DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own account of my research and contains as its main content work that has not previously been submitted for a degree at any tertiary education institution

Michelle Gander, Adelaide, May 2019

A note on formatting and style

This PhD thesis comprises six articles either accepted for publication in a journal, presented at conferences, or submitted to journals. These documents are incorporated into this thesis along with additional text that has been provided to introduce and link the published work. It is hoped that amalgamation of papers, and the final discussion chapter, allows for the development of a cohesive body of research that can be easily followed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I finally made it. Although officially this PhD has taken five years, it was a far longer road to reach this point. As the first in my family to attend university, receiving an Honours degree was unheard of, let alone making it this far.

This thesis is dedicated to Marcus Whelband for your love, always, and for supporting me, especially when this challenge threatened to overwhelm me.

I could not have got this far without my supervisors and my immense gratitude goes to Dr Antonia Girardi and Dr Megan Paull. Thank you for your support, guidance and challenge during the whole process of this thesis. You are both generous with your time and were always positive about my research, and my ability, even when I was not.

I would also like to thank Murdoch University for providing me with an International Postgraduate Studentship, as well as opportunities for training and development. My special thanks go to the professional services staff of the School of Business, for their knowledge and support, and for generally making my life easier; a special mention must go to Sandy Clark.

I must also acknowledge the participants of my study, who provided me with their career stories, some of which were very personal. I feel honoured to have been trusted with your stories and I hope this work contributes in some small way to the ongoing improvement to the careers of professional staff.
ABSTRACT

This dissertation aims to understand the careers of professional staff working in universities: how they envisage their careers in terms of individual versus organisational responsibility, the place of their own internal values, the psychological and locational mobility they may enact, their psychological contract with their university, and their subjective experience of their own career. These are important considerations as professional staff make up approximately 25 per cent of university staff in OECD countries and hold some of the most senior leadership roles in a university. Yet little research has been carried out on this cohort of staff to understand their career needs and related behaviours, or how universities in and of themselves influence these behaviours and other outcomes. The work that has been published has mainly either taken a purely quantitative approach, testing for predictor variables, or an exploratory qualitative approach, often with limited methodological rigour and little emphasis on theory building. This has led to three research aims, to: 1) determine the factors influencing the contemporary career of higher education professional staff, 2) evaluate the application of a multi-theoretical framework for understanding the careers of higher education professional staff, and 3) determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the contemporary career of higher education professional staff.

The epistemological basis this research is grounded in is a pragmatic worldview. A concurrent complementarity mixed methods research design was used which allows for comparison of quantitative and qualitative data to search for congruence and divergence. Additionally, an analytical tool, Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of practice, was used as a lens through which to view the results of the research with the aim to develop a richer and deeper conceptual understanding of the lived careers of professional staff working in universities. This study utilised a cross-sectional survey design to collect quantitative and qualitative data in a multi-method instrument via an online survey. A convenience sample was used, recruiting two professional bodies. Two-hundred and twenty-six usable quantitative responses were returned, with 143 career stories being provided in the open-ended text box included at the end of the survey.

The results of this research led to five contributions to knowledge. First was the finding that professional staff have a Hybrid career orientation. They take aspects of the Traditional career and blend these with aspects of the Protean and Boundaryless career orientations. Second, that within this orientation there are four career profiles: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed. Third was that there are some essential needs, adaptation strategies and vocational development requirements, and that there is a reciprocative relationship between the individual and the employer for career management. Fourth, that professional staff develop a balanced psychological contract, balancing the needs of internal demands with external employability. Fifth, through the application of Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice as a lens through which to view the results, the importance of context for career behaviours was brought to light, an area which has not been given the level of importance it deserves in contemporary career theories which valourise individual agency. By taking the sector field of practice into account, and its effects on the organisational field, the underlying effect of habitus is illuminated, a critical aspect for individuals managing their careers.
within an organisation. By understanding the effects of field and habitus on individuals’ decisions relating to career behaviours, a new integrated career framework was developed in answer to criticism of previous career theories.

There are a number of human resource policy implications from this research. Firstly, is the recognition that career management has a reciprocative nature – the individual is responsible for their own career management, but the organisation needs to create an environment for this to take place. Universities would do well to introduce high performance work system bundles corresponding with an individuals’ employment lifecycle, starting from the management of expectations to ensure psychological contract is not at breach, through good job design, professional development opportunities. – perhaps based on career profile as well as competency development – opportunities for promotion, and a culture of inclusivity and transparency. A rigorous talent management process should be implemented, an area ripe for development in the higher education sector, to ensure that highly competent staff are developed and prepared for more senior roles in their organisation.

This dissertation highlights the need for further research into the integrated career framework presented, especially the significance of habitus within the field, and the concept of power relations. The Hybrid career orientation needs a more complete understanding of career needs for individuals who work in organisations, especially to take account of any cultural differences which this work was unable to undertake due to the limited sample. The concept of a balanced psychological contract should also be investigated and testing of the four career profiles should be undertaken.

To conclude, this dissertation is somewhat of a hybrid. The main results section is presented as a number of papers submitted, accepted or published in journals or presented at conferences. These papers are contextualised by more traditional dissertation chapters such as a broad literature review and methodology, and at the end a discussion chapter that links all the papers together, followed by a concluding chapter.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ......................................................................................... ii
ABSTRACT ........................................................................................................... iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS ...................................................................................... v
LIST OF FIGURES ............................................................................................. ix
LIST OF TABLES ................................................................................................. x
LIST OF PUBLICATIONS ................................................................................. xii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS ........................................................................... xiv

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION ........................................................................... 1
Introduction to the Chapter ............................................................................. 1
Background to the Study ................................................................................. 1
This Study ......................................................................................................... 9
Thesis Structure ............................................................................................ 14
Conclusion to the Chapter ............................................................................ 17

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW ................................................................. 19
Introduction to the Chapter ............................................................................. 20

PART A ............................................................................................................... 20
Introduction to Part A ..................................................................................... 20
Abstract ......................................................................................................... 24
Keywords ......................................................................................................... 25
Introduction ..................................................................................................... 25
Approach ......................................................................................................... 34
Data Analysis .................................................................................................. 38
Profile of Retained Articles ........................................................................... 50
Enablers and Barriers – Institutional and Individual ..................................... 54
Discussion ........................................................................................................ 64
Conclusion to Part A ........................................................................................ 71

PART B ............................................................................................................... 72
Introduction to Part B ..................................................................................... 72
Careers .............................................................................................................. 73
Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice ............................................................. 82
Career Theory ................................................................................................... 86
Conceptual Integration .................................................................................... 122
Conclusion to Part B ........................................................................................ 128
## CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to the Chapter</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Aims</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Paradigm</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Perspective</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Mixed Methods Methodology</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rationale for Mixed Methods Research</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Project Design</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Method</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Considerations</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological Gains</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to the Chapter</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to the Chapter</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PART A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Part A</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to Part A</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PART B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Part B</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results and Discussion</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to Part B</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplementary Material</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART C</strong></td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction Part C</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to Part C</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART D</strong></td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Part D</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results and Discussion</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications for Practice</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations and Future Research</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to Part D</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART E</strong></td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Part E</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rationale for the Current Study</td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Integration</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical Implications</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations and Future Research</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to Part E</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplementary Material</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to the Chapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Contemporary Career: The Hybrid Career Orientation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Hybrid Career Orientation: A Reciprocative Relationship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Career Framework</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to the Chapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to the Chapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical and Methodological Findings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications for Practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion to the Chapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REFERENCES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX E</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1.1</td>
<td>Thesis structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.1</td>
<td>Flow chart of the systematic review process (adapted from Moher et al. 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.2</td>
<td>The field of higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.3</td>
<td>Conceptual framework integrating the concepts of field, habitus, psychological contract and psycho-social career needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.1</td>
<td>Concurrent complementarity design (adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.1</td>
<td>The hybrid career attitude of professional staff (bold text shows attitudes shown by professional staff)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.2</td>
<td>Concurrent complementarity design (adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.1</td>
<td>Needs of higher education professional staff leading to a hybrid career orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.2</td>
<td>The interaction between sector labour market, career attitude and psychological contract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.3</td>
<td>Integrated career framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.4</td>
<td>A conceptual schematic of university professional staff capitals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1  Numbers of non-academic staff in selected OECD countries
Table 2.1  Preliminary analysis of retained articles
Table 2.2  From themes to practice
Table 2.3  Changes to the higher education labour market
Table 2.4  Comparison of TWA core values and career anchors
Table 2.5  A comparison of the attributes incorporated in the Protean and Boundaryless career theories
Table 2.6  Protean and Boundaryless career profiles (adapted from Briscoe and Hall 2006)
Table 2.7  Summary of main concepts from seven career theories, their outcome measures, and classification scheme
Table 4.1  The demographic characteristics of the participants (n=31)
Table 4.2  The employment characteristics of participants (n=31)
Table 4.3  Descriptive statistics for the composite variables self-directed, values-driven, psychologically mobile and geographic mobile career attitudes (n=31)
Table 4.4  Perceived requirements from the employing university
Table 4.5  Means, standard deviations, and correlations of demographic and Protean and Boundaryless variables
Table 4.6  Demographics and employment data of study participants
Table 4.7  Means and standard deviations for psychological contract expectations and received benefits showing breach (n=226)
Table 4.8  Means, standard deviations and correlations for all measured variables
Table 4.9  Results of hierarchical regression analyses of PCB: Contemporary, PCB: Traditional, satisfaction and intent to leave

Table 4.10  Demographics of professional staff in Australia and the UK ($n=90$[Aus], $n=136$[UK])

Table 4.11  Themes and sub-themes developed from inductive analysis supported by example participant quotes

Table 4.12  Four new career orientations of university professional staff

Table 4.13  Career adaptability profile for professional staffs’ career profiles

Table 4.14  Number of non-academic staff in selected OECD countries

Table 4.15  Demographics and employment data of study participants

Table 4.16  Descriptive statistics for Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects

Table 4.17  Joint data display of quantitative and qualitative findings for the careers of professional staff

Table 5.1  Integration, interpretation and contribution of mixed methods research design
LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

The following outputs are the dissemination products from this research, including the papers which make up this thesis.

Papers included in this thesis

Journal Articles


Conference Papers


Review and Resubmit


Under Consideration


Other outputs

Journal articles


Book Chapter

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACPA</td>
<td>College Student Educators International</td>
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<td>AD</td>
<td>Athletic Directors</td>
</tr>
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<td>AHRI</td>
<td>Australian Human Resources Institute</td>
</tr>
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<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
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<td>ATEM</td>
<td>Association of Tertiary Education Management</td>
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<td>AUA</td>
<td>Association of University Administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIC</td>
<td>Bayesian Information Criterion</td>
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<td>CASP</td>
<td>Critical Appraisal Skills Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCT</td>
<td>Career Construction Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>Confirmatory Factor Analysis</td>
</tr>
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<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSMB</td>
<td>Career Self-Management Behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELM</td>
<td>External Labour Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HESA</td>
<td>Higher Education Statistics Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR</td>
<td>Human Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPWS</td>
<td>High Performance Work Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILM</td>
<td>Internal Labour Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPBCC</td>
<td>Integrated Protean/Boundaryless Career Concept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LFHE</td>
<td>Leadership Foundation for Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>Master of Business Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLE</td>
<td>Maximum Likelihood Estimation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMR</td>
<td>Mixed Methods Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NASPA</td>
<td>Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCAA</td>
<td>National Collegiate Athletic Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIRSA</td>
<td>National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCS</td>
<td>Objective Career Success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCA</td>
<td>Protean Career Architect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCB</td>
<td>Psychological Contract Breach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRISMA</td>
<td>Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUAN</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUAL</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>Solid Citizen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCS</td>
<td>Subjective Career Success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWA</td>
<td>Theory of Work Adjustment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCEA</td>
<td>Universities and Colleges Employers Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCU</td>
<td>University and College Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLB</td>
<td>Work-Life Balance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Chapter
This dissertation aims to understand the careers of professional staff working in universities. Higher education (HE) is going through significant changes in many Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, including in Australia and the UK where this study is set. These changes span areas such as reductions in funding, changes to employment structures, and increased government oversight. These changes impact on how universities are run and how universities, and individuals, think about and manage careers. This research explores individual career needs and values of professional staff and how these are impacted by the sector and individual psychological mechanisms.

In this first chapter, the study background and rationale for conducting the research is outlined, followed by a brief overview of the methodology, the significance of the study, and finally the thesis structure is presented.

Background to the Study
Writing in 1986, Bosworth (cited in Palfreyman and Warner 1996, 9) said that:

Universities have become very complex institutions requiring of their administrative staff professional commitment, the exercise of sophisticated skills and the shouldering of responsibilities at levels scarcely imagined by their predecessors …
This statement seems to be even more true of HE today. The complexities mentioned in the quote above, which are arguably even more appropriate today, include an operating environment that includes government requirements to show value for money and fiscal restraint, point in time student enrolment figures, quality assurance activities, evaluation of research quality for government-funded research income, gender equity reporting, and newly introduced to the UK, evaluation of teaching quality, not to mention professional standard requirements related to financial reporting and accounting standards.

Universities today are also, due to the massification of HE in most OECD countries, high-value businesses in their own right, and in western economies contribute significantly to a country’s economy. For example, Australian HE contributes around AUS$25 billion to the economy (in 2013; 1.5 per cent of GDP; Deloitte Access Economics 2015). Canadian HE contributes CAN$55 billion to the economy (in 2012; Grant 2014). New Zealand has a domestic revenue of NZ$3.2 billion (2014; 1 per cent of GDP; Hensen and Pambudi 2016). The UK HE sector generates approximately £73 billion (2011/12; 2.8 per cent of GDP; Kelly, McNicoll, and White 2012). Universities are also major employers, for example in Australia the university sector employs 120,000 full-time equivalent (FTE) staff (Deloitte Access Economics 2015). In New Zealand HE employs 20,000 FTE staff (2015; Hensen and Pambudi 2016), and in the UK the sector employs 419,710 FTE staff (2016/17; Universities UK 2018).

The size of the business and the regulatory requirements, introduced over time and often without any coherent policy environment, has led to a rise in the number of
staff needed to manage a university. However, there has been little conscious
decision-making to invest in these areas (Gander, Moyes, and Sabzalieva 2014, 23).
Table 1.1 highlights how large this ‘non-academic’ staff complement now is in five
similar HE jurisdictions.

For simplicity, staff within universities can be thought of in two distinct categories:
academics (or faculty), and ‘the rest’. Among ‘the rest’, there are occupations that
are familiar to most organisations such as those in finance, human resources and
marketing, but there also those occupations special to universities, such as those in
student support, research management and quality assurance. There are also
distinctions normally made within institutions between those working in professional
services (administration/management), and those working in support-type roles such
as manual or clerical staff, although this is not true for all jurisdictions. Indeed,
understanding the ‘non-academic’ cohort of staff is particularly difficult as there is
no recognised nomenclature, and government bodies do no gather statistics in the
same way as for academic staff (in most countries) which is an issue that is
highlighted in this dissertation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total employed staff (FTE)</th>
<th>Total employed non-academic staff (FTE)</th>
<th>Percentage of non-academic staff (per cent)</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Data source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>109,021</td>
<td>62,516</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
<td><a href="http://www.education.gov.au">www.education.gov.au</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>691,000</td>
<td>304,000</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
<td><a href="http://www.research-in-germany.org">www.research-in-germany.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>31,035</td>
<td>16,540</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
<td><a href="http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz">www.educationcounts.govt.nz</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>2016/17</td>
<td>419,705</td>
<td>212,835</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
<td><a href="http://www.hesa.ac.uk">www.hesa.ac.uk</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from Table 1.1, staff in non-academic categories make-up somewhere between 51 and 56 per cent of total HE staffing. As discussed, they work in varied areas and this variety of work leads to difficulty in naming this cohort of staff. Although professional services staff is becoming a recognised label in some countries, there are still a plethora of other terms used such as administrator, academic-related, professional manager, allied and general staff (Wohlmuther 2008). Throughout this thesis, the term professional staff is used as a short-hand for the type of staff mentioned above. They would be normally be graduates, employed on the HE worker level 7 and above in Australia, and on spinal point 30 and above in the UK.

The difficulty in identifying and naming this cohort has been discussed previously in the literature (Whitchurch 2007). Szekeres (2006) and Lewis (2014) raised the paradox of the invisible, hidden, unnoticed and undervalued professional services staff which was at odds with their increasing positions of authority, importance and centrality to the operation of their organisation. Bossu, Brown, and Warren (2018) noted that professional staff have ‘identity insecurity’ as professional staff continue to debate and validate their roles. Other research once again shows that professional staff consider their role as ‘back-office’ (Ryttberg and Geschwind 2017). However, this research also reports that professional staff see themselves not as administrators or as academics but as professionals in their own right. This move towards professionalisation may be part of the wider on-going re-definition of the professional to include organisational or managerial professionals with claims based on codes of knowledge and practices, aligned to organisational strategies (Greenwood et al. 2013). A study on preferred nomenclature of professional staff
shows that in an Australian context, these staff prefer the term professional staff, which correlated with their growing aspirational and professional needs in terms of performance expectations and accountabilities (Sebalj, Holbrook, and Bourke 2012).

This complexity goes some way to explaining why little attention seems to have been paid to the lived realities of these individuals, including why there has been, and continues to be, little workforce development. Scott notes back in 1995 (64) that ‘an upgrading of managerial capacity … was one of the most significant but underrated phenomenon of the last two decades.’ Eveline (2004, 147) argues that the work of professional staff is given little credit as a ‘skilled performance of duties’ and therefore they gained little reward or attention and were given little chance for development; their work is ‘unseen and unsung’ (Eveline 2004, 138). From a UK perspective, Shatock (2003, 179) contends that as management is a major component of university success, and professional staff are critical to this process, then the training of this category of staff is, therefore, critically important.

Lauwerys (2002), talking from a UK perspective, notes that in the 1970s and 1980s training and development became readily available for professional staff although it was not particularly welcomed by the staff or by their institutions. He argues that this lack of a serious commitment to professional development continues to this day and goes on to suggest that this has weakened the professional standing of this staff category. Graham (2009, 175) argues that ‘with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and performance of staff directly impacting upon the quality and effectiveness of university work … the people management issues … have not been taken as seriously as those for academic staff – despite general staff comprising over 50 per
cent of staff in Australian universities.’ Eveline (2004) also argues that in Australian universities the skills and development needs of professional staff are relatively unrecognised. Gordon and Whitchurch (2007) note that it has become apparent that workforce development is an enabling factor for universities to deliver their multiple agendas globally and Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge (2009, 5) said of professional staff:

The role of professional administrative and support staff is becoming more pivotal as the sector becomes more competitive, more business and market focused, and more international…the old divide between academic and ‘non-academic’ is starting to change.

So, there has been a recognition of the need for workforce development for this growing staff cohort but it is also recognised that there has been little professional development through lack of engagement from both organisations and individuals. HE is falling behind other knowledge-economy high-value organisations through the scant inroads being made in talent management for professional staff (Barkhuizen, Mogwere, and Schutte 2014). Effective talent management has been shown to increase staff well-being, job satisfaction, and decrease turnover intent (Barkhuizen, Mogwere, and Schutte 2014). A study in the UK reports that professional staff felt they were solely responsible for their own career development and progress (Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009) but that there were little advancement opportunities, especially at the very senior level, and apart from when re-organisations took place. Five years after that report, the issue of promotion was one that still concerns many staff in UK HE (Duncan 2014).
In light of the findings noted above, there has been debate around the lack of senior promotion opportunities for professional staff with Bassnett (2005), Lauwerys (2002) and Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge (2009) all noting that across the sector the majority of the very senior posts were being filled by staff from other sectors. These authors cautioned against this trend and suggested that universities must avoid this by ensuring that their own staff are developed so they can successfully contend for promotions. A report by the Leadership Foundation for Higher Education in the UK notes that:

It is time to think afresh about the professional career in universities, to ensure that professional … [staff] can develop a breadth of experience that maximises their contribution to their HEI and places them in the best position to take advantage of development and promotion opportunities to the very top of the organisation. (Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009, 5)

There is some indication in the practitioner literature then that professional staff are particularly concerned about the dearth of opportunities for promotion, lack of workforce development, and talent management. However, this literature does not view these findings through theoretical lenses, which would provide a framework for a greater understanding of the importance of various aspects of careers. There is also no indication of the type of interaction between the organisation and the individual. How this interaction is viewed by both sides may be important as there is conflicting data on the significance of career development and factors such as job satisfaction. Some research suggests that career development directly influences job satisfaction
(for example, Jehanzeb and Mohanty 2018) while other research suggests that this is an indirect relationship at best (for example, Kaya and Ceylan 2014).

The central concept in this dissertation is the bringing together of two distinct disciplines: career theory and the sociological theory of Pierre Bourdieu. Career theory is used to understand the individual and organisational decisions taken, and Bourdieu’s theories of field and habitus are used as a scaffold to understand the wider context in which career theories operate. There seems then to be considerable scope to provide a much deeper and richer understanding of the careers of professional staff using sociological and career management theories as lenses through which to view the interplay between organisational structure and individual agency. The review of this practitioner literature led to some key questions and areas for further research, which led to a review of the literature. In Chapter 2 Part A, a Systematic Literature Review was carried out to examine the extant research on the careers of professional staff in higher education, and to integrate those findings for a future research agenda on careers and career theory within this context. Part B goes on to review the career theory literature, incorporating an overview of Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice, and concludes with a conceptual framework to inform the research studies reported on in Chapter 3.

**This Study**

This study is based on the cohort of professional staff working in universities in Australia and the UK. The literature reviewed as part of this dissertation led to the development of the following aims of the research, to:
1. Determine the factors influencing the careers of higher education professional staff.

2. Evaluate the application of a new multi-theoretical framework for understanding the careers of higher education professional staff.

3. Determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the careers of higher education professional staff.

The specific research questions were:

1. What is the experience of the ‘contemporary career’ of higher education professional staff?

2. Can understanding career profiles explain the experiences of higher education professional staff?

3. What are the drivers and constraints influencing contemporary career management for higher education professional staff?

4. What is the influence of the psychological contract on career management perceptions of higher education professional staff?

These are important questions as providing insight into these areas could lead to increasingly effective career guidance and vocational development to improve individual and organisational performance. For example, being able to categorise professional staff into various career profiles could allow for more targeted professional development interventions beyond the generic offerings more normally offered in a university environment.
Methodology

The majority of studies relating to organisational behaviour and career management are quantitative in nature, rely on survey instruments, and discuss their findings without corroboration from alternative sources. This can be problematic as survey instruments have well-known problems related to self-reporting bias as well as low response rates. Past research shows that self-report of attitudes and behaviours may not provide valid data as when individuals know they are being assessed, they may answer dishonestly especially when responding to personalised questions, regardless of promises of confidentiality (Jehn and Jonsen 2010). Alternatively, qualitative research is focused on how the individuals in the organisation perceive the researched construct, not how the researcher perceives it, with the main criticism of qualitative research being that it is not rigourous or structured and it is subject to researcher bias and subjective interpretation (Jehn and Jonsen 2010).

Mixed methods research uses multiple methods to offset the weaknesses of each quantitative or qualitative method alone (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011) but is not appropriate for all research questions; the research problem needs to be one where one data source is insufficient to gain a complete perspective (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). This was considered to be applicable to this study, which focuses on exploring the experiences that professional staff have in managing their careers, considering that careers are personally and socially constructed narratives of individuals’ lived experiences (Savickas 2013). Additionally, a mixed-method research design only becomes mixed, if mixing and integration of the data sets occurs at one or more points in the study (Bazeley 2016). It is this data integration which provides further insights into the phenomenon under investigation.
A mixed methods approach was also considered useful to provide a different perspective to the current published careers research, which is overwhelmingly quantitative (Molina-Azorín and Cameron 2015), leading to ever more complex predictions of relationships between different variables in the hope of explaining, using quantitative methods and models, the complex nature of career construction. Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (2016) suggested that a complementarity design be used to measure ‘overlapping but also different facets of a phenomenon’ (258). This was considered a suitable approach for this research design alongside a convergent design (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 70), where data is collected simultaneously from the same sample. This led to a convergent complementarity research design. The quantitative data provided the a priori themes for the qualitative data analysis (QUAN + qual; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2006), although each data set was analysed within its own methodological requirements. Mixing occurred at the survey stage, the analysis stage and at the interpretation stage (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011).

The study utilised a convenience sampling technique, collecting data from professional staff via two professional associations, one in Australia and one in the UK. The data was collected by an online mixed-method instrument via a web survey tool. The survey collected demographic and employment data, quantitative data on contemporary career attitudes, the psychological contract, satisfaction and positive and negative affect. The final question was an open-ended free text box for the participants’ career stories. Guidance for the completion of this stated ‘Please provide your career story in 500 words or less…you may for example include things such as your aspirations, job moves, motivation, expectations of yourself and your
organisation.’ There were 226 responses to the quantitative data questions, with 143 of these providing their narrative career stories.

The quantitative data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 program (Business Machines International 2013). Data was screened and checked for normality, and then descriptive statistics, an analysis of variance and regression analyses were undertaken. Data analysis of the qualitative data was via both deductive and inductive thematic analysis. Once the data was coded, codes were sorted into themes; themes were then reviewed to ensure that they accurately reflected the data set (Braun and Clarke 2006). A latent level of analysis was undertaken, which examines the underlying ideas that have shaped the semantic content of the data above (Braun and Clarke 2016). The integration of the results is a key step in mixed methods research and this study used both convergent and holistic triangulation to look for convergence and divergence of the data sets to produce a greater understanding of the phenomenon under study and to potentially extend the theoretical frameworks being used.

**Significance of the Study**

This study will contribute to the careers literature in two ways. One, by showing the usefulness of a mixed methods research design, a methodology yet to be fully embraced by career theory scholars, and two, by extending the understanding of career needs, values and decision-making for professional staff working in universities. It is hoped that these contributions will lead to a more nuanced approach to the study of individual careers beyond the cohort under consideration in this study, and that by developing and evaluating a new multi-theoretical framework
to use as a tool for analysis of specific results, context will once again be integrated into the discussion of individual career decision-making.

The outcomes to be considered include: identifying the career factors that professional staff feel to be important to them, evaluating if certain career profiles can be useful in helping organisations and individuals in managing their careers, identifying motivational factors and constraints which influence decisions when actively managing ones career, and understanding the influence of the psychological contract on individual career decision-making.

**Thesis Structure**

This thesis is a hybrid, it sits somewhere between a traditional thesis and a thesis by publication. Chapter 2 is presented in two parts. Part A presents a Systematic Literature Review which examines the extant research on the careers of professional staff working in universities using a rigorous methodology. This systematic review was undertaken to inform the research agenda on this particular staff group working within higher education. Part B presents an overview of the career literature starting with an outline of the theoretical framework to highlight the importance of taking a contextual view of organisational careers; it uses as an example the higher education labour market. This is followed by a summary and critique of seven key career theories outlining how various career theories have been influenced by the contemporary organisational climate of the day. This process allowed for the development of the conceptual framework which will be applied to the results to build a better conceptual model of contemporary careers.
Chapter 3 provides details on how the research design was selected, considering the worldview including the ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods for this study. An overview of the analytical framework used in this study is provided. A discussion of quality in mixed methods research is included, as is the concept of the researcher as an insider-outsider. Consideration of ethics is outlined and this section concludes with the details of the data checking and analysis procedures for both methods.

Chapter 4 presents the results of this study. This chapter is split into five parts, each part being a paper outlining the results of different parts of the study. Part A is the results of the pilot study validating the survey instrument and research design, Part B presents career profiles of professional staff, Part C discusses the needs, values and attitudes of professional staff, Part D investigates the psychological contract of professional staff, and Part E is the result of a qualitative analysis of career stories resulting in a number of new career profiles.
Figure 1.1: Thesis structure
Chapter 5 presents the discussion where the results are integrated to develop a new integrated career framework. Chapter 6 concludes with theoretical, methodological and practical implications of the research, and provides direction for future research in this area. Figure 1.1 shows how the thesis is presented.

**Conclusion to the Chapter**

This chapter has outlined the reasons for exploring the careers of university professional staff by providing an overview of who professional staff are, their importance to the university, and explored why their careers have not been researched in any depth. The chapter goes on to summarise the significance of the study including how, by utilising a unified social sciences theory and combining this with several career theories, an integrated career framework can be developed to guide vocational behaviour. It also highlights how a Hybrid career orientation was developed, how career profiles can be effectively used to aide human resource management activities, and how using a mixed methods methodology, methodological gains can be made. It concludes by outlining the methodology and the thesis structure.

There have been calls within the career literature to ensure that context such as organisational sector, geography, and culture is considered. Taking the higher education sector and the professional staff context, specific data can be reviewed and critiqued to provide a clearer picture of the current gaps in theoretical development within the career field. In the next chapter, the Systematic Literature Review and a narrative literature review is undertaken to provide insight into the specific context in which careers of professional staff in higher education takes place, and key career
theories that have influenced how discussion related to career needs, behaviours and
decision-making takes place.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Part A


Part B

Career Theory Literature Review
Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter reviews the relevant literature related to the careers of professional staff in higher education. The literature is reviewed in two forms. Part A presents a systematic literature review (SLR), which examines the extant research on the careers of professional staff working in universities. This review combined a strict methodological approach with a quality assessment of the quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods empirical work included in the review. Part B presents seven key career theories as they have developed over time, with a discussion of how theory has moved from a social fit to an individual responsibility perspective. Within this review, Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice is presented to provide a scaffold on which to frame the career theories so that the wider socio-cultural context is explicitly recognised as a key aspect in organisational form. This chapter concludes that by integrating the concepts of Bourdieu’s field, habitus and power, this would more fully contextualise individuals’ career-related needs and behaviours and their impact on individual career decision-making.

PART A

Gander, Michelle, Antonia Girardi, and Megan Paull. “University Professional Staff Careers: Literature Reveals Hybrid Mindset.” Manuscript in Review and Resubmit

Introduction to Part A

The aim of this systematic literature review was to examine the academic literature on the careers of professional staff working in higher education. As outlined in Chapter 1, although there is considerable practitioner literature in this area, there has been a lack of rigourous scholarly study of this cohort of staff working in
universities. This SLR utilises a strict methodological approach to reviewing the literature concentrating on empirical rather than theoretical contributions based on the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews (Pickering and Byrne 2014). The benefit of this review type is that it searches a broad base of literature using strict, replicable protocols. This SLR uses the Critical Appraisal Skills Program (CASP 2017) qualitative tool to assess the quality (validity and rigour) of the included papers, which was adapted for the quantitative and mixed method studies.

As a consequence of the examiner’s comments and two journal reviewers’ comments on the small number of papers that were included, the authors undertook a review of three more journals, one related to careers research and two related to HE management research. The authors also went through the discarded papers to re-evaluate against the inclusion and exclusion criteria. As a result of these additional efforts four more papers were included in the published version.

The findings of the SLR could be categorized into three key themes. First, it shows that there were organisational level structures and individual level activities that resulted in a categorisation of career enablers or carrier barriers. Career enablers exist at both organisational and individual level and at the organisational level, two main issues were highlighted. First was that of institutional culture and human resource policies, and their implementation, which were seen to be key enablers for career success especially for under-represented staff such as women and Africa-Americans. Many of the studies were designed to explicitly research issues relating to women’s and African Americans’ career success factors and issues relating to a perceived lack of transparency in HR policy implementation. Perceived feelings of
discrimination were found to be common, negatively impacting on career success. Second, was that factors related to traditional organisational careers such as job security, and promotion opportunities are still the main issues that professional staff in universities consider critical to their career satisfaction. The practitioner literature has highlighted this for some time (LFHE 2010; Strachan et al. 2012) and these empirical studies strongly support that evidence, with the majority noting that advancement opportunities were both important to the individuals in question, and lacking in provision from their organisation. Third, the SLR argues that professional staff show hybrid careers (see for example Clarke 2013). That is, they blend requirements more commonly found in traditional forms of organisational careers such as the need for job security and internal promotion opportunities with requirements found in contemporary careers such as interesting and challenging work, and work-life balance.

This review offers four main findings to extend future research in this area. First, that there needs to be clarity around the participants used in these studies. Due to the contested terminology related to professional staff, the need for participant description is required, for example, what does the term ‘administrator’ mean? In the US this term often means an academic administrator. Or does it mean an administrator who could be classed as a professional staff member? The paper calls for future research in this area to take particular care over this, so that research can be evaluated appropriately. Second, that there needs to be broader methodological diversity as the majority of papers utilised a quantitative design to predict variables. This has its place, and has been used extensively in careers research, however, when investigating careers, which are now recognised as socially constructed and
negotiable, then perhaps other perspectives would move beyond predictor variables towards offering a more holistic view of how individuals construct their careers and what they perceive is important to them in terms of values and needs. Further qualitative work, beyond evaluations of interventions, for example leadership development programs, or using a mixed methods approach would offer methodological diversity and overcome problems of over-simplification. Third, that there needs to be recognition of the reciprocal interplay between organisational-level career development support and individual-level career self-management behaviours. As Akkermans and Kubasch (2017) said, context needs to play an important aspect within discussion of organisational careers. Fourthly, and perhaps most importantly, this review identified that within the HE context, staff have a hybrid career attitude simultaneously desiring job security and organisational career support and advancement as well as opportunities for development and flexibility. These findings led two research aims for this dissertation's research:

1. Determine the factors influencing the careers of higher education professional staff
2. Determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the careers of higher education professional staff

Attribution

MG conducted the systematic literature review, analysed the articles, developed the themes, and drafted the paper. AG and MP developed the reciprocal career explanation and revised the draft. All authors critically reviewed and approved the final version.
Abstract

This paper aims to understand the careers of professional staff working in universities: how they envisage their careers in terms of individual versus organisational responsibility, the place of their own internal values, the psychological and locational mobility they may enact, their psychological contract with their university, and their subjective experience of their own career.

Better understanding contemporary career patterns within particular contexts is needed if we are to recognise the impact of commonly researched career topics. The purpose of this review is to examine research on the careers of professional staff in higher education and develop a foundation for future studies. A systematic literature search using a modified PRISMA approach resulted in a review of 19 articles dedicated to examining careers of professional staff in higher education. Deductive analysis was followed by an inductive process identifying emergent themes and sub-themes. Career enablers and barriers exist at both the institutional and individual levels. These have characteristics aligned with High Performance Work Systems.
(HPWS) and Career Self-Management Behaviours (CSMB). Within the higher education context, professional staff have a hybrid career mindset, desiring stability and job security, as well as flexibility, development opportunities and organisational support. There is a need for future research to investigate the hybrid career mindset, and the reciprocative relationship between HPWS and CSMB, both to add depth to understanding of careers for professional staff in universities, and to examine this in other settings. Universities may need to consider ways to integrate institutional supports for HPWS with opportunities for professional staff, while individuals may need to consider adopting CSMB to fit their hybrid mindset. This review has highlighted organisations and individuals will benefit if the relationship between HPWS and CSMB is better understood for the hybrid career mindset.

Keywords
Hybrid careers, HPWS, CSMB, higher education, professional staff, systematic review

Introduction
Universities have traditionally been public enterprises whose major role in societies is to disseminate knowledge to develop, educate and to create new knowledge for the benefit of individuals and society. Universities, however, have not been immune to social, political, technological or economic forces of late or second modernity (Sznaider 2005). It has been suggested that these global forces have resulted in a move from a paternalistic society towards an individualised society where risk is now distributed to individuals and where individuals are required to embrace risk as part of individual responsibilisation and individualisation. Rawolle, Rowlands, and
Blackmore (2017) argue that responsibilisation is now connected to contractualism in HE as a governance mechanism for mediating risk through three forms of contract: paternal, market and relational. The market form has been a driving force for recent changes in higher education in Western countries. The introduction of new-public management from the 1980s led to a fall in the unit of resource per student and at the same time introduced changes in management as a result of a loss of confidence in professional and local accountability.

This has led to continued changes to funding models, increased marketisation, and a massified system, which has had a significant impact on staff working within higher education, including a reduction of the power of campus unions, poorer terms and conditions and the opening of the labour market (Roper, Ganesh, and Inkson 2010). This is the context that all staff in universities operate their careers in.

This review looks at ‘professional staff” working in universities, a contested definition for a cohort of staff discussed below. These staff make up approximately 50 per cent of staff in universities that are not academics but work to support the academic endeavour of the institution. Indeed, the changes discussed above have had the unintended consequence of increasing the number of professional staff to manage the institution in the more regulated sector. There is an argument that universities have been slow in realizing that the increasing business focused agenda has ‘brought in highly professional and expert … staff” (Eveline 2004, 34) and if HE is viewed as a service sector, and certainly the debate around students as customers reflects this changing, although contested, attitude, then the premise can be taken that people are key to the quality of the users’ experience. As Graham (2009, 175) noted ‘the key
resource for universities is their …staff with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and performance directly impacting upon the quality and effectiveness of university work.’ Human resource management, specifically recruitment and workforce development, has become a critical issue for competitiveness in the globalised market for academic and professional staff (Gordon and Whitchurch 2007).

Although not the focus of this review, the definition of professional staff needs unpacking, as one issue with reviewing studies for this paper is generally the lack of detail around the category of staff being investigated. Historically, these staff have been identified as ‘non-academic’ or as the ‘academic civil service’ but they are also known as administrators, academic-related, and general staff. Generally, they will be graduates and will often hold master or doctoral degrees; there are an increasing number of these staff undertaking specific Master of Business Administration courses (or other specific master level courses) to improve professional practice, knowledge and confidence (Gander 2015). This lack of clear nomenclature for a large section of a university’s staff is perhaps a symptom of the often invisible, hidden, unnoticed and undervalued professional staff which is at odds with their increasing positions of authority, importance and centrality to the operation of their organisation (Johnsrud, Heck, and Rosser 2000; Lewis 2014; Szekeres 2006). Professional staff in a number of Western countries have been reported to be given little credit and appreciation for their understanding and negotiation of the complexities of both academic work and the management within an increasingly regulated and financially-driven environment (Eveline 2004; Johnsrud, Heck, and Rosser 2000; Whitchurch 2004).
This paper employs the term professional staff for roles in governance, registry, student services, library, human resources, finance, teaching and learning, and research, which are becoming increasingly ‘professionalised’. There has been an ongoing re-definition of professions to include an organisational or managerial professional with claims based on codes of knowledge and practices, aligned to organisational strategies, that includes ‘social behaviour that is underpinned by normative systems and cognitive understandings that give meaning to social exchange and thus enable self-reproducing social order’ (Greenwood et al. 2013, 4–5). In HE, Barnett (2008) noted that ‘professionalism is witnessing a lurch from an ethic of service to an ethic of performance’ (2008, 197). Lewis (2014) noted that there is still uncertainty over a professional staff members’ professional position due to the privileged position of academic staff as the key professionals. In some general definitions, a ‘job’ becomes a profession when it is a full-time occupation, has a set of ethics, has specific training, has a school/university, and has an association. The professional staff role meets most of these points and there are several national bodies for professional staff to engage with that provide a code of ethical conduct, and significant training and development, such as the Association of Tertiary Education Management in Australia, the Association of University Administrators in the UK, the Canadian Association of University Business Offices, and multiple others.

A study on preferred nomenclature showed that staff in an Australian context preferred the term professional staff which correlated with their growing aspirational and professional needs in terms of performance expectations and accountabilities (Sebalj, Holbrook, and Bourke 2012). This aligns with the findings of Whitchurch
who argued that professional services have developed from a traditional ‘subservient to the academic endeavour’ (296) model to one that is somewhat independent of this, with increasingly specialist expertise. Considering the rate of change in the HE sector in the last 40 years, there has been little attention paid to the changing careers of professional staff within the academy, an oversight considering:

“The role of professional administrative and support staff is becoming more pivotal as the sector becomes more competitive, more business and market focused, and more international ... the old divide between academic and ‘non-academic’ is starting to change. (Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009, 5)

Ultimately, this paper is about careers. We use university professional staff as a focus of the review, as an under-researched cohort of staff. This paper aims to take a careers focus based on career theory and human resource literature and apply it to the context of higher education professional staff.

**Careers**

In a time when there is increasing diversity in approaches to careers, and evidence of ‘new career orientations’ (Kostal and Wiernick 2017, 520), which focus on individual agency, questions remain about the interface between individual aspirations and organisational offerings (Akkermans and Kubasch 2017). As introduced above, the careers of professional staff take place within a regulated sector with multiple and often competing drivers, and dependent on the university that an individual is employed within, these factors will play out in different ways. Individual agency by definition must be constrained by the organisational context. New patterns of careers
post-corporate, nomadic, kaleidoscopic or portfolio – have been the subject of recent reviews (e.g. Baruch, Szűcs, and Gunz 2015), but the work of Baruch (2006), Baruch and Vardi (2016) and Clarke (2013) suggests that there is still room for the traditional career. While individuals may be becoming more Protean, and career systems Boundaryless, it appears that individuals still look for security and stability, and some organisations still seek to manage careers systematically. Better understanding of contemporary career patterns within particular contexts is needed, if we are to understand the impact of commonly researched career topics, including career success, career decision making, employability, and career attitudes (Akkermans and Kubasch 2017).

‘[C]areers – and the scientific study of careers – have significantly changed over the past few decades’ (Akkermans and Kubasch 2017, 586). Technological innovations, organisational restructures, financial crises, and myriad other changes, have all had a significant impact on the context in which careers are enacted. Higher Education (HE) is one sector which has experienced considerable change. The move to mass systems has forced an increased focus on regulation with related changes in staffing, financial turnover and market competition (Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009). Universities offer a unique context with broader generalisability when it comes to understanding careers (Baruch 2014).

The management of careers is a strategic issue. Universities need to acquire and develop human talent to be able to deliver on both research and teaching priorities. While academics play a primary role in achieving these priorities, the high
dependency of institutions on the staff in other roles who support teaching, research and business operations, should not be under-emphasised (Graham 2014).

Practitioner research suggests that changes to the external environment have had an impact on the careers of university professional staff with defined career pathways decreasing and areas of specialism and ‘blended’ professionalism increasing (Whitchurch 2008; 2009). A report by the Leadership Foundation for Higher Education in the UK (LFHE 2010, 6) on a study of 12,000 higher education staff, found that business management staff were attracted to the sector by the ‘opportunity to use skills/experience’, ‘a friendly work environment’, ‘career security’ and ‘salary’; senior staff also placed emphasis on sector values. Once recruited, they were committed to staying within their organisation and agreed to a ‘high’ extent that higher education offered a worthwhile career. However, they reported that their current salary could induce them to leave as could an opportunity to develop their career. In Australia a report published in 2012 (Strachan et al. 2012) which surveyed 32,983 general staff in 19 universities showed that 75 per cent of respondents ‘strongly or somewhat agreed’ that they were satisfied with their job although 42 per cent said there was a 5–50 per cent chance that they would leave their job voluntarily in the next 12 months; 63 per cent were satisfied with career opportunities at either their own university or in the sector and 54 per cent said that within the next five years they would like to be in a higher-level role.

It could be argued then that the careers of professional staff within universities have been overlooked and Graham (2009, 175) noted that ‘with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and performance of staff directly impacting upon the quality and
effectiveness of university work … the people management issues [of professional staff]… have not been taken as seriously as those for academic staff … in Australian universities’. This is a significant oversight as research suggests that staff who were engaged, satisfied with their job, and embedded in their organisation are more committed to their organisation and potentially more productive with the positive effect of reduced staff turnover (Arnolds and Boshoff 2004; Barkhuizen and Rothmann 2006; Jiang et al. 2012; Meyer et al. 2002; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004; Swider, Boswell, and Zimmerman 2011; Takawira, Coetzee, and Schreuder 2014).

There has been some debate in the literature around the lack of defined career pathways or senior promotion opportunities for professional staff. The main route of advancement is internal promotion but there continues to be limited career opportunities (apart from when a re-structure takes place), and a trend towards appointing senior roles to those from outside the sector (Bassnett 2005; Duncan 2014; Johnsrud, Heck, and Rosser 2000; Lauwerys 2002; Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009). There has been a move away from the traditional generalist administrator model that could have a defined career pathway from Administrative Assistant to Assistant Registrar and up to Head of Administration towards a model of specialist functions from Accountant to Head of Finance (Whitchurch 2009a). However, whether it is truly a lack of defined career pathways that is the issue is an interesting consideration, since there is evidence that the majority of professional staff end up as ‘accidental administrators’ (Lewis 2014). It may be that other factors play a more crucial role for professional staff in managing their careers once they have entered HE.
Another layer of complexity here is a fundamental change in the nature of professional services roles in some areas, from specifically academic or specifically professional staff roles, to those that are ‘blended’ or ‘para-academic’ (Whitchurch 2009b; Macfarlane 2011). These blended roles merge expertise from traditionally academic remits such as learning design or widening participation, with those that have been strictly professional staff roles to create a ‘third space professional’. This changing profile of work between academics and administrators reflects other, perhaps more insidious challenges within the sector, namely the academic–administrative divide; much has been written on this subject, especially in the HE media. There is some evidence that staff, at a particular time, and in particular circumstances, may feel the presence of a divide, especially with greater distances between the protagonists. However, with the changing nature of professional roles as discussed above, the increase in the casualisation of the academic workforce, the ongoing move towards the corporate university, and the increase in blended roles, it could be argued that this divide is decreasing (Kuo 2009; Seyd 2000; Wohlmuther 2008).

This lack of defined career pathways and/or promotion opportunities have been reported as two of the most significant factors influencing the satisfaction, morale, and retention of professional staff within higher education in the US, the UK and Australia (LFHE 2010; Marshall et al. 2016; Rosser and Javinar 2003; Strachan et al. 2012; Cilente et al. 2010; Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014; Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009; Coomber 2018). Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge (2009) also suggested that a focus on external recruitment of senior level staff has contributed to the erosion of career development and promotion opportunities within universities.
This is not helped by the reality that many professional staff are ‘accidental administrators’ and a lack of knowledge about the realities of having a long-term and successful career in higher education (Lewis 2014). The evidence from the careers literature suggests that career pathways and opportunities for sustaining employability are key factors in the maintenance of satisfaction, morale and consequent retention of high performing employees (Delery and Roumpi 2017).

If the management of careers is imperative to the long-term viability of universities, a key strategic human resource management challenge is to better understand the careers experiences of professional staff, and to develop initiatives to tackle this erosion. A systematic literature review was undertaken to examine the extant research on the careers of professional staff in higher education, and to integrate those findings for a future research agenda on careers and career theory within this context.

**Approach**

There are few literature reviews in the field of careers (see for example, Baruch et al 2015), and even fewer systematic reviews. A recent meta-analysis undertaken by Kostal and Wiernik (2017) had a specific focus on demographic differences in career orientations, across 74 samples, contributing a unique perspective to the literature, while adding to the understanding that more research is required. Akkermans and Kubasch (2017) used a five-step procedure to identify 16 trending topics in careers from a focused review of four core career journals.
The use of a systematic review has been identified as an opportunity to build, explicate, develop or test theory (Onwuegbuzie and Frels 2016), and to assuage concerns about the inability to effectively accumulate evidence across a body of research by traditional narrative reviews (Briner and Denyer 2012). Systematic literature reviews have become the preferred reporting mechanism in some fields, such as health, to ensure transparent and complete reporting and to reduce the number of poor literature reviews reported. Systematic literature reviews can help form the basis for developing practice and provide information on knowledge gaps and therefore inform future research directions. The benefit then to other practice-based areas is obvious as literature reviews should be both reproducible with an audit trail (Onwuegbuzie and Frels 2016), and be able to provide practice implications and offer future research directions. This systematic review was undertaken along the lines of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews (PRISMA) statement and follows a modified set of principles based on Pickering and Byrne's (2014) quantitative approach. This approach was taken as PRISMA has as its focus authors, and ways in which authors can ensure complete and transparent reporting of data (Liberati et al. 2009), to provide the stated audit trail. The PRISMA checklist (Moher et al. 2009) was used to ensure that all relevant steps in the process were undertaken.

Search Process
A systematic search using electronic databases was undertaken in January 2017. The databases searched were Web of Science, Academic OneFile, and ProQuest - the largest and most focused databases holding sources of management/career management related articles. A complementary search was undertaken in Google Scholar as it encompasses a much more comprehensive list of publication sources
(Harzing and Alakangas, 2016). In addition, a search of two core career journals, *Career Development International* (CiteScore 2016: 1.85) and *Journal of Vocational Behavior* (CiteScore 2016: 3.08), was also undertaken to confirm use of search terms and ensure the inclusion of any further relevant articles. A 2014 special issue of *Career Development International* on academic careers was identified, but as its focus was not on professional staff it was excluded. After review and feedback, one other career journal was included in the search, *Career Development Quarterly* (CiteScore 2017: 2.05). Two key higher education journals were also searched, *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education* and the *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*. These journals have an emphasis on policy and management and historically have published a significant number of papers related to professional staff. Considering the aim of this paper was to directly review professional staff and their careers, together these were considered the most significant journals to individually review.

Search strings were created to include the range of related terms identified for the three areas which are the focus of the research - universities, professional staff and careers. The first search string included: (higher education, college, tertiary education, universit*); followed by: (professional staff, administrative staff, general staff, non-academic staff, academic related staff); and then: (career*, human resource management, HRM, personnel management, career development, career success, career advancement, employee development).
**Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

Only peer-reviewed journal articles published from the year 2000 were included in the search. This commencement date was considered the limit of current timeliness due to the substantial changes to the HE environment (see Dearing Report–UK 1997 [Temple 2014]; Nelson Review–Australia 2002 [Department of Education and Training 2015]). Only empirical studies published in English were retained. Study participants only included professional staff working in universities, either wholly or as part of a wider sample, with the research focus being careers. Articles were therefore rejected if they did not include university professional staff, or if the emphasis was on specific topics such as discrimination, without including careers. Inclusion or exclusion decisions were made complex by different terminology used across geographic locations. Where there was no clarity about study participant identity, articles were not retained. This concept of participant identity is revisited later.

**Search Results**

Articles were screened by title, then abstract, and then by full paper (Fig. 2.1). A total of 15 articles were found to fulfil the requirements.
Three additional articles were found by scanning the reference lists from these 15 retained articles. A supplementary search of *Career Development International* returned an article by Nabi from 1999, and despite its date, this was deemed to be an important part of the literature because of its focus on career strategy and professional staff in broad terms. It was therefore retained as a seminal contributing article. This resulted in a total of 19 articles for review. A cross-check confirming relevance of articles retained was carried out to ensure the criteria for inclusion had been met (Jesson, Matheson, and Lacey 2011).

**Data Analysis**

Before data analysis, a quality assessment evaluation was undertaken using a modified version of the Critical Appraisal Skills Program (CASP 2017). This tool includes questions such as ‘is the … methodology appropriate to the research aims/questions?’, ‘was the data analysis sufficiently rigorous?’ and ‘what contribution does the study make?’ Quality assessments based on this approach were recorded for all 19 articles and considered as part of the analysis, although articles...
were not excluded based on this assessment alone (see Table 2.1). The CASP assessment tool includes three categories: does the research meet the criteria, does it not meet the criteria, or the reviewer cannot tell if it is met. This forms the basis of the current quality score, for example, if it does meet all the quality criteria the paper would score ++++, if it partially meets the criteria it would score ++ and if it only meets the criteria in a limited way then it would score a +.

Subsequently analysis was undertaken in two streams. First, a deductive approach was employed using geography, methodology and participants as organizing factors. These were deemed important as higher education careers are now global, even for professional staff, the methodology and how it has been used is an important indicator of quality and the participants were important considering the complexity of the cohort. Next, an inductive approach was taken identifying high-level emergent themes and related sub-themes. This can be described as extracting the ‘key concepts’ from all studies regardless of methodology. It should be noted that doing this for qualitative methods is contested (Campbell et al. 2003), but the authors consider this important to ensure that the findings of high-quality qualitative research are recognised and included in systematic literature reviews, whilst trying to preserve its context and complexity (Thomas and Harden 2008). These are now discussed with the deductive stream providing a profile of the included articles.
Table 2.1: Preliminary analysis of retained articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article Authors</th>
<th>Geography /Country</th>
<th>Article profile</th>
<th>Participants/ Sample</th>
<th>Quality assessment</th>
<th>Research focus</th>
<th>Thematic analysis Key Career Findings</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bower and Hums 2003</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Women (n=386)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>Career paths</td>
<td>Career enablers: people interaction; freedom and Individual</td>
<td>Institutional</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quant and Qual</td>
<td>Campus recreation</td>
<td>Limited participant</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mixed-method</td>
<td>administration/ survey</td>
<td>information</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Instrument</td>
<td></td>
<td>No extension to theory</td>
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<td>High response rate</td>
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<td>Quantitative analysis</td>
<td>Limited</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bozionelos 2004</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Mid-level non-academic and non-technical staff (n=188)</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Relationship between mentoring</td>
<td>Career enabler: mentoring</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quant</td>
<td></td>
<td>Appropriate methodology. Limited extension to theory</td>
<td>Provided/received</td>
<td>Provided/received</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bespoke questionnaire</td>
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</table>

1 Based on an adapted CASP criteria (casp-uk.net).
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article Authors</th>
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<th>Thematic analysis</th>
<th>Key Career Findings</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>African American student affairs</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Enablers and barriers to career success</td>
<td>Appropriate methodology</td>
<td>Career enablers: professional preparation and involvement in student affairs</td>
<td>Institutional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hancock and Hums 2016</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Associate or Assistant women</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Factors affecting career development and progression to executive management</td>
<td>Appropriate methodology, Extension of theory</td>
<td>Carrier barriers: lack of experience, organisational culture; lack of interest in relevant skills needed for promotion</td>
<td>Institutional and Individual</td>
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<tr>
<td>Article Authors</td>
<td>Geography/Country</td>
<td>Article profile</td>
<td>Participants/Sample</td>
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<tr>
<td>Harris and Leberman</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Exploratory Qual</td>
<td>Alumni New Zealand Women in Leadershi</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Career benefits resulting from leadership development program</td>
<td>Career enablers: Mentor + good supervisor Career satisfaction: Person-organisation fit</td>
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<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Mixed-method (questionnaire + phone interview) Longitudinal case study</td>
<td>Alumni New Zealand Women in Leadership Program (questionnaire n=52; interview n=76)</td>
<td>Limited description of content analysis. No discussion of researcher/participant bias. Limited extension to theory Contribution to HR policy and practice</td>
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**Career benefits resulting from leadership development program**

**Career enablers:**
- Mentor + good supervisor
- Personal-organisation fit

**Contribution to HR policy and practice**
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<th>Article Authors</th>
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<th>Thematic analysis</th>
<th>Key Career Findings</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
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<tr>
<td>Jo 2008</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Female mid-level</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Factors contributing to voluntary turnover</td>
<td>Career barriers: poor supervision, inadequate advancement opportunities, work schedule</td>
<td>Institutional</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Qual</td>
<td>administrators</td>
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<td>Appropriate methodology</td>
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<td>In-depth</td>
<td>(n=46)</td>
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<td>Moderate extension to theory</td>
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<td>interviews</td>
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<td>Contribution to HR practice and policy</td>
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<td>Johnsrud et al. 2000</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Mid-level administrators</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Testing impact of workplace morale (and its antecedents) on intent to leave</td>
<td>Career barriers: non-supportive workplace processes</td>
<td>Institutional and Individual</td>
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<td>Quant</td>
<td>from a ten-campus university system</td>
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<td>Appropriate methodology extension to theory</td>
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<td>Bespoke</td>
<td>(n=869)</td>
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<td>Article Authors</td>
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<td>Thematic analysis Key Career Findings</td>
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<td>Kont and Jantson 2013</td>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Library staff (n=111)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Inadequate information on sample design and qualitative analysis technique</td>
<td>Barriers to career success</td>
<td>Career barrier: pessimistic attitude, link between performance and promotion tenuous</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Küskü 2003</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Academics and administrators (n=100)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>Limited participant information</td>
<td>Key factors influencing job satisfaction</td>
<td>Career barrier: individual attitude re job/conditions</td>
<td>Institutional and Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article Authors</td>
<td>Geography/Country</td>
<td>Article profile</td>
<td>Participants/Sample</td>
<td>Quality assessment</td>
<td>Research focus</td>
<td>Thematic analysis Key Career Findings</td>
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<td>Marshall et al. 2016</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Student affairs professionals staff (n=153)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>Factors in decision to leave</td>
<td>Career barriers: Burnout, salary, career alternatives, limited advancement opportunities work/family conflict; supervisor relationship, institutional fit</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nabi 1999</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Support personnel, managers and academics (n=2585)</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Predictors of objective and subjective career success</td>
<td>Career enablers: Investment in self; Career barrier: structured career progression</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Renkema et al. 2009</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Admin staff, educational and</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Psychological determinants of career enabler: self-efficacy attitude</td>
<td>Institutional and individual</td>
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<tr>
<td>Article Authors</td>
<td>Geography /Country</td>
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<td>Participants/ Sample</td>
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<td>Bespoke</td>
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<td>Bespoke</td>
<td>research support</td>
<td>Limited participant information. Extension of theory including a new model</td>
<td>intention to participate in continuing professional development</td>
<td>towards development activity</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Bespoke</td>
<td></td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
<td>staff, facility workers and others (n=131)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Ricketts and Pringle 2014</th>
<th>New Zealand</th>
<th>Exploratory</th>
<th>Female general staff (n=370)</th>
<th>++</th>
<th>Career motivations</th>
<th>Career enablers: Skill recognition, good relationship with mgmt., and confidence</th>
<th>Institutional</th>
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<tr>
<td>Rosser 2004</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Mid-level administrators and</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Impact of work and work-life</td>
<td>Career enabler: Career support</td>
<td>Institutional</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Quant</td>
<td>Appropriate methodology</td>
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<td>Article Authors</td>
<td>Geography /Country</td>
<td>Article profile</td>
<td>Participants/Sample</td>
<td>Quality assessment</td>
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<td>Thematic analysis</td>
<td>Key Career Findings</td>
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<td>Rosser and Javinar 2003</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Mid-level administrators and leaders (n=1966 responded)</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Impact of work and work-life characteristics on morale, satisfaction and intent to leave</td>
<td>Career enabler: Career support</td>
<td>Institutional</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quant</td>
<td>leaders (n=1966 responded)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Mid-level administrators and leaders (n=1966 responded)</td>
<td>Appropriate methodology</td>
<td>Limited extension to theory</td>
<td>Characteristics on morale, satisfaction and intent to leave</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sagas and Cunningham 2004</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Intercollegiate athletic administrators (n=213)</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Gender differences in career satisfaction and promotion of</td>
<td>Career barrier: Social capital more influential for men vs women</td>
<td>Institutional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quant</td>
<td>administrative information.</td>
<td>Limited participant information.</td>
<td>Extension to theory</td>
<td>Career success (promotion + satisfaction): not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Mid-level administrators and leaders (n=1966 responded)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Article Authors</td>
<td>Geography /Country</td>
<td>Article profile</td>
<td>Participants/ Sample</td>
<td>Quality assessment</td>
<td>Research focus</td>
<td>Thematic analysis</td>
<td>Key Career Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tessens, White and Web 2011</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Exploratory Qual and Quant Bespoke survey</td>
<td>Senior leadership development programme women including (n=89)</td>
<td>+ Limited participant information. No description of qualitative data analysis. No contribution or extension to theory. Some contribution to HR practice</td>
<td>Survey of leadership development needs and current challenges of senior women</td>
<td>Career enablers: programme to provide knowledge and skills for leadership in current work environment</td>
<td>Institutional and Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waller et al. 2015</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Exploratory Qual and Quant Survey</td>
<td>Female campus recreation administrators (n=357)</td>
<td>++ Limited information on participants.</td>
<td>Constraints to women’s careers in campus recreation</td>
<td>Career barrier: not seeking advancement</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article Authors</td>
<td>Geography/Country</td>
<td>Article profile</td>
<td>Participants/Sample</td>
<td>Quality assessment</td>
<td>Research focus</td>
<td>Thematic analysis</td>
<td>Key Career Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Won et al. 2013</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
<td>Collegiate athletics (n=279)</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>Hiring criteria and skills needed for successful careers</td>
<td>Career enablers: relevant qualification; career-related experience referee recommendation, people skills and cooperativeness</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Profile of Retained Articles

The retained articles highlighted a somewhat skewed spread of geographic locations, methodologies, and participants, dominated by US based, quantitative studies, focusing on specific cohorts.

Geography

The majority of the retained research emanates from the US (n=11) along with six other OECD countries. Only limited publications from Australia and the UK were identified, despite the contribution to GDP of HE in both countries. The need for diversity of economic and cultural contexts in career development research was one of the findings of the recent meta-analysis by Kostal and Wiernick (2017). If career contexts of professional staff in HE are to be better understood, research which takes into account diverse country contexts is imperative. This would allow for comparative work and contrasting perspectives.

Methodology

Stand-alone quantitative methods, mainly questionnaires, were employed in 10 of the studies (Bozionelos 2004; Johnsrud, Heck, and Rosser 2000; Küskü 2003; Nabi 1999; Renkema, Schaap, and van Dellen 2009; Ricketts and Pringle 2014; Rosser 2004; Rosser and Javinar 2003; Sagas and Cunningham 2004; Won, Bravo, and Lee 2013). Qualitative methods were adopted in four studies, with interviews being the dominant data gathering approach (Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014; Hancock and Hums 2016; Harris and Leberman 2012; Jo 2008). Despite the recognition of the contributions that qualitative research can make, this is not evident in the retained articles, possibly because of difficulties in getting published (Welch 2013).
Six articles used a multi-method approach (Jo 2008; Kont and Jantson 2013; Bower and Hums 2003; Waller et al. 2015; Marshall et al. 2016). Although the studies included quantitative and qualitative data (for instance Kont and Jantson 2013), they could not be classified as mixed methods studies, as no true mixing of data was identified (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). Integration of quantitative and qualitative data in keeping with more rigorous mixed methods approaches can be used to develop an improved account of research findings and arrive at an enhanced understanding of careers (Archibald 2016). Introducing “multiple ways of seeing and hearing…of making sense of the social world…and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished” (Greene 2008 20), will contribute to the study of careers due to the story telling that people engage in, especially the retrospective sense-making (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). There is room therefore, to explore purposively designed mixed method studies as part of enhancing understanding about careers in practice.

**Participants**

In this study the term “professional staff” refers to those university staff who are not employed in academic roles but are graduate qualified staff who have high degrees of responsibility in their work tasks. Across the literature there are a wide range of terms in use for this cohort such as general staff, administrators, and support staff. For example, in the US, “administrator” is also used for high level faculty/university leadership positions, but these were not included in this review as they are more related to academic staff.
Information about the participants’ employment type was examined. The majority of the articles provided enough details to make an informed judgement as to study participant identity, but this was not uniform. For example, Johnsrud et al. (2000, 22) noted that in the US “midlevel administrators [included] non-academic employees classified as administrative, professional and technical staff members”. Jo (2008) gave examples of job titles such as registrar and financial manager, which helped to ensure “administrator” was being used to refer to professional staff.

This variance made it somewhat challenging to identify the staff under consideration. Campus sport and recreation staff for example, were not defined by employment type or contract. For this review, these staff have been included as they appear to be on non-academic contracts but have a high level of authority (Bower and Hums 2003; Hancock and Hums 2016; Sagas and Cunningham 2004; Waller et al. 2015; Won et al. 2013). Future research would need to make clear who is considered professional staff for study replication and/or comparison. This lack of consistency in classifying and identifying professional staff in the academic environment needs to be considered when interpreting the results of this systematic review.

The majority of papers ($n=13$) dealt with specialised cohorts of the professional workforce in HE, including gender and minority groups. Harris and Leberman (2012) and Jo (2008), particularly focused on women administrators (see also Ricketts and Pringle 2014; Tessens, White, and Web 2011). Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson (2014) focussed on African-American administrators because of their underrepresentation in American universities. Two studies focused on university
departments: libraries (Kont and Jantson 2013) and medical centres (Renkema et al. 2008). Two studies focused on women working in campus athletic departments (Hancock and Hums 2016; Won et al., 2013), and two examined women in recreation departments (Bower and Hums 2003; Waller et al. 2015). Additionally, student affairs staff seem an important cohort for study due to high staff turnover (Marshall et al. 2016; Rosser and Javinar 2003).

There has been a particular focus on careers of women in HE (n=8). In Australia, New Zealand, and Europe, there appears to be concern about progression to senior management level, including strategies for career success (Bozionelos 2004; Harris and Leberman 2012; Nabi 1999; Renkema et al. 2008; Ricketts and Pringle 2014; Tessens, White, and Web 2011). A third of studies considered the broader workforce, for example Rosser’s (2004) study targeted 4000 mid-level leaders in the US (see also Rosser and Javinar 2003); and Nabi (1999), drew from a large population and stratified by department and gender, rather than focus on a specific department. This focus on specialised workforce cohorts limits a broader career perspective and needs to be a consideration for future research.

The profile of retained articles presents limited diversity in the geographic location of research, perhaps in part due to the English language inclusion criteria. Methodological approaches have also been limited and there has been limited consistency in terminology as discussed above. This highlights the need for clarity in terminology as well as diversity in methodology in future studies undertaken on the careers of professional staff in universities. We turn now to the themes which emerged from the retained articles.
Enablers and Barriers – Institutional and Individual

Rigorous thematic analysis, including clustering of subthemes and cross checking of terms and concepts between authors, identified a series of enablers and barriers that influence career development and progression. Career enablers were conceptualised as structural opportunities put in place by the institution at policy or developmental level. At the individual level, enablers were deemed to be practical- and self-skills employed proactively for career management such as setting goals and objectives or becoming a mentee. Career barriers were considered to be social factors that impact at either institutional or individual level, for example an institutions’ tolerance for bullying and harassment, or psychosocial factors such as confidence. Table 2.2 provides a summary of these, including examples of where these themes appear in the articles included in this review.

Career enablers and barriers exist at both the institutional and individual levels, and a lack of enablers in some instances translates to a career barrier. At the institutional level, culture and available human resource practices such as transparent promotions structures, development activities and supervisor support, are considered key enablers for career success. These, coupled with traditional job designs which offer job security, promotion and pay, are still considered critical to career success by professional staff in universities. This is consistent with the practitioner literature (LFHE 2010; Strachan et al. 2012).
Table 2.2: From themes to practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Thematic cluster</th>
<th>Sub-theme</th>
<th>Theoretical/ conceptual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Enablers</td>
<td>Institutional career enablers</td>
<td>• Good job design, especially autonomy (e.g. Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014)</td>
<td>High performance work systems</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Inclusive culture (e.g. Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Transparent recruitment practices (e.g. Rosser 2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Transparent promotion requirements (e.g. Jo 2008)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Learning and Organisational (e.g. Tessens, Whihte, and Web 2011)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Development activities (e.g. Renkema et al. 2009)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Good supervision (e.g. Hancock and Hums 2016)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual career enablers</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Qualifications (e.g. Sagas and Cunningham 2004)</td>
<td>Career-self-management behaviours</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Mentoring (e.g. Bozionelos 2004)</td>
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University Professional Staff Careers: Literature Reveals Hybrid Mindset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Barriers</th>
<th>Institutional career barriers</th>
<th>High performance work systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor job design, especially lack of autonomy (e.g. Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor supervision (e.g. Jo 2008)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of transparency in decision-making (e.g. Rosser 2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not upholding stated policies (e.g. Rosser 2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of advancement opportunities (e.g. Kont and Jantson 2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discrimination/harassment (e.g. Rosser 2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual carrier barriers</td>
<td>Work-life balance, stress, burnout (e.g. Johnsrud et al. 2000)</td>
<td>Career self-management behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low morale (e.g. Johnsrud et al. 2000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low satisfaction (e.g. Rosser and Javinar 2003)</td>
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</table>
At the individual level, staff see undertaking individual career enhancing strategies as critical for their success. These commonly take the form of mentoring, networking, seeking higher-level qualifications, and more effective behavioural and/or knowledge competencies in preparation for promotion or to compensate for lack of experience, especially for under-represented staff.

Institutional level barriers include a lack of human resource management practices that support and provide opportunities for career progression. At the individual level, personal barriers around managing work-life balance and attitudes towards managing careers influenced career success perceptions.

Drawing together these common threads across the retained articles, the institutional enablers and barriers have strong parallels to research on high performance work systems (HPWS), and career self-management behaviours (CSMB). These are underpinned by career attitudes relating to responsibility and career hybridity. The discussion below considers each of these four concepts in turn.

**High Performance Work Systems (HPWS)**

High performance work systems rely on good job design, supportive work relationships, inclusive work cultures and recognition and rewards suited to the particular work environment. Work design practices which provide opportunities for participation, and are high on work autonomy, have been shown to have a positive influence on individual satisfaction and performance (Fabi, Lacoursière, and Raymond 2015). Across the retained articles, there was a genuine acknowledgement that such practices also influenced career related outcomes and career attitudes.
Ricketts and Pringle (2014), for instance, found that a good relationship with a supervisor had a positive effect on an individual’s career path. In terms of participation, Rosser (2004) showed that the less mid-level administrators felt that they were contributing to their institutions, the less satisfied they were, leading to higher intent to leave. Excessive hours and burnout, non-competitive salaries, work-life conflict, lack of challenge/passion or institutional fit, and other attractive opportunities external to the university (Jo 2008; Marshall et al. 2016), were all found to be barriers to satisfaction, performance and career progression. In keeping with these findings, Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson (2014) identified poor job design and workplace culture, including lack of autonomy and lack of support from superiors, were barriers to retention. While the relationship between the elements of HPWS and positive career progression illustrate the need for job design and a supportive workplace culture, other research reported contrary findings.

For example, Rosser (2004) found that student affairs administrators who had worked at their institution a long time and had higher salaries, were less likely to leave their institution, despite reporting low morale. Johnsrud et al. (2000) reported that administrators’ perceptions of work-life, including antecedents such as career support and working conditions, had a significant effect on their morale, and a small indirect effect on their intention to leave. Intent to leave was directly and indirectly influenced by attitudes about morale and work-life; morale playing a mediating influence on the impact of work-life perceptions on intent to leave. Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson (2014), studying African-American campus recreation staff, indicated that even if they wanted advancement, there were limited opportunities and therefore they would probably have to relocate, an unattractive prospect. These studies suggest
that opportunities for career progression are influenced by career needs and career mobility attitudes. Professional staff exhibit behaviours consistent with both normative and continuance organisational commitment, but not necessarily affective commitment (Meyer and Allen 1991). While contemporary research in other fields suggests that challenging working conditions are likely to lead to turnover (Laschinger 2012), it is possible that these professional staff feel a sense of obligation to stay with the institution (normative commitment) or feel unable to find alternatives (continuance commitment). This outcome supports that while some professional staff stay in jobs which do not offer progression opportunities because of fear, mobility acts as both an affordance and constraint when it comes to career advancement.

**Career Self-Management Behaviours (CSMB)**

Career self-management has been characterised in a number of ways, but for the purposes of this review it includes two main types of behaviours: professional development – sought out by the individual or taken up when offered by the organisation; and, coping and adapting in the face of challenge and change (Lent and Brow 2013). Active self-management of education and career, was considered a career enabler in over two thirds of the studies reviewed. Waller et al. (2015) found that 50 per cent of their participants had undertaken some form of additional formal learning. Nabi (1999) found that an individual’s investment in education was related to a higher rate of financial return. Sagas and Cunningham (2004) found that men had made greater investments in human capital development than women, but that there were no differences in human capital returns with respect to gender.
Renkema et al. (2009) showed that an individual’s attitude related positively and significantly with job - and career-related development intention, and that job satisfaction was positively correlated with job-related development activities. Hancock and Hums (2016) found that women enhanced their competencies to overcome a perceived “lack of experience” in seeking to be promoted to senior levels. While a number of individual competencies, attributes and dispositions were found to be important as career enablers for professional staff in higher education. Won et al. (2013) found that people skills and cooperativeness were critical to successful careers. This work on key competencies aligned with what women working in campus recreation administration reported as the most enjoyable aspect of their role – interacting with people (Bower and Hums 2003). Competencies, attributes and dispositions, are often linked to the capacity to adapt to challenge and change (Potgieter 2014) further reinforcing the notion that enhancement of these through self-management behaviours is an important factor in the development of an individual’s career.

Across the articles that featured elements of HPWS and CSMB as enablers to career success, there are two interacting underlying expectations – that the provision of development activities is an institutional responsibility; and, that the engagement with those opportunities, and responsibility for capitalising on them, lies with the individual. Reciprocal activities, institutionally facilitated and individually accessed, with dual responsibility being a feature of their success, emerged from the articles retained in the review.
Responsibility and Reciprocity

Professional development activities were identified as strong career enablers across more than half of the studies. Such activities included learning and development, mentoring, and networking, where the institution and the individual were responsible for the provision of the activity, the participation in the activity, or both.

Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson (2014) identified that support from the institution for further education such as enrolling in masters or doctoral level courses, for example, contributed to career advancement perceptions. Harris and Leberman (2012) and Tessens, White, and Web (2011) both found that participants completing a women’s leadership development program reported objective and subjective career success outcomes. Rosser and Javinar (2003) and Rosser (2004) reported that the more positive mid-level administrators felt about organisational career support and development activities, the more satisfied they were, and the less likely they were to leave.

The impact of mentoring on perceptions of career success was featured across a quarter of the retained articles. Mentoring programs were found to be institutionally organised, and individuals participated as both mentors and mentees. Mentoring was specifically identified as a career development activity with positive outcomes for those who had been mentored or were mentors. Bozionelos (2004) found that being a mentor was positively related to objective and subjective career success, as well as with the amount of mentoring received. Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson (2014) and Hancock and Hums (2016) found that all of their participants reported having mentors as critical to their career success. Formal or informal supportive mentoring
was crucial to retention and development of staff, especially for under-represented
groups (see Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014; Waller et al. 2015). The older Nabi
(1999) study, however, found that mentoring was not significantly related to either
objective or subjective career success; reflecting perhaps that mentoring is a more
contemporary career activity. Overall these results support that individuals and
institutions have a dual role to play when it comes to promoting career advancement
and success.

The studies retained which offer evidence on networking, suggest a similar dual
responsibility. Networking, both individually sought and institutionally promoted,
was identified as an important career enabler (Harris and Leberman 2012; Nabi
1999; Sagas and Cunningham 2004; Tessens, White, and Web 2011; Waller et al.
2015). Nabi (1999) found that actively networking was significantly related to
subjective career success. Sagas and Cunningham (2004) found that networking
provided greater positive outcomes in terms of promotions for men compared to
women. In their study of careers of women administrators in campus recreation,
Waller et al. (2015) found that nearly two-thirds of participants benefited from
involvement in a professional network. Research on leadership development
programs indicated they facilitated networking which was instrumental in achieving
member outcomes (Harris and Leberman 2012; Tessens, White, and Web 2011).
Bower and Hums (2003), however, whose work focused on the challenges felt by
women in their career advancement, reported that the participants felt excluded and
not part of a wider campus network. This suggests that networks can prove to be a
barrier if these are not inclusive.
Overall, the positive influence of networks and networking as a career enabler reinforces the importance of institutional and individually initiated strategies, and the reciprocal nature of these. Networking is a key factor of the Boundaryless career orientation, in that individuals must create and manage a wide variety of professional networks to facilitate career moves between organisations. Within the HE sector, it can be argued that networking is critical due to the collaborative work environment, and that those who embrace networking gain both psycho-social and career benefits.

While this shared nature of responsibility for career advancement and success is a contemporary career notion, there was an underlying tension in the studies reviewed, which suggested that elements of both the traditional and contemporary career are enacted in the lives of professional staff. This review reflects that more traditional career aspirations are combined with some of the elements of the contemporary career; indicating a level of hybridity when it comes to career management in this context.

**Hybridity**

There is evidence that traditional seniority-based structures influenced career progression opportunities in HE. A number of studies identified organisational hierarchical structure and size (Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014; Hancock and Hums 2016; Kont and Jantson 2013; Nabi 1999), negatively influenced career progression opportunities and perceptions of career success. Kont and Jantson (2013) identified: extremely low staff turnover, fewer management positions, no defined grading scale, and vacancies filled by external applicants led to limited promotion opportunities for younger staff. When advancement opportunities were limited (Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014; Ricketts and Pringle 2014; Tessens, White, and
Web 2011) this was noted as a career barrier. The nature of these barriers stemmed from institutional and sector-wide characteristics.

Waller et al. (2015) found that 61 per cent of women staff in campus recreation roles were not looking for advancement either within or outside their institution. While no explanation was offered for this finding, this is at odds with many other studies in this review which suggest staff seek promotion opportunities. Jo (2008) and Marshall et al. (2016) found that participants, who were considered not to be geographically mobile, were forced to leave the institution for career advancement.

While contemporary career theory posits that individuals are mobile and able to take-up employment in other locations, this may not be the case within this sector. Internal and local progression opportunities are seen as just as important to career advancement – indicative of a more traditional career mindset. This combination of both traditional and contemporary career thinking, reflects a hybridity, whilst not new (see Hall 2004) may be a useful way to view the management of careers within HE.

Discussion

In the HE sector, there is an intersection between HPWS and CSMB at which a reciprocal relationship must operate in order to meet the needs of the hybrid career – where elements of both traditional and contemporary career needs are met.

Career outcomes are either positively or negatively influenced by the presence or absence of work designs that exhibit characteristics of HPWS. Work design and
organisational support are equally essential to perceptions of career success and satisfaction (Bower and Hums 2003; Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014; Harris and Leberman 2012; Tessens, White, and Web 2011; Waller et al. 2015). This review presents evidence that an inclusive organisational culture is important to enabling careers; as too are policies that prioritise opportunities for internal recruitment and advancement, and learning and development. This type of organisational context is a critical underpinning for the deployment of HPWS. It has been suggested that organisational interests are best served by systems that prioritise those of employees – their skill requirements, motivation and job quality (Marler and Fuller 2016), but that successful systems depend upon positive attitudinal and behavioural reactions from employees. The reinforcement of institutional support and individual responsibility provides the most effective environment for positive outcomes.

CSMB are exercised by professionals in HE to manage their own careers. The career strategies that individuals engage in to increase the likelihood of achieving their career goals focussed on development, mentoring and network opportunities. Adoption of self-efficacious behaviour by individuals is a component of contemporary career attitudes (Arthur 2014; Hall 2004; Lent and Brown 2013). As responsibility for individual careers has transferred from the institution to the individual (Clarke 2013), employees have increasingly needed to pro-actively manage their careers and capitalise on the opportunities that exist within organisations. Reciprocatively, organisations must offer these opportunities, including in the form of supervisor support, in order to reap the benefits.
Career management is characterised by an implicit understanding of reciprocation. While more recent reviews have identified individual agency and career self-management as characteristics of new career management (Akkermans and Kubsach 2017), promotion for professional staff in universities operates in what could be classed as an internal labour market, aligned with traditional career mindsets. Within this market, staff have to wait for a job to become vacant to apply for it, and then be competitively selected.

The articles included for this review identified that professional staff take up development opportunities as part of their self-management behaviours. Employee development is one of the most significant human resource investments that institutions can make as a way of enhancing employability (Baruch 2006). Nelissen, Forrier, and Verbruggen (2017) show that such an investment creates an internal employability pathway, which can counteract a lack of internal upward promotions and other traditional career expectations like life-long employment, if individuals actively participate. This reciprocative relationship is one that has not been explicated in the literature reviewed, but is implied as a way of managing expectations, characteristic of contemporary career theory.

Previous research has indicated that traditional organisational careers and aspects of contemporary careers are complementary (Baruch 2006; Dries and Pepermans 2007; Walton and Mallon 2004), and might be considered to be hybrid careers which have characteristics of both. Individuals value job security and promotion opportunities which are characteristic of the traditional career model, but also aspects of contemporary careers such as learning opportunities. Granrose and Baccili (2006)
found that employees value job security and upward mobility (traditional) but also training and skill development, as well as an open, trusting and mutually respectful work environment (contemporary). Research by Çakmak-Otluoğlu (2012) showed that having a Boundaryless career mindset could co-exist with organisational commitment and did not necessarily equate with mobility. Baruch (2014) noted that Protean and traditional career attitudes were not always opposing. The findings of this systematic literature review lend credence to the idea of the hybrid career, as yet an under-researched area (Clarke 2009; 2013; De Caluwe et al. 2014; Gerber et al. 2009; Sullivan and Baruch 2009). This supports the need to explore the more granular characteristics of the hybrid career of professional staff in HE.

Limitations and Future Research

Literature reviews are never complete and we are never completely objective in our choices in the search, inclusion and exclusion criteria, although the systematic procedure hopes to reduce this subjectivity (Pickering and Byrne 2014). We acknowledge the problem that only articles in English were included in the final selection leading to a possible bias of the results, considering, for example the extensive HE systems at place in Europe that are very different from a UK, US or Australian perspective. There is also the inherent publication bias that exists for publication of positive and/or significant results (Dickersin 2005). Perhaps also our search strategy was not sophisticated enough, certainly it was difficult to create search strings with the multiple areas of interest, even challenging the expert library staff. The inclusion of so many papers from the US may have biased our results and more specifically lead to a question of the generalisability of results. Additionally, we have possibly missed interesting sources of data such as dissertations and
conference papers restricting our search to journal articles. Certainly, the use of some keywords, especially related to the participant cohort we were interested in, could have resulted in missed papers due to different terminology.

In terms of future research directions, we feel that there are several areas where improvements could be made. Firstly, the use of participant information is critical. More information needs to be given in the studies so that participant type can be evaluated across, and even within, countries; without more detail, we are often making assumptions on cohort/contract type. Secondly, more sophisticated methodological designs need to be implemented, for example by utilising more qualitative or mixed methods approaches to gain a greater understanding of peoples’ careers, and by using novel methods such as the creation of career stories to help in this (Cohen and Mallon 2001; Vinkenberg and Weber 2012). This would allow for a more nuanced understanding of careers, as careers are ambiguous, non-linear and flow and react to the other aspects of peoples’ lives. Thirdly, it is clear there is a lack of the use, and development of, career theory in this space. Considering the extent of scholarly work in the area of career studies, and its interdisciplinarity (see Baruch, Szűcs, and Gunz 2015 for a review), this is concerning. Perhaps it is because researchers are concerned with improving practice than with aspiring to develop or enhance theory (Barbour 2008, 165). Fourthly, professional staff working in universities may be seen as a special cohort internally but their position is not unique. Similar findings may be found in the medical and legal professions, and the public sector to some degree not only in terms of the context of staff within an institution but also considering the concept of hybridity – the requirement for a traditional organisational career and contemporary career benefits. This review has
addressed the knowledge gap in understanding the empirical evidence about the careers of professional staff in universities, and our suggestions for further improvement may hopefully provide direction for further exploration.

**Conclusion**

This paper addresses a call by Akkermans and Kubasch (2017, 612) on the ‘comeback’ of context and presents the first systematic literature review examining the careers of professional staff. Specifically, it has identified that the particular labour market operating within HE influences the opportunities for upward mobility, thereby necessitating institutions to take responsibility for developing initiatives to support internal career pathways. There are two main theoretical findings presented in this paper. First is the concept of the reciprocal relationship evident for staff between institutional and individual career enablers. Although individual agency is at the forefront of contemporary career discourse, the fact that these (and other) staff work in large organisations with expectations of what the organisations will provide is an important consideration. Individual career behaviours do not generally take place without this institutional level support. Second is the concept of a hybrid career. The recognition that the organisation still plays an important part in an individuals’ career cannot be over-estimated, although some contemporary career theory such as the Boundaryless career, ignores the organisational context for many staff.

This review found an overwhelming number of papers from the US, plus a few other OECD countries. This is both a concern and an opportunity with respect to diversity, an important aspect to follow-up for relevance and applicability generally. It also
showed that mixed methods had been embraced to a degree in the research included. Most papers presenting quantitative and qualitative data, however, were not truly utilising mixed methods as there was a distinct lack of data integration, arguably the most powerful aspect of mixed methods research for further, deeper, understanding of the research question.

The topics identified in this review align with those presented by Akkermans and Kubasch (2017). Most notably the included papers focussed on career success, attitudes, gender, mentoring, career mobility, and proactive behaviour. Collectively, the papers point to the reciprocative role of institutions and individuals in promoting employability, and further elaborate on the employer-employee relationship in managing sustainable careers. Specifically, this review identified practices which support HPWS as critical in facilitating the reciprocity between organisational career support and individual proactive CSMB. Further research into the bundles of activities which provide a greater return on investment for organisations, and individuals, is therefore warranted.

Most significantly however, the review has identified that within the HE context, professional staff have a hybrid career mindset, simultaneously desiring stability and job security and flexibility, opportunities for development, and organisational support. Future research as to how these hybrid careers are represented within HE and other contexts, is desirable to advance the field of contemporary career theory.

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Conclusion to Part A

This paper explored the extant literature on the careers of professional staff and offered a reciprocal explanation to help in our understand of the interplay between organisational- and individual-level career management activity. The review also provided data on the current gaps in our understanding of professional staff careers, and was critical in shaping the specific research questions that the empirical work would undertake to provide answers to. It also confirmed that a mixed methods research design would provide a different methodological perspective and could perhaps provide critical insight that mono-methods may not. The next section broadens out to provide a background related to careers theory research. It presents seven key career theories and offers a critique, and then introduces a unified social sciences theory to develop a conceptual framework for the analysis of this study’s results.
PART B

Career Theory Narrative Review

Introduction to Part B

One of the key findings of the Systematic Literature Review was the dearth of scholarly work that has been undertaken to study the careers of professional staff working in higher education. The lack of scholarship has led to a minimal amount of theoretical conceptualisation in this area. This finding influenced the need to provide a theoretical underpinning for what could arguably be classed as a unique career (as suggested by Baruch 2011 when discussing academe more broadly). One of the other key findings was that organisational culture is a critical underpinning for high-performance work systems. Organisational culture develops in response to multiple drivers, including the wider context in which an organisation operates (social, political and so on). These social and cultural drivers, and what it means for individual employee career decision-making, was a clearly absent area of discussion in the literature reviewed in Part A and has driven the need to more clearly define this, and the complexities it creates, for individual career management. The idea of a ‘mutually constitutive’ relationship between social structure and individual agency is explored in this review.

This review starts by outlining the background to the higher education labour market. It draws on the ideas of internal and external labour markets and vacancy chains to highlight how the sector operates, and how it has changed over time, making a case that understanding the labour market is of critical importance to understanding the careers of staff working in this sector. The section goes on to
outline Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice, and how by taking ideas of structure
as well as agency into account a more holistic understanding of contemporary
careers can be developed. The concept of field is discussed to demonstrate how
important context is when considering the management of organisational careers, as
individual decision-making is boundaried and constrained, which impacts
significantly on the choices that can be made. The impact of field on habitus, and
vice versa, is also discussed as the underlying concept driving workplace needs and
behaviours.

The section goes on to compare and contrast seven key career theories that have had
the most impact in the literature, presenting the psychological contract as a useful
mechanism for explaining some workplace behaviours. An argument for a non-
quantitative methodological approach to the future study is made, outlining how a
mixed methods research design may lead to a broader and deeper understanding of
individually and socially constructed careers. These concepts lead to the
development of a conceptual framework which integrates Bourdieu’s Theory of
Practice, the psycho-social needs, and the psychological contract.

***

Careers
If a job is a specific work role that individuals hold for a period of time, a career can
be defined as ‘the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviors
associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person’s
life’ (Hall 1976, 12). This definition highlights the importance of the individual in
constructing their own story of their career over time. This story is framed around individual career-related decisions, those that are considered important for the organisation and, just as importantly, what values and motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) individuals have over the lifespan of their career; this is the most accepted idea of a career (Feldman and Bolino 1996; Orpen 1994).

However, the concept of careers is in flux, with multiple new career theories being presented over the last two decades (Gubler, Arnold, and Coombs 2014b), with many scholars arguing that the organisational career is dead (for example, Peiperl and Baruch 1997). Many have now accepted that career theory moved ahead at a faster pace than actual lived careers, and it is recognised that organisational careers are still relevant in today’s economy albeit having morphed away from the ‘traditional’ organisational career (for example, Clarke 2013).

Organisational-type careers are carried out within specific organisations that have their own structures and requirements. These are often built up over many decades and influenced by their industrial sector, and negotiated and contested along the way; many theories have been proposed to explain career behaviour. As such there will be a close and mutual relationship between individual and organisational career management activities, although it remains unclear how these may influence workplace behaviour and how these may be changing in light of the contemporary career theories (Sturges et al. 2005). The context in which careers are experienced is also likely to have an influence on career progression, and understandings of success or otherwise. For this study, the selected context is that of higher education, particularly universities.
The Sector of Higher Education

Universities have been influenced by the social, political, technological and economic forces of late modernity. It has been suggested that these global changes have resulted in a risk society and that this risk society resulted in responsibilisation and individualization. Individualisation requires people to put themselves first in thinking about their lives. This resulted in a move from a paternalistic society towards an individualised society where responsibility is now individualistic and not shared equally between members of society (Adam and van Loon 2000). It has been argued that although this move towards individualisation is a move towards freedom of choice, in fact individuals don’t have a freedom of choice but only a forced choice between a few alternatives. Other scholars have argued that individualisation provides freedom and autonomy (Bauman 2001 in Rawolle, Rowlands, and Blackmore 2017, 112; Roper, Ganesh, and Inkson 2010). This argument between boundaried choices and individual agency plays out in a number of career theories (as outlined later in this chapter) and is especially relevant in the Theory of Practice.

Rawolle, Rowlands, and Blackmore (2017) argued that responsibilisation is now connected to contractualism in HE as a governance mechanism for mediating risk through three forms of contract: paternal, market, and relational. The market form of the contract spread market logic into universities in the 1980s. At this time, there was both an increase in student numbers and a decrease in the unit of resource per student, the start of the ‘doing more with less’ and ‘value for money’ rhetoric, which continues today (Deem 1998). At the same time there were changes in management that were a result of the loss of confidence in professionalism and local accountability, which was already being played out in the public sector with the
introduction of new public management (Gander 2013). Alongside these changes to resources, there was also a change in government oversight related to the quality agenda, from the introduction of a quality assurance bureaucratic process, to forms of research excellence, and recently in the UK, the teaching excellence framework (Temple 2014).

Continued changes to funding models, increased marketisation, and a massified system means that there has been a significant change in the way that universities, and the people within them, are managed; arguably, these changes are a way for the institution to manage risk and individualise responsibility. The consequences of some of these changes have resulted in a reduction of the power of campus unions, poorer terms and conditions and the opening of labour markets (Roper, Ganesh, and Inkson 2010; Watson 2009). To fully understand the context within which professional staff manage their careers within universities, a brief overview of that labour market is required.

**Internal Labour Markets**

Within traditional supply and demand models of labour markets the conventional understanding suggests that pricing, allocation, and training decisions are directly controlled by economic variables (Granovetter 1981; Osterman 2011), and workers make few investments in jobs or relationships leading to voluntary or involuntary discharge with little cost to either side (Watcher and Wright 1990). This external labour market model (ELM) is in contrast to the internal labour market model (ILM) where an organisation’s recruitment, advancement, salary, benefits, and job design are governed by published policies and procedures and a jobs’ wage is determined
by its characteristics (Doeringer and Piore 1971). Hirsch and Shanley (1996, 227) argued that ILMs are too slow to match employee needs within a firm and that the ELM allows an organisation to move more quickly in response to the changing external environment, a proposition supported by the work of Zhou, Dekker, and Kleinknecht (2010).

Internal labour markets tend to be strongest in organisations and sectors with good collective bargaining (as universities historically had). This leads to competition between organisational efficiency and maximising benefits to staff (Granovetter 1981; Doeringer and Piore 1971; Kristal, Cohen, and Mundlak 2011; Osterman 2011; Sorenson and Kelleberg 1981). Although ILMs can be created with strong unionisation there is some evidence that unionisation leads to reduced salary compared with the ELM. Negotiations were often skewed towards deferred benefits such as pensions, or fringe benefits such as vacation time, rather than current pay and rewards – that is the direct economic demands of the ELM are transformed (Pfeffer and Cohen 1984; Watcher and Wright 1990). This could provide justification for why Brown and Woodbury (1998) found that an ILM for academics in universities led to salaries falling with length of tenure. Salaries are sensitive to the ELM market conditions at ports-of-entry but further pay and rewards are transformed to deferred benefits. Watcher and Wright (1990) suggested that both organisations and employees make organisationally specific investments that connect them in an ongoing relationship and that due to employees’ risk aversion they agree to defer benefits.
ILMs have ports-of-entry for recruitment of external staff but these are normally in the lower levels of the hierarchy to protect internal promotion opportunities (Granovetter 1981; Doeringer and Piore 1971; White 1970). Universities also have ports of entry and exit to secondary labour markets as they outsource non-core services (for example, housing, security and so on), and historically recruited all new staff at lower levels in the hierarchy, with a view of ongoing training and development to prepare them for promotion. These promotions were often based on the person’s merit – that they had upskilled sufficiently to warrant a move to the next pay grade. In the UK, pre-2004, universities operated wage competition for professional staff. That is, the staff were recruited and allocated to an institutional grade. They could then apply for promotion if they could provide evidence of an increased ‘productive capacity’; if granted they would be promoted to the next grade in the hierarchy. This could happen indefinitely until they reached a point where they could no longer argue that their capabilities relevant to the role were significantly different enough, or needed, to merit promotion. Gordon (2010) argued that with changes to European employment law the ILM would get stronger due to the need to ensure continued employment for staff in changing circumstances. However, evidence suggests that the ILM is weakening with less deferred benefits, reduced wages and increased ports of entry at senior levels.

In Australia, each university has its own enterprise agreements but these are based on higher education worker (HEW) levels ranging from 1–10; professional staff are generally appointed at level 7 and above. It should be noted that the term professional staff in Australia means all staff not working on an academic contract. Most vacancies are appointed through a competitive recruitment process and the
report Work and Careers in Australian Universities (Strachan et al. 2012) noted that 61 per cent of current staff had to go through a competitive appointment process to gain their current job and only 17 per cent had gone through a reclassification process. However, almost a third had had their job re-classified at some point in the last five years and of these 59 per cent had been successfully moved to a higher level.

In 2004, the main HE union in the UK (the University and College Union [UCU]) and the employers’ association (Universities and Colleges Employers Association [UCEA]) introduced a national single pay spine for all staff up to senior management level and they commended a model pay structure that categorised grades with salary points. Alongside this there was also the introduction of a role analysis (commonly referred to as HERA, higher education role analysis) that ensured that all jobs within the sector were evaluated against a set of standards and a grade, related to the pay spine allocated (University and College Union 2001). The impact of this was a change in the organisational culture for the promotion of professional staff. Post-2004 individual promotion became increasingly rare until today, although cases can be made for job re-grading using HERA, it has much reduced for professional staff who can often only gain higher salary levels by being competitively appointed to higher graded jobs.

Promotion now operates in what is often classed as a closed labour market (Manwaring 1984), that is staff have to wait for a job to become vacant (or a completely new one created), and to apply for it and be matched; wages have become attributes of jobs and not of people. Promotion schedules are an integral part
of an ILM because they create incentives for increased performance and ensure ongoing employee motivation and Ayree, Chay, and Tan (1994) found that the presence of an ILM had a positive effect on career satisfaction. Promotion schedules should provide identical earnings for jobs at the same grade and large differentials between one grade and the next to motivate employees to compete for promotion; this is exactly what the HEW and national single pay spine created. However, in order for this to be an effective motivator, promotion opportunities must be available. If organisations recruit into higher grades from the external labour market, the organisation breaks the promotion ladder leading to feelings of unfairness and to lack of motivation (Sorenson and Kelleberg 1981).

It could be argued that universities now have a hybrid labour market, as recruitment, advancement, salary, benefits, and job design are governed by published policies and procedures, a job’s wage is determined by its characteristics, and as work involves a high degree of human asset specificity with relatively high search and replacement costs (Tolbert 1996, 335). Universities in Australia and the UK have created the expectation of a closed ILM for staff, due to the creation of hierarchies, promotion schedules and wages linked to jobs. However, universities have now created ports-of-entry at all levels within the organisation, breaking the promotion ladder, advertising (nearly) all posts externally, and often offering salaries more in-line with external salaries for some functions such as marketing, information technology, and so on, with the concomitant reduction in deferred benefits (see for example, the ongoing reduction in the value of the UK university sector pension; Grove 2018). Table 2.3 outlines the moves from the traditional ILM to this new, hybrid labour market.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional HE labour market</th>
<th>New, hybrid, labour market</th>
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<tr>
<td>Published HR policies and procedures</td>
<td>Published HR policies and procedures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knowledge work with high costs of replacement</td>
<td>Knowledge work with high costs of replacement</td>
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<td>Reduced wages over time, off-set by:</td>
<td>Reduced wages over time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed benefits i.e. superannuation and leave allowances</td>
<td>Reduced delayed benefits e.g. UK final salary pension scheme changed to defined benefit scheme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wages linked to jobs and people</td>
<td>Wages linked to jobs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Promotion based on performance</td>
<td>Promotion based on competitive matching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Defined career paths</td>
<td>No defined career path</td>
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<tr>
<td>Specific organisational career management activities e.g. organised staff rotations</td>
<td>Generic organisational career management activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ports of entry at junior level</td>
<td>Ports of entry at all levels</td>
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It has been found that weaker ILMs have less collegiate-type and an increased imposed-type cooperation after staff have been employed for over three years. In organisations with average ILMs this downturn takes longer at seven years, and for strong ILMs this doesn’t start to occur until after ten years. It is, therefore, in the organisations interest to reduce the extent which there is a movement from a strong to a weak ILM to ensure that collegiate-type cooperation is not withdrawn too early in the employment relationship (Lee 2015). From a specific career perspective, the move to a hybrid labour market creates more competition for senior roles due to the breakdown in the ILM and increased number of ports of entry. This, along with the move from wages linked to people to wages linked to jobs, decreases promotion.
opportunities for internal staff. The move from defined career pathways to no such career pathways has also led to lack of advancement opportunities.

It has been found that there is a sense of a social and psychological breach when employers’ signal that organisation-specific knowledge is not valued (Lee 2015). These findings point to the need for professional staff to be more self-efficacious to ensure that they understand the different types of roles within their institution, the development needs they may require to be competitive to apply for these roles, and how to plan and action goals, without specific support from the organisation. Therefore, to understand career behaviour it is critical to understand the nature of the organisation that this behaviour takes place in, and a social science theory that allows such structure and behaviours to be interrogated is Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice.

**Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice**

The HE workforce covers an extraordinary range of professional and support operations. In many ways each institution is an entire society in its own right ... this microcosm lives in a series of alternative macrosoms: its host society, the rest of the HE business; and an increasingly interdependent global sector.

(Watson 2009, 46)

An overarching sociological theory which aims to conceptualise the mutual relationship between social structure and individual agency is Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice (Bourdieu 1977), which took the approach of understanding the ‘mutually constitutive’ relationship between social structure and individual agency
It has been argued that this theory is a prime candidate for a unifying theory for career studies for several years although it has not been utilised extensively (although see (Chudzikowski and Mayrhofer 2011; Iellatchitch, Mayrhofer, and Meyer 2003; Emirbayer and Johnson 2008)). This theory attempts to provide a bridge between an individual’s connection with the material and social world. This connection is the key to understanding practice – by appreciating that an individual’s understanding is established and developed as a consequence of acts of perception, but there are defining principles which are both pre-constructed and evolving (Emirbayer and Johnson 2008).

Briefly, the Theory of Practice has three aspects: field, habitus and capital. The idea of field is a specific and boundaried site with occupied positions; the field must be conceptualised as the relationship between occupied positions and the forces binding them together to create a structure of power relations for ongoing control over the field. Capital includes the assets of social, human, cultural and symbolic. However, these do not exist in isolation, the value of capital is due to both its past and present uses, by the structure of the field in which it exists and by its differences compared with other types of capital; capital does not exist accept in relation to its field. Habitus is the link between individual action, which is built from experiences and judgement shaped by specific fields, and macro-structural settings, within which future action is taken (Arnold and Cohen 2013; Emirbayer and Johnson 2008). This theory is being used within this dissertation as an analytical framework, as a lens through which to offer explanatory power to the findings from this research; as such it is further discussed as part of the methodology chapter (Chapter 3).
This theory has been applied to some aspects of careers to provide a framework for analysing organisational careers especially the relationship between individual agency in career management and the organisational field where this takes place (Iellatchitch, Mayrhofer, and Meyer 2003). It has been put to some significant effect on garnering a clearer understanding of gender and race and the persistence of inequality (Arnold and Cohen 2013, 278; Gander 2018). The concept of career capital has been and continues to be used as a framework to explore the differences in career success. Indeed, researchers have added to Bourdieu’s original four capitals to include ethnic capital (Borjas 1992), gender capital (Ross-Smith and Huppatz 2010) and the highly contested erotic capital (Hakim 2010). However, career capital is normally viewed as a resource-based construct, with the premise that one can accumulate different capitals such as human capital, cultural capital and so on, and that once these have accumulated sufficiently career progress occurs (Defilippi and Arthur 1994). The main critique of this resource-based view of career capital is that it overlooks the power relationships that are embodied by an organisation. Emirbayer and Johnson (2008) argued that field theory, which has been significantly overlooked in organisational research, would allow for a reconceptualisation of each organisation as a temporarily stable structure of power. This would lead to the examination of the positions taken by members and the effects on organisational structure. This has consequences for individuals when managing their careers, for example, for women or ethnic minority staff who, despite accumulating capitals, are not promoted to senior positions in proportional numbers (Sagas and Cunningham 2004).
Additionally, the concept of field and the interplay with individual habitus needs further exploration. The field of practice for this study can be thought of as occurring at two levels – the higher education sector and the individual organisation. Fig. 2.2 outlines the field of higher education and gives an indication of its influence and those which influence it. Bourdieu (2005, 193) argued that it is these organisations (agents) that create the field and that these agents deform the field thereby conferring the structure.

![Field of Practice – Higher Education](image)

**Figure 2.2: The field of higher education**

It is the relationship between these agents that characterise the field. For example, in the past, campus unions (included in the sector bodies category in Fig. 2.2) had greater influence than they do today, so deformed the field towards them leading to a strong ILM, with, for example deferred benefits that still exist in the sector today. Additionally, UK and Australian governments historically kept a much greater arms-
length relationship to the sector than they do now, as there has been a decrease in confidence in professionalism and local accountability that has resulted in a shift of control away from institutional autonomy, towards central control (Temple 2014, 17); therefore government has a much greater distorting force on the field than it may have had in years past. The use of the concept of Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice allows for a greater understanding of the agents at work on an industrial sector level and their impact at organisational level. It highlights that individual agency is boundaried by the field and the habitus that creates, and is created by, it. Bourdieu does not argue that individual agency is unimportant, just that it is constrained by the field/habitus nexus, and that by deeming this to be unimportant, it results in a limited understanding of the actions that individuals can take, and the impact of power structures on individuals and outcomes. The ideas of structure and agency are reflected to a lesser or greater degree in historical and contemporary career theories, several of which are highlighted below.

**Career Theory**

*Foundations of Career Theory*

At the turn of the 20th Century, career theory was based on the content of occupational role and the fit of the individual to these roles with an emphasis on a social class approach, and assumed that both individuals and occupations were relatively static; people generally had little desire or indeed ability to consider extensive career changes. Career development (or guidance) as a discipline began in 1909 when Frank Parsons’ developed his seminal Theory of Vocational Guidance, which moved on from the social class approach and which aimed to improve job satisfaction through individual-occupation fit. It should be noted here that person-
environment fit is now considered a multi-level construct and scholars have specified several different levels of fit, including fit between a person and their organisation, between a person and their job, between the person and their team or group, and between a person and their supervisor (Astakhova 2016). These levels are not necessarily mutually exclusive and there is potential for overlap and mutual influence as for example, a positive person-supervisor fit can influence positive person-organisation fit (Su, Murdock, and Rounds 2015, 85).

The significant social changes brought about by the Second World War led to theories of career development that were less reliant on occupational role and social status. However, the basic concept of Parsons original theory, that increased job satisfaction would come from congruence of role with self, was still valid and still forms the basis of contemporary career theory. Researchers started to develop second-wave career theories through the application of psychology to issues of vocational choice and development through psychodynamic theory. This explained personality in terms of conscious and unconscious desires and beliefs and that childhood experiences shape ones personality, and therefore impacted upon career choice (Sonnenfeld and Kotter 1982); these concepts were extended by John Holland who linked personality and occupations. This relates strongly to Bourdieu’s ideas of habitus, where issues such as class, gender, and race strongly influence an individual’s doxa, this is the concept that ‘the natural and social world appears as self-evident’ (Bourdieu 1977, 164) and therefore individuals do not act with unmitigated agency; agency acts within this boundaried field of practice.
Pre-1970 organisational design was a modernist representation of Max Weber’s rational bureaucracy based on formality, hierarchy, rationality and rule-reliance (Arnold and Cohen 2013; Kanter 1977). This organisational model was dependent for its success on dealing with a predictable external environment including in the ELM. Careers were based on the premise of long-term security with loyalty from both the employee and employer, with employees moving through an orderly vertically organised career ladder with career success measured according to hierarchical position, salary, status and responsibility (Kanter 1977; Peiperl and Baruch 1997; Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni 1995). Higher education reflected this model (Table 2.3).

In today’s globalised, technologically changing world, individuals are affected by many different work-related concerns, including the search for employment, meaningful work, self-actualisation and multiple work transitions (Leung 2008). Career development theories have evolved to provide a strong empirical base, building from the idea as the career as an object of self, related to theories of person-organisation fit, to the career as a subject of self, related to self-actualisation, and finally towards a career as a project of self, that is maintaining employability for any possibility (Savickas 2013). This idea will be used as a classification scheme to explore the move from careers as occupational fit to careers of meaning, growth and employability considered critical for today’s labour market.

**Self as Object**

*Theory of Vocational Choice*

John Holland first published his Theory of Vocational Choice in 1959, but later
reformulated and refined this in 1973. This theory provided a link between personality and occupations as Holland suggested that the choice of an occupation is inherently linked to personality leading to members of an occupation having similar personalities and responding to situations in similar ways. Occupational achievement therefore depended on congruence between personality and occupation, not unlike Parsons theory. In his first paper, he argued that individuals could be classified into one of six basic personality types and that occupations also reflected six environments. In his later paper he refined this concept to suggest that although one basic personality type may predominate, second and third types also influence individuals (Krumboltz 1994; Weinrach 1984). There have been extensive empirical studies that support the basic personality types, the occupational types and congruence between personality and career choice (Nauta 2013). Despite this, a meta-analysis reported that correlation between congruence and job satisfaction was weak and that the study’s design significantly affected the correlation variances leading to reduced theoretical validity (Tsabari, Tziner, and Meir 2005). This theory ignores changes in cognitive style and work practices and relies on overly simplified general occupational categories (Sonnenfeld and Kotter 1982). However, the issue of personality and choice of occupation can be linked strongly to the idea of habitus and doxa in Bourdieu’s schema.

The critiques mentioned above become especially significant in today’s knowledge economy where completely new types of jobs are created at a high rate, where there are high levels of under-employment (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2017), where more part-time jobs are being created than full-time jobs (Trading Economics 2018), and where the gig economy and casualisation of the workforce dominate in some
industrial sectors (Abraham et al. 2017). These changes to the labour market suggest that other factors apart from inherent personality type are important for career congruence. One lens that could be used to gain a greater understanding of workplace congruence is the psychological contract. Although often credited to Rousseau (1989), this concept has a history back to 1938 and it has been slowly developed into its more sophisticated form of today (as discussed in Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall 2008). The creation of this psychological contract is argued to be created pre-recruitment, is strongly formed when the individual starts at the organisation and is embedded by a year (Tomprou and Nikolaou 2011). It is argued that once a psychological contract has developed, it is unlikely to change substantially over time although it will be slowly revised throughout an employee’s tenure. Rousseau (1990) found the psychological contract could be categorised into three distinct types: relational (long-term based on mutual trust and loyalty), transactional (short-term focused on economic exchange) and, balanced (open-ended based on organisational and employee success; Rousseau 2000).

The field of higher education as discussed has moved from a traditional model of ILMs which included delayed benefits, promotion based on performance, and defined career paths to a new more hybrid model blending the traditional with a more managerliaist approach (see Table 2.3). This new approach has reduced wages and benefits, decreased promotion opportunities, and decreased the likelihood of a managed organisational career. The aspects of a traditional labour market are considered as key factors in the development of a relational psychological contract, where long term relationships between employees and employers develop based on loyalty and trust. The move to a more hybrid labour market could be argued to move
psychological contracts away from a relational form to a more balanced one – based on both organisational and individual success. This reciprocal type of relationship was discussed in Chapter 2. Various studies (e.g. Gerber et al. 2012; Granrose and Baccili 2006; Sturges et al. 2005) have suggested that contemporary career factors have started to be incorporated into psychological contracts but there has been little consideration of how these factors actually influence career management behaviours. This led to the following research question:

What is the influence of the psychological contract on career management perceptions of higher education professional staff?

Another critique of the Theory of Vocational Choice is the over reliance on achieving job satisfaction. With the concentration on job satisfaction via matching personality to occupation, there is little acknowledgement as to how individuals may have managed needs and behaviours within their occupation of choice, when for example, change occurred. Organisational change is a constant of organisational life in the 21st century (Al-Haddad and Kotnour 2015) and understanding individual psychological mechanisms for managing this are important both for increasing the success of change projects, which is notoriously difficult to do well (Al-Haddad and Kotnour 2015), and for increasing tenure. Long tenure is important for individuals to continue to secure wages and security, and it is important for organisations to reduce excessive absenteeism and turnover, especially in knowledge-based organisations, where replacement of staff can be costly and time-consuming (Horwitz, Heng, and Quazi 2003). Long tenure also seems to be important for professional staff in HE as the practitioner literature suggests that job security is of critical importance, as is the
opportunity for an organisational career with promotion opportunities; something that seems to be lacking in today’s HE employment. A career theory that attempts to explain the mechanisms for congruence, or satisfaction within the workplace, was Dawis, Lofquist and Weiss’s Work Adjustment Theory.

*Theory of Work Adjustment*

Work Adjustment Theory (TWA), proposed in the late 1960s, conceptualised the relationship between individuals and their work places for the purpose of predicting individual and organisational satisfaction. The fact that ‘fit’ is a key concept maps well onto Bourdieu’s ideas of symbolic capital, where a well-formed habitus serves to accumulate symbolic capital (Moore 2012). TWA emphasised a matching of people and jobs based on people’s work personalities and work environments described in work-personality terms. This theory included six core values for people: achievement, comfort, status, altruism, safety, and autonomy. It suggested if an individual was both satisfied and satisfactory (to their organisation), then the individual and their organisation were in a state of equilibrium, and work adjustment had been achieved. If, however, the individual was dissatisfied, unsatisfactory, or both, then a state of disequilibrium existed which acts as a motivational force for change.

These interactions result in either *correspondence*, if the employee and organisation’s needs are met, or *dis-correspondence* if one, or both sets of needs, are not met. The employee can manage some dis-satisfaction, and endure a range of tolerable dis-correspondence. Organisations can also consider task performance unsatisfactory, and likewise tolerate this to some extent (satisfactoriness). The
strength of the employee-organisation correspondence in this theory is measured through the length of the employment relationship. Between dis-correspondence and intent to leave, the dynamic component of the model allows for both the employee and the organisation to move into an area of adjustment (Dawis and Lofquist 1978). Change could include two choices, attempting to change the environment, for example by requesting an increase in salary or work tasks, or attempts to change themselves such as re-conceptualising their own expectations of the role (Dawis and Lofquist 1978; Swanson and Scheider 2013).

Dawis (2001) suggested that as TWA is about satisfaction, this implies needs which are required to be satisfied. These needs, such as salary, may be met through the employment contract, but other needs may be tacit, informal and unspoken and developed through the psychological contract. There may then be a gap between needs being desired and needs being met. The fact that TWA is about needs being met or un-met, is not unlike psychological contract alignment or breach, where there are multiple unwritten needs or expectations that the individual has of the employer, and a match or mismatch between what the organisation is perceived to provide. Dawis (2001) went on to say that these needs and values were a robust indicator of dis-satisfaction, as it is dis-satisfaction that better reflects what individuals thought of as important to them.

Empirical research supports the interactions between satisfaction, satisfactoriness, work adjustment and tenure; however, the other propositions related to personality and adjustment style, and flexibility of the individual and the organisation, have not been supported (Swanson and Schneider 2013). Core values are still argued to be
important concepts for individual careers and the idea of motivational force to
induce change to reach or regain equilibrium is a concept that could be developed
further (Dawis 2005). The process aspect of the model, for example the roles of
personality, adjustment styles, flexibility and perseverance, has not been researched
extensively and would enhance the understanding of adjustment strategies that
individuals undertake (Swanson and Schneider 2013). This is especially important in
terms of understanding what leads from dis-correspondence, that is when an
employees’ needs are not met, to intent to leave – what psychological process moves
an individual from tolerable dis-correspondence and adjustment acts, to the need to
leave the organisation? Indeed, findings from one study found there was no
difference in intent to leave between individuals who were experiencing
incongruence and those that were not (Leung 2008).

As has been noted, there has been little research on the process model aspect of the
theory, that is how fit between employees and their organisations is attained and
maintained (Swanson and Schneider 2013). The attainment of fit may relate to how
well the individual’s values are met along with how well more specific career-related
expectations of the organisation are perceived to be met, or not. If these values or
expectations are not met, attainment of fit may not occur, or over time it may
breakdown, especially if the organisation goes through change. This is where an
understanding of Bourdieu’s concepts of habitus and field are arguably important.
The field creates the habitus which re/creates the field, so if individuals enter the
organisation, and do not quickly understand and adapt to the new context, attainment
of fit will be unsuccessful. The habitus creates specific expectations of how
individuals will act within the field, so if, through for example a change project, this
unconscious understanding of principles and practices breaks down, dis-
correspondence occurs and individuals must struggle to regain fit. Attainment of fit
is related to the concept of the six core values in this theory, which are the needs on
which satisfaction is built. This concept is reflected in Edgar Schein’s Career
Anchors Theory. He argued that there were eight core needs, or anchors, from the
workplace that motivate individuals and hold their career narrative together. This
theory can be classed as self as subject, as this theory is about self-discovery of what
is most important that they will not give up when making career decisions.

*Self as Subject*

*Career Anchors Theory*

The Theory of Career Anchors was first postulated in the 1970s (Schein 1996).
Follow up studies in the 1980s confirmed that the results were still relevant although
the original set of career anchors was added to, which reflected changes to the labour
market including an increased number of women, and that the economy and
organisations had changed significantly in the intervening years. The career anchors
were identified as 1) autonomy/independence; 2) security/stability; 3) technical-
functional competence; 4) general managerial competence; 5) entrepreneurial
creativity; 6) service or dedication to a cause; 7) pure challenge; and 8) life style;
these bear some semblance to values identified in TWA (see Table 2.4 for a
comparison).
Table 2.4: Comparison of TWA core values and career anchors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TWA core values</th>
<th>Career Anchors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Technical competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfort</td>
<td>Security/stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Managerial competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>Service/dedication to a cause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Security/stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Autonomy/independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Life style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pure challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entrepreneurial creativity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Schein also argued, for the first time, that there were various career paths within an occupation such as technical or managerial, for example, and that career tracks can vary greatly between individuals in the same occupation. He argued that the majority of individuals formed strong career anchors, or a self-concept, that held their internal career narrative together even in times of significant change. An individual’s career anchor consists of self-perceived talents and abilities, basic values, and the sense of motives and needs as they relate to their career. Schein argued that an individual’s career anchor took time to evolve as they gained job and life experience but once it had been formed, it was stable. Most people were unaware of their career anchors until required to make decisions which affected their self-concept (Schein 1996).

There have, however, been many studies with inconclusive results on the number of anchors and their impact on career effectiveness (Feldman and Bolino 1996), although it has been shown that career anchors relate positively to psychosocial employability attributes such as career resilience (Oosthuizen, Coetzee, and Mntonintshi 2014). The general management career anchor has been found to
increase work engagement and job commitment (Coetzee, Schreuder, and Tladinyane 2014), and levels of extrinsic success (Tremblay, Dahan, and Gianecchini 2014). Feldman and Bolino (1996) argued in their conceptual work that it was too simplistic to expect individuals to only have one career anchor. This has been given support recently by studies reporting that most individuals combine two or more anchors (Suutari and Taka 2004; Chapman and Brown 2014; Ünal and Gizir 2014). Lifestyle and autonomy anchors are reported as being important across multiple sectors (Suutari and Taka 2004; Ünal and Gizir 2014; Maher 2016). This corresponds to Schein’s own work that compared 1960s results with those from the 1980s and found that the lifestyle career anchor had become significantly more important across the board, as had the autonomy career anchor (Schein 1996).

Rodrigues, Guest and Budjanovcanin (2013) used Schein’s career anchors as a starting point to develop their theory of ‘career orientations’ as they postulated that career anchors had some significant issues in the contemporary career environment. For example, they argued that career anchors, which were proposed to develop in the first five to ten years of work, and then go on to shape the remainder of one’s career, do not reflect the contemporary career environment of increased staff turnover. However, considering firstly that there is little evidence of increases in labour mobility (Rodrigues and Guest 2010), and secondly, that even if individuals do undertake multiple moves, voluntarily or involuntarily, their career anchor will still be an important motivating factor for finding the right next job, that argument seems unsubstantiated at best. Interestingly, in Rodrigues, Guest and Budjanovcanin’s (2013) conclusion, they go onto suggest that their ‘career orientations’ are relatively stable for most people as well, although they can change over time. This is an
important consideration as it shows that new anchors may emerge as the labour market changes, which then become reflected in different needs and values of employees. However, the fact that only two new career anchors were added over a 30-year period does indicate that the concept of anchors that underpin individuals’ requirements in their work are relatively stable, although considering the rapid change of the labour market in the decades to come, there may be more rapid change to this concept.

The concept of career anchors can be seen influencing the later career management theories, outlined below, where the anchors of autonomy/independence and lifestyle are key ideas in the Protean and Boundaryless career concepts. All the theories outlined above concentrated on the importance of the role of work to the individual and how to maintain a satisfactory work environment. A theory that that took other roles, as well as the work role, into account throughout the life course was Donald Super’s life-stage/life-span theory. This is an important concept as the centrality of the role of work can change over the life-course. This was especially pertinent with the changing labour market with more women entering the labour market at an exponential rate from the 1980s (Ortiz-Ospina and Tzvetkova 2017). These social changes to the labour market was also reflected in HE with more women entering into both academic and professional services roles. For example, in the UK in 1994/95 only 27 per cent of academic staff were female whereas in in 2015/16, 41 per cent of academic staff were female (Higher Education Statistics Agency 2017). This has had a significant impact on how the world of work needed to be integrated with other critical life themes such as managing caring responsibilities, and Super’s
theory took these and other aspects of life into the need for life-planning, not just career-planning.

*Life-Span/Life-Stage Theory*

The Theory of Life-Span/Life-Stage, first proposed in 1980, was the first career theory to view work alongside other areas of life such as family and leisure and was the first to refer to life-planning not just career-planning. This theory combined life-stage and role theory to argue for a fuller picture of multiple-role careers (Super 1984). Super also emphasized the notion of role salience, which implied that work, or any other life role, can vary in its centrality or importance for any given individual and at different stages of life. This insight reminds us that work is not the most valued role for everyone, or at all times. This theory described the nine roles that people play (more or less chronologically: child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, spouse, homemaker, parent, pensioner) throughout life and the four spaces or theatres (home, community, school, workplace) in which they act (through a maxicycle; Super 1980). This concept of one maxicycle through which people move has been modified to include minicycles within the maxicycle which allow for further personal exploration, growth and establishment (Super 1984).

There has been criticism that these roles are now outdated. For example, for university-bound individuals of which there are many more than when Super was writing, there are delayed and overlapping roles and theatres – occupational commitment is delayed, marriage/co-habiting is delayed, parenthood is delayed, university is extended into an individuals’ 30s, and individuals return to the parental home due to economic dependence (Vondracek and Hartung 2002). Additionally,
other scholars have argued that too much emphasis is placed on the individual and not enough on social and cultural factors (Fitzgerald and Betz 1994), or on dual career couples (Vondracek and Hartung 2002).

Taking the above criticisms into account, this theory seems, however, increasingly important in the 21st century work environment where work-life balance is becoming an important aspect of careers. In the HE practitioner literature, having a work-life balance was identified as both a requirement for staff and one of the benefits offered by universities. Work-life balance is an integral factor in some of the newer contemporary career theories such as Savickas's (1993) Career Construction Theory. As individuals are demanding increased flexibility, and organisations are endeavouring to provide workplace policies that support these demands (Blair-Loy 2002; McDonald et al. 2005), many more individuals will move through different cycles as part of their overarching career, such as when taking on caring responsibilities, or going through a transition after a redundancy. There is, however, room for more emphasis on the work situation – the theatre in Super’s terms or the field in Bourdieu’s terms – and its influence on developing self-concept over time, which Super suggested was not a static construct.

This work situation in terms of the current labour market is also crucially very different to when Super was developing his theory (when the ELM and careers were far more stable), and this changing work environment in terms of downsizing, unemployment, under-employment and the casualisation of employment need to be taken into consideration. This can be seen within the HE sector, where it has moved from a traditional organisational employer with all the benefits they could offer, to
an employer that has moved contractual risk onto the individual as the ILM and benefits have been eroded, especially with the introduction of a casualised academic workforce. As the key concept is one of congruence between self-concept and career, the issues mentioned above impact on this congruence. Self-concept may have matured through the developmental aspect of the Life-Span/Life-Stage approach but oftentimes this cannot be matched within the current labour market context, for example under-employment in Australia is at its highest level at 8.5 per cent (whilst unemployment has dropped since February 2015), and is highest for those in the lower skilled occupation groups, women, and those aged 15–24 years (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2017). The impact of these, and other labour market changes, need to be reflected in refinements to Super’s theory, and this emphasises how taking Bourdieu’s theory into account can increase our understanding of the different fields and their habitus.

Contemporary Career Theory

It was argued that from the 1980s organisational design changed from the modern to the postmodern (Sullivan and Baruch 2009; Nichols 2007). This needed to be reflected in new career models, and major new conceptual models were developed based on constructivist approaches to career theory, that is that individuals constructed their own social realities (Savickas 1993; Sharf 2013, 15) which was the most important aspect of understanding people’s decision-making processes and career stories. Other new conceptual models developed to understand contemporary careers were: Career Construction Theory, Protean, and Boundaryless career theories. Career Construction Theory integrated aspects from several previous career theories to help explain vocational behaviour starting with the development of
vocational personality pre-work, how individuals adapt to the work situation across the lifespan, career development behaviour and occupational transitions.

**Self as Project**

*Career Construction Theory*

Career Construction Theory (CCT) consists of three dimensions of the self: self as object (person-environment fit), self as subject (self-discovery and actualisation), and self as project (preparation for eventualities); these present different ways to view career behaviour and construction (Savickas 2013). CCT views careers as a story arc that individuals tell about their working life, not a career of progress up or down a ladder. Although the objective career path is present, it is the subjective career which is emergent from the process of constructing the story arc, which steers the individual across job changes and other transitions and provides meaning and direction for their career behaviour (Savickas 2013). It takes into account development driven by adaptation to a work situation, more so than development by maturation of the inner self (Savickas 2002). This idea could be especially relevant to the higher education labour market as staff have adapted to a changing work environment as evidenced by the hybrid labour market model (Table 2.3).

Career Construction Theory is a unified theory using the meta-theoretical framework of social constructionism to address how ‘individuals build careers through personal constructionism and social constructivism’ (Savickas 2013, 147). CCT argues that the concept of career itself signifies a subjective reflection of an individuals’ career-related activity that is a reflection on the objective career (Patton and McMahon 2014). CCT includes three perspectives on self that form the foundation of the
theory: self as actor, self as agent, and self as author: ‘Individuals through their actions in the family, compose a social role as an actor, then adapt this role for use in the theatres of the school and the community, and eventually author an autobiographical story that explains the continuity and coherence in occupational experiences’ (Savickas 2013, 151).

Career Construction Theory includes the idea of adaptability running through its core; individuals must adapt throughout the life course, and that there is a cycle of adaptive performance that is repeated as context changes (Savickas 2013). Savickas proposed that there were four components of career adaptability: career concern, career control, career curiosity, and career confidence. Career concern is an interest in and preparation for one’s future orientation. Career control is an aspect of intra-personal processes that requires self-regulation and deliberate and organised career related development tasks and transitions. Career curiosity is concerned with being open to experiences and possibilities (a similar theory to psychological mobility in the Boundaryless career theory, see below), to explore choices related to fit. Career confidence requires self-efficacy (a requirement of the Protean career theory, see below), that is the self-belief to act on the outcome goals they have set (Bandura 1986).

Adaptability is a psycho-social state between an individuals’ needs, the goals they set to meet those needs, and opportunities to fulfil them (Savickas 2013). This can be related to the psychological contract where the psycho-social state emerges from the reciprocal mental model that is constituted from the unwritten exchange agreement between employer and employee. For example, an individual has a need for
promotion and believes that the organisation has ‘promised’ such opportunities in their unwritten contract. The individual sets a goal of undertaking career development through gaining an MBA. They then need an opportunity to apply for promotion so that the organisation has provided the opportunity that they feel was promised to them. If this opportunity does not exist the psycho-social state results in psychological contract breach. Although there has been limited research on the impact of career factors on the psychological contract, those which have been published indicated that psychological contracts now incorporate aspects of contemporary careers (Gerber et al. 2012; Granrose and Baccili 2006; Sturges et al. 2005).

The empirical literature to date on CCT has concentrated on the vocational assessment and development applications through the evaluation of career assessment scales, with a number of scholars showing the usefulness of using CCT as a mechanism for improving vocational development assessment (Chan et al. 2015; Guo et al. 2014; Hirschi 2009). The career adaptability aspect of the theory has been used to show that career adaptability thinking is related to Boundaryless mind-sets and Protean career attitudes (Chan et al. 2015). Other aspects of adaptability have been tested with career concern and career curiosity being shown to predict social work students’ professional competence, although this was mediated by vocational calling (Guo et al. 2014). Hancock and Hums (2016), in their study on senior female administrators in collegiate sport, complemented CCT with critical theory as they argued that CCT itself did not consider issues of privilege and power. They found that personal and contextual factors influenced the career development of their
participants and they argued that these factors represented a ‘dynamic influence’ (207) of vocational personality, career adaptation and life themes within CCT.

Career Construction Theory emphasises individual agency but lacks an adequate account of underlying social, cultural and organisational structure, power and privilege, as many career theories do (Heppner and Jung 2013). As CCT was created to understand decisions and career choices based on vocational self-concepts in response to perceptions of social reality, that fact that more emphasis has not been placed on structure and power, for example opportunity for promotion and gender stereotyping, is potentially a significant oversight. Utilising ideas of how careers are socially constructed in the context of different cultural, social and organisational power structures, could lead to a more holistic view of individuals’ career narratives and how and why they make certain decisions and how they make sense of their careers. However, this is not the only career theory to promote individual agency as the key to success, as the following contemporary career theories also use this concept to provide frameworks for understating career behaviors.

Protean Career Concept

The Protean career theory, developed in 1976 was explained as:

A process which the person, not the organization, is managing. It consists of all of the person’s varied experiences in education, training, work in several organizations, changes in occupational field, etc. The Protean person’s own personal career choices and search for self-fulfillment are the unifying or
integrative elements in his or her life. The criterion of success is internal (psychological success), not external (Hall 1976, 201).

The original description of a Protean career as developed by Hall (1976) was rich in understanding. The key concept is that an individual is searching for self-fulfillment in their work and the criteria for success is intrinsic. It focuses on success through self-directed vocational behaviour, it centres on the idea of psychological success resulting from individual decisions and the meanings given to the work, rather than extrinsic organisational career achievement (Arthur and Rousseau 1996; Hall 2004; Peiperl and Baruch 1997). The Protean career concept involves mobility, a whole-life perspective, developmental progression, continuous self-directed learning, autonomy, flexibility, self-fulfillment, values match, and proactivity (Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth 2006).

There are only two instruments that have been validated to measure for the Protean career orientation (that is, an individual’s attitude towards their career; Baruch 2014; Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth 2006). The Protean career orientation describes individuals who use their own set of values to guide their careers and take an agentic approach to managing their own career. The Protean career orientation measurement instrument of Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth (2006) includes the construction of the Protean career attitudes scales representing a self-directed career attitude for example, ‘I am on charge of my own career’, and values-driven career attitude for example, ‘I’ll follow my own guidance if my company asks me to do something I don’t agree with’. There has been a lack of studies generally that have measured the construct of the Protean career – a significant issue considering that the Protean
career concept has become ubiquitous in the career theory literature. Additionally, both measures have concentrated on the components of self-directed attitudes and personal values as a mechanism for career decisions attitudes, although Baruch (2014) did also include an item on autonomy/freedom, which was argued to be a key requirement of the Protean career. The use of these scales has resulted in a narrower perspective of the Protean career than was originally envisioned. This lack of an orientation scale that encompasses the richness of the original concept has resulted in theoretical and practical short-comings, as has the overwhelming single-method studies within the literature (Gubler, Arnold, and Coombs 2014b).

The studies that have used a qualitative or mixed methods approach resulted in a broader understanding of individuals’ career orientations, and this mixed-method approach may be one way to improve our understanding of the Protean career orientation as enacted by individuals’ within organisations (Clarke 2009; McDonald et al. 2005; Sargent and Domberger 2007). Sargent and Domberger (2007) used a qualitative methodology with semi-structured interviews to examine the development of a Protean career orientation using 19 final year undergraduates chosen purposefully. They based their deductive coding on the constructs of self-efficacy and personal values match as important aspects of the Protean career. They found some participants reported attitudes consistent with the Protean career orientation such as the need for work with societal impact and work-life balance. This again highlights that Protean career attitude is somewhat consistent with the earlier concept of career anchors: service or dedication to a cause, and life style (Schein 1996). Those with a Protean attitude also had an ability for deliberate judgement about their career and to be discerning towards current employment.
norms, that is the balance between values, goals and the norms of prestigious careers. This process was considered a social act, with the decision-maker being considerate of other views such as partners, parents, friends and so on. This is an important finding in that it highlights that career decisions are not made in isolation but that careers are socially constructed regardless of how much individuals show high levels of self-efficacy, for example. Others in this cohort observed preferences for more traditional career factors such as extrinsic success and organisational career management. This aligns with the more current thinking in career theory that the need for organisational careers is not dead just in need of re-conceptualising.

The research outlined above supports the findings of McDonald, Brown and Bradley (2005). They conducted their mixed-methods research within a male-dominated Australian Government agency; they achieved 81 respondents to their questionnaire and gathered 15 interviews. The survey instrument included questions on career satisfaction, encouragement, management, and mentoring. Interviews elicited individuals’ career paths. The results showed that although some aspects of careers have moved away from traditional patterns to more Protean ones, in this male-dominated environment it is the men who showed a more traditional career model compared with the women, who were more Protean in their approach. The traditional career factors still deemed important were tenure and extrinsic success. These factors may still be important for individuals working in large and structured organisations where career decisions cannot be taken without the boundaried structure of the specific organisation.
These results suggest that the Protean career concept is more nuanced than much of the literature would suggest. Gubler, Arnold and Coombs (2014) proposed a refined conceptualisation of the Protean orientation that is grounded in the original, more wide-ranging, definition. This re-conceptualisation includes identity awareness, values-driven attitudes, being motivated to learn and adapt, and having self-directed attitudes. They also suggested that career anchors (Schein 1996) would offer an additional focus for research on the Protean career due to their alignment, for example autonomy/independence and service and dedication.

The literature above has resulted in the following research question:

What are the drivers and constraints influencing contemporary career management for higher education professional staff?

An additional critique of the Protean career concept is that it places the emphasis for career development on the individual, a reaction against the traditional organisational career seemingly at odds with the post-modern organisational era. This emphasis on career self-management highlights the concepts of individualisation and responsibilisation, as there is no longer a promise from the organisation of a supported organisational career (Sturges et al. 2005). This may be reflected within the psychological contract dependent on whether relational or transactional psychological contracts are created, or could create a breach of expectations if reciprocal benefits are misaligned. There has been some evidence, however, that individuals working within organisations are enacting a hybrid career schema, that is they have blended traditional organisational career requirements such as job security
and organisationally-provided career management activities with more contemporary factors such as wellbeing needs and training to ensure ongoing employability in the wider labour market (e.g. Clarke 2013; McDonald et al. 2005). This hybrid career schema may then act as a moderator of psychological contract breach through re-alignment of organisational expectations and received benefits.

It has been argued that there is little evidence for stable factors within the psychological contract with some evidence on the increased importance of personal rather than organisational factors (Millward and Brewerton 2001). These authors also suggested that for organisations to thrive in the contemporary climate that ‘individuated strategies of psychological contract management need to take place’ as employees’ needs are diverse in terms of cultural and personal values.

It is, however, remiss to suggest that individuals have complete control over individual career decision-making within an organisation. As Bourdieu argues, actions are carried out in boundaried fields, and without an understanding of localised realities and mandated structures which are associated with particular organisations in terms of expected roles and responsibilities (Afiouni and Karam 2014; Baruch 2006), there may be tensions between needs, and to some extent, values of the organisation and individuals. If these are not considered, individual agentic processes cannot be carried out effectively for career success.

**Boundaryless Career Concept**

The Boundaryless career theory, developed in the early 1990s, views individuals as free agents – not bounded by one organisational career – moving easily between
organisations and careers (Arthur and Rousseau 1996). These individuals focus on crossing both objective and subjective dimensions of careers, that is they are primarily motivated by psychological success but also by hierarchical success, albeit with more than one employer. Characteristics of this career type are: mobility, flexibility, the need for meaningful work, skill utilisation, work-life balance and fulfilling relationships across organisations, and at the same time not giving importance to organisational promotions and career paths (Briscoe et al. 2006; Forrier et al. 2005). It assumes that an individual’s career would be comprised of hierarchical and lateral moves, plateauing, periods outside of the labour market and career changes; they therefore require external marketability. Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth (2006) concluded that individuals with a Boundaryless (or Protean) career orientation were agentic in their career attitude; they were not prepared to wait for events to control them.

The richness of the original concept has not always been captured in subsequent empirical studies. For example, early studies into the Boundaryless career concentrated on organisational mobility preference with little emphasis being put on the Boundaryless mind-set (Sullivan 1999). Sullivan and Arthur (2006) went on to suggest that the Boundaryless career orientation could be split into physical mobility (locational mobility is used throughout this dissertation due to other meanings associated with the term physical mobility), and psychological mobility, which was defined as ‘the perception of the capacity to make transitions’ (Sullivan and Arthur 2006, 21). They also conceptualised that a Boundaryless career was not an ‘either or’ proposition but that it could be viewed by the degree of mobility of both locational and psychological mobility along a continuum. Briscoe et al. (2006) confirmed the
validity of a scale to measure the Boundaryless career orientation based on Sullivan and Arthur’s proposition of physical and psychological mobility. The instrument consisted of a sub-scale of ‘organisational mobility preference’ for example, ‘In my ideal career, I would work for only one organisation’ (reverse coded) and the ‘Boundaryless mind-set’ for example, ‘I enjoy working with people outside of my organisation’. However, the scale did not capture all the meanings of the original career concept and because this has become a widely-used scale to test for the Boundaryless career orientation, there continues to be a limited understanding of the concept.

Gubler, Arnold and Cooms (2014a) suggested a scale that reflected more closely some of the original complexity. Their results suggested that along with separate components of preference for working across organisational boundaries and rejection of career opportunities for personal reasons, mobility preference should be split into the separate components of: organisational, geographical, and occupational mobility preference, as these are qualitative differences for career decision-making. This could provide a much more nuanced understanding of mobility preference than just the division between locational and psychological, as one would expect those with high levels of locational mobility would also show high levels of psychological mobility, although this would not necessarily the case in return.

As with the Protean career discussed above, there has been an excessive emphasis on individual agency. Inkson et al. (2012) for example, highlight that institutional constraints are downplayed in the Boundaryless career literature including discrimination, nepotism, and class. Roper et al. (2010, 673) note that ‘Boundaryless
careers discourse…is a manifestation of wider neoliberal discourse that emphasizes individual rather than societal or organizational responsibility for economic and career outcomes.’ This aligns with the ideas introduced in the Systematic Literature Review that global changes have resulted in a risk society where individualisation is valourised and that people ‘make themselves the centre of their own planning and conduct of life’ for ‘their own material survival’ (Beck 1992 in Rawolle, Rowlands, and Blackmore 2017, 111–112).

Although this may be considered less of an issue due to the very nature of being Boundaryless, if we understand, as Bourdieu suggests, that even if there is inter-organisational and occupational mobility, careers are still constructed and negotiated within organisations for the time that the individual is employed. Even if an individual relates more to their profession than their organisation (Lammers et al. 2013) there are still several boundaries to negotiate – the current employer, the sector, the profession – and structural issues are at work at all levels; individual agency is not carried out as separate from structural conditions. This does not even consider other constraints such as those faced by lower-skilled workers, women, and minorities for whom Boundarylessness may mean unemployment and insecurity.

Considering the extent of interest in the Boundaryless career, there is little evidence to suggest that there has been significant change in turnover rates, although job stability in the US and the UK may be decreasing; Japan, France and Germany have not seen a similar change (Rodrigues and Guest 2010). This may be that as labour protection laws and unionism decline in these countries there is a move towards more casual work and the gig economy, although to date there is slim evidence that
more people identify as self-employed (Abraham et al. 2017). There is some evidence, however, that suggests that Millennials have almost twice as many job changes as Generation Xers, almost three times as many as Boomers and four and a half times as many as Matures, which does suggest that some form of mobility is a prominent feature of current careers but this may be due to structural changes – jobs changing around individuals rather than turnover (Lyons, Schweitzer, and Ng 2015).

**Integrating Protean and Boundaryless Careers**

The majority of contemporary career literature treats Boundaryless and Protean career theories as separate but also as interchangeable and as a proxy for the ‘contemporary’ career and not representative of actual career patterns (Clarke 2013; Inkson et al. 2012). Although both career concepts suggest individual control of careers, they are not interchangeable as they offer distinct understandings of the contemporary workplace (see Table 2.5). Protean orientations focus on the values of career actors, for example how they value meaningful work, learning opportunities and how these are enacted through self-directedness. Boundaryless careers focus on the structure of the career through mobility preference and psychological openness and flexibility (Sullivan and Arthur 2006; Sargent and Domberger 2007).

Briscoe and Hall (2006), however, theorised that while Protean and Boundaryless career orientations were useful in and of themselves as symbols of contemporary careers, they had been simplistically interpreted and potentially they were far more intertwined than had been previously thought.
Table 2.5: A comparison of the attributes incorporated in the Protean and Boundaryless career orientations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Protean</th>
<th>Boundaryless</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour market autonomy</td>
<td>High: Employer-independent</td>
<td>High: Employer-independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment relationship</td>
<td>Performance for satisfaction</td>
<td>Performance for marketability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility for career</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key attitudes</td>
<td>Work satisfaction, work-life balance, value match, developmental progression, learning opportunities, professional commitment</td>
<td>Skill utilisation, relationships within and between organisations, flexibility, work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core values</td>
<td>Meaningful work, freedom, growth</td>
<td>Meaningful work, organisational position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of mobility</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success criteria</td>
<td>Psychological meaningful work</td>
<td>Psychological meaningful work and status</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They also suggested that there it could be beneficial in exploring the richness of Protean and Boundaryless combinations to further understand employees’ career experiences. They identified 16 profiles (see Table 2.6), although only eight were considered likely (Fortressed, Idealist, Hired Hand, Lost/Trapped, Organisation Wo/man, Protean Career Architect, Solid Citizen, Wanderer), which were rated high or low on the two factors of a Protean career (self-directed and values-driven career management attitudes), and whether they would be high or low on the two aspects of the Boundaryless career (psychological mobility and locational mobility).
There have been two accounts of empirical evidence to support at least some of these eight profiles (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al, 2008; 2010). Segers et al. (2008; 2010) worked with a large sample (13,655) across eight European countries and 18 industries. The SHL Motivation Questionnaire (rather than Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy Demuth (2006) Protean and Boundaryless scales) was used to create their profiles, although they labelled these profiles after Briscoe et al. (2006) theoretical career profiles. They successfully used a two-step cluster analysis technique to create career profiles. This analysis allowed for clusters to be analysed by various factors including motivation, employment and demographics. The analysis resulted in four career profiles: Solid Citizen, Wanderer, Trapped/Lost, and Hired Hand. Participants allocated to the Solid Citizen cluster included those in education, government and the public sector, health and social work, marketing, science and research – a similar profile to professional staff working in higher education. This cluster rated ‘high’ on self-directed and values-driven career attitudes and psychological mobility, and low on physical mobility. The participants in this cluster were mainly women, 30–50 years of age, with a university degree and greater than 10-years of work experience.

However, without the use of the original Protean and Boundaryless career scales used to theorise the career profile framework, the results cannot provide a definitive confirmation of this theory. Importantly, an erratum was published that outlined a change to the data analysis resulting to a change from the original clustering. The Protean Career Architect cluster was re-labelled Solid Citizen, and the Curious/Wanderer cluster was renamed Wanderer.
Table 2.6: Protean and Boundaryless career profiles (adapted from Briscoe and Hall 2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career profile</th>
<th>Individual Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lost/Trapped</td>
<td>React to survive, clarify priorities, expand perspective, gain career management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortressed</td>
<td>Find stable opportunities in predictable organisations that match values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wanderer</td>
<td>Continuously find new opportunities, develop self-direction and establish good fit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealist</td>
<td>Value match, curiosity, find challenges to push out of comfort zone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational</td>
<td>Stable organisations with basic performance competence, increase self-awareness to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wo/man</td>
<td>enhance performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid Citizen</td>
<td>Person-organisation fit a must, mobility a threat, leverage contributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hired Hand</td>
<td>Provide services across boundaries, self-awareness with a sense of priorities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protean Career</td>
<td>Leverage capability into meaningful impact, provide stages on which to shine,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architect</td>
<td>learn and engage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This new analysis had significant changes to the make-up of the profile in terms of industry representation, countries included, and a number of other factors such as tenure, age profile and so on. Importantly, this made the conclusions questionable in the original research which had emphasised the need for employers to develop more Protean Career Architects. This original conclusion in itself is problematic. The authors suggested that employers should attempt to develop more Protean Career Architects. However, the theoretical conception of Protean Career Architect suggested that they would be few and far between and potentially difficult to manage in terms of boundary management and keeping them ‘on task’. The original
conclusion also suggested that women and older employees may need performance coaching to keep them motivated by physical mobility. This statement takes no consideration that both of these cohorts of staff might well be motivated by physical mobility but unable to move for example, due to caring responsibilities. The authors went on to suggest that older employees should be encouraged to remain self-directed in their career attitude and that job enrichment may be one way to do this due to their increased need for autonomy.

This suggests that there needs to be some form of reciprocal relationship between the individual’s career self-management behaviours and the organisations responsibilities in this area. It was suggested by Segers et al. (2008) that if organisations did not manage staff well they could move into a Trapped/Lost career profile leading to a loss of understanding on what motivates them to succeed. Chapter 2 identified some key factors that professional staff deemed important for their careers such as good job design, inclusive culture, transparent recruitment and promotion processes, development activities, and good supervision. All employees have the possibility of moving into a Trapped/Lost type profile if their needs are not met, especially if these are deemed to be in breach of the psychological contract. This may then lead to them moving into a state of disequilibrium and therefore dis-correspondence, as predicted in Work Adjustment Theory.

Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng (2016) study was the first study to test Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profiles theory empirically providing an analytical direction for future research in this area. The results show that a 2-step clustering procedure can be used to create career profiles that hold some validity with the original theoretical
propositions. This study concluded that the analyses pointed to four underlying dimensions which were allocated to distinct sets of work motivations. Three career profiles were found in the sample: Solid Citizen, Trapped/Lost, and Protean Career Architect. The Solid Citizen cluster were motivated by personal recognition, taking responsibility, and coping with multiple demands. The Trapped/Lost cluster were motivated by fear of failure and work that requires extra hours. The Hired Hand cluster were motivated by working in a competitive environment, having a commercial outlook, flexibility, exercising authority, and personal recognition. The Wanderer cluster were motivated by flexibility. These results, therefore, indicate that work motivation may be qualitatively different for people aligned to various career clusters. It would be an important next step to test any relationships between career profiles, motivations and vocational behaviour. The analysis by country and by industry was a strength of the analysis as there have been calls in the literature to re-contextualise career theory (Briscoe and Hall 2006a; Dany 2014; Clarke 2013). Considering that industries seemed to cluster together under different career profiles in this study, it would be important to take account of context such as organisational sector, and specific roles in further research.

Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng (2016) used a sample of 1987 mainly degree educated managers and professionals in Canada from various industries to test for career clusters based on Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) theoretical career profiles. Briscoe et al. (2006) Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes scales were used to test for Protean and Boundaryless mindsets. Career commitment, salience, satisfaction, self-efficacy and locus of control were also tested for. This study also confirmed that a 2-step
cluster analysis could be used to create career profiles based on Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profile theory.

Solid Citizens were not significantly different to Trapped/Lost and Protean Career Architects in age, education, or work experience, but the cluster did contain more women. They also had high scores for career commitment, salience, self-efficacy and career satisfaction. Trapped/Lost individuals were younger and had a lower percentage of women within the cluster. They had significantly lower career commitment, self-efficacy and career satisfaction than the other two profiles. They had the most external work locus of control than the other two profiles. Protean Career Architects were older, had the greatest percentage of women, held a higher number of postgraduate degrees than Trapped/Lost but were not significantly different to Solid Citizens. They had the most internal work locus of control. This was one of the most significant findings – that Protean Career Architects and Solid Citizens did not differ appreciably across a number of factors and this would be an area to follow up in future research. Future research should also build on the findings that there were different levels of career satisfaction, commitment, salience as well as self-efficacy across the career profiles. These authors identified that further work should be carried out taking into account context such as sector and organisation, as well as taking a mixed methods approach for data triangulation. As such the following research question was identified:

Can understanding career profiles explain the experiences of higher education professional staff?
As the empirical evidence for career profiles based on Briscoe and Hall's (2006) work is limited to two studies, further investigation of this concept is required, especially in terms of extending the theoretical propositions of the different career profiles and testing contextual factors as highlighted in the two studies above. Although Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) combinations provide a broader perspective of the needs and values of individuals than by studying each career concept separately, it still has some significant limiting factors. It carries with it the issues highlighted for each of the two career concepts above, including the issue of organisational field. Additionally, by using Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) scale that only tests for two Protean and two Boundaryless career attitudes there is still limited ability to gather complex data that more accurately reflects the original career concepts, and indeed complex, multi-layered attitudes to careers that individuals hold. For example, Solid Citizens score high on self-directed, values-driven, and psychological mobility but low on locational mobility. In contrast, Protean Career Architects score highly on all four attitudes. In the original theory, Protean Career Architects were considered to be qualitatively different from Solid Citizens for example, they were thought to be rare in organisations, be leaders, and be required to have organisational impact. Conversely, Solid Citizens were theorised to require autonomy, ability to learn and be challenged, and have strong person-organisational fit. By considering Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng's (2016) call for data triangulation a research aim was identified:

Determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the contemporary career of higher education professional staff
Conceptual Integration

Table 2.7 shows a summary of the main concepts of the seven career theories discussed above, their outcome measures and classification schemes. It can be seen that there has been a move away from a person-environment perspective towards an individual performance perspective. This is most likely related to the, possibly exaggerated, changes to the labour market, from traditional organisational careers where an individuals’ fit within that organisation was key to satisfaction and career success, to the contemporary labour market, marked by insecurity and change. This move has resulted in contemporary career theories that promote the idea of a more transactional relationship between individual and employer. With no long-term loyalty on either side, these theories seem to have dismissed the quite powerful needs of self-actualisation, organisational fit, and the positive aspects of retention on both the individual and the organisation.

This summary and critique led to the development of a conceptual framework (Fig. 2.3) which highlights how each of the seven career theories fit together using Bourdieu’s concept of field and habitus, and the lens of the psychological contract concept in order to potentially gain a greater understanding of these individually and socially constructed influences on workplace needs and behaviours. This is in part a response to calls from scholars. For example, Hackett, Lent, and Greenhaus (1991), in their review of theoretical and empirical advances in the careers literature, suggested that the time was ripe for constructing integrative theories.
### Table 2.7: Summary of main concepts from seven career theories, their outcome measures, and classification scheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holland</th>
<th>TWA</th>
<th>Life-stage</th>
<th>Career anchors</th>
<th>CCT</th>
<th>Protean</th>
<th>Boundaryless</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Key concepts</td>
<td>Personality type</td>
<td>Work needs/values</td>
<td>Self-concept</td>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environment type</td>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Work roles</td>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Outcome</td>
<td>Meaningful work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>Life roles</td>
<td>Interests</td>
<td>expectations</td>
<td>Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Maxi-cycle</td>
<td>Self-concept</td>
<td>Personal goals</td>
<td>Personal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfactoriness</td>
<td>Mini-cycles</td>
<td></td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adjustment</td>
<td>Theatres</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correspondence</td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>Salience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological contract</td>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>Balanced</td>
<td>Balanced</td>
<td>Balanced</td>
<td>Transactional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Stability</td>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>Congruence</td>
<td>Career performance</td>
<td>Stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major characteristic</td>
<td>Person organisation</td>
<td>Person-job fit</td>
<td>Person-job fit</td>
<td>Person-job fit</td>
<td>Performance for</td>
<td>Performance for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classification scheme</td>
<td>fit</td>
<td>Self as object</td>
<td>fit</td>
<td>Self as subject</td>
<td></td>
<td>satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self as object</td>
<td>Self as subject</td>
<td>Self as project</td>
<td>Self as project</td>
<td>Performance for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critique</td>
<td>Changes in cognitive style and work practices</td>
<td>Lack of emphasis on how fit is attained and maintained</td>
<td>Not enough consideration of social and cultural factors</td>
<td>Lack of consideration of the extent of changes to externalities and impact on anchors</td>
<td>Emphasises individual agency but lacks consideration of structure, power and privilege</td>
<td>Emphasises individual agency but lacks consideration of structure, power and privilege</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>underplayed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Psychological contract | Relational | Relational | Balanced | Balanced | Balanced | Transactional |
| Outcomes | Satisfaction | Stability | Congruence | Congruence | Career performance | Stability | Intrinsic |
|          | Tenure | | | | | | satisfaction |
| Major characteristic | Person organisation | Person-job fit | Person-job fit | Person-job fit | Performance for | Performance for |
| Classification scheme | fit | Self as object | fit | Self as subject | | satisfaction |
|          | Self as object | Self as subject | Self as project | Self as project | Performance for | |
| Critique | Changes in cognitive style and work practices | Lack of emphasis on how fit is attained and maintained | Not enough consideration of social and cultural factors | Lack of consideration of the extent of changes to externalities and impact on anchors | Emphasises individual agency but lacks consideration of structure, power and privilege | Emphasises individual agency but lacks consideration of structure, power and privilege |
|          | underplayed | | | | | | |

123
They argued that integration could bring together conceptually related constructs such as self-efficacy and self-concept, to more fully explain outcomes that are common to a number of career theories such as satisfaction, and stability, and account for seemingly diverse constructs such as interests, abilities, and needs. Borgen (1991, 280) also concluded that ‘today vocational psychology has unprecedented prospects for integration’. However, although this integration has been done to some extent in some of the theories mentioned above, there is still an overwhelming lack of both integration and the place of context in contemporary career theories, even with other scholars calling more recently for this to take place (Akkermans and Kubasch 2017; Clarke 2013; Inkson et al. 2012; Rodrigues et al. 2015). This led to the following research aim:

Evaluate the application of a new multi-theoretical framework for understanding the careers of higher education professional staff.

The conceptual multi-theoretical framework starts by utilising Bourdieu’s concept of field and habitus by suggesting that the social field that an individual is part of is important for the development of vocational personality. Vocational personality is a dynamic and constructed concept that is influenced through social institutions such as school and community before entering the workplace. This developmental stage of the lifespan directly affects the career-related needs and values of individuals that influence vocational and career choice, and is played out through the span of their career. Although this aspect of the framework is outside the scope of this thesis it was felt important to highlight this as one of the main areas that affects later vocational choice and career development through habitus and doxa effecting for
example, how long an individual stays in education, the course of study they choose at college or university and so on. The framework then shows that the sector field is critical for the organisational field that sits within it as discussed above (The Sector of HE). The organisation forms its own habitus through the influence of the sector and organisational agents. This organisational field and its habitus have a significant impact on the individual in terms of organisational culture, power and status dynamics, and how individuals navigate through this, mostly replicating the structures so they continue to operate as they have always done. This is typified by the difficulty for black and ethnic minority staff to reach senior levels within HE through the use of symbolic violence, for example.

This framework then integrates the psychological contract by suggesting that between organisational habitus and an individual’s career needs and values, the psychological contract is developed. This then effects the individual’s relationship with the organisation, and that both habitus and the psychological contract effects career self-management behaviours. This framework goes on to integrate key concepts from various careers literature that helps to understand the contemporary organisational career (see Table 2.7). For example, individuals have various career needs as suggested by various scholars such as security, autonomy, service, learning and growth development, meaningful work and so on. Adaptation is the career behaviours of ensuring person-organisational fit is maintained, planning for the future, increasing self-efficacy and confidence for changes. Vocational development is the requirement for the development of career capital over the course of the lifespan to ensure ongoing performance for job security, growth for self-
actualisation, learning development for promotion, and being ready for times of career transition.

The conceptual framework argues that career decision-making is not made in isolation but considers the organisation’s habitus, that is built up and constantly reconstituted and that itself evolves from the sector field, and which itself is influenced by the wider social field. Individual agency is also recognised as important and that individual decision-making takes place within these constructs which are important for the development of career adaptability. This interplay between structure and self is an ongoing and dynamic process over the lifespan which influences needs and values, vocational development, transitions and transits to create a holistic career progress narrative.
Figure 2.3: Conceptual framework integrating the concepts of field, habitus, psychological contract and psycho-social career needs
Conclusion to Part B

This section has reviewed the key career theories for the development of a conceptual framework starting with a discussion of the labour market in higher education. It was suggested that higher education has moved from a strong ILM to a hybrid type labour market, with consequences for staff in terms of career planning and management. Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice was then outlined and an argument made to utilise this unified social science theory within the careers literature to more fully contextualise individuals’ career-related behaviours taking into account boundary conditions (field), habitus and power relations. Seven significant career theories were then summarised and critiqued highlighting how career theories have moved from the idea of the individual as an object, that is how can the individual fit within the organisation, to the individual as subject, including how to create conditions for self-actualisation, to individual as project to maintain employability for multiple career possibilities. This move to ‘individual as project’ is reflected in many contemporary career theories, especially the Protean and Boundaryless career concepts which valorise individual agency and do not account for context or power. This critical review of the careers literature and the introduction of a unified social science theory resulted in the creation of a conceptual framework to show how, by combining structure and agency, a better understanding of contemporary careers could be reached.
The following chapter presents the epistemological stance, the analytical framework, research methodology, a quality framework for evaluating mixed methods research and specific research methods used.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction to the Chapter
This chapter details the research aims and approach taken in this study, including the worldview that underpinned the research along with a consideration of ethical issues and researcher status. It outlines the analytical framework utilised as a lens through which the results were viewed. The research aims, design, methodology, and methods are explained, including the data collection and analysis processes. Data trustworthiness is explored through validity and reliability and a quality framework for mixed methods is introduced and discussed in relation to this study. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion on the methodological gains that can be achieved through mixed methods research.

Research Aims
Careers have been shaped by extensive political, economic, and social changes. It is argued that employees have moved from traditional careers in organisations where career success was about ‘moving up’ and ‘climbing the ladder’ with a relational psychological contract, to contemporary careers where success is about ‘employability’, ‘work-life balance’ and ‘meaningful work’ with a more transactional psychological contract (Clarke 2009). HE is not set apart from this context and careers for professional staff have changed, from an ‘academic civil servant’ model to the ‘professional staff’ model, in which professional staff are now responsible for significant areas of the university, have increasing authority, and are moving into areas of work traditionally carried out by academic staff (Whitchurch 2010). In light of these extensive changes the question of how professional staff
navigate their careers and what this means for individuals and universities has not been addressed since Shattock writing in 2003 (143) noted that:

Effective university management is demanding and complex and calls for first class intellectual skills as well as the ability to manage in an academic environment…If at the most senior levels of institutional decision-making a combination of academic and administrative skills are required to deliver effective institutional management then it is essential that administrators should … have a career structure which prepares them for responsibility…

Arguably, clear career paths from for example, administrative assistant to senior assistant register to head of administration, have been removed at most universities to an environment where individuals are left to their own devices to map their careers with little or no support from the human resource department.

A review of the research and literature focusing on the careers of professional staff highlighted the lack of engagement in this space (see Chapter 2), and given the importance of these staff to their institutions, this is surprising. With the lack of research in this area, understanding how these staff are interpreting and managing their own careers should be a key imperative for ‘ambitious universities [to] recognize that they thrive on talent and that they have to develop talent wherever it is to be found and use it to their best advantage’ (Shattock 2003, 144).

This research is exploratory in nature, aiming to work towards a richer and deeper understanding of the careers of professional staff than can currently be found in the
literature. It explores the needs, values and behaviours of university professional staff and aims to answer the following research aims to:

1. Determine the factors influencing the contemporary career of higher education professional staff.
2. Evaluate the application of a new multi-theoretical framework for understanding the careers of higher education professional staff.
3. Determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the contemporary career of higher education professional staff.

The specific research questions which were developed are:

1. What is the experience of the ‘contemporary career’ of higher education professional staff?
2. Can understanding career profiles explain the experiences of higher education professional staff?
3. What are the drivers and constraints influencing contemporary career management for higher education professional staff?
4. What is the influence of the psychological contract on career management perceptions of higher education professional staff?

**Research Paradigm**

There are four levels for thinking about how to design a research study: paradigm, theoretical lens, methodological approach, and methods of data collection (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 39). Beliefs about ontology, epistemology, axiology and
methodology all influence the research process (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 42) as these beliefs determine how we see the world: ‘what human knowledge is, what it entails, and what status can be ascribed to it’ (Crotty 1998, 2). At the broadest level a paradigm consists of ontological and epistemological beliefs, although there has been some debate over what a paradigm actually is. Morgan (2007) suggested that a research paradigm could mean one of four things: paradigm as a worldview, paradigm as an epistemological stance, paradigm as a shared belief systems, and paradigm as a model example of research; his view was that a paradigm was a ‘shared belief among the members of a specialty group’ (54). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, 41), however, consider a paradigm a worldview, which includes the ontology, epistemology, axiology, methodology and rhetoric of each approach; this is the approach taken in this study.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, 41) argue for four major worldviews: post-positivism, constructivism, participatory, and pragmatism. Simplistically put, post-positivists believe that there are universal truths to be discovered, constructivists that there are multiple or relative truths to be discovered, participatorists are concerned with political issues, and pragmatists believe that reality can be both singular and multiple. These philosophical worldviews generally align with quantitative, qualitative, qualitative or quantitative, and pluralistic or mixed methods, methodologies respectively (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 40–41; Morgan 2007; Shannon-Baker 2016). Given that this research seeks to understand the influence of both structure and agency on career theory, and on how individuals enact their careers, a pragmatic worldview is adopted, which embraces singular and multiple realities to understand the phenomenon under study in both depth and breadth.
**Epistemological Stance: Pragmatism**

Pragmatism accepts ‘that different knowledge claims result from different ways of engaging with the social world’ (Mertens 2016, 256). Shannon-Baker (2016, 322) argues pragmatism is based on the idea that theories can be ‘generalizable and contextual’ and that the researcher can be reflexive of their own actions and maintain research objectivity in data collection and analysis. Pragmatism accepts that behavioural research can find correlations and causation but that this does not therefore commit the researcher to the adoption of a positivistic ontology, because it is understood that those connections exist in the social arena and are achieved through interpretive acts of the individual/s involved and, therefore, that a social ontology is needed to make sense of the actions (Biesta 2010, 104). Researchers with a pragmatic worldview accept that no one knowledge claim provides *the answer* but that different accounts are simply the results of different ways of engaging with the world and the consequences of the different sets of concomitant action (Biesta 2010, 113). The approach taken here is that of a pragmatic worldview, taking the view that correlations and causations can be discovered, but that as careers are enacted in the social world, the use of a qualitative method with a quantitative method will ‘open valuable windows into the emotional, political, and symbolic lives of organizations’ (Gabriel 2000, 2).

**Researcher Perspective**

This researcher holds a pragmatic worldview, that there is a real world that exists independently from our perceptions, but that how we understand the social world is constructed from our own unique perspectives, that researchers should collect the data in a way that answers the questions most effectively, that there is always room
for bias, that deductive and inductive approaches to data analysis are equally effective, and that, most importantly, the research questions should be the key starting point for the research design (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 45; Feilzer 2009; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004). Knowledge created through a pragmatic worldview is acknowledged as being relative and not absolute, even if some data point to causal relationships; it is acknowledged that there is unpredictability in human experience. Pragmatism leads to the most important question in research – have we helped find out what we want to know (Feilzer 2009)? This set of beliefs influences the creation of both the research questions and the interpretation of findings, extending the belief that ‘all knowledge is knowledge from some point of view, resulting from the use of procedures for knowing a part of the world’ (Fishman 1978, 531). Axiology in this worldview articulates the acceptance that the researcher can be both unbiased, in terms of collecting and analysing data but also biased in terms of their own experience, including their socio-histories, values and interests. Hammersley and Atkinson (2007, 15) argue for reflexivity in the research process, that the researcher acknowledge that the study is not carried out in an unknown state or that the production of knowledge does not have consequences. Although this discussion is usually carried out in relation to qualitative research, and especially in relation to participant-observation, it is an important aspect for this study as, having previously been a member of the community under study – an insider – my own personal understandings of the research questions under study will already have been formed.
The researcher as an Insider

Discussion on the insider-outsider dichotomy has been debated widely in the literature for qualitative research especially with respect to participant observation (for a summary see Mercer 2007). Additionally, discussion of this dichotomy is part of the quality framework in the interpreting stage of mixed methods research – interpretive correspondence – as first suggested by Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006, as cited in Onwuegbuzie and Corrigan 2014). This debate revolves around the issue of reliability and validity but as Foster (2009, 23) notes, this has more to do ‘in terms of research trustworthiness: Is the analysis a reasonable reflection of the phenomenon as presented by the data?’

This needs further consideration in this study, as Styles (1979, 148) pointed out that:

‘In essence, outsider myths assert that only outsiders can conduct valid research …[they] possess the needed objectivity and emotional distance. Analogously, insider myths assert that only insiders are capable of doing valid research in a particular group and that all outsiders are inherently incapable of appreciating the true character of the groups’ life.’

There have been debates on both sides about the positives and negatives of each approach with many scholars arguing that the distinction is problematic; researchers can be neither wholly insiders nor wholly outsiders and that being in this nexus can generate creative insights (Innes 2009; Hammersley and Atkinson 2007; Moore 2015). Having been, until the commencement of this project, an insider – a university professional staff member for 16 years and an active member of the
professional community in the UK (Fellow of the AUA), including as editor of the AUA’s journal, written articles on career issues, and presented at different conferences and universities on career development – after resigning to undertake this PhD, my classification would have been as an outsider. Although this research project did not involve me actively interacting with the participants, it did involve asking for their career stories. The participants from the UK may well have been familiar with my work and indeed one comment confirmed this:

‘Thank you for the great research you are doing Michelle and all the best with your endeavours. I fully support and admire your work and your research.’

The insider/outside debate argues that insider researchers are better placed to identify appropriate research questions, and to the comparative ease of access for someone already known (Paechter 2013). Ease of access was not an issue due to the use of an online survey via a third party, but perhaps being an insider may have brought a greater openness to responses, especially in relation to a perceived sympathetic ear. However, this should not be over-played as most of the Australian participants would not have known me. Therefore, my own position is of both an insider and an outsider, with the most pressing need to be aware of my own assumptions around the area of study. The use of the quality framework (Appendix A) prompted thought about data quality – the fact that each method is required to be implemented with rigour. In this instance, ensuring that the qualitative data analysis was undertaken with an understanding of my own biases from my own personal experiences within the workplace was required.
Theoretical Perspective

This inquiry is based within the management discipline related to the career self-management and organisational career management arenas. It borrows ideas from organisational behavior, and therefore from sociology, with its concerns with the need to understand how specific organisations organise themselves, the agents and relationships that structure these structures and how individuals understand and act within this structure, which goes on to influence the structure itself. This perception should lead to a greater understanding of the needs and values of individuals managing their own careers within the ‘epistemic community’ of professional staff working in universities that this study investigates (Dezalay and Garth 1996, 15).

This idea relates to the pragmatic worldview discussed above in that as careers are enacted within organisations as a social structure, then the need to understand the social reality of the organisation is paramount to understand individuals’ actions. Once this is done, then correlations and causations can be interpreted more fully.

This study uses the sociological Theory of Practice (Bourdieu 1977), which is focused on the inter-relatedness of structure and agency in social systems. Pierre Bourdieu’s aim was to ‘uncover the most deeply buried structures of the different social worlds that make up the social universe, as well as the “mechanisms” that tend to ensure their reproduction or transformation’ (Bourdieu 1996, 1). Sociological theories act as interpretation frameworks for analysis and provide help in understanding complex social phenomena. These theories structure our understanding, through the use of language, that brings precision and coherence. Bourdieu’s theory provides a broad schema for the analysis of organisations, and
concentrates on the importance of power relationships and how they are structured, and how they structure the organisation.

**Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice**

Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice has been argued to be a prime candidate for a unifying theory for career studies (Chudzikowski and Mayrhofer 2011; Iellatchitch, Mayrhofer, and Meyer 2003; Emirbayer and Johnson 2008), as it attempts to provide a bridge between an individual’s connection with the material and social world. This connection is the key to understanding practice – by appreciating that an individual’s understanding is established and developed as a consequence of acts of perception, but that there are defining principles which are both pre-constructed and evolving (Emirbayer and Johnson 2008; Robbins 2012). This seems to be a vitally important perspective in terms of analysing organisational careers which are both agentic but carried out within the bounds of organisational expectations.

There are three concepts central to the Theory of Practice: field, habitus, and capital. These concepts reveal that an individual’s practice results from character (habitus) and their position in a field (capital), within the current condition of the social field. To study organisational careers all three components are needed to achieve a holistic view of structure and agency, as without taking field and habitus into account, capital makes little sense (in Bourdieu’s terms; Emirbayer and Johnson 2008).

**Field**

Bourdieu suggested that a social field, which is an arbitrary social construct, consists of positions occupied by individuals (or organisations), equivalent to a game that is
fluid and complex, and therefore that what happens in the field is boundaried – there are limits to action, and action is also shaped by habitus (Bourdieu 1990, 67). An analysis of the social field means locating it within its historical and relational context, and integrating previous knowledge generating activities and how such knowledge was generated and by whom (Thomson 2012). Organisational studies have generally concentrated on field as deployed horizontally, for example via the HE sector or not-for-profit sector, but there has been little analysis at the vertical level, of for example an organisation as a field (Emirbayer and Johnson 2008). It must be noted here that Bourdieu did not characterise a field as a material place but as a device for understanding, although there are physical embodiments that can be investigated.

Habitus

Habitus is conceptualised as a system of ‘cognitive and motivating structures’ (Bourdieu 1990, 53). It is a structure of perception, thinking, feeling, evaluating, speaking and acting based on our history, how we embody this history into the present, and then how we make choices to act (Emirbayer and Johnson 2008). This is a dynamic process of history creation and embodiment, but not entirely under our full control (Chudzikowski and Mayrhofer 2011; Maton 2012). It is through the workings of habitus that practice (agency) is linked with field (Reay 2004). Bourdieu saw habitus as allowing for individual agency through the generation of a wide number of possible actions but it also predisposes individuals towards certain ways of behaving:
The habitus, as a system of dispositions to a certain practice, is an objective basis for regular modes of behaviour, and thus for the regularity of modes of practice, and if practice can be predicted … this is because the effect of the habitus is that agents who are equipped with it will behave in a certain way in certain circumstances. (Bourdieu 1990a, 77)

Habitus and field exist within a closed loop – participation in a field shapes habitus, which in turn shapes the actions that re/produce the field through an unconscious relationship – doxa – the unconscious and taken-for-granted natural order of things (Bourdieu 2005, 213; Chudzikowski and Mayrhofer 2011). Doxa is the unquestioned ‘sense of reality’ or undisputed ‘natural truth’ that occurs when the social order continues to reproduce the power relations of which they are a product, by misrecognising, and therefore not recognising, the arbitrariness on which they are based (Bourdieu 1977, 164); doxa therefore determines the habitus of the individuals in those fields (Deer 2012). This doxa leads to symbolic violence, ‘a subtle, euphemised, invisible model of domination that presents domination from being recognised as such, and therefore, as misrecognized domination, is socially recognised’ (Krais 1993, 172).

The habitus then, as structured by the field, induces social closure, ‘the process where one group of social actors monopolises advantages by closing off opportunities to another group of outsiders’ (Jarness 2017, 357). Therefore, individuals who embody ‘legitimate culture’ (Moore 2012, 103), that is the correct way of acting or being within their organisational field through for example practiced mimesis – an unconscious effort to reproduce ‘a gesture, an utterance or an
object explicitly constituted as a model’ (Bourdieu 1990, 73) – are rewarded with symbolic capital, which Bourdieu argued was ‘the most valuable form of accumulations’ (Bourdieu 1977, 179).

**Capitals**

Bourdieu argued that individuals undertake a game within a field, a game that is competitive with the other individuals on the field, and at stake in the game is the accumulation of capitals (Chudzikowski and Mayrhofer 2011). There is, however, no ‘level playing field’ as individuals begin with differing levels of capitals, which may provide advantages, and the likelihood that this allows for more capital accumulation for further advancement in the game (Thomson 2012). Bourdieu suggested several different capitals including economic, social, cultural, scientific, linguistic, and symbolic. Three of these are often considered the bases for understanding organisational behaviour: economic, cultural, social. Economic capital has been described as anonymous and general and including salary, assets, and savings, and is easily converted into cultural and social capital (Mayrhofer et al. 2004; Crossley 2012). Cultural capital is embodied due to exposure to a social habitus, and is acquired over time by exposure and converted into physical and cognitive dispositions and acts (Moore 2012, 108). Social capital is related to relationships – recognition, social connections and group or class membership. The fourth type of capital – symbolic – is perhaps the most powerful in understanding the game played in the respective field (Bourdieu 1977, 179).
The term career capital has been much used in careers research with Defilippi and Arthur (1994) taking a resource-based view and defining this as knowing how, knowing whom and knowing why. Career capital as considered within this framework is used as a proxy for the accumulation of capital that can be transferred both within and outside of the organisation – a set of transferable competencies – especially when discussed with self-management behaviours to increase promotion opportunities. However, this is not related back to the differing concepts of capital within Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice, and ignores the concepts of habitus, arguably a powerful means of analysing processes within organisations (Emirbayer and Johnson 2008), and therefore symbolic capital, and field, without which capital accumulation makes no sense. Bourdieu argues it is the accumulation of symbolic capital that creates increased power relations in the field of play.

Symbolic capital can be understood in two ways. Firstly, as a set of values, tastes and lifestyle of some social groups that, for whatever reason, have been deemed superior than others and that confer social advantage. Secondly, as a form of difference between group members as capital accumulation does not necessarily translate into a habitus that confers symbolic capital. Therefore, symbolic capital allows for analysis between in-group individuals as some will have developed ‘well-formed habitus’ and others will have not (Moore 2012, 99). Symbolic capital reproduces inequalities and power relations and acts as a barrier, even with other capitals accumulation.

Bourdieu’s interest was engaging in a critical appraisal of structural forms of power in various forms. As this study is interested in the question of changes to career
orientations and the impact on the psychological contract, this over-arching theoretical concept seemed a suitable tool in which to interrogate how structure and agency affected individual careers. The study of careers requires an inter-disciplinary approach taking into account organisational behaviour, human resource management, economics, and sociology at individual, organisational, and societal level (Iellatchitch, Mayrhofer, and Meyer 2003). This complexity makes the study of careers multi-dimensional and poses a difficulty in applying a transformational theoretical approach. The study of organisational careers would benefit from a greater integration of an overarching or ‘grand’ theory with lower-order career theories in order to understand an individual’s lived and unique career story. Bourdieu’s concepts have been used to underpin many studies in organisations, and to some degree career theory although there is little direct influence integrating the key conceptual ideas of field, habitus and capitals to generate a more holistic understanding of organisational career behaviour (Townley 2014). There is a continued lack of integration of unified explanatory theories with contemporary career theories, even with other scholars calling more recently for this to take place (Akkermans and Kubasch 2017; Clarke 2013; Inkson et al. 2012; Ricardo Rodrigues et al. 2015).

A Mixed Methods Methodology

Many researchers now consider mixed methods to be a distinctive methodology as it offers a strong and coherent framework for answering complex social research questions (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner 2007) and has ‘distinctive methodological components and distinctive markers of practice’ (Greene 2008, 20); Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010, ix) call it the ‘third
methodological movement’. When, in 2007, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) asked a number of researchers for a definition of mixed methods research (MMR) they gathered 19 different definitions with the key ideas being the requirement for the use of multiple methods, and integration of methods and/or data throughout the study. This requirement for data integration has become the dominant challenge for researchers. It is argued that not limiting the merging of data to the final discussion section but rather integrating this throughout the study, could lead to different or better interpretations (Bazeley 2016). These various definitions and position points has led to this working definition of MMR:

-Mixed methods research combines quantitative and qualitative methods and an integration of data at multiple stages in the research study, to improve depth of understanding of the research question/s.

Rationale for Mixed Methods Research

Over the last few decades there has been increased debate over the adequacy of research approaches used in management research, and the need to find ways of dealing with complexity and human behaviour at work (Molina-Azorin et al. 2017; Greenberg 2007; Gummesson 2006). There is still an emphasis on positivism in the management literature. For example, a review by Bazeley (2015) on the journals Academy of Management Journal and Administrative Science Quarterly showed that 71 per cent of articles published used a quantitative methodology, 19.3 per cent qualitative and only 9.6 per cent mixed methods. The careers literature follows this trend with Career Development International (CDI) and Journal of Vocational
Behavior (JVB), two of the leading journals publishing careers research, publishing 109 papers in 2016, 84 of which were quantitative (77 per cent).

It has been suggested that this oversimplifying of complex real-world situations by quantitative analysis reduces their validity, the ability to be creative in the exploration of problems, and may indicate why research outputs have had little impact on practice (Bohme et al. 2012; Gummesson 2006; Azorín and Cameron 2010). These reviews of the literature indicate there is still a relatively small percentage of qualitative papers, and even fewer mixed methods papers published, even though there has been a move in the last few decades to viewing careers from a social constructionist perspective (Cohen 2014). The number of published mixed methods papers was low at generally less than 10 per cent and Molina-Azorin and Cameron (2015, 467) stated that management literature and organisation sciences have a minimal acceptance of mixed methods research and called for researchers to instigate change and embrace mixed methods research.

There have been calls for methodological diversity through the integration of quantitative and qualitative methods to combat these problems in a number of management related disciplines (Azorín and Cameron 2010; Greenberg 2007; Gummesson 2006; Molina-Azorin and Cameron 2015, 483; Morgan 2007). The major benefit of mixed methods research is that integrating the quantitative and qualitative approaches offers the attainment of a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone, generally through triangulation where one set of data enhances the validity of another set (Bryman 2007; Greene 2006). Other advantages include complementarity, which seeks to ‘elaborate, enhance, or
illustrate the results from one method’ to another (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham 2016, 266); development, which uses the results from one method to develop or inform the other method (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham 2016, 260) and offsetting, where the combining of methods allows for offsetting the weaknesses of each to draw on the strengths of both (Bryman 2007).

It has been argued that the goal of mixed methods research is to draw on the strengths and reduce the weaknesses of single methodological studies (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004), and to employ different methods and their concomitant worldviews to provide a rich and insightful understanding of the research problem (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 8). The combination and integration of quantitative data, personal perspectives and researcher interpretation, can be seen as a triangulation strategy that adds ‘rigor, breadth complexity, richness and depth to any inquiry’ as an alternative to validation (Denzin 2012, 82).

Integration has become a critical aspect of MMR and it has been argued that it is interpreted to narrowly to mean the merging or combining of data. Integration, Fetters and Molina-Azorín (2017) argue, should include aspects of philosophy, methodology, and methods. This is an important aspect to consider as there has been a call for mixed methods research to incorporate theory from a broad range of frameworks to help analyse the results in a more sophisticated manner (Fetters and Molina-Azorín 2017). There are other arguments questioning if integration can be achieved at all due to the epistemological differences, or because of the nature of the object of the study itself (Uprichard and Dawney 2016). As the working definition of mixed methods presented above indicates, this study aims to integrate data at
multiple levels throughout the research design, including importantly at interpretation stage to aid in understanding this complex phenomenon.

*Ensuring Quality*

There has been debate on the kinds of quality criteria that can be applied to mixed methods research (Bryman, Becker, and Sempik 2008; Ivankova 2014) with several scholars providing concepts of quality (Creswell 2010; Dellinger and Leech 2007; Ivankova 2014; O’Cathain 2010; Onwuegbuzie and Johnson 2006. However, there is still no accepted criteria for evaluating the quality of mixed methods research. O’Cathain (2010), after extensive and critical review of the literature, proposed an integrated quality framework for assessing mixed methods research which included eight domains of quality (planning, design, data, interpretive rigour, inference transferability, reporting quality, synthesizability, and utility). This quality framework was used to help guide the design and analysis of this research study and the results are presented in Appendix A.

*Research Project Design*

A mixed methods concurrent complementarity design was adopted for this research project (Fig. 3.1). This was decided upon as this researcher has a social ontology, that is with the belief that behavioural organisational research exists within the social arena (Biesta 2010, 104), and believes that careers are also interpreted through the personal lens of the individual who engages in their own meaning-making (Inkson 2004; Yost et al. 2015). After consideration of the research questions, and the calls for methodological diversity in organisational research, this design was considered...
appropriate to elaborate and enhance current theory related to career profiles and the psychological contract.

This study was mixed at three levels – at the conceptualisation, the experiential, and the inferential stage (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2006). At the conceptualisation stage, and in answer to the research questions, this study utilised a concurrent complementarity design (Fig. 3.1) as it collected the data simultaneously and treated the qualitative data as congruent to the quantitative data to seek ‘elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification of the results from one method with the results from the other method’ (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham 2016, 259). At the experiential stage, identical members of the sample participated in the simultaneous collection of both quantitative and qualitative data via an online mixed-method survey instrument (Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2007). This is an appropriate design for this study as the two different types of data were being used to investigate a similar phenomenon: the careers of professional staff. As Creswell et al. (2003, 217) noted, ‘in concurrently gathering both forms of data at the same time, the researcher seeks to compare both forms of data to search for congruent findings.’ Mixing also occurred at the experiential stage as the quantitative data was used to sort the qualitative data, although both were analysed using appropriate techniques related to the paradigmatic principles of the methodologies which ensured methodological rigour (Greene and Hall 2010, 138).
Figure 3.1: Concurrent complementarity design (adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 69)

At the inferential stage, mixing occurred to synthesise and draw conclusions from the two sets of data with the quantitative data being used to establish the presence and significance of the phenomenon under study and the qualitative data to provide descriptive interpretation of the phenomenon. The use of qualitative data could be argued to be particularly important in careers research as individuals construct their career stories through retrospective sense-making and prospective meaning making, to create an overarching career story viewed through their own particular lens (Inkson 2004; Yost et al. 2015). This design also provides data for convergent and holistic triangulation. Integration needs to move beyond the assemblage of different types of data, it requires a synthesis to discover connections and insights (Tunarosa and Glynn 2017). By using both convergent and holistic triangulation it was hoped that convergent themes would be found across the methods and that one method would offer additional insight that could be used to extend the understanding of the phenomenon under study (Turner, Cardinal, and Burton 2017).
**Research Method**

*The Mixed-Method Instrument*

Guided by the research questions outlined above, a new mixed-method survey instrument (Appendix B) was constructed consisting of items measuring demographics such as age, gender, educational attainment, and ethnicity, and items relating to work environment such as salary, number of promotions, and employment terms. To ascertain the perceptions of professional staff in relation to contemporary career theory, psychological contract requirements and general satisfaction, several previously validated scales were used. Due to the creation of this bespoke survey from the previous scales measuring significantly different items, the survey was piloted (Phase 1) to ensure that the instrument was not too complicated or inappropriate for what was trying to be measured. The results from the pilot study would not be included in the full-scale survey (Phase 2) results due to concern over contamination (Peat 2002, 57). It should be noted that there was no way of ensuring that participants who had completed the pilot survey did not complete the full survey.

Firstly, the Protean career orientation was measured using 14 items from Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth’s (2006) scale. The scale contained two subscales: self-directed career attitude (eight items), for example ‘I am in charge of my own career’ and ‘I am responsible for my success or failure in my career’, and values-driven career attitude (six items), for example ‘I navigate my own career, based upon my personal priorities, as opposed to my university’s priorities’ and ‘I’ll follow my own guidance if my University asks me to do something that goes against my values’.
The subscales used a five-point response scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree).

Secondly, the Boundaryless career orientation was measured using 13 items from Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth's (2006) scale with two sub-scales: psychological mobility (eight items), for example ‘I enjoy working with people outside of my university’ and ‘I like tasks at work that require me to work beyond my own department/area of expertise’, and locational mobility (reverse coded, 5 items), for example ‘in my ideal career, I would work for only one university’ and ‘I like the predictability that comes with working continuously for the same university’. The subscales used a five-point response scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree).

Psychological contract items were measured by employees’ expectations (eight items, ‘I expect from my employer…’) and perceived benefits received (eight items, ‘my employer provides me with…’), as outlined by Raeder et al. (2009). Raeder et al. (2009) original scale included five dimensions: security and retention, support for career and skill development, flexibility (provided by the employer), participation, loyalty and performance. Due to the internal reliability results, and the authors’ suggestion that the scales could be improved somewhat, only two dimensions were used in this study’s scale. First was the subscale for security and retention (two items), ‘I expect job security’ and ‘I expect loyalty’ (and the concomitant question ‘my employer provides me with job security/loyalty’), and secondly, the subscale for support for career and skill development (six items), for example ‘I expect support in developing a wide range of skills’ and ‘I expect opportunities to apply my skills in a
variety of contexts’. Responses were recorded on a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Breach of psychological contract was measured by subtracting perceived benefits received from expectations.

The final career question was a free text box asking participants to relate their ‘career story’. The free text question was used to supplement the closed questions, to provide an area of exploration into this subject area and to triangulate the quantitative data (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 71). The idea for collecting a career story was deemed appropriate as there has been a move in the last few decades to viewing careers from a social constructionist perspective (Hartung 2013, 41). The use of stories have been argued to offer potential for enhancing career theory and for returning individuals to the centre of organisational theory (Cohen and Mallon 2001). Stories give context to facts via a personal lens which the narrator views their career through and engages in meaning-making (Inkson 2004; Yost et al. 2015). The survey was hosted online at SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey 2017) and the URL disseminated as described in the ‘sampling’ section below.

The results from Phase 1, the pilot study, showed that the data was skewed towards the positive end of the ratings scale in most cases i.e. most respondents showed high levels of contemporary career attitudes. Therefore, it was decided that in Phase 2, the full survey, the mixed-method instrument would include two additional previously validated scales to test for psychological factors that may account for such high ratings and would act as control measures. First, a 15-item job satisfaction scale was included (Warr, Cook, and Wall 1979) as Kinman (2016) noted that insight into job satisfaction in different occupational groups was crucial, and Supeli and Creed
(2016) showed that reduced job satisfaction was strongly related to Protean career orientation. Responses were recorded on a 5-point rating scale from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree and items assessed satisfaction with aspects of the job itself such as ‘how satisfied are you with the amount of variety in your work, your rate of pay, your colleagues’. Secondly, a 10-item positive and negative affect scale was included (Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988) to test for recent mood feelings with questions such as ‘how much time, in the last few weeks, has your job made you feel gloomy, cheerful, optimistic’. It has been argued that individuals displaying negative or positive affectivity may influence ratings across the measures and may introduce systematic variance in relationships obtained between variables (Podsakoff et al. 2003), although others have argued that there is no evidence for a universal effect (Spector 2006).

The rest of the survey, having been validated in the pilot, was unchanged, except for a tidying up of language and typographical errors that had been identified. Additionally, to ensure against common method variance, that is variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs being measured, a Harmen’s single factor score was run in SPSS (Business Machines International 2013). Although scholars question the use of this statistical procedure, it is a common diagnostic technique for assessing the extent to which common method variance may be a problem, although it has been argued that it is an insensitive test (Podsakoff et al. 2003). However, it does give an indication if further analysis of the problem would be warranted. The results indicated that common method variance was not of great concern and therefore unlikely to confound the interpretations of results.
Participants

The study utilised a multi-method cross-sectional survey design to collect quantitative and qualitative data. For Phase 1, the pilot survey, the online survey was open for responses in May 2015. For this pilot study, a convenience sample was used to gather a suitable number of responses quickly. As this was a pilot study, a convenience sample was appropriate as data analysis would be used to test the reliability, internal consistency and construct validity of the survey items (de Vaus 2002, 90; Zikmund et al. 2003, 305–308, 396) and to explore the data responses, therefore 30 or more responses was considered adequate. The sample could be achieved by leveraging the researcher’s LinkedIn connections (220). LinkedIn is a social media-networking site that allows colleagues to connect to each other in relation to work and professional interests; it was launched in 2003 and now has 300 million members worldwide (LinkedIn 2017). It is widely used in HE with most universities in Australia and the UK having a presence as well as the Australian and UK professional associations for professional/general staff – the Association of Tertiary Education Managers (ATEM) and Association of University Administrators (AUA), respectively. Little research has been done on the use of LinkedIn as a sampling tool, although one study highlighted that of all the social media platforms used (including Facebook, Twitter, blog) and traditional media, LinkedIn had the lowest participant recruitment rate (Middleton et al. 2014). Of these LinkedIn connections, not all would be appropriate as the participant identity was specific, that of professional staff in Australia (HE Worker level 7 and above; Fair Work Ombudsman 2015) and the UK (salary spinal point 30 and above; University and College Union 2001).
Phase 2, the full survey, also used a convenience sample, due to its low-cost and ease of access to the groups required (Bryman and Cramer 1994, 104; Zikmund et al. 2003, 396), drawn from members of the professional associations, the AUA in the UK and ATEM in Australia. Two-hundred and twenty six surveys were returned with 139 including career stories in the open text box. The membership of both groups at the time of the study was 3600 and 1600 worldwide, respectively, although not all members of the associations would be based in the UK or Australia, or be on the grade/level highlighted below (membership data is unavailable to the author).

Both the AUA and ATEM included a call for participants in their regular email update to their members (Appendices C and D). The required participants needed to not be on academic contracts, but be on the HE Worker contract at Level 7 or above in Australia (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2015) and on the HE Single Pay Spine at Point 30 or above in the UK (University and College Union 2001).

**Ethical Considerations**

There are several ethical considerations that have been highlighted by scholars as potential issues relating to survey research being conducted online (Rhodes 2003; Nosek, Banaji, and Greenwald 2002). Firstly is the issue of informed consent. With the distance between researcher and participant, the question has been raised if it is even possible to ensure informed consent online. There are several ways that web portals for surveys can request informed consent, dependent on service used, such as a tick box, creation of a code, or simply by reading a statement and clicking on the next button. This final option is what this research study used via SurveyMonkey (2017). Secondly is the issue of anonymity and privacy, a particular issue for web-based surveys. Although encryption can protect responses, it cannot protect against
hacking of IP addresses, although there are services that provide anonymous access to the Internet. Within this research study, the issue of privacy in this context was considered unproblematic considering the questions under consideration. However, more of an issue is the potential lack of confidentiality when the researcher collects the data. When downloading the raw data from SurveyMonkey, IP addresses are included. Although this researcher does not have the requisite skills to find out who owns that IP address, some researchers may do so. However, only a small number of IP addresses would have ‘fixed’ owners as most Internet Service Providers use floating IP addresses for a single session (Nosek, Banaji, and Greenwald 2002) so this was not considered a risk. This research study emphasised the confidentiality of the data through storage on password protected computers and not sharing of the information beyond the researcher and the supervisors. Thirdly is the issue of harm. There is little that can be done when the participant is at a distance if they have negative reactions to the questions. This researcher used a statement at the start of the survey outlining what the participant could do such as shut the survey down and if needed to email the researcher (Appendix C). Due to the nature of the questions this was an area considered low risk.

Consistent with Murdoch University’s requirements the research was submitted to, and approved by, the Human Research Ethics Committee. This entailed completing a pro-forma outlining the issues above and the responses to them, as well as including all the questions for review; the project was approved (2015/123) with no amendments required on 25 June 2015 (Appendix D, with amendment for full survey in Appendix E).
Data Analysis

Quantitative Data Analysis

Data Entry

All survey data was downloaded from SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey 2017) into Microsoft Excel (Microsoft 2017). Item results were converted to numerical data and a codebook maintained for assistance in the analysis. Manual checks for accuracy were carried out. Data was then uploaded to SPSS v.22 (International Business Machines 2013).

Data Screening

Data was analysed for missing values and a decision taken to exclude data listwise due to the variables having as little as 10 per cent or less missing data (Hair et al. 2014, 46). These were calculated for all appropriate variables, to allow for initial understanding of the data. Missing data was analysed by a simple process of tabulating the data with the percentages of data missing from each case (Hair et al. 2014, 45). The assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were assessed by examining skewness and kurtosis values and scatter plot diagrams (Hair et al. 2014, 69); the sample was normal in distribution. The Shapiro-Wilks test showed that the summated scales of values-driven, locational- and psychological-mobility were all non-normal although only to a small degree and due to the size of the sample it was considered that the effects would be negligible (Hair et al. 2014, 70).
Factor Analysis

For the Protean and Boundaryless career orientation items, psychological contract items, satisfaction, and positive and negative affect, Maximum Likelihood Estimation was carried out to identify the latent dimensions of the variables (Hair et al. 2014, 70; Preacher and MacCallum 2003). Oblique rotation was used as it was assumed that the underlying dimensions may be correlated with each other, with eigenvalues greater than one, and with a 0.40 factor loading as the sample size was over 200 (Hair et al. 2014, 112+115); all results were reported. Cronbach’s alpha scores were computed for the summated scales (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994, 252).

Breach Difference Score

Psychological contract breach was measured by subtracting perceived benefits from expectations (Gerber et al. 2012). If the difference score was zero the perceived benefits and expectations corresponded, if it was negative expectations exceeded perceived benefits and if it was positive then perceived benefits did not meet expectations. Breach was also compared using the significant differences between means by running a paired-sample t-test.

Reliability

As all sub-scales were found to be reliable, variables were computed for self-directed career attitude, values-driven career attitude, psychological mobility, locational mobility, traditional psychological contract expectations, contemporary psychological contract expectations, traditional psychological contract perceived benefits, contemporary psychological contract perceived benefits, traditional
psychological contract breach, contemporary psychological contract breach, satisfaction, positive and negative affect.

**Cluster Analysis**

To test for types of career profile as theorised in the framework developed by Briscoe and Hall (2006) a cluster analysis was performed. This analytical technique has been used in other empirical studies to test for career profiles within this framework (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). This is an appropriate method to determine the career profiles as cluster analysis groups similar data together to reveal associations and identify patterns to structure the data, although it does require a strong conceptual framework for the potential clusters, as statistical clusters can often be modelled even when there is no logical basis (Hair et al. 2014, 419).

A non-hierarchical clustering process was carried out, via K-means analysis, to find the best cluster solution including the summated scales of self-directed career attitude, values-driven career attitude, psychological mobility and locational mobility as the variables. Sixteen cluster solutions were first identified as this was the theoretical number from Briscoe and Hall (2006). The clusters were then evaluated and the clusters reassigned to create the most distinct clusters (Hair et al. 2014, 443–445). Once this was complete a two-step clustering procedure was carried out with the two-cluster solution identified from step 1 to produce the cluster patterns. The Bayesian information criterion (BIC) algorithm was used as the goal of modelling was descriptive, that was, to create a model that would include the most meaningful factors influencing the outcome, based on an assessment of relative importance; BIC
tends to derive models with fewer clusters with better fit (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). Clusters were then compared using analysis of variance with cluster membership the factor and the career attitudes the dependent variables, with post hoc t-tests using Bonferroni correction for comparison amongst clusters (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010).

**Correlation and Regression Analysis**

Bivariate correlation was used to explore whether there was a significant correlation between two of the continuous variables and the strength and direction of that relationship with different correlation matrices created dependent on data analysis (Gravetter and Wallnau 2016), with both non-significant and significant (p=<.001, <.01, <.05) results reported. A linear multiple regression modelling approach was used to test various dependent variables, for example, intent to leave, and satisfaction, and their relationship with various independent variables based upon the considerable amount of theory in this area, as well as the results from the correlation matrix (Hair et al. 2014, 157+168). Violations to linear assumptions were tested via heteroscedasticity, variance inflation factors and tolerance statistics to identify multicollinearity (Hair et al. 2014, 196–197, 217). Overall model fit was reported as the adjusted coefficient of determination ($R^2$) to explain the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable/s. The significance of the overall model was reported as the change in $R^2$ and the significance based on the F-statistic change.
Necessary Condition Analysis

Necessary condition analysis (NCA) was undertaken to test if psychological contract breach was a necessary but not sufficient requirement for intent to leave. NCA is a tool to increase clarity on complex social phenomena, by concentrating on the most important factors. A necessary determinant is a factor that must be present to achieve an outcome, but its presence is not sufficient to obtain that outcome (Dul 2016). However, there were no significant results of this analysis.

Qualitative Data Analysis

In the pilot study, data analysis was undertaken via qualitative content analysis, an approach which is an accepted and appropriate way for testing both pre-existing categories through logical deduction and deriving insights and meanings from a more inductive approach (Cho and Lee 2014; Ezzy 2002, 84). Qualitative content analysis has been described as ‘a method for systematically describing the meaning of qualitative data’ and has three features: it results in the reduction of data, it is systematic, and it is flexible (Schreier 2014, 170). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) categorised qualitative content analysis into three different types: conventional content analysis, directed content analysis, and summative content analysis. Phase 1, the pilot study, used the directed content analysis approach as the quantitative results provided the predefined categories for the analysis of the data set. The predefined categories were based on six issues which were, or arose from, the hypotheses: self-directed career attitude, values-driven career attitude, psychological mobility, locational mobility, job security and promotion. All the career stories were read and the text highlighted without coding. The goal of this analysis was to provide a form of verification to the previous results. There are limitations to this approach, for
example there is a strong inherent bias by using pre-determined categories, which can lead researchers to often finding supportive rather than non-supportive evidence (Hsieh and Shannon 2005). Additionally, deductive content analysis restricts the extent to which the data speak for themselves, thereby there is a risk of missing important concepts from the qualitative data set (Ezzy 2002, 85). Therefore, for the full survey data analysis a thematic analysis approach was taken using based on Braun and Clarke (2006).

First, a preliminary understanding of the data was gained through reading all the career stories provided to gain an overall feel for the data, then the two different types of content analysis were employed. First, using a theoretical thematic analysis method, pre-defined theoretical concepts were used relating to the original theoretical definitions, as well as the findings from the pilot. It has been suggested that coding frames should consist of at least one main category but no more than three levels of mutually exclusive sub-categories due to complexity issues (Schreier 2014, 178). In this study, the main coding categories were related to the theoretical constructs and the sub-categories were then related to other definitional concepts within this over-arching category. For example, Solid Citizen was used as a main category and then sub-categories of organisational fit, and promotion opportunities were used derived from the theoretical framework on career profiles; another sub-category of autonomy was used derived from the findings of the pilot.

Second, an inductive thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke 2006) was used to capture key concepts derived from the data itself that had not been categorised in the previous step. Steps outlined in Schreier (2014, 187) suggest that there are five key
steps: 1) reading the material until a relevant concept is encountered, 2) checking if that category has already been created, 3) if so, subsuming this under that respective category, 4) if not, creating a new category, 5) continuing this process until all relevant concepts encountered. In this study, the stories were read word for word to derive any other categories that had not already been captured. For this analysis, the career stories were read a number of times to become familiar with the data set, noting particular areas that stood out that could later be used for codes. Thematic analysis looks at patterns occurring across data rather than within one datum, so it was important to go through an iterative process of reading and initial coding. Due to the large numbers of career stories, coding took place until saturation was reached. Once the data was coded, codes were sorted into themes; themes were then reviewed to ensure that they accurately reflected the data set.

Methodological Gains

An important question that any mixed methods researcher must ask themselves is ‘is a mixed methods study going to add more value than a single method study?’ due to its increased demands on the researcher themselves and the time to collect and analyse mixed data sets. There is evidence in the management discipline that mixed methods research adds value by increasing the validity of findings through triangulation (Azorín and Cameron 2010; Bazeley 2015) and giving a ‘deeper, broader and more illustrative findings’ (Hurmerinta-Peltomäki and Nummela 2006); this was found to be especially true when mixing occurred in several stages of the research which often produced new or contradictory findings. Other work has suggested that there is no evidence that mixed method approaches result in increased interpretative depth or rigour (Creamer and Tendhar 2015). The data on the validity
of outcomes and knowledge extension provided by mixed methods research is, however, considered to be pointing to the former perspective, for example the number of citations of mixed methods research is shown to be higher than mono-method studies (Creamer and Tendhar 2015).

This study sets out to explore the importance of organisational context in understanding how professional staff manage their careers in universities, and to explore their career needs, values and behaviours through testing of a career profile theoretical framework and the psychological contract. With the scope of the study it was conceived at the conceptualisation stage that a mixed methods research design should result in an extension of theory due to the data sources being used for convergent and divergent triangulation. Additionally, as Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice was to be used as a analytical lens through which to view the entire study which is concerned with structure, relationships and action, it was deemed critical to include both quantitative and qualitative methods to ensure these facets were captured.

**Conclusion to the Chapter**

This chapter has outlined the development of this research study by positioning it within a worldview, outlining the theoretical perspective to be used, and then exploring what the use of mixed methods research can contribute to the area of careers research. It has considered the strengths and weaknesses of combining methods and the need to ensure methodological rigour when mixing epistemologically different data. It has reflected on the wider issue of quality, an area of concern to scholars, and has highlighted how the use of a quality framework can
provide a scaffolding for the development and implementation of the research study. It also briefly discussed and made explicit the status of the researcher in the project. Ethical considerations were noted, and the section went on to outline the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis techniques used in both phases of the study, concluding with a discussion of the methodological gains from mixed methods research. The next chapter outlines the results of the research and is presented in five different parts as published papers, conference papers, or papers under consideration.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter presents the research results from the pilot and full surveys of professional staff working in universities in Australia or the UK. The aim of this chapter is to address the following research aims:

1. Determine the factors influencing the contemporary career of higher education professional staff.

2. Determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the contemporary career of higher education professional staff.

It will also ask the following research questions:

1. What is the experience of the ‘contemporary career’ of higher education professional staff?

2. Can understanding career profiles explain the experiences of higher education professional staff?

3. What are the drivers and constraints influencing contemporary career management for higher education professional staff?

4. What is the influence of the psychological contract on career management perceptions of higher education professional staff?
The survey generated a wealth of data on the views of professional staff on their careers within universities. The first paper (Part A) concentrates on validating the instrument and presents some initial results on career profiles. The second paper (Part B) presents the first set of results from the full survey presenting the career profiles which professional staff could be grouped into. The third paper (Part C) discusses the relationship between career factors and the psychological contract, including data on psychological contract breach. The fourth paper (Part D) presents a qualitative analysis of the career stories submitted as part of the multi-method instrument. The final paper (Part E) presents and discusses how the use of a mixed methods research design can lead to a greater understanding of the complexities of people’s careers.

**Part A**


**Part B**

Part C

Part D

Part E
PART A


Introduction to Part A

This paper focuses on the results of validating the reliability of the instrument to be used in the full study, and outlining some preliminary findings. The paper aimed to provide information for the first research aim to ‘determine the factors influencing the contemporary career of higher education professional staff’ and the research question ‘can understanding career profiles explain the experiences of higher education professional staff?’. The paper first outlines why the issue of understanding the careers of professional staff is an important one and that a rigorous application of career theory should be applied to help create a sophisticated understanding of the needs, values and behaviours of individuals when managing their careers. Second, the paper summarises the move from a traditional organisational career that was the norm until approximately the early 1990s to a more contemporary career model that scholars argue represents the labour market of today.

The traditional career offered long-term, secure employment and guaranteed benefits in return for high commitment and high productivity. Extensive economic changes in the 1970s and a move by organisations to re-size and re-structure to cope with increased competition, led to new career models being developed based on constructivist approaches to career theory. That individuals constructed their own
Two new conceptual models were developed to understand contemporary careers: Protean and Boundaryless career theories. The Protean career theory reflects that an individual’s agency is the driving factor behind career management in that they are self-directed in their career management activities and driven to finding a values match. It emphasises intrinsic motivation from meaningful and challenging work, autonomy, and ongoing learning and development needs for psychological growth (Hall 1976). The Boundaryless career views individuals as free agents not bounded by one organisation, or indeed sector, but able to move easily between organisations. They are theorised to require psychological and locational mobility (Arthur et al. 2005; Sullivan and Baruch 2009); psychological mobility has been defined as ‘the perception of the capacity to make transitions’ (Sullivan and Arthur 2006, 21). Individuals are primarily motivated by intrinsic success but hierarchical success across organisations is also important. They are mobile, flexible, value work-life balance, and require skill development for enhanced marketability (Forrier, Sels, and Verbruggen 2005).

Scholars have argued that contemporary career theory has developed faster than what individuals enact in real-life. Many people still see the benefits of working in organisations, even if they have embraced a more contemporary view of the labour market (Sullivan and Baruch 2009). The Protean and Boundaryless career theories have often been used interchangeably as, for example being self-directed is not limited to those showing a Protean career orientation. Briscoe and Hall (2006) suggested that by combining Protean and Boundaryless careers a more nuanced social realities was seen as the most important aspect of understanding people’s decision-making processes and career stories (Nichols 2007, 61; Sharf 2013, 15).
understanding of individuals’ career types and requirements could be created. Alongside this, other scholars have argued that many individuals have created hybrid type career orientations, valuing aspects from traditional and contemporary careers (Clarke 2013; McDonald et al. 2005).

Moving forward, the paper tested a number of hypotheses based on the above literature as well as the validity and reliability of the mixed-method instrument. The results showed, via confirmatory factor analysis, that the previously validated scales (Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth 2006) of self-directed (α=0.78), values driven (α=0.76), psychological mobility (α=0.90) and locational mobility (α=0.81) had high levels of internal reliability. This study showed that self-directed and values-driven aspects of the Protean career attitudes were significantly correlated (r=.450, p=<.05) which agreed with Briscoe et al. (2006) results. This is in contrast to Baruch’s (2014) study that did not confirm the two-factor model of the Protean construct. The psychological and locational mobility attitudes were not significantly correlated, which also agreed with Briscoe et al. (2006) results.

A comparative analysis was undertaken of all four career factors but no significant differences between Australian and UK participants was found. The results from the quantitative data showed that the means for the four career attitudes tested for were high (self-directed 4.15, psychological mobility 4.24) to medium (values-driven 3.81, locational mobility 3.65) showing that the participants were reporting that they were enacting aspects of Protean and Boundaryless careers. The quantitative data results also highlighted that a high percentage of staff valued job security, loyalty, a career and opportunities for promotion – aspects of a traditional organisational career.
The qualitative data, analysed via directed content analysis, supported the quantitative findings and goes some way to further validating the internal reliability of the questionnaire (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 62).

This study provisionally supports a number of previous studies that argued that employees might be more psychologically mobile than locationally mobile as a comprehensive review by Rodrigues and Guest (2010) on data from Europe, Japan and the US showed that there has been no increase in organisational mobility from the 1980s. This study also provides evidence for the idea that employees are enacting a hybrid career, by balancing the needs for job security and an organisational career, remnants from traditional organisational careers, with the need for more contemporary factors such as values match, self-directed career management, ongoing learning, and skill development and utilisation.

***

Abstract

This article confirms the reliability of a Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes scale, tested in a pilot study. Additionally, it summarises the results of this study into the career attitudes of professional staff in Australian and UK universities. A mixed methods approach was taken using a survey consisting of both closed questions on a 5-point Likert type scale, and an open text question that asked for respondents’ career stories. The convenience sample consisted of 19 staff from Australia and 12 from the UK. The findings suggest that professional staff create a hybrid approach to managing their career, showing aspects of Protean, Boundaryless and traditional

Careers of business management staff in Australian and UK universities: A mixed methods pilot study
career attitudes and that there are no significant differences between the career attitudes of these staff in Australia and the UK. There is a clear need for further research to test these results, which could be used to inform universities’ human resource strategies.

Keywords
Professional staff, career theory, Protean, Boundaryless, hybrid, mixed methods

Introduction
Universities, as large businesses in their own right, are required to have effective academic and business management to ensure successful teaching, research and business-related outcomes. With massification and increased regulation there are considerable numbers of non-academic staff working in Australian and UK universities. For example, in Australia in 2015 there were 65,739 non-academic staff or 55.4 per cent of the total population; in the UK the figure for 2014/15 was 205,500 or 51 per cent of the total population (Department of Education and Training 2016; Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.; HESA).

According to the HESA in the UK, non-academic staff include ‘managerial, professional and technical’ staff which are commonly identified with different names including administrators, professional (services) staff, or academic-related staff. In this paper I use the term professional staff to encompass the wide range of activities these staff undertake ranging from, for example accountants, registrars, human resource professionals, and librarians. In 2014/15 these staff numbered 95,870 or 23.7 per cent of the total staff population (Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.;
there is no number for this cohort of staff from Australia). These staff are typically at least graduates (or are required to hold equivalent qualifications or have equivalent experience, for example accounting or human resource qualifications) who hold positions of varying authority and responsibility in their universities. However, limited empirical research has been carried out on the careers of these staff as it is suggested they are ‘unseen and unsung’ (Eveline 2004, 138). This is a significant oversight, as research suggests that staff who are engaged, are satisfied with their job, and embedded in their organisation are more committed to their organisation and potentially more productive, with the positive effect of reduced staff turnover (Martin and Roodt 2008; Mitchell et al. 2001). The literature that does exist suggests that there are a number of antecedents that contribute to their affective organisational commitment including remuneration, promotion opportunities, learning and skills development and utilisation, and the work itself (Meyer et al. 2002).

A report by the Leadership Foundation for Higher Education in the UK (LFHE 2010, 6) on a study of 12,000 higher education staff, found that professional staff were attracted to the sector by the ‘opportunity to use skills/experience’, ‘a friendly work environment’, ‘career security’ and ‘salary’; senior staff also placed emphasis on sector values. Once recruited, they were committed to staying within their organisation and agreed to a ‘high’ extent that higher education offered a worthwhile career. They reported that their current salary could induce them to leave, as could an opportunity to develop their career. In Australia, a report published in 2012 (Strachan et al. 2012) which surveyed 32,983 general staff in 19 universities, showed that 75 per cent of respondents ‘strongly or somewhat agreed’ that they were satisfied with their job. However, 42 per cent said there was a 5–50 per cent chance
that they would leave their job voluntarily in the next 12 months; 63 per cent were satisfied with career opportunities at either their own university or in the sector and 54 per cent said that within the next five years they would like to be in a higher-level role.

This paper explores career theory applied to professional staff in Australian and UK universities through the use of a multi method survey instrument. Baruch (2014) and Briscoe et al. (2006) highlighted the need to develop applicable measures of the contemporary career and highlighted the importance of validation studies. Although Baruch’s (2014) work was critical of Briscoe et al. (2006) 14-item measure that split Protean career attitudes (explained below) into two factors – self-directed and values-driven – he did note that the items captured the nature of the Protean career attitude. It is critical to test for evidence of internal reliability and validity of constructs and this paper describes the testing of Briscoe et al. (2006) two-factor Protean and Boundaryless (explained below) constructs through a pilot study, before embarking on a larger study, on university professional staff in Australia and the UK.

**Literature Review**

The traditional organisational career was arguably the major form of employment until the early to mid-1990s with employers (both private and public sectors) providing long-term employment and guaranteed benefits in return for high-commitment and high-productivity. Extensive economic changes in the 1970s and 1980s led to organisations downsizing and de-layering to reduce costs, with many shifting from a vertical to a more horizontal organisational design, with the
perceived need to develop generalists, and not just specialists, in order to respond to instability and change (Kanter 1977, 325; Lent and Brown 2006; Peiperl and Baruch 1997). It has been argued that from the 1980s organisational design changed from the modern to the postmodern, which then needed to be reflected in new career models and major new conceptual models were developed based on constructivist approaches to career theory. That individuals constructed their own social realities was seen as the most important aspect of understanding people’s decision-making processes and career stories (Nichols 2007, 61; Sharf 2013, 15). Two new conceptual models were developed to understand contemporary careers: Protean and Boundaryless.

**The Protean Career Model**

The Protean career is both an attitude, and a process, which the individual, and not the organisation, actively manages. A person’s career consists of all of their varied experiences including education and training, work history, changes in positions and sectors etc. The Protean career focuses on intrinsic success resulting from individual decisions and the meanings given to the work rather than extrinsic organisational career achievements such as financial and hierarchical rewards (Arthur and Rousseau 1996; Hall 2004; Peiperl and Baruch 1997). It centres on values-driven attitudes to employees’ own careers rather than organisational requirements, and individuals showing high levels of self-directed vocational behaviour. The Protean career also involves mobility, a whole-life perspective, developmental progression, continuous self-directed learning, autonomy, flexibility, and self-fulfilment (Briscoe and Hall 2006). Therefore, the first two hypotheses for the present study would be as follows:
H₁ Professional staff will show a self-directed career management attitude

H₂ Professional staff will show a values-driven attitude to their career

The Boundaryless Career Model

The original theory of the Boundaryless career viewed individuals as free agents – not bounded by one organisational career – but moving easily between organisations as well as careers (Arthur and Rousseau 1996, 3–20) across varying industries, not all reliant on the traditional organisational employment contract. However, this original definition did not take account of whether these moves were voluntary or not, vertical or lateral, their duration, or if they were organisation- or self-directed (Sullivan and Baruch 2009). More recently Boundaryless careers have been seen as dualistic, consisting of both psychological and geographical mobility (Arthur et al. 2005; Segers et al. 2008; Sullivan and Baruch 2009). Geographic mobility, most easily understood, has been the most researched factor but has resulted in contested outcomes, due in part to not taking the above duality into consideration. Psychological mobility, which has been defined as ‘the perception of the capacity to make transitions’ (Sullivan and Arthur 2006, 21) has been under-researched. Employees will vary in their attitude to working outside of their own organisation, which does not necessarily correlate with an intention to leave their current role to work for another organisation.

Boundaryless individuals are primarily motivated by intrinsic success but also by hierarchical success – albeit with more than one employer. Characteristics of this career type are: mobility, flexibility, the need for meaningful work, skill utilisation, work-life balance and fulfilling relationships across organisations, and at the same
time not giving importance to organisational promotions and career paths (Briscoe et al. 2006; Forrier et al. 2005). It assumes that an individual’s career would be comprised of hierarchical and lateral moves, plateauing, periods outside of the labour market and career changes; they therefore require external marketability. This leads to the next two hypotheses:

H₃ Professional staff will show a psychologically mobile attitude
H₄ Professional staff will show a geographic mobile attitude

**Hybrid Theory**

The two career theories outlined above have often been used interchangeably, due to the cross-over in identifiable factors, and the fact that the Protean career attitude could of course result in multiple organisational contracts; additionally a person with a Boundaryless attitude is also more likely to act in a Protean fashion (Briscoe and Hall 2006b). Not only have studies shown that Protean and Boundaryless careers intersect, but that some individuals enact hybrid careers, which contain elements of traditional and contemporary careers (Sullivan and Baruch 2009). For example, Granrose and Baccili (2006) found that the majority of employees valued job security and upward mobility (traditional) but also training relevant both internally and externally (Boundaryless) to the organisation and an open, trusting and mutually respectful work environment (Protean). Previous research has shown that professional staff value job security and promotion opportunities (LFHE 2010; Strachan et al. 2012) so this leads to the final hypothesis:

H₅ Professional staff will show hybrid career attitudes
Method

The study utilised a cross-sectional survey design to collect quantitative and qualitative data via an online survey in May 2015. For this pilot study a convenience sample was used to gather a suitable number of responses quickly which could be achieved by exploiting the author’s LinkedIn connections (220). LinkedIn is a social media-networking site that allows colleagues to connect to each other in relation to work and professional interests; it was launched in 2003 and now has 300 million members worldwide (LinkedIn 2017). It is widely used in higher education with most universities in Australia and the UK having a presence as well as the Australian and UK professional bodies for professional staff – the Association of Tertiary Education Managers and Association of University Administrators, respectively. Little research has been done on the use of LinkedIn as a sampling design, although one study did highlight that of all the social media platforms used (Facebook, Twitter, blog) and traditional media, LinkedIn had the lowest participant recruitment rate (Middleton et al. 2014).

As this was a pilot study, a convenience sample was appropriate as data analysis would be used to test the reliability, internal consistency and construct validity of the survey items (de Vaus 2002, 90; Zikmund et al. 2003, 305–308, 396) and to explore the data responses, therefore 30 or more responses was considered adequate. Of these LinkedIn connections, not all would be appropriate as the population – or the participant identity – was specific, that of professional staff in Australia (Higher Education Worker level 7 and above; Fairwork Commission 2017) and the UK (salary spinal point 30 and above; University and College Union 2001).
A new multi method survey instrument was constructed consisting of items measuring demographics such as age, gender, educational attainment, and ethnicity, and items relating to work environment such as salary, number of promotions, and employment terms. To ascertain the perceptions of professional staff of their careers, previously validated questions were used. Firstly, questions relating to aspects of Protean and Boundaryless careers, using a 5-point ratings scale were included (Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth 2006). The next section included items from a questionnaire by Raeder et al. (2009) to test employees’ needs from the organisation, based on psychological contract measures. The final career question was a free text box asking participants to relate their ‘career story’. The free text question was used to supplement the closed questions, to provide an area of exploration into this subject area and to triangulate the quantitative data (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 71).

There were 34 responses; three of these were partial and were excluded from the analysis. There were then 31 full responses with 19 participants from Australia and 12 participants from the UK.

The quantitative survey data were analysed using SPSS v.22 and the qualitative data were analysed through manual coding, first using a number of a priori codes informed by the literature followed by emergent codes derived from the respondents’ stories (Barbour 2008).

Results

Instrument Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out on the Protean career items, which agreed with the original analysis that the questionnaire items had internal
reliability and clearly belonged to either of the two factors: self-directed career management (Cronbach’s alpha (α) 0.78) or values-driven attitudes, although question 13 (I navigate my own career based upon my personal priorities as opposed to my university’s priorities) was removed due to cross-loading to self-directed (α 0.76). CFA was carried out on the Boundaryless mind-set components, which confirmed that the items loaded onto psychological (α 0.90) or physical mobility preference (α 0.81).

**Demographic and Employment Data**

The demographic and employment characteristics of the participants are shown in Tables 4.1 and 4.2, respectively. It can be seen that the samples are skewed towards the older median age range, due, one would infer, to the LinkedIn connections of the researcher. The participants are mainly white/Caucasian, and just over 50 per cent were women (Table 4.1).

**Table 4.1: The demographic characteristics of the participants (n=31)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>UK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender – Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender – Male</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>White n=17</td>
<td>White=12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asian n=2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median age range</td>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>40-49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest educational</td>
<td>Professional qualification n=1</td>
<td>PhD n=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level</td>
<td>PhD n=2</td>
<td>Masters n=8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school graduate n=3</td>
<td>Graduate n=3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masters n=6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate n=7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2 shows key employment data for the participants. Thirty-two per cent of the participants in Australia were on fixed term contracts compared with 100 per cent of the UK staff being on permanent contracts. The majority of staff in both countries were in full-time employment (specified as greater than 30 hours per week) and towards the top end of the salary scale, indicating middle to senior management positions. For example, 11 of the 17 respondents from Australia indicated their salary was above $105,000 and nine of the 12 UK respondents indicated their salary was above £50,000.

**Table 4.2: The employment characteristics of participants (n=31)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>UK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contract – permanent</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract – fixed term</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>3 (all female)</td>
<td>1 (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median salary range (n=17)</td>
<td>$105,000+</td>
<td>£50,000-59,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed in current position</td>
<td>&lt;5 years n=9</td>
<td>&lt;5 years n=11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10 years n=6</td>
<td>10+ years n=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10+ years n=4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed in current university</td>
<td>&lt;5 years n=9</td>
<td>&lt;5 years n=3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10 years n=6</td>
<td>5-10 years n=4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10+ years n=4</td>
<td>10+ years n=5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to leave within 12 months</td>
<td>Yes n=5</td>
<td>Yes n=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No n=13</td>
<td>No n=11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 invalid response</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are you considering applying for promotion or a higher graded job in the next 3 years</td>
<td>Yes n=10</td>
<td>Yes n=8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No n=9</td>
<td>No n=4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Staff in Australia reported that they had been employed both in their current university and in their current role for similar timeframes; whilst in the UK the participants had seemingly moved around within their universities more. Most staff had no intention to leave their jobs in the next 12 months although the majority did intend to apply for promotion within three years. Table 4.2 also shows that the majority of staff in both countries deem organisational loyalty, job security, opportunities for promotion, and opportunities for a career important. Table 4.3 provides the means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis data for the self-directed, values-driven, psychologically and geographic mobile career attitudes. A Shapiro-Wilk test for normality showed that the data come from a normal distribution.

| Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics for the composite variables self-directed, values-driven, psychologically mobile and geographic mobile career attitudes (n=31) |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
|                  | Self-directed    | Values-driven    | Psychologically mobile | Geographic mobile |
| Mean             | 4.15             | 3.81             | 4.24              | 3.65             |
| Std. Deviation   | 0.55             | 0.60             | 0.57              | 0.74             |
| Skewness         | -0.46            | -0.52            | -0.28             | -0.97            |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.43          | 0.43             | 0.42              | 0.42             |
| Kurtosis         | 0.74             | -0.14            | -0.80             | 1.85             |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | 0.83           | 0.83             | 0.82              | 0.82             |
| Minimum          | 2.60             | 2.33             | 3.00              | 1.40             |
| Maximum          | 5.00             | 4.67             | 5.00              | 5.00             |

**Career Attitudes**

Research has shown that there are a number of organisational and individual characteristics that increase the likelihood of career success as defined by promotions – self-efficacy, job rotation, and learning agility (Briscoe and Hall 2006;
Çakmak-Otluoğlu 2012; Dries et al. 2012; Karaevli and Tim 2006). The results from this study align with some of these findings, as it shows that professional staff exhibit self-efficacy, and prioritise job rotation and learning opportunities, career development and promotion. However, they also value job security, which has been shown to enhance career-enhancing strategies (Nabi 2003), values-driven work, and challenging work.

**Self-Efficacy: H1 (Self-Directed) Career Attitude**

This is an important aspect of contemporary careers with both Protean and Boundaryless theories having self-efficacy at their root. Proactive individuals approach their job to increase the likelihood of high job performance and engage in career enhancing activities (Nabi 2003). Seibert et al. (1999) showed a modest correlation between proactive personalities and salary, number of promotions and career satisfaction. Eby et al. (2003) showed that proactive personality, openness to experience and personal insight were all significantly related to perceived career success and marketability.

The data show that professional staff strongly related to statements concerning self-directed attitudes ($\bar{x}=4.15$), for example:

I expect myself to take responsibility for my career and in identifying skills development (Female, 40-49, UK)

…this [advice from a senior manager] prompted me to take control of my career… (Male 40-49, UK)
My career choices and directions have been mine (Male 50-59, Australia)

Values-Driven Career Attitude: $H_2$ (Values-Driven) Protean

A career driven by personal values rather than organisational rewards is another key aspect of Protean careers (Hall 2004). The fact that these staff work in universities suggests that they value work that has societal impact consistent with staff working in, for example the public sector (Sargent and Domberger 2007). Professional staff show values-driven ($\bar{x}=3.81$) career attitudes:

I am not prepared to sacrifice that [loyalty, integrity, making a difference] to be bored or frustrated at work, and I would still seek to leave if my values or my need to be challenged at [sic] not being met (Male 40-49, Australia)

Mobility: $H_3$ (Psychologically Mobile) and $H_4$ (Geographically Mobile)

Boundaryless Career Attitudes

Career development opportunities within organisations can include job placements, secondments or rotations to provide employees with varied work experiences. The argument is that people who spend most of their career in one job, organisation or even sector have limited knowledge and sets of competencies. Having a variety of experiences is necessary for employees to be able to extract general principles and transfer these to new situations (Dries, Vantilborgh, and Perpermans 2012). Karaevli and Tim (2006) argued that managers’ variety of career experience of functional areas plus a breadth of institutional context understanding would be positively associated with promotion, salary and skill acquisition. They also suggested that
getting a ‘deep’ understanding of an area is important so employees internalise the experiences, but that rotation after a few years avoided a person becoming too narrow in scope.

Professional staff related with the psychologically mobile Boundaryless mind-set ($\bar{x}=4.24$), which points to H3 being supported. However, they showed a less positive attitude towards a geographically mobile attitude, as this factor showed the lowest mean score ($\bar{x}=3.65$) of all factors, and with a higher standard deviation (SD=0.74) showing a larger range of opinions. However, Table 4.4 shows that many of the respondents moved around their own university in order to obtain new learning opportunities and/or promotions:

I am now on secondment in a professional service department which I wanted to undertake to gain new insights, perspectives and see how other departments worked (Male 40-49, UK)

I have worked in the tertiary sector for more than 25 years across 3 different universities. I never stay in one position for more than 3 to 4 years before moving on (White female 50-59, Australia)

I am hoping for a change in role if not promotion to keep me learning and motivated (Female 40-49, UK)

I very much motivated about learning new areas, taking on challenges and responsibilities (Female 30-39, Australia)
…looking for things that interest me and seeking out new challenges when my current role/organisation has ceased to provide them (Male 50-59, Australia)

This may have been due to a lack of clarity between psychologically mobile and geographically mobile attitudes as geographic mobility would include moving from one job to another within the university as well as moving to a new university. This led to H4 being provisionally supported.

Table 4.4: Perceived requirements from the employing university

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirements from university</th>
<th>Percentage of staff that ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A career</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for promotion</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Job Security and Promotion: H5: Hybrid Career Attitude

The traditional career perspective had at its most fundamental a need for job security and career pathways provided by the organisation, to ensure high job productivity and loyalty in its employees. As organisations have changed from a traditional to a contemporary design and the concomitant change to employment contracts and individuals’ expectations, one would postulate that employers and employees had embraced this contemporary view of the workplace. However, Dries and Pepermans (2007) showed that both employees and human resource representatives had traditional views of careers i.e. they expected staff to progress hierarchically, and
Walton and Mallon (2004) showed that aspects of both traditional (e.g. advancement) and contemporary careers (e.g. enjoyment) were used in individual sense-making of the participants’ careers. Career success as viewed as promotions to more senior roles, could be viewed as a journey undertaking demanding transitions and experiences that develop a series of end-state skills. Spreitzer et al. (1997) found that end-state competency plus learning-orientated dimensions predicted executive potential. However, Eichinger and Lombardo (2004) found that learning-agility ratings were unrelated to who received a promotion but that those employees with high learning agility ratings performed better once promoted.

Table 4.4 shows that professional staff in both countries value job security, an organisational career, and promotion opportunities. However, there is some difference between the respondents from Australia and the UK, with those from Australia generally showing a weaker agreement with the requirements of loyalty, job security, and an organisational career. This difference could be due to the more senior staff that responded. In Australia above Level 10 on the HEW classification (Fairwork Commission 2017), staff are usually employed on fixed term contracts (FTC) for three or five years (although they may continue to hold permanency at the lower level if promoted within their own institution). This is a key difference compared with senior staff in the UK who would be permanently employed regardless of grade. In Australia, an argument for the FTC approach is that staff can have a higher salary than on the HEW agreement, which is negotiated at institutional level. In the UK staff above salary point 51 (University and College Union 2001) have different pay scales than the UCU agreed national salary scales, which are institution specific, allowing for a greater degree of flexibility. Indeed, some senior
staff, especially in professional areas such as finance and marketing, where universities often employ from private or public sectors, salary often reflects external salary scales.

The qualitative data support the value that respondents put on the requirements, indicating that, overall, professional staff value aspects of both contemporary and traditional careers and, therefore that H5 is supported:

My stage in life is such that I would very much prefer employment stability as my two children move through secondary education (Male 40-49, Australia)

I expect my university to value my contribution and to provide opportunities for development and promotion (Female 40-49, UK)

Career progression opportunities are similarly limited in this space and I have found that moving institutions is the only effective way to progress (Male 30-39, Australia)

Career progression depends on both the organisational environment in terms of learning opportunities provided as well as an individual’s characteristics in terms of their own learning behaviour (Van der Sluis and Poell 2003). Professional staff showed that they valued learning opportunities and as mentioned above this in part provides higher income and job performance, due to the increase in skills and knowledge of the organisation.
Mutual respect, learning and opportunity to contribute to the big picture motivates me (Female 30-39, Australia)

I am motivated mainly by the opportunity to learn and to make a difference (Male 40-49, UK)

Independent-samples t-tests were run for all hypotheses that showed there was no significance difference between respondents from Australia or the UK.

Discussion

The results of this pilot study into the reliability of the Protean and Boundaryless questionnaire scales indicate a good level of internal reliability, in line with Nunnally and Bernstein’s (1994, 252) recommendation that the alpha coefficients are over the 0.70 threshold. Due to the small scale of the study, however, these results should be read with caution as the small number of participants mean that the results can be significantly affected by data transformations and/or sampling error (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994, 133). Integrating the qualitative data from the participants’ career stories does go some way further to validating the internal reliability of the questionnaire (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 62). The data from the pilot survey provide evidence, for the next stage of the research, that the scales are reliable to test the true nature of the Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes.

This study also advances our understanding of the attitudes of professional staff within universities in Australia and the UK to their careers and their expectations from their employers. This study showed that self-directed and values-driven aspects
of the Protean career attitudes were significantly correlated ($r=0.450, p<0.05$) which agreed with Briscoe et al. (2006) results. This is in contrast to Baruch’s (2014) study that did not confirm the two-factor model of the Protean construct. The psychologically and geographically mobile Boundaryless mind-sets were not significantly correlated, which also agreed with Briscoe et al. (2006) results. This supports a number of previous studies that suggested that employees might be psychologically, but not geographically mobile. Data that highlights labour turnover statistics show that turnover has not increased (Inkson et al. 2012). The self-directed Protean career attitude also showed significant correlation to the geographically mobile Boundaryless mind-set ($r=0.496, p<0.01$). Professional staff show a strong affiliation for being psychologically mobile but not for geographic mobility. It may be that for these staff they conceptually and physically cross intra-organisational boundaries, which is evidenced by some of the quantitative and qualitative data. That is, in order to both continue feeling fulfilled in their work, and to position themselves better to gain a promotion, they move between roles and/or projects to gain a breadth of experience. This may have also become more important with the opening of the labour market in universities as part of the introduction of new managerialism (Nickson 2014). There is evidence from these results to suggest that these staff moderate their geographic mobility as the majority have no intention to leave their employer, perhaps due to the need for job security in an increasingly unsecure and competitive labour market.

Contemporary career theory argues that employees do not value an organisational type career and, as part of taking responsibility for their own careers, are not bound to one organisation, they are highly mobile and value work-life balance (Briscoe and
Hall 2006b; Forrier, Sels, and Verbruggen 2005). Conversely, previous research has indicated that organisational careers and aspects of contemporary careers are complementary (Baruch 2006; Dries and Pepermans 2007; Walton and Mallon 2004) or that individuals take hybrid approaches to their careers (Sullivan and Baruch 2009). For example, Walton and Mallon (2004) showed that aspects of both traditional (e.g. advancement) and contemporary careers (e.g. enjoyment) were used in individual sense-making of employees’ careers. Research by Çakmak-Otluoğlu (2012) showed that having a Boundaryless mindset could co-exist with organisational commitment and did not necessarily equate with mobility and Baruch (2014) noted that Protean and traditional career attitudes were not always opposing. These previous studies support a more nuanced approach to career theory and this current research suggests that professional staff value aspects of traditional organisational careers such as loyalty, job security, opportunities for promotion and an organisational career, but they also show aspects of Protean and Boundaryless career management attitudes including learning opportunities, skills utilisation, and challenging work – that is they show hybrid career attitudes (Fig. 5.1).

It could be argued that this hybrid approach to career management has resulted from the rapid change in universities in both countries towards new managerialism (Nickson 2014) which could result in changes to the careers of those within universities (Clarke 2012; Inkson et al. 2012). Professional staff may have adopted self-directed approaches to career management to cope with these new realities, organisational restructures, short-term contracts, and external labour market competition for example, but still require a work environment that is intrinsically motivating.
Implications

The implications of this validated scale applied to professional staff in universities is significant for future research, as contemporary career theories have not been tested on professional staff previously; this scale offers a reliable, concise and practical measure to test employee attitudes. Further research needs to take place to test these early results to fully understand the interplay between Protean, Boundaryless and traditional career attitudes in this sector and employee cohort.

This research highlights a need for universities’ human resource departments to spend further time investigating the attitudes of their professional staff, as there is a clear tension at work in this cohort of staff in terms of their career needs. On the one hand you have professional staff with Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes:

Figure 4.1: The hybrid career attitude of professional staff (bold text shows attitudes shown by professional staff)
requiring responsibility in the work task, meaningful work, learning opportunities, skills utilisation, and ongoing challenging work assignments. These needs may lead to mobility as employees move around their organisation to continue to feel challenged and motivated. On the other hand, they show the traditional career requirements of loyalty, job security, promotion opportunities and an organisational career. Universities can use this scale to evaluate their employees’ career orientations, which have implications for job design, professional development and career planning.

**References**

*These are incorporated into the final reference list.*

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**Conclusion to Part A**

*This paper has started to determine which factors influence the careers of professional staff. It has provided evidence that using Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profiles has some explanatory power for the experiences of their careers. This paper concludes that a hybrid approach to career management has resulted from the rapid change in universities towards new managerialism (Nickson 2014). This has resulted in changes to the careers of those within universities (Clarke 2012; Inkson et al. 2012). Professional staff have adopted self-directed approach to career management to cope with the new realities of organisational restructures, short-term contracts, and external labour market competition for example. However, they still require a work environment that offers job security and a rewarding career. The*
next section presents the first results from the full study and shows how the use of cluster analysis provided a useful tool for the creation of career profiles based on Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) theoretical framework. It goes on to apply the ideas of Schein’s career anchors (Schein 1996) to help to understand the motivations of professional staff.

Supplementary Material
PART B


Introduction to Part B

This paper, from the results of the full study, focused on testing the theoretical framework that argues that Protean and Boundaryless careers can be integrated to create a number of career profiles (Briscoe and Hall 2006b). This aims to answer the research question ‘can understanding career profiles explain the experiences of higher education professional staff?’ The idea of integrating Protean and Boundaryless careers was theorised to create up to 16 career profiles based on a score of high or low for each of the four career attitudes: self-directed, values-driven, psychological mobility, and locational mobility. Briscoe and Hall (2006) did suggest that only eight of these career profiles would be likely: Lost/Trapped, Fortressed, Wanderer, Idealist, Organisation wo/man, Solid Citizen, Hired Hand, and Protean Career Architect. They presented for each profile the individual’s challenge in maintaining the status quo and the career development challenges. Two empirical studies have confirmed the presence of at least some of these profiles (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008, 2010).

This study used cluster analysis to successfully create career profiles (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016). Using this procedure allows clusters to emerge based on similarities and differences between the groups allowing each cluster to become a
meaningful variable in its own right. This then allows for the identification of
different groups of individuals, and a better understanding of how groups are
similar and different from one another across a number of meaningful variables.

A non-hierarchical clustering process was carried out, via K-means analysis, to find
the best cluster solution including the summated scales of self-directed career
attitude, values-driven career attitude, psychological mobility and locational
mobility as the variables. Sixteen cluster solutions were first identified as this was
the theoretical number from Briscoe and Hall (2006). The clusters were then
evaluated and the clusters reassigned to create the most distinct clusters (Hair et al.
2014, 443–445). Once this was complete a two-step clustering procedure was
carried out with the two-cluster solution identified from step 1 to produce the cluster
patterns. The Bayesian information criterion (BIC) algorithm was used as the goal
of modelling was descriptive, that was, to create a model that would include the most
meaningful factors influencing the outcome, based on an assessment of relative
importance; BIC tends to derive models with fewer clusters with better fit (Kuron,
Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). Clusters were then compared
using analysis of variance with cluster membership the factor and the career
attitudes the dependent variables, with post hoc t-tests using Bonferroni correction
for comparison amongst clusters (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al.
2008; 2010).

This analysis provided evidence for the existence of two career profiles in the
sample: Solid Citizens (61 per cent) and Protean Career Architects (39 per cent).
Protean Career Architects scored high in all four career attitudes while Solid
Citizens scored high in three but low in locational mobility. Protean Career Architects were theorised to be rare in organisations and to be seen as leaders (Briscoe and Hall 2006) but this study showed that a wide range of staff exhibit Protean Career Architect orientations. Solid Citizens are said to flourish in the right environment that matches their strong values, allows autonomy and satisfies their need for learning and challenge; they add considerable value to their organisation (Briscoe and Hall 2006). Unlike in other studies (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008) there were no significant differences between differing demographic characteristics, only between number of rewards received and intent to leave – both higher for Protean Career Architects.

The analysis of the qualitative data supported the quantitative data findings in that participants believed that career management is their business and not their organisations (although they would prefer more support), that they would follow their own career values rather than their organisations, and that they are open to changing roles to stay challenged and motivated. The issues around locational mobility was related to the difficulty in moving to other parts of the country when family ties were involved, or the wish to live somewhere desirable for personal reasons compared with moving for career related reasons somewhere considered less desirable. However, it was clear that some individuals would move to other organisations and locations to achieve their career needs such as more responsibility, more autonomy or a promotion.

It was theorised that Schein’s concept of a career anchor could be relevant for professional staff in universities, as the anchor would act as an internal motivational
force that could guide career decisions (Coetzee and Schreuder 2014, 140; Schein 1996). Bravo et al. (2015), however, found in their study that one of Schein’s career anchors of autonomy was not a unique anchor but that many of the eight career anchors also required autonomy in their role. The data from this study suggests that autonomy/independence may be the career anchor at work as this was a common requirement across the two profiles. However, there was also considerable mention of value work, that would correspond to the service/dedication anchor. Rodrigues et al. (2013) presented evidence that individuals did not have a single anchor, and that it could change over time with an interplay with work experience, labour market conditions and family and social background. Therefore, it could be promulgated that service/dedication and autonomy are both important anchors either concurrently or as Bravo et al. (2015) suggested with autonomy working in concert with service/dedication.

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Abstract

It has been argued that the theories of Protean and Boundaryless careers do not necessarily reflect the real-life experiences of employees. In response to this, and to calls for further study on the careers of staff in specific sectors, this study determines the career profiles of professional staff in Australian and UK universities via a mixed methods approach to increase validity and interpretability. The findings show that 1) there were two career profiles in the sample: Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects, 2) that there were more Solid Citizens, 3) that Protean Career Architects were not limited to leadership roles as first theorised, 4) that all staff are
psychologically Boundaryless and, 5) that the use of mixed methods has provided more in-depth information on career profiles. The qualitative data highlighted the importance of a possible career anchor to professional staff, providing a much more nuanced understanding of the attitudes of staff to their careers.

**Keywords**

Career Theory, Protean, Boundaryless, Higher Education, Professional Staff

**Introduction**

Higher education is an important sector in OECD countries’ economies, with universities contributing direct gross domestic product in the region of for example, £73 billion (Kelly, McNicoll and White 2012, 1) in the UK and $25 billion in Australia (Deloitte Access Economics 2015, vi). The size of this business operation leads to universities becoming important employers of professional staff who are responsible for the support of teaching and research, business management and administration including the significant amount of regulatory reporting requirements. In Australia in 2015 there were 65,739 non-academic staff or 55.4 per cent of the total population (Department of Education and Training, n.d.). In the UK, the figure for 2014/15 was 205,500 non-academic staff or 51 per cent of the total population (Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.). The HESA in the UK is required to collect staff data at a more granular level and this shows that of the 205,500 non-academic staff, that there were 95,870 (23.7 per cent of total staff) ‘managerial, professional and technical staff’ in 2014/15 (an approximate proxy for ‘professional staff’) at UK universities (Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.). Staff data is not
collected in this level of detail in Australia but if a similar percentage of professional staff exists there would be 15,119 professional staff in Australian universities.

The academic literature remains surprisingly silent on the careers of this increasingly large and diverse category of staff. Szekeres (2006) and Lewis (2014) raised this paradox of the invisible, hidden, unnoticed and undervalued professional staff cohort which was at odds with the increasing position of importance to the operation of the university. Graham (2009, 175) noted that ‘with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and performance of [professional] staff directly impacting upon the quality and effectiveness of university work … the people management issues … have not been taken as seriously as those for academic staff … in Australian universities.’ Eveline (2004, 148) also argued that in Australian universities the skills and development needs of professional staff were relatively unrecognized, and from the UK Shattock (2003, 179) contended that, as management is a major component of university success, and professional staff are critical to this process, then the development of this category of staff was important. Considering the number of professional staff in Australian and UK universities, the lack of understanding of professional staffs’ careers is surely an oversight.

This study explores the integration of contemporary career theories of Protean and Boundaryless careers. Protean careers argue that individuals are responsible for managing their own career to match their values (Hall 1976), and Boundaryless careers argue that careers are enacted across intra- and inter-organisational boundaries (Arthur and Rousseau 1996). Using Briscoe and Hall’s (2006b) theoretical framework of 16 possible career profiles through the integration of these
career orientations, this study explores which career profiles are apparent in professional staff working in higher education in Australia and the UK, to provide new information that can be used to support the career development of these staff.

**Literature Review**

The contemporary career theories of Protean and Boundaryless careers evolved from the changing economic environment in the 1970s and 1980s with scholars predicting the death of the organisational or traditional career (Baruch 2006; Sullivan and Baruch 2009). Like previous career theories these new theories are based on psychological needs and values of the individual, although there has been little discussion on how individuals enact these career orientations (Rounds and Jin 2013). Contemporary career theory has been dominated by the Protean and Boundaryless theories but Briscoe and Hall (2006a, 2) asked ‘do they have validity and utility in understanding and describing the career experiences of real people?’ This is an important question as many scholars question the ubiquitous of these two contemporary career theories and how they potentially have overtaken ‘real-life’ experience of many employees (Guest and Mackenzie Davey 1996; Walton and Mallon 2004), although further work has identified a small percentage of careers as being able to labelled Protean or Boundaryless (Rodrigues and Guest 2010; Dries, Van Acker, and Verbruggen 2012).

**Protean Career Orientation**

Hall (1976, 201) defined the Protean career as one which is managed by the individual (compared with by the organisation), and includes all the varied work experience in education, training, and work within and without the current
organisation/field. The Protean career is made up of an individual’s personal career choices and search for self-fulfillment with an internal locus of psychological success. This was built upon by Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth (2006) who developed two distinct factors within the Protean career – a self-directed, and a values-driven attitude. A self-directed attitude corresponds to an individual taking responsibility for their career decisions and outcomes and a values-driven attitude is where an individual places their own career values above that of their employing organisation.

**Boundaryless Career Orientation**

Arthur and Rousseau (1996, 3) defined the Boundaryless career as one that was the opposite of the organisational, or bounded, career. This career type is made up of individuals moving between organisations, who draw validity and marketability from outside of the organisation, when a career is sustained by networks, and work-life balance, and non-hierarchical progress is important (Arthur and Rousseau 1996, 6). As with the Protean career, Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth (2006) empirically defined two factors that are related but distinct within this Boundaryless – physical mobility, which this paper terms geographical mobility, and psychological mobility. Psychological mobility has been poorly defined although there has been discussion that argues that psychological Boundaryless is as important as geographical Boundaryless (Greenhaus, Callanan and DiRenzo 2008, 282; Sullivan and Arthur 2006), a view in line with Arthur and Rousseau’s (1996, 6) original definition. High levels of psychological Boundaryless have been linked with the need for autonomy, affiliation and interest, whereas high levels of geographical
Boundaryless has been linked with individuals being motivated by increased money, status and promotion, and less by job security (Segers et al. 2008; 2010).

**Integrating Protean and Boundaryless Orientations**

These two career orientations are ‘overlapping but distinct’ (Greenhaus, Callanan and DiRenzo 2008, 283; Inkson and King 2011) and therefore rather than concentrate on career orientations, we build on the work of Briscoe and Hall (2006b) who sought to integrate these orientations to predict more nuanced career profiles. They first empirically demonstrated that the Protean career orientation could be split into two separate factors, self-directed and values-driven attitudes, and that the Boundaryless career contained both geographical and psychological mobility factors. The interaction of these four factors led to 16 theoretical career profiles, including eight more likely profiles – Solid Citizen, Protean Career Architect, organizational wo/man, lost/trapped, fortressed, wanderer, idealist and hired gun/hand (Briscoe and Hall 2006b). However, there is still little empirical evidence to support the theoretical propositions (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010), and there have been calls for future research taking into account contextual factors such as industry and specific jobs (Briscoe and Hall 2006; Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). Additionally, there has been some indication that factors such as age, gender and work experience account for differences in cluster profiles (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010).

Solid Citizens, who rate high on self-directed, values-driven and psychological mobility attitudes, but low on geographical mobility, had significantly more women than men (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016), and women were significantly more
present in Protean Career Architects (high on all four aspects) and Curiosity/Wanderer (high only on geographical mobility; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). The Trapped/Lost profile (low on all four attitudes) had significantly younger profiles compared to Protean Career Architect (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016), although Segers et al. (2008; 2010) showed no age-related profile differences. Segers et al. (2008; 2010) also demonstrated that with higher levels of education or management experience, the more self-directed, psychologically mobile and geographically mobile participants were, and the Protean Career Architect profile had members with the greatest level of work experience; however, Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng (2016) showed no significant difference between profiles based on work experience. Protean Career Architects had higher levels of education than Trapped/Lost but not compared with Solid Citizens.

However, as mentioned in the introduction, how are individuals enacting these career profiles? The Protean, and to a lesser extent, the Boundaryless career orientations emphasise psychological needs and values-based requirements above other more sociological requirements such as job security, pay, promotions and so on as was highlighted by Briscoe and Hall (2006b). Can these orientations be explained by integrating the ideas of career anchors, that is an individual’s self-concept of talents, abilities, values and motives, as they relate to their career (Schein 1996) to increase the understanding of how individuals integrate different requirements within their careers?

This study, therefore, by studying one specific industrial sector – higher education in Australia and the UK – should contribute to our understanding of individuals’ career
profiles, an important consideration as noted by Rodrigues, Guest and Budjanovcanin (2013). Individuals can then be clustered by similarities in outlook, leading to a more nuanced human resource management approach at organisational level. Additionally, this study uses an embedded mixed methods design (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 77) to provide statistical evidence to support the theoretical framework and also to shed light, through the use of qualitative data, on some of the underlying reasons why individuals may be grouped within these profiles, the importance of the different needs specified by the theories, and how these needs impact on an individual’s ongoing career choices congruent with their self-concept (Oosthuizen, Coetzee, and Mntonintshi 2014).

Method

As Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng (2016) noted a mixed-methods approach to research in this area would provide triangulation of findings, and this study therefore used a mixed methods design to allow for a greater examination and interpretation of the meanings of the data, as it is argued that meaning is an activity that is dependent upon context. This mixing of data, therefore, should allow greater elaboration of theory, a greater richness in understanding and explaining human action, as well as triangulation of the quantitative data. However, integration is often an under-developed aspect of the research, and as such integration was undertaken at all points – in the survey design, the reporting of results and the analysis and theory building (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 65). The research reported in this paper is part of a larger study into the careers of professional staff in Australian and UK universities.
**Participants**

This study used a convenience sample, due to its low-cost and ease of access to the groups required (Bryman and Cramer 1994, 104; Zikmund et al. 2003, 396), drawn from members of two professional bodies, the Association of University Administrators (AUA) in the UK and the Association of Tertiary Education Management (ATEM) in Australia. The membership of both groups at the time of the study was 3600 and 1600 worldwide, respectively. The required participants needed to be on the Higher Education Worker contract at level 7 and above in Australia (Fairwork Commission 2017) and on salary spinal point 30 and above in the UK (University and College Union 2001).

There was an approximate response rate of 5.6 per cent from ATEM members (90) and 3.8 per cent from AUA members (136). However, not all members of the associations would be based in the UK or Australia, or be on the grade/level highlighted below (membership data is unavailable to the author), so an exact response rate cannot be calculated. Although these response rates were low, it has been reported that response rate is not strongly aligned with quality or representativeness (Keeter et al. 2006) and that it is the degree to which the respondents could differ from the survey population as a whole (nonresponse bias) that is important (Johnson and Wislar 2012). Additionally, Newman (2009, 9) noted that as statistical power was a function of sample size and not response rate *per se*, response rates may have a negligible effect on power if there is a large enough sample size and if the nonresponses are missing completely at random (Newman 2009, 10). When trying to compare participant representativeness, only HESA data on the ‘managerial, professional, technical’ staff cohort from the UK could be used.
Study participants were mainly women at 79 per cent, compared with 54.8 per cent in the UK ‘managerial, professional, technical’ category (Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.; data from year 2014/15). This could indicate that there was a systematic nonresponse bias and therefore the data may have poor external validity. However, women are more representative in junior and middle management positions (60 per cent) compared with senior management positions (40 per cent; Gander 2010) which may account for the difference in gender representativeness as the most common salary point for participants in this study was at the equivalent of middle management level.

**Instrument**

A multi-method instrument was created from previously validated scale items for Protean and career attitudes (Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth 2006), psychological contract factors (Raeder et al. 2009), job satisfaction (Warr, Cook, and Wall 1979), and positive and negative affect (Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988). The instrument also included questions to collect demographic and employment data. The final question was a free text box asking participants to recount their ‘career stories’.

**Analysis**

Data was checked for normality using the Shapiro-Wilks test which showed that the summated scales of values-driven, geographical- and psychological-mobility were all non-normal. However, the Q-Q plots and the z-test showed that this was only to a small degree. The summated scale of self-directed attitude was also shown to be non-normal, but to a greater degree ($z_{skewness}=-4.27$). Due to the size of the sample it
was considered that the effects would be negligible (Hair et al. 2014, 70). Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was carried out in SPSS (version 22) to identify the latent dimensions of the variables (Hair et al. 2014, 92). Cronbach’s alpha scores were computed for the summated scales (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994, 252). The questionnaire items for Protean career orientation clearly belonged to either of the two factors of self-directed career management ($\alpha=0.814$), or values-driven attitudes ($\alpha=0.759$) although one item ‘in the past I have sided with my own values when the University asked me to do something that went against my values’ – was removed as it loaded into its own factor. The Boundaryless mindset components loaded onto two factors, one which related to psychological mobility ($\alpha=0.886$) and the other related to geographical mobility preference ($\alpha=0.863$) although one question ‘I am energized by new experiences and situations’ and another ‘I seek job assignments that allow me to learn something new’ cross-loaded into a new factor. When removed, this resulted in the data failing to converge; these questions were removed when summing the items for the scales. These variables aligned with previous empirical data (Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth 2006; Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016).

**Cluster Analysis**

A cluster analysis was performed (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010) to determine which career profiles were present in the sample, taking into account the theoretical framework initially developed (Briscoe and Hall 2006) and follow up empirical evidence (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010) as cluster analysis requires a strong conceptual framework for potential clusters, as statistical clusters can often be modelled even when there is no logical
basis (Hair et al. 2014). A two-step clustering procedure was carried out, including the summated scales of self-directed, values-driven, psychological and geographical mobility, and the range was increased from 15 to 100 (to allow for the potential 16 clusters). The Bayesian information criterion algorithm was used as the goal of modelling was descriptive, that was, to create a model that would include the most meaningful factors influencing the outcome, based on an assessment of relative importance; BIC tends to derive models with fewer clusters with better fit (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). Clusters were then compared using analysis of variance with cluster membership the factor and the career attitudes the dependent variables, with post hoc t-tests using Bonferroni correction for comparison amongst clusters (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010).

**Supplementary Cluster Analysis**

A separate cluster analysis was carried out including a ‘traditional career’ variable alongside the Protean and Boundaryless orientations, as this concept, which included requirements for job security, loyalty, a career, and promotion opportunities, had been found to be important to this cohort of staff (Gander 2017).

**Qualitative Data Analysis**

This analysis involved reading through all the career stories provided (142) to gain an overall feel for the data. This was followed by a top-down content analysis approach to coding based on the concepts which emerged from the quantitative data (Ezzy 2002, 82). The emergent themes were around the ideas of value, autonomy, responsibility, and career decision-making at critical points.
Results and Discussion

Table 4.5 shows the means, standard deviations and correlations between the different study variables. The cluster analysis resulted in a two-cluster model, cluster 1 had 132 members (61.1 per cent), and cluster 2 had 84 members (38.9 per cent).

Briscoe and Hall (2006b) proposed 16 theoretical models, with eight profiles being likely to occur. The models in this analysis aligned with the predicted profiles of Solid Citizen (cluster 1) and Protean Career Architect (cluster 2). One cluster (Protean Career Architect) aligned with Segers et al. (2008; 2010) study, although there was no evidence for Hired Hand, Wanderer, or Trapped/Lost. Both clusters aligned with Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng’s (2016) study, although there was no evidence of Trapped/Lost. These differences in career profiles may be due to the different scales used by Segers et al. (2008; 2010) or due to the different populations at study. There was no significant difference between the Australian and UK clusters in this study. The supplemental cluster analysis did not derive a sound model and no further analysis was undertaken.

Table 4.5: Means, SD, and correlations of demographic and Protean and Boundaryless variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<th>6</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Highest level of education</td>
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<td>2  Age</td>
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<td>.094</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3  Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td>.067</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Self-Directed</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Values Driven</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  Psychological Mobility</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  Geographical Mobility</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>-.106</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>-.247</td>
<td>-.239</td>
<td>-.329</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p=0.05, **p=0.01
Both the career profiles in this study were high in three of the four attitudes: self-directed, values-driven and psychological mobility. This is an important finding as it provides empirical evidence for new forms of career orientations in the higher education sector, the first time that this has been shown for professional staff. It seems as if the participants in this study are willing and equipped to manage in the new contemporary career environment, with little expectation that responsibility for careers lay with the organisation as highlighted by the qualitative data:

“I feel strongly that your career is your business, it is not the business of your employer.”

The only major difference between the two clusters is that of the ability to move institutions and/or locations i.e. how geographically mobile staff are. Solid Citizens have low geographical mobility whereas Protean Career Architects are high in this attitude, with potential implications for their universities in terms of turnover intent.

**Solid Citizen**

Briscoe and Hall (2006b) defined Solid Citizens as being high in the attitudes of taking a self-directed approach to career management and being values-driven, with high psychologically mobility but low geographical mobility. The cluster model variables, in descending order of predictor importance, were psychological mobility ($\bar{x}=4.51$), self-directed ($\bar{x}=4.21$), values-driven ($\bar{x}=3.70$), and geographical mobility ($\bar{x}=2.20$). Solid Citizens are said to flourish in the right environment that matches their strong values, allows autonomy and satisfies their need for learning and challenge; they add considerable value to their organisation (Briscoe and Hall
2006b). Unlike in other studies (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010) there was no significant difference between differing demographic characteristics. Segers et al. (2008; 2010) noted that staff with these attributes were highly motivated by personal recognition, responsibility and coping with multiple demands.

The qualitative data supports this idea that professional staff working in universities have a sense of the value of the work they carry out and enjoy the ‘giving something back’ aspect of their roles:

“I think that values play a large role in why and how people work in HE. We tend to be happy to give a little more because it’s for the students, or for research, or for your colleagues who are also doing good thing for the right reasons.”

It had been reported that older employees in universities appreciated the value aspect of their work more in comparison with their younger colleagues (Strachan et al. 2012), but no age-related correlation was found in the quantitative results of this study.

The qualitative data also highlights that those needs are important in the careers of professional staff. For example, having autonomy in their role is vital:

“But the work is generally interesting and I have a high degree of autonomy”
There was also discussion of the importance of on-going learning in the stories told:

“My career largely plays into the desire for continuous improvement, learning and trying to do better”

There is also an obvious need for work that continues to be intellectually challenging:

“I have been in this role for just over a year, and I'm beginning to seek variety in my work and new challenges…I can't think of anything worse than completing the same work year after year.”

Some participants noted that there is active decision-making around balancing work and family needs:

“I have family responsibilities but also need to feel challenged”

When current roles lack autonomy or become unchallenging, these staff will often actively seek to leave their role if this is not forthcoming in their current job:

“At work I want to be challenged and when an organisation no longer offers that I will look to make a move.”

Some participants then discussed working with their current supervisor to look for future challenges:
“I am ready for new challenges now and am working with my line manager to that end.”

However, most of these staff were not geographically mobile:

“Living in a small city we don’t have many opportunities to move between universities - the whole family would need to move.

This qualitative data highlights the importance of several needs required by Solid Citizens to be satisfied in their roles. As predicted Solid Citizens need autonomy, ongoing learning opportunities and challenge (Briscoe and Hall 2006b).

**Protean Career Architect**

The Protean Career Architect shows high levels of all four career attitudes. In this study although geographical mobility was classed as high, as it was higher than the overall mean, it was still the lowest score. The cluster model variables, in descending order of predictor importance, were psychological mobility ($\bar{x}=3.47$), self-directed ($\bar{x}=3.74$), values-driven ($\bar{x}=3.50$), and geographical mobility ($\bar{x}=2.99$). Briscoe and Hall (2006) discussed this career hybrid orientation as belonging to leaders but this study has shown that a wide range of staff exhibit Protean Career Architect orientations. These attributes can be identified in the qualitative data as there is some discussion around the need for recognition of doing a good job.
“[I]Strive to do a good job, look for ways to improve processes and service provision - these are key motivation, i.e. recognition that I do care and my contribution to the organisation”

However, some participants felt that this was not always forthcoming:

“Recognition of staff contribution is limited”

There was some talk of responsibility and demanding roles, but much less than for autonomy and challenge, for example:

“I expect my institution to trust me, take me seriously, challenge me, give me responsibility…”

Additionally, these participants noted that they would move institutions, not just roles, to gain more responsibility:

“Got job in quality assurance, moved after a year to different uni seeking more responsibility,”

Protean Career Architects then are similar in their needs to Solid Citizens, but with more emphasis on responsibility and recognition as suggested by Segers et al. (2008). One of the major differences however, is their willingness to be geographically mobile, meaning that if they are unsatisfied with their current roles, they may move to other organisations to fulfill their needs.
Protean Career Architects, who Briscoe and Hall (2006b) reported would be comparatively rare as they show high levels on all four attitudes, seem to be relatively common in this study as well as having been found in the two previous empirical studies (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). Segers et al. (2008; 2010) reported that certain industries attracted and retained more Protean Career Architects, and that this profile was more commonly found in health and social work, consulting, science and research, marketing, and the government sector. A number of studies have suggested that government sector employees are motivated by job content, self-development, recognition, autonomy, interesting work, and the chance to learn new things, all aspects of the Protean career (Buelens and Broeck 2007). These two considerations could explain the results of this study, with professional staff in higher education being motivated by factors such as autonomy and challenging work as highlighted above, and higher education as a sector being akin to public service, in that staff who work in universities may self-select on their predisposition to donate labour (Gregg et al. 2011).

The data above suggest that Schein’s concept of a career anchor may be relevant for professional staff in universities, as the anchor acts as an internal motivational force that may guide career decisions (Coetzee and Schreuder 2014, 140; Schein 1996). Professional staff are compelled to find a fit between their need for value work and autonomy, with their employing university. However, Bravo et al. (2015) found in their study that one of Schein’s career anchors of autonomy was not a unique anchor but that many of the eight career anchors also required autonomy in their role. It is difficult to pinpoint from the data in this study if the anchor at work here is service/dedication i.e. value work, or autonomy/independence. Interestingly,
Rodrigues, Guest, and Budjanovcanin (2013) presented evidence that individuals did not have a single anchor, and that it could change over time with an interplay with work experience, labour market conditions and family and social background. The contemporary career theories all suggest that individuals need to rely more heavily on their own internal drivers for career success as organisations move to supporting, rather than driving, employees’ careers. Having one or more career anchors as the intrinsic motivator, a non-negotiable need from the work – and for the employer to provide this – may lead to ongoing career interpretation and negotiation leading to increased person-environment fit and career satisfaction (Coetzee and Schreuder 2014, 149+151). The time that this mismatch of needs can be tolerated for will be dependent on the individual’s context, the qualitative data emphasizes this balance that sometimes needs to be enacted:

“My work is manageable and flexible (both important as I have family responsibilities) - and also remains challenging. The balance of those three things are important factors for me in making decisions about future moves.”

This study provides an initial exploration into the career profiles of professional staff in Australian and UK universities. It shows that staff with both Solid Citizen and Protean Career Architect profiles need meaningful work and autonomy, akin to Schein’s career anchors, but if this is not forthcoming, due to their self-directed career attitude and psychological mobility, they will adjust their careers accordingly, often moving internally within the university, or in the case of Protean Career Architects potentially to another university altogether, increasing staff turnover.
Conclusion

This study has made five important contributions. Firstly, using a two-step clustering procedure, this study provides empirical evidence for two of the 16 potential career profiles first proposed by Briscoe and Hall (2006b), that of Solid Citizen and Protean Career Architect, occurring in professional staff working in the higher education sector. Second, it shows that participants are psychologically Boundaryless within their organisation (as outlined by Arthur and Rousseau 1996, 6), that is they show intra-organisational Boundaryless, willing and desiring to move roles to achieve challenging work and ongoing learning opportunities. Third, it shows that Protean Career Architects are not necessarily limited to leadership-type roles (Briscoe and Hall 2006b), but that they occur throughout the population of professional staff. Fourth, this study shows that the majority of professional staff within universities correspond to a Solid Citizen career profile, emphasising the importance of the organisation in the development of individuals’ careers, rather than solely on the agentic actions of the individuals with important considerations for organisational constraints, such as the dearth of part-time work, as well as enablers for example opportunities for job rotation (Inkson et al. 2012). Fifth, it sheds light on the importance of various aspects within the career profiles by the integration of qualitative data to illuminate the high-level career profiles, for example the emphasis on autonomy and challenging work.

As with most studies there are some limitations such as the low response rate, leading to a potential for nonresponse bias. However, the sample frame used, that of the membership of the two professional bodies, suggests no cause to suspect that those who did not respond had any different characteristics to those who did. The
broader issue could be that the sample frame is unrepresentative of the wider population of professional staff, most of whom do not belong to a professional body. There could be some cause for concern here for external validity, with the inference that those that join the professional bodies are in and of themselves more likely to be proactive in relation to their career development in terms of being engaged with wider sectorial issues and taking the enhanced CPD opportunities available. Future research should therefore attempt to sample a wider selection of professional staff. As with most survey research self-reported data was relied upon, making the data susceptible to common method bias, although the measures used have shown to have construct validity (Chan 2009, 315; Conway and Lance 2010).

These findings show that Protean and Boundaryless career concepts are applicable to professional staff working in universities in Australia and the UK especially when integrated with the idea of career anchor theory. Through the use of this career profile framework, this study highlights a greater nuance in professional staff’s careers that takes account of personal agency and the impact of the organisation (Inkson et al. 2012). Therefore, this study adds to the literature on the interrelationships between Protean and Boundaryless careers (Briscoe and Hall 2006b; Clarke 2009; Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010) and highlights the impact that industry sector can make on the resultant career profiles. Professional staff in universities show a majority career profile of Solid Citizen highlighting that these staff require high levels of autonomy, responsibility, and challenge, but are not geographically mobile as predicted (Briscoe and Hall 2006b). This may be due to the high number of female staff within the sample, with the possible concomitant family responsibilities, which limit geographical mobility,
although there was no significant difference in gender make-up between the two profiles of this study. Solid Citizens tend to show high levels of job satisfaction, but can become unmotivated when job characteristics do not meet their expectations, as highlighted by the qualitative data. Human resource strategies should take this profile of staff into consideration when developing career management initiatives, and consider job design and rotation opportunities, for example to ensure ongoing learning and challenge. Protean Career Architects will be harder to manage as they have high levels of requirements as above, but are also geographically mobile, so can leave the university if they are unsatisfied. This may lead to the investment in training and development, only to see a low return on investment, as they leave to pursue new opportunities, therefore high levels of reward and recognition are needed to ensure retention of staff in this career profile. This mixed methods approach offers an advantage over merely utilising the quantitative data, in that it provides a deeper insight into the aspects of the work environment that are important to professional staff.

References

These are incorporated in the final reference list.

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Conclusion to Part B

This paper concluded that professional staff align with some of the concepts of Protean and Boundaryless career theories. These theories suggest that individuals need to rely more heavily on their own internal drivers for career success as
organisations move to supporting, rather than driving, employees’ careers. It was argued that having one or more career anchors act as the intrinsic motivator, a non-negotiable need from the work – and for the employer to provide this – may lead to ongoing career interpretation and negotiation leading to increased person-environment fit and career satisfaction (Coetzee and Schreuder 2014, 149, 151).

This needs requirement may contribute to the formation and management of the psychological contract, which has been defined as ‘an individual’s beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of implicit agreement between the individual and the organization’ (Sturges et al. 2005, 822). If these needs are not met then psychological contract breach, that is the cognition of a broken agreement, may occur (Thompson and Bunderson 2003). Breach may be tolerated for some time before violation occurs, which is considered to be a separate construct to breach and is defined as the emotional reaction to the breach, which may lead to intent to leave the organisation (Thompson and Bunderson 2003).

The following section presents the results of the analysis of the psychological contract which is considered to be an important perspective in career management considering the psychological contract is a key construct in understanding the employment relationship.
Towards an Understanding of the Career Profiles of Professional Staff in Universities: A Mixed Methods Study
PART C


Introduction to Part C

This paper investigates the research question: ‘what is the influence of the psychological contract on the career management perception of professional staff working in higher education?’ This is considered to be an important perspective considering the psychological contract is a key construct in understanding the employment relationship. Part of this employment relationship is the expectation around career management support and evidence suggests that individuals continue to have expectations of receiving some forms of career management help from their employers (Granrose and Baccili 2006; Sturges, Guest, and Mac Davey 2000). This suggests that the psychological contract will in part reflect career-related promises and expectations, which the employee believes that the employer has implicitly communicated (Sturges et al. 2005). This study investigated the career composition of psychological contracts as well as evaluating psychological contract breach and its relationships to satisfaction, positive affect (the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic), negative affect (when a person feels distressed and in an unpleasurable mood), intent to leave and career profile. This is an important area of research as frustration with psychological contract exchange may create low-quality
compliance based relationships (Akoto 2014). The paper introduces the Theory of Work Adjustment as a lens through which to view satisfaction, psychological contract breach (PCB) and intent to leave.

An important question is why certain employees are affected by PCB more strongly than others. From an employer’s perspective it would be useful to identify factors that negatively impact on employees’ work attitudes. Some suggestions regarding situational moderators have been made; for example, that trust, organisational justice, organisational support or leader-member exchange are important factors that intensify or lessen the impact of breach (Gerber et al. 2012. Other factors such as being on a fixed-term contract, being unsatisfied with the work, and showing negative affect may also contribute to breach. These may all lead to increases in intent to leave.

It has also been suggested that certain career profiles could moderate the relationship between satisfaction and intent to leave and breach (Gerber et al. 2012). The results showed that all career items within the psychological contract scale were found to be significantly at breach (p=.001). This supports other studies which have shown PCB to be relatively common place (Conway and Briner 2002; Turnley and Feldman 2000).

The results also show that career items within the psychological contract could be split into different variables: Contemporary Career Expectations (interesting work, skill development, skill utilisation and opportunities for task responsibility) and
Traditional Career Expectations (job security, loyalty, a career and opportunities for promotion), and Contemporary Career Perceived Benefits and Traditional Career Perceived Benefits. These results confirmed other work that showed that contemporary career factors have infiltrated the psychological contract (e.g. Granrose and Baccili 2006). Psychological contract breach could also be split into two variables: PCB: Contemporary and PCB: Traditional.

Only two hypotheses were supported, that PCB: Traditional is predicted by being on a fixed-term contract, and is related to levels of satisfaction, which is consistent with research on work satisfaction that suggests individuals undertake an assessment of whether their job meets their expectations (Bunderson 2001), and Expectations: Contemporary. The fact that Expectations: Contemporary is positively correlated with breach indicates that individuals with higher levels of expectations may be more disappointed in the perceived benefits they receive. The majority of hypothesis were not supported; neither breach variables were related to positive affect or intent to leave the university.

This study showed that Solid Citizens were more likely to be permanent and have a lower intent to leave. Being a Protean Career Architect meant that individuals were more likely to have received an award in the last three years and had a higher level of intent to leave. However, the hypothesis that being a Solid Citizen would moderate breach and intent to leave was not supported, neither did being a Protean Career Architect moderate PCB and satisfaction, potentially due to violation not being apparent.
Abstract

It has been argued that contemporary careers and changing psychological contracts pose new challenges for human resource management practices, although there is limited evidence on how psychological contracts may be changing. In response to this, this study determines the extant career profiles in a sample of universities’ professional staff and how these profiles may impact upon the psychological contract. It was found that psychological contracts could be categorised into contemporary or traditional, that all items within the contracts were at breach, and that career profile did not moderate between breach and satisfaction, or breach and intent to leave. In conclusion, psychological contract expectations of contemporary career factors are one of the most important predictor variables of breach alongside satisfaction.

Keywords

Psychological contract, career development, job satisfaction, turnover

Introduction

Contemporary career discourse has often concentrated on the Protean and Boundaryless career orientations, however, several scholars have introduced more nuanced career profiles integrating aspects of Protean and Boundaryless careers. For example, Briscoe and Hall (2006) first theorised integrating Protean and Boundaryless career aspects to create 16 different career profiles dependent on their...
high or low scoring on self-directed and values-driven career management (Protean) and psychological and physical mobility (Boundaryless). Eight of these were deemed to be likely in real-life: Fortressed, Hired Hand, Idealist, Organization Wo/man, Protean Career Architect, Solid Citizen, Trapped/Lost, Wanderer. This model has been empirically tested with a number of the proposed career profiles being found (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). Gerber et al. (2009, 2012) found evidence for career profiles categorised as independent, disengaged, traditional/promotion, and traditional/loyalty. Clarke (2009) found evidence for the career profiles of pragmatists, plodders, visionaries, and opportunists. This work suggests that individuals acting out their careers form more complex profiles than purely traditional, Protean or Boundaryless careers may have indicated. With the move towards more complex career profiles, better understanding how these new careers impact on the psychological contract of employees within organisations is needed. Research that has been undertaken indicates that psychological contracts have already fundamentally changed to incorporate the new contemporary careers (Gerber et al. 2012; Granrose and Baccili 2006).

The purpose of this study is to examine the extent to which Protean and Boundaryless careers, through the use of career profiles based on Briscoe and Hall (2006), may have influenced changes to individuals’ psychological contracts, the impact on psychological contract breach (PCB) and intent to leave the organisation. By doing this, the paper attempts to make several contributions to the literature, first by outlining how the categories of the psychological contract may have evolved from the original definitions by Rousseau (1989), second by testing predictor
variables on PCB, satisfaction, and intent to leave, and how these may potentially change dependent on career profile, and third on how career profile may explain differences in individual behaviour using the Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA).

**Literature Review**

Rousseau (1989), in her conceptualisation of the psychological contract, focused on the individual employee’s subjective view of their employment and their ideas of reciprocal expectations. For this paper, Rousseau’s (1989) definition is used – that it is the employees’ beliefs in perceived obligations from the organisation in return for contributions that they make, which constitutes the psychological contract. Previous studies show that the psychological contract type depends on the terms of employment such as duration of contract and number of contracted working hours which have highlighted that less permanent employees have fewer expectations and higher intention to leave, especially when there are labour shortages in the external labour market (Hamilton and Von Treuer 2012; Raeder et al. 2009), thus:

That individuals on less permanent contracts are more likely to be in breach (H1a) and have a higher intent to leave (H1b).

When employees become aware that the perceived organisational obligations have not been met, psychological contract breach (PCB) occurs. Breach has been shown to reduce psychological wellbeing, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment, and increase intention to leave (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall 2008). Previous work
has identified that if an employee’s psychological contract is breached due to lack of promotion opportunities and long-term job security, job satisfaction decreases and intention to leave the organisation increases (Rayton and Yalabik 2014; Granrose and Baccili 2006). Bunderson (2001) found that administrative breach of contract was related to increased intention to leave, whilst professional breach of contract was related to decreased work satisfaction and affective commitment. Granrose and Baccili (2006) showed that most employees perceived a breach for obligations such as job security, training and support, and promotion opportunities but that this did not lead to a positive relationship with intent to leave. This inconsistent data therefore leads to:

Psychological contract breach is negatively related to work satisfaction (H2a) and positive affect (H2b), and positively related to intent to leave (H2c).

Segers et al. (2008; 2010), in testing Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profile theory, found the career profiles of Solid Citizens, Trapped/Lost, Hired Hand, and Wanderer in their sample with some differences between groups in terms of age, gender, educational attainment, management experiences and industry. Kuron, Schweitzer and Ng (2016) found profiles of Solid Citizen, Protean Career Architect and Trapped/Lost; they also found some differences between clusters in terms of gender, age and educational attainment. Gerber et al. (2012) found that employees with an independent career orientation, which can be aligned to the Protean Career Architect profile, could moderate their relationship between PCB (related to support for career and skill development) and their ongoing work satisfaction, therefore:
That the Protean Career Architect career profile moderates the relationship between PCB and satisfaction (H3).

The Solid Citizen profile could be aligned to Gerber et al. (2012) traditional career orientation which is more concerned with upward and long-term employment in one organisation (traditional/promotion sub type) as well as being concerned with job security and loyalty (traditional/loyalty sub type). There has been no empirical work relating Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profiles to the psychological contract, however, from their theoretical outlines of the different career profiles, and Gerber et al. (2012) work, therefore the following hypotheses are considered:

That the Solid Citizen career profile will have lower levels of psychological contract breach than Protean Career Architects (H4).

That the Solid Citizen career profile moderates the positive relationship between breach and intent to leave (H5).

The Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) has been applied in this paper to career profile theory to illuminate individual psychological processes that may be at play in career decision-making. TWA is a model of person-environment fit and person-environment interaction (Swanson and Schneider 2013, 30). In terms of organisational behaviour, it is considered a model of fit as it describes the degree to which an employee and an organisation are similar enough for both parties to be
happy (correspondence), and as a model of interaction as it reflects the adjustment behaviour that can occur from either side to maintain, or attempt to regain, fit if it is lost (dis-correspondence). TWA is a predictive model in that it focuses on the variables that predict an employee’s satisfaction with the work environment and the work environment’s satisfaction with the employee. This alignment then predicts tenure, the main outcome of the model (Dawis and Lofquist 1976). TWA is also a process model which focuses on how individuals and organisations attain and maintain fit (Swanson and Schneider 2013, 30). This dynamic process aspect dealing with how employees and the organisation change, is an under-theorized and under-researched aspect (Hesketh and Griffin 2005, 246). It is proposed that different career profiles will have different focuses on their adjustment behaviour to regain fit if individuals find they are at dis-correspondence with the organisation.

As a result of these studies, there has been a call from researchers in this area to analyse the interplay between different boundaries or to recognize that careers are contextually specific and socially embedded (Greenhaus, Callanan, and Cooper 2008). These different perspectives could ‘illuminate how individuals’ work matters to the inhabited world in which careers unfold’ (Dany 2014, 724), and allow organisations to align their human resource strategies to provide support for individual career management that would positively impact on employees’ psychological contracts. Therefore, as Australian universities spend in the region of 54 per cent of income on staff costs (data from 2019; Universities Australia 2019), and are undergoing reductions in real-term funding (Byrne 2011), universities arguably need to understand their workforce in greater depth so they can align...
individual vocational advantage with organisational advantage. The focus of this study then is to explore if contemporary careers have been integrated into the psychological contract within professional staff within universities – to provide greater understanding of the content of the psychological contract, PCB, and the impact on intent to leave. This is an important consideration as frustration with the psychological contract exchange may create low-quality social relationships that are based only upon compliance (Akoto 2014). The issue of whether contemporary career attributes have found their way into individual employees’ expectations of their psychological contract has not been explored in any depth compared with aspects of the traditional career.

**Method**

A convenience sample was used to gather a suitable number of responses from professional staff in Australian and UK universities via third parties. Professional staff were chosen due to their increased importance in the operation of universities as a result of ongoing increases in complexity and volume of regulatory activities (Byrne 2011), and their under-researched status, especially in the understanding of their careers (Szekeres 2011). Professional staff in this study were defined as non-academic, graduate entry, which corresponds in Australia to being employed on the Higher Education Worker contract at level 7 and above (Fairwork Commission 2017) and in the UK on salary spinal point 30 and above (University and College Union 2001).
In order to better estimate the effects of traits on the psychological contract (Restubog, Bordia, and Tang 2006), the following variables were used as controls variables: age, gender, number of awards and contract type (Segers et al. 2008). Work satisfaction ($\alpha=.88$) was measured using (Warr, Cook, and Wall 1979). Positive affect ($\alpha=.83$) and negative affect ($\alpha=.86$) were measured using Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988). Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes were measured using Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth (2006). The Protean orientation consisted 14 questions divided into two subscales of eight questions related to self-directed attitude ($\alpha=.81$) and six questions related to values-driven attitude ($\alpha=.72$). The Boundaryless orientation consisted of eight questions related to psychological mobility ($\alpha=.90$) and five questions (reverse-coded) related to locational mobility ($\alpha=.86$). Eight psychological contract items from a questionnaire by Raeder et al. (2009) were used to test employees’ career needs from the organisation. Maximum likelihood estimation indicated that individuals’ psychological contract expectations could be split into two variables of contemporary career factors ($\alpha=.77$) and traditional career factors ($\alpha=.74$). Psychological contract perceived benefits could also be split into two the variables with contemporary factors ($\alpha=.76$) and traditional factors ($\alpha=.85$), respectively.

**Results**

There were 226 usable responses, 90 from Australia and 136 from the UK. Demographics are shown in Table 4.6. The data shows that most respondents were female, aged 40-49, had worked in their current university for over 10 years, but in their current job less than five years.
K-means analysis was carried out to find the best cluster solution using the summated scales of self-directed, values-driven, psychological mobility and locational mobility. Sixteen cluster solutions were first identified as this was the theoretical number from Briscoe and Hall (2006). The clusters were then evaluated and the clusters reassigned to create the most distinct clusters (Hair et al. 2014, 443–445). Once this was complete a two-step clustering procedure was carried out with a two-cluster solution to produce the cluster patterns.

Table 4.6: Demographic and employment data of professional staff (n=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic/employment status</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Demographic/employment status</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td>Type of contract</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Have you received an award in the last 3 years?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td>Considering applying for promotion in next 3 years?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of time in university</td>
<td></td>
<td>Do you intend to leave your job in the next 12 months?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5 years</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Yes, actively looking</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Possibly, not actively looking</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10+ years</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of time in current job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5 years</td>
<td>137</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10+ years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Clusters were then compared using analysis of variance with cluster membership the factor and the career attitudes the dependent variables. The clusters found in this sample were Solid Citizens (scoring high in three attitudes: self-directed, values-driven, psychological mobility and low on locational mobility) and Protean Career Architects (scoring high in all four attitudes).

Psychological contract breach (Table 4.7) was measured by subtracting perceived benefits from expectations (Gerber et al. 2012). If the difference score was zero the perceived benefits and expectations corresponded, if it was negative, expectations exceeded perceived benefits and if it was positive, then perceived benefits did not meet expectations.

Table 4.7: Means and standard deviations for psychological contract expectations and received benefits showing breach (n=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Expectations</th>
<th>Benefits received</th>
<th>Breach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean SD N</td>
<td>Mean SD N</td>
<td>Mean*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>3.84 0.79 219</td>
<td>3.11 0.96 218</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>3.81 0.80 218</td>
<td>3.36 1.02 218</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting work</td>
<td>4.22 0.64 219</td>
<td>3.89 0.84 218</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task responsibility</td>
<td>4.41 0.52 219</td>
<td>3.97 0.88 217</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion opportunities</td>
<td>4.13 0.74 219</td>
<td>2.96 1.14 218</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A career</td>
<td>3.99 0.84 219</td>
<td>3.38 0.99 218</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill development</td>
<td>4.37 0.60 218</td>
<td>3.61 1.02 217</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill application</td>
<td>4.25 0.66 219</td>
<td>3.58 1.04 217</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p=.001
Breath was also compared using the significant differences between means by running a paired-sample t-test, which showed that all items were in breach at \( p=.001 \). Factor analysis results show that PCB could be split into two different factors related to the type of career factors: contemporary and traditional.

Table 4.8 shows the means, standard deviations and correlation matrix for the variables in the study. Solid Citizens have a significant negative relationship with psychological contract contemporary career expectations \((r=-.28, p<.01)\) and intent to leave \((r=-.14, p<.05)\), and a positive correlation with being on a permanent contract \((r=.14, p<.05)\).

Protean Career Architects are significantly positively correlated with psychological contract contemporary career expectations \((r=.27, p<.01)\), number of awards in the last three years \((r=.14, p<.05)\) and intent to leave \((r=.14, p<.05)\). PCB: Contemporary is significantly positively correlated with intent to leave \((r=.33, p<.01)\) as is PCB: Traditional \((r=.25, p<.01)\).
Table 4.8: Means, standard deviations and correlations for all measured variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Age</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Gender</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Highest educational attainment</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-0.094</td>
<td>-0.067</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Tenure in current job</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>-0.179</td>
<td>-0.194</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Tenure in current university</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>-0.165</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  Permanent or fixed-term contract</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>-0.193</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>0.175</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  Monetary award in last 3 years</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-0.072</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>-0.106</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  Intent to leave</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>-0.156</td>
<td>-0.115</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.164</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>-0.057</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>-0.379</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Positive affect</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-0.096</td>
<td>-0.019</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>-0.064</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>-0.429</td>
<td>0.655</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 PC Expectations: Contemporary</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-0.038</td>
<td>-0.095</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>-0.018</td>
<td>-0.171</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 PC Expectations: Traditional</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-0.022</td>
<td>-0.017</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>-0.063</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.473</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 PC Benefits: Contemporary</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-0.191</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>-0.091</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.374</td>
<td>-0.379</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td>0.546</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 PC Benefits: Traditional</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>-0.131</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>-0.003</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>-0.267</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.442</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 PCB Contemporary</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.841</td>
<td>0.363</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 PCB Traditional</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>-0.203</td>
<td>-0.164</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>-0.276</td>
<td>0.276</td>
<td>-0.441</td>
<td>-0.878</td>
<td>0.565</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Solid Citizen</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>-1.120</td>
<td>-1.143</td>
<td>-0.095</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>-0.279</td>
<td>-0.072</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Protean Career Architect</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>-0.116</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>0.265</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.906</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=226; *p<.05; **p<.01; Gender: Female=1, Male=2; Education: Pre-high school=1, High school=2, Graduate=3, Masters=4, Doctorate=5; Tenure: Less than 5 years=1, 5-10 years=2, 10+ years=3; Contract: Fixed-term=1, Permanent=2; Monetary Award in last 3 years: No=1, Yes=2; Intent to leave: No=1, Possibly not actively looking=2, Yes, actively looking=3.
Table 4.9: Results of hierarchical regression analyses of PCB: Contemporary, PCB: Traditional, satisfaction and intent to leave

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>PCB: Contemporary</th>
<th>PCB: Traditional</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Intent to leave</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Award</td>
<td>-.29***</td>
<td>-.16***</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>-.18**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>-.62***</td>
<td>-.56***</td>
<td>-.15*</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Affect</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intent to Leave</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations: Contemporary</td>
<td>.36***</td>
<td>.32***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCB: Contemporary</td>
<td>-.45***</td>
<td>-.44***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCB: Traditional</td>
<td>-.25***</td>
<td>-.26***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career cluster profile</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCB: Contemporary x Career cluster profile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R2</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2 change</td>
<td>.10***</td>
<td>.52***</td>
<td>.05*</td>
<td>.40***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=226. Standardized Beta coefficients are presented in this table. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. Cluster profile: 1=Solid Citizen, 2=Protean Career Architect.
The results of the regression analyses are presented in Table 4.9. PCB: Traditional is predicted by individuals’ contract type (β=-.18, p<.01), supporting H1a, and is related to levels of satisfaction (β=-.56, p<.001), supporting H2a, and Expectations: Contemporary (β=.32, p<.001). PCB: Contemporary is predicted by whether individuals have received a monetary award in the last three years (β=-.16, p<.001), to levels of satisfaction (β=-.62, p<.001) and to Expectations: Contemporary (β=.36, p<.001). PCB is not predicted by positive affect or intent to leave and so H2b and H2c are not supported. Satisfaction is predicted by positive affect (β=.36, p<.001), Expectations: Contemporary (β=.20, p<.001), PCB: Contemporary (β=-.56, p<.001) and PCB: Traditional (β=-.25, p<.001). Intent to leave was only predicted by positive affect (β=-.21, p<.05) and career cluster (β=-.15, p<.05). H3 suggested that being a Protean Career Architect may moderate the relationship between satisfaction and PCB but this was not shown therefore this hypothesis was rejected. Hypothesis H4 suggested that being a Solid Citizen should lead to lower levels of breach than being a Protean Career Architect, however, a one-way ANOVA did not show any significant difference in breach between the two career profiles. Additionally, H5 was not supported as the career profile did not act as a moderator between PCB: Contemporary and intent to leave.

Discussion
This paper explores aspects of employees’ psychological contracts that are relevant to contemporary career profiles and makes three unique contributions to scholarship. Firstly, it was found that the psychological contract took two different forms, one that reflected more traditional career requirements of job security, loyalty, a career
and opportunities for promotion, and the other that reflected a more contemporary career model including interesting work, skill development, skill utilisation and opportunities for task responsibility. These findings support previous studies that have linked contemporary careers and psychological contracts (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall 2008; Gerber et al. 2012; McDonald, Brown, and Bradley 2005; Raeder et al. 2009; Granrose and Baccili 2006).

Second, it was found that all variables within the psychological contract were perceived to have been breached. This supports other studies which have shown PCB to be relatively common place (Conway and Briner 2002; Turnley and Feldman 2000). Creating variables that split breach into contemporary career or traditional career factors resulted in a much more granular understanding of the importance of variables that can predict breach. These results show that PCB: Contemporary can be predicted by employees’ psychological contract Expectations: Contemporary as well as by low levels of satisfaction and the number of awards received in the last three years. The number of awards could be acting as a proxy for recognition, and Segers et al. (2008) found that Solid Citizens were somewhat motivated by remuneration. In this study lack of recognition could be leading to PCB. PCB: Traditional can be predicted by low levels of satisfaction, Expectations: Contemporary and by being on a fixed-term contract. Previous work has shown that dis-satisfaction with compensation can affect levels of motivation (Ghazanfar et al. 2011) and that less permanent contracts lead to fewer expectations from employers (Raeder et al. 2009). Bunderson (2001) showed that there were two different responses to PCB where administrative breach led to increased turnover intent,
whereas a professional breach was not related to intent to leave, but was negatively associated with organizational commitment and productivity; both breaches were negatively associated with job satisfaction.

The results of this study, which show that breach is negatively correlated with satisfaction, is consistent with research on work satisfaction that suggests individuals undertake an assessment of whether their job meets their expectations (Bunderson 2001). The fact that Expectations: Contemporary is positively correlated with breach indicates that individuals with higher levels of expectations may be more disappointed in the perceived benefits they receive. Neither breach variables are related to intent to leave the university. Scholars have indicated that perceived breach i.e. broken agreements, and violation, that is the emotional reaction to the breach, are two distinct concepts and this may offer some explanation of why there is this perception, but that violation is low and it did not lead to an increase in turnover intent (Thompson and Bunderson 2003).

Third, the results show that different career profiles interact with their organisation in different ways. This study shows that Solid Citizens are more likely to be permanent and have a lower intent to leave. Being a Protean Career Architect means individuals are more likely to have received an award in the last three years and have a higher level of intent to leave, due to the higher levels of locational mobility. However, the hypothesis that being a Solid Citizen would moderate breach and intent to leave was not supported, neither did being a Protean Career Architect moderate PCB and satisfaction, potentially due to violation not being apparent.
Analysing the psychological contract using career profiles provides a more nuanced understanding of how individuals are managing their psychological relationship with their organisation. The literature suggested that non-permanent workers have fewer psychological contract expectations (Hamilton and Treuer 2012; Raeder et al. 2009), but this study has shown that permanent employees grouped in the Solid Citizens profile have fewer expectations compared with Protean Career Architects, which may be one way that they manage their lack of locational mobility. They cannot move organisations or locations easily if PCB or violation occurs, so they reduce their expectations accordingly.

In this study, the two career profiles may be showing different levels of tolerance for dis-correspondence (as highlighted by PCB) due to differences in their Boundaryless mindsets with respect to locational mobility. Solid Citizens potentially have higher levels of flexibility (how much dis-correspondence can be tolerated before an individual initiates an adjustment), that is they have a wide area of tolerable dis-correspondence because they are not locationally mobile, therefore they need to be able to tolerate the conditions for longer, and make more of an attempt to change the environment and themselves to regain correspondence. Alternatively, Protean Career Architects, being much more locationally mobile, will be less flexible, and that they will move with greater alacrity from the area of tolerable dis-correspondence, to adjustment and then to unmanageable fit. Both career profiles would still show a combination of active and reactive measures, due to their tenure. They do not want to leave their job and/or organisation, but they will do so if they cannot adjust...
environments appropriately for them, Protean Career Architects more so than Solid Citizens.

This study only looked at the employee perception of psychological contract expectations and received benefits, and has not considered employer perspectives; future research should take this into consideration. Additionally, future research should consider not just a measure of breach but also a measure of violation, as this study seems to indicate that breach does not lead to increased intent to leave, at odds with much research in this area. The sample could be unrepresentative of the wider population of professional staff so future research could attempt to sample a wider selection. Due to the reliance on self-reported data, there could be susceptibility to common method bias, however, due to the information being collected, that is subjective, this is the most relevant measure (Chan 2009).

There are significant implications for employees and organisations to be found in these results. From an organisational perspective, it is perhaps a difficult message to hear that employees still value aspects of the traditional organisational career, and that they perhaps have not moved as fast as organisations in embracing new career orientations. For universities, there are benefits to contemporary career orientations, with a more flexible workforce with increased use of casual contracts, and hiring from outside of academia, movement across organisational and sectorial boundaries, and reduced requirements to actively manage employees’ careers. However, the literature supports that employees who have low levels of well-being or satisfaction have an increased intent to leave, and that decreased well-being and satisfaction in
professional staff in universities can arise from lack of career support, being kept on fixed-term or casual contracts, and undergoing re-structures (Gottschalk and McEachern 2010; Johnsrud, Heck and Rosser 2000). Universities, therefore, need to consider how to support staff with these complex psychological contracts that integrate both traditional and contemporary requirements. It could be argued that the evidence of PCB shows that they are not managing this as well as they could be. They need to consider how they can support career requirements for a good career and promotion opportunities, perhaps by re-evaluating learning and organisational development opportunities, and by reviewing their internal versus external labour market usage.

Conclusion
This study’s findings suggest that the psychological contract expectations of contemporary career factors have become an important aspect in predicting work satisfaction and PCB. The two career profiles found were shown to be an important variable predicting intent to leave, with Protean Career Architects showing a higher intent to leave the organisation than Solid Citizens, however, career profile did not moderate PCB and intent to leave. These results suggest employees within universities have embraced contemporary career factors but these sit alongside the need for more traditional career factors, indicated by the high numbers of Solid Citizens in the sample. However, it also shows that PCB is ubiquitous with number of awards (recognition), contract type and levels of satisfaction being important predictor variables. The use of TWA has highlighted how different career profiles react to different levels of dis-correspondence, with Solid Citizens showing more
flexibility in their area of tolerable dis-correspondence, due to their desire to remain in the organisation. These results suggest that organisations may need to do more to manage the psychological contract expectations of staff upon entry, as well as ongoing management throughout their tenure, to reduce PCB.

References

References are incorporated in the final reference list.

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Conclusion to Part C

This study contributed five main findings to the psychological contract literature. It was found that the psychological contract could be split into two different variables: Contemporary Career Expectations and Traditional Career Expectations, which confirms previous work that contemporary career factors have infiltrated the psychological contract. It was found that all career variables tested for were perceived to be at breach. By creating two different breach variables, traditional and contemporary, it was shown that different mechanism are working on different career variables. It was shown for instance that breach of Contemporary breach could be predicted by low satisfaction and low number of awards received. For Traditional breach the variables were low satisfaction, and being on a fixed-term contract. It was also found that Solid Citizens were likely to be permanent and have lower intent to leave than Protean Career Architects, who were more likely to have received an award and have higher intent to leave.
These findings show that, for universities at least, high expectations from an organisation leads to high levels of PCB. PCB is known to be common in organisations, and more work could be done when onboarding new staff to manage expectations and therefore alleviate breach. It was an unsurprising finding that being on a fixed-term contract led to increased likelihood of breach or receiving a low number of monetary awards. However, it was a useful finding in that Solid Citizens had a lower intent to leave than Protean Career Architects. This may be somewhat explained by the use of the Theory of Work Adjustment in that as Solid Citizens have less geographic mobility, they work harder to maintain a good person-organisation fit by tolerating higher levels of dis-correspondence than Protean Career Architects, whom with their increased geographic mobility, are less tolerant moving from dis-correspondence to unmanageable fit and then to leaving the organisation.

The work in the preceding papers has highlighted that creating various career profiles for staff can lead to a useful framework for human resource management practices. The next section goes on to use a different analysis to evaluate career profiles as a test against the preceding career profile theory based on Briscoe and Hall (2006). It takes a purely qualitative approach to try and determine the experiences of professional staff in managing their careers in their organisation and the sector generally.
PART D

Gander, Michelle. 2018. “Exploring the Careers of University Professional Staff”
Manuscript under consideration.

Introduction to Part D

The changing emphasis from viewing careers as objective constructs towards individually constructed subjective reality, forms a basis for a new examination of how individuals view their careers. This paper outlines the use of a qualitative analysis to answer the following research questions: ‘what is the experience of the contemporary career of professional staff?’, ‘can understanding career profiles explain their experience?’, and ‘what are the drivers and constraints influencing contemporary career management?’. It also attempts to ‘determine the factors influencing the contemporary career of professional staff in higher education’; a key research aim of this study.

Inductive thematic analysis was utilised to create themes that represented the participants’ careers. This study is underpinned by Career Construction Theory (CCT; Savickas 2013), which provided a framework to discuss the ways in which people manage their careers. The results show that there were five key career concerns of these staff: pro-activity, promotion, job satisfaction, job security, and mobility. By rating these as high, medium, or low, four career profiles emerged: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed. Given that there has been extensive literature on the move from traditional to contemporary careers (Baruch and Vardi 2016), this study highlights
that this has been overplayed, and that in the real world employees working in universities value aspects of traditional careers, especially those related to job security and the chance of a career.

It was found that the application of career adaptability dimensions from CCT (Savickas 2013) could be used to provide a greater understanding of the underlying coping mechanisms at play in the different career profiles. By applying these dimensions to the profiles, it may allow for a more considered human resource management intervention in supporting employees in their work-related decision-making. Both the Intra- and Inter-Organisational Advancement career profiles had high levels of career control, curiosity and confidence but only a medium level of career concern. This is a reflection on the context of working within a university, where there are no set career paths and little vocational guidance offered for managing one’s career. This translates into individuals being unable to plan and therefore prepare effectively for development tasks and career transitions as there is often no long-term trajectory. The Work-Life Balance profile had a high level of control, but low level of concern, because they could not particularly plan and prepare for future career paths. They had medium levels of curiosity and confidence in that they were open to new possibilities and could be self-efficacious. However, they had high levels of control as they showed self-regulation and deliberate career-related activities in terms of what they could do to maintain their job satisfaction in light of their career restrictions. The Fixed profile showed low levels of all adaptability dimensions. That is, they could not see a future career path so could not prepare and plan for it, they had become uncurious and closed to new possibilities and they did not set goals or have the self-belief to be able to achieve them.
However, these two profiles especially may have some temporal element to them, for example childcare needs or towards the end of a career.

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Abstract

Higher education is in an evolving regulatory and funding landscape across many countries. These changes have been ongoing for several decades but little attention has been paid to the impact of these changes on professional staff and their careers. This study investigated the careers of professional staff working in universities in Australia and the UK. Career stories (139) were collected via an open-ended question within a larger multi-method survey. Inductive thematic analysis was used to create themes relevant to the participants’ careers. These themes were then scored to create career profiles. Four career profiles emerged from the data: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed. By applying the ideas of career adaptability from Career Construction Theory, the underlying psychosocial mechanism for adaptation through the life-course is explored. It is suggested that by grouping staff into career profiles human resource practitioners could provide more targeted interventions such as training and development, dependent on which adaptability dimension needs supporting.

Keywords Higher education, professional staff, careers, career construction theory, career adaptability
Introduction

Higher education (HE) has seen continued changes to funding models, increased regulation and marketisation, a massified system, and the introduction of corporate management models, leading to a significant change in the way that universities, and the people within them, are managed. Whilst these changes are not new, they have led to universities becoming major businesses; contributing significant sums to their country’s gross domestic product, as well as becoming significant employers. Universities employ significant numbers of staff to run their operations in the broad categories of academic, management, technical, and support staff. The changes mentioned above have led to a need for more management focused staff to work in collaboration with academic staff to ensure the delivery of teaching and research outcomes, as well as ensuring regulatory compliance. There is an argument that universities have been slow in realising that the increasing business focused agenda has ‘brought in highly professional and expert … staff’ (Eveline 2004, 34).

These highly professional and expert staff are not easily defined. Historically, these staff have been identified as ‘non-academic’ or as the ‘academic civil service’ but they are also known as administrators, academic-related, professional services, allied, and general staff, dependent on institution and country. Bossu, Brown and Warren (2018) noted that professional staff have ‘identity insecurity’ and the literature shows how professional staff continue to debate and validate their roles. The lack of clear nomenclature for a large section of a university’s staff is perhaps a symptom of its identity insecurity as well as the often invisible, hidden, unnoticed and undervalued professional staff which is at odds with their increasing positions of authority, importance and centrality to the operation of their organisation (Johnsrud,
Heck, and Rosser 2000; Lewis 2014; Szekeres 2006). Other studies have reported that professional staff in a number of Western countries are given little credit and appreciation for their understanding and negotiation of the complexities of both academic work and management work, within an increasingly regulated and financially-driven environment (Eveline 2004; Johnsrud, Heck, and Rosser 2000; Whitchurch 2004). There has also been a move towards a cadre of staff under the term ‘blended’ or those that which occupy a ‘third-space’ – somewhere between the academic and management roles – an overlap model (Veles and Carter 2016; C. Whitchurch 2009a; Schneijderberg and Merkator 2013).

This paper is concerned with what will be classified as professional staff. Professional staff will usually be graduates and will often hold postgraduate or doctoral degrees. There are an increasing number of these staff undertaking specific Master of Business Administration courses (or other specific postgraduate level courses) to improve professional practice, knowledge and confidence (Gander 2015). They will hold roles in areas such as governance, registry, student services, library, human resources, finance, research, teaching and learning and so on. These staff are becoming increasingly ‘professionalised’, part of the ongoing re-definition of professions to include an organisational or managerial professional with claims based on codes of knowledge and practices, aligned to organisational strategies (Greenwood et al. 2013, 4–5).

In HE, Barnett (2008) noted that ‘professionalism is witnessing a lurch from an ethic of service to an ethic of performance’ (2008,197). A study on preferred nomenclature of professional staff showed that in an Australian context these staff
preferred the term professional staff which correlated with their growing aspirational and professional needs in terms of performance expectations and accountabilities (Sebalj, Holbrook, and Bourke 2012). This aligns with the findings of Whitchurch (2004) who argued that professional services have developed from a traditional ‘subservient to the academic endeavour’ (296) model to one that is somewhat independent of this, with increasingly specialist expertise. Considering the above, there has been little attention paid to the changing careers of professional staff within the academy, an oversight considering:

“The role of professional administrative and support staff is becoming more pivotal as the sector becomes more competitive, more business and market focused, and more international ... the old divide between academic and ‘non-academic’ is starting to change. (Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009, 5)

The careers research that has been carried out has tended to investigate career enablers and barriers of particular cohorts of staff such as women in management (Sagas and Cunningham 2004), student support administrators (Rosser and Javinar 2003), and African American administrators (Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014). There has been little written about the careers of the more general cohort (Johnsrud, Heck, and Rosser 2000; Jo 2008). Additionally, research is often carried out from a ‘careers’ basis but this study takes a career development perspective, that is it explores how individual and contextual factors influence an individual’s career over time. This lack of research on this cohort of staff, is an oversight considering the literature suggests there is a correlation between employee satisfaction (including career opportunities), organisational performance and turnover intent (Fabi,
Lacoursière, and Raymond 2015). Considering that recruitment and workforce development has become a critical issue for competitiveness in the globalised market for academic and professional staff (Gordon and Whitchurch 2007), this paper aims to provide additional analysis of the career needs, behaviours and career decision-making of professional staff working in universities.

**Literature Review**

Careers have changed. In the modern industrialism paradigm of the 20th Century employees had careers within only a few organisations, perhaps even only one, where loyalty led to job security, and the organisation directed the careers of its staff, and success was achieved through advancement (Clarke 2009; Savickas 1993). Even before the turn of the 21st Century careers scholars were arguing that the traditional organisational career had changed, and that new more relevant career theories were needed to reflect the new employment paradigm and many new career theories were developed (see Baruch and Vardi 2016 for an overview). Arguably, many scholars exaggerated the death of the organisational career with many individuals today still working in organisations (International Labor Organization 2017).

Two popular contemporary career orientations are Protean and Boundaryless, which evolved from the changing economic environment in the 1970s and 1980s with scholars predicting the death of the organisational or traditional career (Baruch 2006; Sullivan and Baruch 2009). The Boundaryless career in particular emphasises the mobility of individuals within and between organisations and sectors, with individuals identifying more with their profession than their organisation. Many scholars question the ubiquitous of these two contemporary career theories and how
they potentially have overtaken ‘real-life’ experience of many employees (Guest and Mackenzie Davey 1996; Walton and Mallon 2004), although further research has identified a small percentage of careers as being able to labelled Protean or Boundaryless (Rodrigues and Guest 2010; Dries et al. 2012). Like previous career theories these new theories are based on psychological needs and values of the individual, although there has been little discussion on how individuals enact these career orientations (Rounds and Jin 2013).

Although there is no doubt that careers have changed, contemporary research confirms that employees still value aspects of the traditional organisational career (Baruch 2006; Clarke 2013; Gander 2018; McDonald, Brown, and Bradley 2005). For example, Gerber et al. (2009) identified a number of career profiles (independent, traditional/promotion, traditional/loyalty), that they argued more closely described organisational careers. Clarke (2009) also found four career types for mid- to senior-level managers (plodders, pragmatists, visionaries, and opportunists) based on a qualitative analysis, that she argued showed a more hybrid type profile between traditional and more contemporary career theories. A report by the Australian Human Resources Institute (AHRI) highlighted that employees value organisational retention strategies, with the most popular being career progression and promotion opportunities (AHRI 2015). This shift in the idea of a career itself has also led to viewing the career less as an objective reality, and more towards the need to understand the personal nature of the career, moving away from an objective construct towards individual meaning making through relationships and subjective perspectives (Cohen 2014; Savickas 1993). To date, however, there has been a lack of emphasis on the context in which careers are taking place, the importance of
individuals finding and maintaining fit over the span of their careers, and the
different needs that may arise at different times, and how individuals flex and adapt
to changing contexts.

**Career Construction Theory**

CCT is a unified theory using the meta-theoretical framework of social
constructionism to address how ‘individuals build careers through personal
constructivism and social constructionism’ (Savickas 2013, 147). The theory argues
that the concept of career itself signifies a subjective reflection of an individuals’
career-related activity that is a reflection on the objective career (Patton and
McMahon 2014, 147). CCT includes the idea of adaptability running through its
core. Individuals must adapt throughout the life course, and that there is a cycle of
adaptive performance that is repeated as context changes (Savickas 2013, 156).
Adaptability is a psychosocial state between an individuals’ needs, the goals they set
to meet those needs, and opportunities to fulfill them (Savickas 2013, 162). Savickas
proposed that there were four components of adaptability: career concern, career
control, career curiosity, and career confidence. Contemporary research suggests the
critical importance of career adaptability to understanding career decision-making
and behaviour (Coetzee and Schreuder 2018).

The career adaptability aspect of the theory has been used to show that career
adaptability thinking is related to the contemporary career theories of the
Boundaryless career and the Protean career (Chan et al. 2015). Other aspects of
adaptability have been tested with career concern and career curiosity being shown
to predict social work students’ professional competence, although this was mediated
by vocational calling (Guo et al. 2014). Hancock and Hums (2016), in their study on senior female administrators in collegiate sport, complemented CCT with critical theory as they argued that CCT itself did not consider issues of privilege and power. They found that personal and contextual factors influenced the career development of their participants and they argued that these factors represented a ‘dynamic influence’ (207) of vocational personality, career adaptation and life themes within CCT.

CCT emphasises individual agency but lacks an adequate account of underlying social, cultural and organisational structure, power and privilege, as many career theories do (Heppner and Jung 2013, 84). As CCT was created to understand decisions and career choices based on vocational self-concepts in response to perceptions of social reality, that fact that more emphasis has not been placed on structure and power, for example opportunity for promotion and gender stereotyping, is potentially a significant oversight. By utilising ideas of how careers are socially constructed in the context of different cultural, social and organisational power structures, could lead to a more holistic view of individuals' career narratives and how and why they make certain decisions and how they make sense of their careers. However, CCT can be applied to vocational behaviours of individual employees through the four dimensions of career adaptability. This could be useful for explaining the career paths of professional staff by taking into consideration their coping resources, that is how they envision and act out their careers temporally (Patton and McMahon 2014, 149–150; Savickas 2013, 162). By examining Savickas’ four adaptability dimensions via career stories, this study aims to gain an understanding of how coping resources impact upon individual’s careers.
This paper contributes to the career’s literature in two ways. First, there is an absence of research that examines how professional staff think about their own careers. The current published data has emphasised testing of predictor variables on career outcomes but has not constructed meaningful career information from the lived experiences of the staff. Second, it offers a new career orientation framework built from the data itself, to aid the understanding of careers of professional staff and contributes some practical suggestions for HR interventions which can be applied more precisely, compared to current practice which tends towards grouping staff together into one homogenous collection. It does this through a qualitative analysis which was considered important as there is already extensive published quantitative research within the careers literature related to professional staff (see for example, Author 2019), and more generally. This reliance on quantitative methods may be inadequate to describe the complex behaviours that individuals undertake in managing their careers within universities.

**Method**

A multi-method instrument was used to collect qualitative data via one open-ended question (‘Please provide your career story in 500 words or less as we are interested in your career and the choices you have made. You may for example include things such as your aspirations, job moves, motivation, expectations of yourself and your organisation’). Demographic and employment data was collected through closed questions. The survey method used is somewhat unusual for collecting qualitative data with some scholars suggesting that an open-ended question within a quantitative survey is not qualitative research due to ontological and epistemological concerns (see Creswell and Plano Clark 2011 for a brief discussion). However, many mixed
methods researchers have collected qualitative data in this way (Tunarosa and Glynn 2017). The target audience for the survey was highly educated and, therefore, it was considered that an appropriate amount of reflection and insight could be gained from the participants from an open-ended question asking for their career story. Two third parties were used to recruit participants: The Association of University Administrators (AUA) in the UK and the Association for Tertiary Education Management (ATEM) in Australia. As this was an exploratory study to generate insights into the careers of professional staff, utilising the professional associations was considered a cost-effective and timely way to access professional staff rather than by contacting individual institutions (Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2007).

An inductive thematic analysis was undertaken as outlined in Braun and Clarke (2016). All of the career stories were read a number of times to become familiar with the data set, noting particular areas that stood out that could later be used for codes. Thematic analysis looks at patterns occurring across data rather than within one datum, so it was important to go through an iterative process of reading and initial coding. Due to the large number of career stories (139), analysis was halted once saturation of new concepts was reached. Once the data was coded, codes were sorted into themes. Themes were then reviewed to ensure that they accurately reflected the data set.

**Results and Discussion**

One hundred and thirty-nine responses were made to the open-ended question. Table 4.10 shows that most participants were in the 40–49 age range, and female.
Table 4.10: Demographics of professional staff in Australia and the UK
\((n=90[\text{Aus}],\ n=136[\text{UK}])\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Australia per cent</th>
<th>UK per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest level of education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-high school</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
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<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
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<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coding and analysis identified five over-arching themes, with several sub-themes that individuals identified as important in their careers (Table 4.11).

Taking these five themes, a score of high, medium, or low was attributed dependent on the author’s subjective judgement (which others may disagree with). This led to multiple possibilities for career profiles, however it was assumed that some combinations would not exist in real-life, for example it would be unlikely that someone with low proactivity and high job security needs would also have high mobility.
Table 4.11: Themes and sub-themes developed from inductive analysis supported by example participant quotes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Example quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Proactivity | Be proactive, be opportunistic, undertake career development, have a professional development plan, gain qualifications/skills and experience | I am self-motivated, but have been helped in my career be seizing opportunities during restructuring.  
I’ve developed my career at times when it was difficult to progress it.  
I would also like to work towards other qualifications, MBA in particular as it seems highly valued when applying for top management positions. |
| Promotion | Lack of opportunities, slow progression, lack of career paths, restructuring an opportunity, need higher salary, move institutions to gain promotion, lack of support if +50 | Whilst I enjoy my job I am concerned that the opportunities for progression are limited, particularly at higher levels.  
The speed of progress can be frustrating.  
The lack of clear promotion routes has also frustrated me as I have always had to change university in order to move up to the next grade.  
At 56 and being female, I do not believe that I now have much opportunity to progress from where I am.  
There is no real career path open for AcRel staff at my Uni; it’s a case of ‘dead man’s shoes (and an awful lot of people wanting to fill them). |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Love the work itself, challenging work, ongoing learning, task variety, useful work, work-life balance, need values match, wellbeing,</td>
<td>HE is a great sector to work in, and the environment suits my skills mix and temperament. I love my job and have enjoyed most of my time working in the sector. I am currently [job title/university] and find it extremely challenging and rewarding. I will need to broaden my experience, if only to enable me to keep learning (which, along with just being able to get challenging stuff done is something I hugely value). I feel like I’m doing something useful with my working life and that’s important to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>Re-structuring and redundancy a threat, require job security, loyalty</td>
<td>Job insecurity is also high at the moment. There is not much job security even if one works for one institution on a permanent contract as there are constant restructure and changes of contract.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>Family, mobility, location</td>
<td>I left to raise my children for five years. Whilst working part-time, career is stalling (if not going backwards). Very few opportunities for career development or promotion when part-time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I work in a part of the country which … is good for outdoor pursuits which I love and this is an important factor which influences my career choice.

Life/work balance is ultimately more important to me than the next promotion.
Table 4.12: Four new career orientations of university professional staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intra-organisational advancement career</th>
<th>Inter-organisational advancement career</th>
<th>WLB career</th>
<th>Fixed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proactivity</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The combinations led to the discovery of four distinct career patterns within the data: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed careers (Table 4.12). These patterns reflect the extent to which they require aspects of overarching themes identified above, and these have been rated high, medium, or low.

**Intra-Organisational Advancement Career**

These individuals have high levels of proactivity in terms of their career self-management behaviours. They had a high need for hierarchical promotion. Although they did not have a planned career path, due to the lack of these for professional staff in universities, they were more than happy to take opportunities when they became available, for example secondments. They also understood the context of their university and were reflective on what skills or knowledge they may be lacking and the need to ‘fill the gap’, for example by moving from a faculty to a central administrative job, or covering maternity leave to gain team leader experience.

Along with the advancement needs, they also needed job satisfaction in terms of
continuing to undertake interesting and challenging work, so they did not get bored. They also had a high requirement for job security and would only consider leaving the university in a few instances, as they felt loyal to their institution and enjoyed the work in terms of working with students and academics, and to make a difference at a societal level. These low levels of mobility were often related to family requirements, although they would consider leaving if their values and the values of the university became so misaligned to cause them stress, or if their role became compromised in some way, such as through a re-design taking away autonomy or responsibility.

Example career story: *I have generally worked in academic departments prior to my current role (senior role responsible for professional services). This requires resilience and planning of one's own career. I have moved a number of times (8) (both within and between institutions) to further my career. I would not have progressed to my current level without this. I expect to continually develop my skills throughout my career and have taken on responsibilities quite far out of my job role on a number of occasions. My current institution expects high performance but as a smaller institution opportunity to develop is limited. The payoff is being given the opportunity to take on much broader responsibility which will help if I choose to move on.* (Woman, White, 50–59)

In this study, although this career profile is the most akin to a Traditional organisational career, it is not purely of this nature. It is a true hybrid incorporating the need for job security and a career with contemporary career factors of interesting and challenging work for personal growth and development (Gander 2018).
**Inter-Organisational Advancement Career**

These participants showed very similar traits to those above, except that they had slightly less need for job security and had much higher levels of mobility. For example, job security was still important for them but they would move from one permanent contract to another, reflecting that even at one institution with a permanent contract does not automatically lead to job security, especially considering the external environment of funding issues and the consequent re-structures. Therefore, they considered that to advance their career, quicker than staying at one institution, moving between universities means you gained more knowledge, different skills sets, and quicker advancement to higher grades. This career profile then was akin to a Protean Career Architect’ as suggested by Briscoe and Hall (2006), and to the Independent Career Orientation’ of (Gerber et al. 2009) characterised by frequent moves, and ‘visionaries’ or ‘opportunists’ as suggested by Clarke (2009). Visionaries planned their career trajectory, including changing institutions, rather than making short-term job choices, and opportunists pursued opportunities and various career paths and took advantage of changing circumstances.

Example career story: *I took my first job in university administration straight after university – one-year fixed term covering maternity leave - as an entry level administrator to gain some office experience. I liked the environment and when the fixed post finished I took a few temp roles and looked for a graduate level role in the sector. I changed universities (in the same town) and spent almost three years working in a specialist area of quality assurance. I had a lot of responsibility and got to be involved in some interesting projects. I wanted broader 'registry'*
experience as I could see myself moving into an academic registrar/head of student admin role in the future. I changed universities (relocating) and spent the next 3 years in a broader role with more responsibility (and higher grade). This was a role I really enjoyed but I didn't have line management responsibilities and knew I would need those in the future. I also wanted to spend some time in an academic department, so I moved universities, taking a 'side step' into a role which I stayed in for almost two years. I was quite mobile at this point and moved to London with my partner at the time who also started working in London. I took another 'side step' in terms of grading into my current role, and relocated, but have a very broad remit and more responsibility than before. It's also back in central department which I like as I like being involved in strategic matters and working with people across the organisation. I consider myself to have been very proactive in seeking out development opportunities, being a member of the AUA, presenting at the conference etc. However, this was quite heavily influenced by the support I received from my line manager in one of my early roles where I was encouraged to be involved in such activities, including being sponsored to undertake a masters. I've found there are lots of opportunities in HE, but that you have to be quite proactive to find them, or be fortunate enough to have a savvy line manager in this respect. I've worked at five different institutions and I have found their approaches to administrative staff development quite different. I am proud of what I have achieved in my career so far, and the contributions that I feel that I have made to the departments and institutions which I have worked in. And while I have moved around, I've tried to stay connected to my past institutions. I feel that the experience I have gained from working in multiple institutions has been invaluable to me in being able to quickly make a contribution to an organisation when I take on a new role. I think that now I
am looking to spend a longer period in my current institution; but probably not more than 3 years in exactly the same role! (Women, White, 30–39)

This career orientation was akin to the Independent Career Orientation of Gerber et al. (2009) characterised by several jobs, high educational level, employment in different organisations and career self-management with a focus on upward mobility. It is also similar to Visionaries or Opportunists as suggested by Clarke (2009). Visionaries planned their career trajectory, including changing organisations rather than making short-term job choices, and Opportunists pursued opportunities and various career paths and took advantage of changing circumstances. However, for the Intra-Organisational Career orientation there was much emphasis on meaningful work, autonomy, skills development and utilisation, and values-match.

**Work-Life Balance Career**

This career type prioritised balancing competing demands to ensure a satisfactory career but that there were other factors to consider alongside career concerns when viewed holistically. Consequently, these participants had low levels of mobility and a high need for job security. They would balance a satisfactory career often for example, considering not wanting to move out of their specialism, with promotion needs, mainly for increased salary, and outside of work needs. They did show proactivity in their career management strategies but this was balanced by the practicality of their situation. Many participants in this group discussed child-rearing or other family commitments as the requirement to find a balance. Others, however also wanted to stay in their locale for other reasons. Gerber et al. (2009) labelled their profile ‘disengaged’ as they attributed disengagement from their career and
growing interested in work-life balance. This study showed no disengagement, just a reality of the situation and the need to be practical when managing career and other life aspects. People in this profile may of course move into another profile if their circumstances change over the life-course.

Example career story: *I am at a point in my life currently where I am seeking to consolidate and broaden my skills and knowledge rather than actively seeking promotion. I have family responsibilities but also need to feel challenged. Pursuing more responsibility at this point would knock my balance out: I'd not be able to give adequate attention to either. So sideways is the right move for me right now. I'm paying close attention to my skills though, so when the time comes in a couple of years that I can give a bit more to career, I'll feel ready. That's the plan, anyway!* (Woman, white, 40–49)

Gerber et al. (2009) labelled their profile Disengaged as they attributed disengagement form a hierarchical career and growing interest in work-life balance. This study showed no disengagement, just a reality of the situation and the need to be practical when managing their career and other life aspects. The results indicate that in HE employees, likely women, are opting-out (Mainiero and Sullivan 2005) by outing their career ambitions to one side as they cannot be facilitated in the institution. People in this profile may of course move into another profile if their circumstances change over the life-course.
**Fixed Career**

There are several different issues that push participants into this career profile. There were several individuals that identified as over 50 who thought that this now affected their careers in a negative away such as being overlooked for promotion or other opportunities by their supervisors. There were also reports of people in this category being targeted for voluntary redundancy schemes that made them feel worthless and contributed to feeling depressed and stressed. There were also reports of sickness and the need to not lose their jobs. There was also another group that had in the past, or were currently, working part-time to balance looking after children. They identified that this had ended their career but that they still wished they could be considered for promotion as they still felt they had lots to give to the organisation. Consequently, people in this profile have low mobility and high job security needs, low proactivity as they think nothing they do will affect decisions on their careers, and eventually become ambivalent about job satisfaction and promotion.

Example career story: *I applied for and obtained a promotion to a Level 9/10 position about five years ago and now have nowhere further to go in my career in this university. Unfortunately, because I had cancer last year, I do not feel confident to go to another university where I will have no sick leave (in case the cancer comes back). While in the past I considered my career to be very important, and worked to "climb the ladder", at 56 and being female, I do not believe that I now have much opportunity to progress from where I am. I have boxed myself into a corner in my specialisation within my university, and, while that used to worry me, I am now content to stay at this university in my current position until I retire (perhaps*
another 9 years). Age and ill health does make me less career driven now! (Woman, white, 50–59)

This orientation could align with Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) profile of Lost/Trapped although they considered individuals would fall into this profile due to their lack of emphasis on their internal values or Boundaryless perspectives, and this study suggested the factors were external push factors.

Through the application of the career adaptability dimensions from CCT (Savickas 2013) a greater understanding of the underlying coping mechanisms at play in the different career profiles could be achieved. By applying these dimensions to the profiles, it may allow for a more considered human resource management intervention in supporting employees in their work-related decision-making. Table 4.13 outlines how the different career profiles rate under each of the four career adaptability dimensions (high, medium, or low) based on evidence from the career stories. This judgement is subjective on the author’s part, and others could interpret this differently. For example, both the Intra- and Inter-Organisational Advancement Career profiles have high levels of career control, curiosity and confidence but only a medium level of career concern. This is a reflection on the context of working within a university, where there are no set career paths and little vocational guidance offered for managing one’s career. This translates into individuals being unable to plan and therefore prepare effectively for development tasks and career transitions as there is often no long-term trajectory.
Table 4.13: Career adaptability profile for professional staffs’ career profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career profile</th>
<th>Concern</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Curiosity</th>
<th>Confidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intra-Organisational Advancement</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-Organisational Advancement</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-Life Balance</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Work-Life Balance profile has a high level of control, but low levels of concern, because they cannot particularly plan and prepare for future career paths. They have medium levels of curiosity and confidence in that they are open to new possibilities and can be proactive. However, they have high levels of control as they show self-regulation and deliberate career-related activities in terms of what they can do to maintain their job satisfaction in light of their career restrictions. The Fixed profile shows low levels of all adaptability dimensions. That is, they cannot see a future career path so cannot prepare and plan for it, they have become uncurious and closed to new possibilities and they do not set goals or have the self-belief to be able to achieve them. However, these two profiles especially may have some temporal element to them, for example childcare needs or towards the end of a career.

It is important to think about a temporal aspect to people’s working life and CCT takes this into account, building in the work of Donald Super (Super 1984). Savickas (2013) argued that account needs to be taken of the dynamic nature of careers and the cycles that individuals may go through. As Super (1984, 288) noted ‘roles wax and wane in importance’, and this could be of significance for, for example those in
the work-life balance career profile. If they are in this profile due to childcare issues, they may then move out of this profile into any of the others as one could assume that they were in another profile before the need to make career decisions taking other major issues into account. This has significant implications for human resource management.

**General Discussion**

This study explored how individual career decision-making and behaviours take place within an organisational context, through an exploration of the careers of university professional staff. The findings indicate that professional staff operate in a hybrid career mode in universities, integrating aspects of traditional and contemporary careers to create their own career orientations (see Table 4.14). It can be seen from this comparison that the career orientations found in this analysis are different from what has gone before. For example, all the participants mentioned wanting a career in the organisation they were in, akin to the Traditional orientation, even the participants that were aligned to the Fixed orientation.
Table 4.14: Characteristics of the main career orientations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Orientation</th>
<th>Proponent</th>
<th>Main characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td></td>
<td>Individuals work for few organisations and expect and show loyalty, they are motivated by job security, clear career paths, proactive organisational career management and organisational success, key attitudes are to develop new skills and competencies for their current and potentially future roles in the organisation, they are motivated by person-organisation fit for tenure and hierarchical advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protean</td>
<td>Hall (1976)</td>
<td>Individuals take responsibility for their own career, they perform at work for their own satisfaction, are employer independent, their core values are meaningful work, freedom and growth, success is defined through internal motivation and values match, they require high levels of work satisfaction, work-life balance, developmental progression, learning opportunities and professional commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boundaryless</td>
<td>Arthur (1994)</td>
<td>Individuals take responsibility for their own career, they perform at work for ongoing employability, their key attitudes are skill development, skill utilisation, professional relationships inside and outside of an organisation, and work-life balance, their core values are meaningful work and organisational success, they are motivated by internal success and external recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Gerber et al. (2009)</td>
<td>Individuals believe that they should be employable in a range of jobs, manage their own career, spend a short time in a lot of organisations, have commitment to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
themselves and their career, strive for promotion into more senior posts, and feel that career success is important

Traditional/Promotion  Gerber et al. (2009)  Individuals believe that job security, a long time with one organisation, managing your own career, and planning for the future are important, work is central to their life, they strive for promotion into more senior posts, and career success is very important

Traditional/Loyalty  Gerber et al. (2009)  Individuals believe that job security is important, as is spending a long time with one organisation, they value a series of jobs at the same kind of level, a career is not important, but commitment to the organisation is

Disengaged from vertical career success  Gerber et al. (2009)  Individuals think being employable in a range of jobs is important, as is managing their own career, spending a short time in lots of organisations, having commitment to themselves and their career, having a series of jobs at the same kind of level, living for the present, and thinking a career is not important

Plodders  Clarke (2013)  These individuals has pursued a traditional career anticipating job security as long as they worked hard and remained loyal to their company. They did not plan their careers, the focus was on short term outcomes with personal development linked to their professional or their current position

Pragmatists  Clarke (2013)  These individuals had pursued this type of career due to the offer of job security and stability as well as variety and professional development, career decisions were made in the light of organisational opportunities which allowed for horizontal and vertical career moves
Visionaries  Clarke (2013)  These individuals had carefully planned their career choices to build their long-term career trajectory rather than making short-term choices. They are willing to change jobs within or across organisations and to physically relocate to take up new and challenging career opportunities

Opportunists  Clarke (2013)  These individuals had pursued varied career paths within a range of jobs and organisations, seeing each move as a chance to learn new things and gain different experiences

Intra-organisational  Gander (2019)  These individuals require job security and promotion opportunities. They have high levels of proactivity in terms of their career self-management behaviours and they have high needs for hierarchical promotion. To gain this success they take opportunities when they arise, and they ensure that they become familiar with a wide range of the business, and undertake professional development to ensure they have the right skills for their current and future roles. They also need interesting, challenging and meaningful work, are loyal to their institution, and are not highly mobile

Inter-organisational  Gander (2019)  These individuals are very similar in their needs as above however they have less need for job security and higher levels of mobility. To gain promotion faster they often move between institutions, although they do not necessarily have a long term career plan

Work-Life Balance  Gander (2019)  Individuals balance competing demands for a satisfactory career with the flexibility required for outside of work responsibilities. They require high levels of job security,
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed</th>
<th>Gander (2019)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Generally defined by older individuals who feel overlooked in the workplace and have become unmotivated. They have high levels of job security needs, no career plans and less active career self-management behaviours. However, they also feel that if they were given opportunities they still have a lot to contribute.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participants in this study discussed much more about meaningful work and being challenged, key aspects of contemporary career orientations. The results of this qualitative analysis offer some deep insights into the careers of professional staff, how they manage their own priorities over time, how they understand and negotiate individual organisational promotion opportunities including the need to further develop their human capital, and how they understand and embrace the need for proactive career self-management behaviours.

This is an important finding as it is shown these staff have internalised the fact that their institutions no longer feel responsible for, or provide guidance for, individual careers. This is a move from the traditional expectation of an organisational career to the contemporary expectation of a career where risk and responsibility has moved from an organisation to an individual (Rawolle, Rowlands, and Blackmore 2017). The use of CCT has therefore proved a useful starting point for this level of analysis, however, the fact that it does not emphasise structure or power is an oversight. A number of career stories, and the Fixed example models this, shows the limitations of proactive career self-management behaviours on achieving career outcomes.

Career management does not take place only at individual level, it is carried out within the context of an organisation and the structures that have grown up in this organisation, which itself is part of a larger sector context. This seems particularly relevant in HE, which has a long history, its own rules, regulations and legislative requirements. An understanding of the sector, its impact on an individual organisation, and therefore the organisational context in which careers takes place is a significant requirement to fully understand individuals’ careers and is an often overlooked aspect in discussions on career development and management.
Therefore, future research needs to put context, including power and structures, firmly back into the mix when aiming to understand individual agency.

**Implications for Practice**

The use of career profiling of individuals could offer some way of ensuring that organisations target resources effectively, to ensure staff maintain motivation and employability. Employees could also benefit from an understanding of the value of increasing adaptability behaviours especially in relation to increasing self-efficacy and goal setting, and career resilience. For example, those who require a Work-Life Balance career are still motivated to do good job and therefore they can still be utilised to provide benefits and outcomes for the university, for example through project work; their limiting factor is only mobility. The Fixed career profile arguably needs the most attention from a HR perspective, especially considering the different interventions required due to the heterogeneous nature of the profile. For example, those who work part-time who feel their career has stalled because of this. These staff could be easily re-motivated and it is paramount that supervisors do not penalize staff because of their part-time hours, that the idea of not being ‘fully engaged’ with work just because there are other life requirements is not promulgated further. HR departments can do more to provide additional promotion opportunities by ensuring that more senior roles positively promote job sharing, for example. Universities are lucky, they have a highly educated, proactive, career-minded workforce, and HR departments should work with staff to ensure individuals are trained and given opportunities for promotion, especially those that require an Intra-Organisational Advancement career.
Limitations and Future Research

Despite the valuable findings described in this paper, the study is not without its limitations. Methodologically, only myself analysing the data and building the career profiles may lack rigour and reliability. The use of two voluntary membership organisations to recruit the convenience sample may lead to bias. One may assume that professional staff who take the decision to join these associations are particularly concerned with their career and therefore could skew the sample. However, the number of career stories collected, and finding participants that fell into the Fixed and Work-Life balance career profiles, goes someway to allay fears of bias within the sample. Another limitation is the reliance on only two countries for data collection. Both Australia and the UK are very similar in their higher education systems and in their wider economic and political systems, thus presenting a rather singular view of careers. Nonetheless, Western countries generally run similar political and economic systems and therefore the findings from this research may well be applicable more broadly. Additionally, these findings are limited by the self-reported career stories which are highly subjective. Alignment with other studies’ career profiles offers some form of reliability, however. Future research should test these career profiles with a wider sample of professional staff either qualitatively using, for example semi-structured interviews, or through using a mixed methods approach to test some of the key differences between the career profiles. Future research could test these career profiles with a wider sample of professional staff either qualitatively using for example, semi-structured interviews, or through using a mixed methods approach to test some of the key differences between the career profiles.
Conclusion

Although the career orientations constructed from the data somewhat align with previous career profiles in other studies, this is the first time that career orientations have been applied to the careers of university professional staff. It is therefore a new and distinct finding of this study that participants could be grouped into four career orientations: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed. Given that there has been extensive literature on the move from traditional to contemporary careers (Baruch and Vardi 2016), this study highlights that employees working in universities value aspects of traditional careers, especially those related to job security and the chance of a career. That is not to say that these staff embodied traditional organisational careers that have been understood to be more related to, and managed by, the organisation, with advancement as a reward for loyalty and tenure. These staff embody a hybrid career as outlined in previous work (Clarke 2013; Gander 2018). Hybrid careers are created by taking the positive aspects of an organisational career – job security, a career, loyalty, and promotion opportunities – with aspects of contemporary careers such as meaningful work, learning development, skill acquisition and skill utilisation. This study has shown how through the use of the four career adaptability factors, a greater understanding of individuals’ coping mechanisms in managing their career is gained, with the concomitant impact on the potential to improve HR practice.

References

References are incorporated in the final reference list.
Conclusion to Part D

This study provided useful insights into how professional staff view their careers, what was important to them, and what they consider to be limiting factors. As career patterns continue to evolve, the ability for organisations to be able to better understand their employees’ career needs and respond to them effectively is paramount. This study showed that professional staff have embraced contemporary careers in terms of aligning with the need to be responsible for their own careers but also maintain traditional career requirements such as job security and hierarchical advancement opportunities. Universities should continue to support employee career development opportunities such as providing job rotations, project work, and qualifications and/or training, which would answer the need for interesting and challenging work and being prepared for promotions, but they could also help with career planning – something that is unfortunately absent in today’s universities.

The focus of the next paper is to determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to understand contemporary careers in more depth. It highlights how the use of convergent and holistic triangulation can add to the theoretical underpinnings of Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profiles theory. It also aims to discover what the experience of the contemporary career is for professional staff and what drivers and constraints influence a contemporary career in higher education.
PART E


Introduction to Part E

The focus of this paper was to determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the contemporary career of professional staff. It highlights how the use of mixed methods, and especially the use of both convergent and holistic triangulation, can add to the theoretical underpinnings of Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profiles theory. Taking both a convergent and divergent approach to data integration has been said to ‘generate more insight for a theory or develop more complete understandings of a given phenomenon through the use of multiple methodologies’ (Turner, Cardinal and Burton 2017, 244). It is therefore used to provide greater understanding of the experiences, drivers and constraints of contemporary careers of professional staff in higher education.

Using the Protean and Boundaryless careers instrument (Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth 2006) provides data which allows for the creation of career clusters of individuals with similar outlooks on a set of four career attitudes. The clusters were achieved via a two-step clustering procedure by including the summated scales of self-directed, values-driven, psychological and geographical mobility, and the range was increased from 15 to 100 (to allow for the potential 16 clusters identified by Briscoe and Hall 2006). The Bayesian information criterion (BIC) algorithm was used as the goal of modelling was descriptive, that was, to
create a model that would include the most meaningful factors influencing the outcome, based on an assessment of relative importance; BIC tends to derive models with fewer clusters with better fit (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). Clusters were then compared using analysis of variance with cluster membership the factor and the career attitudes the dependent variables, with post hoc t-tests using Bonferroni correction for comparison amongst clusters (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010).

The analysis of the qualitative data using a latent-level analysis resulted in different descriptors to the variables tested for quantitatively, which provided greater descriptive power and an understanding of the potential psychological underpinnings of the results. By looking for both convergence and divergence, the integrated results show that there is perhaps less difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects than the quantitative data analysis would indicate. The integrated results suggest a number of possible psychological mechanisms that are important for understanding the careers of these staff such as the need for self-actualisation and esteem needs, and flexibility in managing work-life balance (Lee, Back, and Chan 2015). If employees perceive these needs to be unmet then dissatisfaction may occur leading to breach and increased intent to leave (Lee et al. 2015).

The practical implication of this research suggests that, although there has been a move towards individual responsibility for career management, there is a reciprocal relationship between the individual and the organisation that needs to be considered. For example, the organisation could offer more vocational guidance to
individuals to support them to successfully set goals and carry out work behaviours to reach these goals, therefore improving self-efficacy, and the organisation could ensure that there are opportunities for job rotations and training and development to create opportunities for self-actualisation. Most importantly, PCAs and SCs were highly affected by perceived lack of career opportunities and changes to organisational fit. As consistent with previous research, career opportunities are reported as paramount to satisfaction and tenure (Jo 2008; Marshall et al. 2016). Employees seem frustrated when opportunities are unforthcoming or when opened to external competition – especially when internal training and development is perceived as failing to prepare individuals for those opportunities. The organisation should therefore be cognisant of these factors in managing organisational career support.

***

Abstract

This article outlines a concurrent complementarity, mixed methods research design to explore the careers of university professional staff through the application of a contemporary career profile framework. Two hundred and twenty-six participants from Australia and the UK completed a multi-method questionnaire. Integration occurred at three points: the conceptualisation stage using a multi-method instrument; the experiential stage where the quantitative data results acted as a priori themes for the theoretical thematic analysis; and the inferential stage where both convergent and divergent triangulation of the results took place to provide a broader and deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. This methodological design aims to demonstrate the usefulness of mixed methods in carrying out careers
research. The findings extend the career profile theory by highlighting individual needs, related behaviours, and outcomes, and by suggesting that there are various psychological mechanisms acting to drive career behaviours.

**Keywords**

Professional staff, Protean careers, Boundaryless careers, mixed methods

**Introduction**

There has been limited research on the careers of professional staff within universities, a potential oversight considering the increased reliance on professional management in universities (Regan, Dollard, and Banks 2014). Consequently, little is known about how staff enact their careers in relation to their values, needs, attitudes, and behaviours. Professional staff make up approximately 27 percent of total higher education staff in the US (Knapp, Kelly-Reid, and Ginder 2012), and 23 percent of total staff in UK universities (Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.), therefore gaining an improved understanding of their careers could result in more nuanced and targeted human resource (HR) interventions that could improve motivation and meet the career needs of individuals.

The literature that does exist has often been concerned with particular issues or cohorts of staff, such as women moving to senior management positions, the careers of African-American staff, or staff in, for example, athletic administration (see for example, Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014). There is a dearth of literature on the broader professional staff cohort, and that which has been published has used a quantitative methodology to test predicted relationships between certain variables.
related to, for example, career success, well-being, or attrition (see for example, Nabi 1999; Rosser 2004). This reliance on quantitative methods may be inadequate to describe the complex behaviours that individuals undertake in managing their careers, as suggested by Molina-Azorín and Cameron (2015). Additionally, the number of quantitative papers published looking at aspects of professional staff careers also highlights the narrowness of the approach to understanding individuals lived experiences, especially important for socially constructed and interpreted careers.

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes were present in university professional staff. Quantitative data are used to establish the presence of contemporary career profiles, and the qualitative data to provide descriptive interpretation of these. By doing this, the study attempts to make several contributions to the literature, first, by testing a contemporary career profile framework, second, by using convergent and divergent data to potentially improve the understanding of these career profiles, and third, by highlighting the gains that mixed methods research can bring to the examination of careers.

**Literature Review**

Universities in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OCED) countries consist of about a 50:50 mix of academic and non-academic staff (Table 4.15). Within OECD countries then, there are large numbers of non-academic staff, on which little research has been carried out. The non-academic staff can also be divided into more homogeneous groups, such as clerical, manual, technical, or
professional staff. Professional staff are the graduate and/or professional entry staff that have high levels of autonomy and responsibility for managing and leading business-related functions in the university, with job titles such as registrar, accountant, research manager, governance manager, and so on. Table 4.15 gives some indication of how many of these types of staff work in universities, although most data are not collected at this level of granularity.

Graham (2009, 175) noted that ‘with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and performance of staff directly impacting upon the quality and effectiveness of university work … the people management issues [of general staff] … have not been taken as seriously as those for academic staff – despite general staff comprising over 50 per cent of staff in Australian universities’.

Eveline (2004, 148) also argued that in Australian universities, the skills and development needs of professional staff are relatively unrecognized. In the US, Rosser (2004) also noted that midlevel leaders (both academic and non-academic) were the unsung professionals of the academy, and that the more development activities that were provided to support their careers the more satisfied they became and the less likely they were to leave their institution. From a UK perspective, Shattock (2003, 179) contended that as management is a major component of university success, and professional staff are critical to this process, then the training of this category of staff is critically important. It has become apparent that workforce development is an enabling factor for universities to deliver their multiple agendas (Gordon and Whitchurch 2007).
Table 4.15: Numbers of non-academic staff in selected OECD countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total employed staff (FTE)</th>
<th>Total employed non-academic staff (FTE)</th>
<th>Percentage of non-academic staff</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Data source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>109,021</td>
<td>62,516</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>691,000</td>
<td>304,000</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>31,035</td>
<td>16,540</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>2016/17</td>
<td>419,705</td>
<td>212,835</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>All staff vs non-academic staff</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Findings from the literature on professional staff careers highlight the importance of individual and organisational enabling factors. Career self-management behaviours are seen as crucial, especially those related to building forms of career capital (Defilippi and Arthur 1994), although none of the articles addressed this theory directly. Behaviours seen as important were being mentored and undertaking mentoring (social capital; Bozionelos 2004), skill acquisition (human capital; Hancock and Hums 2016), networking (social capital; Nabi 1999), and leadership development (human and social capital; Harris and Leberman 2012). Organisational level enablers considered critical were promotion opportunities (Jo 2008; Ricketts and Pringle 2014), satisfactory compensation, and work-life balance (WLB; Marshall et al. 2016), explicit HR policies on promotion and discrimination (Gardner, Barrett, and Pearson 2014), and supervisor support (Jo 2008).

Contemporary career literature describes the “Boundaryless” career concept as being open to new opportunities enacted across organisational boundaries and occupations (Arthur and Rousseau 1996) and the “Protean” career concept as prioritizing self-efficacy and meaningful work (Hall 2004). The majority of contemporary career literature treats Boundaryless and Protean career concepts as separate, yet also as interchangeable and as a proxy for the “contemporary” career and not representative of actual career patterns (Clarke 2013; Inkson et al. 2012). Although both career theories suggest individual control of careers, they offer distinct understandings of the contemporary work place. Protean career orientations (that is an individual’s attitude towards their career) focus on the values of individuals, for example, how they value meaningful work, learning opportunities and how these are enacted through self-directedness in their career management attitudes. Boundaryless career
orientations focus on the structure of the career through mobility and psychological openness and flexibility (Sullivan and Arthur 2006; Sargent and Domberger 2007). Briscoe and Hall (2006a) argued, however, that while the two concepts were useful in and of themselves as symbols of contemporary careers, the career orientations had been simplistically interpreted and these authors theorised that potentially they were far more intertwined than had been previously thought.

Briscoe and Hall (2006b, 2) asked whether these two concepts “have validity and utility in understanding and describing the career experiences of real people?” This question is important for two reasons. First, that if as outlined above, the professional staff workforce within universities is paramount to universities success, then the lack of research on this staff cohort in understanding their real-world career experiences means we do not know if or how these staff have embraced one or more contemporary career concepts, and therefore what implications there are for HR management within universities. Second, many scholars question the ubiquitousness of these two career concepts, as having potentially overtaken “real-life” experience of many employees, and how they may be masking bleak opportunities (Baruch and Vardi 2016; Walton and Mallon 2004). That is not to dismiss the significant amount of work that has been carried out on Protean and Boundaryless careers, which has identified a small percentage of careers as being able to be labelled Protean or Boundaryless (Rodrigues and Guest 2010; Dries, Van Acker and Verbruggen 2012), and even more where careers reflect aspects of Protean and/or Boundarylessness (see Dany 2014, for a review).
Briscoe and Hall (2006a) went on to suggest that combining Protean and Boundaryless career orientations into an integrated contemporary career profile (ICCP) would produce a richer understanding of employees’ career experiences through the identification of 16 career profiles, although only eight were considered likely. These eight profiles are rated high or low on the two factors of a Protean career orientation (self-directed and values-driven career management attitudes), and high or low on the two aspects of the Boundaryless career orientation (psychological mobility and locational mobility). There has been empirical evidence for at least some of these eight profiles (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010), supporting the notion that individual approaches to careers explain variance in a wide-range of variables. For example, Segers et al. (2008, 2010) identified four career profiles (Solid Citizen, Wanderer, Trapped/Lost, Hired Hand), which all differed significantly for the career motivators of intrinsic, extrinsic, and values/growth; they also found differences between profiles in demographic factors including age, gender, education, work and experience, and country and industry. Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng (2016) found three career profiles (Solid Citizen, Trapped/Lost, Protean Career Architect), with Trapped/Lost being significantly different in age, gender, and education to Solid Citizens or Protean Career Architects.

**Rationale for the Current Study**

Considering the limited findings in the current literature, it is apparent that there are several areas that require considerably more research to more fully understand the careers of professional staff. For example, research indicates that staff could be induced to leave their universities for a higher salary or a promotion, but actual staff
turnover in universities is average to low, for example, in Australia it is 12 per cent (D’Arcy et al. 2013), the UK 8.3 per cent (Universities and College Employers Association 2018) and the US 13 per cents (Compdata 2015). Therefore, there is considerable scope to provide a more holistic view of careers, including the interplay between the organisation and the individual which informs employees’ career management decisions and behaviours.

There have been calls for methodological diversity through the integration of quantitative and qualitative methods in the organisational behaviour discipline to combat problems such as the over-simplification of real-world issues (Azorín and Cameron 2010; Gummesson 2006; Molina-Azorín and Cameron 2015, 483; Morgan 2007). This is especially pertinent for careers research where there has been a move in the last few decades to viewing careers from a social constructionist perspective (Savickas 2013), but which has not been borne out in published articles, which for the most part present results of quantitative studies (Molina-Azorín and Cameron 2015). Arguably, the major benefit of mixed methods research is that integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches offers the attainment of a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone, as McGrath, Martin, and Kulka (1982, 70) noted, ‘all research strategies and methods are seriously flawed’. Many mixed methods studies aim to offset these weaknesses through convergent triangulation, where one set of data enhances the validity of another set through the convergence of findings, or through holistic triangulation where it is hoped findings may diverge across methodologies to enhance understanding (Turner, Cardinal, and Burton 2017).
The current literature has developed an understanding of professional staff general satisfaction within higher education, the need for career enablers that are built into the HR system, and for what individual career self-management behaviours are required to facilitate a career, for example, through building career capital. However, by using contemporary career theory as a lens through which to view professional staff careers, an increased understanding of the career needs, values, attitudes, and related behaviours of these staff may be developed to provide a more holistic view of their careers for enhanced individual and institutional career management processes. This study takes a first step in this direction by exploring how the Boundaryless and Protean career orientations (Arthur and Rousseau 1996; Hall and Moss 1998) have been integrated into the view of careers that professional staff hold. Through a novel methodological approach, the study aims to extend the ICCP theory (Briscoe and Hall 2006a) by highlighting individual needs, related workplace behaviours, and outcomes.

Method

Mixed Methods Research

The current study uses a mixed methods research design as a way to examine the career attitudes of professional staff working in universities. It utilises a complementarity design to provide data for convergent and holistic triangulation. By using both convergent and holistic triangulation it is hoped that convergent themes will be found across the methods and also that one method will offer additional insight that can be used to extend the understanding of the phenomenon under study (Turner, Cardinal, and Burton 2017). Previous scholars have used mixed methods to study aspects of careers, for example, to understand the career paths of women.
working in campus recreation roles (Bower and Hums 2003), exploration of the
development needs of women to progress to senior roles (Tessens, White, and Web
2011), and career progression of university librarians (Kont and Jantson 2013).

These examples, although having collected and analysed quantitative and qualitative
data, have not offered a true integration of the data sets to advance the understanding
of the problem being studied. It should be noted that the type and level of integration
is an area under development in mixed methods research (Uprichard and Dawney
2016), although ultimately, integration is the tool that allows mixed methods
research to become more than just a sum of its parts. Integration needs to move
beyond the assemblage of different types of data (Tunarosa and Glynn 2017), it
requires a synthesis to discover connections and insights. Convergent and holistic
triangulation, through the use of both convergence and divergence of data, moves
towards a more complete understanding of a given phenomenon, as the various
methods allow for the generation or elaboration of ideas (Turner, Cardinal, and
Burton 2017).

Study Design
This study was mixed at three levels – at the conceptualisation, the experiential, and
the inferential stage (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2006). At the conceptualisation stage,
this study utilized a concurrent complementarity design as it treated the qualitative
data as complementary to the quantitative data to seek “elaboration, enhancement,
illustration and clarification of the results from one method with the results from the
other method’ (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham 2016, 259). A concurrent design was
used, with identical members of the sample participating in the simultaneous
collection of both quantitative and qualitative data via an online survey instrument (Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2007; Fig. 4.2). This is an appropriate design for this study as the two different types of data were being used to investigate a similar phenomenon: the careers of professional staff. The quantitative method was used to collect data relating specifically to previous theoretically and empirically derived career profiles, and the qualitative method was used to collect the stories of people’s career to gain a more illustrative picture of these career profiles. As Creswell (2003) noted, ‘in concurrently gathering both forms of data at the same time, the researcher seeks to compare both forms of data to search for congruent findings.’

**Figure 4.2: Concurrent complementarity design (adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, 69).**

**Data Collection**

At the experiential stage, that is the stage concerned with data generation (and analysis; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006), mixing occurred through a new multi-method survey instrument. This was constructed using items to measure
demographic data such as age and gender, and items relating to work environment such as salary, number of promotions, and employment terms. Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes were measured using a 27 item scale devised by Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth (2006). This scale was split into two sub-scales. The Protean career orientation was divided into two different aspects: self-directed and values-driven career management attitudes (14 items); and the Boundaryless career orientation was divided into a 13 item sub-scale measuring psychological mobility and locational mobility. A 15-item job satisfaction scale was included (Warr, Cook, and Wall 1979), as Kinman (2016) noted that insight into job satisfaction in different occupational groups was crucial, and Supeli and Creed (2016) showed that reduced job satisfaction was strongly related to Protean career orientation. A 10-item positive and negative affect scale was also included to control for recent mood feelings (Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988). All sub-scales utilised a 5-point Likert-like ratings scale. The final question was a free text box (unlimited) asking participants to recount their “career stories”.

Participants
A convenience sample was used to gather a suitable number of responses between August 2015 and February 2016, via two third parties: The Association of University Administrators (AUA) in the UK and the Association for Tertiary Education Management (ATEM) in Australia. These associations are voluntary membership organisations that provide professional development, networking events, and other career associated activities. As this was an exploratory study to generate insights into the careers of professional staff, utilising the professional associations was considered a cost-effective and timely way to access professional staff rather than by
Professional staff in universities: Career needs, values, attitudes and behaviours

contacting individual institutions (Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2007). The limitation with this approach was that membership data were not accessible to the author, although ATEM reports on its website that it has 1700 members. Not all of these members (similarly with the AUA) will meet the employment requirements of the study. The participants were required to be professional staff as identified by being employed on a Higher Education Worker contract at Level 5 and above in Australia (Fairwork Commission 2017) and in the UK on salary Spinal Point 30 and above (University and College Union 2001).

Data Analysis

Each data set was analysed based on the paradigmatic principles of the methodologies, which ensured methodological rigour (Greene and Hall 2010, 138). Each method provided a unique contribution to the phenomena under study. Mixing occurred at this stage (experiential stage), as the qualitative data were structured based on the results of the quantitative data analysis.

For the quantitative data analysis, a factor analysis was undertaken to ensure that the Protean and Boundaryless sub-scales were internally valid. Maximum likelihood estimation with direct oblimin rotation and a fixed number of factors of two was carried out in SPSS (V22). Cronbach’s alpha scores were computed for the summated scales, all of which were above 0.7. A two-step clustering process was carried out to find the best cluster solution using the summated career attitude scales of self-directed, values-driven, psychological mobility, and locational mobility as the variables (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016). The standard range of cluster solutions was increased from 15 to 100 to allow for the possible sixteen cluster solutions first
identified from Briscoe and Hall (2006a). Scores were deemed high or low when 0.5 difference or more from the variable mean. Clusters were then compared using analysis of variance with cluster membership the factor and the four career attitudes the dependent variables.

For the qualitative data, first, a preliminary understanding of the data was gained through reading all the career stories provided (n = 139) to gain an overall feel for the data. After this, a theoretical thematic analysis was employed driven by the theoretical framework noted above as a way of providing data that converges with the quantitative data (Braun and Clarke 2016). The main coding categories were related to the theoretical constructs, and the sub-categories were then related to other definitional concepts within this over-arching category. For example, Solid Citizen was used as a main category, and then sub-categories of organisational fit and autonomy were derived from the theoretical framework on career profiles. A latent-level analysis was undertaken to examine the underlying ideas and assumptions that shaped the semantic content of the data (Braun and Clarke 2016).

Results

The results are presented in turn, starting with the results from the quantitative data (n = 226), followed by the qualitative data to provide a convergent and holistic triangulation of the results. It is recognised, however, that there have been calls in the literature for the data to be presented together under relevant elements to encourage greater depth of analysis (Bazeley 2016), and the ‘integration of data section’ aims to reflect that.
Demographics are shown in Table 4.16. Most respondents were female, aged 40–49, had worked in their current university for over 10 years, and in their current job less than five years. Table 4.17 shows that sixty-one per cent of staff could be grouped into the Solid Citizen (SC) career profile, and 39 per cent of staff could be grouped in the Protean Career Architect (PCA) career profile.

Table 4.17 also shows the results of an ANOVA which highlight that PCAs exhibit higher levels of self-efficacy and values-driven career attitudes (Protean orientation), and higher levels of psychological and locational mobility (Boundaryless orientation) than SCs \((p \leq .001)\). PCAs also had significantly higher levels of intent to leave and the number of rewards achieved \((p = <.05)\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.16: Demographics and employment data of study participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographic/employment status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of time in university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10+ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of time in current job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10+ years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.17: Descriptive statistics for Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Solid Citizen</th>
<th></th>
<th>PCA</th>
<th></th>
<th>Sig. F values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>SD</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>SD</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest qualification</strong></td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Received award last 3 years</strong></td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>3.82*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative affect</strong></td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive affect</strong></td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic satisfaction</strong></td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic satisfaction</strong></td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-directed</strong></td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>16.94**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Values-driven</strong></td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>37.60**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Psychological mobility</strong></td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>31.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Locational mobility</strong></td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>39.31**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intent to leave</strong></td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>4.37*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05; **p < .01

The qualitative data was first split into SCs and PCAs through participant membership based on the cluster analysis (PCA = 46 career stories, SC = 93 career stories) and then analysed as outlined previously.

**Solid Citizens**

The quantitative results show that SCs rated highly for self-directed and values-driven career attitudes, as well as for psychological mobility attitudes, but low for locational mobility (Table 4.8). The qualitative data supported these quantitative findings, thereby providing both thematic convergence and triangulation of data.

Self-directed career attitudes were discussed extensively in the career stories with emphasis placed on individual career proactive behaviours. Proactive behaviours were seen as critical for achieving promotions, and this was discussed in relation to making the most of opportunities when they arose, such as restructuring, maternity
cover, secondments, project work and so on, especially as many participants noted that there was a lack of opportunities: “Whilst I enjoy my job I am concerned that the opportunities for progression are limited, particularly at the higher levels”. Only a few individuals discussed having a career plan, most identified that it was difficult to have a plan as there were no career paths in universities: “As there is no clear career path, I see myself as having the responsibility for progressing if I want to” – hence the need to be opportunistic: “[I] was not looking to move but opportunities in my specialism at this level and in the same city do not come up every day - it was too good an opportunity to pass up”.

Proactive behaviour also encompassed ensuring upskilling took place through job rotations: “I took a role in a School as a secretary… After finishing that role (contract, maternity leave cover) I worked in a Research Office for a year”, or via gaining qualifications, doing professional development activities in the university, or as part of a professional body: “[I] took every opportunity to learn new skills, sought out opportunities to gain qualifications, tried new things, was willing to help and go the extra mile”.

Values-directed career attitudes emerged as very important for the job satisfaction of these employees: “I passionately support the values of my organisation”, although this aspect had been interpreted in a broader way than tested by the scale. However, the original theoretical proposition included that SCs needed to find a home that matched their strong values and had high person-organisation fit, and the results of qualitative data analysis supports this, especially in terms of fit becoming poorer: “Currently, the strategy of the university seems at odds with my personal values”.
Briscoe and Hall (2006) also suggested that SCs required autonomy and a workplace that enabled them to “satisfy their curiosity and learning drive through their work” (Briscoe and Hall 2006a, 14). Although these concepts were not tested quantitatively, the qualitative data provided evidence for their existence. The need for continued learning and newness of experiences related to the idea of psychological mobility was found: “I am lucky to have a wide variety of programs in my area and there is learning and personal growth to be gained continuously”, and “[I] feel I am trusted and respected and have had the opportunity to take part in interesting project work. I am ready for new challenges now”. Autonomy did not emerge strongly in the data, although there were some mentions: “[I] find my current role restrictive and boring… actively seeking a new role with more autonomy”. The lack of mobility came across strongly in the qualitative data, with family commitments being the main reason: “Recent developments mean my role is likely to change. Family commitments mean I cannot move area”. Therefore, the results from this study support the theoretical propositions of the original theoretical framework for Solid Citizens.

**Protean Career Architects**

The quantitative data showed that PCAs rated highly for self-directed and values-driven career attitudes, as well as for psychological and locational mobility attitudes (Table 4.8). The qualitative data supported these quantitative findings offering thematic convergence and data triangulation. Self-directed career attitudes were mentioned a great deal: “I've developed my career at times when it was difficult to progress it. Each move has been a promotion … My Uni has supported me through three degrees”. Values-driven attitudes were also noted, although interpreted in a
broader way than the original scale indicated: “Recent changes in the mission of my university have made the decision easier [to leave] as I no longer feel the role reflects my values”. As suggested in the previous quote, mobility is considered as a consequence of some form of unhappiness with what the institution is now offering either from a values-mismatch: “I have changed positions when I believe my core values have been compromised”, or when there were negative consequences from, for example, a restructure: “I was shunted sideways into a job I wasn't passionate about ... I was becoming a slave and was unvalued. So, I changed universities”. Psychological mobility was represented by the need for cognitive stimulation: “I seek to learn new things, and to have the opportunity to challenge my abilities. I can't think of anything worse than completing the same work year after year”.

It was also predicted that these individuals would need to “leverage [their] capability into meaningful impact”, and that they needed a “stage on which to shine, learn, engage” (Briscoe and Hall 2006a, 15). These ideas were not tested quantitatively, but the qualitative data indicated some need for recognition, as a lack of recognition was highlighted as an issue: “In the first few years of working at this university I felt that my hard work and achievements were not well recognized”. These concepts – the need for being able to shine and having impact – could perhaps be related to the idea of financial recognition as well: “…can be frustrating as can the lack of financial recognition”. However, these were the only indications of these concepts.

**Data Integration**

Mixing occurred at the final inferential stage to synthesize and draw conclusions from the two sets of data, with the quantitative data being used to establish the
presence and significance of the phenomenon under study and the qualitative data to provide descriptive interpretation of the phenomenon (Table 4.18). Mixing of data in this stage aimed to provide a more complete understanding of the phenomenon under study as it provided findings that converged and diverged.

Self-directed career management attitudes were confirmed from the quantitative data. The qualitative theme that emerged was that individuals understood that they had to be proactive in their career self-management behaviours. By integrating these two findings, a mixed methods interpretation can be established that points to the fact that it is self-efficacy that is important in setting goals, working towards said goals, and being confident that they can be met.

Values-driven career management attitudes were shown to be important for both career profiles, but that there was a significant difference between SCs and PCAs. The themes that emerged from the qualitative data indicated that a match between individual and organisational values was important for all respondents. The mixed methods interpretation points to the need for high levels of person-organisation fit.

Psychological mobility was high for all staff with the quantitative data showing a significant difference between SCs and PCAs. The themes that emerged from the qualitative data were that ongoing learning and challenging work were the main psychological needs. These findings suggest that it is self-actualisation that is important for these staff.
For these three factors the two data sources are divergent; the quantitative data shows a significant difference between PCAs and SCs, but that the qualitative data does not. Since both career profiles were argued to be highly self-directed and require high values-match and high levels of psychological mobility in the original theoretical proposition, then the fact that the mixed methods interpretation suggests no real difference between profiles, may reflect a better interpretation of this studies’ participants. There was a significant difference between SCs and PCAs in their locational mobility, and the qualitative data converged with this, supporting that mobility ability was a key factor in career decision-making. The mixed methods interpretation is that it is WLB that is the key for locational mobility decisions.

**Discussion**

The findings from this study provide more detail related to two career profiles derived from Briscoe and Hall’s (2006a) contemporary career interpretations by highlighting individual needs, related behaviours, and outcomes, and by suggesting that there are multiple psychological mechanisms acting to drive career behaviours. This has led to an enhanced understanding of professional staff career needs and work behaviours. It also highlights the usefulness of convergent and holistic triangulation in a mixed methods research design. The results indicate that using ICCP theory did not deliver a sufficiently nuanced dataset in this study to provide a full understanding, whereas integrating this with qualitative data provided additional insights.

To conclude, using the ICCP instrument allowed for the identification of individual career clusters that were based on a set of four career attitudes. Although the data
from this study only resulted in two career profiles, other studies have found up to four different profiles (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010). The analysis of the qualitative data using a latent-level analysis resulted in different descriptors to the variables tested for quantitatively, which provided greater descriptive power and an understanding of the potential psychological underpinnings of the results. For example, when analysed from a latent-level viewpoint, the self-directed career attitude variable was found to relate to the concept of self-efficacy, the values-driven career attitude was related to organisational fit, psychological mobility to self-actualisation, locational mobility to WLB, intent to leave to breach, and the number of awards received to recognition.

By looking for both convergence and divergence, the integrated results show that there is perhaps less difference between SCs and PCAs than the quantitative data analysis would indicate. The integrated results suggest possible psychological mechanisms are important in understanding the careers of these staff, such as the need for self-actualisation and esteem needs, and flexibility in managing WLB (Lee, Back, and Chan 2015). If employees perceive these needs to be unmet then dissatisfaction may occur leading to breach and increased intent to leave.

**Practical Implications**

As Table 4.18 summarised, the findings of this study suggest there are five key themes that individuals consider important for career satisfaction: self-efficacy, person-organisation fit, self-actualisation, WLB, and recognition.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantitative variables</th>
<th>Qualitative themes</th>
<th>Mixed methods interpretation</th>
<th>Divergence/Convergence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-directed career management attitudes</td>
<td>Proactive behaviour for career self-management</td>
<td>Self-efficacy: self-directed career attitudes high across the sample (QUAN) related to the need to be proactive when managing their careers such as taking opportunities when they arose and preparing for promotion e.g. by upskilling and gaining further qualifications (qual)</td>
<td>QUAN+qual data converge in terms of finding self-directed career attitudes in sample. QUAN+qual data diverge as QUAN data indicates significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects (&lt;.001) but qual data indicates no difference between the career profiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values-driven career management attitudes</td>
<td>Alignment between individual and organisational values</td>
<td>Fit: values-driven career attitudes high across the sample (QUAN) but there was a broader interpretation of values-match and the need for an individuals’ and the organisations values to align for job satisfaction</td>
<td>QUAN+qual data converge in terms of finding values-driven career attitudes in sample. QUAN+qual data diverge as QUAN data indicates significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects (&lt;.001) but qual data indicates no difference between the career profiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological mobility</td>
<td>Ongoing learning and challenging work</td>
<td>Self-actualisation: high levels of psychological mobility across the sample (QUAN) and extensive discussion of needing to learn, being challenged, upskilling, and not being bored (qual)</td>
<td>QUAN+qual data converge in terms of finding psychological mobility attitudes in sample. QUAN+qual data diverge as QUAN data indicates significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects (&lt;.001) but qual data indicates no difference between the career profiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>QUAN+qual data convergence</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locational mobility</td>
<td>Mobility decision-making</td>
<td>QUAN+qual data converge in terms of finding locational mobility attitudes in sample and significant differences between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects (&lt;.001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intent to leave</td>
<td>Exit if organisation is not seen to uphold its end of unwritten ‘agreement’</td>
<td>BREACH: intent to leave low across whole sample, although significantly higher for Protean Career Architects (QUAN) with discussion around leaving related to gaining a promotion, getting a more satisfying job, or finding a role with a better fit (qual). QUAN+qual data diverge as QUAN data indicates significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects (&lt;.05) in intent leave, but qual data does not indicate any difference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awards</td>
<td>Recognition for achieving results</td>
<td>QUAN+qual data diverge as QUAN data indicates significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects (&lt;.05) in number of awards received, but qual data does not indicate any difference in need for recognition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Professional staff in universities: Career needs, values, attitudes and behaviours
The identification of these key attributes will enable HR practitioners to prioritise areas to support staff. PCAs and SCs were affected by perceived lack of career opportunities and changes to organisational fit. Consistent with previous research, career opportunities are reported as paramount to satisfaction and tenure (Jo 2008; Marshall et al. 2016). Employees seem frustrated when opportunities are not forthcoming or when opened to external competition – especially when internal training and development are perceived as failing to prepare individuals for those opportunities. Although there has been a move towards individual responsibility for career management, there is a reciprocal relationship between the individual and the organisation that needs to be taken into account. For example, the organisation could offer more vocational guidance to individuals to support them to successfully set goals and carry out work behaviours to reach these goals; thereby improving self-efficacy. The organisation also could ensure that there are opportunities for job rotations and training and development to create opportunities for self-actualisation. Organisations should therefore be cognisant of these factors in managing its corporate career support activities.

Limitations and Future Research

As with most studies there are some limitations. It was expected that this research design would result in both a higher number of career profiles and a wider set of issues from the qualitative data, which could have been explored and used to further extend the ICCP. The fact that this did not happen was possibly due to the limitations of the sample. Although there was an adequate number of participants in the sample, the response rate was low. Using a convenience sampling procedure may have resulted in an unrepresentative sample, limiting the generalisability of the
quantitative findings. The sample size for the cluster analysis was deemed large enough to determine the theorised clusters and the number of qualitative responses did provide saturation of the themes, thereby providing valid descriptors for each career profile. By using a mixed methods research design, the qualitative data did provide triangulation of the quantitative data, thus enhancing the validity of the findings.

Future studies could build on the current study by increasing the sample size and representativeness of the sample. The concept of breach acting as a moderator for intent to leave could be tested quantitatively. Additionally, different mixed methods designs could be used, for example, the use of a sequential design to identify participants purposefully to conduct interviews to discuss different career aspects, which might lead to further enhancement of theory, as well as provide additional data for the management of human resource practices.

**Conclusion**

This study highlighted how a mixed methods research design with convergent and holistic triangulation was implemented to gain an increased understanding of the careers of professional staff working in universities. This concurrent complementarity design (Creswell et al. 2003), which involved the simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data in a multi-method instrument, tested the usefulness of the ICCP theory (Briscoe and Hall 2006a) to understanding professional staff within universities. Data integration expanded the understanding of needs, values, and behaviours that individuals deemed important through both convergence and divergence of data set results. Through the integration of the
results, this study has attempted to convey the methodological usefulness of a mixed methods design in carrying out careers research.

References

References are incorporated into the final reference list.

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Conclusion to Part E

The focus of this paper was to show the usefulness of a mixed methods methodology, convergent and holistic triangulation, and data integration in developing a greater depth of understanding when applied to the careers area. This paper argued that there were indeed methodological gains made to expand the understanding of needs, values and behaviours which individuals deemed important to their careers.

Through the integration of the data types, this study has attempted to convey the methodological usefulness of a mixed methods design in carrying out careers research. Future studies could test if the concept of breach acting as a moderator for intent to leave could be tested for quantitatively.
Supplementary Material

Wednesday, 9 May 2018 at 13:34:56 Australian Western Standard Time

Subject: The Australian Journal of Career Development - Decision on Manuscript ID AJCD-18-0003
Date: Friday, 16 February 2018 at 14:16:36 Australian Western Standard Time
From: Australian Journal of Career Development
To: Michelle Gander

16-Feb-2018

Dear Ms. Gander,

I am writing to you regarding your manuscript (ID AJCD-18-0003, "Using Convergent and Holistic Triangulation to Understand the Careers of Professional Staff in Universities"), which you submitted to the Australian Journal of Career Development. This manuscript has now been reviewed. Please see comments at the end of this email and in the two attached files.

Both reviewers were positive about your paper, but both also suggested some revisions to your manuscript. Therefore, I invite you to respond to the reviewers’ comments and revise your manuscript.

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IMPORTANT: Your original files are available to you when you upload your revised manuscript. Please delete any redundant files before completing the submission.

Please let me know if you decide not to revise and resubmit. Otherwise, I look forward to receiving your revised manuscript.

Sincerely,
Prof. Peter Creed, PhD
Editor, Australian Journal of Career Development
p.creed@griffith.edu.au

Reviewer(s)' Comments to Author:

Referee: 1 (also see attached pdf file)

Comments to the Author

The paper contains every element that will make a very good contribution to knowledge on Careers of professionals. However, the choice of sections and resources has not been clear to achieve the objective of the
paper. It seems to me that your priority or aim is to highlight mix methods in conducting research into Careers of Professional, instead of highlighting the main aim of the paper - individuals' needs, related workplace behaviours and outcomes of Professional Staff in Universities.

Referee: 2 (also see attached pdf file)

Comments to the Author
I've attached an extensive review file - often of small things and referencing details; some over-long paragraphs I've suggested places to cut in two. Tables and figures not all labelled. Clearly not used to APA - I've made extensive notes to author/s in order to be constructive in improving the MS.

Good to see the qualitative data in there, but the MS rather overtakes the methodology still. What would significantly improve the MS is locating the project and not attempting to assert too generally - that would then become a point of interest rather than one of denial, hence irritating reviewers. Be comfortable about the limits of this project - it's useful, and tries to extend things, but the mixed methods has still not achieved as much as I'm sure the author/s hoped for, because of this tendency to defend by ignoring the limited nature of the sample and place of sample. If the author/s go full-out this project is just generating things for further work, then their softer argument, perhaps oddly, becomes stronger and of greater interest to others working elsewhere.

Most substantial, rather than technical - points are made in the attached document at 11/38 - 2 paras, and 19/49.
Conclusion to the Chapter

This chapter has presented the results from this dissertations’ research. It has highlighted the drivers and constraints that professional staff work under in actively managing their career, and suggests that professional staff create hybrid careers and balanced psychological contracts, blending aspects of traditional career attitudes such as job security and promotion opportunities and contemporary attitudes such as meaningful work and skill development. These results also showed that using Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profile theory can usefully create career clusters and determine different relationship with subjective factors such as satisfaction, positive and negative affect, intent to leave and psychological contract breach. Combining this with the qualitative analysis provided a richer description of employees lived careers.

The following chapter goes on to integrate and discuss the results in relation to the conceptual framework developed from the extant literature (see Chapter 2).
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter presents a synthesis and interpretation of the results gathered from the multi-method survey. This study was designed to address the following research aims:

1. Determine the factors influencing the contemporary career of higher education professional staff

2. Evaluate the application of a multi-theoretical framework for understanding the careers of higher education professional staff.

3. Determine the efficacy of a mixed methods research design to better understand the contemporary careers of higher education professional staff

It also aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the experience of the ‘contemporary career’ of higher education professional staff?

2. Can understanding career profiles explain the experiences of higher education professional staff?

3. What are the drivers and constraints influencing contemporary career management for higher education professional staff?

4. What is the influence of the psychological contract on career management perceptions of higher education professional staff?
The results have indicated several concepts relevant to the careers of professional staff working in universities: a hybrid career, the usefulness of career profiles, the importance of the psychological contract on individuals’ careers, and a number of psycho-social factors important in career decision-making. Key findings are incorporated into an integrated career framework developed from the extant literature (see Chapter 2). This is now presented.

**The Contemporary Career: The Hybrid Career Orientation**

The quantitative data has shown that contemporary careers of university professional staff include aspects of Traditional, Protean (especially self-directed attitudes), and Boundaryless (especially psychological mobility) careers. In terms of the Traditional career professional staff require job security and promotion opportunities. Professional staff also show aspects of Protean career attitudes, that is they are self-directed in their career management with a values-driven attitude. They are also motivated by more psychological success factors such as meaningful work and interesting work, with the need for developmental learning opportunities. This suggests that staff are aware that they need to take responsibility for their own careers and career development activities and that they are likely to be more concerned with following their own path to success than that defined by their employer. In terms of the Boundaryless career, professional staff are highly psychologically mobile, being open to new opportunities for skill development and utilization. This was found to be especially true in terms of intra-organisational Boundaryless, that is willing and desiring to move roles within their organisation to achieve their needs of challenging work and finding ongoing learning opportunities, as well as skill development for promotion (as outlined by Arthur and Rousseau,
1996, 6). It was also found that professional staff are not particularly locationally mobile. This may be due to the feminised workplace and the need for job security. Higher education in general, and professional services in particular have a majority of female employees (for example, in the UK women make up 64 per cent of HE professional staff [2017/18]; Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.). There is a significant volume of literature that shows that women, even when working full-time, still undertake most of the caring responsibilities for children and others (Kaine and Boersma 2018). This may offer some explanation of why job security is such an important issue for professional staff working in HE.

Figure 5.1: Needs of higher education professional staff leading to a hybrid career orientation
These results also confirm career hybridity for professional staff working in higher education as suggested in the Systematic Literature Review. Figure 5.1 illustrates how professional staff have created a contemporary Hybrid career orientation, combining their needs for Traditional career factors such as job security, with the Boundaryless career factor such as skill development, that will ensure their employability in a sector that is changing at a rapid rate, and the Protean career factors such as the need for meaningful work. These are important findings, as it provides the first empirical evidence for a new form of career orientation, the Hybrid career orientation, for professional staff in the higher education sector.

Contemporary career theory has previously argued that employees no longer value an organisational type career, and as part of taking responsibility for their own careers, are not bound to one organisation (Arthur and Rousseau 1996; Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth 2006; Forrier, Sels, and Verbruggen 2005; Peiperl and Baruch 1997; Tolbert 1996). The results from this study’s research support the more recent literature that suggests that some staff working in organisations enact a form of Hybrid career, combining Traditional career factor needs with contemporary needs (Baruch, Szücs, and Gunz 2015; Clarke 2009; 2013; McDonald, Brown, and Bradley 2005; Sullivan and Baruch 2009). For example, Walton and Mallon (2004) showed that aspects of both Traditional (for example, advancement) and contemporary careers (for example, enjoyment) were used in individual sense-making of employees’ careers. Research by Çakmak-Otluğlu (2012) showed that having a Boundaryless mindset could co-exist with organisational commitment and did not necessarily equate with mobility. Baruch (2014) noted that Protean and Traditional career attitudes were not always opposing.
Much has been written on the Protean and Boundaryless careers, terms which are often used as proxies for the idea of a contemporary career. However, Briscoe and Hall (2006) first argued that thinking about Protean and Boundaryless careers as separate orientations was too restricting for the complex careers that people enact. They therefore combined the attributes of those orientations to theorise 16 potential career profiles, concluding that eight of these career profiles were likely to be found. Recent empirical studies have confirmed several of these theoretical profiles in various industries and countries (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010) but this theory has not been tested in the higher education sector or on professional staff.

**Career Profiles: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life balance, and Fixed**

This study confirmed the validity of the quantitative career profile methodology (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008; 2010) and found that two of the eight theorised career profiles – Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects – were evident. These two career profiles score highly against psychological mobility, career self-management and values-driven behaviour. These results aligned with the results from the qualitative analysis that showed that professional staff: are values-driven; need good organisational fit aligned with their internal values; are psychologically mobile, needing to be continuously challenged in their work and willing to move roles in the organisation to find this challenge; and undertake career self-management behaviours such as professional development. The difference between the profiles is that participants allocated to the Protean Career Architect orientation scored highly against locational mobility – they were willing to move
organisations if they did not have good organisational fit, or wanted a promotion that could not be gained internally. The data also showed that most professional staff within universities correspond to a Solid Citizen career profile. This may be due to the high percentage of women in the HE workforce, with more limited locational mobility, as discussed above. The fact that this was the only significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects calls into question the usefulness of this theory for providing useful information on differences between career profiles that could be used by organisations in their human resource management activities.

These are important findings, as it provides the first empirical evidence for career profiling of professional staff in the higher education sector. However, as only two career profiles were found in this study by using Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profiles, it was concluded that by creating career profiles based only on four career attitude dimensions did not provide enough variation in outcomes to create organisationally useful career profiles. Other scholars have also more broadly called into question the validity of the current conception of the Boundaryless career orientation (Gubler, Arnold, and Coombs 2014a; Inkson et al. 2012). A further qualitative analysis was therefore undertaken.

A thematic qualitative analysis led to four career profiles: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed. These four profiles could be argued to be more useful to organisations as they highlight differences between groups of staff and the different sets of career concerns and therefore human resource interventions that might be required to
ensure ongoing job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, again the only significant difference between Intra- and Inter-Organisational Advancement was locational mobility. It seems that this is a serious issue for professional staff working in higher education, leading to internal promotion opportunities as a key area of both concern, and opportunity for organisations. These results point to one of the main advantages of undertaking a mixed methods research design, in that triangulation of data along with data integration can lead to greater descriptive power and a richer understanding of the phenomenon under study. Looking for both convergence and divergence in the data can add richness to theory development.

The four career profiles found using this qualitative analysis, closely resembled others reported in the extant literature providing validity for the claims made. For example, Gubler, Arnold, and Coombs (2014) found three career orientations, Work-Life Balancers, Careerists, and Stay-Puts (roughly equating to this dissertation’s findings of Work-Life Balance, Inter-Organisational Advancement, and Fixed) in their study of staff working in IT organisations in three European countries. Participants in these career profiles showed various correlations with aspects of the Boundaryless career but also highlighted that career boundaries were not all objectively observable. They found that personal reasons may act as a strong career boundary for some individuals such as the Work-Life Balancers who had previously rejected career opportunities. However, Work-Life Balancers scored similarly as Careerists for geographical relocations and organisational mobility. Stay-Puts did not value geographical relocations and organisational mobility and had rejected career opportunities.
Furthermore, the Intra-Organisational Advancement profile aligns somewhat to Gerber et al. (2009) Traditional/Promotion profile which focused on upward mobility within an organisation. It also aligned somewhat with Clarke's (2009) Pragmatists who pursued traditional organisational careers and to the Work-Life Balancers of Gubler et al. (2014). Although superficially it looks as if the Intra-Organisational Advancement career is akin to a Traditional career, it showed hybridity as employees were merging their needs for job security and a career with contemporary needs of interesting and challenging work for personal growth and development. The Inter-Organisational Advancement profile aligned with the Protean Career Architect (Briscoe and Hall 2006), the Independent Career (Gerber et al. 2009), and to the Visionaries or Opportunists (Clarke 2009). The Work-Life Balance profile aligned with the Work-Life Balancers of Gubler et al. (2014) as it was just the need to potentially reject career opportunities that made them stand-apart, not their motivation or aspiration. The Fixed profile aligned with the Trapped/Lost profile (Briscoe and Hall 2006), that is participants did not know how to develop their careers or felt they were blocked from doing so.

These findings emphasise the reciprocative relationship between the individual and the organisation in career management. Career management cannot be left wholly up to the individual. Professional staff are well aware of their responsibility in this area, but this does not negate the need for support from the organisation in terms of support for providing suitable arrangements. As Baruch and Vardi (2016) point out, what might be positive for the organisation may be the opposite for staff and that the contemporary career landscape can have ‘dark-sides’ for individuals if the organisation takes little or no responsibility for the careers of their staff. These
profiles also point to differing needs across the lifespan dependent upon individuals’ lives and careers. These differing needs at various points in time impact upon career decision-making and indicate the need for organisations to understand the different drivers influencing the careers of staff over time.

**Career Needs, Values and Behaviours: A Reciprocative Relationship**

The result of integrating the quantitative and qualitative data, leading to increased validity of the results, has uncovered several essential needs that professional staff require from their work environment: job security, hierarchical advancement, organisational commitment, skill development, skill utilisation, meaningful work, values match, learning opportunities, and professional growth. Many of these have been reported in the literature as key requirements for job satisfaction (Tytherleigh et al. 2005). A number of constraints were also highlighted in the qualitative data, including the lack of promotion opportunities for part-time staff, and senior roles always seeming to go to staff from outside the institution (or even the sector).

This concept of essential needs suggests that Schein’s concept of a career anchor may be relevant for professional staff in universities, acting as an internal motivational force that guides career decisions (Coetzee and Schreuder 2014). Gubler et al. (2014) also considered that an employee’s career anchor may be important for their career profile. Coetzee and Schreuder (2014) suggested that having one or more career anchors as the intrinsic motivator may lead to ongoing career interpretation and negotiation ensuring increased person-environment fit and career satisfaction. Bravo et al. (2015) suggested that autonomy was not a career anchor *per se* but a need that overlaid other anchors, and Rodrigues, Guest and
Budjanovcanin (2013) suggested that anchors may change over time dependent on various aspects including labour market conditions.

These qualitative data also show that autonomy was important to professional staff, and the Protean career scale, although not naming autonomy directly, has several items that relate to the need for autonomy, which may therefore be a need for all professional staff. The career anchors that were more explicitly discussed were meaningful work, work-life balance, challenging work, service to students, and job security. These align with a number of career anchors but it could be argued that there are multiple anchors at work at once, and that they may change over time. For example, the Work-Life Balance career profile aligns with Schein’s Lifestyle and Competence anchors (although as discussed previously individuals in this profile may have been in one of the other profiles at other times), the Fixed profile aligns with the Security anchor, Inter-Organisational Advancement with a Competence anchor (either Technical or Managerial) with the Intra-Organisational Advancement profile prioritizing both Security and Competence anchors.

This leads to important considerations for the organisation in terms of providing career enablers through high performance work systems such as good job design, supportive work relationships, inclusive work cultures, recognition and rewards, work autonomy, and opportunities for participation, which have been found to have a positive influence on individual satisfaction and performance (Fabi, Lacoursière, and Raymond 2015; Reynolds, Shoss, and Jundt 2015). Individuals, as part of their career self-management behaviours, have implicitly taken on board the need to increase their cultural capital by undertaking further qualifications, or specific on the
job training and development. Indeed, this has become part of the ‘career success’ narrative within HEIs that some individuals are prepared to finance these themselves, including in some instances financing themselves through expensive Master or MBA programmes. The career capital theory suggests that the result of this development activity should lead to increased human capital and therefore increased promotion prospects. However, this does not necessarily translate for all staff, as evidenced by the lack of women and minority ethnic staff in senior management positions. Although this was not a focus of this research, it does have implications for the expectations of professional staff in university settings. As theorised in the Systematic Literature Review there is a reciprocative relationship between the individual and the organisation in the area of career management. This reciprocative relationship is one that has not been explicated previously, but is implied as a way of managing career expectations. This relationship may be part of an individual’s psychological contract, which is fundamental to how individuals enact their careers.

The psychological contract shapes people’s perceptions and behaviours in the workplace through how people perceive and react to feedback from their environment (Kickul and Liao-Troth 2003). There is then an evaluation of any discrepancies between the psychological contract and environmental factors, resulting in either psychological fulfillment or breach. For example, recent research has shown how contract obligations are shaped by the goals individuals pursue and on the feedback they receive on goal progress (Rousseau, Hansen, and Tomprou 2018).
The Labour Market, the Psychological Contract and the Hybrid Career Orientation

The quantitative results showed that the psychological contract took two different forms, one that reflected the more traditional career requirements of job security, loyalty, a career and opportunities for promotion. The other form reflected a more contemporary career model including interesting work, skill development, skill utilisation and opportunities for task responsibility. These findings support previous studies that have linked contemporary careers and psychological contracts (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall 2008; Gerber et al. 2012; McDonald et al. 2005; Raeder et al. 2009). It could be argued that individuals are creating a balanced psychological contract (Rousseau 2000). This type of psychological contract is created when an employee is obligated to develop skills for external labour market employability but are also required to develop skills for internal advancement.

Figure 5.2 indicates how a hybrid labour market in HE may influence the creation of a balanced psychological contract. For example, the labour market has promotions based on competitive matching and ports of entry at all levels, leading to competitive selection for all jobs. This leads to individual staff members needing to understand the requirements for internal promotion but also to keep external marketability in case the need arises to move organisations. This balanced psychological contract may then influence the development of the hybrid career attitude through influences to career behaviours such as training and development and so on. Individuals’ goals are also important, especially for career development. These goals can change throughout the life-course which has implications for psychological contract fulfillment (Bal et al. 2010).
Figure 5.2: The interaction between sector labour market, career attitude and psychological contract
The quantitative data indicated that there were high levels of positive affect and although the balanced contract has been under-researched in the literature, evidence suggests that individuals with a positive outlook towards their organisation are more likely to have a balanced (or relational) psychological contract (Syal and Ganth 2014). Baruch and Rousseau (2019) suggest that balanced contracts are created within organisations that have ‘robust career ecosystems’, typical of organisations with internal labour markets, stability, resources which stabilise against external shocks – a description that could encompass universities. Manuti, Spinelli and Giancaspro (2016) found that high levels of organisational socialisation was significantly associated with the development of a balanced psychological contract (characterised by person-organisation fit, the development of professional competencies and on the development of dynamic performance), again a description of universities.

The quantitative data also showed that all psychological contract items tested for were perceived to be at breach, supporting other work that argues that breach is relatively common (Conway and Briner 2002). Breach was negatively correlated with satisfaction, consistent with research by Bunderson (2001) on work satisfaction that suggests individuals undertake an assessment of whether their job meets their expectations. Solid Citizens showed a small negative correlation and Protean Career Architects a small positive correlation with intent to leave.

It was also shown that Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects react differently to psychological contract breach of career related factors. Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) is an important vehicle through which to understand how
individuals manage breach through adaptation behaviours. Ongoing satisfaction and tenure are the desired outcomes of professional staff, and how Protean Career Architects and Solid Citizens react to maintain or retain fit, before getting to a point of untenable dis-satisfaction and leaving the organisation is shown to be different. The application of TWA shows how different levels of tolerance for dis-correspondence (as highlighted by breach) are reflected by differences in Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects Boundaryless mindsets with respect to locational mobility.

Alternatively, Protean Career Architects, being much more locationally mobile, will be less flexible, and that they will move with greater alacrity from the area of tolerable dis-correspondence, to adjustment and then to unmanageable fit. Both career profiles would still show a combination of active and reactive measures, due to their tenure. They do not want to leave their job and/or organisation, but they will do so if they cannot adjust environments appropriately for them, Protean Career Architects more so than Solid Citizens.

The mixing of the quantitative and qualitative data led to the conclusion that there are three main factors influencing the contemporary career: essential needs, adaptation strategies, and vocational development requirements. Needs are subjective and related to the underlying career related abilities, desires, values and interests of the individuals. Adaptation is the need and capability to respond to the environmental feedback to ensure job satisfaction and tenure. Vocational Development is the requirement for self-efficacy in goal setting, planning and working towards skill development and utilisation; all influence the contemporary
career of professional staff. The analytical framework of Bourdieu’s field, habitus and capital are now applied to investigate the application of a multi-theoretical framework to aid understanding of professional staff careers in universities further.

**Integrated Career Framework**

In the Career Theory Literature Review, an integrated conceptual framework was developed, incorporating career theories and the psychological contract with Bourdieu’s concepts of field and habitus, in order to gain a greater understanding of these individually and socially constructed influences on workplace needs and behaviours. This has now been extended to include the results of this research (Fig. 5.3). It should be noted that the framework is dynamic because it considers people’s differing habitus leading to varying expectations, needs and values. As Jarness (2017) notes, the very concept of Bourdieu is that people’s lifestyles form the basis for exclusion, or inclusion, and this concept of social and cultural stratification corresponds to the system of lifestyle differences and its ties to group formation and institutionalized practices. As (Bathmaker 2015) argues, the use of field, habitus and capitals is used to understand social practice through the concept of the differentiated nature of social space and the practical action taken within it.
Figure 5.3: Integrated career framework
Vocational Personality: The Social Field

The Integrated Career Framework starts by suggesting that the social field that an individual inhabits is critical for the development of vocational personality. This is based on the work of Super and Savickas (Savickas, 1997; Super, 1980) who developed and refined the idea of the impact of society and the lifespan of careers. However, neither of these concepts explicitly considered the power relations that are part of the social context. The social field is critically important as the starting point of an individual's unique career story, as it creates the work personality and values that are brought to bear inside an organisation. The social field refers to both the field which exists due to the agents within it and the social influences that are part of the unconscious doxa which includes the systems of classification that reproduce their own specific logic such as class, gender, age, ethnicity, and disability (Bourdieu, 1977). This has considerable impact on the habitus of individuals and therefore on the development of vocational personality. It could be suggested that individuals lack agency as vocational identification may be inhibited by the social field and related habitus through multiple and intersecting classifications.

Vocational personality is a dynamic and constructed concept that is influenced through social institutions such as school and community before entering the workplace. This developmental stage of the lifespan directly affects the career related needs and values of individuals that influence vocational and career choice, and is played out through the span of their career. By incorporating Savickas’ (Savickas, 2002) idea of vocational personality development and integrating this with an understanding of the social field that the individual resides within, an increase in the understanding of vocational personality development is attained. Not
only are individual attributes such as personality, and social aspects such as school, important, but also that the wider field and therefore habitus of the environment offers limits to vocational personality development. This is not to say that this habitus cannot be overcome but that by explicating the power and privilege positions within society, that it can be understood that these issues affect the vocational personality outcomes before individuals enter the workplace. This social field ultimately impacts on career choice and the needs, adaptations and vocational development across the lifespan that ultimately creates a unique career story for each individual.

*Higher Education: The Sector Field*

The sector field is a critical aspect that shapes individual organisations as it includes multiple agents that deform the field with different types and levels of reciprocal relationships, which confer that structure on the field. Academia has been defined as a social field previously as it has its own logic and rules and its own career system (Baruch, Point, and Humbert 2019). The careers of staff working in this sector take place within this field. The importance of this field cannot be underestimated as certain agents in the field lead to changes in the sector field. An analysis of the social field means locating it within its historical and relational context, and integrating previous knowledge generating activities and how such knowledge was generated and by whom (Thomson 2012). Organisational studies have generally concentrated on field as deployed horizontally, for example via one industrial sector, but there has been little analysis at the vertical level, of for example an organisation as a field (Emirbayer and Johnson 2008). It must be noted here that Bourdieu did not
characterise a field as a material place but as a device for understanding, although there are physical embodiments that could be investigated.

The careers of professional staff take place within this field, which has created a labour market which has been heavily influenced by industrial relations, and with tension occurring between the ideas of an ILM which creates opportunities for promotion with points of entry at more junior levels, and ELMs which open all available positions to internal and external competition (Doeringer and Piore 1971). The results of this study showed that there are still expectations of a career with internal promotion opportunities especially for those staff limited in their locational mobility. The perception gained from the data is that an increased number of senior roles are being recruited from outside of the university and the sector. This supports the practitioner literature that has reported issues with ports of entry at senior levels for some time (Bassnett 2005; Lauwerys 2002; Lauwerys, Wild, and Wooldridge 2009), resulting in limited internal career promotion opportunities.

The Institution: The Organisation Field

The idea that organisations are socially constructed and a social field in their own right has had limited theoretical analysis. It is clear, however, that organisations need to be situated within the network of relations and contexts that they reside (the sector level of analysis) to understand how they engage within and without of themselves (Emirbayer and Johnson 2008). Organisations exists then within the wider sector field but are also creating and re-creating the relations of actors within the organisation by their own specific actions to develop their culture and values. This field is the context within which practice, including vocational behaviour, takes place. The field
is ‘an arbitrary social construct, an artefact whose arbitrariness and artificiality are underlined by everything that defines its autonomy’ (Bourdieu 1990, 67). But within this construct a social game takes place. The game of vocational behaviour is to increase capitals (and therefore power and privilege). Individual career decision-making is taking place within this boundaried field. Although individuals have their own agency, they are unlikely to make career choices that do not align with their organisation. The move towards individual agency, driven in part by the passing of risk from the organisation to the individual (Beck 1999 in Rawolle, Rowlands, & Blackmore, 2017), drives behaviours related to employability, which relates to Protean and Boundaryless career attitudes. Within this field of practice there is the lived reality of each individual who is actively creating their own unique career story.

Needs
These create the underlying motivation for career related decisions and has a major impact on career-related behaviours. The analysis of the results discussed above showed that professional staff required: autonomy, meaningful work, challenging work, ongoing learning, job security, promotion opportunities, skills development, and skills utilisation, due to their career hybridity. These needs align with Schein’s Career Anchor Theory, and the Protean and Boundaryless career theories, all of which are widely-used classifications of preferences supported by numerous empirical studies (Clarke 2009; 2013; Baruch, Szűcs, and Gunz 2015; McDonald, Brown, and Bradley 2005; Sullivan and Baruch 2009; Walton and Mallon 2004).
Adaptation

These responses are critical to ensure ongoing job satisfaction (Bretz and Judge 1994). As career-related needs are in part, psychosocial, the concept of the psychological contract was introduced as a potentially useful lens through which to understand the many and varied career behaviours that take place. The results of this dissertation indicated that different staff, who had been grouped into career profiles, responded differently to changing circumstances through their adaptations to person-organisational fit using the Theory of Work Adjustment. Some had high levels of tolerance and would adapt and react to ensure job satisfaction and satisfactoriness was maintained or retained. Some staff had lower tolerance levels to mis-alignment of requirements, and would move quickly to firstly try to re-align themselves to their organisation, or ultimately to leave the organisation if their needs were not met. Others found it difficult to adapt and became fixed in their role being put in a position of neither completely fitting or being so unsatisfactory that they were moved on.

Baruch and Rousseau (2019) have theorised that in what they term ‘career ecosystems’, that is a landscape of work and employment relationships which define careers of individual actors, that adaptation effects are related to the fragility or robustness of the organisation. They suggest, for example, that organisations with ecosystem fragility, that is organisations that respond to shocks in ways that disconnect workers, firms and institutions, may be associated with greater psychological contract breach and violation. According to their definitions, universities would fall within the robust classification scheme, that is they participate in internal labour markets and workers adjust to changing employer demands over
time. The results from this research, showed that breach was common, but that turnover was low perhaps highlighting that at an individual level there were adjustments being made within psychological contract expectations especially from employment with one university to the requirement for potential re-entry into the external labour market at times throughout individual’s careers. The results from the application of TWA to the psychological contract suggest that it is individual subjective judgement on contract fulfillment that has the greatest effect on breach. This individual subjective judgement of course is influenced by organisational habitus.

Vocational Development

This is the ongoing development over the life-course of evaluating current competencies, seeing gaps in terms of where an individual may want to move their career to, and planning and working towards developing their skills and competencies as needed. This is linked to the concept of Bourdieu’s capitals, which through understanding the social game, can be accumulated to aid in the development of symbolic capital. Vocational development helps individuals increase their capitals, which is understood to be the way to play the organisational career game, and that those invest and develop their capitals profile will be rewarded with career success. Employees see organisational vocational development as a form of support that demonstrates care and recognition and when they receive this support, are more satisfied and committed to their organisation (Benson et al. 2018). The results from this dissertation research showed mixed practice in vocational development across organisations with some individuals reporting significant monetary and other support from their institution and other individuals receiving less
support. However, considering psychological contract breach occurred across all factors, it seems that career development expectations are not fulfilled. However, satisfaction for higher education professional staff was positively related to more extrinsic factors such as monetary awards, whether on a permanent contract and the traditional aspects of the psychological contract.

These psychological and process mechanisms take place within two contexts: the higher education sector (the sector field), and the organisation (the organisational field) which has unconsciously influenced an individual’s perception of their talents, abilities, values and motivation. This highlights that understanding the context within which people work is a critical factor in understanding their agency – why they make some decisions and not others, and how these are enacted through career-related behaviours. By including the context of the higher education labour market, an understanding of how this impacts the needs discussed above becomes clear. It could be argued that individuals have acted in relation to the rules of the field – they have acted ‘intentionally without intention’ through *mimesis* (Bourdieu 1990, 12). That is, they have, without conscious thought, understood the field they belong to and through their individual agency adapted to this new environment (Inkson et al. 2012). This may have become more important in recent years with the opening of positions at all points in the vacancy chain to the external labour market in universities as part of the introduction of new managerialism (Nickson 2014).

*Career Implications*

The qualitative analysis of peoples’ career stories highlighted the idea of the accumulation of capitals (via professional development) for career progression:
economic, social and cultural (Fig. 5.4). This idea of the accumulation of various capitals has been utilised in Defilippi and Arthur's (1994) concept of career capital. The career capital framework is competency based via a *knowing-how, knowing-whom and knowing-why* approach. It includes aspects of human capital through the *knowing how* competency, agency through the *knowing why* competency, and relational competency through the *knowing whom* aspect (Singh, Ragins, and Tharenou 2009). Career capital argues that the more an individual invests in their own set of productive skills through developing competencies, the more successful the career outcome will be for the individual and for the organisation (Inkson and Arthur 2001). However, a major critique of this theory is that arguably the most important capital included in Bourdieu’s original theory – that of symbolic capital – has been completely unaccounted for. It is argued that this symbolic capital is the main requirement for promotion, not the other accumulation of capitals.

A criticism of career capital theory is that it only takes one aspect of Bourdieu’s more encompassing view of cultural capital, that is the accumulation of goods/objects such as qualifications – normally termed human capital. Goods/objects and qualifications can be more easily accumulated through the use of economic capital (Bótas and Huisman 2013).
Maurer and Chapman (2013), for example, found that early organisational support for career development contributed directly to individuals’ current salary, job and career satisfaction. Additionally, Maurer and Chapman (2013) found that aggregating career development over time also further contributed to job and career satisfaction, beyond the early career support, suggesting the effect was due to cumulative advantage. It could be that early organisational support provided increases to economic capital, which in turn could be further used to accumulate more capitals (Baruch, Point, and Humbert 2019).

Bourdieu (1977, 179) also included symbolic capital, which he suggested was the most valuable form of capital, and which can be understood in two ways. Firstly, it is a set of values, tastes and lifestyle of some social groups that, for whatever reason, have been deemed superior than others and that confer social advantage. Secondly, it is a form of difference between group members as capitals accumulation does not necessarily translate into symbolic capital. Symbolic capital is a transformed and
disguised form of economic capital and as such it reproduces inequalities and power relations and acts as a barrier, even with other capitals accumulation (Bourdieu 1977). This may be seen in relation to the idea of career barriers, which were highlighted in the SLR, and identified in this study. For example, the lack of senior part-time positions to allow staff to balance both their career ambitions with other aspects of their life such as child rearing, is an ongoing issue of organisational life that seems to change little despite the amount of HR time spent on updating and (trying to) implement policy in this area. By understanding doxa, which is the unquestioned sense of reality or undisputed ‘natural truth’ that occurs when the social order continues to reproduce the power relations of which they are a product, by mis-recognising, and therefore not recognising, the arbitrariness on which they are based (Bourdieu 1977, 164), we can start to understand why so little has changed, as doxa determines the habitus of the individuals in those fields of practice (Deer 2012).

**Efficacy of a Mixed Methods Research Design**

This dissertation research utilised a mixed methods research design with mixing at multiple stages throughout the research. Data integration occurred at analysis stage which created an enhanced understanding of the results (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2006). Through the use of both convergent and holistic triangulation a deeper understanding of the careers of professional staff was found (Turner, Cardinal, and Burton 2017; see Table 5.1).
Table 5.1: Integration, interpretation and contribution of mixed methods research design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Quantitative results</th>
<th>Qualitative results</th>
<th>Integration of results</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Contribution to understanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Protean career orientation</td>
<td>Self-directed career attitude</td>
<td>Proactive behaviour for career self-management</td>
<td>QUAN+ qual data converged in terms of finding that individuals are self-directed/proactive in their career management. Data diverged as QUAN data suggested that Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects had significantly different levels of self-directed career attitudes and qual data showed differences between Intra- and Inter-Organisational Advancement careers and Fixed and Work-Life Balance career profiles</td>
<td>All staff understand the need to have high levels of self-efficacy – the need to have career vision, set goals, plan an approach to goal achievement, take action, reflect and review – to advance their careers</td>
<td>Mixing of data has highlighted that the important difference is not whether you are a Solid Citizen or Protean Career Architect (both showing high levels of self-directed career attitudes) that leads to real-world differences. The main difference is between those actively managing their careers and those that feel fixed in their career in some way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protean career orientation</td>
<td>Values-driven</td>
<td>Alignment between individual and organisational values</td>
<td>QUAN + qual data converged in terms of finding values-driven career attitudes. Data diverged as QUAN data indicated a significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects but qual data suggested no difference between the two profiles</td>
<td>Staff reported the need to have a fit between their value-based needs and the organisation, and that when this was disconnected that that is when they would consider leaving</td>
<td>Mixing of data highlighted that there was a broader interpretation of values-match than the items in the instrument offered, and that alignment of values was especially key for job satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boundaryless career orientation</td>
<td>Psychological mobility</td>
<td>Ongoing learning and challenging work</td>
<td>QUAN + qual data converged in terms of finding psychological mobility attitudes. QUAN + qual data diverged as QUAN data indicated a significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects but qual data indicated no difference</td>
<td>High levels of psychological mobility was found across the participants, in reality discussing the need for <strong>self-actualisation</strong> through the requirement for ongoing learning opportunities, being challenged, upskilling and not being bored</td>
<td>Mixing of data highlighted that there was a broad requirement for self-actualisation as staff wanted to grow intellectually, if not hierarchically in their careers, or both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boundaryless career orientation</td>
<td>Locational mobility</td>
<td>Mobility decision-making</td>
<td>QUAN + qual data converged in terms of finding differences in career profiles. QUAN data showed a significant difference between Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects. Qual data showed difference between those able to move (Inter-Organisational Advancers) and those unable to move</td>
<td>The differences between individuals was more related to the need for <strong>work-life balance</strong></td>
<td>Locational mobility was more related to the need for work-life balance related to, in particular, caring requirements rather than any other factor, resulting in the Work-Life Balance or Inter-O rganisational Advancement in either this career profile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For example, the quantitative data analysis found that self-directed career management attitudes were dominant in the group. The addition of the qualitative results highlighted that the participants understood that they needed to be proactive in their career self-management behaviours which pointed to the importance of self-efficacy in setting goals, working towards the goals and being confident they can be met. Participants also were found to show high levels of value-driven attitudes in the quantitative analysis and the qualitative analysis led to a better understanding of what this meant in practice as it highlighted the importance of person-organisation fit.

One of the most significant findings was that although the quantitative data led to the creation of two career profiles: Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects, the qualitative data did not draw such a distinction between the two groups of participants. This divergence in the data highlighted that the participants were more similar than diverse, and that the most important needs were for self-actualisation and esteem needs, and flexibility in managing work-life balance.

**Conclusion to the Chapter**

This chapter has presented a synthesis and interpretation of the research findings which generated important discoveries to expand the understanding of careers, using professional staff working in universities as the sample participants. It highlights the drivers and constraints that professional staff work under in actively managing their career, and suggests that professional staff create hybrid careers and balanced psychological contracts, blending aspects of Traditional career attitudes such as job security and promotion opportunities and contemporary attitudes such as meaningful
work and skill development. It is suggested that this change has occurred through mimesis, that is intentionally but without intention, as staff have accepted the new contemporary employment relationship with their institution. This study also shows that using Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) career profile theory can usefully create career clusters and determine different relationship with subjective factors such as satisfaction, positive and negative affect, intent to leave and psychological contract breach. Combining this with the qualitative analysis provides a richer description of employees lived careers.

This analysis led to the development of an integrated career framework which offers a conceptual integration of various career theories using Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice as an analytical tool. By using Bourdieu’s theory of field and habitus, this research has contributed to a greater understanding of professional staff careers; it has also contributed to a more comprehensive understanding of individuals’ career behaviour that may be applicable in various contexts. By understanding the field, we understand the constraints individuals are under in making career decisions – in this context, this boundaried field, not all decisions are applicable or appropriate. Our unconscious understanding of the habitus, and our role in reproducing this, is key to understanding these behaviours – and why it is so difficult to change. This approach to career theory is presented as an answer to the critique of the idolisation of self-efficacy in the contemporary career literature. As discussed in the Careers Literature Review, contemporary career theory has little to say on context, as it argues that the organisational career is dead, and everything to say on an individual’s need for self-efficacy. Whilst, for most of us, careers take multiple forms over the life course, context – or field – cannot be ignored as an unimportant consideration of why and
how people make specific career decisions. The psycho-social mechanism found to be important for finding and maintaining a satisfying career is first developed within an individual’s social field. This provides information to an individual on what career to enter based on their socially constructed view of work as a construct. Once an individual has decided on a career and entered the organisational field, their needs are managed through the process mechanism of adaptation, which can be enhanced through the process mechanism of vocational development. These psycho-social and process mechanisms taking place within an organisational field (with its habitus) can then be used as a tool to create an individual’s unique career story.

This chapter also showed how the integration of the convergent and holistic quantitative and qualitative data in this research design led to the development of a more specific set of career profiles embedded in the HE context. The dual emphasis on understanding both the career profiles as predicted by quantitative data analysis, and the lived experiences of individuals that fall within these career profiles through a qualitative data analysis approach is one of the unique and major advantages of incorporating mixed methods designs in this field of study.

The next chapter offers a conclusion to the research study along with theoretical, methodological, and practical implications. Limitations of the research are presented and ideas for future research offered.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Introduction to the Chapter

This study explored the careers of professional staff working in universities in Australia and the UK. The key outcomes are firstly, that the use of Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice provides a useful analytical tool through which to critique and improve career theory. Secondly, that professional staff show a Hybrid career orientation consisting of Traditional, Boundaryless and Protean career factors. Thirdly, that staff can be grouped into a number of different career profiles dependent on their current career needs and attitudes. Fourthly, that professional staff develop a balanced psychological contract. These findings led to the development of an integrated career framework, which helps to understand career needs, behaviours and outcomes and the development of individuals’ unique career stories. This chapter outlines the key findings, discusses the multiple implications of this research, and outlines possibilities for future research.

Overview of Contributions

This thesis’ findings are significant for five reasons. First, by using Pierre Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice as a scaffold to understand context and underpin career theory, it is possible to create a deeper understanding of career needs and behaviours. The requirement to take into account the wider context when researching career theory has been identified by a number of scholars (see Akkermans and Kubasch 2017 for a review), but there has been a lack of deeper thinking about what this means (Iellatchitch, Mayrhofer, and Meyer 2003). By applying Bourdieu’s
theory and integrating it with a number of relevant career theories related to organisational fit, internal motivation, self-actualisation, and employability, a greater understanding of an individuals’ unique career story is gained. This has resulted in a conceptual career framework that aims to better understand individuals’ vocational behaviour.

Second, this research has developed a Hybrid career orientation that shows how individuals’ have blended aspects of a Traditional organisational career such as job security and promotion requirements, with contemporary career factors such as skill development and interesting work. This has highlighted that staff have embraced the move to individualisation in terms of career management expectations but that they still have expectations from the organisation in terms of providing conditions conducive to having a career within, or outside of, a particular institution.

Third, it supports the concept that career profiles can be used as a way of clustering professional staff to better understand their needs from the organisation. This has practical implications for HR departments in that they could provide more appropriate career guidance and vocational development activities related to each career profile, to increase and maintain staff motivation.

Fourth, it has indicated that professional staff develop a balanced psychological contract. This type of contract, where an individual is balancing internal and external employability needs, matches the higher education labour market. Employees within a university must continuously develop skills for the rapidly changing internal environment, but must also ensure they remain employable externally, due to the less
secure employment that universities now offer. This research also indicated that all psychological contract factors tested for where at breach and that different career profiles reacted to breach in different ways to regain satisfaction.

Fifth, this study contributes to the methodological pluralism that has been called for to improve the understanding of the complexity of organisational behaviour (Azorín and Cameron 2010). It has shown the usefulness of a mixed methods approach through integration of the different data types and through the analysis of both convergent and holistic triangulation (Turner, Cardinal, and Burton 2017). By using both of these types of triangulation within the inferential stage of the study, this mixed methods research becomes more than a sum of its parts. The data triangulation allowed for the development of integrated themes and also provided additional insight into career profiles which helped determine the needs, values of behaviours of the employees. The data provides evidence of an interplay between needs based on employability, and needs relating to self-actualisation, and the behaviours that this drives for different career profiles.

**Theoretical and Methodological Findings**

**Integrated Career Framework**

The main aim of this dissertation was to evaluate how integrating various key career theories with a unified social science theory could enhance our understanding of the careers of professional staff working in higher education. This study highlighted that by applying the Theory of Practice to contemporary career theories, a greater balance between structure and agency can be found that offers greater explanatory power of how individuals make decisions to manage their careers within their organisation. By
considering power and privilege, field, habitus and capitals accumulation, additional insight is gained into the bounded decisions that individuals can make when managing their careers, as well as the outcomes that these decisions may lead to. The results of this study and the application of Bourdieu’s Theory of Practice as an analytical lens, led to the development of an integrated career framework, which aimed to answer some of the critiques of contemporary career theories. This framework provides a way of analysing the particular structure of the environment (at sector and/or organisational level) and the resultant habitus understood as to how this complex interaction affects individuals within organisations. Once this field of practice is taken into consideration, individual level needs, adaptive behaviours and vocational development drivers can be analysed to create a holistic view of an individuals’ career story.

The Hybrid Career Orientation

There has been an argument that contemporary career theory has raced ahead of the actual experiences of individuals working in organisations (Clarke 2013), and that although aspects of Hybrid careers have been mentioned in previous research (Clarke 2013; McDonald, Brown, and Bradley 2005), there has been little attempt to more fully explore this concept. This dissertation research has resulted in a more distinct understanding of this concept modelled on professional staff working in universities.

Professional staff value a number of different career-related factors from their university encompassing factors conventionally associated with Traditional, Boundaryless and Protean careers. These include firstly, the Traditional-type career
factors of loyalty, a career, job security, and opportunities for promotion. Secondly, the Boundaryless-type career factors of skill development, and skill utilisation, and the opportunity to move roles within the institution. Thirdly, the Protean-type career factors of interesting work, and opportunities for responsibility. This blending of career orientations leads to a Hybrid career orientation, indicating that professional staff still value organisational-type careers but also require interesting work blended with the need to remain employable in the wider employment context, which within the higher education sector has become a pressing need.

This is an important finding as it highlights that professional staff have not progressed to wholly embracing contemporary careers, which has consequences for universities in managing the gap between individual expectations of support and the employment environment that permeates many universities in the current climate. This author agrees with Baruch and Vardi (2016), in that there are numerous negative aspects for both individuals and organisations in moving away from organisational careers towards the rising gig economy (Abraham et al. 2018) and the need to be self-employed, or even to move jobs multiple times and re-invent oneself. Organisations seem to gain the most in terms of being able to employ a temporary workforce increasing and decreasing it, as work requires on an almost daily basis, and setting terms and conditions that are becoming increasingly onerous for the self-employed individuals (O’Donnell, Zion, and Sherwood 2016; Tims 2017; Worthington and McDonald 2017;). Even in higher education there has been a well-documented casualisation of teaching which has impacted negatively on individuals’ careers and well-being (Gottschalk and McEachern 2010).
Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed Career Profiles

The Hybrid career orientation is a high-level view of the essential needs of employees. At a more individual level, it is theorised that staff can be grouped into career profiles. This study confirmed the validity of Briscoe and Hall’s (2006) Protean/Boundaryless career profile integration theory as previously empirically confirmed (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008). This study found Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects – career profiles with high scores against psychological mobility, career self-management and values-driven behaviour.

A critique of the Protean/Boundaryless career profile theory is that only four career attitudes are tested for (career self-management, values-driven attitude, psychological mobility, locational mobility), which may have influenced finding only two different career profiles in the sample. It was concluded that by creating career profiles based only on four career attitude dimensions did not provide enough variation in outcomes to create organisationally useful career profiles. Therefore, a thematic qualitative analysis was undertaken which led to four career profiles being discovered: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed. Although the Intra- and Inter-Organisational Advancement could be argued to suffer from the same issue as the Solid Citizen and Protean Career Architect profiles – that is the only significant difference between them was the lack of locational mobility – the fact that two other career profiles were found, ensures that there is a deeper understanding of the concerns and needs of staff. The four profiles indicate the difference in individual concerns across the
lifespan, an important consideration as individuals will move between career profiles dependent on what else is important at a point in time. This need to take into account other life stages and events, as proposed in Super's (1980) life-span/life-stage theory is an important factor for organisations, recognising that staff move in and out of profiles and require different types of career support at various times.

A Balanced Psychological Contract

The psychological contract is fundamental to how individuals’ enact their careers as it shapes people’s perceptions and behaviours in the workplace through how people perceive and react to feedback from their environment (Kickul and Liao-Troth 2003). The literature suggests that individuals with a positive outlook (Syal and Ganth 2014), organisations that have ‘robust career ecosystems’ (Baruch and Rousseau 2019), and organisations with high levels of socialisation (Manuti, Spinelli, and Giancaspro 2016) would more likely have employees develop a balanced psychological contract. The results of this research showed individuals with high levels of positive affect that work in organisations that have high levels of socialisation as well as ‘robust career ecosystems’ which include those with internal labour markets, are stable, and with a high-level of resources (a description of a university). Although staff showed a balanced psychological contract, of the eight different career factors important in the psychological contract (representing both contemporary and traditional career factors), that were tested for, all were found to be at breach. It was shown that Solid Citizens and Protean Career Architects had different reactions to the reported breach. Solid Citizens were significantly correlated with negative intent to leave and Protean Career Architects with positive intent to leave.
**Mixed Methods Research Gains**

It has been argued that the major benefit of mixed methods research is that integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches offers the attainment of a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (McGrath, Martin, and Kulk 1982 70). Many mixed methods studies aim to offset these weaknesses through convergent triangulation, where one set of data enhances the validity of another set through the convergence of findings, or through holistic triangulation where it is hoped findings may diverge across methodologies to enhance understanding (Turner, Cardinal, and Burton 2017).

The integration of the convergent and holistic quantitative and qualitative data in this study led to the development of a more specific set of career profiles embedded in the HE context. The dual emphasis on understanding both the career profiles as predicted by quantitative data analysis, and the lived experiences of individuals that fall within these career profiles through a qualitative data analysis approach is one of the unique and major advantages of incorporating mixed methods designs in this field of study. Through the use of convergent and holistic triangulation Briscoe and Hall's (2006) career profile theory has been extended by highlighting individual needs, related behaviours, and outcomes, and by suggesting a number of psychological mechanisms acting to drive career behaviours. This theory extension not only leads to a new understanding of professional staff’s career needs and work behaviours but also indicates the importance of convergent and holistic triangulation gained from a mixed methods research design.
Implications for Practice

The results of this study add evidence to the growing indication that the theory of contemporary careers on its own does not fully reflect the desires and needs of today’s workforce (Baruch 2006; Clarke 2013; Inkson et al. 2012; Lyons, Schweitzer, and Ng 2015). This workforce still puts a high value on traditional organisational career factors, especially job security, an organisational career, and promotion opportunities whilst also incorporating contemporary career attitudes, including the need for interesting work, work responsibility, skills development, and skill utilisation, resulting in a Hybrid career orientation. Weng and McElroy (2012) suggest that career management initiatives undertaken by the organisation are still one of the activities that has the biggest impact on organisational commitment and turnover, stating:

> organizational career growth is both a function of the employees’ own efforts in making progress toward their personal career goals and acquiring professional skills within the organization and the organization’s efforts in rewarding such efforts, through promotions and salary increases. (257)

This aligns with the suggestion made in the Systematic Literature Review that it is the reciprocative relationship between organisation and employee in the career management area that is critical for individual, and therefore organisational, success. Universities have moved some way to introducing high performance work systems (HPWS), which aim to maximise performance through work design processes that are argued to provide benefits to individuals and organisations. HPWS generally
include selection and training, appraisal, contingent pay, job security and employee involvement (Heffernan and Dundon 2016). These HPWS bundles aim to enhance an individuals’ abilities, motivation and opportunity to perform and research has indicated that ability-enhancing and opportunity-enhancing human resource practices are more positively related to organisational performance (Vermeeren 2015). The results from this research indicate ways in which universities can provide such ability- and opportunity-enhancing activities to potentially improve both the individuals’ and university’s performance.

**Human Resource Policy Development**

At organisational policy development level, universities need to recognise that employees value aspects of the Protean career such as the need for meaningful and interesting work, responsibility in the work task, and autonomy. Therefore, universities should spend time thinking about good job design, ensuring that each job description meets these requirements as closely as possible. Alternatively, job-crafting could be introduced where employees search for characteristics in their jobs that fit their own abilities and needs and how this works towards their ideal job (Tims, Derks, and Bakker 2016).

Universities also need to recognise that employees value aspects of the Traditional career such as the need for a career and promotion opportunities. The results from this research show that the majority of participants felt positive in their workplace, but needed help from their institution to fulfill their potential as there were some perceived barriers to hierarchical careers. The fact that all career items tested for in
the psychological contract were at breach may suggest that the organisations could do more to fulfill their perceived promises in relation to career management.

From an HR perspective, breach should be considered as important to manage as the literature suggests it has detrimental impacts on satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to leave (Gerber et al. 2012). This study found breach was a predictor for low satisfaction, although not for intent to leave. However, as all factors tested for were at breach it may be that HR departments need to spend more time managing the psychological contracts pre-entry to ensure that reality shock is reduced, through for example, the messages they tell on their websites and social media, and how staff discuss the organisation externally. The Realistic Job Preview could also be used, a tool used in recruitment to communicate the positive and negative aspects of a role (US Office of Personnel Management n.d.). If potential applicants understand the role they are applying for in more depth, this may reduce anxiety, shock, and potential early exit of staff (Welander, Blomberg, and Isaksson 2018). The psychological contract also needs managing on entry and through the first year, as socialisation has found to impact upon the development of the psychological contract in the first year of work (Tomprou and Nikolaou 2011); this may then reduce or prevent breach. However, if breach is not leading to higher intent to leave, as this study suggests, it may be that organisations are managing well enough and that individuals are either not moving from breach to contract violation, which has been shown to be a separate construct (Tomprou and Nikolaou 2011), or do not have enough mobility to be able to move.
As suggested above, there were a number of career barriers identified. The first barrier, as reported by staff in the Work-Life Balance profile and to some degree in the Solid Citizen profile, was the need for increased part-time working at more senior levels. Therefore, organisations could develop their policies further to offer these opportunities. One university in the UK has ensured that all roles, regardless of level, are advertised as available for job-share unless a business case is made to the HR Department to request that it is not (Personal communication 2018).

Another career barrier identified was the lack of promotion opportunities. For Solid Citizens, Protean Career Architects, Intra- and Inter-Organisational Advancement, and Work-Life Balance profiles, promotion opportunities were key requirements, with this being particularly important for Solid Citizens/Intra-Organisational Advancers, who lack locational mobility. The move away from an internal labour market with points of entry only at lower levels, has contributed to the perceived unhappiness of staff with the lack of promotion opportunities, with the qualitative data reporting that external candidates have an advantage over internal ones. Whether this is ‘true’ or not, it is felt to be so, therefore universities could provide development activities to ensure that internal staff have the skills and competencies that are required for higher level roles. For example, an increase in competency-based job analysis could ensure that individuals knew what would be expected in certain roles, and could therefore work towards gaining those skills. This is an area that the AUA, as the UK’s professional body for university professional staff, has developed in the last few years. They have a set of nine behaviours deemed important in having a successful career for individuals, and for institutions. Universities can apply for a Mark of Excellence that shows that they invest in
professional development of staff and have embedded the nine behaviours within their professional development offering (Association of University Administrators n.d.).

Many of the policy development suggestions above relate to the concept of ‘talent management’. Private corporations globally agree that one of the biggest challenges facing their companies is building and sustaining a strong talent pipeline and that strategically aligned talent management is key to the success of the organisation (Stahl et al. 2012). However, even though universities operate in a global recruitment market, research indicates that there is little formal talent management (Brink, Fruytier, and Thunnissen 2013) and that it is poorly applied for professional staff where it does exist (Barkhuizen, Mogwere, and Schutte 2014). This may be because professional staff are often ‘accidental administrators’, as few chose a career in higher education management (Lewis 2014). Their careers are also often reported to be ‘ad-hoc’ i.e. there are no longer recognised career paths (Whitchurch 2009). Career planning, as part of a talent management program, could be used improve advice and guidance to staff through vocational guidance tools.

A third career barrier reported in the Systematic Literature Review, although found only at a minor level in the qualitative data, was the lack of transparency in recruitment and promotion and lack of policies being upheld especially in terms diversity management and bullying and harassment. These are particularly important for under-represented staff, so universities should find new ways of ensuring inclusivity, transparency, and management of policy in practice.
**Learning and Organisational Development**

Career development interventions are most effective when targeted to individuals. However, the reality of managing these processes within organisations means that individual support is not cost-effective. Therefore, pragmatically, career management activities could be more effective, in cost and outcome terms, if presented to groups of similar staff. This study has shown that staff can be grouped together into different career profiles and what these different profiles need in terms of career support. Career development practitioners could utilise an approach based on this study to collect data for analysis that would lead to a point-in-time career profile for members of staff. Dependent on which career profiles would be found, different vocational development activities could be provided. For example, staff that fall into the Fixed profile could be offered coaching.

Universities could, for example, also consider development activities related to increasing individuals’ self-efficacy, a critical requirement for successful career management, and especially for those individuals who were considered to be in a Fixed career profile, this could provide knowledge of how to increase confidence in their ability to set goals, and work towards them (Savickas 2013). Professional development in this area would help staff identify and set goals, reframe perceived obstacles, and look at the longer-term picture.

**Supervisors**

Previous research has indicated that supervisors have a significant impact on organisational commitment (Kalidass and Bahron 2015). In the qualitative data it was found that supervisor support was critical in terms of support for professional
development, especially for staff wanting to undertake external training or qualifications, or being seen as someone who was worth investing time to help manage their career. It was reported that it was often supervisors who were sending inadvertent negative messages, contributing to feelings of being ‘discarded’—because they were a parent, or over 50 for example, was reported. There may need to be a cultural change for supervisors to be more responsive or compassionate in their role as a gate-keeper for career management support. A cultural shift from the current university career management notion of an individualised perspective, to one where the organisation is taking a more active role in career management, would need to be clearly communicated to ensure that both distributive and procedural justice concerns were alleviated.

**Limitations**

As always there are a number of limitations which are acknowledged here. There was a very low response rate, approximately 5 per cent from the Australian association (90) and 4 per cent from the UK association (136). However, not all members of the associations would be based in the UK or Australia, or be on the grade/level required (membership data is unavailable to the author), so an exact response rate cannot be calculated. Ultimately though, the response rate was low. It has been reported, however, that response rate is not strongly aligned with quality or representativeness (Keeter et al. 2006) and that it is the degree to which the respondents could differ from the survey population as a whole (nonresponse bias) that is important (Johnson and Wislar 2012). There was no reason to consider that the participants were different to the rest of the membership of the professional associations, although they could potentially be different from the wider cohort of
professional staff, in terms of actively interested in their careers (see below).

Additionally, Newman (2009, 9) noted that as statistical power was a function of sample size and not response rate per se, response rates may have a negligible effect on power if there is a large enough sample size and if the nonresponses are missing completely at random (which they were; Newman 2009, 10).

When trying to compare participant representativeness (as Bozionelos (2004) needed to do in his study using a convenience sample for quantitative data analysis), only HESA data on the ‘managerial, professional, technical’ staff cohort from the UK could be used. Study participants were mainly women at 79 per cent, compared with 54.8 per cent in the UK ‘managerial, professional, technical’ category in 2014/15 (Higher Education Statistics Agency n.d.). This could indicate that there was a systematic nonresponse bias and therefore the data may have poor external validity. However, women are more representative in junior and middle management positions (60 per cent) compared with senior management positions (40 per cent; Gander 2010), which may account for the difference in gender representativeness as the most common salary point for participants in this study was at the equivalent of middle management level.

A wider issue could be that the sample frame is unrepresentative of the wider population of professional staff, most of whom do not belong to a professional body. There could be some cause for concern here for external validity, with the inference that those who join the professional bodies are in and of themselves more likely to be proactive in relation to their career development in terms of being engaged with wider sectorial issues and taking the enhanced continuing professional development
opportunities available. However, the number of career stories collected, and finding participants that fell into the Fixed and Work-Life balance career profiles, goes someway to allay fears of bias within the sample.

As with much survey research, self-reported data was relied upon, making the data susceptible to common method bias (Chan 2009, 315; Conway and Lance 2010). Self-report data was considered appropriate for this study as it is only the individual employees who can reflect on what is important for them in their career management requirements and decision-making processes. The questions relating to the test variables, outside of the demographic and employment data, were taken from instruments that had been previously validated. Although the Protean and Boundaryless career orientations have been suggested to be related, there have been two empirical studies (Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008) that have confirmed that the Protean and Boundaryless career orientations are separate constructs. This study’s multi-method instrument was also tested in a pilot phase to corroborate the construct validity (Gander 2017). Additionally, a Harmen’s single factor score was run in SPSS. This showed that only 18.71 per cent of variance was due to the instrument, suggesting that common method bias did not affect the data to any great extent.

The use of a concurrent timing – collecting both sets of data at the same time – leads to the question of which data to collect first. In this study, it was decided to put the open text question at the end of the survey to ensure that the participants were ‘primed’ on the type of information that was required to look for divergence or convergence with the quantitative data. However, this may have led to bias in the
career stories that individuals gave. For example, if the open text question was first, it perhaps would have let the participants narrate their career differently and that may have resulted in a slightly different ‘flavour’ of qualitative data. However, as the aim of this research was to expand the somewhat limited definitions of the career profiles theory, the design was deemed appropriate. Alternatively, a sequential design could have been used to collect the qualitative data, perhaps by a semi-structured interview, after the quantitative data had been analysed. This may have allowed for a more nuanced set of questions to elicit the career information from the participants. As mixed methods research is a relatively new methodology in the management literature, more critical discussion on these types of issues is needed.

**Future Research**

There are several areas of research that this study opens up. A priority would be to test the proposed new integrated career framework, especially to understand the role that habitus plays in career-related behaviours and outcomes especially considering power and privilege issues that may affect the career success of women, ethnic minority, LGBQTI, and disabled staff (and multiple intersections of these classifications), through lack of symbolic capital, for example.

Future research could build upon the theoretical contribution of this study in the application of TWA to career profiles. It could survey professional staff to empirically test the usefulness of TWA in understanding career profile actions and reactions to their environment, and therefore provide additional information for human resource career support and guidance.
Additionally, future research should be concerned with the type of psychological contract that staff develop. This research points in the direction of a balanced psychological contract, but further empirical work should be completed in this area. Psychological contract research should take account of the employer perspective as the messages being sent from the organisation to new employees may contribute to the discord in expectations and perceived benefits received. As universities are undergoing intense periods of change, organisations need to be aware that employees may need help to reformulate their psychological contracts to be fit for the future operating environment. Another aspect highlighted from this study is the lack of increased intent to leave the organisation in response to psychological contract breach. Scholars have indicated that breach may be different to violation, and that it is this step that leads to increase staff turnover, breach and violation as different constructs could be measured.

Future research could also attempt to sample a wider selection of professional staff through the universities themselves rather than the third parties used in this study. Additional studies could use different mixed methods designs, for example, the use of a sequential design to identify participants purposefully to conduct, for example, interviews which discuss aspects important in contemporary careers. Using the strengths of each methodology would enable researchers to collect richer data, leading to more informed human resource practices.

**Conclusion to the Chapter**

This study concludes that the integration of career theory with the unified social sciences theory of Pierre Bourdieu offers a unique insight into understanding the
career needs, behaviours and decision-making that individuals undertake when managing their careers. By understanding the fields of play and how these create and re-create habitus, the reciprocative nature of employer / individual nexus in career management is made visible. It is proposed that field and habitus impact upon the creation of an individual’s psychological contract, in this instance by the creation of the balanced psychological contract, as individuals understand the career ‘game’ they are in – the specific context or field and the norms of habitus of that field. The use of such an integrated career framework could be utilised more widely and is an area for future research in other contexts.

This study also offers an empirical confirmation of the Hybrid career orientation, where individuals, taking account of their field of play, have combined Traditional, Protean and Boundaryless career factors, to build their own Hybrid career suited to their context. This hybridity may be found in other sectors or industries that still offer some form of organisational career, and is an area ripe for further investigation, especially in sectors similar to higher education such as the public- or third-sector. Within this Hybrid career orientation there are specific career profiles: Intra-Organisational Advancement, Inter-Organisational Advancement, Work-Life Balance, and Fixed. These profiles reflect individual needs, and decisions that are affected by the life-stage. It would be useful to test if these career profiles have a presence outside of academia.

This research has shed more light on the careers of professional staff working in higher education, an area that has been sorely lacking in scholarly attention. Professional staff are a key cohort of staff working in a university and are highly
educated, skilled, motivated, ambitious and committed to their work. Incorporating further career development and guidance at a career profile level, however this may be obtained, may offer a pragmatic solution to the ‘one size does not fit all’ approach that is currently practiced in human resource departments. The knowledge and frameworks that have been developed from this study provide a more in-depth understanding of professional staff careers to inform human resource practice, and moreover an integrated career framework, which could provide an area for significant future research.
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APPENDIX A

Quality framework for mixed methods research and its use in current study to ensure quality (adapted from O’Cathain 2010, 541–542)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains of quality</th>
<th>Sub-item</th>
<th>Definition of item</th>
<th>Example in this study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Planning quality</td>
<td>a. Foundational</td>
<td>Critical review of the literature to situate the study</td>
<td>A systematic literature review was carried out to understand the phenomenon of professional staffs’ careers and guide the research questions and methodological design of the research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Rationale transparency</td>
<td>Justification for using mixed methods</td>
<td>Through literature review (see (Azorín and Cameron 2010). This author reviewed the articles published in 2016 in Career Development International (CDI) and Journal of Vocational Behavior (JVB), two of the leading journals publishing careers research, and found that of the 40 papers published in CDI, 33 were quantitative studies and of the 68 articles published in JVB, 51 were quantitative studies. Calls for methodological diversity in management research (Azorín and Cameron 2010; Greenberg 2007; Gummesson 2006; Morgan 2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Planning transparency</td>
<td>Details of paradigm, designed plan, data collection,</td>
<td>Part of wider study design details included in original proposal. Author uses a pragmatic worldview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Design quality</td>
<td>a. Design transparency</td>
<td>Description of design from typologies, or description of new typology</td>
<td>Use of concurrent complementarity design considered most appropriate and efficient design to answer research question (see Fig. 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Design suitability</td>
<td>Design is appropriate for addressing the overall research question</td>
<td>Design allows data to be collected to address the research questions and the typology matches with the paradigm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Design strength</td>
<td>Strengths and weaknesses of methods are considered to optimize breadth and depth of study and minimize shared bias</td>
<td>A consideration of methods was undertaken and due to the need to report career profiles based on Protean and Boundaryless careers, a survey was used to collect data based on Briscoe and Halls (2006) paper which first outlined the major attitudes within these career profiles. Collecting career stories from the participants concurrently was a cost effective and timely method</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Design rigour</td>
<td>Methods are implemented that remains true to the design</td>
<td>Appropriate techniques related to the paradigmatic principles of the methodologies which ensured methodological rigour (Greene and Hall, 2010, 138)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Data quality</td>
<td>a. Data transparency</td>
<td>Each of the methods is described in</td>
<td>The quantitative and qualitative methods are described above in detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Data rigour</td>
<td>The extent to which methods are implemented with rigour</td>
<td>It was important that each method was implemented appropriately and not compromised due to mixing, e.g. the qualitative data was maintained as narrative and not transformed into quantitative data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Sampling adequacy</td>
<td>Sampling technique and sample size for each method are adequate within the context of the study</td>
<td>The use of one instrument to collect both sets of data ensured that the sample size was large enough for the quantitative data analysis, and that there was likelihood of saturation in the qualitative data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Analytic adequacy</td>
<td>Data analysis techniques are appropriate for the research questions</td>
<td>Both types of data were analysed appropriately, for example, statistical analysis was run to create the career profile clusters and the significant differences between the cluster samples, and that the qualitative data was coded and themed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Analytic integration rigour</td>
<td>Any integration takes place at the analysis stage is robust</td>
<td>Integration of the data sets is a key component of mixed methods research and the cluster analysis was used to guide the analysis of the qualitative findings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Interpretative rigour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Interpretative transparency</td>
<td>It is clear which findings have emerged from which methods</td>
<td>Through the presentation of results according to their methodological paradigm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Interpretative consistency</td>
<td>Inferences are consistent with the</td>
<td>Inferences are consistent with the results of the data analysis, that is the quantitative data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpretative Evaluation</td>
<td>Interpretative Findings</td>
<td>Interpretative Results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>Theoretical consistency</td>
<td>Inferences are consistent with current knowledge or theory</td>
<td>Career profiles based on theoretical and empirical data (Briscoe and Hall 2006b; Kuron, Schweitzer, and Ng 2016; Segers et al. 2008). Qualitative results provided extension of theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td>Interpretative agreement</td>
<td>Others are likely to reach the same conclusions based on the findings</td>
<td>Given the results from the quantitative data analysis aligns with previous empirical studies, it is likely that others would find the same inferences. The coding and theming of the qualitative data to extend the understanding of career profiles should also be robust enough to be replicated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td>Interpretative distinctiveness</td>
<td>Conclusions drawn are more credible than other conclusions</td>
<td>As above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>Interpretative efficacy</td>
<td>Meta-inferences form the whole study adequately incorporate inferences from the qualitative and quantitative findings</td>
<td>Although the quantitative data has been given primacy in the analysis, the meta-inferences from this study combine both data types to enhance the understanding of career profiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g.</td>
<td>Interpretative bias reduction</td>
<td>Explanations are given for inconsistencies between findings and theory</td>
<td>An explanation of the large preponderance of Protean Career Architects in this sample has been discussed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Interpretative correspondence</td>
<td>Inferences correspond to the purpose of the study and the research questions</td>
<td>The inferences result in an understanding of the career profiles of the participants, therefore answering the overall and specific research questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Full survey questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Question/statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>In what country do you reside?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This section aims to understand how you see your career and your views on career management:*

1. I am in charge of my own career  
2. Ultimately, I depend upon myself to move my career forward  
3. I am responsible for my success or failure in my career  
4. Where my career is concerned, I am very much 'my own person'  
5. Overall, I have a very independent, self-directed career  
6. In the past, I have relied more upon myself than others to find a new job when necessary  
7. Freedom to choose my own career path is one of my most important values  
8. When my university has not offered development opportunities, I've sought them out on my own  

*This section aims to understand the values you place on your career decisions:*

9. I'll follow my own guidance if my university asks me to do something that goes against my values  
10. In the past, I have sided with my own values when the University has asked me to do something I don't agree with  
11. What I think about what is right in my career is more important to me than what my university thinks
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Question/statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>It doesn't matter much to me how other people evaluate the choices I make in my career.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I navigate my own career, based upon my personal priorities, as opposed to my university's priorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>What's most important to me is how I feel about my career success; not how other people feel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>This section aims to understand your relationship with the external environment:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I enjoy working with people outside of my university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I enjoy jobs that require me to interact with people in many different organisations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I enjoy job assignments that require me to work outside of my university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I like tasks at work that require me to work beyond my own department/area of expertise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I would enjoy working on projects with people from across many organisations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I have sought opportunities in the past that allowed me to work outside of the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I am energized by new experiences and situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I seek job assignments that allow me to learn something new.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>This section aims to understand your views on job security:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>If my university provided lifetime employment, I would never desire to work in other organisations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>In my ideal career, I would work for only one university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question number</td>
<td>Question/statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I would feel very lost if I couldn't work for my current university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like the predictability that comes with working continuously for the same university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I prefer to stay in a university I am familiar with rather than look for employment elsewhere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This section aims to understand how you relate to your organisation.*

*I expect the following from my university:*

| 28              | Loyalty |
| 29              | Job security |
| 30              | Interesting work |
| 31              | Opportunities for responsibility in the work task |
| 32              | Opportunities for promotion |
| 33              | A career |
| 34              | Support in developing a wide range of skills |
| 35              | Opportunities to apply my skills in a variety of contexts |

*My university provides me with:*

<p>| 36              | Loyalty |
| 37              | Job security |
| 38              | Interesting work |
| 39              | Opportunities for responsibility in the work task |
| 40              | Opportunities for promotion |
| 41              | A career |
| 42              | Support in developing a wide range of skills |
| 43              | Opportunities to supply my skills in a variety of contexts |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Question/statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These questions aim to understand your current job satisfaction.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Your line manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>The physical working conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>The freedom to choose your own method of working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Your colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>The amount of responsibility you're given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Your rate of pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Your opportunity to use your abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Industrial relations between management and staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Your chance of promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>The way the university is managed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>The attention paid to suggestions you make</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Your hours of work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>The amount of variety in your job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Your job security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>The recognition you get for good work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking of the past few weeks, how much of the time has your job made you feel each of the following:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>Gloomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Calm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Uneasy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>Enthusiastic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>Cheerful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question number</td>
<td>Question/statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>Worried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>Contented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>Depressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>Optimistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>Relaxed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>Miserable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section asks about some of your personal information related to your career:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Question/statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>Highest level of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>Professional qualification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>How long have you been employed in your current job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>How long have you been employed in your current university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>How long have you been in the labour market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>Have you had time out of the labour market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>Are you full-time or part-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78</td>
<td>Salary range (UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79</td>
<td>Salary range (Australia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>What type of contract are you on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>Do you intend to leave your job in the next 12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82</td>
<td>Have you received a monetary merit award or a discretionary increment in the last 3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83</td>
<td>Are you considering applying for a promotion to a higher graded job in the next 3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question number</td>
<td>Question/statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84</td>
<td>How many promotions have you received in your current university in the last 3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86</td>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87</td>
<td>Race</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88</td>
<td>Please provide your career story in 500 words or less. We are interested in your career and the choices you have made. You may for example include things such as your aspirations, job moves, motivation, expectations of yourself and your organisation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

Participant information and consent

Career stories of business management staff in universities

Welcome

My research aim is to understand how individual career management strategies can influence perceptions of career satisfaction amongst business management staff within universities. The particular emphasis will be on which career management theory fits with this staff category and how human resource management activities along with personal approaches can influence career satisfaction.

I am interested in responses from business management staff [sometimes known as professional, professional services, administrative, academic-related, or general staff] and at HEW level 7 and above (Australia) or salary scale point 30 and above (UK). I wish to gain at least 200 respondents so I would very much appreciate if you complete it! The questionnaire should take no longer than 10 minutes to complete. The last question is a chance for you to provide me with your ‘career story’. If you so wish.

I hope you will enjoy thinking about career management. Ultimately, the research project aims to benefit all business management staff. If you feel upset when thinking about topics that are personal and want to stop completing the questionnaire, just close it down at any time, your data will not be used. You as a person will not be linked to the results of this questionnaire. You decide if you want to take part and, even if you agree, you can stop out at any time. You can tell me that you consent by pressing the ‘next’ button on the questionnaire.

Michelle Gardner
School of Management & Governance
Murdoch University
60 South Street
Murdoch
WA 6150
m.gardner@murdoch.edu.au

This study has been approved by the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee (approval project number 2015/129). If you have any reservation or complaint about the ethical conduct of this research, and wish to talk with an independent person, you may contact Murdoch University’s Research Ethics Office (Tel: +61 8 9360 8677 or e-mail ethics@murdoch.edu.au). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fairly, and you will be informed of the outcome.
APPENDIX D

Ethics approval: Pilot survey

Thursday, 25 June 2015

Dr Antonia Girardi
School of Management and Governance
Murdoch University

Dear Antonia,

Project No. 2015/123
Project Title Understanding career stories: A pilot study with Australian and English university business management staff

Your application in support of the above project was reviewed by the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee and was:

APPROVED

Approval is granted on the understanding that research will be conducted according the standards of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007), the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research (2007) and Murdoch University policies at all times. You must also abide by the Human Research Ethics Committee’s standard conditions of approval (see attached). All reporting forms are available on the Research Ethics and Integrity web-site.

I wish you every success for your research.

Please quote your ethics project number in all correspondence.

Kind Regards,

Dr. Erich von Dietze
Manager
Research Ethics and Integrity

cc: Dr Megan Paull and Michelle Gander

Division of Research & Development
Research Ethics and Integrity

Chancellery Building
South Street
MURDOCH WA 6150
Telephone: (08) 9360 6677
Facsimile: (08) 9360 6686
human.ethics@murdoch.edu.au

www.murdoch.edu.au
APPENDIX E

Ethics approval: Amendment for full survey

Friday, 07 August 2015

Dr Antonia Girardi
School of Management and Governance
Murdoch University

Dear Antonia,

**Project No.** 2015/123
**Project Title** Understanding career stories: A pilot study with Australian and English university business management staff

**AMENDMENT:** Addition of two new questions to survey

Your application for an amendment to the above project, received on 8/5/2015 was reviewed by the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee and was;

APPROVED

Approval is granted on the understanding that research will be conducted according to the standards of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007), the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research (2007) and Murdoch University policies at all times. You must also abide by the Human Research Ethics Committee’s standard conditions of approval. All reporting forms are available on the Research Ethics and Integrity web-site.

I wish you every success for your research.

Please quote your ethics project number in all correspondence.

Kind Regards,

Dr. Erich von Dietze
Manager
Research Ethics and Integrity

cc: Dr Megan Paull and Michelle Gander