

Turnover in careerists: a new perspective on careerism through the lens of Human Capital Theory



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1. Introduction

In recent times, changes in the labor market have resulted in employees taking a more individualized approach to the labor market than previous generations (Tomlinson, 2012). Where it used to be normal for an employee to work for one employer their whole life, people nowadays are likely to have many different jobs, or even multiple different careers throughout their life (Braekkan & Tunheim, 2013). As a reaction to this, many employees are choosing to take ownership of their careers, rather than letting their employer shape their careers (Donald et al., 2017). For this reason, employers nowadays are no longer the key architects of careers and employees often see themselves as the main force driving their career development (Crawshaw & Brodbeck, 2011).

A consequence of this recent trend where people tend to shape their own careers and switch jobs more often, is that there is a larger threat of turnover. This is especially true for those employees that can relatively easily find a new job. This has given rise to the employability paradox. The employability paradox is the paradox where on the one hand organizations wish to invest in the employability of their employees in order to improve their skills and competences, which can increase their performance (De Cuyper et al., 2011a). On the other hand, however, there is a fear that by making such investments, it becomes easier for them to find employment elsewhere. Increased employability has been related to increased turnover intentions (De Cuyper et al., 2011a; De Cuyper et al., 2011b) and increased turnover (Benson et al., 2004). The employer, of course, does not want their employees to leave the organization after they have invested in them. Extant literature on the employability paradox has drawn on workplace commitments to offer potential solutions for the employability paradox (e.g. De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011). Especially organizational commitment has garnered a lot of attention, because it has been shown to reduce turnover intention (Anis et al., 2011; Güzeller & Çeliker, 2019; Quratulain et al., 2016). In relation to this, there has also been a lot of attention for social exchange theory and how this relates to organizational commitment and the employability paradox. For instance, De Cuyper and De Witte (2011) argue that employability investments by their employers stimulate employees to reciprocate this investment, ultimately leading to higher organizational commitment and preventing their turnover.

While this is a valuable insight that is likely to be true for many employees, it should be noted that not all employees are the same. There is one specific group of employees that very strongly takes control over their careers and does not form commitments in the same way that others might form them. These people are careerists. Careerism is used to describe the act of an employee who attempts to further their career through non-performance based means and who puts priority on their own interests over the interests of the organization (Kim et al, 2015). Careerism has a rather negative connotation to it and has been related to negative work behaviors and dark triad traits (Chiaburu et al., 2012; Feldman & Weitz; Bratton & Kacmar, 2004). Careerists are notorious for their short-term employment relations and frequent job-hopping (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Careerism is also thought to be negatively correlated to organizational commitment (Chiaburu et al., 2012; Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Instead of becoming committed to an organization, careerists believe that loyalty to an organization is unlikely to be rewarded and therefore one should pursue their own interests over the interests of the organization (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Related to this, careerists have been found to have a transactional psychological contract with their employer, rather than a relational one (Rousseau, 1990; Braekkan and Tunheim, 2013). Because careerists are not bound to an employer through organizational commitment or their psychological contract, they might more easily leave an organization when there are better opportunities elsewhere. In this sense, their behavior is not the result of a lack of concern for others, but rather that of a personal motivation, where the relationship with the employer does not form a barrier that prevents the careerist from leaving.

If an employee is not bound to an organization, the decision to work for a certain employer becomes a rational choice based on which employer offers the best returns. In essence, the careerist invests their employability into an organization by working for them, but if there is another organization that offers better returns on their employability, the careerist may decide to invest their employability into that organization (Philippaers et al., 2016). However, this also means that the careerist has no reason to leave the organization if their current employer offers them the best returns. This line of reasoning can be explained using human capital theory.

Human capital theory holds that an individual employee will base their decision to either stay at their current employer or leave to another organization on the question which job offers the best fit with their skillset and offers the best returns on their skills (Bishop, 1997; Liu, 1984).

Applying this to the perspective of a careerist, several things can be said. First of all, the careerist

will look for the job opportunity that offers them the best returns on their human capital. The returns that careerists look for are not just a higher salary, but especially career advancements, most notably in the form of promotions (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Secondly, they value employability, since higher employability means they will have more job and career advancement opportunities and a higher work mobility, which is also something careerists value (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). For the same reasons, they will also want to increase their human capital, because human capital is a core aspect of employability (Akkermans et al., 2023). From this it follows that careerists will decide to leave an organization if there is another organization that offers them a promotion or an investment in their employability. However, if the organization they are currently working for has better promotion prospects, they might decide to stay.

This perspective of careerism, where human capital theory is used to explain the behavior of careerists, has gained very little attention in extant literature. Ochsenfeld (2014) links a careerist approach to higher education with human capital theory to help explain gender-based wage differences, but does not relate this to the broader careerism literature and also does not use human capital theory to explain why a careerist might want to leave an organization. In the context of the employability paradox there has been some attention for human capital to explain why an employee with high employability might leave the organization, but this literature uses conservation of resources theory, rather than human capital theory, and does not relate this to careerism (Philippaers et al., 2016).

Donald et al. (2017), in a study into the self-perceived employability of undergraduate students, found that developing human capital and holding a protean careerist orientation, are both positively related to self-perceived employability. Protean careerism is a specific type of careerism. Protean careerists, unlike the careerists discussed in this study, do not necessarily aim for career outcomes such as promotions, but instead are strongly intrinsically motivated to shape their own career to achieve a career that is in line with their personal values (Hall, 2004). Protean careerists are different from other careerists on several key aspects. For this reason, this study will not focus on protean careerists, though some of the ideas presented in this study might apply to them as well. The study by Donald et al. (2017), however, does not take the perspective of human capital theory in an attempt to explain the behavior of careerists, specifically when they might want to leave an organization.

Since the idea of applying the perspective of human capital theory on careerism has received very little attention in the literature, and because it has promising implications for the retention of careerists, who tend not to be bound to an organization through commitment, this thesis aims to shed light on this subject. More specifically, this study aims to find out if the turnover of careerists can be prevented by creating career advancement opportunities within the organization. To this end, the following research question has been formulated:

To what extent are careerists with high employability more likely to leave their current organization when the organization has career growth opportunities for the employee?

By answering this question, a contribution to the academic literature will be made by explaining the turnover behavior of careerists by viewing the careerists through a human capital theory perspective. This way two fields of literature will be connected, which can provide valuable insights into careerism. Additionally, this thesis will show whether or not it is possible to bind a careerist to an organization through growth opportunities. This is not only an important theoretical contribution, but also a practical contribution. It will offer managers insights in how they should approach employability investments and specifically show them if there is a heightened risk for careerists to leave the organization when their employability is high, but also shows them if this can potentially be circumvented through career opportunities.

To answer this research question, first a theoretical framework will be developed in chapter 2 on the basis of careerism and human capital theory. In this theoretical framework, hypotheses will be formulated that will be tested using a statistical analysis. In chapter 3 the methodology for the analysis will be explained. The results of this analysis will be presented in chapter 4. Finally, in chapter 5, the results of this study and the practical and theoretical implications will be discussed, along with future research recommendations.

2. Theoretical framework

This chapter will form a theoretical framework that will be used to answer the research question. First the concept of careerism will be explained. Afterwards the perspective of human capital theory will be applied to careerism. Based on this framework, hypotheses will be formed so that they can be tested in the following chapters.

Careerism

Feldman & Weitz (1991, p. 238) define careerism as: “*the propensity to pursue career advancement through non-performance-based means.*” In the last decades, changes in society, education and the labor market have occurred (Tomlinson, 2012). The result of this is that the career path that people take, can be different from that of previous generations. Especially the transition of students into the labor market after graduating has become more unpredictable (Brooks, 2009; Furlong and Cartmel, 2007) and individualized (Evans, 2007; Heinz, 2009). As a reaction to this, an employee can take more initiative in creating their own career path and taking ownership over their career (Donald et al., 2017). In this sense, adopting a careerist orientation can be seen as a way for an employee to take ownership over their career and drive it towards success using all available means, including non-performance-based means.

Feldman & Weitz (1991, p. 238) have pointed out the following seven beliefs about career advancement that are core to a careerist orientation:

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1. *It is difficult to advance in organizations through merit alone.*
 2. *It is often necessary to use social relationships with superiors, co-workers, and friends to get ahead.*
 3. *It is important to cultivate the appearance of being successful; the appearance of being successful can be as instrumental in terms of advancement as competence.*
 4. *It is sometimes necessary to engage in deceptive behavior to get promotions to which one feels entitled.*

5. It is important to recognize that, in the long run, the individual's career goals will be inconsistent with the interests of the organization; therefore, ultimately, it is each person for himself/herself.

6. Loyalty to an employer is unlikely to be rewarded.

7. In order to get ahead, it is sometimes necessary to take actions that promote personal advancement rather than those that promote the company's best interests.”

There are several things that stand out in these beliefs. First of all, it should be noted that a careerist does not disregard competence as a means to achieve career advancement. As the first belief states, it is difficult to advance in organizations through merit *alone*. Careerists will still pursue career advancement through high performance, but they will pursue non-performance-based means in addition to that (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Secondly, the beliefs show that a careerist aims to use their social network, appearance and deception in order to further their career. These are the non-performance-based means of career advancement that Feldman & Weitz (1991) referred to in their definition of careerism. Lastly, it should be noted that a careerist focusses on their personal success, rather than the success of the organization and believes that loyalty to an employer is unlikely to benefit the individual.

When an employee adopts a careerist orientation, in line with the beliefs pointed out above, this has consequences for several aspects of their career and their organizational behavior. First of all, Feldman & Weitz (1991), leaning on work by Lasch (1979), point out that careerists can pursue their individual needs, while portraying themselves as a cooperative team player. In this regard, Chiaburu et al. (2012) describe careerists as employees who misrepresent their capabilities and objectives in order to gain extrinsic career rewards such as promotions, which can have a negative effect on the organization. This fits well with the third and fourth belief pointed out above. Feldman & Weitz (1991) also mention that careerists will seek out social relationships with co-workers mainly because they think these relationships can help them advance their own career. Chiaburu et al. (2012, p. 473) link careerism to psychopathy, stating: “*Psychopaths’ disregard for social norms and the rights of others, coupled with their endorsement of deceptive means for achieving personal success, is consonant with a careerist orientation.*” Additionally, Feldman and Weitz (1991) relate careerism to narcissism and Machiavellianism, though they are

not able to make any definitive claims about a link between these concepts, because this is beyond the scope of their research. Bratton & Kacmar (2004) also see a conceptual link between extreme careerism and Machiavellianism.

Desire for mobility

Related to this, is the careerist's desire for work mobility. Lasch (1979) studied narcissism and careerism and found that many careerists do not just want to do well at their job, but also feel the need to have an audience that verifies that they are doing well and applauds them for it.

According to Lasch (1979), a narcissist is often not able to keep up the appearance that they are doing a great job for a very long time and fear the moment when their performance is more concretely evaluated, which can encourage the narcissistic careerist to switch jobs more often than the average employee (Lasch, 1979).

Regardless of a possible link with narcissism, a careerist has a higher desire for mobility and switches jobs more often than the average employee (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Feldman & Weitz (1991, p. 248) found that careerists have a higher desire for career advancement, a higher disposition to change jobs, and are more likely to be promoted than the average employee. This could be because careerists follow a more short-term plan for their current job. Not only do they tend to focus on being successful and growing in their current job and then aim to move on, but they are also unlikely to form strong bonds with their colleagues and organization, which otherwise could cause them to stay at their current job (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). The consequence of this short-term approach is that careerists will be more opportunistic and will keep their future external work mobility in mind when making career decisions (Braekkan & Tunheim, 2013).

Another thing that characterizes careerists, is their propensity to have more negative job attitudes (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Apart from the fact that careerists are less likely to form strong bonds with colleagues and organizations, leading to less commitment, they are also less motivated, less involved and experience less job satisfaction (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). A lack of involvement and motivation can possibly be explained by their short-term approach to work. A careerist does not aim to maximize performance, but instead aims to perform well enough to be able to advance their career when combining this with non-performance-based means of career advancement

(Feldman & Weitz, 1991). This could mean their motivation and involvement is focused mainly on their own career advancement, rather than their current job. With regards to the careerist's lower job satisfaction, Feldman & Weitz (1991) mention that even when all aspects of a job are good, they can be unsatisfied. They believe this could be due to a careerist's propensity towards anticipatory dissatisfaction, which means they become dissatisfied because they perceive things in their current job that could potentially prevent them from advancing their career in the future (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Chiaburu et al. (2013) found that there is a positive association between employee alienation and careerism and that this relationship is mediated by lower career satisfaction. They concluded that dissatisfied, alienated employees are more likely to view themselves as objects in their transactions with their organization and put more focus on instrumental and non-performance-based ways of managing their careers (Chiaburu et al., 2013).

Human capital theory

In order to offer a new perspective on careerism and explain the behavior of a careerist, one can draw on human capital theory. Human capital theory poses that employees have a certain human capital, which is an asset that can be used to increase productivity (Schultz, 1961). Examples of human capital are skills, knowledge, attitudes and aptitudes, which can be seen as an individual's capacity to contribute to productivity in an organization (Fleischhauer, 2007). One thing that is unique to human capital when compared to other assets, is the fact that human capital can only be used to increase productivity in proportion to the employee's actual labor (Hall & Johnson, 1980). This means that an organization's capacity to benefit from human capital is tied to the time that the employee who possesses that human capital actually spends working for the organization. Assuming that the rewards, or salary, an organization offers its employees is tied to the contribution of that employee to productivity, it stands to reason that those who have a higher human capital, receive higher rewards in return for their labor. In this regard Ishikawa & Ryan (2002) found that it is mostly the accumulated human capital of an individual that determines the economic outcomes for that individual. This is very interesting for careerists. Since careerists wish to advance their own career and earn a higher income, they would want to increase their own human capital as much as possible.

Human capital theory suggests that an individual will base their decision to either stay at a certain organization or leave to find employment elsewhere on which job offers the best fit with their skillset and offers them the best returns on their skills (Bishop, 1997; Liu, 1984). This is essentially true for all employees and not just careerists. Previous research has shown that increased employability is related to increased turnover intentions (De Cuyper et al., 2011a; De Cuyper et al., 2011b) and increased turnover (Benson et al., 2004). To verify this relationship in a new dataset, the following hypothesis has been formulated.

Hypothesis 1: High employability increases the likelihood of turnover.

This idea that an individual will base their decision to stay in an organization or leave, should also be applied to careerists. In essence, a careerist is looking to invest their human capital in an organization, in order to gain career outcomes. These career outcomes can come in the form of more traditional career outcomes such as salary, but can also come in the form of human capital investments. A careerist would seek to further develop their human capital, because an increase to their human capital would mean that they have more to offer (future) employers, which can lead to promotions and higher career outcomes in the future (Bloch & Smith, 1977; Ishikawa & Ryan, 2002). When a careerist gains an employability investment, this initially means that they receive an extra, valuable career outcome from their employer. After all, they wish to develop their human capital to increase their value and the employability investment does just that. After the employability investment has been completed, for instance because a certain training program was followed and has now been finished, this outcome disappears. Since a careerist does not believe in loyalty to their employer and believes that the individual should promote their personal advancement, rather than the organization's interests, as shown in beliefs five through seven of Feldman & Weitz's (1991) model, the careerist will not stay with the organization simply because the organization has invested in them. Instead, the careerist will reevaluate their position now that their human capital has increased.

When evaluating their position in the labor market, this can lead careerists to take the following conclusions. When the employability investment is first made, the careerist gains a salary and an employability investment, which is an investment in the careerist's human capital. The careerist values both these outcomes and offers their labor in return. Then, when the training is complete

and the investment is over, two things change for the careerist. One, the employability investment, which was initially seen as a valuable career outcome, is in the past. This means that where they first got a salary and an employability investment in exchange for their labor, they now only get a salary. Secondly, their employability has increased, meaning their human capital has increased in value. Since the employee invests their capital into the organization through employment, this means that the careerist is now offering more human capital. From a purely transactional viewpoint this means that the careerist is now offering more (valuable) human capital, in exchange for less career outcomes. This results in a relatively poor transaction compared to the previous situation where the investment was still ongoing. On top of that, the increased employability means that it will be easier for the careerist to find employment elsewhere and they might also find better employment in the form of a higher position in the organization and/or a higher salary (Benson et al., 2004). Since a careerist, unlike other employees, is not bound to the organization and has a desire for mobility, they will choose to use their human capital for the external labor market when they find a better opportunity outside their current employer. This leads to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: Turnover is more likely in careerists with high employability, than in non-careerists with high employability.

While this line of reasoning might sound like organizations will always lose an employee when investing in the employability of a careerist, this is not necessarily the case. There are two things to keep in mind. First of all, the period when the employee is still following a training and development program should be distinguished from the period after the program is complete (Benson et al., 2004). When the employability investment is still ongoing, the careerist is still inclined to stay, because they are still receiving an investment in their human capital as a reward and their human capital has not increased yet. After the investment the risk of a careerist leaving the organization will rise. However, the careerist will only leave if the external labor market offers them an opportunity to gain more career outcomes than their current employer. This leads to the second point. If the careerist views their employment as a transaction where one invests their human capital in exchange for rewards, they are simply looking for the best rewards they can get in exchange for their investment. This means they do not *want* to leave the organization

per se. They are simply looking for the best opportunity that offers them the biggest return on their investment. If their current employer offers them an opportunity that is better than what the external labor market offers, they have no reason to leave the organization. In this sense, the presence of career growth opportunities within the organization could moderate the effect that employability in careerists has on turnover (Chay & Aryee, 1999). This results in the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: For careerists, growth opportunities within the organization lower the effect of employability on turnover, ultimately reducing the likelihood of turnover.

Combining both hypotheses, this leads to the following conceptual model.

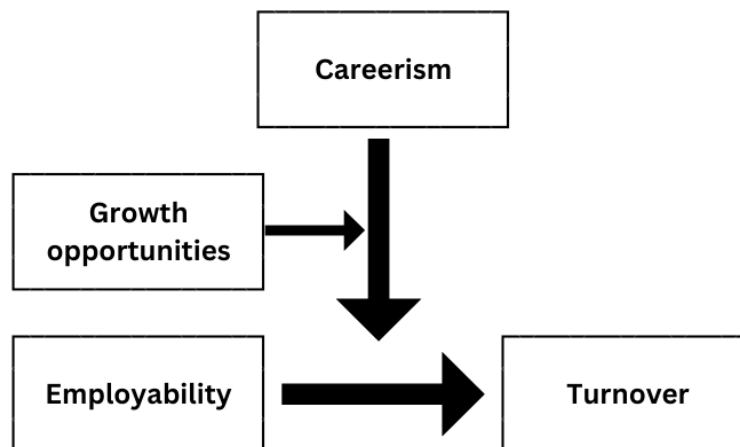


Figure 1. Conceptual model

3. Methods

Research Design

This study follows a positivist approach. The goal of the study is to discover truths through the testing of the hypotheses. These hypotheses have been formed in the previous chapter, based on relevant literature. To achieve this goal and test the hypotheses, data from the Healthy Brain Study (HBS) will be used. Before these hypotheses can be tested, the relevant variables will need to be defined and operationalized. Following the operationalization of the variables, the hypotheses will be tested using statistical data analysis methods to analyze the HBS data, after which the results will be discussed to help inform theory and contribute to the literature, in line with the hypothetico-deductive model of science (Park et al., 2020). This chapter will first address the HBS dataset and offer some general information on the data that has been collected and the respondents. Next, the four variables that are relevant for this study; employability, careerism, growth opportunities and turnover, will be operationalized. At the end of this chapter, any ethical concerns in conducting the study will be discussed.

HBS dataset

The HBS is a longitudinal cohort study that combines measurements from both a laboratory setting and a real-world setting (Healthy Brain Study consortium, 2021). Participants are tracked for roughly one year with three assessments, with four months between assessments. The assessments consist of one week of gathering data using wearable devices and smartphone applications, a lab visit and pre- and post-visit questionnaires (Healthy Brain Study consortium, 2021). For this thesis, only the questionnaires are relevant and only this data will be used. The HBS aims to include 1000 participants in total, with an even split between men and women (Healthy Brain Study consortium, 2021). They wish to include 220 respondents with a low education level, 340 with a medium level and 430 with a high education level. This matches the distribution of the education level of citizens of Nijmegen, which is where the study is conducted (Healthy Brain Study cohort, 2021). The inclusion criteria for respondents are: age between 30-39 years, living within 15 kilometers of Nijmegen, willingness and ability to follow the study protocol (Healthy Brain Study cohort, 2021). Exclusion criteria are: not being able to speak, write and/or understand Dutch at at least B1 level, prior history of significant psychiatric or

neurological illness (self-report), a current disease that affects the brain, current medication that targets the brain such as antidepressants or methylphenidate, pregnancy, contra-indication for either MRI, the submaximal Åstrand cycle test, or the cold pressor test (Healthy Brain Study cohort, 2021).

The dataset that will be used for this thesis is slightly different from the complete HBS dataset. First of all, the HBS dataset includes many test results that are not relevant for this study. Therefore, no access has been gained to these data. Additionally, the HBS data have been released in multiple rounds of preliminary data releases, while other data were still being processed. For this reason, the dataset that will be used for this study does not include all of the participants of the HBS. It should also be noted that this is a cross-sectional study, while the HBS is a longitudinal study with three moments of data collection. For the sake of this study, only the data of the first moment of collection will be used, with one exception. To see if turnover is different based on what the respondents answered in the questionnaires, turnover should be measured at the second moment of data collection. This will be explained in more detail in the operationalization paragraph.

Since the goal of this study is to find out whether or not employees are more likely to leave their job, based on certain predictors, it is required that respondents actually work as an employee at the time they filled in the survey. For this reason, only respondents who worked as an employee were selected in the dataset. This resulted in a dataset with 455 selected respondents, out of an initial dataset of 554, with 42 (7.6%) missing values and 57 respondents that were not selected, because they either had no paid work at the moment, or were self-employed. Out of these 455 people, 177 (38.9%) were male and 278 (61.1%) were female. Since the HBS only recruited people aged between 30-39, all respondents fall within this range, with a mean age of 33.75 years ($SD = 2.749$). The distribution of the education levels can be seen below in table 1.

Table 1 *Education level*

Education level	N	Percentage
Vmbo	6	1.3%
Havo/vwo	12	2.6%
Mbo	74	16.3%
Hbo	213	46.8%
Wo	137	30.1%
Missing	13	2.9%

Note. $n = 455$

Operationalization

Employability

Employability has been measured in the HBS using the short-form employability five-factor instrument. This is a short-form of 22 items, based on the older 47-item Employability Five-Factor instrument (Van der Heijden et al., 2018). Van der Heijden et al. (2018) aimed to use fewer items to improve the practical efficiency of the test, while still offering a sound reliability and validity. They acknowledged that when only looking at reliability to select the items for the short-form, there is a risk of narrowing down the construct, because the items that measure the most similar things, will have the best reliability (Van der Heijden et al., 2018, p. 238). To prevent this and ensure appropriate construct validity and predictive validity, Van der Heijden et al. (2018), combined statistics-driven methods of item reduction with a judgment-based strategy for item reduction. After testing the short-form on five samples, they concluded the short-form is a valid, reliable and precise instrument that fits homogenous as well as heterogeneous samples (Van der Heijden et al., 2018, p. 243). For this reason, the short-form employability five-factor instrument can be seen as an appropriate instrument to assess employability in this study.

The short-form focusses on measuring employability based on competencies, such as skills, knowledge and attitudes (Van der Heijden et al., 2018, p. 237). This, however, does not mean it only looks at the skills and knowledge required to perform well at a job. It also assesses social competencies that can be used in organizations, as well as social recognition by important key stakeholders (Van der Heijden et al., 2018, p. 237). This is very important when it comes to careerism, because careerists do not merely focus on improving their performance (i.e. through increasing skills and knowledge), but also try to advance their careers through (deceiving) their

social network and especially key stakeholders. Because such aspects are also represented in the employability short-form, this is an appropriate tool to assess the employability of careerists as well.

In the short-form of the employability five-factor instrument, respondents are asked to respond to statement and questions using a 6-point Likert-scale. Examples of the statements and questions are: *“In general, I am competent to distinguish main issues from side issues and to set priorities.”* and *“How easily would you say you can adapt to changes in your workplace?”* (Van der Heijden et al., 2018). Since the instrument measures employability using 22 items, and only one score is needed for the analysis, a mean score of employability has been computed for each respondent. After conducting a reliability analysis, the Cronbach’s Alpha for employability in this dataset was found to be .871. Since the employability short-form is an instrument that has already been tested by Van der Heijden et al. (2018) and was found to have appropriate reliability and validity, it will be used to measure employability in this study.

Careerism

Careerism itself was not measured in the HBS data. For this reason, a proxy will need to be used, which can be found in the Dark Triad measurement. The term “Dark Triad” refers to three personality traits, narcissism, psychopathy and Machiavellianism, that can to some extent be seen as three different measures of the same latent construct (Jonason & Webster, 2010).

According to Jonason & Webster (2010, p. 420) *“the Dark Triad as a whole can be thought of as a short-term, agentic, exploitative social strategy”*. As discussed in the theoretical framework, careerists also employ a short-term approach and are willing to use their social network to get ahead, even if this means deceiving others. This already shows some similarities between the concepts of careerism and the Dark Triad. Additionally, Feldman & Weitz (1991) in their conceptualization of careerism discussed the link between narcissism and careerism and they also saw a possible link with Machiavellianism, since they made a recommendation for further research into a link between Machiavellianism and careerism. As stated earlier, Chiaburu et al. (2012, p. 473) see a clear conceptual link between careerism and psychopathy, stating:

“Psychopaths’ disregard for social norms and the rights of others, coupled with their endorsement of deceptive means for achieving personal success, is consonant with a careerist

orientation.” Apart from this conceptual link, Chiaburu et al. (2012) also found that primary psychopathy is a predictor of careerism using statistical analysis. While careerism should be seen as a separate construct, Chiaburu et al. (2012) also state that Machiavellianism and careerism are conceptually similar.

Naseer et al. (2019) studied how organizational identification can lead to unethical work behaviors, including careerism, mediated by psychological entitlement. They found that there was an indirect effect of organizational identification on careerism, mediated by psychological entitlement, and they found that this effect was conditional upon high (mean +1 SD) Dark Triad (Naseer et al., 2019). This means that organizational identification only led to careerism when Dark Triad was high. This shows that Dark Triad is valuable when predicting careerism. Due to the conceptual similarities between the different forms of Dark Triad and careerism, and due to the statistical links that have been shown between these concepts, Dark Triad can be seen as an adequate predictor of careerism. Therefore, Dark Triad will be used as a proxy for careerism in this study.

Dark Triad has been measured in the HBS data using the instrument called “Dirty Dozen” developed by Jonason & Webster (2010). This instrument was designed to measure the Dark Triad as a whole using twelve items, because previously all three types of the Dark Triad were measured separately with their own instrument and each of these instruments has their own limitations (Jonason & Webster, 2010). On top of that, using three different measures leads to a long and inefficient questionnaire and, since not all of these instruments use the same measurement techniques, it can be difficult to measure the Dark Triad as a whole (Jonason & Webster, 2010). The Dirty Dozen solves these issues by offering a 12-item measurement of Dark Triad, with 4 items per subscale (narcissism, psychopathy and Machiavellianism). In the HBS data, Dark Triad was measured using a 9-point Likert scale. Examples of the statements that respondents are asked to respond to are: “*I have used deceit or lied to get my way*” and “*I tend to seek prestige or status.*” (Jonason & Webster, 2010). After testing the Dirty Dozen in four studies, Jonason & Webster (2010) conclude that it has acceptable convergent and discriminant validity and is reliable in multiple tests and over time. For the sake of this study, the Dirty Dozen is an appropriate instrument to measure Dark Triad as a proxy for careerism. Just like with employability, this variable has been measured using multiple items. Therefore, a mean score has

been computed for each respondent and a reliability analysis has been conducted. The Cronbach's Alpha for Dark Triad was .838.

Growth opportunities

As part of the HBS study, the Questionnaire on the Experience and Evaluation of Work (QEEW) developed by Van Veldhoven et al. (2015) was used. This questionnaire was only assessed if the participants had indicated in a previous questionnaire that they currently have paid work as either an employee or because they are self-employed. As part of this questionnaire the respondents were asked to what extent they agree with the statement that their promotion prospects are poor. Answers were measured in a 5-point scale ranging from completely agree to completely disagree. This resulted in the variable poor promotion prospects, which has been reverse coded in order to gain a measurement that shows to what extent the respondent has good promotion prospects. Since the goal of this study, in regards to this variable, is to assess whether the respondent has high or low growth opportunities within the organization, this is a fitting measurement. Promotion takes place within the same organization, whereas the words "growth opportunity", do not necessarily limit these opportunities to the organization. By using the word "promotion" in the questionnaire, it is thus guaranteed that the respondents were asked for their growth opportunities within the organization and not growth opportunities outside of the organization. Additionally, it should be noted that the promotion prospects were reported by the respondents themselves and is not an objective measurement of promotion prospects. This fits very well with the theoretical framework for this study, because a careerist will base their decision to leave or stay at an organization on what they think their growth opportunities are, rather than what the actual opportunities are.

Turnover

The last variable of the conceptual model that needs to be measured is turnover. This variable will also be measured using an item from the Questionnaire on the Experience and Evaluation of Work developed by Van Veldhoven et al. (2015). As part of this questionnaire, respondents were asked the following question: "*Have you changed jobs since the previous time you filled out this*

questionnaire?” The HBS data have data from three different moments. This question was only asked on moments two and three and only if the respondent had answered that they have paid work on the previous moment when they also filled out the questionnaire. In this study, the data on all variables other than turnover will be assessed on the first moment. Since the question whether a respondent changed their jobs was only asked in moments two and three, and since the question only measures if someone changed their jobs in the time between the current and the previous moment, turnover will be assessed at moment two. This means that all data on employability, careerism/Dark Triad and growth opportunities will be assessed at the first moment. Only turnover will be assessed at moment two, which means it measures whether a respondent has switched jobs in the period between moment one and moment two. While the exact dates for the three measurements was different for each respondent, all respondents were tracked for about a year, with about four months between measurements (Healthy Brain Study consortium, 2021).

Education

Education will be used as a control variable in this study. Education could have an impact on a person's employability, especially when it comes to higher levels of education. Additionally, the degree a person receives after completing an education can function as a signaling mechanism to employers (Benson et al., 2004). This could affect how employers view their employees, which could in turn have an effect on turnover. It is therefore important to control for education in this analysis. Education was measured by asking respondents the following question: “*What is the highest level of education that you have completed with diploma or certificate?*”

Limitations

There are several methodological limitations that should be taken into account in this study. First of all, this study used Dark Triad as a proxy for careerism. While this approach can be justified because Dark Triad is likely to be a strong predictor for careerism, it would be more accurate to measure careerism directly using the instrument developed by Feldman & Weitz (1991). This could potentially lead to more accurate results. Another limitation related to the measurements, is

the way turnover was assessed. The HBS data only contained a measure that asked whether the respondent had changed their job in the period between the current and the previous assessment. While the two often occur together, changing one's job is not exactly the same as leaving the organization. It is possible that some respondents actually changed their jobs because they got promoted or transferred to another position within the same organization. This would show up as turnover in the measurement, when this is not actually the case. This reduces the validity of the measurement and could affect the accuracy of the results.

Research ethics

Data collection and processing was done by the HBS team. The Institutional Review Board of Radboud University Medical Center approved the HBS (reference number: 2018-4894) in accordance with the latest revision of the Declaration of Helsinki (Healthy Brain Study consortium, 2021). A request to share data was made by the supervisors of the thesis circle that this thesis is part of. This request was approved by the HBS and the requested data was shared with the supervisors. The supervisors and the HBS ensured that access to the data was limited to data that were relevant for the thesis circle and that could not be traced back to individual respondents. The students of the thesis circle were then given access to a data file. This file only contained the data that were relevant for the studies that the students would be conducting, such as work-related questionnaires, questionnaires on personality traits and basic information of the sample, such as age and education level. None of the data used for this study were shared with anyone else.

4. Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations

In this study, the variables employability, promotion prospects and careerism (Dark Triad) were all measured using a Likert scale. Since employability and careerism were both measured with multiple items, an average score was calculated for each respondent. Education, or more specifically, the highest education level that the respondent has completed, was measured on an ordinal scale, ranging from 0 (no education) to 6 (WO, or university). Turnover is a categorical variable and was therefore measured on a nominal scale. Turnover could either be 0 (respondent did not change their job) or 1 (respondent did change their job). Before conducting any further analyses, the dataset was checked for outliers and other potential problems. The variable education was found to have 9 ($n = 455$) respondents whose education level was “other”. Since this is not a meaningful value in the context of this study and because it is a relatively small group, these were recoded as missing values. No other problems were found with the dataset. The descriptive statistics for all variables, except for turnover can be viewed below in table 2. For turnover, 321 (70.5%) had the same job as before, 35 (9.8%) had changed their job and 99 (21.8%) were missing. To gain a first insight into the data and any possible relationships between the variables, a correlation matrix was made using all of the variables that have a scale measurement level. This matrix can be seen in table 2 below, along with the descriptive statistics. The only significant correlation is the correlation between growth opportunities and employability. The Pearson’s correlation coefficient for these two variables is $-.197$, which can be interpreted as a small to medium correlation (Field, 2017).

Table 2 *Descriptive statistics and Pearson’s correlation coefficient*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Education	5.05	0.84				
2. Employability	4.30	0.52	.068	.871 ^a		
3. Growth opportunities	2.08	1.18	-.075	-.197 ^{**}		
4. Careerism	2.79	1.08	.001	-.061	-.016	.838 ^a

Note. ^a These values represent the Cronbach’s Alpha based on the items within the variable.

^{**} $p < 0.01$.

Hypotheses testing

To test the hypotheses, logistic regression has been used, because the dependent variable is a binary value. To make the interpretation of the effects easier, all independent variables were mean-centered before conducting the analysis. Before a model for logistic regression is made, the assumptions of logistic regression should be tested. The assumptions for this type of model are linearity of the logit and little to no multicollinearity among the independent variables (Field, 2017). To test the first assumption, a new variable was computed for each independent variable. This new variable was the log of the original variable. Then, a logistic regression model was made with all the independent variables and an interaction term was included for each independent variable and their corresponding log variable. All the interaction terms were not significant, which means that the assumption of linearity of the logit has not been violated (Field, 2017). To test for multicollinearity, the collinearity tolerance and VIF values were assessed. To rule out multicollinearity problems, the collinearity tolerance should be above 0.1 and the VIF values should be under 10 (Field, 2017). The values for employability (tolerance = 0.951; VIF = 1.052), careerism (tolerance = 0.990; VIF = 1.010), growth opportunities (tolerance = 0.961; VIF = 1.040) and education (tolerance = 0.987; VIF = 1.013), were all deemed appropriate. This means there are no problems with the linearity of the logit or with multicollinearity and the assumptions for logistic regression have been met.

Since there were no problems with the assumptions, a logistic regression analysis has been conducted. The results of this model can be seen in table 3. There are four models in total. The first model only includes the control variable education. The second model builds upon the first model by adding in the direct effect of employability. In the third model the moderators were added and in the fourth and final model the interaction terms were included as well. As can be seen in table 3, for all models the Hosmer and Lemeshow test for goodness of fit has been conducted. This test was not significant for any of the models, which indicates that the models fit the data appropriately. The Nagelkerke R^2 was also assessed for all of the models. It should be noted that this is a pseudo- R^2 and should be interpreted somewhat differently than the R^2 in a linear model. In logistic regression, low R^2 values are normal and are mainly useful to compare different models in the same analysis (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000). When looking at models one through four, the Nagelkerke R^2 consistently increases with each model, which means that every model explains more variance than the model before it. By far the largest change, however,

can be seen in model 2. The Nagelkerke R^2 value in model 2 is 0.03 higher than in model 1, whereas the improvements for models 3 and 4 are 0.003 and 0.007, respectively. This shows that the effect of employability plays a relatively large role in predicting turnover, compared to the effects of growth opportunities and careerism. Education was included in all models as a control variable. The effect of education was significant ($p = .036$; OR = 1.726), confirming that education indeed has an effect on turnover.

Using the results of the analysis, the hypotheses that were formed in the theoretical framework can be tested.

Hypothesis 1: High employability increases the likelihood of turnover.

The effect of employability was found to be significant ($p = .028$). The odds ratio for employability is 2.280, which means that every one-point increase in employability increases the odds of turnover by a factor of 2.280. The confidence interval of (1.098, 2.762) shows that there is a 95% chance the true odds ratio is somewhere between those two values. This also shows that the effect is statistically significant, because the interval does not include 1. Since the effect is significant, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Hypothesis 2: Turnover is more likely in careerists with high employability, than in non-careerists with high employability.

To test the second hypothesis, the effect of the interaction term of careerism and employability needs to be assessed. The effect of the interaction term ($p = .547$) was not significant. This means no support has been found for the second hypothesis and the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 3: For careerists, growth opportunities within the organization lower the effect of employability on turnover, ultimately reducing the likelihood of turnover.

This hypothesis assumes a relationship between employability, growth opportunities and careerism. As such, the interaction term of these three variables has to be reviewed. This interaction term was not significant ($p = .550$). As such, the hypothesis is not supported and the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Table 3 Logistic regression

Model	Variable	Model 1				Model 2			
		B	SE	OR	95% CI for OR	B	SE	OR	95% CI for OR
0. Constant		-2.268	.192	0.103*		-2.334	.203	.097	
1. Control variables	Education	0.548	.253	1.729*	(1.054, 2.838)	0.514	.256	1.672*	(1.012, 2.762)
2. Main effects	Employability					0.802	.361	2.231*	(1.098, 4.529)
3. Moderators	GO								
4. Interactions	Careerism								
	Employability* careerism								
	Employability* GO								
	Careerism* GO								
Additional statistics	Hosmer and Lemeshow test ^a				.364				.634
	Nagelkerke R ²				.032				.062

Note. Dependent variable: Turnover, coded as 0 (did not change job) or 1 (did change job). OR: odds ratio. GO: growth opportunities. B: estimated coefficient.

^aThe Hosmer and Lemeshow test assesses the model fit and a significance value of less than 0.05 indicates a poor fit.

* $p < .01$.

Table 3 continued

Model	Variable	Model 3				Model 4			
		B	SE	OR	95% CI for OR	B	SE	OR	95% CI for OR
0. Constant		-2.342	.204	0.096		-2.353	.210	0.095	
1. Control variables	Education	0.524	.258	1.689*	(1.020, 2.799)	0.546	.261	1.726*	(1.035, 2.876)
2. Main effects	Employability	0.830	.363	2.297*	(1.126, 4.674)	0.824	.376	2.280*	(1.092, 4.760)
3. Moderators	GO	0.105	.154	1.111	(0.821, 1.503)	0.128	.170	1.137	(0.815, 1.584)
	Careerism	-.034	.176	0.966	(0.685, 1.1363)	0.011	.184	1.011	(0.705, 1.450)
4. Interactions	Employability* careerism					-0.201	.333	0.818	(0.426, 1.573)
	Employability* GO					0.007	.309	1.007	(0.550, 1.843)
	Careerism* GO					0.080	.159	1.083	(0.794, 1.478)
	Employability* GO* careerism					0.152	.255	1.164	(0.707, 1.918)
Additional statistics	Hosmer and Lemeshow test				.212				.497
	Nagelkerke R ²				.065				.072

Note. Dependent variable: Turnover, coded as 0 (did not change job) or 1 (did change job). OR: odds ratio. GO: growth opportunities. B: estimated coefficient.

^aThe Hosmer and Lemeshow test assesses the model fit and a significance value of less than 0.05 indicates a poor fit.

* $p < .01$.

5. Discussion

Discussion of the results

The purpose of this study was to offer a new perspective on careerism through the lens of human capital theory. It was discussed how careerists wish to increase their human capital, because this increases their employability and can indirectly lead to promotions. The downside of this, is that increased employability could potentially also lead to increased turnover, especially in careerists. This was tested with the first and second hypothesis. The first hypothesis was meant to test if employability, in general, leads to increased turnover. This hypothesis was significant in the final model ($p = .028$; OR = 2.28). This hypothesis can also be reviewed using the second model, which only included the direct effect of employability and the control variable education. In this model, the effect was also significant ($p = .026$; OR = 2.23). The results in both models are similar. From this it can be deduced that employability does indeed have an impact on turnover and, since the odds ratio is higher than one, it shows that the likelihood of turnover increases when employability is higher. While this supports the idea that an employability paradox exists, this cannot be seen as true evidence of the employability paradox. Part of the employability paradox is that organizations invest in their employees' employability. While it was found that employability increases turnover, this was only assessed in a general way. It could still be the case that when an employer invests in an employee, that specific employee's organizational commitment increases. This could prevent the turnover of that specific employee, despite the fact that employability generally increases the likelihood of turnover.

When the effect of employability on turnover was studied for careerists, the interaction term was found not to be significant ($p = .547$). This indicates that, unlike hypothesized in the second hypothesis, the interaction between careerism and employability does not significantly affect the likelihood of turnover. Based on this analysis, the notion that high employability more frequently leads to turnover in careerists than in other people, cannot be supported.

Careerism also did not have a significant direct effect on turnover ($p = .953$). While such an effect was not hypothesized, it is still somewhat surprising. It contradicts a previous study by Feldman & Weitz (1991) that found careerists have a higher disposition to change jobs. It should be noted that this study by Feldman & Weitz (1991, p. 248) did not find a direct effect of careerism on leaving the organization. On first glance this might create the impression that their

results on this matter are the same as the results in the study at hand, but the results of the study at hand should be interpreted in the context of the measurement of turnover. The measurement that was used in the HBS data, only assessed whether the respondent had changed jobs and did not measure if the new job was at the same or a different organization. As such, both the study by Feldman and Weitz (1991) and the study at hand measured whether the respondent changed jobs. One possible reason for these conflicting results could be that Feldman & Weitz (1991) looked at the disposition to change jobs, rather than actual job changes. Another, more general, reason that could possibly explain different results between the two studies, is that Feldman & Weitz (1991) used an instrument to directly measure careerism, rather than using Dark Triad as a proxy. Either way, based on the analysis of the study at hand, it should be concluded that careerism does not have a significant effect on job changes.

One of the main points of this study was to find out if the retention of careerists with high employability could be improved, in spite of their tendency to opt for short-term employment relationships, through growth opportunities. This was tested with the third hypothesis. The triple interaction term between employability, growth opportunities and careerism, was not significant ($p = .550$). This suggests that the turnover of careerists with high employability does not significantly change based on the presence of growth opportunities and growth opportunities cannot be used to improve their retention. Furthermore, the interaction term of growth opportunities and employability ($p = .983$), the interaction term of growth opportunities and careerism ($p = .614$) and the direct effect of growth opportunities ($p = .450$) were also not significant. There is no support any effect of growth opportunities on turnover in this analysis.

Practical implications

Because most of the analyzed effects were not statistically significant, the practical implications of this study are limited. Based on the analysis, no recommendations can be made to improve retention using growth opportunities. Since the effect of employability on turnover was significant, managers should keep in mind that there is a risk for turnover when employability is high. This risk, however, does not seem to be any different for careerists than it is for other people. Since growth opportunities cannot be used to combat this risk, managers should look for other ways to prevent turnover. One possibility to combat employability-related turnover, is

through organizational commitment. However, as explained in the theoretical framework, there are reasons to assume that organizational commitment cannot improve the retention of careerists either.

Limitations

There are several limitations that should be taken account. First of all, as discussed in the methods section, this study used Dark Triad as a proxy for careerism and measuring careerism directly with the instrument developed by Feldman & Weitz (1991) could lead to more accurate results. Another limitation is the measurement of turnover, which, as discussed, only assessed whether someone changed their job. To properly analyze turnover, it would be better ask respondents if they have left the organization. Additionally, respondents were asked if they changed jobs four months after the initial measurements. This period might be too short to notice turnover in some cases. There are two possible ways to avoid this problem in a future study. One possibility is to increase the time between the measurements, or do multiple measurements to track a respondent over the period of one year or more. For example, the study by Benson et al. (2004) tracked turnover over a period of five years. Another option would be to measure voluntary turnover intentions. This method is commonly used in turnover research, for example in a study by Bakar et al. (2021) and a study by De Cuyper et al. (2011b) mentioned earlier.

Future research recommendations

This study analyzed the effect of the presence of growth opportunities on the turnover of careerists. While it was found that the presence of growth opportunities does not significantly reduce retention, it remains to be seen if growth opportunities can improve retention in another way. Previous research has shown that careerists have a more transactional psychological contract, rather than a relational one (Rousseau, 1990; Braekkan & Tunheim, 2013). Since careerists believe that their career goals and the interests of the organization can be conflicting and they tend to choose for their own interests over the organization's interest (Feldman & Weitz, 1991), it could be beneficial to align these interests. This could potentially be done by making them part of the psychological contract through a transaction. A manager could very clearly state

that they wish to invest in the skills, or human capital, of the employee, because the manager thinks the employee has potential to grow in the organization. Then, either during or directly after the human capital investment, an open discussion of growth opportunities could take place. If it is very clearly stated what the requirements for promotion are and that the careerist will be considered for promotion, this could become part of the psychological contract. Since the psychological contract is transactional, it is most likely better to give very concrete requirements that the careerist must meet in order to be considered for promotion, because these requirements will then become part of the psychological contract. This gives the careerist a clear goal to work towards that is in line with the careerist's own goals, because it increases their chances at promotion. This might motivate the careerist to work towards this goal. In this regard, there are two very interesting questions that could be researched. Firstly, it could be investigated if making promotion prospects part of the psychological contract could increase retention. Secondly, it would be interesting to see if including concrete requirements for promotion in the psychological contract could steer the careerist towards more performance-based means of promotion. After all, the careerist simply wants career advancement. The only reason why careerists want to employ non-performance-based means of advancement, is that they believe this to be beneficial to their advancement. If, however, the careerist believes that improving their skills and performance is the best way to advance their career, they might want to focus on that instead. This is in line with the idea of negative impression management of extreme careerists as explained by Bratton & Kacmar (2004). They explain how (extreme) careerists are likely to use negative impression management behaviors, which can lead to negative outcomes, but can also lead to positive outcomes. For instance, in groups and organizations, this could result in the careerist fulfilling the behavioral expectations of the group or organization (Bratton & Kacmar, 2004).

Another interesting avenue for future research would be to test whether careerists can truly not be bound to organizations through organizational commitment and social exchange theory. As discussed in the theoretical framework, the consensus in the literature is currently that careerists do not become committed to organizations. However, very few studies have actually empirically tested this. After extensively searching for literature on this topic, one study was found. This study found, to the surprise of the researchers, that careerism was only negatively related to affective commitment and actually positively related to continuance and normative commitment (Jain & Sullivan, 2019). The researchers of this study had actually hypothesized the opposite.

They believe a possible reason for this result is the context of the country (India) where the study was conducted (Jain & Sullivan, 2019, p. 1563). There is currently much we still do not know about careerists and how they behave in organizations. Thoroughly testing the different aspects of organizational commitment in careerists could be a good starting point to improve our understanding of this subject.

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Appendix 1: Descriptive statistics, correlations and reliability testing

LIS07_education_completed_pre-1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	6	1.3	1.3	1.3
	3	12	2.6	2.7	4.0
	4	74	16.3	16.4	20.4
	5	213	46.8	47.2	67.6
	6	137	30.1	30.4	98.0
	7	9	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	451	99.1	100.0	
Missing	-999	4	.9		
Total		455	100.0		

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	455	30	39	33.75	2.749
Sex	455	1	2	1.61	.488
EDU_REC	442	2.00	6.00	5.0475	.84112
Valid N (listwise)	442				

Statistics

	EDU_REC	Age	Sex
N	Valid	442	455
	Missing	13	0
Mean	5.0475	33.75	1.61
Median	5.0000	34.00	2.00
Std. Deviation	.84112	2.749	.488

EDU_REC

	N	%
2.00	6	1.3%
3.00	12	2.6%
4.00	74	16.3%
5.00	213	46.8%
6.00	137	30.1%
Missing -999.00	13	2.9%

Sex

	N	%
1	177	38.9%
2	278	61.1%

Reliability Statistics (Employability)

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.871	.877	22

Reliability Statistics (Dark Triad)

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.838	.848	12

Correlations

EDU_RE C	Employability_Mean_Postvisit1	wrk53_rec	DTR_Mean_complete

EDU_REC	Pearson Correlation	1	.068	-.075	.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.156	.116	.985
	N	442	442	441	440
Employability_Mean_Postvisit1	Pearson Correlation	.068	1	-.197**	-.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.156		<.001	.193
	N	442	455	453	452
wrk53_rec	Pearson Correlation	-.075	-.197**	1	-.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.116	<.001		.729
	N	441	453	453	451
DTR_Mean_complete	Pearson Correlation	.001	-.061	-.016	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.985	.193	.729	
	N	440	452	451	452

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 2: Assumptions

Variables not in the Equation^a

		Score	df	Sig.
Step 0	Variables			
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects by LnGO	.025	1	.873
	DEZEcent_DTR by LnDTR	.675	1	.411
	DEZEcent_Employability by LnEmp	.128	1	.720
	DEZEcent_Employability	.427	1	.513
	DEZEcent_DTR	.150	1	.698
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects	.025	1	.873

a. Residual Chi-Squares are not computed because of redundancies.

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects by LnGO	.807	1.767	.209	1	.648	2.242
	DEZEcent_DTR by LnDTR	-9.963	10.375	.922	1	.337	.000
	DEZEcent_Employability by LnEmp	-12.089	11.959	1.022	1	.312	.000
	DEZEcent_Employability	7.609	6.454	1.390	1	.238	2015.819
	DEZEcent_DTR	7.177	8.659	.687	1	.407	1309.221
	Constant	-15.888	12.019	1.747	1	.186	.000

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects * LnGO , DEZEcent_DTR * LnDTR , DEZEcent_Employability * LnEmp , DEZEcent_Employability, DEZEcent_DTR.

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	DEZEcent_DTR by LnDTR	-9.963	10.375	.922	1	.337	.000
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects	1.072	2.347	.209	1	.648	2.921
	DEZEcent_Employability by LnEmp	-12.089	11.959	1.022	1	.312	.000
	DEZEcent_Employability	7.609	6.454	1.390	1	.238	2015.819
	DEZEcent_DTR	7.177	8.659	.687	1	.407	1309.221
	Constant	-16.936	13.770	1.513	1	.219	.000

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: DEZEcent_DTR * LnDTR , DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects, DEZEcent_Employability * LnEmp , DEZEcent_Employability, DEZEcent_DTR.

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.101	.016		6.304	<.001		
	DEZEcent_Employability	.071	.031	.126	2.311	.021	.951	1.052
	DEZEcent_DTR	-.003	.015	-.009	-.173	.863	.990	1.010
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects	.010	.014	.040	.729	.467	.961	1.040
	Cent_edu	.038	.019	.107	2.003	.046	.987	1.013

a. Dependent Variable: Changedjob_0of1

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	DEZEcent_Employability	DEZEcent_DTR	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects	Cent_edu
1	1	1.229	1.000	.01	.36	.00	.31	.11
	2	1.058	1.078	.06	.06	.63	.00	.19
	3	.999	1.109	.84	.00	.01	.01	.15
	4	.945	1.140	.09	.01	.22	.26	.46
	5	.770	1.263	.00	.58	.15	.42	.10

a. Dependent Variable: Changedjob_0of1

Appendix 3: Hypothesis testing

Model 0

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	-2.191	.178	151.099	1	<.001	.112

Model 1

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Cent_edu	.548	.253	4.692	1	.030	1.729	1.054	2.838
	Constant	-2.268	.192	139.591	1	<.001	.103		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Cent_edu.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	2.023	2	.364

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	221.801 ^a	.015	.032

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Model 2

		Variables in the Equation							
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Cent_edu	.514	.256	4.033	1	.045	1.672	1.012	2.762
	DEZEcent_Employability	.802	.361	4.927	1	.026	2.231	1.098	4.529
	Constant	-2.334	.203	132.799	1	<.001	.097		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: DEZEcent_Employability.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	6.117	8	.634

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	216.602 ^a	.030	.062

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Model 3

		Variables in the Equation							
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Cent_edu	.524	.258	4.143	1	.042	1.689	1.020	2.799
	DEZEcent_Employability	.830	.363	5.229	1	.022	2.294	1.126	4.674
	DEZEcent_DTR	-.034	.176	.038	1	.845	.966	.685	1.363
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects	.105	.154	.468	1	.494	1.111	.821	1.503
	Constant	-2.342	.204	132.398	1	<.001	.096		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: DEZEcent_DTR, DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	6.117	8	.634

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	216.602 ^a	.030	.062

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Model 4

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Cent_edu	.546	.261	4.382	1	.036	1.726	1.035	2.876
	DEZEcent_Employability	.824	.376	4.812	1	.028	2.280	1.092	4.760
	DEZEcent_DTR	.011	.184	.004	1	.953	1.011	.705	1.450
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects	.128	.170	.570	1	.450	1.137	.815	1.584
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects by DEZEcent_Employability	.007	.309	.000	1	.983	1.007	.550	1.843
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects by DEZEcent_DTR	.080	.159	.255	1	.614	1.083	.794	1.478
	DEZEcent_DTR by DEZEcent_Employability	-.201	.333	.362	1	.547	.818	.426	1.573
	DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects by DEZEcent_DTR by DEZEcent_Employability	.152	.255	.358	1	.550	1.164	.707	1.918
	Constant	-2.353	.210	126.114	1	<.001	.095		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects * DEZEcent_Employability , DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects * DEZEcent_DTR , DEZEcent_DTR * DEZEcent_Employability , DEZE_cent_PromotionProspects * DEZEcent_DTR * DEZEcent_Employability .

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	7.374	8	.497

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	214.892 ^a	.035	.072

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

