another party, such as one's employer or an employment agency. There are benefits associated with some internal job moves, such as skill development or exposure to seniors, and costs associated with other jobs such as limited onward mobility or skill obsolescence (Jennings, 1971; Kanter,

1977). Similarly a few external job moves, new assignments or projects may be more instrumental than others for the accumulation of career capital (Inkson and Arthur, 2001). Another positioning behaviour, strategic investment in human capital, involves making investments in training or educational qualifications. Some human capital investments may be made at a cost to the individual and others may be at the cost of employer. Human capital investments may be of generic value, such as MBA qualifications, or they could be of specific value to a particular firm, occupation or industry. People choose to pursue investments that are perceived to be valued by employers, and which are readily observable by them (Barney and Lawrence, 1989).

The other positioning behaviour is active network development. Networks are said to offer instrumental benefits, such as information, career guidance, and advocacy for promotion or employment. Having a relationship with influential people within ones employing organization provides entry into social networks that are inaccessible through formal communications, and may facilitate exposure to gatekeepers. Likewise, establishing an external network of personal ties, for example, with other members of professional associations, customer contacts, trade acquaintances or informal social acquaintances, provides opportunities for interaction with influential members of other organizations.

The next positioning behaviour, job content innovation, is the development of substantive changes in methods or procedures used to perform job tasks and the enlargement of one's effective task environment (Graen, 1976). Job content innovation can be seen both as a means of developing human capital by learning new skills or gaining valuable expertise, and as a means to gain exposure to gatekeepers (Kanter, 1977).

Influence behaviour is concerned with actively attempting to influence the decisions of key gatekeepers to desired career outcomes. The first type of influence behaviour is self-promotion. As job performance cannot necessarily be objectively verified, self-promotion is concerned with the manipulation of how performance is perceived. People use self-promotion tactics to present themselves in the most favourable and competent light, with the objective of causing evaluators to attribute positive characteristics to them (Judge and Bretz, 1994).

Another influence behaviour, ingratiation, is employed by people to make themselves more attractive to others. Enhanced attractiveness is said to improve a subordinate's chances of positive rewards, such as a pay rise or promotion. It may also increase the chance of a contract being renewed or extended, or of interpersonal networks being developed for instrumental purposes.

The next type of influence behaviour is upward influence, which involves increasing gatekeepers understanding of one's desired outcomes and their sense of obligation to deliver them. Such tactics might be used by someone who is high in power resources relative to a particular gatekeeper, perhaps because of highly valued skills or knowledge (Schlenker, 1980).

Boundary management is concerned with balancing the demands of work and non-work domains. Drawing on role theory, researchers have argued that the work and non-work spheres entail multiple roles, which impose differing demands (Ashforth, Kreiner and Fugate, 2000; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000). It is concerned with the location of the boundary between work and non-work roles. Gatekeepers who are particularly engaged with either the work or non-work domain act as boundary-keepers (Clark, 2000).

Boundary maintenance involves negotiating with such gatekeepers, and is intended to ensure that the performance of roles in each domain is effective. Examples of such behaviour include talking about work-related issues with one's partner in order to elicit support for working extended hours, or coordinating work hours with a partner to manage time with children. Boundary maintenance is also conducted in the work domain, for example, by asking colleagues to cover work duties in order to attend to non-work responsibilities. The second type of boundary management is role transition, which is concerned with navigating the transition between work and non-work roles. People use habitual behaviour to facilitate the transition between the two domains, such as reading the business press over breakfast, or using commuting time to unwind from work (Ashforth et al., 2000).

Z. King (2004) argues that positioning, influence and boundary maintenance behaviours can be grouped together under the conceptual umbrella of career self-management. They can be grouped together because they are in different ways intended either to eliminate external constraints that would otherwise prevent people from achieving desired career outcomes, or to resolve internal sources of conflict between roles. Positioning behaviour increases the probability of gatekeepers making favourable decisions through the development of social capital and employability. Through the successful deployment of these behaviours, individuals are, in Crites (1969, 1976) conditions, readjusted vocationally, and master the career development tasks that are appropriate to their career stage.

According to Eby et al., (2003); Hall and Moss, (1998) for realizing the potential of the new career, an individual be obliged to develop new competencies connected to the management of self and career. Briscoe and

Hall, (1999); Briscoe and Hall, (2006); Hall, (2002) argued that the individual employee is the major responsible factor for managing his or her career and to have strong sense of identity and values are essential for guiding career decisions. Career self-management refers to the proactivity employees show with respect to managing their careers (King, 2004; Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, and Demarr, 1998; Orpen, 1994). This comprises employees' efforts to define and realize their personal career objectives, which may or may not match up with the organization's objectives. The review of on career self-management reveals a broad range of cognitions and behaviours being studied, as well as a wide variety of terms used to label "career self-management" (such as proactive career behaviour, individual career management, career competencies (King, 2004; Kuijpers et al., 2006; Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Mackenzie Davey, 2002; Sturges, Guest and Mackenzie Davey, 2000). Jointly these studies designate that two components of career self-management can be discerned, meaning that a reflective and a behavioural component. Whereas the prior refers to the insights individuals develop into their own career aspirations, the later refers to the behaviours they initiate with an objective of managing their career.

King (2004); Noe (1996); Sturges et al. (2000, 2002) argued that the behavioural component of career self-management builds on the notion of proactivity and it is the concrete actions (such as networking, self-nomination, creating opportunities) undertaken by individual employees to recognize their career goals. These actions can focus on improvement in one's current job or on movement within or outside the company (Kossek et al., 1998; Sturges et al., 2002).

A number of authors, for instance Claes and Ruiz-Quintanilla (1998); King (2004); Orpen (1994); Seibert, Kraimer and Crant (2001) and Sturges et al., (2000; 2002) studied the relationship between career self-management behaviours enacted by individuals and career-related outcomes. Above studies disclose the significance of a extensive range of self-management behaviours, like collecting information regarding existing or potential career opportunities, searching for feedback about performance and competencies of the individual, and creating career opportunities through networking and actions aimed at enhancing one's visibility.

Career-enhancing strategies Nabi (2003) include a range of employee behaviours such as the development of a network of contacts, consultation with mentors and self-nomination of career goals and objectives to peers (Feij et al., 1995). Literature suggests that they reflect a proactive approach to effective career-self management, employee performance and career success (Aryee et al., 1996; Greenhaus and Callanan, 1994; Noe, 1996).

Several authors (Haines, Scott and Lincoln, 2003; Watts, 1998; Webster, Wooden and Marks, 2004) reported that career management can be viewed as the ability to build a career; to intentionally manage the interaction of work, learning and other aspects of the individual's life throughout the lifespan. Career management is an ongoing process of engaging in reflective, evaluative and decision-making processes using skills for self management and career building, based on certain underlying traits and dispositional factors, to effectively acquire, exhibit and use generic and discipline-specific skills in the world of work. In the broadest sense, career management involves creating realistic and personally meaningful career goals, identifying and engaging in strategic work decisions and learning opportunities, recognising work/life

balance and appreciating the broader relationships between work, the economy and society.

Greenhaus et al. (2000) reported that the career-enhancing strategies reflect part of a wider career management process in which individuals make use of career-enhancing behaviours and activities to facilitate the achievement of career development and progression goals.

The authors Gould and Penley, (1984); Greenhaus et al. (2000) suggest that there are three kind of interpersonal career-enhancing strategies: First is the communication of career goals and aspirations to peers (self-nomination); the second one is developing a network of contacts for information and support (networking); and third is that the guidance from mentors (mentor consultation). These career-enhancing strategies were chosen as they all had in common a relational theme that reflected mutuality, interdependence and reciprocity between the employees. In theory, relational career-enhancing strategies facilitate individuals the opportunity for personal and professional growth through giving and receiving help (Hall, 1996).

Generally individuals develop a plan of what they aspire to achieve by a certain age and the extent to which such aspirations are met will determine the level of subjective career success that is experienced (Peluchette, 1993). Career enhancing strategies usage should elevate subjective levels of career success because they help the individual achieve her aspirations or goals (Aryee and Debrah, 1993).

2.9 Conceptual Focus of the Study

Having offered the existing and relevant literature on the core and underpinning construct that go in to the making of the thematic content of the proposed study, an attempt is now directed towards outlining a conceptual framework that provides the focus and structure to the empirical validation visualized in the present research. The literature presents enough insights to suggest and substantiate an integrated model to proposed linkages among the Career Re-entry Factors of the re-entry woman professionals; the Career Management Behaviours initiated by such women and that lead to the enhancement of Career Satisfaction as well as Perceived Employability which collectively augment their career success.

Career re-entry women are facing a lot of problems regarding re-entry and thereafter. Study focuses on the extent of Career Re-entry Factors experienced by them. The literature reports that, successful career re-entry depends on how the re-entry women manage the Factors which means that how they resolve their problems of re-entry. The determinants of Career Success in terms of subjective can be considered as Career Satisfaction (CS) and Perceived Employability (PE). In this context, in order to achieve the Career Success, the re-entry women have to undergo certain proactive strategies, practices or behaviours. In this study, Career Management Behaviours (CMB) is the proposed strategy to attain a better success, meaning that Career Management Behaviours may lead to enhanced Career Satisfaction and Perceived Employability which collectively enhance their Career Success. This study proposes that irrespective of the extent of Factors that experienced by the re-entry women, adopting the career enhancing strategy or Career Management Behaviours will lead to the augmentation of their Career Success.

2.9.1 The Linkages between Variables

The linkages or the relationships between constructs are explained and discussed in the following sessions. The career re-entry factors and the career success explained in the first sessions followed by the career re-entry factors and the two determinants of the career success i.e. career satisfaction and then perceived employability. Next session describes the relationship between career re-entry factors and career management behaviour. After that it presents the career management behaviour with career satisfaction and then perceived employability. And, finally it explains the linkages of career management behaviour in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career satisfaction and also between perceived employability.

2. 9.1.1 Career Re-entry Factors and Career Success

Career success of re-entering woman professionals could be influenced by the extent of career re-entry factors experienced by them. Withdrawal from the work and re-entry to the workforce can be linked to career development. Leaving the work force, even for short periods of time, is likely to have negative effects on a woman's career, as well as on the career opportunities of women in general (Beyers, 2001). Once the decision has been taken to return to the workforce, re-entry women face problems on their actual return. Successful career re-entry of the women depends on how they resolve these problems. The extent to which they are able to resolve these factors would decide their level of success in career (Beyers, 2001).

It is supposed that career development support and job security in organizations persuade subjective career success as they augment the progressive development of skills and knowledge. These things again offer employees a

chance to satisfy their career development needs thus contributing to higher levels of psychological success (Nabi, 2003). The glass ceiling effect however is still evident in some corporate practices such as training, career development, promotion and compensation, thus being a major barrier preventing women from making it to the top (Oakley, 2000). The studies establish the evidence to hypotheses that proactive individuals select, create and influence work situations that enhance the likelihood of their career success (Seibert et al., (1999).

Results from Aryee, Chay and Tan (1994) prop up the positive relation between internal labour market practices and subjective career success, despite of accounting for several control variables such as gender, age and career stages. Meta-analytical results from Ng et al. (2005) also exposed that organizational support such as training and development opportunities have a positive influence on subjective career success.

2. 9.1.2 Career Re-entry Factors and Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction measures the extent to which individuals believe their career progress is consistent with their own goals, values and preferences (Erdogan et al., 2004; Heslin, 2003). Career satisfaction is an important topic in career research because subjective feelings of success are related to many aspects of work behaviour and well-being (Abele and Spurk, 2009). Van der Westhuizen (1994) reports that work satisfaction can be described as a pleasant or positive emotional condition as a result of an individual's evaluation of work experience. Griffioen (1999) states that above emotional condition is the result of combination of psychological, physiological and environmental conditions relating to the work of an individual. The individual differences among persons will affect the factors that influence work satisfaction and differ from person to person.

The extent of re-entry factors experienced by the woman professional is diverse and heterogeneous (Fagan and Williams, 1991). Clem et al. (2010) reports that women returnees needs are more diverse and complex than is recognized in much policy thinking and practice, and that these differ at specific points within the lifecycle.

A substantial research reports that work-family role conflict disproportionately affects women's work satisfaction (Korving, 1991; Holtzman and Glass.1999). Erasmus (1997) argued that the double pressures on women in the home and at work influence their work performance and the degree of work satisfaction they experience. From the studies it can be infer that career satisfaction of the woman professionals could be influenced by the extent of career re-entry factors experienced by them.

There is an empirical evidence that organization-related factors influence women's career satisfaction. Results of the studies of Burke (2001) and Burke and McKeen (1995) revealed that support and encouragement, training and development, and challenging jobs were significantly related to the career satisfaction of managerial and professional women.

McKeen and Burke (1991) found that managerial and professional women who participated in a greater number of training and development activities were more satisfied with their careers than managerial and professional women who had limited participation in these activities. Women who obtained more support and encouragement, who obtained more training and development, and who were given more challenging work assignments were more satisfied and successful in their careers.

2.9.1.3 Career Re-entry Factors and Perceived Employability

Fagan and Williams (1991) report that women returning to work or careers after an interruption in employment are faced with the necessity to catch up on skills, knowledge and experience. Perceived employability puts a relatively strong emphasis on the individual's ability. In fact, employability literally combines the word employment and ability; ability in this case reflecting the employee's stock of skills and competences relative to labour market demand.

International Labour Organization (2000) discussed employability as being a construct which involves self-belief and an ability to secure and retain employment. It also means being able to improve the worker's productivity and income-earning prospects. This often requires competing effectively in the job market and being able to move between occupations as necessary. It requires 'learning to learn' for new job opportunities.

Ruth Bridgstock (2008) argues that in the context of a rapidly changing information and knowledge-intensive economy, employability involves far more than possession of the generic skills as attractive. Her study revealed that a wider range of employability skills than just generic competencies, encompassing notions of career and self-management, can be seen to have positive effects on employability.

Leaving the workforce, even for short periods of time, or cutting back on career involvement to meet growing family demands, is likely to have negative effects on a woman's career, as well as on the career opportunities available to women in general (Emmons et al., 1990).

It may be inferred that the longer the career break, the greater the likelihood that knowledge will become outdated and skills will deteriorate, thus adversely affecting women's opportunities at re-entry and their further employability.

Individual Characteristics are frequently defined in the career literature in the form of personality variables (Clarke, 2008; King, 2004; Fugate et al., 2004). The various authors such as London, (1983, 1993); London and Noe, (1997) reported that these variables clearly impact on career success and therefore may considerably impact on individual employability.

Hillage and Pollard (1998) argued that the personality factors might change overtime as consequence of individual actions, for instance a person might undergo training programs to augment their adaptability or self-efficacy, but even with training they may not be able to alter their physical abilities.

McQuaid (2006) discussed that another individual characteristic like family responsibility also impact significantly on employability via influencing the job seeker ability or willingness to accept a few jobs. These responsibilities: with regard to children, spouses or ageing parents may perhaps limit the kind of employment that a person is capable to apply for, the hours they are able to work, or the physical location of the job. The family responsibilities might limit an individual's capability to relocate in an attempt to take up employment while in the same way the amount of time that an individual capable of spending in commuting may be decided by child care arrangements or other sort of family related factors.

Scandura and Lankau (1997) argued that the individual sometimes experience externally imposed limitations such as the women experience

discrimination based on their gender stereotype corresponding to their family responsibilities. Meaning that women are often stereotyped as focusing primarily on family and childcare issues and having only a secondary focus on career. And also they are perceived as less committed to the organization and to their careers and these as a consequence may possibly denied equal admittance to the kind of career opportunities that would buttress overall development and employability (Lobel and St Clair, 1992).

Clarke (2008) reports that the successful management of employability is not just related to the individual factors but it is truly an outcome of the labour market and the organizational factors.

2. 9.1.4 Career Re-entry Factors and Career Management Behaviours

Career management behaviours are the actions that individuals take to achieve their career goals. These behaviours are referred to alternatively as “career enhancing strategies” (Nabi, 2003), “context-specific proactive behaviours” (Crant, 2000) and “career goal-directed activities” (Lent, 2004).

Career model that require great self-direction, changes in the organizational structures increase the need for the employees to use their initiative and be self-starting (Parker et al., 2006). Such proactive behaviours have been shown to lead to a positive individual and organizational outcomes.

Parker et al., (2006) argue that individual differences and work environment variables affect proactive cognitive motivational states, which, in turn, lead to proactive behaviour. This concurs with the Frese and Fay (2001), who, drawing on Kanfer (1992), proposed personality and environment variables as distal causes of proactive behaviour. This is consistent with social –cognitive theory, which proposes that human are reflective, self-regulating

agents who are not only products but also producers of their environment (Bandura, 1982). It is also consistent with the job design theory, which proposes that job characteristics affect outcomes via critical psychological states (Hackman and Oldham, 1976).

In a different theoretical model of proactive behaviour, Crant (2000) proposed that contextual factors (management support, organizational culture) affect proactive behaviour directly. Similarly, in an empirical examination, Morrison and Phelps (1999) found support for both motivational variables (self-efficacy and felt responsibility) and contextual determinants (top management openness) as antecedents of taking charge.

Based on the above discussion, the study formulated the following hypotheses:

- H1: Intrapersonal factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours
- H2: Work factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours
- H3: Management factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours
- H4: Career factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours
- H5: Societal factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours

2.9.1.5 Career Management Behaviours and Career Satisfaction

Participating in career management behaviours that are directed at achieving personally valued goals in the career domain are also expected to promote an individual's career satisfaction and success (Crant, 2000; Lent and Brown, 2006). Pursuing personally relevant goals is a key way that people can contribute to their own wellbeing and enables the exercise of personal agency

in career satisfaction. To the extent that an individual can set and work towards his or her own goals and perceive that he/she is making progress, he/she is capable of promoting his or her own career satisfaction.

Lent and Brown (2006) and Meta-analytic support also exists for the positive relationship between individual career management behaviours and career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005). Significant effect sizes were found respectively for career planning and employee networking behaviour on career satisfaction across up to eight studies (Ng et al., 2005). While most studies exploring these relationships are cross-sectional, there is also support for the positive impact of career management behaviours on subjective career success three years later (Wiese et al., 2002). Wiese et al., (2002) surveyed 82 young German adults employed in a range of professions including physicians, lawyers, scientists, bank employees, hotel managers and police officers. The study measured participants' career management behaviours and their subjective success in the work domain (career satisfaction) at Time 1 and three years later. Participants' career management behaviours at Time 1 predicted 14 per cent of the variance in participants' career satisfaction three years later, after controlling for career satisfaction at Time 1. Career management behaviours at Time 1, however, did not predict significant additional variance in career satisfaction when career management behaviours at Time 2 were also considered. The positive relationship between career management and subjective career success can also be found longitudinally. Daniel Spurk et al. (2011) argued that the CSS can be used as an outcome measure in career intervention programmes (cf. Raabe et al., 2007).

The results from Barnett and Bradley (2007) and Seibert and Kraimer (2001) found that highly proactive individuals more probable to achieve

greater career satisfaction as a result of actively managing their career. Additionally, a number of studies (Freund and Baltes, 1998; Wiese, Freund and Baltes, 2000 ;Wiese, Freund and Baltes, 2002) with respondents from various age groups showed, that optimization career management strategies are correlated with life and job satisfaction. Results from Nabi (2003) among 238 full time support personnel in the UK show that individuals who felt secure in their employment tend to engage in higher levels of a specific career enhancing strategies. The Careers are increasingly concerned with self-fulfilment and satisfaction of oneself from his or her own career (Baruch, 2006).

The following hypothesis was proposed based on the above discussion:

H6: Career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their career satisfaction

2. 9.1.6 Career Management Behaviours and Perceived Employability

In an employment context branded by instability and uncertainty, the extent to which individuals believe to be employable in their current organization or on the external labour market is a relevant dimension of subjective career success (Bird, 1994; Eby et al., 2003; Sullivan, Carden, and Martin, 1998).

For several years, many studies (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman, 2005) have investigated individual and organizational factors that facilitate career success. Both career self-management behaviours and more cognitive indicators of career self-management have been examined as antecedents. Many research shows that individuals who reflect more vigorously regarding their career goals and who have a well built insight in what they want to achieve during their career, report an advanced level of career success. And

also it is supposed that self-managing individuals more vigorously attempt to attain their desired career goals which in turn should make them feel more successful in their career (Arthur et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2005).

The proactive individuals select, create and influence work situations that augment the likelihood of career success (Seibert et al., 1999). In this logic, career self-management can not only result in a advanced level of satisfaction about one's present career status, but also it result in augmented perceptions of employability as it increases employees' options for employment, development and the degree to which they can negotiate about job changes (Claes and Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998).

Several authors (Haines, Scott, and Lincoln, 2003; Watts, 1998; Webster, Wooden and Marks, 2004) reported that career management can be viewed as the ability to build a career; to intentionally manage the interaction of work, learning and other aspects of the individual's life throughout the lifespan. An effect of well-developed career management skills is an improved contribution to economic growth through enhanced employability (Gillie and Gillie Isenhour, 2003; Killeen, White, and Watts, 1992; Mayston, 2002).

The employable person is frequently described as having a flexible attitude towards work and career (Fugate et al, 2004). Flexibility and adaptability tend to be reflected in attitudes towards career self-management and behaviours that support future employability. Meister (1998) defines career self-management as "the ability to keep pace with the speed at which change occurs within the organization and the industry and to prepare for the future. In the past simply maintaining skills may have been adequate to remain employable. Now the pace of change within jobs and organizations means that

employability is essentially about planning and preparing for an uncertain future by investing in key areas including “prioritising and goal setting, proactive change management, personal advocacy and networking, continuous learning and team working” (Bagshaw, 1997). Truty (2003) cites self-directedness, self marketing skills and possession of entrepreneurial savvy among other qualities necessary for future employability in the current employment environment.

Clarke and Patrickson (2008) report that the individuals may no longer anticipate having a job-for-life but there is small evidence that they are engaging in proactive behaviours so as to maintain employability and to manage careers. This dilemma suggests that employer will need to rethink their role in developing and maintaining employability. So, from the literature available it can be inferred that career management behaviours influence the employability; and these discussions result into following hypothesis:

H7: Career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their perceived employability.

2.9.1.7 Career Management Behaviours Mediate in the Relationship between Career Re-entry Factors and Career Satisfaction

Drawing from the existing literature related to the career re-entry factors and career satisfaction, study expected that there is a significant influence of career re-entry factors on career satisfaction. On the literature related to the career management behaviour and career satisfaction, study expected that career management behaviour is an immediate antecedent of career satisfaction. From literature supports, study also expected that career re-entry factors have a significant positive influence on career management

behaviour. On the basis of the above proposed statements and the literature, study argues that there is a mediation effect of career management behaviour in the relationship between factors of career re-entry and career satisfaction of re-entry women. The researcher's choice for mediator derived from the analysis of existing literature as well as the considerations of variables that theoretically affect the dependant variable. Taking to the discussion leads to the formulation of the following hypotheses:

H8: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between intrapersonal factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.

H9: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between work factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.

H10: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between management factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.

H11: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between career factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.

H12: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between societal factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.

2.9.1.8 *Career Management Behaviours Mediate in the Relationship between Career Re-entry Factors and Perceived Employability*

Again, drawing from the existing body of knowledge related to the career re-entry factors and perceived employability, study expected that there is a significant positive impact of career re-entry factors on perceived employability. The literature associated to the career management behaviour and perceived employability; the study anticipated that career management behaviour is a direct antecedent of perceived employability. From existing

literature supports, study also expected that career re-entry factors have a significant positive influence on career management behaviour. On the basis of the above proposed statements and the literature, study argue that there is a mediation effect of career management behaviour in the relationship between factors of career re-entry and perceived employability of re-entry woman professionals. The researcher's preference for mediator derived from the examination of existing literature as well as the manifestations of variables that theoretically affect the dependant variable. Taking to the discussion results into the formulation of the following hypotheses:

H13: There is a relationship between intrapersonal factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.

H14: There is a relationship between work factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.

H15: There is a relationship between management factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.

H16: There is a relationship between career factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.

H17: There is a relationship between societal factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.

2.9.2 The Conceptual Framework for this Study

The model (Figure 2.1) to be tested proposes that the factors of career re-entry influence re-entry woman professionals to internalize career management behaviours. Adopting these behaviours, in turn, leads to enhancement of career satisfaction and perceived employability, which is combinedly branded as career success.

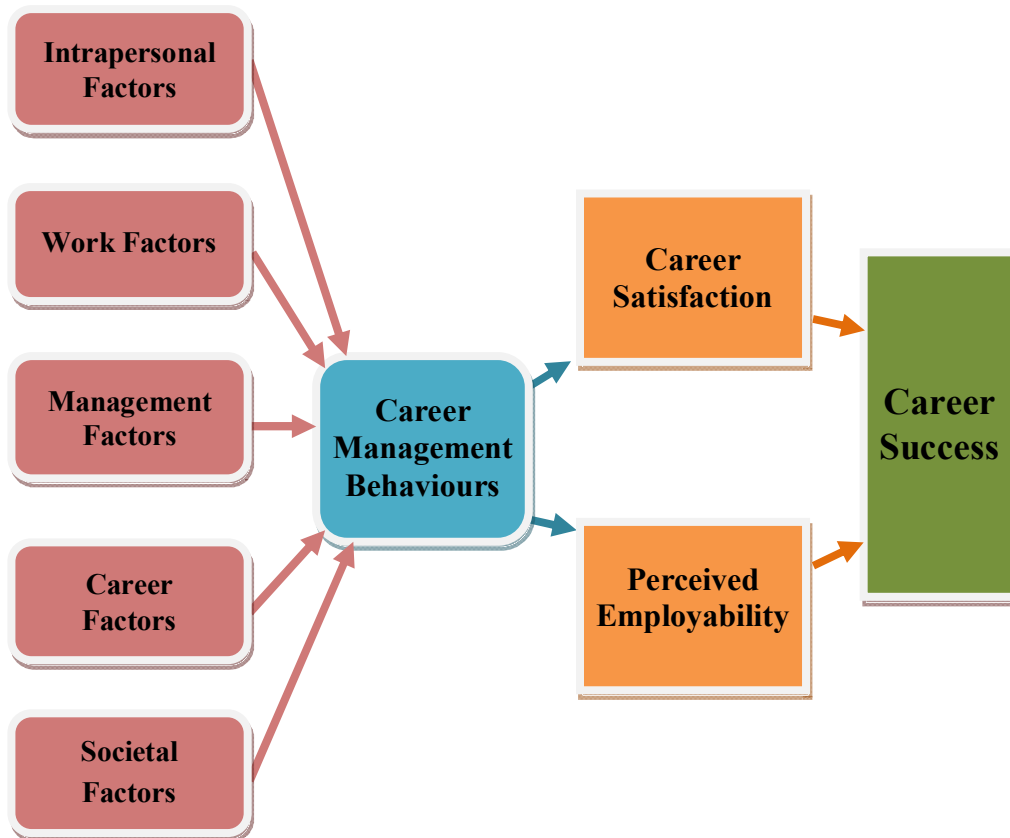


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework of the Study

Based on the literature review, the variables that are significantly impacting the career success of re-entered women were identified. From the observations made from the critical analysis of review of literature, the conceptual framework was developed as shown in Figure 2.1. The dependent variable for the study was career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability). The career re-entry factors (the factors that influence perception of problems in the form of intrapersonal, work, management, career and the society, experienced by women who have re-entered their career) were identified as the independent variables. Career management behaviours were considered as the intervening or mediating variable. The five re-entry factors influence the re-entry woman professionals to internalize individual career management behaviours (the mediating variable). Adopting these individual career management behaviours, in turn, leads to enhancement of career satisfaction and perceived employability, which are combinedly define career success of re-entered woman professionals.

2.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented detailed review of the literature on the career break and re-entry of woman professionals. The chapter reviewed the five factors of career re-entry, career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals and career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability as they are the major focus of the study). The relevant research in the above domain was reviewed and presented in this chapter. The chapter also explained the theoretical foundation or the conceptual framework of the study, the linkages or relationships between constructs were reviewed and discussed and based on this discussion hypotheses were also developed and presented in this chapter.

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Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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	3.12 <i>Scope of the Study</i>

This chapter presents the different aspects of the research methodology used for the study which include rationale for the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, terms and variables in the study which are employed for the formulation of the theoretical framework of the study, hypotheses to be tested, research design, sampling design, tools for data collection and statistical analysis.

3.1 Rationale for the Study

Woman labour participation has changed radically in recent years. Various studies have examined trends in women's work and family roles and found that the turbulence of the 19th century heralded an awakening to the plight of women and set the scene for the elements of change. A major cause of increased woman labour participation has been due to re-entry of married women with dependent children into the work force. Throughout history, women have been both in the workforce and have also been mothers. Re-entry into the corporate is a dynamic process in which the re-entered women experience problems. The women's return or re-entry into the work force has been showing signs of becoming more complex as a result of the multiple factors that re-entered women encounter when they return. There is a tangible “career penalty” for women: women who interrupt their career experience downward mobility in salary and status. When on a career break, these women often feel disconnected from the labour market and the career break contributes to a knowledge gap, loss of self-efficacy and a loss of opportunities to network; thus the longer the break, greater the impact. One of the dilemmas posed by women's re-entry is the reconciliation of the demands made by two apparently incompatible roles, viz. that of a worker and that of a homemaker. Women who re-enter the profession report on conflicts and emotional distress about their roles and about self and interpersonal dissatisfaction across the globe. No major studies on this topic are reported from India. In this regard, the present study is an attempt to study the factors impacting career re-entry, its relationship with proactive behaviour /career enhancing strategies and their career success.

3.2 Statement of the Problem

Woman professionals who have taken a break in their career face several challenges during and after career re-entry. Women who are re-entering face career punishments even for short time-out periods; long time-out periods increase the risk of a downward move and reduce the chances of an upward move. In Indian context, gender role stereotype-perception is greater than the western societies and hence career break instances tend to escalate. It has also been identified that a similar study has not taken place in India. One of the major areas of potential researches in India is in the area of women re-entering the corporate profession. So, it is apparent that their re-entry phenomenon needs to be researched. In this context, the various factors impacting career re-entry of woman professionals, the impact of career management behaviours and their career success (Career satisfaction and Perceived employability) need to be analyzed. With ever-increasing number of women re-entering the work force, there is an evident need for research regarding career re-entry and problems associated by them.

3.3 Objectives of Research

- 1) The primary objective of this present research is to study the factors impacting career success of re-entered woman professionals.
- 2) To study the relationship between the career re-entry factors and the career management behaviours of woman professionals.

- 3) To study the relationship between career management behaviours and career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) of woman professionals.
- 4) To study the mediating effect of career management behaviours in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career success of woman professionals.
- 5) To make socio-demographic profile of the re-entered woman professionals.
- 6) To know the various reasons for career break and career re-entry of woman professionals and also to know the major challenges faced by them in re-re-entry and factors supported for their career re-entry.

3.4 Variables in this Study

Dependent Variable:	Career Success (Career Satisfaction and Perceived Employability)
Independent Variables:	Intrapersonal Factors, Work Factors, Management Factors, Career Factors and Societal Factors
Mediating Variable:	Career Management Behaviours

3.5 Definitions

The conceptual and operational definitions of the variables used in this study are presented in the following sections:

Career Success:

- Career success can be defined as the “positive psychological and work-related outcomes accumulated as a result of one’s work experiences” (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001).

Subjective Career Success

Conceptual:

- Subjective career success refers to individuals’ evaluation of their career progress accomplishments and anticipated outcomes, relative to their own goals and aspirations (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001)

Operational:

- Subjective career success is defined as the individual’s perception of their achievements and expected psychological and career - related outcomes in the form of career satisfaction and perceived employability relative to their own goals and aspirations.

Career Satisfaction

Conceptual:

- It is the evaluation of an individual’s progress towards meeting different career related goals (e.g., income, achievement, development) and career-related successes (e.g., overall career success (Hofmans, Dries, & Pepermans, 2008).

Operational:

- Career satisfaction is defined as the of individual's perception of their career success by means of career progress towards meeting their career goals, income, advancement and development of new skills.

Perceived Employability

Conceptual:

- Employability is defined as the employee's chance of finding alternative employment, either on the internal or the external labour market (Forrier and Sels 2003).

Operational:

- Employability refers to the woman professionals' perception of their ability to retain and obtain alternative or better employment in the internal or external labour market.

Intrapersonal Factors

Conceptual:

- The Intrapersonal re-entry factors are usually perceived as deficiencies or inadequacies which exist within persons (Greyvenstein, 2000). Role conflict (Murray, 1994), stress (Steinberg, 1993), guilt (Van Deventer, 1998) and loss of self-confidence (Fourie, 1997) can be seen as major intrapersonal issues faced by the re-entering women.

Operational:

- Intrapersonal factors are defined as the individual's perception of inadequacies that exist within the person in the form of role conflict, stress, guilt and loss of self-confidence.

Work Factors

Conceptual:

- The lack of opportunities for in-service training (Ferreira, 1991; Fagan & Williams, 1991), skill obsolescence (Panteli (2012), the lack of retraining programmes (Geber, 1999) in the work situation, the lack of meaningfulness and interesting nature of work, as well as the lack of interpersonal relationships in a work situation are the issues experienced by the re-entry women within the work situation.

Operational:

- Work factors are defined as the individual's perception of inadequacies that exist in work situations in the form of lack of in-service training, skill obsolescence, lack of re-training programs, the nature of work and the lack of interpersonal relationships.

Management Factors

Conceptual:

- Intentional or unintentional discriminatory practice on the part of employers Herkelman et al. (1993) and the absence of legislation and policies are the major issues faced on management level by the re-entry women (Van der Westhuizen (1994).

Operational:

- Management factors are defined as the individual perception of situations that exists at the management level in terms of employer's attitudes, lack of legislation and policies.

Career Factors

Conceptual:

- Insufficient remuneration and the lack of prospects of promotion are the major issue experienced within the career of the women re-entering to the work force (Waldfogel, 1998; Dex et al., 1998).

Operational:

- Career factors are defined as the individual's evaluation of situations that exist in their career in terms of insufficient remunerations and lack of prospects of promotion.

Societal Factors

Conceptual

- The societal role perception: principles of a society may be viewed as problematic if a person's values differ from those of the society (Van der Westhuizen, 1999). The lack of child care arrangements and lack of emotional support are also issues within the society (Redelinghuys et al., 1999).

Operational

- Societal factors are defined as the individual's evaluation of situations that subsist in the society in the form of lack of child care arrangements, societal role perception and the lack of emotional support.

Career Management Behaviours

Conceptual:

- Career management behaviours are the actions that individuals take to achieve their career goals. These behaviours occur when individuals

choose to initiate and intervene in their career situation in such a way that the individual acts in a desired direction, rather than responding passively to an imposed change (Crant, 2000).

Operational:

- Career management behaviours refer to the activities that individuals involve, initiate and participate proactively in their career planning, career-self management and career goal-directed situations, to accomplish their career goals and aspirations rather than passively adapting the current situations.

3.6 Hypotheses

Following section describes the hypotheses proposed for the study and there are 17 hypotheses developed for the present study.

- H1: Intrapersonal factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- H2: Work factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- H3: Management factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- H4: Career factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- H5: Societal factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- H6: Career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their career satisfaction.
- H7: Career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their perceived employability.

- H8: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between intrapersonal factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- H9: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between work factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- H10: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between management factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- H11: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between career factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- H12: Career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between societal factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- H13: There is a relationship between intrapersonal factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.
- H14: There is a relationship between work factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.
- H15: There is a relationship between management factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.
- H16: There is a relationship between career factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.
- H17: There is a relationship between societal factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is mediated by career management behaviours.

3.7 Research Design

The research is both descriptive and explanatory. A descriptive study used to “make descriptions of the phenomena or the characteristics associated with a subject population: who, what, when, where, and how of a topic” (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). The methods typically used in a descriptive research could be surveys, panels, observations, or secondary data analysed in a quantitative manner (Malhotra, 2004). In this study, both primary data and secondary data were used as part of descriptive research. Statistics on various available data regarding women career participation and various scales of different concepts were utilized in order to measure impact of the variables of the study. The descriptive part involves analysing the various factors impacting the career re-entry of professional women; hence this study can be termed as descriptive. This study brings out the relationship of career management behaviour in pursuing their career success as career satisfaction and perceived employability; and study also establishes the relationships of other variables, therefore study can be described as explanatory as well.

3.8 Sampling Design

Since the source list (sampling frame) for the population is non-existent, it was decided to proceed with a non-probability sampling method for this study.

Sampling Method:

Purposive sampling technique was used for this study. The purposive sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling that is most effective when one needs to study a certain cultural domain with knowledgeable experts within.

Unit of Observation/ Sampling Unit:

The unit of observation is professionally qualified women who have filled all the following three criteria:

- 1) Have formally resigned from the previous job,
- 2) Have taken a career break of more than one year duration (without security), and
- 3) Have re-entered the career (re-joined to the career) either in the previous or a new organization.

Professionally qualified women in this study include B-Tech/ M-Tech/ MS/ MBA/ MCA holders working in corporate sector in South India.

3.9 Data Collection

The area/region of study is south India. The area was divided into three categories: Kerala, Tamilnadu and Karnataka. Kochi and Thiruvananthapuram from Kerala, Chennai from Tamil Nadu and Bengaluru from Karnataka were selected for data collection. Questionnaires were distributed through online and offline method. A total of 243 responses were returned representing a moderate return rate. At the end, 219 usable responses were considered, eliminating the incomplete responses and extreme outliers. Out of 219 responses, 69 from Kochi, 53 from Thiruvananthapuram, 55 from Bengaluru and 42 responses from Chennai as received for Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu respectively.

3.10 Instruments for Measurement of Variables

Questionnaire method was used for the data collection. The form was handed over to the respondent with a covering note and necessary instructions were mentioned in it. While constructing the major tool (questionnaire) for data

collection that was used to obtain data from the professionally qualified women, the investigator relied upon some of the established and standardised scales authored by well-known researchers in the field alongside socio-demographic details of the respondents. Information regarding the measures of constructs used (scales adapted) are provided below:

1. Career Re-entry Factors:

M. Beyers (2001) developed the instruments to determine the problems experienced by women returning to the profession after a period of absence. Problem within person (Intrapersonal Factors) Problems within work situation (Work Factors), Problem at management level (Management Factors), Problem within career (Career Factors) and Problem within society (Societal Factors) were the five scale developed by the author. The scales were adapted for the measurement. Measurements on these five scales were made possible with the help of 14 statement items for Intrapersonal factors, 8 statements items work factors, 7 statements items for management factors, 5 statements items for career factors, and 7 statements items for societal factors on a five –point continuum. Responses varied between ‘strongly agree’ (score 5) and ‘strongly disagree’ (score 1).

2. Career Satisfaction:

Career satisfaction was measured using the adopted Career Satisfaction Scale of Greenhaus et al. (1990). The scale has demonstrated an internal consistency correlation of 0.86 (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Respondents indicated their level of agreement with each of the statements. The participating woman professionals were instructed to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with each of the statements. Each of the

preceding item was scored on a category rating scale with the following labels: “strongly disagree”, “disagree to some extent”, “uncertain”, “agree to some extent”, and “strongly agree”. All items were considered indicators of one underlying factor; that is subjective career success. High internal consistency is repeatedly found with the CSS.

3. Perceived Employability:

Perceived employability was measured by using the adopted scale developed by Ans De Vos and Nele Soens (2008). The scale was assessed using three items. Respondents indicated on a 5-point Likert scale to what extent they believed that they were employable. One item was adopted from Eby et al. (2003) (“I believe could easily obtain a comparable job with another employer”). To this, Ans De vos et al. (2008) added two newly constructed items (“I believe I could easily obtain another job that is in line with my level of education and experience”, and “I believe I could easily obtain another job that would give me a high level of satisfaction”). This adapted scale was used to measure the perceived employability in the present study.

4. Career Management Behaviours:

Career Management behaviours were measured using the adopted scale developed by Belinda Renee Barnett and Lisa Bradley (2007). For measuring the comprehensive range of career management behaviours as desired, items from two scales were used by the author. The first scale measured *career planning* using six items developed by Gould (1979). This scale has demonstrated internal consistency reliability above 0.7 in previous studies (Gould, 1979; Wayne et al.,

1999). Participants reported the extent to which they had career goals and plans. Three items were stated in the opposite direction and were reverse scored.

The second scale measured *career self-management behaviours* using 16 items (Sturges et al., 2002). Respondents indicated the extent to which they engaged in networking (e.g. “I have arranged to be introduced to people who can influence my career”), visibility behaviour (e.g. “I have made my direct supervisor aware of my accomplishments”), skills development (e.g. “I have read work-related publications in my spare time”) and mobility-oriented behaviour (e.g. “I have made plans to leave this organisation if it cannot offer me a rewarding career”). Internal consistency correlations above 0.7 were achieved for all of these subscales in a previous study (Sturges et al., 2002).

Control Variables:

Respondents’ demographic and human capital information were collected with single item questions for, age, highest level of education completed, industry, period of break, work experience before break, employment status (full-time/ part-time), reason for career break, challenges faced during break, reason for re-entry and factors supported in re-entry.

3.11 Statistical Analysis and Validation

The statistical package SPSS 21.0 was used for data coding, editing and basic analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistical tools were applied to obtain different measures, coefficients and test results. Exploratory Factor analysis was performed on the pilot data to understand the significant items

underlying there in the measures of construct. Statistical tests like Frequencies, Linear regression and Multiple Regression Analysis were used for hypothesis testing. The evaluation of Measurement model and Structural model were tested with Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using Warp PLS 5.0. The measurement model was used to test the validity and reliability of the measures of construct and the structural model was tested for the model fit and the hypothesis testing. Model estimation delivers empirical measures of the relationship between the indicators and constructs (measurement models) as well as between the constructs (structural model). The Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted together with the Structural Equation Modelling. The present study used the following statistical tools for data analysis and validation.

3.11.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis can be useful for establishing construct validity. In the present study, since the scales used for measuring the constructs are adaptations of the existing scales, face validity and content validity were assumed as established. However, the factor structure or dimensionality of the measures is assessed because of its vital importance in the model specification in structural equation modelling and the conceptual framework. In addition the Career re-entry Factors scale is being used in Indian context for the first time, thus dimensionality of all measures were analysed initially by Exploratory Factor Analysis. The present study used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for extracting the factors. The Varimax procedure in orthogonal approach maximise the sum of variances of the required loadings of the factor matrix and provide a clearest separation of the factors (Hair et al., 2009). The Varimax rotation was used in the present study. Varimax rotation was performed on the extracted factor structure for a

simplified and easily interpretable factor solution. The items that load higher than 0.5 were retained while low loading items were eliminated. The loadings of all indicators should be 0.5 or above on their hypothesized component to be considered practically significant (Hair et al., 2009).

For factor analysis to be done, it is appropriate to first test that variables are sufficiently interconnected and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic is the usual measure for it. The KMO statistic indicates the proportion of variance in the variables that might be caused by underlying factors. KMO is computed for assessing the sampling adequacy for principal component analysis. A minimum value of 0.5 indicates sampling adequacy for factor analysis (Kline, 1994). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity tests correlation among the items of the scale. It tests the hypothesis that the correlation matrix of all items is an identity matrix, i.e., all diagonal elements are 1 and off diagonal elements 0, implying that there is no correlation among these items. Significance at ($p < .01$) rejects the above hypothesis and confirms correlation.

3.11.2 Reliability Analysis of Measures

Reliability is an indicator of a measure's internal consistency. Reliability of a scale refers to its ability to give consistent results. A measure is reliable when different attempts at measuring something converge on the same result. There are several methods to establish the reliability of a measuring instrument. These include test-retest method, equivalent forms, split-halves method and internal consistency method. Of all these methods, the internal consistency method is supposed to be the most effective method and this method is considered to be the universal form of reliability estimation.

Internal consistency method was employed to measure the reliability of the instruments used in the study. The internal consistency is estimated using a reliability coefficient called Cronbach's alpha and it assesses the internal consistency of a scale by finding inter-correlations of items in the scale (Cronbach, 1951). An alpha of .70 or above can be taken as the cut-off for reliability of a scale (Nunnally, 1978). For a measurement instrument to have good reliability, both the composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha coefficients should be equal to or greater than 0.7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were the tests used for measuring internal consistency of items for all the instruments in the study. Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were computed for all the measures forming in the study and reported in the consequent section.

3.11.3 Validity Analysis of Measures

Validity is the accuracy of a measure or the extent to which a score truthfully represents a concept. The four basic approaches to establishing validity are face validity, content validity, criterion validity and construct validity. *Face Validity* refers to the subjective agreement among professionals that a scale logically reflects the concept being measured. *Content Validity* refers to the degree that a measure covers the breadth of the domain of interest. *Criterion Validity* refers to the ability of a measure to correlate with other standard measures of similar constructs or established criteria. *Construct Validity* exists when a measure reliably measures and truthfully represents a unique concept. Construct validity consists of several components including face validity, content validity, criterion validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity. The *Convergent Validity* requires that the concept should

be related to another is in fact related; highly reliable scale contains convergent validity. *Discriminant Validity* represents how unique or distinct is a measure; a scale should not correlate too high with a measure of a different construct. Construct validity is assessed through convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity confirms that the scale is correlated with other known measures of the concept; discriminant validity ensures that the scale is sufficiently different from other similar concepts to be distinct. Convergent and discriminant validities of the scales were established during data analysis. Hence, the present study deals with reflective construct, the construct validation through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (i.e. convergent and discriminant validity) and reliability testing (i.e. Cronbach's Alpha) is appropriate for reflective constructs (MacKenzie et al., 2005).

3.11.4 Validation of Scales

The validity of the scales, both convergent and discriminant, and the reliability of the scale items were checked on Warp PLS 5.0 software. To assess the model fit, Kock (2012) recommended that the p-values for the average path coefficient (APC) and the average r-squared (ARS) be both lower than 0.05 and that the average variance inflation factor (AVIF) be lower than 0.05. These criteria were also checked in all the cases. The validity and reliability guidelines in WarpPLS 5.0 are as shown in the table below:

Table 3.1: Validity/ Reliability Considerations in WarpPLS 5.0

S.NO	Consideration	Guideline	
		Reflective	Formative
1	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient	>0.7	NA
2	Composite Reliability	>0.7	NA
3	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	>0.5	>0.5
4	Convergent Validity	The AVE should be higher than 0.5. p values associated with loadings be lower than 0.05 and the loadings be greater than 0.5	Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)<5; all indicator weights should be with p<0.05
5	Discriminant Validity	An indicator outer loadings on a construct should be higher than all its cross loadings with other construct The square root of AVE should be higher than any of the correlations involving that latent variable	NA

In the present study, the career re-entry factors intrapersonal factors, work factors, management factors, career factors and societal factors were conceptualized as first order constructs and all other constructs such as career management behaviour, career satisfaction and perceived employability were also considered as first order constructs. The path coefficient and associated p-values were obtained by running structural equation modelling.

3.11.5 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a family of statistical models that seek to explain the relationships among multiple variables. In doing so, it examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations, similar to a series of multiple regression equations. These equations depict all of the relationships among construct (the dependent and independent variables) involved in the analysis. Structural Equation Modeling is a confirmatory technique used to determine whether the model developed for the research is valid for data and is a combination of confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis.

The term structural equation model refers to both the structural and measurement model together. In a structural equation modeling analysis, the structural model (inner model) is the part of the model that displays the relationships between the latent variables considered in the model. The measurement model (outer model) is the part of the model that displays the relationships between the latent variables and their indicators. Therefore, the path coefficients are structural model parameter estimates, whereas weights and loading are measurement model parameter estimates depending on whether the measurement model is formative or reflective. Since the study requisited the hypothesized model to be tested for the best-fit of the data, structural equation modeling (SEM) was considered the apt analysis method. There are two approaches to estimate the relationships in a Structural Equation Model (Hair et.al, 2010). One is the more widely applied Covariance-based (CB-SEM) approach and other is PLS-SEM (PLS path modeling) approach or variance based approach to SEM.

3.11.6 Partial Least Squares Approach (PLS-SM)

Structural equation modeling (SEM) employing the partial least squares (PLS) method, or PLS-based SEM for short, has been and continue being extensively used in a wide variety of fields. For the estimation of relationships in research model, partial least square approach (PLS-SEM) or variance based approach was used in the present study. Unlike covariance based approach, the PLS approach, introduced by H. Wold in 1975, focuses on maximizing the variance of the dependent variables explained by the independent ones instead of reproducing the empirical covariance matrix (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004).

It is an iterative algorithm that separately solves out the blocks of the measurement model and then, in a second step, estimates the path coefficients in the structural model. Therefore, PLS-based Structural Equation Modeling is claimed to explain at best the residual variance of the latent variables and, potentially, also of the manifest variables (indicators) in any regression run in the model (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982).

WarpPLS 5.0 software provides users with a wide range of features, several of which are not available from other SEM software. For example, this software is the first and only (at the time of this writing) to explicitly identify non-linear functions connecting pairs of latent variables in SEM models and calculate multivariate coefficients of association accordingly. In addition, this software is the first and only to provide classic PLS algorithms together with factor-based PLS algorithms for SEM (Kock, 2014). Factor-based PLS algorithms generate estimates of both true composites and factors, fully accounting for measurement error. Warp PLS 5.0 estimates enable evaluation of measurement model as well as structural model simultaneously. All hypotheses were tested using structural equation modelling in WarpPLS 5.0. The model fit

with the data was assessed. The path coefficients and associated p values were obtained.

3.11.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis is conducted together with the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). WarpPLS has the provision for conducting the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Kok, 2015, p59). Citing Kline (2008); Schumacher and Lamax (2004); Kok, 2015, p59) states that the ‘p’ values which are given for indicator of all latent variables are often referred to as validation parameters of Confirmatory Factor Analysis, because they resulted from the test of a model where the relationship between the indicators and latent variables are defined in beforehand. Confirmatory Factor Analyses are usually conducted in conjunction with SEM analysis.

3.12 Scope of the Study

Scope of the study has been defined by the following elements: Population, place of study, data sources and period of study.

Population: Sampling frame for the population is non-existent. The unit of observation is professionally qualified women who have formally resigned from the previous job to take a career break of more than one year duration (without security) and have re-joined either in the previous or a new organization. Professionally qualified women in this study include B-Tech/ M-Tech/MS/ MBA/ MCA holders working in corporate sector in South India.

Place of the Study: The area/region of study is south India. The area was divided into three regions: Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. Kochi and Thiruvananthapuram from Kerala, Chennai from Tamil Nadu and Bengaluru

from Karnataka for data collection and the samples were collected accordingly. The sample profile is given in the table No 4.1 in chapter 4.

Data Sources: In order to achieve the stated objectives, the research utilized both primary data and secondary data.

Primary Data: Primary data required for the study were collected from working women who have taken career break using questionnaire survey methods.

Secondary Data: The data were collected from various sources which include research reports, published articles, news reports and conference proceedings available in both national and international level. Information obtained from various sources was used for critical evaluation of the subject and identifying the research gap in the area of study.

Period of Study: The data were collected during the period March 2015 to September 2015.

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Chapter **4**

DATA COLLECTION, RELIABILITY & VALIDITY ANALYSIS

<i>Contents</i>	4.1 <i>Data Collection Records</i>
	4.2 <i>Sample Profile</i>
	4.3 <i>Socio-Demographic Profile of the Respondents</i>
	4.4 <i>Reliability and Factor Validity Analysis of Measures of Construct</i>
	4.5 <i>Descriptive Statistics of the Variables</i>
	4.6 <i>Conclusion</i>

This chapter presents data collection records, sample profile and the socio-demographic profile of the respondents in detail. The chapter then establishes the reliability and factor validity analysis of the measures of construct. This chapter also discusses descriptive statistics of the variables

4.1 Data Collection Records

The area of study is south India. The area was divided into three categories: Kerala, Tamilnadu and Karnataka. Two Cities: Kochi and Thiruvananthapuram from Kerala, Chennai from Tamil Nadu and Bengaluru from Karnataka were selected for data collection. The researcher distributed questionnaires into the sample group through online and offline. Received 243 responses, conducted the scrutiny and after the weeding out of incomplete and ineligible responses from the data records selected 219 responses as useful for the final data analysis.

4.2 Sample Profile

The number of re-entry women who took part in this research survey as respondents in Kerala, Karnataka and Tamilnadu are given in the table 4.1. The detailed description of the profile of the respondents is provided below.

Table 4.1: Details of the Sample Profile

Sl. No.	State	City	Number of Respondents	Percentage	
1	Kerala	Kochi	69	31.5%	55.7%
		Thiruvananthapuram	53	24.2%	
2	Karnataka	Bengaluru	55	25.11%	
3	Tamil Nadu	Chennai	42	19.17%	
Total			219	100	

The table 4.1 shows that out of 219 responses, 69 (31.5%) from Kochi, 53 (24.2%) from Thiruvananthapuram, 55 (25.11%) from Bengaluru and 42 (19.17%) responses from Chennai as received for Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu respectively.

The researcher received majority of the responses through offline method. Received more responses (both offline and online) from Kochi as it is the emerging business hub. Info Park, many Start-ups and other job openings are more there in Kochi compared to other cities of Kerala. Researcher next received more offline and online responses mainly from researcher received online as well as offline responses from Bengaluru and from the Business centres of Thiruvananthapuram as Techno Park and Kinfra Park and other companies located there. In addition to this, researcher received better offline and online responses from Chennai.

4.3 Socio- Demographic Profile of the Respondent

The most common features that influences the re-entry of women is; the re-entry age. There may be considerable differences in the nature of the problems experienced by returning women in the different life stages (Beyers, 2001). Fagan and Williams (1991) reported that the population of re-entry women was diverse and heterogeneous: They varied in age, marital status, and socioeconomic background. The age at the time of career re-entry, educational qualification, type of employment, re-entered industry, work experience before break, length of the break, reasons for career break, challenges faced during break, reasons for re-entry and activities supported for re-entry, are also an important aspects for career re-entry of woman professionals. The present study included the socio-demographic variables with an intention of exploring whether they are impacting the career re-entry of woman professionals.

4.3.1 Age of Re-entered Woman Professionals

Re-entry ages of respondents are classified into five categories. Majority of the respondents' age range at the time of re-entry is under 25-30 followed

by 31-35, below 25 years and respondents of 36-45. The classifications are given below:

Table 4.2: Classification of Re-entered Age Group

Sl. No.	Age Group	Frequency	Percent
1	Below 25	14	6.4%
2	25-30	133	60.7%
3	31-35	63	28.8%
4	36-45	09	4.1%
5	Above 45	Nil	Nil
Total		219	100

Table 4.2 tells that the majority of the respondents fall under the category of 25-30 years age group accounting for 60% followed by 31-35 accounting for 28.8%. Below 25 years accounting for 6.4 % and 36-45 accounting for 4 %. The respondents of the present study are varied in age profile which supports the report of Fagan and Williams (1991) that the population of re-entry women was diverse and heterogeneous: they varied in age within certain lower age categories. None of the respondents of the present study fall under the category of above 45 years, which supports the existing literature that discrimination with regard to the age is seen as a significant problem (Lemmer, 1990).

4.3.2 Marital Status of the Re-entered Women

Marital status of the respondents is classified into three categories. Majority of the respondents were married. The details are given in the table below:

Table 4.3: Marital Status of Re-entered Women

Sl. No.	Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
1	Married	210	95.9%
2	Widow	02	0.9%
3	Divorcee	07	03.2%
Total		219	100

Table 4.3 depicts that most of the respondents are married which accounts 95.9%. Of them, 3.2% were divorcees and 2 respondents were widows. Hence, the present results revealed that majority of the re-entry women are enjoying a secured marital status.

4.3.3 Educational Qualifications of Re-entered Women

The data collection was done among the re-entered woman professionals, who have different professional qualifications. The professional qualifications are classified into four groups as follows:

Table 4.4: Educational Qualifications of Re-entered Women

Sl. No.	Educational Qualification	Frequency	Percent
1	MBA	96	43.8%
2	MCA	26	11.9%
3	B-Tech	72	32.9%
4	M-Tech/MS	25	11.4%
Total		219	100

Table 4.4 above shows that most of the respondents were MBA graduates accounting for 43.8% followed by B.Tech graduates accounting 32.9%. MCA graduates accounting 11.9% and M.Tech/MS graduates

accounting 11.4 % which is minority among the group. As the B.Tech and MBA courses are very popular among the mainstream of student community and the number of B.Tech and MBA graduates are more compared to other professional graduates, the respondents adequately represent the sample group. Results try to say that professionals like MBA graduates are more likely to make and get a re-entry compared to other professionals.

Additional qualifications of the respondents are classified into four groups via M.Phil, PhD, PDF and others. Only 5% of the respondents were PhD holders and they were working in education sector in South India.

4.3.4 Industry before Career Break

Industry-wise classification before career breaks of the re-entry woman professionals included in the present study is reported in the table 4.4. Industry before break is classified into six groups. Majority of the respondents come under IT/ICT industries followed by Manufacturing.

Table 4.5: **Industry before Career Break**

Sl. No.	Industry	Frequency	Percent
1	IT/ ICT	124	56.6%
2	Manufacturing	39	17.8%
3	Banking/Finance	30	13.7%
4	Health Care	06	02.7%
5	Education	20	09.1%
6	Retail	Nil	Nil
Total		219	100

Table 4.5 depicts that most of the respondents are belonging to the IT/ICT Industry accounting for 56.6% followed by Manufacturing 17.8%,

Banking and Finance 13.7%, Education 9.1% and only 2.7% from Health Care Industry. None of the respondents come from Retail Industry. These responses support the fact that majority of the professional women workforce are associated with IT/ICT industry as it provides immense opportunities for woman professionals across South India.

4.3.5 Industry after Re-entry

Distribution of re-entry woman professionals across Industries is classified into six groups. Majority of the respondents were associated with IT/ICT Industry followed by Manufacturing and Education. The details of the distribution of re-entry women professionals across industries are given below:

Table 4.6: Industry after Re-entry

Sl. No.	Industry	Frequency	Percent
1	IT/ ICT	119	54.3%
2	Manufacturing	34	15.5%
3	Banking/Finance	27	12.3%
4	Health Care	06	02.7%
5	Education	33	15.1%
6	Retail	Nil	Nil
Total		219	100

Table 4.6 depicts that most of the respondents (Re-entry woman professionals) of the present study come under IT/ICT Industry accounting for 54.3%, followed by Manufacturing 15.5%, Education 15.1% Banking and Finance 12.3% and 2.7% Health care Industry. None of the respondents were

associated with Retail Industry. The data support that the majority of the re-entry women are associated with the IT/ICT Industry, as it provides more opportunities for women workforce. So, the nature of the industry before break and after re-entry not changed. It does not mean that the same people re-enter into the same industry.

4.3.6 Type of Employment

The employment status of the re-entry women was classified into three categories. Majority of the respondents come under the category of full-time permanent employment. The details of the classification are given below:

Table 4.7: Type of Employment

Type of Employment	Frequency	Percent
Full-time /Permanent Employment	184	84.0%
Full-time /Temporary Employment	35	16.0%
Part-time Employment	Nil	Nil
Total	219	100.0

Above table 4.7 presents the result which shows that majority of the respondents come under the category of full-time permanent employment accounting for 84% and the remaining respondents come under the category of full-time temporary employment.

4.3.7 Work Experience before Re-entry

Classification of respondents based on their work experience before re-entry was done. They are classified into five groups based on number of years of experience. The details of the classification are given below:

Table 4.8: **Work Experience before Re-entry**

S.No.	Work Experience	Frequency	Percent
1	Less than an year	05	02.3%
2	1-2 Years	98	44.7%
3	3-5 Years	94	42.9%
4	6-10 Years	21	9.6%
5	More than 10 Years	01	0.5%
Total		219	100

Table 4.8 tells that the majority of the respondents have an experience of 1-2 years (44.7%), 42.4% of them have 3-5 years of experience, 9.6% of them have an experience of 6-10 years, 2.3% of them have less than an year experience and only 1 respondent has an experience of more than 10 years. The data reveal that majority of the respondents have 1-2 years of work experience before their re-entry.

4.3.8 Length (Period) of the Break

The classification of period of break (length of the break) of the re-entry women was done. The respondents are classified into four groups. Majority of the respondents come under the category of 1-2 years.

Table 4.9: **Period of the Break**

Sl.No.	Period of Break	Frequency	Percent
1	1-2 Years	155	70.8%
2	3-5 Years	59	26.9%
3	6-10 Years	05	02.3%
4	More than 10 Years	Nil	Nil
Total		219	100

Table 4.9 depicts that most of the respondents who took a career break of 1-2 years accounting for 70% followed by 3-5 years category accounting for 26.9 %. Only 2.3% of them took a break of 6-10 years and none of the respondents had more than 10 years of break. The data support the literature that great variations exist among individuals as to the length of the break from work. The length of the break from work can range from a minimum absence to a number of years (Lemmer, 1990). The length in a woman's absence from work depends on her relationships with the family and other life events such as marriage and family formation (Fagan and Williams, 1991).

4.3.9 Reasons for Career Break

Analysis was done to explore the various reasons for career break of woman professionals in South India. The major reason for career break of woman professional is childbirth. The details of the analysis are given in table below:

Table 4.10: **Reasons for Career Break**

Sl. No.	Reason	Frequency	Percent
1	Childbirth	171	78.1%
2	Husband's Job Re-location	26	11.9%
3	Due to Marriage	14	06.4%
4	Dependent Care	02	0.9%
5	Higher Education	06	02.7%
Total		219	100

Table 4.10 presents the results that shows that majority of the respondents took a career break due to childbirth (78.1%), 11.9% of the respondents for their husbands' job re-location, 6.4% for their marriage, 2.7% for the purpose of higher education and only 2 respondents took the break for dependent care.

The data records support the existing literature as the decision to exit the job market is influenced by the woman's position in the family life cycle. Today's woman has multiple roles and responsibilities as a family member, parent, community member and worker (Fagan and Williams, 1991). Women go on a career break for various reasons, the most common one being a maternity leave (Equalitec, 2005). Therefore, career break from the job market is usually initiated by decisions of marriage, family formation and geographic moves when a husband secures a new job (Lemmer, 1990; Herkelmann et al., 1993; Lombard, 1999; Maskel, 1997; Sterret, 1999). The present results confirm previous findings (Rajesh and Ekambaram, 2013) of childcare being the single most significant life event impacting professional career women with respect to their career break.

4.3.10 Challenges Faced Before Re-entry

This part of analysis was done to explore the challenges faced before re-entry. The challenges were classified into thirteen. The analysis was done using Mean and Standard Deviation of each challenge. The details of the analysis are given in the table below:

Table 4.11: Challenges Faced Before Re-entry

Sl. No.	Challenges	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
1	Lack of Confidence	2.53	1.479	10
2	Lack of Support	2.46	1.424	11
3	Lack of Career awareness	2.74	1.256	8
4	Depreciation of Skills	2.84	1.412	6
5	Redundancy of Skills	2.80	1.293	7
6	Lack of Recent Work Experiences	3.14	1.267	1
7	Job Became Redundant	2.40	1.126	12
8	Lack of Job Opportunities	2.95	1.272	3
9	No Promotional Opportunities	2.94	1.296	4
10	Lack of Lateral Job Opportunities (No Suitable Position to Return to)	3.00	1.230	2
11	Employers Discrimination /Recruiting Agencies	2.88	1.272	5
12	Commitment and Productivity Issues	2.58	1.323	9
13	Age Discrimination	2.33	1.243	13

The table 4.11 presents the result that shows that challenges faced during re-entry were heterogeneous. Among the thirteen challenges faced before re-entry, the lack of recent work experience scored the highest mean value (M=3.14) followed by the lack of lateral job opportunities (M=3.00). The lack of job opportunities (M=2.95), no promotional opportunities (M=2.94), employer discrimination (M=2.88), depreciation of skills (M=2.84) and redundancy of skills (M=2.80) were also scored higher mean values, which shows that these are the significant challenges faced by the re-entry women when they are attempting to get a re-entry to their career. The challenges of lack of career awareness (M=2.74) was scored moderate mean values meaning that this

challenge also impact their re-entry. The remaining challenges like lack of confidence and the commitment and productivity issues scored low mean values, the other challenges like lack of support (M=2.46), job redundancy (M=2.40) and age discrimination were scored very low mean value, meaning that these challenges are not significantly impacting their re-entry.

4.3.11 Reasons for Re-entry

Analysis was done to explore the various reasons of career re-entry of woman professionals in South India. The major reason for the career re-entry of woman professionals is their passion towards the career. The details of the analysis are given in table below.

Table 4.12: **Reasons for Re-entry**

Sl. No.	Reason for Re-entry	Frequency	Percent
1	Financial Reason	62	28.3
2	Passionate about Career	76	34.7
3	Children grown up and at School	32	14.6
4	Need to be Self -Supporting	49	22.4
Total		219	100

Table 4.12 presents the results that show that the reasons of career re-entry were diverse. 34.7% of the respondents re-entered to their career because of their passion towards their career, more than 28% of the respondents reported that they came back to the workforce due to financial reasons. Above 22% of them reported that they came back to the career because of the need to be self-supporting and the remaining participants (14.6%) re-entered to the career because of their children are now grown up and at school.

The present results confirming the literature (Padula, 1994) of re-entry women that vocational reasons as motive for workforce re-entry such as the desire to have a career and to become self-supporting. Literature prop up that women with a low family income are likely to return to Work (Barrow, 1999). Previous findings of Fagan and Williams (1991) support the present findings that a reason for women's return is to be self-supporting. Other reasons of re-entry of women professionals reported as children entering school and growing up (Padula, 1994), hence present results confirming the existing literature that reason for women re-entry is common for career women across the globe.

4.3.12 Factors Supported for Re-entry

Analysis was done to explore the factors supported for re-entry of woman professionals in South India. The factors supported for re-entry were diverse. The details of the analysis are given in table below:

Table 4.13: **Factors Supported for Re-entry**

Si. No.	Factor	Frequency	Percent
1	Attended Training & Skill Development Programs	43	19.6%
2	Keep Up-to-date	11	5.0%
3	Maintained Networks	32	14.6%
4	Done Individual Projects	8	3.7%
5	Career Plans with Mentor/Re-entry Programs	16	7.3%
6	Short Duration of Break	15	6.8%
7	Quality of Work Done Before Break	37	16.9%
8	No. of Years Work Experience Prior to Break	11	5.0%
9	Educational Level	46	21.0%
Total		219	100

The table 4.13 presents the results that show that the factors supported for re-entry were varied among the respondents. Twenty one percent of the respondents reported that their education level supported them to for re-entry. More than 19% of the respondents reported that attended training and skill development programs supported them to get a re-entry, 16.9% of respondents reported that quality of work done before re-entry helped them for re-entry, 14.6% of them reported that they maintained their network that support them for their re-entry, 7.3% of the respondents reported that career plans with Mentor /Re-entry programs support them, 6.8 % of them reported that short duration of their break supported them for re-entry. Keeping up to date, number of years of work experience prior to work and done individual projects are supporting factors for re-entry of remaining respondents.

4.4 Reliability and Factor Validity Analysis of Measures of Construct

4.4.1 Intrapersonal Factors

i. Reliability

For a measurement instrument to have good reliability, both the composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha coefficients should be equal to or greater than 0.7. The initial scale of the Intrapersonal Factors had 14 items. Reliability analysis by internal consistency method was conducted for Intrapersonal Factors Scale. Two items were dropped since these items registered low item-total correlation in the reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha for Intrapersonal Factors, thus resulted in 12 items scale. Deletion of these items from the scale resulted in enhanced reliability. The final Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient was 0.926 with 12 items.

ii. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation of 12 items was conducted using SPSS 21.0 for Intrapersonal Factors. KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Intrapersonal Factors were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of both the analyses:

Table 4.14: **Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Intrapersonal Factors**

KMO	.928	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1504.164
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

Above table depicts that the KMO measure is 0.928, which is well exceeding the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) and the test value was high at 1504.164 leading to the conclusion that there were correlations in the data set appropriate for factor analysis, hence the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factor. Factor loadings of 0.4 or higher were taken as significant loadings considering the sample size of the study ($N=219$). As per the guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size by Hair et al. (2012), significant factor loadings for sample size of 200 and 250 are 0.4 and 0.35 respectively, i.e., in a small sample size, larger factor loadings required for significance. Hence, it was decided to proceed with 0.5 as the cut-off value for the factor loadings. The factor structure explains

58.539% variance for Intrapersonal Factors. Thus, the percentage of variance explained by the factor structure is more than 50%, which is considered as acceptable (Hair et al., 1998).

4.4.2 Work Factors

i. Reliability

Reliability analysis by internal consistency method was conducted for work factors scale. The scale had 8 items. The reliability analysis with Cronbach's alpha revealed the entire item-total correlation is above the acceptable minimum. The analysis yields a Cronbach's alpha of 0.880, which confirmed that all the item-total correlation is acceptable.

ii. Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis using Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation 8 items was conducted for factor extraction for work factors. KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for work Factors were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of both the analyses.

Table 4.15: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Work Factors

KMO	.902	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	709.923
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

From the above table we can understand that the KMO measure is 0.902, which is well above the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) at 709.923, therefore the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factor. Factor loadings of 0.5 or above were taken as significant loadings. The factor structure explains 54.391% variance for work Factors. Thus the percentage of variance explained by the factor structure is acceptable.

4.4.3 Management Factors

i. Reliability

The Reliability analysis by internal consistency method was conducted for work factors scale. The scale had 7 items initially. The reliability analysis with Cronbach's alpha revealed the entire item-total correlation is above the acceptable minimum. The analysis yield a Cronbach's alpha of 0.841, which confirmed that all the item-total correlation is acceptable.

ii. Factor Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation of 7 items was performed. KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for management factors were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of both the analyses:

Table 4.16: **Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Management Factors**

KMO	.874	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	502.126
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

The above table shows that the KMO measure is 0.874, which is well above the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed.

Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) at 502.126, therefore the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factor. Factor loadings of 0.5 or higher were taken as significant loadings. The factor structure explains 51.457% variance for management factors. Thus the percentage of variance explained by the factor structure is acceptable.

4.4.4 Career Factors

i. Reliability

Reliability analysis by internal consistency method was conducted for career factors scale. The scale had 5 items .The reliability analysis with Cronbach’s alpha revealed the entire item-total correlation is above the acceptable minimum. The analysis yields a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.782, which confirmed that all the item-total correlation is acceptable.

ii. Factor Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation of 5 items was conducted. KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity for Career Factors were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of both the analyses:

Table 4.17: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Career Factors

KMO	.809	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	269.264
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

The above table depict that the KMO measure is 0.809, which is well above the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) at 269.264, therefore the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factor. Factor loadings of 0.5 or higher were taken as significant loadings. The factor structure explains 53.499% variance for Career Factors. Thus, the percentage of variance explained by the factor structure is acceptable.

4.4.5 Societal Factors

i. Reliability

The initial scale of the Societal Factors had 7 items. One item was dropped since this item registered low item-total correlation in the reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha for Intrapersonal Factors, thus resulted in 6 items scale. Deletion of this item from the scale resulted in improved reliability of the scale. The final Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient was 0.889 with 6 items scale.

ii. Factor Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation of 6 items was done. KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Societal Factors were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of both analyses:

Table 4.18: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Societal Factors

KMO	.906	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	741.956
	df	15
	Sig.	.000

The above table depict that the KMO measure is 0.906, which is well above the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) at 741.956, therefore the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factor. Factor loadings of 0.5 or higher were taken as significant loadings. The factor structure explains 66.81% variance for Societal Factors. Thus the percentage of variance explained by the facture structure is acceptable.

4.4.6 Career Management Behaviours (CMB)

i. Reliability

The Reliability analysis by internal consistency method was conducted for Career Management Behaviour scale. The scale had 22 items. The reliability analysis with Cronbach’s alpha revealed the entire item-total correlation is above the acceptable minimum. The analysis yields a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.955, which confirmed that all the item-total correlation is acceptable.

ii. Factor Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation of 22 items was done. KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Career Management Behaviour were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of two analyses:

Table 4.19: **Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Career Management Behaviour**

KMO	.951	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3146.625
	df	231
	Sig.	.000

The above table shows that the KMO measure is 0.951 which is well above the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) at 3146.625, therefore, the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factor. Factor loadings of 0.5 or higher were taken as significant loadings. The factor structure explains 51.662 % variance for career satisfaction. Thus, the percentage of variance explained by the factor structure is acceptable.

4.4.7 Career Satisfaction

i. Reliability

The reliability analysis by internal consistency method was conducted for Career Satisfaction Scale. The scale had 5 items. The reliability analysis

with Cronbach’s alpha revealed the entire item-total correlation is above the acceptable minimum. The analysis yield a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.907, which established that all the item-total correlation is acceptable.

ii. Factor Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation of 5 items was done. KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity for career satisfaction were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of both the analyses:

Table 4.20: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Career Satisfaction

KMO	.884	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	675.661
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

The above table shows that the KMO measure is 0.884, which is well above the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) at 675.661, therefore, the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factor. Factor loadings of 0.5 or higher were taken as significant loadings. The factor structure explains 72.876% variance for career satisfaction. Thus, the percentage of variance explained by the factor structure is acceptable.

4.4.8 Perceived Employability

i. Reliability

The Reliability analysis by internal consistency method was conducted for perceived employability. The scale had 3 items. The reliability analysis with Cronbach's alpha revealed the entire item-total correlation is above the acceptable minimum. The analysis yields a Cronbach's alpha of 0.852, which established that all the item-total correlation is acceptable.

ii. Factor Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation of 3 items was done. KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for perceived employability were performed for the scale items. The following table presents the results of two analyses:

Table 4.21: **Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Perceived Employability**

KMO	.708	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	300.929
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

The above table shows that the KMO measure is 0.708, which is well above the obligatory minimum of 0.5, hence sampling adequacy is confirmed. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.01$) at 300.929, therefore the stability of this dataset for factor analysis is confirmed.

The principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of one factors. Factor loadings of 0.5 or higher were taken as

significant loadings. The factor structure explains 77.202 % variance for career satisfaction. Thus, the percentage of variance explained by the factor structure is acceptable.

Reliability Analysis of Different Measures of the Study

For the present study, the reliability was tested by computing Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability for all the measures. The values of Cronbach's alpha are given in the table 4.22

Table 4.22: **Reliability Analysis of Measures of Construct**

Sl. No.	Measure	No. of Items	Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficients
1	Intrapersonal Factors(IPF)	12	0.926
2	Work Factors (WF)	08	0.880
3	Management Factors(MF)	07	0.841
4	Career Factors (CF)	05	0.782
5	Societal Factors (SF)	06	0.889
6	Career Management Behaviour (CMB)	22	0.955
7	Career Satisfaction (CS)	05	0.907
8	Perceived Employability (PE)	03	0.852

As seen in the table 4.22 the Cronbach's alpha coefficient from 0. 0.782 to 0.959, it is above the 0.7 threshold. Hence, it can be concluded that all the measures of the study has an acceptable reliability.

4.5 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

There are eight variables of interest in this study. The five Career Re-entry factors: Intrapersonal Factors (IF), Work Factors (WF), Management Factors (MF), Career Factors (CF) and Societal Factors (SF) are the independent

variables of the study. These variables form the vital focus of this study. Career Satisfaction (CS) and Perceived Employability (PE) are the two dependent variables for measuring the Subjective Career Success. Career Management Behaviour (CMB) is the mediating variable in the hypothesised relationship between five Career Re-entry Factors and Subjective Career Success (Career Satisfaction Perceived Employability). The following table 4.23 presents the descriptive statistics of the variables of the study.

Table 4.23: Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Sl. No	Variable	N	Mean	Median	SD
1	Intrapersonal Factors(IPF)	219	3.8600	3.7500	.58686
2	Work Factors (WF)	219	3.3887	3.3750	.72628
3	Management Factors(MF)	219	3.7730	3.7143	.55943
4	Career Factors (CF)	219	3.8895	3.8000	.57312
5	Societal Factors (SF)	219	3.8950	3.8333	.54756
6	Career Management Behaviour (CMB)	219	3.7464	3.7273	.59047
7	Career Satisfaction (CS)	219	3.7982	3.8000	.74464
8	Perceived Employability (PE)	219	3.8037	3.6667	.74979

The above table provides the descriptive statistics of the variables. Maximum actual value possible for each variable is five. Mean and median values of all data distributions are varied, but still relatively close. The result indicates that data distribution of variables for all cases is not perfectly normal, but the deviation from the normality appears to be slight, which indicates an approximate normality for all data distribution.

4.6 Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 has dealt with data collection records, sample profile, reliability and validity of measures and descriptive statistics in detail. The socio-demographic profiles of the respondents are discussed in order to have a better understanding of their milieu. The main focus of this chapter was the analysis of the reliability and factor validity measures of eight variables included in the conceptual model of the present study. The descriptive statistics of the variables is also presented in this chapter.

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Chapter 5

HYPOTHESIS TESTING & MODEL ANALYSIS

<i>Contents</i>	5.1 <i>Testing Hypotheses</i>
	5.2 <i>Analysis of Conceptual Model of the Study</i>
	5.3 <i>Analysis of Measurement Model of the Study</i>
	5.4 <i>Analysis of Structural Model of the Study</i>
	5.5 <i>Analysis of Common Method Variance</i>
	5.6 <i>Chapter Summary</i>

Having discussed the data collection details, sample profile, factor validity, reliability and descriptive of the variables in the preceding chapter, the thesis now proceeds to the testing of hypotheses and empirical analysis of the conceptual model. Data analysis was done using SPSS 21.0 and WarpPLS 5.0. Initially, the test of Hypotheses dealing with the positive influence of variables and their meditational relationships are presented. The conceptual model analysis using PLS method is provided subsequently. Model analysis mainly presented in two sections. First part discusses the reliability and validity of the measurement model. The structural model analysis and interpretation is presented in the second section. Common method variance is also discussed in the present chapter.

5.1 Testing of Hypotheses

All the paths in the structural model were examined to test the hypotheses. There were 17 hypotheses including the mediation hypotheses developed for study. In order to find the influence of independent variables on mediating variable, 5 hypotheses were developed. To check the impact of mediating variable on the dependent variables, 2 hypotheses were developed. To test the effect of mediating variable in the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables, 10 hypotheses were developed. Each and every test of the hypothesis starts with the statement of alternative hypothesis.

5.1.1 Testing of Hypothesis-1

H 1: *Intrapersonal Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours*

To find out the influence of Intrapersonal Factors on Career Management Behaviours, a linear regression analysis was performed.

Table 5.1: Regression Analysis Results for Intrapersonal Factors on Career Management Behaviours

Hypothesis	Adjusted R Square	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	p-value
Intrapersonal Factors→ Career Management Behaviours	0.13	0.357	0.063	p<0.01

From the above table, the regression analysis result is found to be significant at 1% level, and it is clearly conveying that adjusted R square value is 0.13 with a β value of 0.357 which indicates that 13 % of the variation in

Career Management Behaviours is accounted by Intrapersonal Factors. Therefore, results support the hypothesis 1 that ‘Intrapersonal Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours’.

5.1.2 Testing of Hypothesis -2

H2: Work Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours

In order to find out the influence of Work factors on Career Management Behaviours, a linear regression analysis was performed.

Table 5.2: Regression Analysis Results for Work Factors on Career Management Behaviours

Hypothesis	Adjusted R Square	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	p value
Work Factors→Career Management Behaviours	0.08	0.274	0.064	p<0.001

From the above table, the regression analysis result is found to be significant at 1% level, and it conveys that adjusted R square value is 0.13 with a β value of 0.274 which indicates that 8 % of the variation in Career Management Behaviours is accounted by Work Factors. Therefore, results support the hypothesis 2 that ‘Work Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours’.

5.1.3 Testing of Hypothesis-3

H 3: Management Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours

In order to find out the influence of Management Factors on Career Management Behaviours, a linear regression analysis was performed. The following table presents the results:

Table 5.3: Regression Analysis Results for Management Factors on Career Management Behaviours

Hypothesis	Adjusted R Square	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	p value
Management Factors \rightarrow Career Management Behaviours	0.13	0.359	0.063	p<0.01

From the above table, the regression analysis result is found to be significant at 1% level, and it conveys that adjusted R square value is 0.13 with a β value of 0.359 which indicates that 13 % of the variation in Career Management Behaviours is accounted by Management Factors. Therefore, the results support the hypothesis 13 that ‘Management Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours’.

5.1.4 Testing of Hypothesis-4

H 4: Career factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours

In order to find out the influence of Career Factors on Career Management Behaviours, a linear regression analysis was performed. The following table presents the results:

Table 5.4: Regression Analysis Results for Career Factors on Career Management Behaviours

Hypothesis	Adjusted R Square	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	p value
Career Factors \rightarrow Career Management Behaviours	0.14	0.371	0.063	p<0.01

From the above table, the regression analysis result is found to be significant at 1% level, and it conveys that adjusted R square value is 0.14 with a β value of .371 which indicates that 14 % of the variation in Career Management Behaviours is accounted by Career Factors. Therefore, the results support the hypothesis 4 that ‘Career Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours’.

5.1.5 Testing of Hypothesis-5

H 5: *Societal Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours*

In order to find out the influence of Societal Factors on Career Management Behaviours, a linear regression analysis was performed. The following table presents the results:

Table 5.5: Regression Analysis Results for Societal Factors on Career Management Behaviours

Hypothesis	Adjusted R Square	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	p value
Societal Factors → Career Management Behaviours	0.02	0.132	0.066	p<0.024

From the above table, the regression analysis result is found to be significant at 2.4% level, and it conveys that adjusted R square value is 0.02 with a β value of 0.066 which indicates that 2 % of the variation in Career Management Behaviours is accounted by Societal Factors. Therefore, the results support the hypothesis 5 that ‘Societal Factors have a positive impact on Career Management Behaviours’.

5.1.6 Testing of Hypothesis-6

H 6: Career Management Behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their Career Satisfaction.

A linear regression analysis was performed to find out the impact of Career Management Behaviours of re-entry woman professionals on their Career Satisfaction. The following table presents the results:

Table 5.6: Regression Analysis Results for Career Management Behaviours on Career Satisfaction

Hypothesis	Adjusted R Square	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	p value
Career Management Behaviour \rightarrow Career Satisfaction	0.37	0.61	0.060	p<0.01

The above regression results show that adjusted R square value is 0.37, with a β value of 0.61 significant at 1% level, hence, it is indicated that 37% of the variation in Career Satisfaction is accounted by Career management behaviours. Thus, the results proved that the hypothesis 6 that ‘Career Management Behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their Career Satisfaction’.

5.1.7 Testing of Hypothesis-7

H 7: Career Management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their Perceived Employability.

A linear Regression Analysis was done to find out the impact of Career Management Behaviours of re-entry woman professionals on their Perceived Employability. The following table presents the results:

Table 5.7: Regression Analysis Results for Career Management Behaviours on Perceived Employability

Hypothesis	Adjusted R Square	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	p value
Career Management Behaviours \rightarrow Perceived Employability	0.44	0.66	0.060	p<0.01

The above table says that the adjusted R square value is 0.44, with a β value of 0.66 significant at 1% level, hence, it is indicated that 44 % of the variation in Perceived Employability is predicted by Career Management Behaviours. Thus, the results demonstrated that the hypothesis 7 ‘Career Management Behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their Perceived Employability’ is proved.

Mediation Hypotheses

5.1.8 Testing of Hypothesis-8

H 8: Career Management Behaviours mediate in the relationship between Intrapersonal Factors of re-entry women and their Career Satisfaction.

Mediating effect of career management behaviours on the relationship between Intrapersonal Factors and Career Satisfaction was done through bootstrapping results available with PLS-SEM. The mediation analysis adopts the Baron and Kenny Approach for testing the mediation. In addition to this, Sobel test statistics was computed to confirm the mediation effect. The method adopted is explained in details below.

Baron and Kenny Approach is one of the most extensively used method to test the effect of mediator on a relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), four conditions are necessary to establish mediation: (a) the independent and dependent variables must be significantly related; (b) the independent and mediating variables must be significantly related; (c) the mediator and dependent variable must be significantly related; and (d) the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable should be non-significant or weaker when the mediator is added.

There is a full mediation or total mediation when the direct path is non-significant in a mediation model. The path significance of the indirect effect can be calculated by Sobel Test (Sobel, 1982). The test provides the significance of indirect effect of independent variable on the dependent variable.

In the present study, proposed mediation hypothesis was tested with Structural Equation Modelling using WarpPLS 5.0. The study conducted mediation analysis in the following process. PLS bootstrapping gives the path coefficients in the mediational model. In order to assess the direct path between Intrapersonal Factors and Career Satisfaction, PLS model without Career Management Behaviours was also analysed. Table 5.8 presents the path coefficient for analysing the mediation-effect of Career Management Behaviours (CMB) on the relationship between Intrapersonal Factors (IPF) and Career Satisfaction (CS).

Table 5.8(a): Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
IPF→CS	0.171	0.065	0.029	P<0.01

The above table (Table 5.8(a)) provides the path coefficients and significance for the model without the mediator (Career Management Behaviours).

Table 5.8(b): Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
IPF→CMB	0.357	0.063	0.127	P<0.001
CMB→CS	0.622	0.060	0.378	P<0.001
IPF→CS (with CMB)	0.046	0.067	0.008	0.249

The results from the above table convey that all conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Intrapersonal Factors and the Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.171, p < 0.01$). Thus, the condition 1 for mediation approach was fulfilled. Intrapersonal Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.357, p < 0.001$). Thus, support Condition 2 for mediation was fulfilled. Career Management Behaviours and Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.622, p < 0.001$) thus the condition 3 also fulfilled. Further, the result shows that the relationship between Intrapersonal Factors and Career Satisfaction became non-significant when the Career Management Behaviour is added ($\beta = 0.046, p=0.249$), which indicates the presence of a perfect mediation or a full

mediation. Hence, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a mediating role of Career Management Behaviours (CMB) in the relationship between Intrapersonal Factors and Career Satisfaction.

In addition to this, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect was found. The main purpose of Sobel Test is to test whether a mediator variable significantly carries the influence of an independent variable to a dependent variable; i.e., whether the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator variable is significant. The T statistics is 4.97229552 with SD 0.04465825. Hence, the T statistics is greater than 1.96, which is a very high T indicating full mediation.

5.1.9 Testing of Hypothesis-9

H 9: Career Management Behaviours mediate in the relationship between Work Factors of re-entry women and their Career Satisfaction.

The mediation hypothesis was tested with PLS-SEM using Baron and Kenny Approach. The table 5.9(a) presents the path coefficients and significance for the model without mediator (Career Management Behaviours).

Table 5.9(a): **Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
WF →CS	0.248	0.065	0.061	P<0.001

Table 5.9(b) presents the path coefficient for analysing the mediation-effect of Career Management Behaviours (CMB) on the relationship between Work Factors (WF) and Career Satisfaction (CS).

Table 5.9(b): **Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
WF→CMB	0.274	0.064	0.075	P<0.001
CMB→CS	0.580	0.061	0.352	P<0.001
WF→CS (with CMB)	0.128	0.066	0.032	0.027

From the tables it is clear that all the conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Work factors and the Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.248$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, the condition 1 for mediation was fulfilled. Work Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.274$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the condition 2 for mediation was fulfilled. Career Management Behaviours and Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.580$, $p < 0.001$) thus, support the condition 3. Further, the result shows that the relationship between Work Factors and Career Satisfaction became weaker when the Career Management Behaviours is added ($\beta = 0.128$, $p=0.027$), which indicates a partial mediation. Hence, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a partial mediation effect of Career Management Behaviours in the relationship between Work Factors and Career Satisfaction.

In addition to this, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect also was found. The T statistics is 3.90377029 with SD 0.04070936, which is greater than the 1.96 indicating a partial mediation.

5.1.10 Testing of Hypothesis-10

H 10: Career Management Behaviours mediate in the relationship between Management Factors of re-entry women and their Career Satisfaction.

The mediation hypothesis was tested using PLS-SEM and adopted the Baron and Kenny Approach for testing mediation influence. The table 5.10(a) provides the path coefficients and significance for the model without mediator (Career Management Behaviours).

Table 5.1.10(a): **Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
MF→CS	0.274	0.064	0.075	P<0.01

Table 5.1.10(b) presents the path coefficient for analysing the mediation-effect of Career Management Behaviours (CMB) on the relationship between Management Factors (MF) and Career Satisfaction (CS).

Table 5.1.10(b): **Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
MF→CMB	0.359	0.063	0.129	P<0.001
CMB→CS	0.582	0.061	0.353	P<0.001
MF→CS (with CMB)	0.070	0.067	0.019	0.147

From the results of the above tables it is clear that all the conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Management Factors and the Career Satisfaction are positively related

($\beta = 0.274$, $p < 0.01$) thus, Condition 1 for mediation was met. Management Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.359$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the condition 2 for mediation was fulfilled. Career Management Behaviours and Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.582$, $p < 0.001$) thus, the condition 3 was also fulfilled. Further, the results show that the relationship between Management Factors and Career Satisfaction became non-significant when the Career Management Behaviours is added ($\beta = 0.070$, $p=0.147$), which indicates a full mediation or a perfect mediation. Therefore, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a mediation role of Career Management Behaviours in the relationship between Management Factors and Career satisfaction.

In addition to this, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect also can be found. The T statistics is 4.89226044 ($T > 1.96$) with $SD = 0.04270787$, which indicates a perfect mediation.

5.1.11 Testing of Hypothesis-11

H 11: Career Management Behaviours mediate in the relationship between Career Factors of re-entry women and their Career Satisfaction.

The mediation hypothesis was tested using PLS-SEM and followed the Baron and Kenny Approach for testing mediational effect. The table 5.11(a) presents the path coefficients and significance for the model without mediator (Career Management Behaviours).

Table 5.11(a): Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
CF→CS	0.287	0.064	0.083	P<0.01

Table 5.11(b) provides the path coefficient for analysing the mediation-effect of Career Management Behaviours (CMB) on the relationship between Career Factors (CF) and Career Satisfaction (CS).

Table 5.11(b): Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
CF→CMB	0.378	0.063	0.143	P<0.001
CMB→CS	0.573	0.061	0.348	P<0.001
CF→CS (with CMB)	0.104	0.066	0.030	0.059

Tables above suggest that all the conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Career Factors and the Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.287$, $p < 0.01$) leading to condition 1 for mediation has been met. Career Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.378$, $p < 0.001$) thus, support condition 2 for mediation. Career Management Behaviours and Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.573$, $p < 0.001$) this supports condition 3 for testing the mediation effect. Further, results show that the relationship between Career Factors and Career Satisfaction became non-significant when the Career Management Behaviours as a mediator is added ($\beta = 0.104$, $p=0.059$), which indicates a full mediation. Hence, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a mediating influence of Career Management Behaviours in the relationship between Career Factors and Career Satisfaction.

In addition to this, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect also found, T statistics is 5.05651118 with SD 0.04283467, which is very high indicating a perfect mediation.

5.1.12 Testing of Hypothesis-12

H 12: Career Management Behaviours mediate in the relationship between Societal Factors of re-entry women and their Career Satisfaction.

The proposed mediation hypothesis was tested using PLS-SEM and adopted the Baron and Kenny Approach for testing mediation influence. The table 5.12(a) provides the path coefficients and significance for the model without mediator (Career Management Behaviours).

Table 5.12(a): Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
SF→CS	0.274	0.064	0.075	P<0.01

Table 5.12(b) presents the path coefficient for analysing the mediation-effect of Career Management Behaviours (CMB) on the relationship between Societal Factors (SF) and Career Satisfaction (CS).

Table 5.12(b): Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
SF→CMB	.132	0.066	0.017	0.024
CMB→CS	0.589	0.061	0.357	P<0.001
SF→CS (with CMB)	0.228	0.065	0.062	P<0.001

From the above tables' results suggest that all the conditions for establishing mediation are met: The results of the path coefficients show that the Societal Factors and the Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.274$, $p < 0.01$). So the condition 1 for mediation was fulfilled. Societal

Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.132$, $p = 0.024$). That suggests the condition 2 for checking mediation. As the Career Management Behaviours and Career Satisfaction are positively related ($\beta = 0.589$, $P < 0.001$) Condition 3 is fulfilled. Further, the results show that the relationship between Societal Factors and Career Satisfaction became weaker when the Career Management Behaviours as a mediator is added ($\beta = 0.228$, $p = P < 0.001$), which indicates a partial mediation. Therefore, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exist a partial mediating influence of Career Management Behaviour in the relationship between Societal Factors and Career Satisfaction.

5.1.13 Testing of Hypothesis-13

H 13: *There is a relationship between Intrapersonal Factors of re-entry women and their Perceived Employability is mediated by Career Management Behaviours.*

Table 5.13(a): **Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
IPF→PE	0.29	0.064	0.086	P<0.01

Table 5.13(b): **Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
IPF→CMB	0.357	0.063	0.127	P<0.001
CMB→PE	0.639	0.060	0.424	P<0.001
IPF→PE (with CMB)	0.070	0.067	0.020	0.149

From the above tables the results show that all conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Intrapersonal Factors and the Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$) thus, condition 1 for mediation was supported. Intrapersonal Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.357$, $p < 0.001$) thus, support condition 2 for mediation. Career Management Behaviours and Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.639$, $p < 0.001$) supporting the condition 3. Further, the results show that the relationship between Intrapersonal Factors and Perceived Employability became non-significant when the career management behaviours as mediator is added ($\beta = 0.070$, $p=0.149$), which indicates a full mediation or a perfect mediation. Therefore, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a mediating role of Career Management Behaviours in the relationship between Intrapersonal Factors and Perceived Employability.

In addition to this, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect was found. The T statistics is 5.00259819 ($T > 1.96$) with SD 0.0456009 is greater which confirms perfect mediation.

5.1.14 Testing of Hypothesis-14

H 14: *There is a relationship between Work Factors of re-entry women and their Perceived Employability is mediated by Career Management Behaviours.*

Table 5.14(a): **Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
WF→PE	0.236	0.065	0.056	P<0.01

Table 5.14(b): **Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
WF→CMB	0.274	0.064	0.075	P<0.001
CMB→PE	0.647	0.060	0.429	P<0.001
WF→PE (with CMB)	0.062	0.067	0.015	0.177

From the tables result it is clear that all conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Work Factors and the Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.236$, $p < 0.01$) thus, the condition 1 for mediation was fulfilled. Work Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.274$, $p < 0.001$) thus, supports the condition 2 for mediation checking. Career Management Behaviours and Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.647$, $p < 0.001$) making Condition 3 fulfilled. Further, the results show that the relationship between Work Factors and Perceived Employability became non-significant when the Career Management Behaviours as a mediator is added ($\beta = 0.062$, $p=0.177$), which indicates a total mediation or a full mediation. Hence, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a mediating effect of Career Management Behaviours in the relationship between Work Factors and Perceived Employability.

In addition to the above, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect also found, T statistics is 3.97911012 with SD 0.04455217 which is greater than the 1.96, a very high T statistics indicating a full mediation.

5.1.15 Testing of Hypothesis-15

H 15: *There is a relationship between Management Factors of re-entry women and their Perceived Employability is mediated by Career Management Behaviours*

Table 5.15(a): **Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
MF→PE	0.228	0.065	0.052	P<0.01

Table 5.15(b): **Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
MF→CMB	0.359	0.063	0.129	P<0.001
CMB→PE	0.651	0.060	0.432	P<0.001
MF→PE (with CMB)	0.043	0.067	0.010	0.263

The above tables show that all conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Management Factors and the Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.228$, $p < 0.01$) thus, condition 1 for mediation was fulfilled. Management Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.359$, $p < 0.001$) that supports condition 2 for testing mediation. Career Management Behaviours and Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.651$, $p < 0.001$), condition 3 was fulfilled. Further, the results show that the relationship between Management Factors and Perceived Employability became non-significant when the Career Management Behaviours as mediator is added ($\beta = 0.043$ $p=0.236$), which indicates a full mediation or a perfect mediation.

Therefore, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a mediating role of Career Management Behaviours in the relationship between Management Factors and Perceived Employability.

In addition to the above, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect also found. The T statistics is 5.04494873 ($T > 1.96$) with SD 0.04632535, which is greater T value indicating a perfect mediation.

5.1.16 Testing of Hypothesis-16

H 16: *There is a relationship between Career Factors of re-entry women and their Perceived Employability is mediated by Career Management Behaviours.*

Table 5.16(a): **Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
CF→PE	0.329	0.064	0.018	P<0.001

Table 5.16(b): **Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)**

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
CF→CMB	0.378	0.063	0.143	P<0.001
CMB→PE	0.627	0.060	0.416	P<0.001
CF→PE (with CMB)	0.101	0.066	0.033	0.064

From the above tables it is clear that all the conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Career Factors and the Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.329$, $p < 0.01$) thus, condition 1 for mediation was fulfilled. Career factors and

Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.378$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, condition 2 for mediation was met. Career Management Behaviours and Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.627$, $p < 0.001$) supporting the condition 3. Further, the results show that the relationship between Career Factors and Perceived Employability became non-significant when the Career Management Behaviours as a mediator is added ($\beta = 0.101$, $p=0.064$), which indicates a perfect or full mediation. Hence, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, there exists a mediating influence of Career Management Behaviours in the relationship between Career Factors and Perceived Employability. In addition to the above, using Sobel Test, the significance of mediation effect also found, a very high T statistics 5.2033195 with SD 0.045549 which confirms a perfect mediation.

5.1.17 Testing of Hypothesis -17

H 17: *There is a relationship between Societal Factors of re-entry women and their Perceived Employability is mediated by Career Management Behaviours.*

Table 5.17(a): Path Coefficients (Without Career Management Behaviours as Mediator)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
SF→PE	0.188	0.065	0.035	P<0.01

Table 5.17(b): Path Coefficients (With Career Management Behaviours)

Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	Effect Size	Sig.
SF→CMB	0.132	0.066	0.017	0.024
CMB→PE	0.652	0.060	0.433	P<0.001
SF→PE (with CMB)	0.132	0.066	0.025	0.024

From the above tables, the results show that all the conditions for establishing mediation are met. The results of path coefficients show that the Societal Factors and the Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.188$, $p < 0.01$). So, the condition 1 for mediation was supported. Societal Factors and Career Management Behaviours are positively related ($\beta = 0.132$, $p = 0.024$) supporting condition 2 for testing mediation. Career Management Behaviours and Perceived Employability are positively related ($\beta = 0.652$, $p < 0.001$) thus, support condition 3. Further, the results show that the relationship between Societal Factors and Perceived Employability became weaker when the Career Management Behaviours as a mediator is added ($\beta = 0.132$, $p = 0.024$), which indicates a partial mediation. Therefore, as per Baron and Kenny Approach, Career Management Behaviours has a partial mediating role of in the relationship between Societal Factors and Perceived Employability.

5.2 Analysis of Conceptual Model of the Study

Hypotheses 1-5 are about the relationship among the independent and mediator variables under study. Hypotheses 6-7 are about the relationship among the mediator and dependent variables. Hypotheses 8-17 are about influence of mediator variable in the relationship between Independent variables and the dependent variables. The hypotheses are proposed to be tested through Structural Equation Modelling using WarpPLS method. The diagram below (Figure 5.1) shows hypothesized relationships among the variables of the study through a path model:

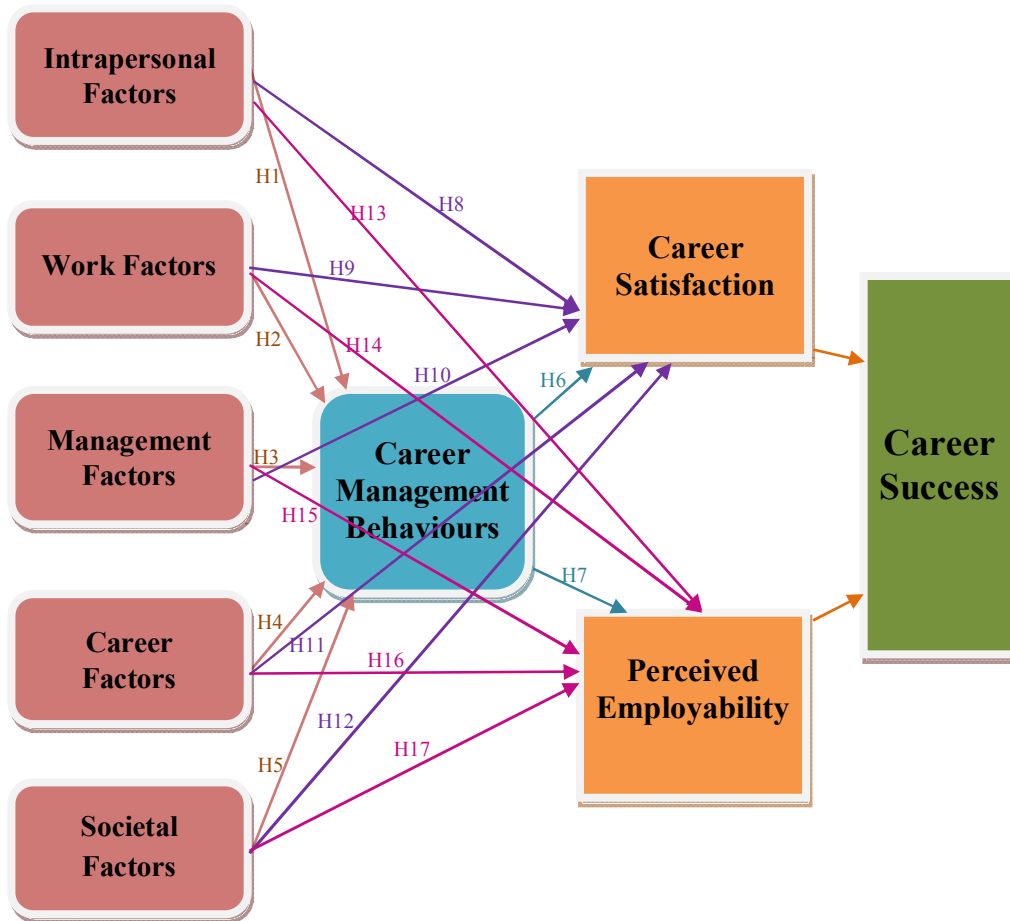


Figure 5.1: **Conceptual Framework with plotted Hypotheses**

The figure shows the hypothesized relationships among variables of the study through a path model. The five independent variables: Intrapersonal Factors, Work Factors, Management Factors, Career Factors and Societal Factors affect Career Satisfaction directly and indirectly through the mediating influence of Career Management Behaviours. Also, all the five independent variables: Intrapersonal Factors, Work Factors, Management Factors, Career Factors and Societal Factors affect Perceived Employability

directly and indirectly through mediating influence of Career Management Behaviours. Thus, this conceptual model clearly depicts the Career Re-entry Factors affect Subjective Career Success (Career Satisfaction and Perceived Employability) directly or indirectly through Career Management Behaviours.

5.2.1 PLS-SEM Model Overview

PLS-SEM Model consists of two parts: Measurement Model and Structural Model. The measurement model also called outer model consists of latent variables and their indicators/measured variables. The Structural Model also called inner model consists of the hypotheses structural paths between the latent constructs. Model estimation delivers empirical measures of the relationships between the indicators and the construct (Measurement Model), as well as between the construct (Structural Model). The empirical measures enable to compare the theoretically established measurement and structural models with reality as represented by the sample data. Unlike CB-SEM, a single goodness-of-fit criterion is not available in PLS-SEM. In this context, it is important to note that the term fit has different meaning in the context of CB-SEM and PLS-SEM. Fit statistics of the CB-SEM are derived from the discrepancy between empirical and model implied (theoretical) covariance matrix, whereas PLS-SEM focuses on the discrepancy between the observed (in the case of manifest variables) or approximated (in the case of latent variables) values of the dependent variables and the values predicted by the model in the question. The evaluation of measurement model and structural model results in PLS-SEM builds on a set of non-parametric evaluation criteria and uses procedures like bootstrapping or blindfolding. The systematic application of these criteria follows a two step process. The

process involves the separate assessment of the measurement models and the structural model.

The analysis of the model starts with the evaluation of measurement model and in the event of satisfactory results on the validity and reliability of model. It proceeds to the next stage of the structural model evaluation. Measurement model is calculated in terms of unidimensionality, discriminant validity and convergent validity (Tenenhaus, et al., 2005). Structural Model is assessed using path coefficients and weights of the constructs. Path coefficients and weights are interpreted in the same way as beta coefficients and R2 regression analysis.

When evaluating the Measurement model, it is to distinguish between the reflectively and formatively measured constructs. The two approaches are based on different concepts and therefore require consideration of different evaluative measures. Reflective measurement models are assessed on their internal consistency reliability and validity. The specific measures include composite reliability (as a means to assess internal consistency reliability), convergent validity and discriminant validity. The present study used reflective constructs and followed the above approach. The Structural Model estimates are not examined until the reliability and validity of the construct have been established. If assessment of Measurement Model provides evidence of measures' quality, the Structural Model estimates are estimated in the next stage. PLS-SEM assessment of Structural Model involves the model's ability to predict. Hence, after reliability and validity are established, the primary evaluation criteria for PLS-SEM results are the coefficient of determination (R squared values) as well as the level and significance of the path coefficients.

5.3 Analysis of Measurement Model of the Study

Assessment of the reflective Measurement Model includes composite reliability to evaluate internal consistency, individual indicator reliability and average variance extracted (AVE) to evaluate convergent validity. In addition, the Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings are used to assess discriminant validity.

There are eight latent variables in this study. These are measured in reflective mode, where the construct is assumed to cause the indicator to vary. Intrapersonal factors has 12 indicators, work factors are measured by 8 indicators, management factors has 7 indicators, career factors are measured using 5 indicators, societal factors has 6 indicators, career management behaviours has 22 indicators, career satisfaction is measured by using 5 indicators and the perceived employability is measured using 3 indicators. All the constructs were operationalised as first order constructs.

5.3.1 Internal Consistency Reliability

The first criterion to be evaluated is internal consistency reliability. The traditional criterion for measuring internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha, which provides an estimate of the reliability based on their inter correlations of the observed indicator variables. Cronbach's alpha assumes all the indicators are equally reliable. But PLS-SEM prioritizes the indicators according to their individual reliability. Composite Reliability (CR) is the measure of internal consistency reliability in PLS-SEM. This type of reliability takes into account the different outer loadings of the indicator variables. The composite reliability varies between 0 and 1 with higher values indicating higher levels of reliability. The values between 0.70 - 0.90 can be considered as satisfactory.

Consider Cronbach's alpha as a conservative measure of internal consistency reliability.

Table 5.18: Reliability Analysis of Measures of Constructs

Constructs	IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB	CS	PE
Cronbach's alpha(α) coefficients	0.926	0.88	0.841	0.78	0.889	0.955	0.907	0.852
Composite reliability coefficients (CR)	0.937	0.905	0.881	0.851	0.916	0.959	0.931	0.91

As seen in the above table, the composite reliability coefficients ranged from 0.852 to 0.959 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient from 0. 0.782 to 0.959, both had above the 0.7 threshold, which confirms the reliability of the constructs.

5.3.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct. Using the domain sampling model, indicators of a reflective constructs are treated as different approaches to measure the same construct. To establish convergent validity, it is to consider the outer loadings of the indicators as well as the average variance extracted (AVE).

Higher outer loadings on a construct indicate that the associated indicators have much in common, which is captured by the construct. This characteristic is also commonly called Indicator Reliability. At a minimum, all indicators outer should be statistically significant. A standardised rule is that outer loading should be 0.50 or higher and the 'p' values associated with loadings should be lower than 0.05 (Hair et al., 2009). A common measure establishes convergent validity on the construct level is the average variances extracted (AVE). This criterion is defined as the grand mean value of the squared loadings of the indicator associated with the construct. An AVE value of 0.50 or higher indicates that on an average, the constructs explain more than the half of the variance of its indicators. If this measure is more than 0.50, it can be considered that the convergent validity as established (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The following tables present the details of AVE values and the outer loadings of the constructs for establishing the convergent validity.

Table 5.19 (a): AVE Values of the Constructs

Constructs	IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB	CS	PE
AVE	0.552	0.544	0.515	0.533	0.648	0.517	0.729	0.772

Table 5.19(b): Combined Loadings and Cross-Loadings

	IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB	CS	PE	SE	'p' value
CD1IPFrc1	0.75	-0.042	-0.066	-0.005	0.093	0.147	0.021	-0.012	0.059	<0.001
IPFrc2	0.743	0.042	0.06	-0.1	-0.063	0.016	0.215	-0.116	0.059	<0.001
IPFrc3	0.777	-0.059	-0.003	0.074	0.05	0.053	0.073	0.031	0.059	<0.001
IPFrc4	0.769	0.03	-0.017	0.076	0.069	-0.038	0.004	-0.085	0.059	<0.001
IPFrc5	0.741	-0.049	-0.021	0.042	0.001	0.059	0.042	-0.089	0.059	<0.001
IPFrc6	0.73	-0.052	0.037	-0.092	-0.024	0.158	-0.159	-0.032	0.059	<0.001
IPFst1	0.784	-0.041	-0.045	-0.037	-0.105	-0.045	-0.007	-0.033	0.059	<0.001
IPFst2	0.773	0.045	-0.151	0.029	0.012	0.043	0.006	-0.042	0.059	<0.001
IPFwrc7	0.77	0.11	-0.13	0.109	0.099	0.064	-0.135	-0.032	0.059	<0.001
IPFgt1	0.755	-0.033	0.061	-0.075	-0.015	0.041	-0.067	0	0.059	<0.001
IPFsc3	0.65	0.018	0.193	0.027	-0.053	-0.321	-0.112	0.318	0.06	<0.001
IPFsc4	0.661	0.034	0.137	-0.062	-0.083	-0.248	0.117	0.153	0.06	<0.001
CD2WFit	0.007	0.74	-0.015	-0.084	-0.007	0.124	-0.02	-0.176	0.059	<0.001
WFit2	-0.075	0.734	0.035	0.095	0.08	0.092	-0.089	-0.109	0.059	<0.001
WFso1	0.053	0.742	0.047	-0.088	0.03	0.044	-0.04	-0.141	0.059	<0.001
WFso2	-0.029	0.721	-0.016	0.121	0.004	-0.003	0.014	0.033	0.059	<0.001
WFrpl	0.031	0.768	-0.042	0.018	0.01	-0.015	-0.041	0.047	0.059	<0.001
WFTw	0.051	0.757	-0.018	0	-0.085	0.002	0.026	0.027	0.059	<0.001
WFir1	0.011	0.764	-0.087	-0.037	0.009	-0.121	-0.017	0.186	0.059	<0.001
WFir2	-0.058	0.669	0.111	-0.022	-0.043	-0.129	0.186	0.139	0.06	<0.001
CD3MFea	0.05	0.024	0.753	0.028	0.083	-0.066	-0.162	0.121	0.059	<0.001
MFea2	0.026	0.049	0.802	-0.007	-0.025	-0.066	0.057	0.058	0.058	<0.001
MFea3	-0.097	-0.05	0.758	-0.067	0	0.047	-0.02	-0.05	0.059	<0.001
MFlp1	0.03	0.093	0.634	0.055	-0.112	0.03	0.069	0.017	0.06	<0.001
MFlp2	-0.064	-0.054	0.732	-0.041	-0.052	-0.037	0.153	-0.097	0.059	<0.001
MFlp3	0.034	-0.125	0.671	0.148	0.016	-0.087	-0.002	-0.01	0.06	<0.001
MFlp4	0.031	0.069	0.655	-0.105	0.085	0.205	-0.096	-0.049	0.06	<0.001
CD4CFr1	-0.098	0.043	0.028	0.703	0.097	0.149	-0.217	0.037	0.059	<0.001
CFr2	-0.025	-0.048	0.133	0.804	0.028	0.077	-0.157	-0.012	0.058	<0.001
CFp1	0.002	-0.02	0.055	0.729	-0.069	-0.152	0.114	0.035	0.059	<0.001
CFp2	0.009	0.025	-0.154	0.72	-0.017	0.085	0.054	-0.063	0.059	<0.001
CFp3	0.117	0.008	-0.081	0.691	-0.041	-0.17	0.228	0.006	0.06	<0.001
CD5SFca	0.053	0.004	0.003	-0.018	0.848	-0.182	0.023	0.135	0.058	<0.001
SFca2	0.02	0.028	-0.049	-0.003	0.841	0.153	0.048	-0.054	0.058	<0.001

Table 5.19(b) continued...

	IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB	CS	PE	SE	'p' value
SFca3	-0.023	-0.02	0.079	0.001	0.859	0.082	-0.068	-0.001	0.058	<0.001
SFca4	-0.073	0.027	-0.026	0.055	0.809	-0.058	0.087	0.006	0.058	<0.001
SFca5	-0.035	0.015	0.017	0.007	0.798	-0.016	0.027	0.004	0.058	<0.001
SFsr	0.069	-0.066	-0.033	-0.051	0.656	0.024	-0.141	-0.116	0.06	<0.001
CD6Cp1C	-0.188	-0.069	0.189	-0.01	0.016	0.652	-0.146	0.023	0.06	<0.001
Cp2CMB	-0.194	-0.044	0.194	0	-0.07	0.702	0.06	0.06	0.059	<0.001
Cp3CMB	-0.182	-0.055	0.123	-0.08	-0.103	0.741	0.126	-0.083	0.059	<0.001
Cp4CMB	-0.139	-0.049	0.129	0.09	0.002	0.61	0.08	-0.196	0.06	<0.001
Cp5CMB	-0.083	-0.064	0.032	-0.073	-0.122	0.574	0.22	-0.135	0.061	<0.001
Cp6CMB	-0.092	0.017	-0.019	-0.15	-0.078	0.574	0.19	-0.25	0.061	<0.001
Csm1CMB	0.2	0.086	-0.119	-0.024	0.052	0.655	-0.062	-0.254	0.06	<0.001
Csm2CMB	0.059	0.016	-0.131	0.064	-0.042	0.723	0.072	-0.073	0.059	<0.001
Csm3CMB	0.003	0.03	-0.011	0.113	0.014	0.776	-0.057	-0.088	0.059	<0.001
Csm4CMB	-0.013	0	-0.168	0.043	-0.083	0.747	0.024	0.073	0.059	<0.001
Csm5ccC	0.073	-0.001	0.012	0.054	0.084	0.741	-0.135	-0.009	0.059	<0.001
Csm6CMB	-0.067	0.005	-0.058	0.018	0.043	0.748	-0.021	-0.021	0.059	<0.001
Csm7CMB	0.143	0.045	-0.065	-0.145	0.099	0.716	-0.069	0.075	0.059	<0.001
Csm8CMB	0.114	-0.006	-0.09	-0.026	0.104	0.767	-0.079	0.016	0.059	<0.001
Csm9CMB	0.077	-0.018	-0.034	0.061	0.021	0.779	-0.015	-0.027	0.059	<0.001
Csm10CM	-0.017	0.006	0.003	0.13	0.079	0.741	-0.076	0.016	0.059	<0.001
Csm11CM	0.072	-0.022	0.026	-0.024	0.012	0.771	-0.095	0.114	0.059	<0.001
Csm12CM	0.069	0.029	-0.034	0.025	-0.037	0.733	0.128	0.159	0.059	<0.001
Csm13CM	0.092	0.145	0.056	-0.078	-0.044	0.737	0.147	0.075	0.059	<0.001
Csm14CM	0.085	-0.058	0.034	0.024	-0.048	0.75	-0.036	0.11	0.059	<0.001
Csm15CM	-0.005	0	-0.022	0.046	0.036	0.745	-0.066	0.115	0.059	<0.001
Csm16CM	-0.082	-0.009	-0.002	-0.104	0.018	0.772	-0.09	0.15	0.059	<0.001
CD7CS1	0.034	-0.035	0.046	-0.04	-0.019	-0.115	0.856	0.012	0.058	<0.001
CS2	0.066	0.045	-0.072	-0.064	-0.044	0.02	0.884	0.049	0.057	<0.001
CS3	-0.004	-0.015	0.067	-0.05	0.01	0.01	0.833	0.057	0.058	<0.001
CS4	-0.054	0.027	0.012	0.034	0.026	0.001	0.863	0.017	0.058	<0.001
CS5	-0.046	-0.025	-0.05	0.124	0.029	0.086	0.831	-0.138	0.058	<0.001
CD8PE1	0.014	-0.034	0.006	0.006	-0.027	-0.053	0.05	0.904	0.057	<0.001
PE2	-0.041	0.087	-0.087	0.063	0.012	0.102	-0.005	0.832	0.058	<0.001
PE3	0.024	-0.046	0.074	-0.065	0.016	-0.041	-0.046	0.898	0.057	<0.001

Notes: Loadings are unrotated and cross-loadings are oblique-rotated. SEs and 'p' values are for loadings. 'p' values < 0.05 are desirable for reflective indicators.

As seen in the above table (table 5.19(a), the AVE values of all constructs were found to be greater than 0.50, thus confirming the convergent validity of all the constructs. Another check of convergent validity is at indicator level where all indicators should be loaded on their respective latent construct with significant values (Gefen and Straub, 2005). As seen in the above table (table 5.19(b), outer loadings of the indicators of all the constructs are high and ranged between 0.567 to 0.904 with 'p' values less than 0.001, which is above 0.50 with significant 'p' values threshold, hence from the above results it is reasonable to confirm that the Measurement Model for the study has a high level of convergent validity.

5.3.3 Discriminant Validity

The discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards. Two measures of discriminant validity have been proposed. One method of assessing discriminant validity is by examining the cross loadings of the indicators. Specifically, an indicator's outer loadings on the associated construct should be greater than all of its loadings on the other constructs. The Fornell-Larcker criterion is a second and more conservative approach to assessing discriminant validity. It compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. Specifically, the square root of each construct's AVE should be greater than its higher correlations with any other constructs.

The indicator's outer loading is already found greater than all of its loading on the other constructs by analysing the cross loadings (table 5.19(b). The square root of AVE values of each variable present in the following table:

Table 5.20: Latent Variable Correlations with Square Root of AVEs

Variable	IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB	CS	PE
IPF	(0.743)	-0.004	0.268	0.297	0.065	0.3	0.11	0.226
WF	-0.004	(0.738)	0.05	0.053	0.006	0.247	0.194	0.222
MF	0.268	0.05	(0.717)	0.296	0.035	0.326	0.216	0.119
CF	0.297	0.053	0.296	(0.73)	-0.033	0.251	0.153	0.2
SF	0.065	0.006	0.035	-0.033	(0.805)	0.032	0.243	0.16
CMB	0.3	0.247	0.326	0.251	0.032	(0.719)	0.562	0.661
CS	0.11	0.194	0.216	0.153	0.243	0.562	(0.854)	0.451
PE	0.226	0.222	0.119	0.2	0.16	0.661	0.451	(0.879)

From the above table it is seen that the diagonal of the latent variable correlations are the square root of the average variances extracted (AVE) for each variables. As seen in the table, the square root of average variances extracted for each variable (shown in the parenthesis) is higher than any other values above or below or its left or right. Thus, the result confirms that measurement model has acceptable discriminant validity.

5.3.4 Conclusion of Measurement Model Analysis

As suggested in the literature (Anderson and Gerbing, 1998), the Measurement Model/Outer Model is evaluated before the analysis of the structural model /inner model. The assessment of Measurement Model has provided good results for internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. These results confirm soundness in the Measurement Model. Therefore, analysis can be taken into the next stage for Structural Model Evaluation.

5.4 Analysis of Structural Model of the Study

This section continues the analysis and focuses on the Structural Model that represents the underlying theory or concept of the path model. The Structural Model evaluation involves examining the model’s predictive capabilities and the relationships between the constructs.

In this analysis, need to analyse the Structural Model collinearity first. The key criteria for assessing the structural model in PLS-SEM are the significance of the path coefficients, the level of the R^2 values, the f^2 effect size, the predictive relevance (Q^2) and the q^2 effect size. Also analyses the goodness- of- fit measure. The figure 5.4 illustrates Structural Model with the path coefficients and R^2 values.

5.4.1 Collinearity Assessment

Collinearity or multi collinearity is a phenomenon in which two or more predictor variables in a model are highly correlated. To assess the level of collinearity, need to compute the tolerance level and also the related measure of collinearity Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), defined as the reciprocal of the tolerance. The tolerance levels of below 0.20 or VIF above 5.00 in the predicator constructs are indicative of collinearity (Hair et al., 2014). As a rule of thumb, full collinearity VIFs of 3.3 or lower suggest the existence of no multicollinearity in the model (Kock, 2012). The following table (5.21) presents the result of full collinearity VIFs.

Table 5.21: Full Collinearity VIFs

IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB	CS	PE
1.219	1.084	1.247	1.194	1.125	2.49	1.62	1.926

From table values, it is seen that all variance inflation factor (VIF) were less than 3.3, indicating that multicollinearity and high inter-correlations among latent variables were not present in the data.

5.4.2 Structural Model Path Coefficient

After running the PLS-SEM algorithm, estimates are obtained for the Structural Model relationships (path-coefficients), which represent the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. The path coefficients have standardized values between -1 and +1. Estimated path coefficients close to +1 represent strong positive relationships (and vice-versa for negative values) that are almost always statistically significant (i.e., different from zero in the population).

Table 5.22: Path Coefficients Estimation

Paths	Path Coefficient(β)	Std. Error	Sig
IPF→CMB	0.199	0.065	<0.01**
WF→CMB	0.199	0.065	<0.01*
MF→CMB	0.209	0.065	<0.001***
CF→CMB	0.224	0.065	<0.001***
SF→CMB	0.131	0.066	<0.05*
IPF→CS	0.054	0.067	0.211
WF→CS	0.108	0.066	0.052
MF→CS	0.058	0.067	0.194
CF→CS	0.103	0.066	0.062
SF→CS	0.229	0.065	<0.001***
IPF→PE	0.055	0.067	0.206
WF→PE	0.056	0.067	0.202
MF→PE	-0.028	0.067	0.337
CF→PE	0.092	0.066	0.083
SF→PE	0.141	0.066	<0.05*
CMB→CS	0.533	0.061	<0.001***
CMB→PE	0.576	0.061	<0.001***

The closer the estimated coefficients are to 0, the weaker the relationships. Very low values close to 0 are usually non-significant (not significantly different from zero), (Hair et al., 2014). According to Lohmoller (1989) as quoted in Chin (1998), the path should be above 0.1 and 0.2 to be meaningful and theoretically interesting (Chin,1998). The above table (5.22) presents the path coefficients of the structural model relationships.

In explaining the relationship between predictors and Career Success (Career Satisfaction and Perceived Employability), the figure 5.4 explains 17 relationships, of which 9 were significant and the remaining were insignificant. The result of path towards dependent variable Career Management Behaviours (CMB) positively influences Career Satisfaction (CS) and Perceived Employability (PE). The highly significant path ($p < 0.001$) was between CMB and PE ($\beta = 0.576$ Or 57%) while least significant ($p < 0.05$) was between SF-CMB ($\beta = 0.131$ or 13%).

Considering the path towards Career Management Behaviours, Intrapersonal Factors, Work Factors, Management Factors, Career Factors and Societal Factors form significant path with β values (0.199, $p < 0.001$), (0.199, $p < 0.001$), (0.209 $p < 0.001$), (0.224, $p < 0.001$), (0.131, $p < 0.05$) respectively. Considering the path between Societal Factors and Career Satisfaction ($\beta = 0.229$, $p < 0.001$) and the path between Societal Factors and Perceived Employability ($\beta = 0.141$, $p < 0.05$) were also significant.

5.4.3 Coefficient of Determination (R^2 Value)

The most commonly used measure to evaluate the Structural Model is the coefficient of determination (R^2 value). This coefficient is a measure of a model's predictive accuracy and is calculated as the squared correlation

between a specific endogenous construct's actual and predictive values. The coefficients represent the exogenous latent variables' combined effects on the endogenous latent variable. Because the coefficient is the squared correlation of actual and predictive values, it also represents the amount of variance in the endogenous constructs explained by all of the exogenous constructs linked to it. The R^2 values ranges from 0 to 1 with higher level indicating higher levels of predictive accuracy (Hair et al., 2014). According to Chin (1998) the value of R^2 varies according to the number of measuring independent variables, meaning that the higher number of independent variable needs to produce higher values of R^2 and vice-verse. The R^2 values of 0.67, 0.33 and 0.19 are considered as substantial, moderate and weak (Chin1998). The table 5.23 presents the R^2 values of the endogenous variables of the model:

Table 5.23: R- Square Results

Endogenous Construct	Career Management Behaviours	Career Satisfaction	Perceived Employability
R- Square	0.301	0.467	0.461

The R^2 of the endogenous variable Career Satisfaction is 0.467 and this indicates that the predictors accounts for 47% variation in Career Satisfaction. R^2 of the other endogenous variable Perceived Employability is 0.461, which indicates that the Perceived Employability is explained to 46% variations by the model. The predictors account for 30% variations in the Career Management Behaviours. The present model which can account for 47% variations in Career Satisfaction and 46% variations in Perceived Employability can be considered as to have a good predictive accuracy. Hence highest explanatory power of the model is for both the variables Career Satisfaction and Perceived Employability.

5.4.4 Effect Size (f^2)

In addition to evaluating the R^2 values of all endogenous constructs, the change in the R^2 value when a specified exogenous construct is omitted from the model can be used to evaluate whether the omitted construct has a substantive impact on endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2014). This measure is referred to as the f^2 effect size. The effect size can be calculated as

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$$

Where, $R^2_{included}$ and $R^2_{excluded}$ are the values of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included in or excluded from the model. The f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 respectively represent small, medium and large effects (Cohen, 1988) of the exogenous latent variable. Table 5.24 presents the f^2 results.

Table 5.24: Effect Size of the Paths (f^2)

Path	IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB
CMB	0.071*	0.055*	0.075*	0.083*	0.017*	-
CS	0.009*	0.027*	0.016*	0.03*	0.063*	0.323**
PE	0.016*	0.013*	0.006*	0.03*	0.026	0.382***

Interpretations: *** Large effects, ** Medium effects, * Small effects.

From the above results, the effect size of the path CMB-PE found to be the largest (0.382) followed by the path CMB-CS (0.323). The other paths depicted small effects.

5.4.5 Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

In addition to the evaluating the magnitude of the R^2 values as criterion of predictive accuracy, the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 values also needs to be

examined (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). This measure is an indicator of the model's predictive relevance. In the structural model Q^2 values larger than zero for a certain endogenous latent variable indicate the path model's predictive relevance for this particular construct. The Q^2 values are obtained by using blindfolding procedure available with Warp-PLS. The Q^2 values can be calculated by using two different approaches: the cross-validated redundancy approach and the cross validated communality approach. The cross validated redundancy approach builds on the path model estimates of both the structural model and measurement model. Prediction by means of cross validated approach fits the PLS-SEM approach perfectly and uses for same as measure of Q^2 (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore the study used cross-validated redundancy Q^2 for the analysis. Table 5.25 presents the Q^2 results:

Table 5.25: Q Square Results

Endogenous Construct	Career Management Behaviours	Career Satisfaction	Perceived Employability
Q Square	0.314	0.45	0.48

The results shows that the Q^2 values of all the endogenous variables, Career Management Behaviours, Career Satisfaction and Perceived Employability are greater than zero, hence, jointly with the significant path coefficients and R^2 values, Q^2 values also supports in confirming the predictions of the conceptual model of the study.

The Q^2 value estimated by the blindfolding procedure represents a measure of how well the path model can predict the originally observed values. Similar to the f^2 , Q^2 value effect size approach for assessing R^2 values, the relative impact of predictive relevance can be compared by means of the measure to the q^2 effect size.

As a relative measure of predictive relevance, values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 indicate that an exogenous construct has a small, medium or large predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct.

5.4.6 Goodness of Fit (GoF)

The Goodness of Fit index is the last criterion for analysing the Structural Model after analysing the other entire criterion such as path coefficients, predictive accuracy (R^2 values, f^2 , Q^2 values). In PLS-SEM, an overall fit index model is not available unlike CB-SEM. Tenenhaus et al. (2005) and Amato et al. (2004) suggested a global criterion of Goodness of Fit index, which is the geometric mean of the average communality and the average (R^2). The GoF can vary from 0 to 1, with a value of 1 indicating a perfect fit model. Wetzels et al. (2009) proposes the following threshold values for the Goodness of Fit (GoF) small ≥ 0.1 , medium ≥ 0.25 , large ≥ 0.36 . The Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit (GoF) for the present model is 0.496, which confirms that the model has a large Goodness of Fit. Table 5.26 presents the Fit indices results:

Table 5.26: Fit Indices

S.No.	Fit Indices
1	Average path coefficient (APC)=0.176, P=0.002
2	Average R-squared (ARS)=0.410, P<0.001
3	Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)=0.394, P<0.001
4	Average block VIF (AVIF)=1.151, acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
5	Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF)=1.488, acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
6	Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)=0.496, small ≥ 0.1 , medium ≥ 0.25 , large ≥ 0.36
7	Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR)=0.941, acceptable if ≥ 0.7 , ideally = 1
8	R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)=0.995, acceptable if ≥ 0.9 , ideally = 1
9	Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)=1.000, acceptable if ≥ 0.7
10	Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)=0.971, acceptable if ≥ 0.7

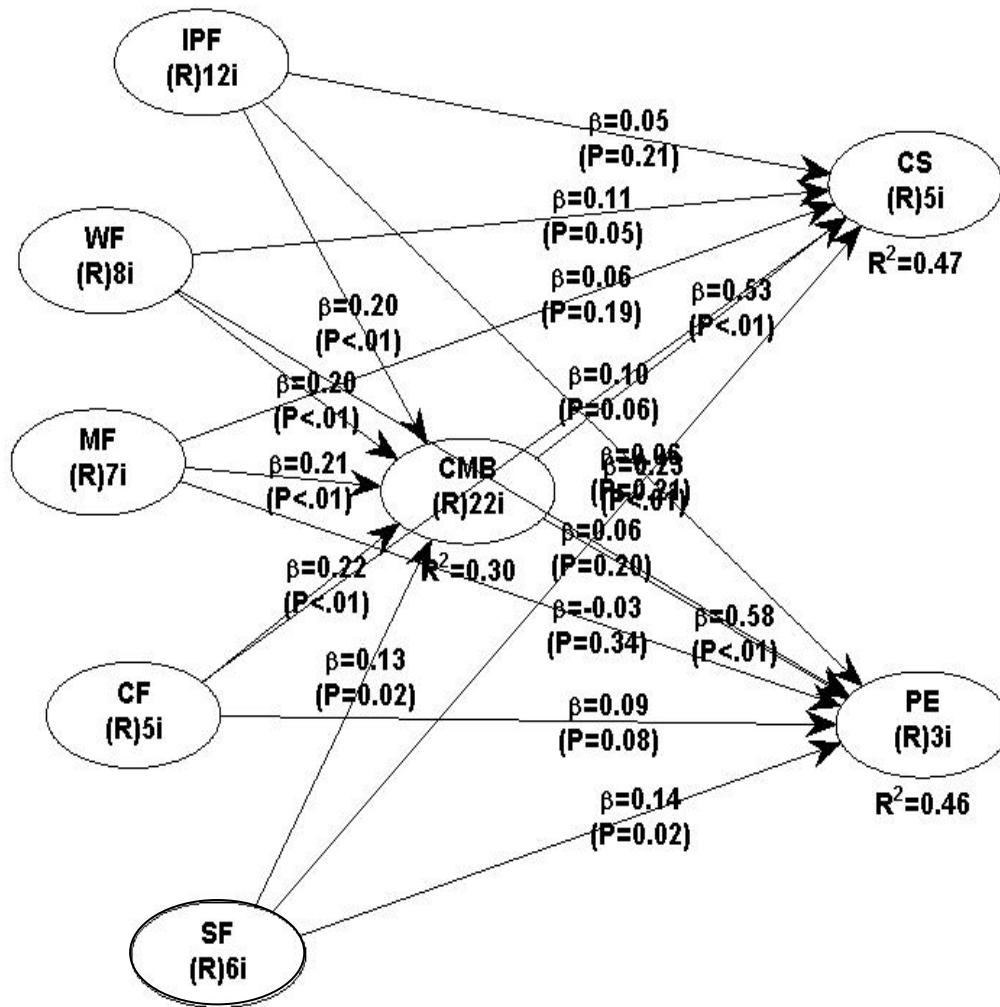


Figure 5.2: Structural Model: The Path Coefficients and R² values

5.5 Analysis of Common Method Variance

In view of the fact that all the constructs were measured using self-reporting method by a single questionnaire administered simultaneously, the measurement is vulnerable to common method variance. Common method variance is a serious issue in organizational research and proof of validity of the measures cannot guarantee its absence from a measurement scheme (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Hence, for the present study it is indispensable to examine this aspect in an attempt to ensure the validity of the measurement. The common method variance is sought to be identified by following statistical procedures: Harman's Single Factor Method and the Correlation Method proposed by Pavlou, Liang and Xue (2007)

5.5.1 Harman's Single Factor Method

Harman's Single Factor Test is the most commonly used test to analyse common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This test involves factor analysis of all variables measured for the study and investigation of unrotated factor solution. Common method variance is assumed if a) a single factor emerges from the factor analysis: or b) one factor accounts for substantial variance in the variables. According to Podsakoff and Organ (1986) the evidence for Common Method Variance exists when a general constructs accounts for majority of the covariance among all constructs.

The total number of item used for analysis of measurement model of the study is 68. Unrotated factor analysis using principal component analysis of all 68 items together formed 8 components. The total variance explained by 8 components is 59.561%. The first factor extracted was not found to account for substantial variance in the variables (23.869%). Hence, Herman's Single

Factor Test excluded the presence of Common Method Variance/Bias in the present study.

5.5.2 Correlation Method

This method involves the analysis of correlation matrix obtained from PLS path modelling to verify for inter-correlation greater than 0.9 which is considered as an indication of Common Method Variance (Pavlou et al., 2007).

Table 5.27: Correlation Matrix of Latent Variable

Construct	IPF	WF	MF	CF	SF	CMB	CS	PE
IPF	1							
WF	0.004	1						
MF	0.268	0.05	1					
CF	0.297	0.053	0.296	1				
SF	0.065	0.006	0.035	0.033	1			
CMB	0.3	0.247	0.326	0.251	0.032	1		
CS	0.11	0.194	0.216	0.153	0.243	0.562	1	
PE	0.226	0.222	0.119	0.2	0.16	0.661	0.451	1

From the above table, it is seen that the highest inter correlation between variable (Career Management Behaviour and Perceived Employability) is 0.661, which is below the limit 0.9 proposed by the by Pavlou et al. (2007), hence the Common Method Variance can be ruled out from the study.

The Common Method Bias in the measurement is a significant issue in self-reporting studies in social science research; present study diagnosed the Common Method Variance by using two different statistical tests and both tests came to the conclusion that Common Method Bias not present in the Measurement Model of the study.

5.6 Chapter Summary

The chapter 5 dealt with the testing of hypotheses and conceptual model analysis. The test of hypotheses dealing with positive influence of variables and the mediating role of career management behaviours are analysed using the appropriate statistical test and interpretation of results are presented. The main focus of the study, the role of career management behaviours in the relationship between the factors of re-entry and the career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) is analysed by Structural Equation Modelling using PLS method. The Measurement Model Analysis and Structural Model Analysis were conducted and the results reveal that Conceptual Model is supported by the data. The Common Method Variance is analysed by using different methods and is ruled out from the study by the same methods.

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Chapter 6

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Contents	6.1 <i>Summary of the Findings</i>
	6.2 <i>Discussion of Findings</i>
	6.3 <i>Chapter Summary</i>

Having presented the analysis of the data in the previous chapter, the summary of the findings is presented in this chapter. Further, the chapter provides a detailed discussion and critical evaluation of the findings in the light of the existing literature and the research objectives.

6.1 Summary of the Findings

The summary of the findings as per data analysis and interpretations are presented below:

6.1.1 Findings from the of Socio-Demographic Background

- Majority of the respondents fall under the category of 25-30 years age group accounting 60% followed by respondents' category of 31-35 years accounting 28.8%.
- Most of the respondents were married accounting 95.9%.
- Most of the respondents were MBA graduates accounting 43.8 % percent followed by B-Tech graduates accounting 32.9 %.
- Most of the respondents are belonging to the IT/ICT Industry accounting 56.6% followed by Manufacturing 17.8 %.
- Majority of the respondents come under the category of full-time permanent employment accounting 84 %.
- Majority of the respondents have an experience of 1-2 year (s) (44.7%), 42.4 % of them have 3-5 years of experience before re-entry.
- Most of the respondents took a career break of 1-2 year (s) accounting 70% followed by 3-5 years category accounting 26.9 %.
- Majority of the respondents took a career break due to childbirth (78%), 11.9% of the respondents took the break because of their husband's job re-location.

- Challenges faced during re-entry were heterogeneous. Among the thirteen challenges faced before re-entry, the lack of recent work experience scored the highest mean value (M=3.14) followed by the lack of lateral job opportunities (M=3.00)
- The reasons of career re-entry were diverse. Majority of the respondents accounting (34.7%) re-entered to their career because of their passion towards their career, more than 28 % of the respondents reported that they came back to the workforce due to financial reasons and 22% returned to work as they need to be self-supporting.
- The factors supported for re-entry were varied among the respondents. 21 % of the respondents reported that their education level supported them to for re-entry, more than 19% of the respondents reported that attended training and skill development programs supported them to get a re-entry.

6.1.2 Findings from the Testing of Hypotheses

- Intrapersonal factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- Work factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- Management factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- Career factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.
- Societal factors have a positive impact on career management behaviours.

- Career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their career satisfaction.
- Career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their perceived employability.
- Career management behaviours fully mediate in the relationship between intrapersonal factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- Career management behaviours partially mediate in the relationship between work factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction
- Career management behaviours fully mediate in the relationship between management factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- Career management behaviours fully mediate in the relationship between career factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction
- Career management behaviours partially mediate in the relationship between societal factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction.
- There is a relationship between intrapersonal factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is perfectly mediated by career management behaviours.
- There is a relationship between work factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is fully mediated by career management behaviours.

- There is a relationship between management factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is perfectly mediated by career management behaviours.
- There is a relationship between career factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is fully mediated by career management behaviours.
- There is a relationship between societal factors of re-entry women and their perceived employability is partially mediated by career management behaviours.

6.2 Discussion of Findings

The discussion interpreting the findings regarding socio-demographic features of the respondents and the results of hypotheses testing are presented in the following sessions:

6.2.1 Discussion on the Socio-Demographic Background

The study is a response to the need for a more systematic and critical examination of the concept of career re-entry of women. Apart from the relationship of career re-entry factors, career management behaviours (CMB) and career success which formed the main focuses of the research, the study also attempted to explore the socio-demographic background of the career re-entry women. The study analysed the various socio-demographic trends of re-entry women in South India. The study also investigated the various reasons of career break and re-entry and the period of break with reasons of re-entry, in doing so, the study provided a rare examination of career re-entry that advances current understanding of the concepts of the women career re-entry. The detailed discussions of the above findings are presented in the following section.

The respondents of the present study are varied in age category which supports the report of Fagan and Williams (1991) that the population of re-entry women was diverse and heterogeneous: they varied in age. Majority of the respondents fall under the category of 25-30 years age group. None of the respondents of the present study fall under the category of above 45 years, which supports the existing literature that discrimination with regard to the age is seen as a significant problem (Lemmer, 1990).

As the B-Tech and MBA graduates represent significantly compared to other professional graduates in industry, these two categories adequately represents the sample group also. Results also hint that the re-entry women with MBA background are more likely to get a re-entry compared to other professionals.

Responses support the fact that majority of the professional women workforce are associated with IT/ICT Industry. Karine Schomer (2010) also supports the previous statement that most of the professional women are associated with IT/ICT industry. Intervention programmes are important in improving women's position in the IT sector, recognizing their potential to act as a bridge for the transfer of knowledge (Panteli, 2012). Additionally, the expectation that ICT workers should constantly update their skills means that being a returner might only be a short term barrier, which could be overcome by undertaking appropriate training courses. Rather than being employed by major multinational companies, most ICT workers are employed by small and medium size enterprises (Marshall, 2010), thereby IT/ICT is able to provide immense opportunities for women. The data records support that the majority of the re-entry women are associated with the IT/ICT industry. It suggests that the IT/ICT Industry provides more

opportunities for woman professionals and it is supportive for re-entry women as well.

Most of the respondents took a career break of 1-2 year(s) accounting for 70 % followed by 3-5 years category accounting for 26.9%. The length in a woman's absence from work depends on her relationships and other life events such as marriage and family formation (Fagan and Williams, 1991). Albrecht et al. (1999) invariably observe a positive correlation between duration and wage penalty: the longer the interruption, the lower the subsequent wage. Studies examine curvilinear effects of career breaks (Baum, 2002). Spivey (2005) observed a convex function. This implies that the negative effect of duration on the subsequent wage weakens as the duration of the spell increases. Findings from the present study reveal that majority of the respondents took a break of 1-2 years.

Most of the respondents took a career break because of childbirth. This data records support the existing literature as the decision to exit the job market is influenced by the woman's position in the family life cycle. Today's woman has multiple roles and responsibilities as a family member, parent, community member and worker (Fagan and Williams, 1991). Women go on a career break for various reasons, the most common one being a maternity leave (Equalitec, 2005). Therefore, career break from the job market is typically initiated by decisions of marriage, family formation and geographic moves when a husband secures a new job (Lemmer, 1990; Herkelmann et al., 1993; Lombard, 1999; Maskel, 1997; Sterret, 1999). The present study investigated that the major reasons for career break of woman professional is childbirth and husband's job re-location are also important reason of career break. Becoming a mother changes the life of a woman forever. When a woman realizes that there is a

baby solely dependent on her for all of its needs, she emotionally finds it very difficult to pay attention to her career. She might decide to take a career break at this phase (Rajesh and Ekambaram, 2013). Additionally, there might be husband's relocation which means, if a marriage and husband's job re-location result in relocation for women professional to her husband's place of stay and this particular place does not offer a situation where she can pursue her current job, she might decide to quit. The present results confirm findings of prior research that childcare being the single most significant life event impacting professional career women with respect to their career break or career interruption.

Women face many challenges during the re-entry process. In fact, women stay out longer than they anticipated. When women first step out, they feel energized and positive, yet when they attempt to return, they find the experience negative and depressing (McGrath et al., 2005). Challenges faced during re-entry were heterogeneous. Among the challenges faced before re-entry include the lack of recent work experience scored the highest mean value (M=3.14) followed by the lack of lateral job opportunities (M=3.00). The lack of job opportunities (M=2.95), no promotional opportunities (M=2.94), employer discrimination (M=2.88), depreciation of skills (M=2.84) and redundancy of skills (M=2.80) were also scored higher mean values, which show that these are the significant challenges faced by the re-entry women when they are attempting to get a re-entry in their career. The results of the present study support the existing literature (Panteli, 2012) that when on a career break, these re-entry women often feel disconnected from the labour market and from the sector and that their career break contributes to a knowledge gap and reduced confidence levels. The other authors like Sainsbury

(1996) and McDonald (2000) reported that women who interrupt or restrict their careers due to childcare can cause various problems such as depreciation of their human capital, loss of work opportunities, and risk of slower career progress. Thus, the present findings buttress the existing literature.

The present results conforming to the literature of Padula (1994) that the re-entry women's vocational reasons as motive for workforce re-entry such as the desire to have a career and to become self-supporting. Literature prop up that women with a low family income are likely to return to work (Barrow, 1999). Other reasons of re-entry of woman professionals reported as children entering school and growing up (Padula, 1994). Present findings also support the previous findings of Fagan and Williams (1991) that a reason for women's return is to be self-supporting. New fields are very appealing to women who are passionate about career; they hope that they might reward them based on individual ability. These companies are also keen to provide the opportunity for the woman workers and women believed that they are rewarded based on talent rather than seniority, they anticipate for better chances for promotion and the potential opportunity for them to strive to reach top occupational positions. When married women work for financial reasons, it is usually because their husbands are working in marginal jobs, and the family needs the extra income to survive (Rajesh and Ekambaram, 2013). Dual careers have become a personal goal and an economic necessity for many couples, steady decline in the earning power of family's wages, making women's employment a necessity for many families, hence present results: passion towards career and financial reasons are confirming the existing literature that reason for women re-entry is common for professional women across the globe.

The factors supported for re-entry were varied among the respondents, 21% of the respondent reported that their education level supported them to for re-entry, more than 19% of the respondents reported that attended training and skill development programs supported them to get a re-entry and 16.9% of respondents reported that quality of work done before re-entry helped them for getting a re-entry. These main findings substantiate the literature of Dex et al. (1996) that they use the 1958 National Child Development Study cohort to model employment transitions around childbearing and they find that education is the main factor that secures women's job continuity after motherhood. The present finding that 'attending in training and skill development programs help the re-entry' prop up the argument of Fagan and Williams (1991) that women returning to work or careers after an interruption in employment are faced with the necessity to catch up on skills, knowledge and experience.

6.2.2 Discussion on the Testing of Hypotheses

The study analysed and discussed the findings of the relationship of career re-entry factors, career management behaviours (CMB) and career success which formed the main focus of the research. Study also discussed the mediating role of career management behaviours in career success. Discussion of findings from the hypotheses testing is detailed in the following session:

6.2.2.1 Career Re-entry Factors and Career Management Behaviours

One of the momentous findings of the present study is the positive impact of career re-entry factors on career management behaviours. The prior researchers stressed on the point that the career management behaviours or context specific proactive behaviour could be positively influenced by the individual, organizational, management and environmental factors. In general,

the results of the present findings substantiate the results of the earlier studies of Parker et al. (2006) that the individual differences and work environment variables affect proactive cognitive motivational states, which, in turn, lead to proactive behaviours. This harmonizes with the Frese and Fay (2001), who, drawing on Kanfer (1992), proposed personality and environment variables as distal causes of proactive behaviour. Similarly, the study by Crant (2000) also reports that the contextual factors (management support, organizational culture) affect proactive behaviour directly. As the career re-entry factors are those factors such as intrapersonal, work, management, career and societal factors can also be considered as in the point of view of individual, work environment, contextual and environmental factors. Hence the present findings of the study corroborate the previously studied results that the factors of career re-entry: intrapersonal factors, work factors, management factors, career factors and societal factors have a positive impact on the career management behaviour of the re-entry woman professionals. This research finding contributes a major part from the point of view of this research objective.

6.2.2.2 Career Management Behaviours and Career Satisfaction

The result of the analysis of the relationship between career management behaviour and career satisfaction was on the expected lines as the above relationship was one of the most reasonable relations between career management behaviour and career satisfaction. The findings of the present data also offer that career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their career satisfaction. The earlier research results (Crant, 2000; Lent and Brown, 2006) supporting this findings as participating in career management behaviours that are directed at achieving personally valued goals in the career domain are expected to promote an individual's career satisfaction

and success. Pursuing personally pertinent goals is a key way that people can contribute to their own wellbeing and enables the exercise of personal agency in career satisfaction. A study by Ng et al. (2005) argues that meta-analytic support also exists for the positive relationship between individual career management behaviours and career satisfaction. Generally, participating in career management behaviours/context specific proactive behaviours or goal oriented activities would directly contribute to an enhanced level of career satisfaction, and many studies explored a cross-sectional relationship between these two. There is also support for the positive impact of career management behaviours on subjective career success or career satisfaction (Wiese et al., 2002). Thus present findings strongly support the findings of the prior studies that career management behaviours of re-entry women professionals have a positive impact on their career satisfaction.

6.2.2.3 Career Management Behaviours and Perceived Employability

The Findings from the analysis of the relationship between career management behaviours and perceived employability was also on accepted lines since this relationship was one of the sensible relations between career management behaviours and perceived employability, the result of the present data also offers that career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their perceived employability. The researchers in the past argued that both career self-management behaviours and more cognitive indicators of career self-management have been examined as antecedents of career success (Ng, Eby, Sorensen and Feldman, 2005). Previous findings reported that individuals who are serious about their career goals and have a stronger insight regarding their career, report a higher level of career success. Also it is supposed that self-managing individuals more

actively strive to obtain their desired career goals which, in turn, should make them feel more successful in their career (Arthur et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2005).

The studies of Seibert et al. (1999) established support for their hypothesis that proactive individuals select, create and influence their employment situations that increase the likelihood of their career success. The employability of a person is frequently described as having a flexible attitude towards work and career and this flexibility and adaptability tend to be reflected in attitudes towards career self-management and behaviours that support future employability (Fugate et al., 2004). Claes and Ruiz-Quintanilla, (1998) report that career self-management results in a higher level of satisfaction about one's present career status and also increased the perceptions of employability as it increases employees' options for employment, development and their negotiability about job changes. There is enough evidence that individuals are engaging in proactive behaviours in order to maintain employability and to manage careers (Clarke and Patrickson, 2008). The current findings from the analysis firmly corroborate the findings of the previous studies that career management behaviours of re-entry woman professionals have a positive impact on their perceived employability. Thus career management behaviours or context specific proactive behaviours of re-entry women have a significant role to enhance their employability. This finding strongly props up the proposed conceptual model of the present study.

6.2.2.4 Mediating Influence of Career Management Behaviours in the Relationship between Career Re-entry Factors and Career Satisfaction

The momentous outcome of the analysis of the study is the finding that career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career satisfaction. This finding is one of the major

outcomes of the present research. There is a hypothesised support that there is a relationship between career re-entry factors and the career satisfaction and the career management behaviour and the career satisfaction, since the career management behaviour is one of the antecedent of career satisfaction, study expected a mediation effect of career management behaviours in the relation between career re-entry factors and career satisfaction. From the analysis it is found that career management behaviours fully mediate in the relationship between intrapersonal factors and career satisfaction. Career management behaviour such as career exploration and planning and career self management (Claes and Ruiz-Quintamilla, 1998; Kossek et al., 1998; Nabi, 2000, 2003; Noe, 1996; Orpen, 1994) could help to mitigate the intrapersonal factors.

The career management behaviours partially mediate in the relationship between work factors of re-entry women and their career satisfaction, when considering this finding, factors in the work situations such as interpersonal relationships, skill obsolescence, in-service training, retraining programs and their type or nature of work have significant influence on their satisfaction and having proactive behaviours or career management behaviours such as skills development, networking can mitigate the influence of these work factors on their satisfaction to an moderate extent as the career management behaviours could not be fully eliminated the influence of work factors on their career satisfaction.

The career management behaviours fully mediate in the relationship between management factors and their career satisfaction and this findings lead to a precision that when re-entry women participating in career management behaviour or proactive behaviours such as skill development, networking and visibility behaviour positively changes management factors

(employer stereotypic attitudes and policies) which in turn lead to better level of their career satisfaction. The career management behaviours perfectly mediates in the relation between career factors and the career satisfaction of re-entry women. Having a quality of career management behaviours or participating in proactive behaviours such as networking, visibility behaviour and promoting one's achievements sort of behaviour mitigates their lacking of remuneration and promotional prospects and by resolving these career factors, in turn, lead to enhanced career satisfaction, thus, career management behaviours has a role to play.

From the analysis it was found that career management behaviours partially mediate in the relationship between societal factors and career satisfaction, considering this finding, societal factors such as child care arrangements, societal role perception and lack of emotional support have a significant influence on their career satisfaction and influence of those factors on career satisfaction can be mitigated by having the presence of career management behaviours or proactive behaviours (better career exploration and planning, networking and mobility oriented behaviours, etc) to some extent but could not be fully eliminated, though they are confronting the societal factors still, career management behaviours has strong role in influencing their career satisfaction. Hence, study found that participating in career management behaviours or having a proactive behaviour such as career exploration and planning, career self-management behaviour like skills development, visibility behaviour, networking and promoting one's achievements could definitely mitigate career re-entry factors of professional women and that eventually lead to the enhancement of their career satisfaction.

6.2.2.5 Mediating Influence of Career Management Behaviours in the Relationship between Career Re-entry Factors and Perceived Employability

One of significant outcome of the study is the finding that career management behaviour also mediates in the relationship between career re-entry factors and perceived employability. This finding is one of the foremost outcomes of the present research. There is a hypothesised support that there is a relationship between career re-entry factors and the perceived employability and the career management behaviours and the perceived employability, as the proactive behaviour or career management behaviours or career self management (Ans De Vos et al., 2008) is one of the antecedents of perceived employability, study expected a mediation effect of career management behaviours in the relation between career re-entry factors and perceived employability.

From the analysis it is found that career management behaviours fully mediate in the relationship between intrapersonal factors and perceived employability. The intrapersonal factors such as role conflict, stress, guilt and low self-confidence could be mitigated by the presence of career management behaviours such as career exploration and planning, career self-management and which, in turn lead to a better employability. The career management behaviours is mediated in the relation between work factors and perceived employability, this finding reached to an understanding that the work factors like interpersonal relationships, skill obsolescence, in-service training, retraining programs, etc have significant influence on their employability and having the presence of proactive behaviours or career management behaviours such as career exploration, skills development, networking ,visibility behaviour, etc could alleviate the influence of these

work factors and which eventually lead to the enhancement of their perceived employability.

The result reveals that the career management behaviour perfectly mediates in the relationships between the management factors and the perceived employability of re-entry women professional, which is basically possible by the mitigating effect of career management behaviour (skill development, networking and visibility behaviour) on the management factors such as employer stereotypic attitudes and management policies and which consecutively lead to augmentation of their employability. The career management behaviours is fully mediated in the relation between career factors and perceived employability, this finding happens when the proactive behaviour or career management behaviour like networking, visibility behaviour, promoting one's achievements and mobility oriented behaviour positively influence their remuneration and promotional prospects and these yields to the improvement of their employability.

Career management behaviour partially mediates in the relation between societal factors and employability; this result could be that societal factors such as child care arrangements, societal role perception, child care arrangements and lack of emotional support have influenced significantly on their perceived employability and this influence could be mitigated to a great extent by the presence of career management behaviour; career exploration and planning, networking and mobility oriented behaviour, etc, but the societal factors could not be perfectly eliminated, though they are facing up to the societal factors still, career management behaviour or the context specific proactive behaviour has a significant role enhancing their perceived employability. The present study established that having a quality of

proactive behaviour or career management behaviour such as career exploration and planning, career self-management behaviour like skills development, visibility behaviour, networking and promoting one's achievements and mobility oriented behaviour etc altogether mitigate career re-entry factors of professional women and that consecutively leads to the enhancement of their perceived employability.

Hence, career management behaviours play a significant role in factors of career re-entry and play a significant role in career success of the re-entry women and that's been found through an empirical test. The study discussed the meditational effect of career management behaviour in the relation between the career re-entry factors and the career satisfaction and also found the mediation effect of career management behaviours in the relationship between career re-entry factors and the perceived employability. Since the career satisfaction and the perceived employability are the two determinants of subjective career success, study authenticate that career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between the career re-entry factors and the career success of re-entry woman professionals in South India.

6.3 Chapter Summary

The chapter 6 dealt with the research findings of the study. The chapter provided detailed discussion of the findings in the light of literature and the research objectives of the study. The chapter also provided critical evaluation of the socio-demographic findings and the also the findings from the hypotheses testing of the study. To summarise the discussion on the findings of the conceptual model analysis, it was concluded that relationship between the

career re-entry factors, career management behaviour and career satisfaction and perceived employability are significant and revealed that there is mediating influence of career management behaviours in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career success of re-entry woman professionals in South India.

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Chapter 7

SUMMARY & CONCLUSION

<i>Contents</i>	7.1 <i>Summary of Research</i>
	7.2 <i>Implication of Research</i>
	7.3 <i>Limitations of the Research</i>
	7.4 <i>Scope for Future Research</i>
	7.5 <i>Conclusion</i>

Having discussed the summary of findings and the discussion on the same in the preceding chapter, the summary and conclusion of the research study are presented in this chapter. The chapter also discussed the theoretical and the managerial implications of the research in detail. Finally, this chapter also presented the limitations of this study and the scope for future research.

7.1 Summary of Research

The study was carried out with the main focus to study the factors impacting career success of re-entered woman professionals in South India and also to find out the relationship between career re-entry factors and career management behaviours, career management behaviours and career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) and the effect of career management behaviours in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career success of professional women. The study confirmed that women career re-entry is often not smooth an uninterrupted. Analyzing from the existing literature in the fields of women career re-entry, mainly five factors (intrapersonal, work, management, career and societal) impacting career re-entry of women were brought out. These factors pull back them from their career trajectories and attaining career success. Drawing inputs from the extensive research in the fields of career re-entry factors, career management behaviours and career success, a conceptual model was formulated linking the career re-entry factors, career management behaviours and career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) of re-entry woman professionals in south Indian context. Career success was conceptualized in the subjective perspective of the construct and in the form of career satisfaction and perceived employability constructs.

The empirical study was based on the survey data collected from 219 re-entry women professionals from South India, i.e. Kerala, Tamilnadu and Karnataka. The socio-demographic background of the re-entry women were analysed using SPSS 21.0 and the relationships of the constructs: career re-entry factors, career management behaviours and career satisfaction and

perceived employability were analysed using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) by Partial Least Square (PLS) Approach.

Based on the findings, it is concluded that the socio-demographic milieu experienced by the re-entry woman professionals in global level is generally applicable to Indian context also. Socio-demographic features with respect to their age, marital status, professional qualification, type of industry, experience, duration of break, reasons for career break and reasons for re-entry were almost similar to the global level. Most of them fall under the age group of 26-30, were married and they were belonging to the IT/ICT Industry. Majority of them had a career break of 1-2 years, had a work experience of 1-2 years before re-entry and mostly they took a career break due to the motherhood or childbirth. But, the reasons for career re-entry were diverse among the respondents; significant percentage of the respondents re-entered to the career because of their passion for career as they have invested heavily in their education and training, they have spent years accumulating the skills and the credentials necessary for their successful careers. Therefore, most of them are not willing to lob that pain taking effort aside. A good number of the respondents re-entered to the workforce due to financial reasons and a few of them returned to work as they need to be self-supporting. The education level, attended training and skill development programs were the major supporting things in their re-entry. Hence, higher professional qualifications contribute deeply in supporting their career re-entry.

The study was a response to the need for a more systematic and critical analysis of career re-entry factors experienced by the career re-entry women, extent of their career success in the form of career satisfaction and perceived employability and the mediating effects of career management behaviours of

the re-entry woman professionals in South India. It has been found that the relationship between career re-entry factors and career management behaviours, career management behaviours and career satisfaction, and career management behaviours and perceived employability were found significant in the present context. In particular, the study considered the development of mediation model of career management behaviour in between five career re-entry factors of women and their career success, and tested the model that examines career management behaviours as a mediating mechanism. By doing so, study provided a rare examination of an effect of mediator: career management behaviours in between five career re-entry factors of women and their career success, that could enhances current understanding of the concepts.

The crux of the study is the analysis of mediation model of career management behaviours in between the five career re-entry factors of women and their career success generally supported the conceptual model developed for this research. The empirical findings of the study lay a broad framework and solid foundation for the effect of the mediator in the context of the career re-entry factors of women and the extent of their career success. The career management behaviours mediate perfectly in the relation between intrapersonal factors, management factors, career factors and their career satisfaction. Career management behaviours partially mediate in the relationship between work factors, societal factors and their career satisfaction. Career management behaviours mediate fully in the relationship between intrapersonal factors, work factors, management factors, career factors and their perceived employability and career management behaviours partially mediate only in the relation between societal factors and their perceived employability.

Though, career management behaviours partially mediate within few relationships, the remaining highly significant majority coming under the perfect mediation model, hence, the study empirically validated the mediation model and demonstrates that, in the concept of women re-entry, career management behaviours are a mediating variable/ mechanism that links the career re-entry factors to their career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) and therefore, the study established that the career management behaviours or proactive behaviours is a fruitful mediator and it has significant role in the concept of career re-entry. In the nutshell, it has been concluded that, though career re-entry woman professionals confronting with career re-entry hurdles if they are participating in career management behaviours or having quality of career management behaviours or proactive behaviours could mitigate the impact of career re-entry factors and that could augment their career satisfaction and escalate their perceived employability and thereby lead to the enhancement of their career success.

7.2 Implications of the Findings for Theory and Practice

The present study makes significant contributions to the theory and practice in the context of career re-entry and career success of woman professionals. The theoretical and practical or managerial implications are presented in the following sessions:

7.2.1 Theoretical Implications of the Findings

The findings from this study provide valuable insights into the theoretical perspectives of the career re-entry and career success of woman professionals. The study confirmed that women career re-entry is often not a smooth affair. Analysis of the factors impacting career re-entry of woman

professionals provides better understanding of the present milieu. Study corroborates that there are many factors impacting at different levels- intrapersonal, work, management, career and societal factors in the present context and these factors might force them to digress from their career success. The above findings make the existing theories still more credible and advancing of career re-entry factors experienced by the professional women in India. Previous studies demonstrated the trends in career re-entry, and the results of the present research support these trends of socio-demographic features of career re-entry and it also authenticates the trends of present women career re-entry scenario in India.

The theoretical model for career re-entry and career success research is in its nascent stage and which has not been fully incorporated with all its multifaceted levels into the conceptual models connecting career re-entry factors and career success in Indian context. The shortcomings were, to some extent, addressed by the conceptual framework of this study with the presupposition that though re-entry women are confronting with the factors of career re-entry, presence of the career management behaviours would mitigate these factors and positively influence their career success. The results of the present study found the relationships between career re-entry factors and career management behaviours and, career management behaviours and career success (career satisfaction and perceived employability) were significant in the present context and these findings extended this research by linking the career re-entry factors and career management behaviours to career satisfaction as well as perceived employability. The mediation analysis of career management behaviours or context specific proactive behaviours reveals that the career management behaviours mediate perfectly and this finding contributed

considerably in the prediction of career success. And the study further demonstrated that career management behaviours are indeed effective in enhancing career success of re-entry women. Taken the findings together provide an initial support and confirmation to the existing theory of subjective career success.

7.2.2 Managerial Implications

The study provides useful insight for management practice of individual's perspectives as the study is mainly focused on the re-entered women perspectives. As employment and career patterns continue to evolve, the concept of individual career satisfaction and employability will remain a focal issue for both individuals and organisations. Individuals will need to recognize responsibility for managing their career and maintaining employability while for organisations the critical issues will be how to promote employability and balance organizational and individual needs. The findings of the study could be utilized for a better management of career re-entry of woman professionals. The individuals or the career re-entry women may no longer expect to have a job-for-life, but they are to engage in proactive behaviours or career management behaviours in order to maintain their employability and to manage career.

The career-enhancing strategies or the career management behaviours facilitate individuals the opportunity for personal and professional growth through giving and receiving help. The significance of this is presented in the model is that career success is not individual independence or mastery, but to develop through interdependence. The findings of the mediator hypothesis describe the adoption of different strategies such as career exploration and planning, skills development, networking and promoting one's achievements.

Such a model, therefore, focuses on personal growth, self-knowledge and relationships between individuals. The behaviours concerning implementation of a set of co-occurring behaviours like positioning behaviours, influence behaviours and boundary management behaviours. These behaviours could be deployed with strategic intent; therefore, the term behaviour is preferred here to the term strategy or career enhancing strategy for re-entry women.

The career re-entry woman professionals could be using these range of behaviours that are intended to prevail upon the decisions made by them who are in a position to influence their desired career outcomes. Individuals could be using it with an objective of eradicating or resolving the thwarting conditions they would or else experience in their careers and thereby exhibiting adaptive, behavioural responses to career development tasks. The model presented in the study could therefore be considered as one of the bests for the re-entry women since they are in search of a better way out to understand their problems regarding their re-entry and also seeking better strategies to adapt for managing their career in a successful manner.

In the light of the above research outcomes it seems that the best way to achieve career success is for the individuals concern to facilitate a self-supporting system or self-developmental framework that supports and encourage them towards practicing career management behaviours and manage their career impeccably. The organization can offer support for individual career planning through systematic career management strategies such as career training and skill development, feedback on their performance, mentoring, coaching, networking and support for promoting one's achievements. These career planning should include training in how to set realistic career goals and then determining the apt career management

behaviours/strategies for achieving those goals. Rather than simply practicing traditional HRD programs, the companies should take more customised approach to career management of re-entry woman professionals, an approach which brings different practices broadly in terms of career planning and career self-management and along with identifying the career re-entry factors confronting with them and those issues should be properly addressed.

In terms of career success, it would seem that the critical subject was not only the lack of facilitation but also the individual's adopted behaviours and mindsets generally connected with practicing career management behaviours in which individuals accept responsibilities for their career development and management and how far they are willing to continually adapt, update and modify. The findings of this study indicate that despite significant changes to organizational and career structures, some individuals have remained locked in a traditional career mindset in which the focus is on current roles and maintenance of existing skills rather than preparing for an uncertain future through ongoing self-assessment, environmental scanning and skill development. The individuals should learn how to scan their environment and present market trends so that they are able to manage their career. The employees carefully update their employment trends, changing professional requirements or emerging employment markets and also nurture their skills to utilize the available information to prepare for career development and success. The proactive behaviours like lifelong learning, being flexible and adaptable to the situations, career planning, skill up-gradation, internal and external networking and other career self-management practices, help build career possessions and thus support the career satisfaction and employability and enduring career success.

Career success of re-entry woman professionals at an individual level need to focus more on the development of supporting behaviours for career satisfaction and employability such as practicing individual career management behaviours or proactive behaviours and at an organizational level, employees can be supported by providing opportunities to participate career enhancing activities or strategies. It should necessitate an investment on the part of both organization and individuals. From an organization's or management's perspectives, this investment has the potential to enhance its capacity to attract and retain talented re-entry woman professionals and its supporting system may also prove to be a powerful instrument in building and sustaining competitive advantage and help to balance organizational and individual needs within the current job market conditions.

7.3 Limitations of the Study

The study has only explored the relationship among career re-entry factors, career management behaviours, career satisfaction and perceived employability that is subjective career success. Other variables which influence career success of re-entry were not considered. The findings of the study can be generalized to other career women where the practicing of career management behaviours exist, but may not be fully applicable to other career women due to the limitation of this focus exclusively on the career re-entry of woman professionals. The sample for the study included only the professionally qualified re-entered women working in corporate sector which might limit generalization of the entire women career participation.

7.4 Scope for Further Research

The further research can focus on studying the influence of variables of used in the present study on the other career areas of women. Further research can also focus on the other unexplored antecedents which might influence the career success of re-entry woman professionals. Future research should examine other variables like self-efficacy, perceived organizational support, etc should also need to be explored as these variables are significant in Indian context and which might augment relationships among the other variables of the present model. An analogous study with a longitudinal design can track the trends and changes in the field: it confirms the findings of the study in an improved way as well as it help in authenticating the inferences fruitfully. As the present study is solely focused on the subjective career success of women, a similar study with a focus of objective career success can also be explored thoroughly in the future research. Hence, a lot of scope for further research.

7.5 Conclusion

The career re-entry of women has been a major topic of concern to researchers since the last century. It has been noted that the career re-entry of women has been showing signals of becoming more complex due to lack of proper measures and support to cope-up with. As career pattern continue to evolve, the ability to adapt and change can be crucial to individual career success as well as to the organizational performance. The career foregrounding workers are more in present condition i.e. family formation continuous workers, which show that in the case of woman professionals, many put their careers on hold during family formation stage. The serious woman professionals continued pursuing their career would be indicated by the nature of job which women engage in after their re-entry. Woman Professionals

embark on further training and career development programs to update their existing skills and to gain more advanced knowledge in the field which might enhance their career prospects after their re-entry. The individual efforts and proactive strategies provide more opportunities for advancement rather than organizational support; hence, it is conveying that presence of contest-mobility (such as professional ambition, need for personal growth, need for power and promotion process) is higher than the sponsored-mobility (such as ethnic/regional consideration). The organizations also expect the individual to take the responsibility for her re-entry and subsequently for her career success.

The career re-entry process is now moving towards a situation where there may be a perfect or ideal demand and supply for woman returners in the labour market. Now the career re-entry of women has become an unexceptional as the re-entry women employ career management behaviours (push factors). The companies also have a lot of strategies/ initiatives to attract talented women for re-entry. This shows the presence of pull-factors. Hence, it seems that the women re-entry is positive and favourable as the pull-factors as well as the push-factors are employed together. Now, the pull –factors (corporate support) in re-entry process have become as important as push-factors (career management behaviours). In this way the demand and supply for woman returners are likely to attain equilibrium. Apart from these, there are many initiatives by different NGOs for re-entry women through better re-launch/career development programs for re-entry women.

This research was carried out with a prime objective to study the factors impacting career success of re-entered woman professionals and also to study the mediating effect of career management behaviours in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career success of woman

professionals. The study established that the career management behaviors mediate in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career success of woman professionals, and in this way, the present study supports the basic contention of the research. The study results show that individuals who reflect more actively about their career goals and who have a stronger approach in employing career management behaviours report a higher level of career success. It makes us to understand that the self-managing individuals who actively strive for their desired career goals feel more successful in their career. Hence, it can be concluded that, irrespective of the factors they are confronting with, actively participating in career management behaviours to mitigate career re-entry factors/barriers helps to increase career satisfaction and perceived employability, thereby enhancing the chances of success in their career. To put it differently, career management behaviours mediate in the relationship between career re-entry factors and career success. The career success of re-entry woman professionals may now be considered mainly an individual responsibility yet organizations have much to gain by encouraging them and endow with better career management strategies /practices and helping prepare their women returners for better future.

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Appendix

Dear Madam,

I am **Saleena M.**, Research Scholar of CUSAT, doing a study among Women Professionals with special focus on the “Issues in Career re-entry after a career break ” as part of my research work. I need your valuable support to collect necessary information about this. I kindly request you to spare some of your valuable time to fill the questionnaire. I assured that any information provided by you will be strictly confidential and be used for academic purpose only. Thank you very much for being a part of this study.

Demographic Information:

1. Age

	Age(Range)	Present age	When break was taken	Age of re-entry
1	Below 25			
2	25-30			
3	31-35			
4	36-45			
5	Above 45			

2. Marital status

	Marital status	Presently	When break was taken	Re-entry
1	Married			
2	Widow			
3	Divorcee			

3. a) What is your Highest professional educational qualification (tick the appropriate)

- | | |
|--------|--------------|
| 1) MBA | 3) B-Tech |
| 2) MCA | 4) M-Tech/MS |

b) Do you have any of the following

- | | | | |
|--------|-----------|--------|--------|
| 1) PhD | 2) M.Phil | 3) PDF | 4) Nil |
|--------|-----------|--------|--------|

4. Industry type

Industry	Before Career Break	After Re-entry
a) IT		
b) Manufacturing		
c) Banking /Finance		
d) Health care		
e) Education		
f) Retail		
g) Others (specify)		

5. a) Employment Information

Employment Status	Current employment Status	Before re-entry	After re-entry
a) Full-time employment/permanent			
b) Full-time employment/ Temporary			
c) Part-time employment			

b) At the time of your break what was your total work experience?

Less than an year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	More than 10 years
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6. What was the period of your break (**Length of the break**)

1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	More than 10 years
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7. Kindly mark the applicable **reasons below for your career break.**

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| a) Childbirth | e) Dependent care |
| b) Husband's job re-location | f) Unsuitable working climate |
| c) Due to marriage | g) Higher education |
| d) Seeking new opportunities and challenges | |
| e) h) Others (please specify)..... | |

8. Kindly mark those **challenges** that you faced before re-entering the career / while looking for a re-entry.

S.No	Statement
1	Lack of confidence
2	Lack of support
3	Lack of career awareness
4	Depreciation of skills
5	Redundancy of skills
6	Lack of recent work experiences
7	Job became redundant
8	Lack of job opportunities
9	No promotional opportunities
10	Lack of lateral job opportunities (No suitable position to return to
11	Employers Discrimination /Recruiting agencies
12	Commitment and productivity issues
13	Age Discrimination
14	Others (specify).

10. Kindly mark the applicable **reasons below for your career re-entry**.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| a) Financial Reasons | e) Boredom |
| b) Passionate about career | f) To gain status /power |
| c) Children grown up and at school | g) Friendships at workplace |
| d) Need to be self-supporting | h) Searching for identity |
| i) Others | |

11. Kindly mark those **factors that supported or helped you in re-entering the career**

- Attended training & skill development programmes during break
- Keep up to date
- Maintained networks/ Constant contact with employers and colleagues
- Done individual projects
- Career plans with mentor/ Re-entry programs/Career internship programs
- Age at the time of re-entry
- Short duration of break
- Quality of work done before career break
- Number of years of work experience prior to career break
- Educational level

Directions: The following statements seek to determine problems within women returning to the work force. Please indicate **your experience** of these **Re-entry issues** by putting a ✓ mark in the appropriate column. **Scales:** Very strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neither agree nor disagree =3, Disagree =2, Very strongly disagree=1

S. No	CD 1	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	IPFrc1	I have to cope with conflict between the traditional role of wife and mother and the career role					
2	IPFrc2	I have other roles such as the role of family caregiver for elderly sick or disabled relatives who live either in their home or nearby					
3	IPFrc3	I view women's traditional and primary allegiance to be the family role					
4	IPFrc4	As a woman I spent more time on household tasks than my spouse					
5	IPFrc5	As a woman I assumed greater responsibility for the care and well-being of children than my spouse					
6	IPFrc6	Homemaking and the presence of children may cause women to defer the serious pursuit of a career while their children are young					
7	IPFst1	As a women I experience stress as a result of the demands of family life and career					
8	IPFst2	As a women I experience stress as a result of change in the work situation					
9	IPwrc7	Work-family role conflict might disproportionately affect my work satisfaction					
10	IPFgt1	As a women I often shoulder anxiety and guilt as a result of spending time away from my children					
11	IPFlsc1	As a women I often experience low self-confidence as a barrier in my career development					
12	IPFlsc2	Low self-confidence is reinforced by society and organisations which provide no opportunities for me to develop self-confidence					
13	IPFlsc3	Women undergo a loss of self-confidence during a career break as they might question their own competence, compare themselves unfavourably with their peers and be discouraged by how far behind they are					
14	IPFlsc4	Women returning to the work force after a career break no longer identify with the professional role for which their education and training prepared them					

S. No	CD2	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	WFit1	According to me, in-service training courses are sometimes attended by women only to grow in a certain areas of their careers and not because they are interested in the courses					
2	WFit2	According to me, management teams in organisations are responsible for creating opportunities for in-service training and this is not always effectively done					
3	WFso1	According to me, improved knowledge and technology cause returning women's qualifications and past experience to be outdated and inadequate for functioning in today's work situation					
4	WFso2	According to me, many women have the need for a system of support and professional retraining programmes after a career break					
5	WFrp1	According to me, many women have to provide retraining for themselves and often at their own expense					
6	Wftw	According to me , routine work leads to frustration and to dissatisfaction in the work Situation					
7	WFir1	According to me, a lack of hints and positive replies from superiors can influence work satisfaction negatively					
8	WFir2	According to me, few opportunities for interaction with colleagues may lead to feelings of isolation among workers					

S.No	CD3	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	MFea1	Many employers still entertain negative and stereotyped beliefs about women, for example that women are less committed to their work or that women's careers are secondary to men's careers					
2	MFea2	Forms of discrimination most often experienced by women are lower work rewards and differential treatment concerning promotion					
3	MFea3	According to me ,the age of women returning to the work force after a period of career absence seems to play a significant role in discrimination by employers					
4	M lp1	Legislation and work policies fail to promote equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through equal remuneration and promotion opportunities for women.					
5	MF lp2	There is a lack of flexible, more innovative organisational policies dealing with maternity, such as an increase in the maximum period of maternity leave of four months and provision for greater flexibility in the taking of maternity leave					
6	MF lp3	According to me, career breaks due to childbearing and a lack of adequate maternity leave adversely affect the career development of women with regard to post levels					
7	MF lp4	According to me ,the absence of legislation and work policies that consider the particular needs of women returning to the work force are a problem					

S.No	CD4	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	CFr1	Gender discrimination occurs in remuneration despite legislation and work policies					
2	CFr2	Withdrawal and re-entry to the work force can have a negative effect on my remuneration, as returning women do not build up seniority or receive on-the-job-training, which in itself, often leads to higher remuneration					
3	CFp1	Women who achieve promotion to managerial positions in the country are still a minority.					
4	CFp2	I applied for some promotional post due to lack of promotional opportunities for women.					
5	CFp3	According to me, a career break has a detrimental effect on promotion prospects for women returning to the work force after a period of absence and in particular for women with children					

S.No	CD5	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	SFca 1	A shortage of workplace nurseries prevented me from re-entering					
2	SFca 2	The provision of childcare facilities such as after-school and holiday Play schemes is limited					
3	SFca 3	The high cost of childcare is a serious obstacle					
4	SFca 4	The provision of state provided childcare is limited					
5	SFca 5	Many women find it difficult to arrange care for sick children					
6	SF sr	Career women are subjected to traditional patriarchal stereotyped views of gender roles held by the society, for example, that family and home are women's primary responsibility					
7	SF es	As a career woman I often lacked support in the form of emotional support from family members					

Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following statements.

Scales: Scales: Very strongly agree = 5, Agree = 4, Neither agree nor disagree = 3, Disagree = 2, Very strongly disagree = 1

S.No	CD6	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	Cp1/CMB	I have not really decided what my career objectives should be yet					
2	Cp2/CMB	I have a plan for my career					
3	Cp3/CMB	I have a strategy for achieving my career goals					
4	Cp4/CMB	I know what I need to do to reach my career goals					
5	Cp5/CMB	My career objectives are not clear.					
6	Cp6/CMB	I change my career objectives frequently .					
7	Csm1/CMB	I have got myself introduced to people who can influence my career					
8	Csm2/CMB	I have talked to senior management at company social gatherings					
9	Csm3/CMB	I have built contacts with people in areas where I would like to work					
10	Csm4/CMB	I have pushed to be involved in high profile projects					
11	Csm5/CMB	I have asked for career advice from people even when it has not been offered					
12	Csm6/CMB	I have asked for feedback on my performance when it was not given					
13	Csm7/CMB	I have refused to accept a new role because it would not help me develop new skills					
14	Csm8/CMB	I have made plans to leave this organization once I have the skills and experience to move on					
15	Csm9/CMB	I have made plans to leave this organization if it cannot offer me a rewarding career					
16	Csm10/CMB	I have kept my CV up to date					
17	Csm11/CMB	I have monitored job advertisements to see what is available outside the organization					
18	Csm12/CMB	I have read work-related journals and books in my spare time					
19	Csm13/CMB	I have looked outside the organization for career related training or qualifications					
20	Csm14/CMB	I have taken on extra activities which will look good on my CV					
21	Csm15/CMB	I have made sure I get credit for the work I do					
22	Csm16/CMB	I have made my boss aware of my accomplishments					

Appendix

Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following statements.

Scales: Very strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neither agree nor disagree =3, Disagree =2, Very strongly disagree=1

S.No	CD7	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	CS1	I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career					
2	CS2	I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my overall career goals.					
3	CS3	I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for income					
4	CS4	I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for advancement					
5	CS5	I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for the development of new skills					

S.No	CD8	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	PE1	I believe I could easily obtain a comparable job with another employer					
2	PE1	I believe I could easily obtain another job that is in line with my level of education and experience					
3	PE3	I believe I could easily obtain another job that would give me a high level of satisfaction					

Thank You: Have a Nice Day

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||| List of Publications |||

- [1] Saleena.M & Mavoothu. D (2013) ,“Empowering Women Executives for a Successful Career Re-entry”.” *DEE CEE SCHOOL Journal, Vol V Issue 1: March 2013, pp 23-33, ISSN: 0972-9003.*
- [2] Saleena.M & Mavoothu. D (2013), “The New Trends in Career Break and Re-entry of Women Executives: A Critical Approach”.” *International Journal of Management Research and Technology, Vol: 7 No: 2, pp235-244, ISSN: 0974-3502.*
- [3] Saleena.M & Mavoothu. D (2014),““ Career Re-entry of Professional Women in Kerala: A Critical Perspective " , Annual Research Journal ,*Trade Wind ,Volume:9 No:1 Dec-2014, pp: 67-80, ISSN: 2320-5393*
- [4] Saleena.M & Mavoothu. D (2015) "Effects of Career Orientation on Intrapersonal Issues of Re-entry Women and their Career Penalty”, *Sona - Global Management Review ,Volume 9 Issue 3, pp 38-52 ,ISSN: 0973-9947*

Paper Presentations:

- [1] “Career Re-entry Barriers for Women Executives”, in the National Conference "Excellence in Human Resource Practices" held at Bharat Mata Institute of Management ,Kochi on 26th August 2013
- [2] “Career penalty as an issue in Career Re-entry of Women Executives” in the International Conference on “Trends and Challenges in Global Business Management”, PLACITUM-2013 held at SNGCE, Kolenchery, on 22-23 November 2013.
- [3] "Rights Issues in Career Re-entry of Women Professionals in Kerala" in the UGC sponsored National Seminar on 'Women's Rights-Human Rights Perspective' at MES-Marampally College, Aluva on 10th Dec-2014.
- [4] “ICT as a Tool for Career Advancement of Re-entry women " in the Two day International Seminar on "ICT and Women in the Globalized Era, "at Women’s Studies Centre, CUSAT, Kochi held on 30 & 31ST Oct 2015.

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