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**"WHAT REALLY MATTERS FOR ACHIEVING
CAREER SUCCESS.
THE ROLE OF INDIVIDUALS, MANAGERS AND
ORGANIZATIONAL INVESTMENTS."**

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INTRODUCTION

This study aims at investigating the roles that organizations, managers and individuals play in career management and, therefore, in enhancing employees' professional development, career success and retention.

On the one hand, organizational career management practices¹ and perceived supervisor support will be analyzed in order to understand if and when it is more effective for organizations to invest in career management initiatives and supporting employees. On the other hand, career self-management² behaviours will be evaluated in order to assess the role that individuals may play in managing their own careers. The effectiveness of these three levers (OCM, PSS and ICM) will be assessed according to their relationships with objective career success, subjective career success and turnover intention.

The choice of developing this topic comes from two main reasons.

First, this issue is very interesting to me: a Business Administration student, who is entering the labour market in few months, and therefore would like to develop more effective career planning strategies for her future.

Second, the attempt to (re)define the responsibility of organizations and individuals in career management is a very topical issue today. Indeed, in the last decades, career management practices have been evolving, because of the uncertainty and the deep changes in the competitive environment. Although traditionally the organization was the main actor in charge of managing careers, today this responsibility has been shifting towards individuals, while employers prefer buying talents rather than developing them internally. According to some consultancy companies (PwC, 2011; Deloitte, 2016b), these changes have brought to higher voluntary turnover rates, especially among Millennials, who are less loyal and still expect organizational investments in their careers³.

In this new and confused scenario, the roles of organizations and individuals are less clear. Should companies still manage careers, risking not to recoup their investments? Do they contribute in achieving career success and reducing turnover intention? What is the role of individual career management and perceived supervisor support?

In order to answer these main questions, five Chapters will be developed.

¹ Assessment and development centers, lateral moves, mentoring, career workshops and counselling, formal education, performance appraisals,.. (paragraph 2.2.1).

² Networking, looking for career-related feedback, positioning,.. (paragraph 2.3).

³ This issue is better investigated in Chapter One.

The first one will focus on the HR challenges that organizations need to deal with in order to attract, engage and retain talents today. After the investigation of some of these challenges, I will describe the history and evolution of talent management, concentrating firstly on the implications for career management and secondly on the individual-organization relationship.

In Chapter Two, the concepts of organizational career management, career self-management and perceived supervisor support will be firstly illustrated, by exploring their effects and interactions in the current career management literature.

Based on this theoretical support, an empirical model will be developed in Chapter Three, together with specific hypotheses on the relationships between OCM, ICM, PSS and career success (and turnover intention).

In Chapter Four, these hypotheses will be tested, using the IBM statistical software SPSS 20, on a sample of 606 Italian employees collected by the 5C Group⁴.

Finally in the last chapter, the results from this analysis and the relative managerial implications will be discussed, together with the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.

⁴ The 5C Group (Collaboration for the Cross-Cultural study of Contemporary Careers) is an international network of researchers, interested in the study of careers. The majority of the data were collected through an on-line survey administered by students of two Northern Italian universities (Padova and Milan).

TRENDS & ROLES IN MANAGING HUMAN CAPITAL

1.1 The drivers of global change in the talent landscape

The concept of “work” has experienced a dramatic transformation during the last years. Phenomena like the shifting demographics, the pervasive presence of technology and the global economic recovery, are producing deep changes in business and society, forcing companies to “think about talent very differently” (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015).

Thanks to technology, the job market has become extremely transparent. People use social networks like Facebook, LinkedIn, Glassdoor, Google and Twitter to be informed about the latest job opportunities available, but also to be connected with their colleagues and friends in real-time. They like to share pictures, video and status on a daily basis, both on and off the job. The world of work today is globally connected, or “boundless” (Bersin by Deloitte, 2014), but so are people’s personal lives. That is why today we have a “new world of life”, rather than a merely “new world of work”, because family, personal lives and work are strongly bound to each other.

In particular, people with in-demand skills are those taking advantage of these new market, while employers are losing control (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015). In fact, the first can easily find targeted job offers online, but also change company whenever they realize that it isn’t a good place to work. On LinkedIn or Glassdoor people can obtain useful information about the company, including the interviewing style or work conditions of a specific job position. That is also why having a high “employee engagement” is fundamental to attract new talents: people will easily assess any information they need with a simple click.

The labour market is changing also from a demographic perspective: now the workforce is both younger and older. By 2020 Millennials (or generation Y, people born between 1980 and 2000) are expected to constitute 75% of the global workforce⁵, reshaping the economy with their values and high expectations. Both this shift in demographics and the transparency of the job market have contributed to change people’s aspirations for their career. People no longer expect a “lifelong contract” from companies (Hoffman et al., 2014), but a more opportunistic deal instead. They want to enjoy the organization as long as their relationship with it can be

⁵ www.forbes.com/sites/danschawbel/2013/09/04/why-you-cant-ignore-millennials/#645a44176c65.

beneficial for them, and as long as there is no better offer in the market, knowing that the company will do the same. And also the end of the contract may be seen as a “temporary end”, until the collaboration of the parties does not become profitable again. Therefore Millennials “anticipate working for many employers and demand an enriching experience at every stage” (Deloitte, 2016a, p. 2). What they look for in a company is a fast career growth, a flexible and exciting place to work, constant learning and development opportunities, a clear purpose and a meaningful work experience. However, at the same time, many 70 year old working Baby Boomers need to accept these changes. They may need to adapt to new roles as coaches or mentors, or to the idea of being subordinated to younger colleagues.

Additionally, the market is forcing employers to offer more flexible and dynamic models of jobs, both in terms of work content and timetable. And thanks to the interconnection and the availability of low cost instruments, like TaskRabbit and Freelancer, this can be possible. Contingent work, and in particular contingent freelance work, also called “gig economy” (Deloitte, 2016a) is very common nowadays. According to a recent survey, 1700 CHROs managers reported that 83% of their organizations were increasing the amount of part-time, contingent or freelance workers⁶; and many experts think that 50% of the entire American workforce will turn contingent by 2020 (Staffing Industry Analysts, 2013). Even if many people still desire a long-term job and stable career, now they seem more willing to accept the idea of working as a contractor or a part-time employee, at a certain point of their lives.

Although the above global change forces, that are reshaping the talent landscape, companies still have to face more traditional human capital issues (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015). In particular, leadership development, retention and engagement are three of the most relevant challenges that need to be tackled by HRO, whose focus is now more than ever on employees’ wellbeing and happiness (Deloitte, 2016a). According to Glassdoor, only 50% of all employees “would recommend their employers to their friends”⁷, while Gallup thinks that only 13% of them is highly engaged⁸.

1.2 HR challenges for the next years

In order to identify which are the most relevant HR trends that firms are facing today and are likely to deal with in the future, I took into consideration recent surveys and research reports

⁶ <http://www.oxfordeconomics.com/workforce2020>.

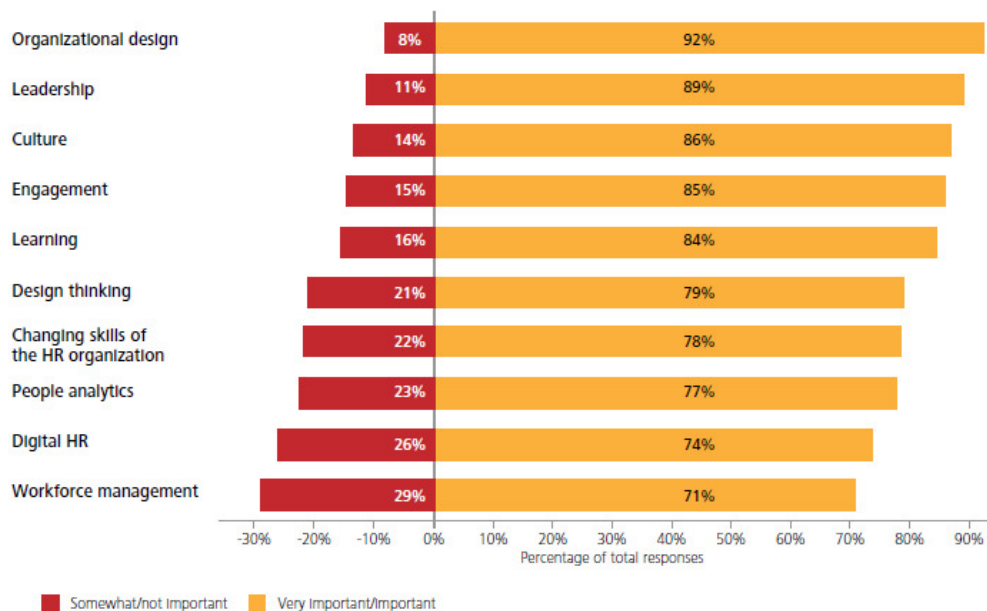
⁷ This information is based on current research by Bersin by Deloitte and Glassdoor, October 2014.

⁸ www.gallup.com/poll/165269/worldwide-employees-engaged-work.aspx.

of the major consultancy companies, among which are: “Global Human Capital Trends 2016 – Organization: Different by design” and “Global Human Capital Trends 2015 – Leading in the new world of work”, by Deloitte Consulting LLC; “Predictions for 2015 – Redesigning the Organization for a Rapidly Changing World”, by Josh Bersin, Principal and Founder at Bersin by Deloitte, 2015 and “Creating People Advantage – How to Address HR Challenges Worldwide Through 2015”, by The Boston Consulting Group, 2008.

According to the first report, where 7000 HR leaders from 130 countries have been interviewed, 10 main human capital trends for 2016 should be identified. Companies that try to address them are likely to create a sustainable competitive (people) advantage over their competitors (The Boston Consulting Group, 2008) (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: The 10 Human Capital trends for 2016 (ranked in order of importance)



[Source: Deloitte, 2016a]

“Organizational design” stands at the first position, since it is considered a top priority by 92% of the HR executives. In many firms, a new team-based organizational model is rising, where teams take the responsibility for working on specific projects. This new structure will force programs like career progression, learning and leadership development to adapt.

Another important issue is “leadership development”, since the traditional models used by HR can’t identify, assess and develop enough leaders to keep up with the companies’ needs. Culture is also a fundamental element that firms must take into consideration, if they want to attract the best people. In fact, if a firm’s culture is consistent with its values, it is likely to attract people with similar values and so, to bring to high engagement levels. 85% of the execu-

tives participating in the survey ranked “engagement” as a top priority, even if only 46% of their companies seemed to be ready to take some action.

Engagement, so as workplace culture, can be driven by learning programs, undertaken by the firms to develop the skills and the abilities of their workforce. “Learning” has always been an HR challenge, but today companies can use technology, to offer customized learning models to their employees, like for instance the massive open online courses (MOOCs).

A new trend, instead, is “design thinking”, a practice that aims at simplifying the work of the “overwhelmed employees” (employees that are stressed, because of the too demanding work), thanks to the use of technological tools that help them to be more relaxed and productive.

Nowadays organizations need to face even the “people analytics” challenge, which consists in introducing new analytical tools, to collect external data and draw future workforce trends and business performance. Additionally, HR will need to adopt a “digital mind-set” and revolutionize its processes, by adopting digital platforms and apps in providing its services.

The last of the 10 human capital trends for 2016 is “workforce management”, the increasing use of contingent contracts between the employer and the employees.

Another challenge that companies should consider, even if not present in the previous list, is talent mobility and career management. In fact, by offering a formal internal career path to their employees, firms can develop and retain high performers, while at the same time increasing the level of engagement (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015).

Although the centrality and topicality of all the previous challenges, in the following paragraphs I will focus only on some of them, and in particular on: engagement, learning, development and talent mobility. In fact, these trends are analyzed in most of the above reports, because of their importance for business today. They are also deeply related to the process of career management, which is central to the purpose of this thesis and which will be explained later on.

1.2.1 Engagement

As former Campbell’s Soup CEO, Doug Conant, once said, “To win in the marketplace you must first win in the workplace.” Indeed, employee engagement is a key success factor to obtaining a high performing workforce and a profitable business. The “Engagement-Profit Chain” works as follows: engaged employees lead to higher service, quality and productivity,

which create higher customer satisfaction. This results in increased sales, which bring to higher profits and so, to higher shareholder returns⁹.

Today less than one third of U.S. workers are engaged in their jobs (32.9%), trending upward for the last three years¹⁰, probably because of the improved economic conditions. Nevertheless, if we analyze engagement across generations, we can notice that Millennials are the least engaged group. Gallup’s employee engagement data shows that they are less likely than other generations to get the job of their dreams and to do “what they do best”, and this creates disengagement¹¹. From what emerged in a study conducted by Dale Carnegie Training, the first factor leading to disengagement is the “relationship with immediate supervisor”¹².

Low engagement nowadays may become a significant business risk: if employees are disengaged and unhappy, then they are more likely to complain on social networks and attracting new talents may become hard (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015).

In order to increase employees’ engagement, companies should intervene with an integrated approach, acting on more factors at the same time. The “Simply Irresistible Framework”, developed by Bersin by Deloitte in 2015, shows a complete plan of action, made of five major elements and 20 strategies, to manage the engagement problem within organizations (Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2: The Simply Irresistible Organization



Meaningful Work	Great Management	Fantastic Environment	Growth Opportunity	Trust in Leadership
Autonomy	Agile Goal-Setting (i.e., objectives & key results-OKR)	Flexible, Humane Work Environment	Facilitated Talent Mobility	Mission & Purpose
Selection to Fit	Coaching & Feedback	Recognition-Rich Culture	Career Growth in Many Paths	Investment in People; Trust
Small Teams	Leadership Development	Open, Flexible Work Spaces	Self & Formal Development	Transparency & Communication
Time for Slack	Modernized Performance Mgmt.	Inclusive, Diverse Culture	High-Impact Learning Culture	Inspiration

[Source: Bersin by Deloitte, 2014]

⁹ www.forbes.com/sites/kevinkruse/2012/06/22/employee-engagement-what-and-why/#3fa68f1e4629.

¹⁰ www.gallup.com/poll/193901/employee-engagement-steady-june.aspx?g_source=Workplace&g_medium=newsfeed&g_campaign=tiles.

¹¹ www.gallup.com/poll/181289/majority-employees-not-engaged-despite-gains-2014.aspx.

¹² www.forbes.com/sites/victorlipman/2013/01/18/why-are-so-many-employees-disengaged/#2eeb84f43ac5.

From this framework it is evident why engagement and organizational career management are strongly related. All the actions undertaken by HR, in order to facilitate employees' career growth, including formal development or mentoring programs, internal job posting and constant feedback, have a positive effect on employee engagement.

This challenge today is even harder than in the past, because companies need to adapt their engagement practices to the new global change drivers. For instance, as already said in paragraph 1.1, they should consider the new desires of employees in shaping career paths, knowing that they value "flexibility, creativity and purpose at work" (Deloitte, 2016a, p.48). Careers' nature is transforming itself. Today workers change jobs more frequently and also need more frequent investments from organizations. "Employers must provide development more quickly, move people more regularly, provide continuous cycles of promotion, and give employees more tools to manage their own careers" (Deloitte, 2016a, p.49). Finally, HR needs to adopt "always on" engagement tools, as online internal job posting and online feedback systems, to allow employees and managers to be aware of the positions available inside the company and to anonymously express their feedback on the organization's processes, on a real time basis (Deloitte, 2016a).

1.2.2 Learning and Development

Companies that don't constantly upgrade skills and invest in leadership development are unlikely to implement their business plan, because L&D is a fundamental instrument to attract, engage and retain top employees and to create leaders. In fact, "..building a leading L&D function will likely not only drive performance, but also improve employee engagement" (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015, p. 53).

As the economy recovers and the shortage of high-skilled employees grows, executives are realizing that they must develop the skills they need internally, rather than simply outsourcing talent¹³. In 2014, investments in L&D increased by 14% and those in leadership development grew even faster (Bersin by Deloitte, 2014).

The learning and development market is going through a deep transformation. The disruptive change in technology and the shift in demographics are challenging firms to adapt their corporate learning models, and to go towards an employee-centric framework (Deloitte, 2016a). The objective is to exploit the available online learning platforms that make learning accessible to everyone at any time, to create dynamic, self-directed and continuous learning opportu-

¹³ dupress.deloitte.com/dup-us-en/focus/human-capital-trends/2015/learning-and-development-human-capital-trends-2015.html.

nities. In this way employers only need to inform and enable employees to access online content, so that they will manage their learning process directly, according to their personal needs and schedules¹⁴. Workers at all levels desire to learn within an organization, being aware that “the learning curve is the earning curve”¹⁵. In particular, Millennials consider self-directed learning as part of their careers and working experience and are ready to look for another job if companies fail to provide it.

Lots of new platforms, like mobile learning apps and content marketplaces have been developed in this sector. Tools like Coursera, Udemy, EdX, Khan Academy allow millions of users to access lectures and videos whenever they need them, in order to acquire the desired skills. Not by chance, CB Insights estimates that more than \$3 billion were invested in education-technology start-ups in the first semester of 2015¹⁶.

Nevertheless, many companies struggle to adjust their learning and development approaches, and keep using on-the-job teaching¹⁷, failing to integrate it with external learning opportunities, like MOOCs (more than 400 universities offer free or low-cost courses), videos, certificates or social media’s self-directed learning.

In order to create the optimal learning model, HR should think of employees as they think of customers, and shape learning according to their experiences and career aspirations. Therefore, also learning and development is a challenge strictly related to organizational career management: companies need to inform and provide employees the means to do their jobs and build their career (Deloitte, 2016a).

1.2.3 Talent mobility and Career management

“Companies have talked about career development programs for years. (...) as the workforce becomes more mobile, organizations must invest in programs that facilitate frequent talent mobility, rotational assignments, lateral job changes, and open career opportunities throughout the company” (Bersin by Deloitte, 2014, p. 35).

Talent mobility should be considered a function of talent management. Today employees look for the “experience”, rather than just a “career” at work (Deloitte, 2016a). They expect accelerated career progression programs from their companies, and when they don’t obtain them, they often quit the organizations. According to the 2014 Global Workforce Study (Towers

¹⁴ www.forbes.com/sites/joshbersin/2014/02/04/the-recovery-arrives-corporate-training-spend-skyrockets/#5e935b834ab7.

¹⁵ www.forbes.com/sites/joshbersin/2016/01/05/use-of-moocs-and-online-education-is-exploding-heres-why/#54516507f09.

¹⁶ www.cbinsights.com/blog/ed-tech-funding-on-pace-record-year/.

¹⁷ www.mckinsey.com/business-functions/organization/our-insights/building-capabilities-for-performance.

Watson, 2014), advancement in career is the third most cited reason why employees entered their organization, while lack of career advancement is the second most cited reason to leave. Moreover, 41% of workers reveal that they would need to quit the organization in order to make career progress and 40% of employees with high potential say that they would need to leave their firm in order to advance.

Sometimes workers leave because they cannot find promotional opportunities within the company, even when these opportunities actually exist. The senior HR vice president of a global healthcare insurance once said: “We would have a senior accountant in one business unit quit because he didn’t think there were any new opportunities when, in the next building, there was another business unit which had his perfect next job” (Bersin by Deloitte, 2014, p. 36). This problem would be avoided, at least in part, if career management practices were in place within the organization. The objective of these “facilitated talent mobility” (Bersin by Deloitte, 2014, p. 36) programs is to create structured career paths that people can follow to move to new roles, from a location to another, inside or outside the company. In this way people are constantly trained and have the chance to grow, while the organization creates a strong internal mobility culture and engaged workforce (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015).

Even if employers are aware that it is important to offer career opportunities to retain high skilled workers, only 42% of them actually invest in career advancement (Towers Watson, 2014). The main reason of this paradox may lay in the difficulty of implementing these programs that must involve the whole organization in order to be effective (Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3: Four Pillars of Career Management



[Source: Bersin by Deloitte, 2014]

Employees, managers, HR and top executives need to be committed and share the goals of the career management strategy. Moreover the program represents a huge investment in terms of learning and development, since it creates the necessity of a continuous educational system, where employees can develop the skills they need to perform a new role within the organization (Bersin by Deloitte, 2013). Another explanation may be found in the uncertainty characterizing the current job market, which pushed employers to perceive talent and career management as individual practices, to be performed by the employees, rather than by the organization.

1.3 Talent Management: from the organization to the individual

The term “talent management” has always been something hard to specify. Even if there isn’t a consistent definition in the literature, Cappelli and Keller define it as “the process through which organizations anticipate and meet their needs for talent in strategic jobs”, where “strategic job” can be interpreted as any job within the organization, according to the strategic capabilities of the firm (Cappelli & Keller, 2014).

In the last decades, because of the deep changes and the uncertainty in the competitive environment, the practices of talent and career management have been transforming, so as the roles of the organization and the individual. In particular, now employees seem to be those in charge of managing their own careers, while employers prefer buying talents rather than developing them internally. Therefore, recently, the responsibility of managing careers has been shifting from the organization to the individual, towards a new model of talent management.

In order to understand how these practices are evolving, it is necessary to know the past and the present of talent management.

1.3.1 The Traditional model

The origins of talent management go back to the 50s, with the rise of big corporations. In the early days of the industrial production, there were no talent management issues, since the owners of the companies were also the managers and most of the activities were outsourced (Zunz, 1990, cited in Cappelli & Keller, 2014). Prior to WWI, when firms began to grow large and to have specialized functions, the situation changed, because companies were looking for someone with specialized skills, to lead and manage those functions from the HQ. By the end of WWI, firms found the way to deal with the administrative problems risen with

these new businesses, but how to attract, select and train executives was still a tangible issue (Cochran, 1960, cited in Cappelli & Keller, 2014).

Many organizations bought these talents externally, usually by acquiring small companies, with the risk of becoming dependent to the outside market. Other firms promoted top performers to supervisory positions with scarce success, since the two jobs were very similar. In 1920s few organizations first approached some training practices to develop executives internally, but without success because of the incoming WWII. Soon the demand for talents exceeded the supply, creating a talent shortage (Cappelli, 2010). Therefore, taking inspiration from the military, companies started to develop internal talent management programs, in order to provide a stable supply of talents. This model consisted in a scrupulous recruitment process and career planning: “Careers and career planning unfolded within all these large corporations, with internal advancement supported by early investments in training and regular movements within the firm to provide development opportunities” (Cappelli & Keller, 2014, p. 311).

Thanks to workforce and succession planning, companies made predictions about future human capital needs, according to which they hired and developed people internally. With this model, the supply of talents were completely internal and careers were managed entirely by the companies. Therefore people did not suffer from external competition and expected a lifetime deal with the company. Steady advancement opportunities were offered and job’s ladders were clearly defined. Personnel decisions were centralized. Retention was not a common problem, because external advancement opportunities were rare (Althausen & Kallenberg, 1981, cited in Cappelli & Keller, 2014).

This system provided a sense of stability to the employees and gave rise to a wide range of tools to manage internal talents, like assessment and developmental practices, workforce and succession planning, feedback and career ladders (Cappelli & Keller, 2014).

1.3.2 Towards a New approach

Since the 1980s, the competitive environment has been suffering dramatic changes (Cappelli, 1995; Jacoby, 2005). Uncertainty in the demand and supply of labour resulted in the opening of the employment systems. Therefore, the practices and the structures of the traditional talent management model gradually became inappropriate.

The unstable mix of job requirements brought to broader job descriptions and made it difficult to define specific job ladders. Personnel decisions were decentralized, and organizational hi-

erarchies flattened (Piore, 2002). A lifelong contract was becoming a utopian objective for employees, who were pushed to self-manage their own career.

External hiring began to be used to fill positions at all organizational levels. In 2001, no senior HR executive declared to use only internal candidates to fill executive jobs (Jacoby, 2005), and in the same year Cappelli & Hamori discovered that executives were more likely to build their career across firms, rather than in a single company (Cappelli & Hamori, 2005). While in the 80s employers in the U.S. used to hire only 10% of people from the external labour market, according to recent studies that percentage has increased to 60% (Crispin & Mehler, 2013).

Uncertainty of the competitive market lays both in the demand and in the supply of talents. Uncertainty in demand of talents derives from the uncertainty in consumer demand, determining some difficulties in predicting human capital requirements. This brought to a gradual decline of workforce and succession planning: companies performing workforce planning declined from 96% during the 60s (NICB & Janger, 1966, cited in Cappelli & Keller, 2014) to 19% in the 90s, while in a 2005 survey it emerged that only 26% of employers engaged in succession planning.

Uncertainty in supply instead is related to the difficulty in forecasting the skills and abilities needed in the future marketplace and in predicting turnover. In fact, having a stable talent pool today doesn't imply that those talents will be adequately skilled tomorrow. Moreover, voluntary turnover is difficult to predict and often unavoidable (Allen et al., 2010), while hiring from external talent pools leads to retention problems.

According to Cappelli (2014), both the high voluntary turnover and the volatility of the demand make it difficult for employers to recover the high up-front investments needed to support talent management programs.

External hiring today seems to be the rule. Firms use just-in-time hiring to avoid workforce and succession planning costs (Cappelli, 2010). However, by doing so, companies become prisoners of the external labour market and incur in the costs of attracting, selecting, compensating and onboarding external workers, which are also difficult expenses to recoup.

This model, based on just-in-time external hiring and the traditional model, aiming at developing and growing talents internally, are two opposite sides of talent management. But they are not mutually exclusive. Many researchers suggest an integrated approach, where companies adopt internal hiring strategies to cover predictable human capital needs and external hiring, for that part of demand that is difficult to forecast (Cappelli, 2008).

1.3.3 Implications for Career Management

The evolution of the practices of talent management had some implications also on career management's practices. As organizations started to look externally for attracting new talents for strategic jobs, the roles of the organization and of the individual in managing careers began to change. According to Baruch (2006), nowadays organizations no longer "move" individuals across job ladders, to satisfy their own goals, like if they were playing chess. But individuals are those making the move.

New career models have been developed, in which the individual is the manager of his own career and organizations are no longer responsible for employees' career planning and advancement. Concepts like "career lattice" (Benko & Anderson, 2010), "boundaryless careers" (Briscoe & Hall, 2006), "postcorporate careers" (Peiperl & Baruch, 1997) and "intelligent careers" (Arthur et al., 1995), are just some of the several emerging careers definitions, reflecting this new trend.

"Career lattice" for instance, refers to a flexible model of managing careers, in alternative to succession planning, where employees can undertake multidirectional paths to advance (horizontal or vertical) and develop their competencies, in contrast with the job-ladder model (Benko & Anderson, 2010).

Therefore, even if career management is shifting from an organizational towards an individual approach, according to Cappelli (2014), companies still play a crucial role. Indeed, they should provide "the opportunity structures through which mobility takes place" (Cappelli, 2014, p. 318), that must be broadly defined and flexible, to adapt to the shifts of the competitive environment.

1.4 The Talent Paradox: Employees VS Organization (?)

After having identified the principal HR challenges for 2016 and investigated the new practices in career management, it is now time to examine career management from the organizational and individual perspectives. Do organizations and employees really have opposite interests and goals, regarding career management?

On the one hand, stand individuals, with their new aspirations, expectations and values. As I've said in the previous paragraphs, they no longer expect from organizations a lifelong contract, but still desire to learn fast and develop their competencies through meaningful work experiences, to grow across organizations. In particular, Millennials are much less loyal than

previous generations, being ready to shift employer as soon as they find a better job offer, thanks to the marketplace's transparency.

On the other hand, employers have to face budget cuts for HR, after the financial crisis, and at the same time manage a high voluntary turnover. Indeed, the volatility of consumer demand brought to lower HR budgets to invest in talent management, being in contrast with Millennials expectations and thus resulting in high turnover. However, at the same time, organizations are less willing to engage in employee development and career management, because of the risk of not recouping the huge up-front investments. They often prefer to hire external candidates, cutting on career planning costs, but incurring in L&D costs that are equally risky to recoup.

Therefore, for companies, it becomes necessary to investigate in detail what Millennials' values are, their attitudes about work and career aspirations and why most of them are willing to quit their jobs¹⁸, in order to attract, select and retain new talents and decrease voluntary turnover rates.

1.4.1 Millennials' Expectations and Values

The Millennial generation, born between 1980 and 2000, is massively entering the job market, and is expected to constitute 75% of the global workforce by 2025¹⁹, shaping the business with its aspirations, knowledge and goals.

For instance, Millennials' affinity with technology, which dominates every aspect of their lives, makes them desire to have immediate access to information and influences their preferences for electronic communication, even at work. They are not comfortable with rigid organizational structures, but aspire to a flexible one that can easily fit their needs. Other characteristics distinguishing Millennials from their previous generation, are their desire for continuous learning and fast advancement, but also for a rich and interesting career and a constant feedback (PwC, 2011).

Moreover, they are willing to leave if their expectations are not met. In fact, Millennials' loyalty towards their employers has been deeply influenced by the economic downturn (PwC, 2011). During the next year, 25% of them would leave their employers to join a new one and to do a new job, while only 16% of Millennials see themselves in their current organization in ten years (Deloitte, 2016b). Even the majority of Millennials in senior positions think the

¹⁸ www.forbes.com/sites/ericjackson/2014/05/11/the-top-8-reasons-your-best-people-are-about-to-quit-and-how-you-can-keep-them/#49096957719b.

¹⁹ www.forbes.com/sites/danschawbel/2013/09/04/why-you-cant-ignore-millennials/#645a44176c65.

same way: 57% of them expect to leave the current companies by 2020, representing a loss of talents and money for the firm.

Nevertheless, most of Millennials believe that companies have a positive impact on society, even if their main goal is making profits. In particular, according to them, a business should focus on values such as employee satisfaction, integrity, customer care and high quality, in order to have a long-term success. Millennials wish to join an organization that shares their personal values and would refuse to do something that goes against them. Currently Millennials think that their organizations don't reflect their values, since firms focus mainly on profit maximization, rather than people. Indeed, according to Millennials, profits constitute one of the "Four Ps", featuring a leading organization, but they are not a sufficient condition to determine long-term success, since "people, products and purpose" are also important indicators.

When evaluating job opportunities, money isn't all for Millennials. Indeed, even if financial benefits "drive Millennials' choice of organization more than anything else" (Deloitte, 2016b, p. 19), it is true that, given the same level of salary, companies can compete on many other elements, to attract talents. Except for money, Millennials' first priority is having a good work/life balance, followed by opportunities to progress and flexible work arrangements. The sense of meaning and training programs are also relevant factors (Figure 1.4).

Figure 1.4: Evaluating job opportunities: the case of Millennials



Q. For each of the following groups of four, please indicate what would be the strongest reason for choosing to work for an organization and what would be the weakest.

[Source: Deloitte, 2016b]

Therefore, Millennials' feelings about business and job opportunities are quite important for companies, by being linked to their loyalty. "Loyalty to an employer is driven by understanding and support of Millennials' career and life ambitions, as well as providing opportunities to progress and become leaders" (Deloitte, 2016b, p. 17).

According to Deloitte (2016b), several actions could be undertaken to attract, select and retain Millennials, which can be summarized in:

Identify, understand, and align with Millennials' values. In particular, having a purpose that goes beyond profit, if shared and believed by Millennials, increases their loyalty;

Satisfy the demands Millennials have of employers. Mentorship is very important for them: those with a mentor other than being advised, feel that someone cares about their career development;

Support Millennials' ambitions and professional development. Employers should offer them the chance to grow, because when Millennials feel satisfied about developmental opportunities, they are likely to stay longer. Moreover, creating the perfect job environment, considering the factors that they value the most in a job, will be surely helpful. Last but not the least, allowing them to feel in control of their careers, by empowering them, can result in higher loyalty as well.

According to the Annual HR Trends and Salary Report 2016, provided by Randstad, almost one third (31.8%) of the Italian firms is already aligning to this trend, by adopting non-monetary incentives to attract and retain under 30 talents²⁰. Economic variables keep being an essential factor, but they can be integrated (or even substituted) with packages that stimulate motivation and determine a more stable and durable relationship with the working reality. In particular, an effective employer branding and an international career was ranked as essential by 38.5% of the respondents. But the Randstad top 10 attraction factors list also includes career growth opportunities, training, bonuses, non-financial rewards (as for instance feedback), flexible job schedules and medical insurance (Randstad, 2016).

Nevertheless, before investing in generation-specific engagement strategies, companies should carefully evaluate "the speculations of profit-oriented consultants" (O'Driscoll et al., 2008, p. 302), trying to understand whether Millennials really want something different from non-Millennials workers.

In fact, even if Millennials gave rise to a new consulting industry, worth \$150 billion a year, a growing body of research proposes that employees' attitudes and values at work are very

²⁰ www.ilsole24ore.com/art/management/2016-07-06/non-solo-stipendi-qualche-consiglio-trattenere-talenti-under-30-080813.shtml?uuid=ADUkvno.

similar, while small inconsistencies are due to age gaps or different stage of life, rather than a specific generation’s membership²¹.

In 2014, IBM took a position on this topic, by running a multigenerational study of 1784 employees, across six industries and 12 countries, from which it emerged that Millennials and older workers are more similar than expected and share many long-term career goals (IBM, 2014), as can be noticed in Figure 1.5. “Work-life balance”, for instance, is considered a long-term career objective by almost the same percentage of Millennials (18%), Generation X (22%) and Baby Boomers (21%) workers. And this similarity in generations’ preferences and values, also stands for the other nine variables considered in the study. This is why it is important to look at the big picture and make comparisons, when doing research, rather than focusing on a single generation.

Figure 1.5: Evaluating job opportunities: a multigenerational study



[Source: IBM, 2014]

This result is confirmed by a study conducted by CNBC in 2015²², where Millennials and non-Millennials workers are asked to rank six work related items, from the most to the least important. Other than being similar in percentages, their answers were also identical in ranking: 1. Strong ethical practices, 2. Work-life balance, 3. Profitability, 4. Workforce diversity, 5. Hiring the best and the brightest, 6. Environmental record. Moreover, 76% of Millennials

²¹ hbr.org/2016/04/what-do-millennials-really-want-at-work.

²² www.cnbc.com/2015/11/03/millennials-not-so-different-when-it-comes-to-work-survey.html.

result satisfied with their opportunities for promotion and 87% with the training they receive at work (against respectively 66% and 76% of the rest of the workforce).

KPMG also investigated the career-related preferences of its workforce, finding little differences between Millennials and other employees (+/- 5% on 70% of the 88 items considered)¹⁶. Therefore, according to these studies, Millennials have many aspects in common with older generations, even if most of them care more about career advancement and flexibility of their work schedule, and less about retirement plans, than their older colleagues. But it is hard to understand whether these differences depend on the specific characteristics of the Millennials' generation or if they are simply the results of a younger workforce.

1.4.2 Voluntary Turnover

According to Barry Salzberg, CEO of Deloitte Global, the previous findings on Millennials “should be viewed as a valuable alarm to the business community, particularly in developed markets, which need to change the way they engage Millennial talent or risk being left behind” (Deloitte, 2015, p. 2). Evidence of this is given by the increasing voluntary turnover rates (Mercer, 2015) and by the high turnover costs that companies need to sustain. In particular, according to Gallup estimates, Millennial turnover costs \$30.5 billion annually to the U.S. economy²³.

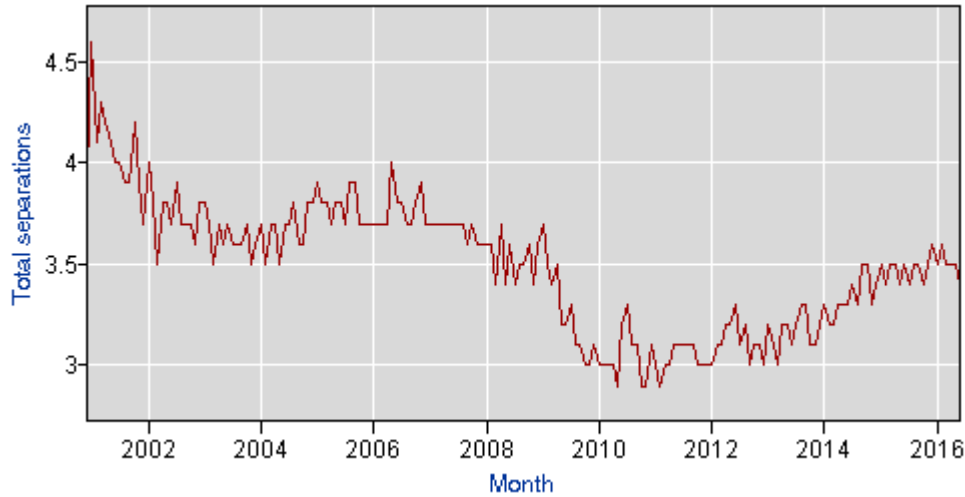
For all these reasons I decided to have a look at seniority and turnover trends in the last decades, in order to identify other potential variables affecting voluntary turnover. How are these trends evolving during the years? Were young people of generations X changing job as quickly as Millennials? Is it a generational or age issue?

If we look at the graph provided by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (Figure 1.6), developed on US workforce, across different industries, we can notice that the average labor turnover dropped by 1 percentage point in 2008 with respect to year 2001, and has been increasing since 2013. Indeed, the financial crisis (2008-2012) may have been a relevant factor affecting turnover rates: during recession periods, in fact, people are reluctant to leave their organizations, even when they don't like their jobs, because they are afraid not to find new ones. Employees usually feel lucky to have a job and become more willing to adapt to existing labor market opportunities, and therefore the (voluntary) turnover rate decreases. On the contrary, in the years following the economic downturn, workers become more confident of finding a

²³ www.gallup.com/businessjournal/191459/millennials-job-hopping-generation.aspx.

new job after leaving their organizations, and this is why the turnover rate increases (as illustrated also in Figure 1.6).

Figure 1.6: Average turnover in the US workforce since 2000



[Source: <http://data.bls.gov/pdq/SurveyOutputServlet>]

Therefore, the rising turnover rates, recouping to the pre-crisis levels, may be interpreted as a positive sign, being influenced by the economic recovery.

Since this data varies from country to country, I decided to focus on Italian labor market, which workforce will be considered for the purpose of this thesis later on. In particular, if we analyze the job tenure²⁴ composition during the last 20 years, some (little) variations across different time categories²⁵ are noticeable (Figure 1.7). The majority of the workforce (on average 66%) has been working for 5 years and over, the minority (on average 10%) for less than 1 year, while 23% (on average) of them for 1 to 5 years. In particular, as for the two shortest time categories, the percentage of workers slowly increases until 2008/2009, while decreasing afterwards²⁶. This is possible thanks to the opposite movement of the percentage of employees working for 5 years and over, which firstly decreases and later increases again.

These trends are accentuated when observing the tenure composition of 25-29-year-old workers. Indeed, the percentage of employees working for less than 1 year is higher than the previous case and more than doubles from 1995 to 2015 (Figure 1.8). This increase is reflected on

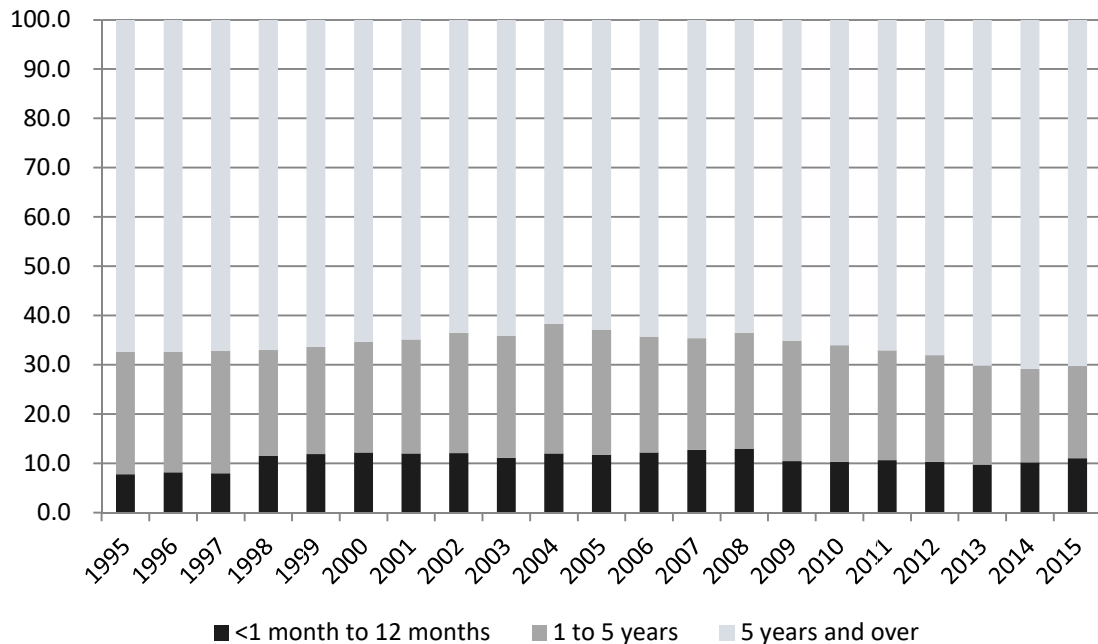
²⁴ Job tenure is measured by the length of time workers have been in their current or main job or with their current employer. This information is valuable for estimating the degree of fluidity in the labour market and in identifying the areas of economic activity where the turnover of labour is rapid or otherwise.

²⁵ < 1 month to 12 months; 1 to 5 years; 5 years and over.

²⁶ Despite the increase of the percentage of employees < 1 year since 2014.

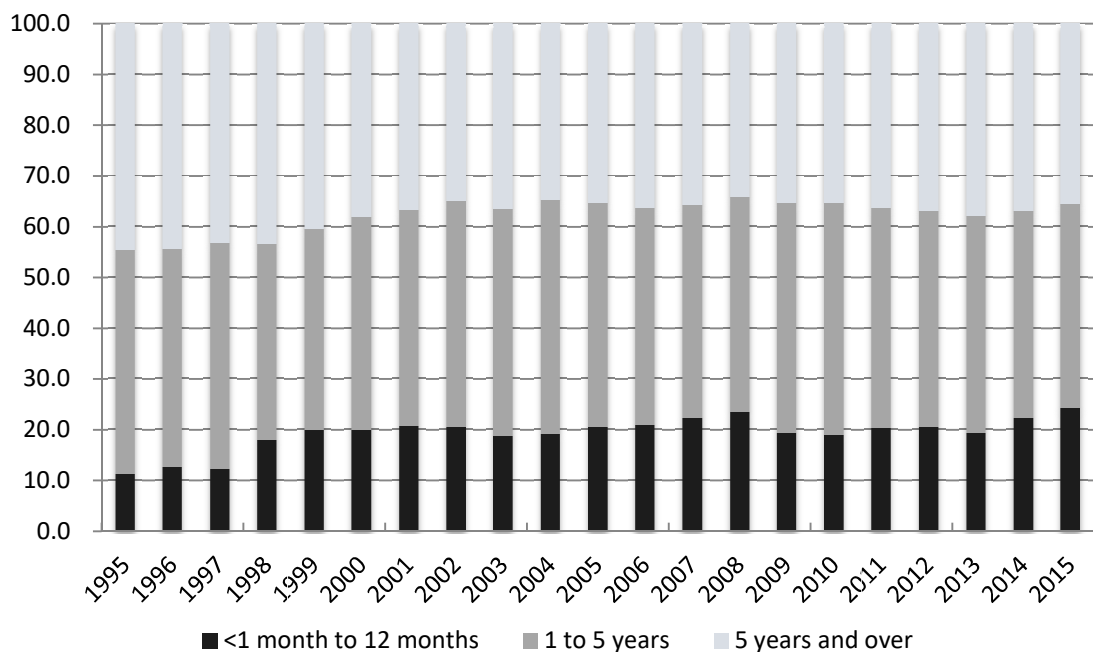
a decrease of the percentage of those employees working in the organization for more years and partially supports the findings on Millennials' loyalty previously reported.

Figure 1.7: Tenure composition of Italian workforce since 1995 (dependent employment, percentage)



[Source: <http://stats.oecd.org/#>]

Figure 1.8: Tenure composition of Italian 25-29-year-old workforce since 1995 (dependent employment, percentage)



[Source: <http://stats.oecd.org/#>]

However, this lower job tenure among new generations may also be attributed to other external variables, such as the increase of short-term contracts for new employees, who are obliged to change their job after a few years or months, the economic downturn or simply.

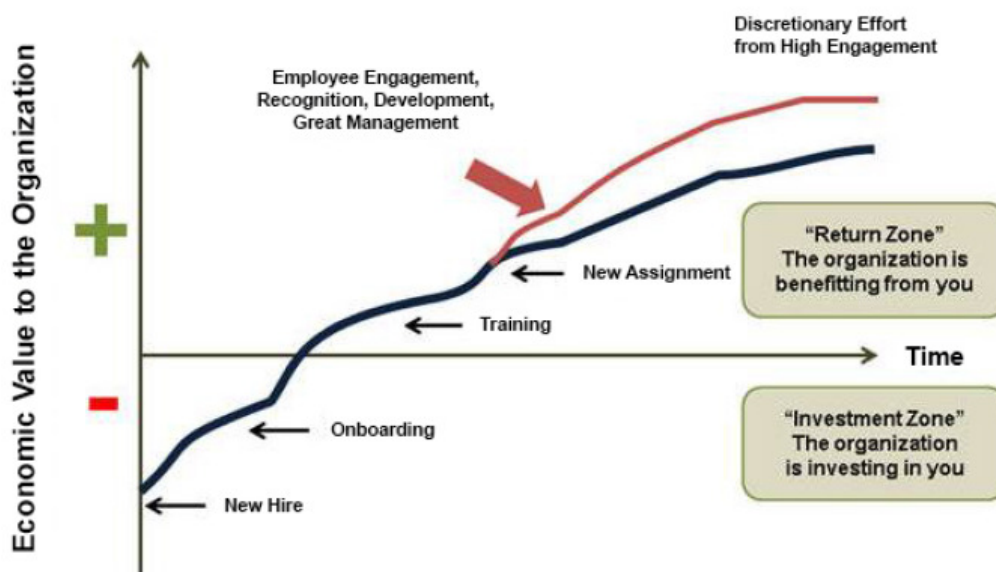
Finally, as for the average composition, the majority of the workforce has been within the same company either for 1 to 5 years (43%) or for 5 years and over (38%), probably due to the young age of the workers.

In general, the reasons of attrition between employees and their organization are quite steady across the years: they don't like their boss, don't see growth opportunities, are offered a more flexible or well paid work (CEB, 2015).

On the one hand, employee turnover is good to refresh the organization, to innovate and bring new ideas, to align to the new skills required, to promote people who deserve it and replace poor performance. On the other hand, turnover is critical for an organization because it may result in the loss of key know how and skills that are difficult to replace with the external pool of talent and therefore may have a negative impact on the business (Mercer, 2015).

Voluntary turnover represents a problem and a cost also for those firms that, being aware of the scarce loyalty of young generations, prefer to rely on external resources, rather than engaging in the existing ones. This is clear in Figure 1.9, where it is shown that employees constitute a cost for companies, during the first six to nine months. In fact, as people spend more time in the same firm, they “become more and more productive in their roles, and hopefully obtain additional skills to accelerate their performance over time” (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015, p. 37).

Figure 1.9: Cost to Value of an employee



[Source: Bersin by Deloitte, 2015]

When the workforce is highly engaged, employees' performance are even higher. On the contrary, when people leave the organization and new hires enter it, the company incurs in many costs, among which are: cost of hiring, loss of productivity (the area under the curve), diminished learning curve of the new employee. Indeed, even if the new hire has excellent skills, he may need one or more years to become as productive as the one leaving the organization (Bersin by Deloitte, 2015).

1.5 Conclusion

In this chapter I have firstly discussed the main trends and challenges that HR officers and companies need to address in the next years, dwelling on engagement, learning, development and talent mobility, all elements related to career progress and employee retention.

Secondly, I dealt with the evolution of talent management practices in the last decades, realizing that nowadays organizations are pushing individuals to self-manage their own careers, going from an organizational towards an individual career management approach.

Finally, I have described career management from the individual and organizational perspectives. If on the one hand, young candidates from the Millennials' generation have high expectations from employers and are willing to change organization as soon as they are offered a better job opportunity, on the other hand firms struggle to attract, select and engage this new workforce and minimize turnover costs.

In a historical period in which employee voluntary turnover is high, consumer demand uncertain and changes in the job market fast, which are the roles of the organization and which of the individual in shaping careers? Do supervisors play an important role in this relationship, given the fact that conflicts are one of the principal causes of employee turnover? Are organizational and individual career management substitute or complementary, in determining career progress? Which are their effects on turnover and career success? Are they equally relevant?

These are just some of the questions that I will address in the following chapters.

OCM, ICM & PSS:

DEFINITION, EFFECTS, INTERACTIONS IN THE EXISTING LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Arnold (1997, cited in Sturges et al., 2002, p. 732) refers to career management as the “attempts made to influence the career development of one or more people” and may assume a more or less formal structure, from training courses to mentoring and career planning. Career management can be defined also as “the process by which individuals develop insight into themselves and their environment, formulate career goals and strategies, and acquire feedback regarding career progress” (Greenhaus et al., 2000, cited in Eby et al., 2005, p. 567).

When these practices are planned and implemented by companies, we can talk about “organizational career management”, on the opposite of “career self-management”, where the individual takes control of its own career.

In the previous chapter I investigated the roles that organizations and individuals play in determining employees’ career success and growth. Traditionally, firms are those in charge of managing careers, by providing stable structures for advancement and by offering learning and development programs (Althausen & Kallenberg, 1981, cited in Cappelli & Keller, 2014). However, recently the concept of “career” has evolved, because of the dramatic changes of the competitive environment (Cappelli, 1995; Jacoby, 2005). Indeed, the responsibility of managing employees’ careers has shifted from the firms to individuals (Arthur et al., 2005), who are expected to take care of their own growth, by engaging in different kinds of proactive behaviours.

The organization-individual relationship is mediated by a third actor, the company supervisor, who is expression of the organization itself and closely interacts with employees, by giving them feedback, advices and support.

Career-related activities, taken by these three actors, and their effects on individual performance (e.g. life satisfaction, subjective and objective career success..) have been investigated by many researchers in the last decades.

In the following paragraphs, I will report and summarize the main results from these studies, in order to identify the direct and indirect effects of organizational, individual and supervi-

supervisor's efforts on employees' performance. The previous practices will be categorized respectively as: organizational career management (OCM), enacted managerial aspirations (EMA) and perceived supervisor support (PSS). Moreover, interactions and correlations among OCM, EMA and PSS will be taken into account, to highlight potential moderators and/or particular relationships among these three variables. In fact, OCM and EMA are not mutually exclusive, but "are expected to complement one another" (De Vos et al., 2009, p. 56).

The results from this research, and the eventual gaps in the existing literature, will be crucial to frame the new theoretical model, involving OCM, EMA and PSS, to be tested in the next chapters.

2.2 Organizational Career Management (OCM)

There are many definitions of organizational career management. Gutteridge (1986, cited in Baruch & Peiperl, 2000) initially refers to it as the procedures adopted by the organization to support employees' development. Organizational career management can also be defined as "...the various policies and practices, deliberately established by organizations, to improve the career effectiveness of their employees" (Orpen, 1994, p. 28). Even if the content of these activities may be different across firms, they share common characteristics and goals for which they are easy to identify, such as helping employees to clarify their career aspirations, providing customized career opportunities to the employees who really deserve them or evaluating the results of the career management programs.

De Vos et al. (2009, p. 58) describe it as the set of "activities undertaken by the organization to plan and manage the career of its employees". In OCM "planning" (anticipating the future) and "management" (implementing the plans) are actions performed by the organization, on the contrary of individual career models (Baruch & Budhwar, 2006).

Although the topicality of individual career concepts, such as the "protean career" (Hall, 2004) or the "boundary less career" (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), a relationship between the organization and the individuals is still present in these new models, even if less permanently (Brousseau et al., 1996, cited in Baruch & Budhwar, 2006). For this reason, it is important to take into account also organizational practices, when analyzing career management.

2.2.1 Career Management practices

A variety of career management practices are treated in the literature, even if most of them can be incorporated under Schein’s broad notion of “organizational career system”, able to identify, plan, develop and manage human resources, during their whole career cycle (Schein, 1978, cited in Baruch, 2003).

Career management practices include a “wide range of programs and interventions that focus on both the internal (e.g. self-assessment tools) and external career (e.g. career pathing)” (Eby et al., 2005, p. 567). In line with Gutteridge et al.’s (1993) ideas, HRM literature describes how firms usually create integrated packages of human resource management practices, in order to reinforce the culture and the strategy of the organization. In particular, numerous career management practices can be identified and classified into four main categories (Eby et al., 2005).

The studies by Gutteridge and Otte (1983), Gutteridge et al. (1993), Baruch (1996, 1999), Baruch & Peiperl (2000) and Eby et al. (2005) were considered, in order to identify the main career management activities, to be reported later on (Figure 2.1).

The first two categories focus on the internal career and indicate employees’ efforts in managing their careers (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). **Self-exploration and assessment** activities are included in the first category. Self- exploration is the first step in career management, since it aims at identifying one’s strengths and interests and concentrates on career goal setting. Important outcomes of this activity should be improved awareness, and more realistic career decisions. Examples of self-exploration practices are career assessment and experiences that allow employees to have a preview of different positions or occupations, like mentoring programs and internships.

Figure 2.1: Career Management practices classified by category

1. SELF-EXPLORATION & ASSESSMENT	2. CAREER PLANNING	3. SKILL-DEVELOPMENT	4. INTERNAL LABOR MARKET INFORMATION
Assessment and Development centers	Career counselling by direct manager and by the HRM unit	Formal education International career opportunities	Booklets Dual ladder
Lateral moves		Performance Appraisal (also by peers and/or collaborators)	Posting on internal job openings
Mentoring	Career workshops	Retirement preparation programs	Succession planning Flexible work arrangements

Assessment and development centers. Assessment centers were initially used as selection tools for managerial positions, but they have been found to be a reliable instrument also for career development (Thornton et al., 1997). Therefore, development centers have deeply changed in the last decades, being directed more towards the development of the manager for future roles, rather than towards personnel selection (Baruch, 1999). Support for the effectiveness of assessment centers has been provided (Laser, 1990, cited in Baruch, 1999), even if only large firms can afford an internal center, while small firms rely on external ones.

Lateral moves. Job rotations are horizontal shifts that allow managers and employees to create a cross-functional experience within the company. Nowadays they are a crucial point of most of the HRM systems, especially in flat organizations. Indeed, where there are less hierarchical levels, it is difficult to implement traditional upward advancement, while lateral moves are more appropriate. However, it becomes fundamental to communicate the value of job rotations to employees, who may link lateral moves to failure rather than career success (Baruch, 1999).

Mentoring. The main goal of mentoring programs is to provide tutoring and advice from a senior manager, to a person with managerial potential. It is used especially in graduate recruitment programmes and targets mostly managerial personnel. Mentoring's potential has been studied by many researchers (Scandura, 1998; Baugh et al., 1996). In particular, Kram (1986, cited in Baruch, 1999) suggests that the practice of mentoring has benefits both on mentors and protégés and that mentoring relationships can be framed by the organization. Nevertheless, there are also disadvantages related to mentoring practices, such as negative relations, sabotage, difficulty and spoiling (Scandura, 1998). Other issues may be the conflict of interests between the mentor and the direct manager, or the scarcity of available mentors, especially in flat organizations, a problem that may be solved with new ideas, like the adoption of peer mentoring. Another solution may be advertising the role of mentor as a status symbol for loyal managers, a sign of prestige and recognition (Baruch, 1999).

Career planning, instead, constitutes the second category of internally focused, career management activities. Individuals are supported by the organization in learning and integrating their weaknesses and strengths into individualized career goals (Greenhaus et al., 2000, cited in Eby et al., 2005). Career planning workshops and personal career counselling are examples of career planning activities.

Career counselling by direct manager and by the HRM unit. The direct manager is often the most indicated person to practice career counselling, because of his/her direct knowledge of the worker. In order to be beneficial for employees, the counsellor must be informed about the company's long term goals and the available career opportunities, beyond not being in con-

flict with his role of manager. Unfortunately, direct managers are often not trained to counsel and perceive counselling as a compulsory task to be fulfilled. Career counselling can be conducted also by the HR unit staff that is aware of the vision of the organization and has the skills and the expertise for counselling, although being detached from the firm's reality. To overcome these disadvantages, individuals may rely on both managers and HR staff, but also on external counselling, especially when they have to deal with personal issues (Baruch, 1999).

Career workshops. They are short-term workshops treating specific career management aspects, whose main goal is to provide managers with important skills, knowledge and experience. Employee's effectiveness can be improved through the participation in these career workshops that tend to focus on specific aspects, like the identification of future opportunities, rather than on general development. Furthermore employees' employability can benefit from career workshops, improving their career resilience. When structural changes are frequent, people will need this kind of workshops, in order to adapt more easily to the transformation. The decision of sending employees to career workshop can be made by their mentor, manager or HR unit. The future of career workshops is likely to focus both on intra and inter organizational opportunities, with the increasing restructuring and redundancies organizations are going through. In particular, they may concentrate on how to create joint ventures or satellite companies, how to increase employability or how to manage management buy-outs, allowing the participants to develop insights on their future careers, within or outside the organization (Baruch, 1999).

The next categories focus on the external career (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, cited in Eby et al., 2005) and reflect the efforts of helping individuals to carry out their personal career plans, in line with the organizational needs and career opportunities. In this way, organizations also succeed in educating employees for future works within the organization. Training opportunities and **skill-building** provision are just some examples of these practices that allow individuals to reach their career objectives, thanks to structured learning experiences (Greenhaus et al., 2000, cited in Eby et al., 2005). In general, the common goal of these practices is the transformation in employee skills, behaviours on the job or knowledge that should bring to the maximization of an organization human capital. These efforts include training and development activities, both formal or informal, in-house (involving corporate staff) or external, like formal education or off-site seminars.

Formal education, international career opportunities, retirement preparation programs and performance appraisal are examples of career management activities belonging to this category.

Formal education as part of career development. It is the practice under which organizations select people with managerial or technical potential and offer them a formal program of study. It can be an MBA, a degree in engineering or other graduate or postgraduate paths for managerial personnel, but also professional courses for non-managerial employees. Individuals, alternatively, can also ask to participate to such programs, if they desire so. MBA is the programme more frequently used to develop managerial skills, and when obtained in a prestigious business school, is more likely to have positive effects on career progress, managerial competence and remuneration. However, because of new short-term contract era, it is always more difficult and less profitable for firms to offer this kind of education, because of the insecurity of the investment, while organizations prefer to hire educated people to save on formal education costs (Baruch, 1999).

International career opportunities. International mobility, in the form of international job rotation, long-term international assignments or multinational team assignments, has been described as one of the most effective practices that companies can undertake to develop intercultural competence and talent (Stroh & Caligiuri, 1998). Even senior executives seem to agree, since in a recent survey most of them reported that international assignments are the “most powerful experience in shaping the perspective and capabilities of effective global leaders” (Black et al., 1999, cited in Stahl et al., 2009, p. 90), by offering them the possibility to build a global network, but also to improve their management skills. Moreover, four out of five managers desire to undertake an international assignment in their careers and consider it also as an experience for personal growth.

Retirement preparation programs. This practice is directed at those employees that are about to retire and so, leave the organization. Retirement preparation programs may be short term, like a workshop during three days in total, spread during the last months of work. An investment of this type is a sign of high commitment from the organization towards its employees and is predicted to be decreasing in the next future. Admittedly, the necessity of retirement preparation depends on employees’ maturity and on the organizational age. Since in the near future we will see fewer employees leaving the organization at their legal retirement age, retirement preparation programs are expected to be substituted by other prevailing practices, like pre-redundancy programs, for instance. Pre-redundancy programs aim at preparing the employees to the chance of being fired by the organization, and help them in understanding a possible reaction plan. Individuals are trained to search for a new job and eventually, to fight against the “survivor syndrome”, in the case in which they are not fired (Baruch, 1999).

Performance appraisal. Typically, performance appraisal is an annual process for managers to evaluate their subordinates and take the related decisions (Jacobson & Kaye, 1986, cited in

Baruch, 1999) and can be used for HR purposes as balance sheets are used for accountancy systems. However, this appraisal may also be done by different actors, such as peers. Many studies highlighted the importance of having a strong connection between career development and performance appraisal system, in order to fill the gap between performance appraisal theory and its implementation. Among all the practices, this is the most fundamental one, since its results can be used to assess many other human resource activities. Indeed, it can help in understanding who should be promoted or fired in case of downsizing, or the needs of the employees in terms of learning and development, and the related selection for future development. Therefore, performance appraisal may become the base for an integrated OCM system (Baruch, 1999).

The last category also concentrates on external career and gives employees the **information about the internal labor market**, a system of employment policies and administrative rules that should support employees in obtaining sequent works within an organization (Cappelli & Cascio, 1991, cited in Eby et al., 2005). Information on career paths and ladders, job posting and succession planning are some of these practices that aim at combining employees with jobs and facilitating internal promotion (Gutteridge et al., 1993).

Booklets and/or pamphlets on career issues. All kinds of career-related information should be formally presented by the company, from career opportunities to OCM practices. Booklets (or their electronic versions) may contain the description of career paths, including the timing and the requisites needed to obtain a certain promotion or the conditions necessary to obtain certain development. The aim of these booklets is to provide information to everyone within the organization, disengaging managers from the task of communicating every single information to their subordinates. These plans should target all employees, even if they are especially important to newcomers, either recently promoted or recruited. Electronic versions of these booklets, by being easier to manage and update, are expected to substitute the paper versions definitely in the near future (Baruch, 1999).

Dual ladder. Dual ladder is a parallel hierarchy, thought for technical or professional staff that allows them to move upwards and being promoted, without covering a managerial role. This practice emerged from the need to create a promotion path for professionals. Indeed, in the past, engineers were often promoted to managerial positions, because of the lack of a recognition system for professionals, ending up with poor managers. Therefore, dual ladder targets a specific type of employee: professionals without the skills or the intention (or sometimes the organizational conditions) of conducting a managerial position. Several large firms utilize this technique and will keep using it also in the future, because of the new emerging roles of the

professional experts, which are not managers but still work in crucial roles, with a high remuneration and responsibility (Baruch, 1999).

Posting (advertising) internal job openings. Job posting is the practice of prioritizing internal over external candidates for potential vacancies, by publishing job offers within the organizational boundaries. Advertising internal job openings is crucial for an organization, because it signals to the employees the extent to which their employer focuses on internal labor market, when looking for candidates. Therefore, it also constitutes also a motivation and retention factor for companies. Traditionally, this kind of advertising was offered on notice-boards or in newsletters, even though there has been a shift towards e-mails recently (Baruch, 1999).

Succession planning. Succession planning, by its nature, targets mainly the managerial workforce. Indeed, it is an organizational planning system that aims at determining the possible successor of every manager in the organization, evaluating the promotion potential of each manager at the same time. It can be particularly valuable when plans are long-term oriented and the organizational structure is hierarchical. Nevertheless, even flat organizations may benefit from succession planning, when lateral moves are implemented. As already seen, this technique results to be less predictive in the last decades, characterized by higher turnover rates and less loyalty of managers (Baruch, 1999).

Leibman et al. (1996, cited in Baruch, 1999) suggested a different, more flexible and dynamic approach to succession planning, called “succession management”, focusing on leadership and competencies of managers.

Flexible work arrangements. They are work options that help employees in finding a work-life balance and manage work and non-work tasks successfully (Allen et al., 2013). Flexible work arrangements are defined in this way either because of the flexibility in choosing “where” to complete the work (telecommuting or flexplace) or “when” to complete the work (flextime or scheduling flexibility), like for instance the part-time work schedule (Rau & Hyland, 2002). These practices are well-known by organizations, which use them to attract, motivate and retain talents (Hill et al., 2008).

2.2.2 Impact of OCM on Career Success and Turnover Intention

Career success has been defined as the positive work-related and psychological outcomes accumulated, resulting from the work experiences of an individual (Judge et al., 1995; Seibert et al., 1999).

Career success is often operationalized in two ways by researchers. The first takes into account variables that determine extrinsic or objective career success. They include career suc-

cess' indicators that are visible and therefore can be evaluated objectively, like the number of promotions or salary attainment in one's career (Judge et al., 1995). The second way to operationalize career success is by considering variables that are related to intrinsic or subjective career success. These factors reflect the subjective judgments of one's career attainments, like career and job satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005).

Career success is an important outcome, both for individuals and organizations. Indeed, although representing employees' personal achievements, it may become a predictor of organizational success (Judge et al., 1999). That is one of the reasons why a substantial amount of empirical research has investigated the relationship between objective and subjective career success and organizational career management practices, suggesting that career success is positively influenced by OCM (Orpen, 1994; Ng et al., 2005; Eby et al., 2005).

The results from the career management literature, on the effects of organizational career management practices on career success, are reported later on, firstly focusing on the aggregated and secondly on the single practices. Some career management practices, like performance appraisal, succession planning, career workshops, booklets/pamphlets, dual ladder will be missing, because of a literature gap. However, their effects on career success are studied either in qualitative research (treated in paragraph 2.2.1) or as an aggregated outcome (treated below and in paragraph 2.5).

Correlations between organizational career management practices and career effectiveness can be found in Orpen (1994), for what concerns career success indicators as salary growth, promotions and career satisfaction.

Moreover, Ng et al. (2005) showed that organizational sponsorship (career sponsorship, supervisor support, training and skill development opportunities) positively affects subjective career success (represented by career satisfaction) and enhanced objective career success (salary and promotions).

It has also been demonstrated that career management practices bring to more satisfaction with the promotion process (Eby et al., 2005), while Kong et al. (2012) showed that organizational career management (in this case constituted by career appraisal, career development, and career training) positively affects career satisfaction.

Finally, in a study conducted on a sample of Chinese employees and managers, it has been found that perceived organizational career management (a variable reflecting employees' perception of the support provided by the organization in their career development and of the possibility they had to benefit of these development opportunities) was related both to objective and subjective career success. Indeed, it positively impacts on salary and career satisfaction and negatively on turnover intentions (Guan et al., 2014, 2015).

Later on, the relationship between specific career management practices and career success will be analyzed.

Assessment and development centers. Waldman & Korbar (2004) evaluated the validity of an academic-based assessment center, in relation to career progress, in its early stages. The sample was constituted by undergraduate business students that participated in a day of activities organized by the assessment center (interview simulation, oral presentation exercises, leaderless group discussion, etc.). Assessment center's performance has been found to be predictive of early career progress, measured in the form of number of promotions, current salary and job satisfaction. Academic graduates have been studied also by Jansen & Vinkenbunrg (2005), to assess the validity of assessment centers in predicting career advancement. The relevance of variables like importance of interpersonal effectiveness, firmness and ambition for long-term career success, has been confirmed for all groups of students, regardless of their tenure within the organization. Instead, the validity of the overall assessment rating (OAR) in predicting early and late career success (final salary levels), was significant only in the long-tenured group of students (those that were still present in the organization after 12 years), and its validity increased over time.

Lateral moves. Regarding lateral moves, it has been demonstrated that the frequency over time of job rotation positively affects salary growth and promotion rate (Campion et al., 1994). Indeed, the literature suggests that job rotation is connected to promotion and salary in many ways. In mobility research, it has been showed that the rate of future work change can be predicted from the pace of past work change and that the number of job experiences is critical for career attainment (Anderson et al., 1981; Gabarro, 1987, both cited in Campion et al., 1994). Moreover, broad experience within an organization is connected to promotion, as consequence of the acquisition by the employees of company-specific skills, which pushes organizations to look among internal talents for new job vacancies (Markham et al., 1987, cited in Campion et al., 1994). It has been also showed that lateral moves positively affect objective career success (salary), even if the wage increase is higher for people that experienced upward mobility (promotion). This difference is more pronounced for those graduated in 1970 than for 1990 graduates, suggesting that the direction (lateral, upward or downward) of one's mobility is becoming a less decisive indicator of his wage (Colakoglu, 2011).

Mentoring. Some other researchers investigated the role of mentoring in perceiving career success. Ensher et al. (2001) identified three kinds of "mentor support": vocational, social and role modeling, and found that only vocational support (operationalized as information, services and status) significantly and positively predicted protégés' subjective career success. Protégés reported that the role modeling and vocational support provided by traditional men-

tors was significantly higher than that provided by step-ahead or peer mentors, and therefore protégés' job satisfaction and satisfaction in general were higher with traditional mentors. In a study involving Swiss doctors held by Stamm et al. (2011), the positive impact of mentoring (career support, having a mentor) on subjective and objective career success is evident. These results confirmed a previous study held by Peluchette (1993), where it emerged that both the activity of mentoring and networking positively affected subjective career success. Career mentoring is shown to be positively related to employees' promotability, a subjective variable assessed by their supervisors (Wayne et al., 1999). Finally, mentoring has been found to predict promotion and advancement expectations (Singh et al., 2009).

Career counselling by direct manager and by the HRM unit. Verbruggen et al. (2007) demonstrated that experiencing organizational career management (intended in this case as counselling) positively affects career satisfaction. Moreover, the positive impact of career counselling on career satisfaction was studied also by De Vos and Soens (2008), who showed how individuals receiving career counselling reported high levels of career satisfaction and perceived employability, especially if they had a protean career attitude.

Formal education as part of career development. Burke and McKeen (1994) analyzed the relationship between training and development activities and subjective career success for women. Training and development activities were measured by the participation rate to the training activities and their perceived usefulness, while career success was determined by: job satisfaction, intention to quit, career satisfaction, job involvement and career prospects. In this study, they showed that training and development activities positively affect all the variables measuring subjective career success (except for intention to quit, which was negatively affected). Secondly, Burke (2001) highlighted the positive impact of training and development activities on career satisfaction.

International career opportunities. International exposure is becoming increasingly important for managers, suggesting that companies are more likely to promote and reward executives with an international work experience. Indeed, international assignments enhance the acquisition of a global mindset and global management skills, beyond developing a network of international contacts (Stahl et al., 2009). Therefore, candidates with international experience were more likely to receive more promotions (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005) and early career responsibility (Bolino, 2007), but also to be chosen for the position of CEO (Magnusson & Boggs, 2006), than their colleagues with no international experience.

However, empirical papers showed contrasting results on the effects of international experience on pay (Ng et al., 2005; Carpenter et al., 2001): while Ng et al. (2005) show that international experience has a positive effect on salary in general, Carpenter et al. (2001) found that

this positive relationship is significant (for CEOs) when organizations have broad global postures. For what concerns career advancement instead, it has been demonstrated that, contrary to the expectations, international assignments slow managers' ascent to the top, proportionally to the length and the numbers of assignments. Moreover, international assignments at organizations different from the current one and assignments taken at later stages in one's career are likely to damage career advancement (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2011).

Retirement preparation programs. Glamser (1981) investigated the effects of retirement preparation programs on the retirement experience of their participants. Even if no significant impact was found on variables like life satisfaction, attitude toward retirement, job deprivation,.. the results suggested that the benefits of such programs may be short term and particularly relevant for the pre-retirement phase.

Flexible work arrangements. Regarding flexible work arrangements, a study conducted by Parasuraman et al. (1996) showed that schedule inflexibility and subjective career success are negatively related. On the one hand, schedule inflexibility negatively affects family satisfaction and on the other hand it predicts life stress. Indeed, the more inflexible the work schedule, the more time commitment to work. This brings to higher work-to-family conflict, which leads to higher life stress. Therefore, the level of flexibility of work arrangements positively affects work-family balance. These results are confirmed by Hill et al.'s (2001) study, analyzing the effects of perceived job flexibility on work-family balance, which are positively related. Moreover, individuals perceiving job flexibility can work more hours, before workload negatively impacts their work-family balance.

2.3 Individual Career Management (ICM)

Because of the increasing uncertainty of the competitive environment, the responsibility of managing one's career has been recently shifting from organizations (OCM) to individuals, who in turn need to engage in specific career-related initiative, in order to advance and develop themselves professionally (Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

A similar change has been experienced in career literature, with an emergent emphasis on notions such as enacted managerial aspirations, individual proactive career behaviours and career-self management.

Enacted managerial aspirations (EMA) constitute an important part of the broader concept of "managerial aspirations". Managerial career aspirations express employees' desires for positions of influence and responsibility (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003); they "appear to influence ca-

reer attitudes and behaviours when difficulties exist for progression into or within the managerial hierarchy” (Tharenou & Terry, 1998, p. 478).

In the literature, two main elements of career aspirations can be identified: a subjective measure of ambitions or desired aspirations, and a behavioural measure of enacted aspirations. Indeed, personal desires are an important motivational factor, when advancement is difficult, that enables the constancy and the high effort necessary to progress (Tharenou & Terry, 1998). Enacted aspirations, instead, “reflect the demonstrated actions and career strategies used to achieve managerial advancement” (Eddleston, 2009, p. 91). Networking, extended work involvement and participating in developmental opportunities are just examples of these demonstrated actions.

Instead, “proactive career behaviours include the deliberate actions undertaken by individuals in order to realize their career goals” (De Vos, 2009, p. 763). They are an example of proactive behaviour applied to a specific context (e.g. career management). Similarly to managerial aspirations, many indicators of proactive career behaviours have been identified, both cognitive and behavioural (Kuijpers et al., 2006; Sturges et al., 2000, 2002).

Cognitive components represent the insights people develop in their career aspirations, while behavioural components refer to the behaviours they engage in, to manage their careers. The importance of cognitions in predicting career success has been addressed by several studies (Eby et al., 2003; Kuipers et al., 2006), that underline the importance of developing career insights, to make purposeful and conscious career-related choices. In particular, career planning is considered a relevant component of proactive career behaviours, especially for graduates. Career planning comprehends exploring options, setting goals and formulating plans, towards a meaningful career management. Regarding behavioural components instead, networking is one of the most crucial for career success (Sturges et al., 2002; King, 2004; Forret & Dougherty, 2004). Indeed, networking refers to the actions made by individuals, to create and nurture relationships with influential people that have the possibility to assist and support them in their career, providing advice, information and advocacy for promotion or employment (Forret & Dougherty, 2004).

Finally, career self-management (CSM) refers to the “degree to which one regularly gathers information and plans for career problem solving and decision making” (Quigley & Tymon, 2006, p. 523). This concept has a noticeable heritage in academic literature that goes back to Whyte’s (1956, cited in King, 2004) and Kanter’s (1977, cited in King, 2004) research, exploring the ways in which executives and managers progressed in big corporations, and lately in I/O psychology writings, on the determinants of career success (e.g. Seibert et al., 2001). Career self-management became relevant as the nature of careers changed (Kossek et al.,

1998), since it may constitute one possible solution to the unpredictable and sometimes chaotic organizational life that individuals face nowadays (King, 2004). Recently, considerable attention has been given to the type of practices that individuals can initiate, in order to successfully manage their careers (Inkson, 2001; King, 2001). According to Kossek et al. (1998), career self-management includes developmental feedback seeking and job mobility preparedness behaviours. Developmental feedback seeking is the degree to which an individual looks for feedback on career development and performance. This feedback, coming from different sources (boss, clients, peers), is necessary to assess one's talents realistically and therefore create appropriate career plans. Instead, job mobility preparedness is the extent to which people are proactive in gathering information regarding new jobs (both internal and external opportunities) and in preparing to move in that direction. Examples of these behaviours include developing networks of useful contacts, keeping an updated resume or identifying the next position to achieve. Another possible classification of career self-management behaviours, suggested by King (2004), is the following: positioning, influence and boundary management behaviours. Positioning behaviours are those actions individuals engage in to make sure they have the experience, skills and contacts to obtain their desired career goals. Influence behaviours, instead, are concerned with influencing key gatekeepers decisions, to reach those outcomes. Finally, boundary management is related to the ability of balancing work and non-work life.

2.3.1 Impact of ICM on Career Success and Turnover Intention

Like organizational career management, individual career management is also found to be an important predictor of subjective and objective career success. The results will be reported later on, focusing initially on enacted managerial aspirations' literature and afterwards on the studies regarding proactive career behaviours and career self-management.

Tharenou and Terry (1998) assessed the validity of the scales used to measure desired and enacted managerial aspirations and described how they affect objective career success. Indeed, they noticed that individuals, aspiring to high managerial levels, were more willing to move to advance and experienced less plateauing (career plateau is one's career high point, where the likelihood of advancement is low). Some years later, Tharenou (2001) confirmed these results, highlighting that managerial aspirations are the strongest indicators of advancing in management, after promotion opportunities and human capital. However, the positive impact of enacted managerial aspirations on salary progression and promotion has been treated also by other researchers (Crant & Kraimer, 2001).

According to other studies, enacted managerial aspirations have positive effects even on intrinsic career success indicators, like career satisfaction.

Since people use social comparisons to evaluate their career accomplishments (Buunk et al., 2003, cited in Eddleston, 2009), the behaviours performed to obtain those attainments (enacted aspirations) could be crucial in understanding how these comparisons impact on career satisfaction. Indeed, high enacted aspirations may help individuals who make upward comparisons to perceive themselves as closer to their role models, reducing in this way inferiority feelings and increasing positive affect (Gibson, 2004). The same is expected to happen when employees make downward comparisons: enacted aspirations could be the factor explaining the higher success of one's career, increasing career satisfaction. However, Eddleston (2009) proved the validity only of this last prediction, since enacted aspirations have been found to be a moderator of the relationship between downward comparisons and career satisfaction (and turnover intentions). In particular, high enacted aspirations increase career satisfaction and lower turnover intentions of individuals who often compare themselves with downward referents.

Additionally, Crant and Kraimer (2001) found a significant and positive relationship between career initiative (EMA) and career satisfaction. In their study, they focused on three kinds of behaviours, related to career advancement: skill development, consultation with senior personnel and career planning (Tharenou & Terry, 1998), that they aggregated to form the "career initiative" variable. Indeed, previous research showed that career planning positively impacts on career satisfaction, in line with goal-setting theory (Aryee & Yaw, 1993, cited by Crant & Kraimer, 2001), and that senior colleagues mentoring has a positive influence on job satisfaction (Seibert, 1999). The impact of career planning has also been investigated by Ng et al. (2005, p. 380), who describe it as "the extent to which employees reported taking the initiative in making personal career plans" and reported career planning to have a positive influence on salary and career satisfaction.

Moreover, Lang and Zapf (2015) showed that proactivity and management aspirations mediate the gender-passive search²⁷ relationship: even if men engage more in passive search than women, the difference between men and women decreases thanks to proactive behaviours and management aspirations.

Even career self-management, "the proactivity employees show with respect to managing their career" (De Vos et al., 2009, p. 57), is an important predictor of objective and subjective

²⁷ Passive job seekers are those individuals engaging in career self-management behaviours, like looking for career guidance, networking, self-presentation, creating opportunities (Gould & Penley, 1984, cited in Lang & Zapf, 2015).

career success. In particular, De Vos et al. (2009) showed that career self-management positively impacts on perceived career success. This because individuals high on career self-management don't wait passively for decisions to be taken about their careers, but increase the possibility to reach their career objectives and therefore they tend to feel successful (Arthur et al., 2005, cited in De Vos et al., 2009).

King (2004) explored the relationship of career self-management with subjective career success, finding that on the one hand career self-management (intended as positioning, influence and boundary management) can improve one's control perceptions over his career, bringing to career satisfaction, but on the other hand, it can also lead to maladjustments and negative outcomes. Indeed, when an individual engages in career self-management behaviours, without obtaining the desired career results, his perceived control doesn't improve. One possible solution may be to persist with the same behaviours, when the person thinks that there is still a chance to reach his own career goals. However, when even this strategy doesn't work, the individual may give up with career self-management behaviours, experiencing a state of frustration. Indeed, repeated failures in controlling his own career decreases control expectations, which reduces "motivation arousal for reactance". This is perfectly in line with Vroom's expectancy theory, and in particular with the "expectancy" factor, which is the perceived likelihood that effort leads to a desired outcome. When this expectancy is missing, the individual lacks the motivation to act in the first place (Van Eerde, 1996).

For the same reasons, in 2009, Tharenou et al. found that agentic capital negatively affects career satisfaction, while positively influencing turnover intentions. Agentic capital was intended in this case as the "individual's engagement in proactive behaviours aimed at achieving career goals and aspirations" (Tharenou et al., 2009, p. 59).

Literature suggests that employees with high career self-management look for opportunities that enable them to modify their job scope or to advance in their careers towards desired jobs or positions within the company (Crant, 2000). This is why, logically, career self-management cannot lead only to positive feelings about intrinsic career success, but also to career advancement, since it increases individuals' employment and development options, beyond their contractual power to negotiate with their employers. Seibert et al. (2001) discovered that employees taking more initiatives, to develop their careers in an upward direction, reported higher level of career advancement and more salary and promotions progression.

These results are also confirmed by an earlier study conducted by Orpen (1994), who found a significant correlation between individual career management and indicators of career effectiveness (salary, promotions, career performance and satisfaction), even if individual practices were found to positively impact only on salary growth, career performance and satisfaction.

Finally, De Vos et al. (2008) demonstrated that individual career management positively impacts on vertical career moves (promotion), temporary moves and moves related to job enrichment, while organizational career management has no effects on them.

2.4 Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)

In the previous paragraphs, I analyzed the relationship between the organization and its employees, focusing on the practices that can be undertaken, in order to manage their careers successfully (organizational and individual career management). However, this analysis would be incomplete if it did not consider the mediating role of the supervisor.

Some studies suggest that perceptions of support are more relevant than objective indicators, because perceptions affect cognitive appraisals of situations (Glazer, 2006).

Perceived supervisor support is “the degree to which employees perceive that supervisors offer employees support, encouragement and concern” (Babin & Boles, 1996, p. 60). It is the extent to which individuals feel that their supervisors value their contributions, care about their well-being and are supportive in general (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Supervisors that have been described as supportive by their employees, have been found to be able to effectively manage their subordinates’ emotions, a critical competence in managing organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2002). For employees, supervisors represent their closest organizational link, because of their competence to convey the intentions of the organization directly to their subordinates (Dawley et al., 2008). They act as organizational agents, having direct responsibility for supporting, directing and evaluating their subordinates. That is why they are seen as a personal extension of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and that organizational support theory looks at supervisors’ actions as indicators of the intent of the organization (Levinson, 1965, cited in Eisenberger et al., 2002).

This is one of the reasons why perceived supervisor support has been found to be a predictor and, at the same time, an outcome of perceived organizational support (POS).

Perceived organizational support is defined as the beliefs that employees develop about the extent to which the organization cares about them and values their contributions. Such perception depends on the same process that individuals use to assess the commitment in social relationships in general. Indeed, perceived organizational support is expected to be affected by the extremity, frequency and sincerity of organizational statements of approval and praises (Blau, 1964, cited in Eisenberger et al., 1986). Other kinds of rewards, like rank, pay, job enrichment and influence on organizational policies would impact on perceived support, to the degree that

they represented a positive evaluation by the organization (Brinberg & Castell, 1982, cited in Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Therefore, organizational support would be influenced by many facets of an individual's treatment by the company, and would affect the employees' interpretation of the reasons pushing the organization to act in a specific way. Thus, individuals will begin to expect a certain degree of support from the organization, after a certain event/situation. For instance, they may predict how the organization is likely to react in case of illness, superior performance or mistakes by its employees, or speculate about the desires of the organization to offer a meaningful, interesting and fairly paid work.

Perceiving support would increase employees' expectations of a fair organizational reward for a greater effort, aiming at fulfilling organizational goals. However, at the same time, perceived support also meets individuals' need for approval and praise, and should lead employees to identify themselves in their organizational membership, developing positive emotions towards the organization (affective attachment). Both these results, the effort-outcome expectancy and the emotional bond would push the employees to make a greater effort, to achieve organizational goals (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

2.4.1 Impact of PSS on Career Success and Turnover Intention

Intuitively, individuals who experience more organizational support should tend to stay more (Wayne et al., 1997). According to the theory of organizational equilibrium (March & Simon, 1958, cited in Maertz et al., 2007), employees' decision to stay working in a certain company depends on the balance between the expected benefits from working within an organization and the expected contributions of the employee. Beyond tangible or attitudinal inducements to stay (like for instance pay or satisfaction), researchers are recognizing that even relational inducements, like organizational or supervisor support, can play a critical role in such decisions (Allen et al., 2003, cited in Maertz et al., 2007). A possible explanation, like for the previous variables, is the feeling of obligation toward the organization, emerging after organizational support, explained by the norm of reciprocity (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Several studies suggest that low levels of perceived supervisor support are associated to turnover (Smith, 2005). In particular, PSS has been found to negatively affect turnover intentions, both directly (Maertz et al., 2007; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Newman et al., 2012) and indirectly: for instance, DeConinck and Johnson (2009) argue that PSS affects turnover intention through POS and performance. Moreover, there is evidence proving the positive relationship between PSS and job retention (Smith, 2005).

Finally, the only empirical evidence that PSS positively affects objective career success is provided by Jokisaari & Nurmi (2009) who, by analyzing a sample of newcomers, showed that the steeper the decline in PSS, the slower the salary increase over time.

2.5 Relations between OCM and ICM

After assessing the effects of OCM and ICM, taken as single variables, it can be useful to analyze how they interact to one another. Indeed, the impact of organizational career management on objective and subjective career success may be influenced by the level of individual career management and vice versa. For instance, it may be the case that the investments made by the organization in career management result more (less) profitable, in terms of career success, when individuals invests (or doesn't invest) in career self-management and vice versa. In all these cases, the existence (and the level) of one variable affects the other, and therefore the final impact on career success.

The joint responsibility of individual and organizational career management practices, is also provided by earlier research (Orpen, 1994). In particular, in this study it emerged that these variables are positively related and have an additional impact on career effectiveness (computed considering promotions received and salary growth, but also career satisfaction).

Evidence for the idea that individual and organizational career management are not mutually exclusive, but complementary, is also provided by De Vos et al. (2009), who demonstrate that initiatives of career self-management are not to be considered as substitutes for organizational career management. Indeed, individuals who are engaged in managing their own careers expect their organization to actively contribute in managing their careers, too. Therefore, these two variables are positively related and complement each other, supporting previous reasoning used by Sturges et al. (2005), who believes that self-management activities are perceived by individuals as part of their work contract, and that for this they expect a contribution from the organization in return.

Another result from this study is that subjective career success is positively influenced mainly by individual career management practices, rather than those provided by the organization. So, organizational assistance may moderate the relationship between career self-management and subjective career success, but OCM by itself is not enough to make individuals feel successful.

Finally, De Vos et al. (2009) expected to find a stronger relationship between organizational career management and perceived success for those employees high on career self-

management (who, being concerned about their careers, should place more importance to the support received from their employers). However, on the contrary of these expectations and of the previous results, findings supported the idea that organizational and individual career management are substitutes. Indeed, OCM practices are positively related to perceived career success, but only for those employees low on career self-management. For employees resulting high on career self-management, OCM activities performed by line management were marginally related to intrinsic career success, while OCM activities performed by HR have a negative influence to subjective career success. This means that despite the high expectations of self-managing employees towards OCM, this support is not the first factor influencing their perceived career success. A possible interpretation of this result is that these formal HR practices may limit the freedom employees have in career self-management.

2.6 Affective commitment, Job satisfaction, Performance and Psychological strain

Despite the relevance of career success and turnover intention, for the purpose of this thesis, it is important to be aware that OCM, ICM and PSS have been investigated also in relation to different outcomes. In particular, I decided to focus on organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance), job satisfaction, job performance and psychological strain, that can logically be expected to correlate both with career success and turnover intention (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Judge et al., 1999).

Indeed, when an individual is committed to his employer, satisfied about his job, with little or no stress and performs well, he can be expected to be more willing to stay longer within the organization, and to perceive and experience more career success.

Regarding OCM, Sturges et al. (2005) explored the effects of organizational career management help (intended as informal career advice and introductions to influential people) on job performance. In particular, job performance, measuring the employees' performance rating by their line manager, was positively affected by organizational career management help.

For what concerns individual career management instead, research showed that proactive employees have higher possibilities to benefit from career opportunities. Indeed, through self-management practices, like networking or looking for feedback, individuals become more visible to line managers and the HR unit (King, 2004). From this it follows that individuals might be able to access more information on their internal career opportunities, feel more comfortable of benefiting from them and create a relational bond with influential people. All these reasons are expected to lead to an increased affective commitment toward the organiza-

tion. Indeed, De Vos et al. (2009) showed that career self-management positively impacts affective commitment (the identification, involvement and emotional attachment to an organization).

Similarly to ICM, perceived supervisor support has been found to relate to commitment. Indeed, according to the social exchange theory, people tend to reciprocate in the future gestures of good will (Blau, 1964, cited in Eisenberger et al., 1986). Therefore, individuals who are well treated by their organization are likely to treat the organization well in return (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Since supervisors act as organizational agents, perceived supervisor support should drive individuals to have a more positive attitude towards the organization in general.

Consistently, many studies found that perceived supervisor support positively affects organizational commitment (Gagnon & Michael, 2004; Dawley et al., 2008). Organizational commitment has been conceptualized as a model with three components: continuance, affective and normative commitment. Continuance commitment stands for the perceived costs of leaving the organization; affective commitment represents individuals' emotional attachment to the organization, while normative commitment is defined as employees' perceptions of moral obligation to stay with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Casper et al. (2011) discovered that perceived supervisor support positively moderates the relationship between family-work interference and continuance commitment, resulting in high levels of PSS. For what concerns affective commitment, many researchers showed that it is positively influenced by perceived supervisor support, both directly (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Casper et al., 2011; Çakmak-Otluoğlu, 2012) and indirectly, mediating the positive effect of competence on affective (and normative) commitment (Neves, 2011).

However, strong (or weak) supervisor support may influence employees in several different ways. Perceptions of support from the management team, like for instance feelings of involved co-workers, are likely to directly and positively influence job satisfaction (Kirmeyer & Lin, 1988). If employees perceive that supervisors are concerned for them and offer general socio-emotional support, this will bring to a positive evaluation of the environment and to directly increase job satisfaction (Kopelman et al., 1990, cited in Babin & Boles, 1996). So, when supervisors are perceived as generally supportive of the workforce, job satisfaction among employees increases (Babin & Boles, 1996; Gagnon & Micheal, 2004).

Moreover, in a study on organizational newcomers, researchers discovered that the deeper the decline in perceived supervisor support, the larger the decrease rate in job satisfaction (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009), while Jung & Tak (2008), found that perceived supervisor support moderates the effect of career plateau and job satisfaction. In particular, the support perceived reduced the negative effect of career plateau on job satisfaction.

Some other studies addressed the impact of perceived supervisor support on negative emotional states, like psychological strain (O'Driscoll et al., 2003), tension and anxiety perceived (Kirmeyer & Dougherty, 1988). Supervisor support resulted being able to alleviate these feelings, both directly and indirectly. According to O'Driscoll et al. (2003), PSS, intended in this case as the support for employees' effort to obtain a work-life balance, moderates negatively the relationship between work-life interferences and psychological strain.

If seen from the point of view of economic exchange, performance is a merely return for pay, while from a social exchange point of view, it is a component of a wider reciprocation process. Indeed, according to the rule of reciprocity, employees that are treated in a favourable way by the organization feel a sense of obligation toward their employer and adopt behaviours that benefit the organization, in order to discharge that obligation. That is, they increase their performance. Therefore, performance is a "specified return for pay in the economic exchange framework and a nonspecified return for concern and support in the social exchange framework" (Pazy & Ganzach, 2009, p. 1008).

In particular, Pazy and Ganzach (2009) argued that when pay depends on performance, supervisors become fundamental to increase pay (by being helpful to reach a certain performance). In this variable pay situation, PSS should become an important predictor of performance and therefore of higher pay, while monetary concerns would become dominant. The importance of the PSS-performance relationship is a consequence of Lewin's (1943, cited in Pazy & Ganzach, 2009) seminal field theory, suggesting that psychologically close elements, like supervisors, have a more incisive impact on employees' behaviour than elements perceived less close, like organizations. Supervisors make performance easier in many practical ways, by helping, evaluating, rewarding, coaching and through goal setting. Therefore, some studies argue that performance's focus is the supervisor and not the organization (Becker & Kernan, 2003) and that indicators related to supervisor, like PSS, are more effective, than organizational-related indicators (like POS), in predicting performance (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Masterson et al.; 2000; Wayne et al., 2002, all cited in Pazy & Ganzach, 2009). Consistently with this reasoning, perceived supervisor support has been found to have a positive and direct effect on performance (Gagnon & Michael, 2004), even if some researchers found that this is true only in a high pay contingency context (Pazy & Ganzach, 2009).

Finally, it has been demonstrated that having a supportive supervisor enhances favourable outcomes for the organization and the employee, like reduced work stress and better performance (Eisenberger et al., 2002). The emerging obligation toward supervisors, created by perceived supervisor support, should improve performance of standard work activities, but also enhance behaviours going beyond fixed responsibilities (Becker & Kernan, 2003). In line

with this, Eisenberger et al. (2006) showed that PSS is positively associated to both in-role and extra-role performance.

2.7 Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to investigate the nature and the effects of career management, analyzed from three distinct but interrelated perspectives, and in particular from the organization, the individual and the supervisor points of view. Indeed, careers may be managed by the organization (organizational career management) or by the individuals (individual career management), who can feel more or less supported by their supervisors (perceived supervisor support), and therefore by the organization itself.

This analysis addressed the emerging need of identifying the new position of organizations, individuals and supervisors in career management. In fact, the responsibility of managing one's career has been shifting from organization towards individuals recently, as result of the uncertainty of the competitive environment, making it unclear what the new tasks of organizations and individuals should be in this "new career" scenario.

In order to go towards an assessment of the role that OCM, ICM and PSS play today, in shaping one's career, it was useful to study the impact that these variables have on career success and turnover intentions, taking into account the effects of each single variable and their interactions (when available).

The outcome "career success" comprehends two different kinds of variables: objective and subjective career success. As the names suggest, objective career success refers to objective indicators of success, visible and measurable, like salary progression or the number of promotions, while subjective career success refers to subjective attainments related to one's career, such as career satisfaction, work-life balance, positive relationships with peers or supervisors and so on.

The results from this investigation suggest that organizational career management, individual career management and perceived supervisor support positively affect both subjective and objective career success and negatively impact on turnover intentions.

While many researchers investigated the relationship between OCM, ICM, career success and turnover intentions, further research should be addressing: (a) the relationship between PSS and career success; (b) the interactions among OCM, ICM and PSS, in order to identify potential additional effects on career success and turnover intention. These outcomes (and literature lacuna) will be crucial to build a new career model, to be tested in the next chapters.

3. CHAPTER THREE

THE EMPIRICAL MODEL

3.1 Introduction

As seen in the previous chapters, career success and voluntary turnover have been of particular interest to the management literature during the last years, beyond being very topical today (Seibert et al., 2001; Ng et al., 2005; De Vos et al., 2009).

Researchers have deeply investigated the possible antecedents of individual career success and turnover intentions, finding exploratory variables of different nature, from human capital and organizational sponsorship, to socio-demographics or stable personality traits (Ng et al., 2005). Among all these predictors, I decided to study in depth the variables related to the actions that individuals can perform, in order to manage their own careers (career self-management), but also the practices that organizations can undertake to support and help their employees in their career development (organizational career management), including the provision of supervisor support (perceived supervisor support).

The choice of these variables was driven by the following reasons:

The topicality of career-self management, due to the “new career” concepts, in which the individual is the only manager of his own career;

The need of understanding the (new) kind of impacts that OCM, PSS and ICM may have on career success and turnover intentions. Indeed, today these practices may coexist, given the latest trends in talent management approaches (see paragraph 1.3.2), and therefore may create potential additional effects on the dependent variables;

The possibility of intervening on those variables, on the contrary, for instance, of stable personality traits or socio-demographic characteristics. Indeed, organizations and individuals can use those levers accordingly, in order to maximize individual and, indirectly, organizational career success, and minimize turnover intentions.

Despite the broad body of research regarding the relationship among OCM, ICM, PSS, career success and turnover intentions (see Chapter Two), there are still some research gaps that need to be addressed. Belonging to this lacuna are the direct effects of PSS on objective and subjective career success that are poorly treated in the literature; the relationships among OCM, ICM and PSS and finally, the (possible) moderating effects of OCM, ICM and PSS on career success and turnover intentions. Indeed, a model based on these three dimensions has

not been developed yet, and at the same time, those few studies taking into account the relationships between organizational and individual career management, suggest to further investigate those crucial, but complex interactions (e.g. De Vos et al., 2009).

Therefore, the objective of this third chapter is to build a strong model, theoretically consistent, that will be tested in Chapter Four, in order to reduce the research gap in career management studies and answer to the research questions that this thesis will address (see paragraph 3.2).

3.2 The 5C Project and Research Questions

The 5C Group (Collaboration for the Cross-Cultural study of Contemporary Careers) is an international network of researchers, interested in the study of careers. The two main objectives of the group are to identify the determinants of objective and subjective career success and to understand whether individuals' career success perceptions are influenced by their culture.

Over the last years, the 5C group has been investigating on career success. Firstly, the group conducted personal interviews in 12 countries, drawn consistently with Schwartz's transnational cultural regions, in order to incorporate cultural diversity. According to the results from the qualitative research, the group secondly built and launched a survey, collecting comparable data from 25 countries, to enable researchers to conduct studies and deepen their knowledge on career success.

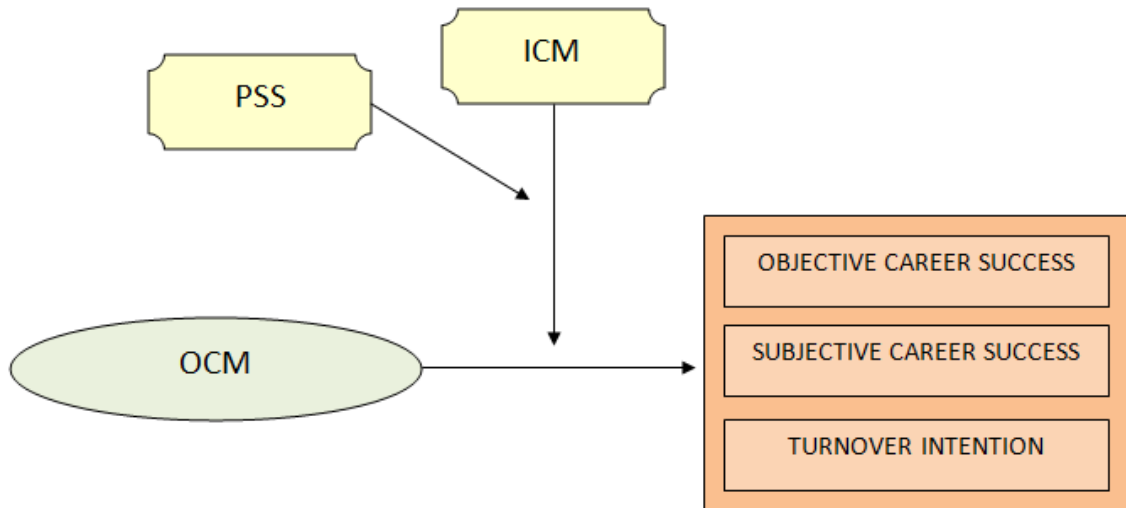
In particular, thanks to the wide range of variables available from the survey and from the intuition of the 5C group that career success may be influenced by the behaviours of different stakeholders (organization, individual, supervisor), it will be possible to build and test an empirical model that aims at investigating the relationships between OCM, PSS, ICM, career success and turnover intentions (See Figure 3.1).

The research questions that this model will address are the following:

RQ1: Is it effective for Organizations to invest in Career Management practices (OCM), in terms of employees' increased career success and reduced turnover intentions?

RQ2: If so, which are the roles of Individual Career Management (ICM) and Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)?

Figure 3.1: Conceptual Diagram



3.3 Direct Relationships

Theoretically consistent expectations, about the direct relationships between OCM, ICM, PSS and career success (or turnover intention) will follow in the next paragraphs, together with the related hypotheses.

3.3.1 Expectations and Hypotheses about OCM

For what concerns subjective and objective career success, a positive relationship with OCM is expected. Indeed, organizations can enhance their employees' actual and perceived career success by engaging in a series of career management practices, to make them feel psychologically and practically supported by the organization, in managing their careers.

By considering the four categories of career management practices, described in the previous chapter, self-exploration and assessment, career planning, skill development and internal labor market information (Eby et al., 2005), it is easier to understand the type of organizational support provided by the organization, and why individuals are more likely to become (and/or feel) more successful in their careers. With self-exploration and assessment practices (assessment centers, lateral moves, mentoring), individuals are expected to improve their self-awareness and therefore take more consistent and realistic career decisions. After the identification of strengths, weaknesses and interests, as a result of self-exploration practices, individuals are able to set personal career goals accordingly and to plan how to reach them. These activities may be enhanced by career planning practices that the organization may offer to its

employees (career counselling and workshops). The effective achievement of these career goals may also be enhanced by the organization, thanks to structured learning experiences, aiming at maximizing the organization's human capital (formal education, international career opportunities, retirement preparation programs and performance appraisal). Finally, individuals' career planning and goals' achievement can be further facilitated and supported by the organization with the practices aiming at the transparent communication of the information about the internal labor market (booklets on career issues, dual ladder, internal job posting, succession planning, flexible work arrangements).

Therefore, career management practices are all potentially related to intrinsic and extrinsic career success, as can be confirmed also by several empirical studies on this theme (paragraph 2.2.2). Indeed, in most of the cases, OCM practices, taken as a single or aggregated variable, have been found to positively correlate with, and/or influence salary, promotions and career satisfaction (Orpen, 1994; Ng et al., 2005; Kong et al., 2012; Jansen & Vinkenbug, 2005; Campion et al., 1994; Peluchette, 1993; Verbruggen et al., 2007; De Vos & Soens, 2008, Burke, 2001), while flexible work arrangements were shown to positively impact on a specific indicator of subjective career satisfaction, work-family balance (Hill et al., 2001). For all these reasons, and despite little inconsistencies emerging in the research on international experiences (paragraph 2.2.2), I expect OCM to positively influence objective and subjective career success.

H1a: Organizational Career Management (OCM) will be positively associated with objective and subjective career success.

Unfortunately, for what concerns the relationship between organizational career management and voluntary turnover, the literature isn't as broad as for career success. Indeed, some researchers hypothesized a negative impact of organizational career management help (informal career advice and introductions to influential people) on turnover intentions, but without finding empirical evidence (Sturges et al., 2005). Moreover, even when this relationship is significant (Guan et al., 2014), the explanatory variable (perceived organizational career management) and sample surveyed (Chinese managers) are hardly comparable to the measure and sample used in the analysis of this thesis, and therefore barely applicable to specify my hypothesis on turnover intention.

Nevertheless, this hypothesis will have a theoretical support, and in particular, it will find its basis in Blau's social exchange theory. Indeed, according to this theory, employees receiving support from their employers (in this case the organization itself), like career advice and train-

ing, will feel indebted towards the organization, and will therefore reciprocate (Blau, 1964, cited by Eisenberg, 1986).

H1b: Organizational Career Management (OCM) will be negatively associated with turnover intention.

3.3.2 Expectations and Hypotheses about ICM

Similarly, I expect a positive relationship between career self-management initiatives and career success. In my empirical analysis, I will consider only enacted managerial aspirations (EMA) that reflect the career strategies and actions that individuals implement in order to obtain managerial advancement (Eddleston, 2009). The idea is that enacted actions should have a stronger and more direct impact on career outcomes and therefore on objective and subjective career success than abstract intentions or career ambitions. Indeed, individuals engaging in activities that aim at developing a network of useful contacts, looking for feedback on career development and performance, searching for new jobs and preparing to move in that direction (Kossek et al., 1998), are expected to be more likely to achieve their career goals and therefore perceive subjective and objective career success. These expected relationships are in line with the goal-setting theory, by Locke & Latham, (1990, cited in Locke & Latham, 2006). Indeed, the goal-setting theory suggests that hard goals bring to higher task performance levels than easy, vague or abstract goals do, like for instance “do one’s best”. And high performance is expected to be related to both objective and subjective career success. Indeed, researchers in the past used this theory to hypothesize the positive impact of career planning on extrinsic (Gould, 1979, cited in Crant & Kraimer, 2001) and intrinsic career success (Aryee & Yaw, 1993, cited in Crant & Kraimer, 2001), finding actual empirical evidence.

These assumptions are supported by several studies on enacted managerial aspirations, but also on career self-management and proactive career behaviours that, despite belonging to different constructs, are theoretically related to EMA (paragraph 2.3.1.). Focusing on the results regarding enacted managerial aspirations, researchers suggest that EMA are predictors of both objective career success, positively influencing salary and promotions (Tharenou, 2001; Crant & Kraimer, 2001), and of subjective career success, positively impacting on career satisfaction (Crant & Kraimer, 2001). Moreover, Eddleston (2009) showed that enacted managerial aspirations increase individuals’ career satisfaction and reduce their turnover intentions when making downward comparisons.

Even if some researchers found contrasting results on this relationships (King, 2004; Tharenou et al., 2009), suggesting that the type of impact of EMA on career satisfaction and turnover intentions depends on the individuals' expectations of receiving a certain outcome, when engaging in a specific behaviour (expectancy theory), I still expect that enacted managerial aspirations will positively influence objective and subjective career success, while negatively impacting on turnover intentions. Indeed, logically, the higher the actions performed by an individual to achieve his/her managerial aspirations, the higher the likelihood to experience career success and therefore to stay within the same organization.

H2a: Individual Career Management (ICM) will be positively associated with objective and subjective career success.

H2b: Individual Career Management (ICM) will be negatively associated with turnover intention.

3.3.3 Expectations and Hypotheses about PSS

Among the determinants of career success and turnover intentions, it is important to also take into account perceived supervisor support (PSS). Indeed, as already seen, the role of supervisor is very important, since he is an intermediary between the organization and the employees. Because of their close relationship with employees, supervisors are able to support them, understand their needs, and evaluate their performance while acting in line with the organizational interests and values. That is why supervisors are seen by the employees as the personal extension of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Regarding career success, perceived supervisor support is expected to positively relate to both objective and subjective career success and to negatively influence turnover intentions.

Even if evidence for PSS impact on career success is scarcely provided by the literature, I expect that when employees feel the support of their supervisor, they also will be more satisfied about their careers. Moreover, supervisors' feedback, advices and evaluations about one's careers are reasonably thought to be directly related to objective career success. On the one hand, these advices should practically and psychologically help employees in reaching their career goals, while on the other hand, supervisors may impact on salary progress and promotions in different ways. Indeed, supervisors can often exert their positional power in the negotiations about the employees' salary progress, especially in performance-based pay systems (Ferris & Judge, 1991, cited in Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009). Moreover, supervisors may be involved in the evaluation of employees' performance, directly impacting on salary. Research-

ers have also highlighted organizational insiders' influence on newcomers' salary negotiations (Seidel et al., 2000). Jokissari & Nurmi (2009), supporting these studies, showed that the higher the decrease in perceived supervisor support, the lower the newcomers' salary growth during the first 6-21 months after their entry in the organization. In framing my hypothesis, I will extend this reasoning also to promotions, considering all the employees in my sample, regardless of their tenure.

H3a: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) will be positively associated with objective and subjective career success.

Regarding turnover intentions, I expect that the individuals who perceive more supervisor support will tend to stay more. Indeed, researchers are recently recognizing that relational inducements, like supervisor support, may play a critical role in employees' decisions to stay in the same organization (Allen et al., 2003, cited in Maertz et al., 2007). Moreover, for the rule of reciprocity (Eisenberger et al., 1990), when employees perceive to be supported by their supervisor, they should tend to feel obliged to reciprocate (in this case by deciding to stay). Finally, as seen in Chapter Two, many studies demonstrated the negative direct influence of perceived supervisor support on turnover intentions (Maertz et al., 2007; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Newman et al., 2012).

H3b: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) will be negatively associated with turnover intentions.

3.4 Indirect Relationships and Expected Moderators

In order to better capture career success and turnover intention, it can be useful to simultaneously consider organizational career management (OCM), individual career management (ICM) and perceived supervisor support (PSS).

Indeed, the contemporaneous presence of these three variables (OCM, ICM and OCM) may have an additional, moderating effect on career success and turnover intention, coming from their contemporaneous presence. For instance, it could be the case that OCM's positive influence on objective and subjective career success is amplified when individuals invest in career self-management and perceive support from their supervisor. In this case, the impact of OCM

on career success would depend on the level of ICM and PSS, meaning that the three-way interaction between OCM, PSS and ICM is significant.

The idea that these practices are not mutually exclusive, but jointly responsible, has been suggested by some researchers that focused on the complementarity of OCM and ICM (see paragraph 2.5). Sturges et al. (2005) demonstrated the existence of a moderating effect of organizational career management on the ICM-subjective career success relationship. In particular, the researcher found that when the organization invests in organizational career management (when OCM is high), the positive impact of ICM on subjective career success is higher than when OCM is low. Moreover, Orpen (1994) firstly showed that by adding individual career planning to the regression explaining career effectiveness (and considering only OCM), there is a significant increase in the explained variance in career effectiveness. This confirms the complementarity theory suggested above, finding an additional impact on subjective career success. Finally, despite the contrasting findings by De Vos et al. (2009), showing evidence of both the variables' complementarity and substitutability (see paragraph 2.5), I still expect OCM and ICM to be jointly responsible for career success and turnover intention. Indeed, even if De Vos et al. (2009) showed that when employees are low on individual career management, the positive effect of OCM on intrinsic career success is higher than when employees are high on career self-management, supporting the vision of OCM and ICM as substitute variables, they also demonstrated that, when individuals highly invest in individual career management expect higher contribution from the organization by managing their careers. From this latest result, it is reasonable to expect OCM and ICM to have an additional positive effect on career success, coming from their simultaneous presence. That is why the same authors (De Vos et al., 2009) think that the effects of the interaction between OCM and ICM should be further investigated by the career management literature.

Despite the substantial absence of literature treating the potential interactions among OCM, ICM and PSS and/or their effect on turnover intentions and career success, I will use that previous reasoning, in order to justify my expectation that OCM, ICM and PSS will interact to influence career success and turnover intention.

Therefore, I will consider OCM, ICM and PSS to be three complementary factors, in explaining career success and turnover intentions.

One way to interpret this three way-interaction is by identifying the specific conditions under which the positive (negative) relationship between OCM, ICM, PSS and career success (turnover intention) should be strongest and weakest (George & Jones, 1996), including in this way also the hypothesis for two-way interactions.

In all the following extreme cases, the strongest relationships will coincide with the situation in which all the three factors (OCM, ICM and PSS) are present, in line with their expected complementarity, while the cases with the weakest relationships will be those characterized by the presence of only one of the three factors (OCM or ICM or PSS).

H4a: 1. The positive relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

2. The positive relationship between organizational career management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be next strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

3. The positive relationship between organizational career management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be next strongest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

4. The positive relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be weakest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

H4b: 1. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

2. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be next strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

3. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be next strongest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

4. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be weakest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

3.5 Conclusion

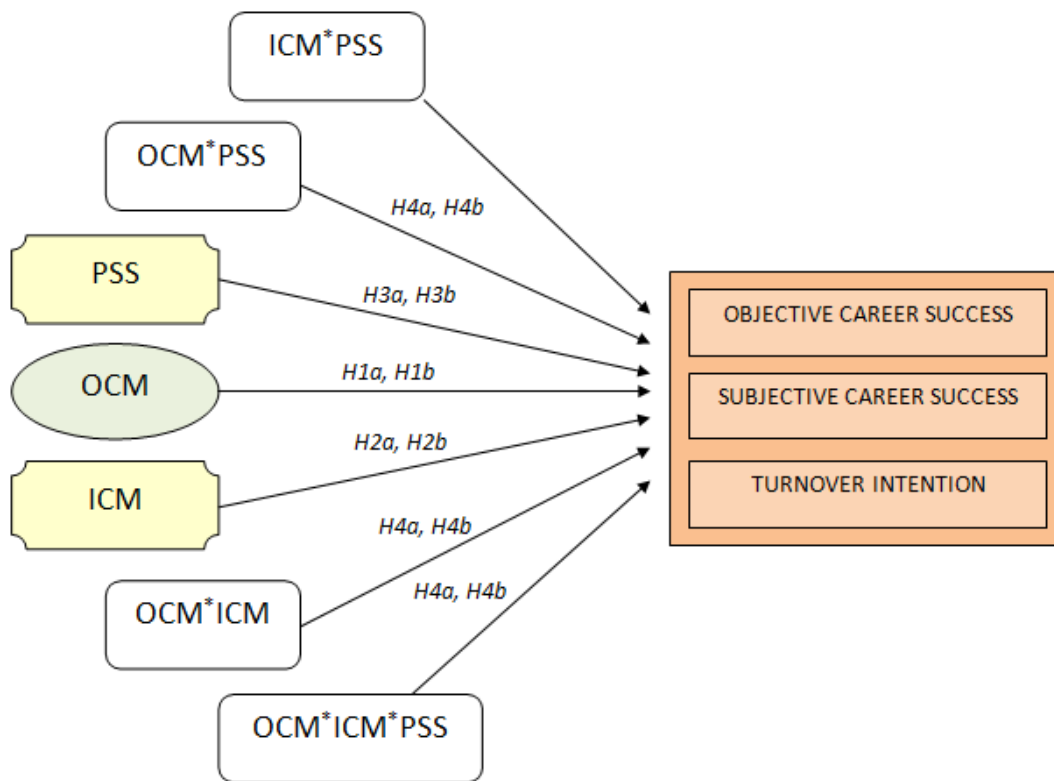
The main objective of this Chapter was to frame a theoretically consistent empirical model, to be tested in the next chapter (Figure 3.2).

In order to do so, I firstly identified the research questions that this thesis will address²⁸.

Afterwards, we translated these research questions into four main hypothesis, regarding the expected relationship between OCM, PSS, ICM, career success and turnover intention.

To frame strong and consistent hypothesis, I investigated the latest career management's studies on OCM, ICM and PSS (Chapter Two), in order to understand which could be the expected: (a) relationships between OCM, PSS, ICM (taken as single variables) and career success (or turnover intention) (*H1a, H1b, H2a, H2b, H3a, H3b*) and (b) moderating effects of PSS and ICM (*H4a, H4b*).

Figure 3.2: Statistical Diagram



In general, I forecast a positive (negative) association between OCM, PSS, ICM and career success (turnover intention) and assume PSS and ICM to moderate the OCM – career success (turnover intention) relationship, contributing to explain career success and turnover intention.

²⁸ RQ1: Is it effective for Organizations to invest in Career Management practices (OCM), in terms of employees' increased career success and reduced turnover intention? RQ2: If so, which are the roles of Individual Career Management (ICM) and Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)?

4. CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

In the previous Chapter, I framed a theoretically consistent model, made of six hypotheses, about how OCM, ICM and PSS are expected to relate to objective and subjective career success and to turnover intention, both directly and indirectly.

Despite the accurate literature research, on which the hypothesis were built (Chapter Two), we agree that a further empirical analysis is needed to better explore the above relationships. This is true especially for the interactions that could emerge among OCM, ICM and PSS, when analyzing the previous direct associations that have been either poorly investigated or not treated at all by the researchers.

Therefore, in this Chapter, we aim at assessing the validity of those hypotheses, and therefore, of the constructed model (Figure 3.2), understanding if they actually reflect some of the dynamics characterizing the Italian labor market today. More specifically, our analysis' main objectives are to understand whether:

RQ1: Is it effective for Organizations to invest in Career Management practices (OCM), in terms of employees' increased career success and reduced turnover intentions?

RQ2: If so, which are the roles of Individual Career Management (ICM) and Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)?

In order to do so, a sample of 606 Italian workers, from the 5C Project, will be analyzed, thanks to several statistical tools available in the IBM SPSS 20 software.

In this way we hope to contribute, at least in part, to the existing career literature, despite being aware of the limits of our research (Paragraph 5.4). Our support will come from (1) the exploration of new indirect relationships among OCM, ICM, PSS, career success and turnover intentions, but also from (2) further investigating direct associations among the previous variables, either to confirm or to find alternative solutions with respect to the existing litera-

ture. Finally, if it will be necessary, (3) we will try to identify and suggest some possible directions for future research.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Data Collection and Sample Description

The survey was launched in year 2014 across 25 countries, using a convenience sample in each of them. Data from four broad employees' groups were collected: managers, professionals, retail/clerical workers and skilled blue collars, and 100 people for each of these categories were targeted. The total sample size is 11,855, even though I will consider only 606 of these respondents, focusing only on the Italian employees.

The questions of the survey were translated from English (Brislin, 1970), when there was no acceptable scale translation available. In each country the survey was pre-tested and adjusted accordingly. Data were collected from both online and hard copy versions of the survey, and then recombined in a common template. However, the majority of the data were collected through an on-line survey administered by students of two Northern Italian universities (Padova and Milan).

Even if the whole Italian sample is composed of 823 respondents, in our analysis I will actually focus only on 606 of them (73.63%), corresponding to those people working for an employer or an organization (not self-employed). In particular, the sample is composed by managers (24.30%), professionals (26.90%), clerical and service workers (27.60%) and skilled labour (21.30%). In the majority of the cases (88%) their employment status is full time, while only 12% of them have a part-time contract.

The employees' total working experience, ranging from 2 to 56 years, is on average 16.09 years (s.d. 11.12); while their organizational and position tenure is on average respectively 9.86 years (s.d. 9.24) and 8.18 years (s.d. 7.80), ranging from a min of 0 and a max of 50 years. Moreover, employees, on average, worked in 2.26 different occupations (s.d. 1.29); had 2.90 employers in their life (s.d. 1.88) and received 2.32 promotions (s.d. 2.42).

The level of education is varied, indeed 45.7% of the employees have an upper secondary degree, while 46.7% have at least a bachelor degree (32.5% have a master) and the remaining 8.8% only have primary or lower secondary education.

For what concerns organization size in which employees operate, small-medium and large companies are well represented in the sample: 40.20% of the organizations have less than 50 employees, 27.40% of them have between 50 and 999 employees, while 32.30% have at least

1000 employees. Regarding the type of sector, 66.80% of the organizations are private, 23.60% public, 2.60% non-profit/ voluntary and 6.90% mixed (public and private).

Finally, the sample is balanced also in terms of gender, age and income. Indeed, men and women represent respectively 53% and 47% of the respondents and employees are distributed quite uniformly across ages: 22.30% of them are 30 or younger, 30% are between 31 and 40 years old, 21.8% are between 41 and 50 years old and the remaining 25.9% are above their 50's.

Regarding the income level, measured on a yearly basis, comprehensive of taxes, only 10.1% of the respondents receive an income lower than €10,002; instead, 36.8% of them earn an amount between €10,002 and 25,000; 35.5% of them between €25,001-55,000; while only the remaining 17.6% have an income above €55,000.

Figure 4.1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Figure 4.1: Demographic characteristics of the sample (N = 606)

	N	%		N	%
GENDER			EMPLOYMENT STATUS		
Male	319	52.6%	Full-time	533	88.0%
Female	287	47.4%	Part-time	73	12.0%
AGE			OCCUPATION		
≤ 30	135	22.3%	Mangers	147	24.3%
31-40	182	30.0%	Professionals	163	26.9%
41-50	132	21.8%	Clerical & Service workers	167	27.6%
> 50	157	25.9%	Skilled labour	129	21.3%
EDUCATION			ANNUAL INCOME		
Early Childhood & Primary education	2	0.3%	€ 1-10,001	61	10.1%
Lower secondary	35	5.8%	€ 10,002-25,000	223	36.8%
Upper secondary	274	45.7%	€ 25,001-55,000	215	35.5%
Post-secondary non-tertiary; Short-cycle tertiary	9	1.5%	€ 55,001-85,000	56	9.2%
Bachelor or equivalent	49	8.2%	€ 85,001-115,000	23	3.8%
Master or equivalent	195	32.5%	€ 115,001-145,000	17	2.8%
Doctorate or equivalent	36	6.0%	> €145,000	11	1.8%
WORK EXPERIENCE			PROMOTIONS		
≤ 5 years	134	22.1%	0-2	369	60.9%
6-10 years	124	20.5%	3-5	188	31.0%
11-20 years	156	25.7%	6-10	45	7.4%
21-40 years	184	30.4%	> 10	4	0.7%
> 40 years	8	1.3%			
ORGANIZATION TENURE			OVERSEAS ASSIGNMENTS		
≤ 5 years	261	43.1%	yes	79	13.0%
6-10 years	155	25.6%	no	527	87.0%
11-20 years	101	16.7%	ORGANIZATION SECTOR		
21-40 years	88	14.5%	Private	405	73.9%
> 40 years	1	0.2%	Public	143	26.1%
POSITION TENURE			ORGANIZATION SIZE		
≤ 5 years	327	54.0%	< 10 employees	125	20.6%
6-10 years	125	20.6%	10-49 employees	119	19.6%
11-20 years	101	16.7%	50-249 employees	100	16.5%
21-40 years	52	8.6%	250-999 employees	66	10.9%
> 40 years	1	0.2%	1000-4999 employees	73	12.0%
			≥ 5000 employees	123	20.3%
NUMBER OF SUBORDINATES			NUMBER OF SECTORS		
0	360	59.4%	1	281	46.4%
1-10	209	34.5%	2	160	26.4%
11-50	29	4.8%	3	110	18.2%
51-100	5	0.8%	4	33	5.4%
> 100	3	0.5%	≥ 5	22	3.6%
NUMBER OF OCCUPATIONS			NUMBER OF EMPLOYERS		
1	222	36.6%	1	155	25.6%
2	154	25.4%	2	144	23.8%
3	137	22.6%	3	127	21.0%
4	55	9.1%	4	85	14.0%
≥ 5	38	6.3%	≥ 5	95	15.7%

4.2.2 Measures

This paragraph aims at identifying the measures adopted to estimate the main constructs and variables that will be used in the statistical analysis, later on, as part of a hierarchical multiple regression (Paragraph 4.2.3).

Dependent Variables. As already seen, three main outcomes will be considered: objective career success, subjective career success and turnover intention.

Objective Career Success (OCS). As previously mentioned, extrinsic career success' indicators refer to variables that are visible and therefore easy to evaluate, like the number of promotions or salary attainment in one's career (Judge et al., 1995). In our analysis, we will use both variables as proxies of objective career success, which have been measured as follows:

Promotions (P). The respondents were asked to indicate the number of promotions they had received during their whole working lives. Promotion stands for a "position at a higher hierarchical level and/or with a higher salary".

Salary (S). In this case salary corresponds to the respondents' yearly income before taxes, measured by 11 income categories (1= €1-10,001; 2= €10,002-25,000; 3= €25,002-25,000; 4= €40,001-55,000; 5= €55,001-70,000; 6= €70,001-85,000; 7= € 85,001-100,000; 8= €100,001-115,000; 9= €115,001-130,000; 10= €130,000-145,000; 11= € 145,000+). Since in our dataset salary distribution results positively skewed (Figure 4.6), we agreed to take the natural logarithm of this variable as to obtain a more normal distribution (Wooldridge, 2012). In order to do so, it was necessary to firstly substitute each income category with the respective median, and then transform that new variable in the desired logarithmic form.

Subjective Career Success (SCS). While objective career success is commonly and easily identifiable with salary and promotions, subjective career success is harder to measure, for two main reasons. Firstly, by measuring subjective career success using the career satisfaction scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990), it is difficult to assess what the term "career satisfaction" really means for individuals. Secondly, these perceptions may vary according to the cultural influence, so that the set of elements that employees value of their careers is likely to vary from country to country. That is why the 5C Group decided to develop a new subjective career success scale, theorized from the interviews' findings and confirmed with a factorial analysis, after the data collection.

In particular, seven meanings of career success were identified: Learning and Development, Work-Life Balance, Positive Impact, Entrepreneurial Success, Positive Relationships, Financial Security, and Financial Achievement. These 7 meanings were classified into three

broader categories, based on a qualitative analysis from the interviews, and specifically: Growth, Relating to the World and Material Output (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2: The 7 meanings of Career Success, classified by category

GROWTH	Learning and Development
	Entrepreneurial success
RELATING TO THE WORLD	Work-life balance
	Positive relationships
	Positive impact
MATERIAL OUTPUT	Financial security
	Financial achievement

Source: [5C Group Symposium]

Growth. Learning and development refers to formal and informal learning. Entrepreneurial success refers to the identification of the right job position, in line with markets' requirements and one's traits and interests.

Relating to the World. Work-life balance is the achievement of a balance between work and non-work activities, finding time for the family and non-work activities. Positive relationships, instead, address the need of individuals to be socially connected and to have benefits from these social experiences. Positive impact refers to both helping others (proximal way) and leaving some sort of heritage (distal way).

Material Output. Financial security allows individuals to survive in their environment, addressing material necessities, while financial achievement refers to material gains going beyond the satisfaction of basic material necessities.

Nevertheless, in my analysis I will include only two of the previous career success' aspects, specifically work-life balance and financial achievement. The main reason underlying this choice is that both work-life balance and financial achievement are widely treated by the literature and have recently taken the attention of both executives and scholars (e.g. Greenhaus, 2003; Krichemeyer, 2000).

Work-life balance (WLB). There are many definitions of work-life balance, but the one by Greenhaus (2003, p. 513), summarizes most of them: work-life balance is the "extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role". Moreover, this work-life balance can be divided into three components: time, involvement and satisfaction, all of which must be equally distributed (balanced) between work and non-work activities. This widespread interest in work-life balance can be explained by its reflection on all aspects of life: work and personal life. Indeed, even those individuals

that identify themselves with their careers, and look at their work as their main life objective, know that their lifetime is limited. This thought often makes them realize that they would like to practice also non-work activities in their lives, such as having a family, dedicating time to their hobbies, and so on. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that for an individual, it can be very important to achieve a balance between these two human needs, work and personal life, and that the realization of this goal is considered by many of them as “career success”. Not by chance, the possibility to obtain a good work/life balance is the first element, after money, that Millennials take into account when evaluating a job opportunity (Paragraph 1.4.1). Third in the ranking were flexible work arrangements (or smart-working²⁹) that contribute in helping employees to achieve a satisfying work-life balance.

Financial Achievement (FA). Regarding financial achievement, it is a more traditional but always topical indicator of subjective career success. Despite the emerging non-economic incentives used by the organizations to attract and retain workers³⁰ (e.g. flexible work arrangements), in Italy a competing retribution is still considered one of the most valuable benefits that an organization can offer (Randstad, 2016).

As already mentioned, financial achievement is the perception of having obtained material gains that go beyond the satisfaction of the basic material necessities (financial security). In light of Herzberg’s motivation theory (Herzberg, 1966), we can look at financial security as a mere hygiene factor and at financial achievement as a motivator factor. This means that the presence of financial security (salary), allowing employees to survive, avoids dissatisfaction but doesn’t create motivation, while the presence of financial achievement can create satisfaction, even if its absence doesn’t generate dissatisfaction. This achievement component, together with the importance attributed to this variable, drove our decision to include financial achievement in our analysis, assuming that it may be a more meaningful indicator of subjective career success than other types of career aspects (Figure 4.2).

In order to measure subjective career success, the 5C Group asked the respondents to rate several career aspects (the above 7 dimensions), according to the degree to which they were valuable for them. In total the respondents had to deal with 30 sentences related to the 7 dimensions of subjective career success. For each of these career aspects, they had to indicate both the level of importance (“Thinking about my career success, I consider this career aspect”) and achievement (“In regard to this career aspect, I have achieved a level I am happy with”), using a 5-point Likert scale, where respectively 1= not at all important/ strongly dis-

²⁹ www.ilsole24ore.com/art/notizie/2016-01-29/addio-telelavoro-debutta-smart-working-lavorare-casa-aumenta-produttivita-125526.shtml?uuid=ACbNXoJC.

³⁰ www.ilsole24ore.com/art/management/2016-07-06/non-solo-stipendi-qualche-consiglio-trattenere-talenti-under-30-080813.shtml?uuid=ADUkvno.

agree and 5= very important/ strongly agree. For the purposes of this study, we will use the achievement statements only, in order to account for “work-life balance” and “financial achievement”. In particular, in order to measure work-life balance achievement, the following sentences have been adopted: “Achieving balance between work and non-work activities”; “Achieving a satisfying balance between work and family life”; “Having time for non-work interests”. Regarding financial achievement, instead, the statements were: “Achieving wealth”; “Receiving incentives, perks or bonuses”; “Steadily making more money”.

Perceived career success (PCS). Despite the previously mentioned drawbacks of measuring general subjective career success, the 5C group still decided to ask the respondents the extent to which they felt their career had been successful up to that moment (1= Not at all successful and 7= very successful). Perceived career success can be considered as a synthesis of the previous meanings of career success and that is why we think it is an important indicator to include in our analysis. Moreover, in this case, the cultural bias in perceiving career success is eliminated, since the analysis focuses on Italian respondents only.

Turnover Intention (TI). The construct for the “intention to turnover” was measured through some items from the MOAQ, the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1979, cited in Cook et al., 1981). In particular, the respondents were asked to what extent they agreed-disagreed to three statements, investigating their willingness to look for a new job or change employer in the following year, using a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Cronbach’s Alpha among the items is 0.92, indicating a good reliability of the construct.

Predictor & Moderators. Regarding independent variables, three main variables are expected to explain most of the variability of career success and turnover intention, and in particular OCM (predictor), ICM and PSS (moderators), consistently with the hypotheses framed in the previous chapter.

Organizational Career Management (OCM). In order to measure organizational career management (the extent to which organizations invest to help individuals to manage their own careers), 10 out of the 13 practices analyzed in Chapter Two were considered (Figure 4.3). In particular, there are two forms of performance appraisals, one assessed by managers and the other by peers and/or collaborators, amounting to 11 practices in total. Respondents were asked to indicate if they had ever experienced these activities during their careers or not. Therefore, 11 dummies were collected from the survey, that were summed up to create an aggregated measure of organizational career management. This method of computing OCM was preferred to the alternative of keeping n-1 dummies in the analysis. Indeed, by summing the

11 dummies it was possible to capture the number of organizational practices that an individual has experienced during his/her entire career, and therefore, their cumulative influence on career success. This wouldn't have been possible with the 11 dummies, which measure the effect of having experienced a specific organizational practice or the other.

Figure 4.3: Career Management practices included in the OCM variable

1. SELF-EXPLORATION & ASSESSMENT	2. CAREER PLANNING	3. SKILL-DEVELOPMENT	4. INTERNAL LABOR MARKET INFORMATION
Assessment and Development centers	Career counselling by direct manager and by the HRM unit	Formal education	Posting on internal job openings
Lateral moves		International career opportunities	
Mentoring	Career workshops	Performance Appraisal (also by peers and/or collaborators)	Flexible work arrangements

Individual Career Management (ICM). The construct for individual career management is measured with the 5-item scale developed by Tharenou & Terry (1998), in order to assess enacted managerial aspirations. These five sentences (“I have engaged in career planning”, “I have sought feedback on my performance”, “I have discussed my aspirations/ career prospects with a senior person within the organization” and “I have updated my skills in order to be more competitive for promotions”) aim at understanding the extent to which individuals have actually engaged in career self-management behaviours. In particular, respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of those actions, using a 7-point Likert scale (1= never; 7= very frequently). For the purpose of this study, these items collapsed into a single individual career management scale. The Cronbach's Alpha among the items is 0.85, indicating a good reliability of the construct.

Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS). The 4-item construct for perceived supervisor support is formed by 4 out of 36 statements developed by Eisenberg et al. (1986), in order to measure perceived organizational support. These four items (“My work supervisor really cares about my well-being/ opinions/ goals and values” or “My supervisor shows very little concern for me”), in which the original word “organization” was changed with “supervisor”, aim at assessing the extent to which individuals perceive a support from their supervisor. In particular, the respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with those statements, using a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree). For the purpose of this study, these items collapsed into a single perceived supervisor support scale. The Cronbach's Alpha among the items is 0.87, indicating that the construct has an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Control variables. The following variables will also be included in the statistical analysis of the following paragraphs, as to control their potential effects on the dependent variables. In order to identify the controls, we excluded the potential control variables that were highly correlated to other controls (with a Pearson correlation ≥ 0.7 and p-value ≤ 0.10). In particular, we expect the socio-demographic variable (gender, age), human capital variables (education, total working experience, organization tenure, position tenure, number of occupations, number of employers, number of sectors, overseas assignments, occupation, number of subordinates and employment status) and organizational variables (organization sector and organization size) to be related to career success and turnover intention.

Socio-demographic variables: these predictors reflect the social and demographic backgrounds of the individuals and are traditionally studied in career success literature (Ng et al., 2005).

Gender. Many studies examined the relationship between gender and career success, and that is why we decided to include it as a control variable. Women are less likely to benefit from career management programs than men, because of more potential for non-work tasks and family-work conflicts (Casper et al., 2005), while discrimination and gender stereotypes may limit their career advancement (Greenhaus et al., 2000; Heilman, 1989, cited in Eby et al., 2005). In the survey, respondents were asked if they were male (= 1) or female (= 2), creating a dummy variable for gender.

Age. Even age has been used as a control variable in many studies of career success (e.g. Eby et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2005), assuming that older workers with more experience and skills are more likely to experience career success. In the survey, the variable is expressed in year of birth, so that the higher the variable, the younger the individual.

Human capital variables: human capital variables indicate individuals' educational, professional and personal experiences (Becker, 1964, cited in Ng et al., 2005) and are often considered predictors of career success (Judge et al., 1995).

Education. Education is expected to positively relate to salary and promotions, by being an element ordinarily recognized by the organizations. However, at the same time, education has been found to negatively relate to turnover intention (Singh et al., 2009). In the questionnaire, respondents indicated their highest completed educational level. In the dataset education is a categorical variable, with an underlying ordinality, going from the lower educational level, "early childhood and primary education" (=1), to the highest educational level, "doctorate or equivalent" (=7). Intermediate levels are "lower secondary" (=2), "upper secondary" (=3), "post-secondary non-tertiary or short-cycle tertiary" (=4), "bachelor or equivalent" (=5) and "master or equivalent" (=6).

Work experience. “Work experience” indicates the number of years that an individual has been working in his/her life. It includes part-time work periods and doesn’t consider career breaks or unemployment periods. Work experience allows individuals to increase their attractiveness and receive promotions according to their merit. Indeed, Ng et al. (2005) proved that there is a positive relationship between work experience and promotions (or salary). At the same time, people with more work experience may receive more organizational support, by being elite members of the organization (Ng et al., 2005). And that is why we expect work experience and subjective career success to be positively associated.

Organization tenure. “Organization tenure” refers to the number of years that an individual has been working for his/her current organization. By being classified by Ng et al. (2005) as a “human capital variable” it is expected to enhance career success, so as position tenure.

Position tenure. “Position tenure” expresses the number of years that an individual has been working in his/her current position or job.

Number of occupations. This variable indicates the number of fields or professions in which an individual has worked during his/her life (e.g. Dentistry, retail, marketing,..). Similarly to work experience, we expect a relationship between the number of occupations and career success, but it is hard to predict the nature of this relationship: on the one hand, a higher number of occupations could bring to the development of broader knowledge and skills regarding more occupations, which could then lead to career success. On the other hand, by continuously changing occupation, it could be harder for employees to develop a job specific knowledge and therefore achieve career success.

Number of employers. The number of employers refers to the number of people or organizations an individual has worked for, during his/her whole career, including himself/herself as self-employer. Similarly to the number of occupations, it is hard to make predictions about this variable. Indeed, on the one hand employees who have worked in many organizations could be likely to experience more career success, if employers do value this cross-organizational experience, but on the other hand they could be likely to experience less career success if their employers value the experience and knowledge acquired in their current organizations more.

Number of sectors. Respondents are asked to indicate the number of sectors they have worked in during their careers (e.g. bank, telecommunications,..). The reasoning for the predictions about the number of sectors is very similar to that regarding the number of occupations: the higher the number of sectors in which an individual has worked in his/her life, the broader the knowledge she/he has about those sectors and the more narrow the specific sector knowledge acquired.

Overseas assignments. The international assignments that employees may have experienced are expected to be positively associated to their career success. Indeed, international assignments allow to develop an international contacts' network, but also to acquire a global mind-set and management skills (Stahl et al., 2009). That is why candidates with international experience are likely to receive more salary and promotions (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005). "Overseas assignments" were represented by 5 categories, according to the specific kind of international experience, which I decided to aggregate in a single dummy variable. (1= "yes, I have experienced a long term assignment of more than one year in one country" or alternatively "short-term assignments of up to one year in one country" or "rotational assignments in one/more than one country"; 0= "no, but frequent business travelling abroad of less than one month in duration" or "no business travelling at all").

Occupation. The type of current job is expressed through three dummy variables, grouping all the existing occupations into four main categories: managers (the reference group), professionals, clerical and service workers and skilled labour. Each of these categories was accurately described in the questionnaire to make sure that each respondent could actually indicate his/her exact type of occupation. The underlying assumption is that each of these occupational categories may give importance to different elements when assessing subjective career success. Therefore, the same outcome may be perceived more or less positively according to the specific position held within the organization. Moreover, it is reasonable to expect that managers and professionals are more likely to experience objective career success with respect to clericals and skilled labour. Empirical research supports these expectations, proving that career satisfaction and salary can vary by occupation (Judge et al., 1995; Seibert et al., 2001).

Number of subordinates. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of subordinates that they had at the time of the survey.

Employment status. It refers to the type of contract and flexibility that a worker can benefit from. In this case, respondents were asked to indicate whether they were "full-time employed" (= 1) or "part-time employed" (= 0). This information can be relevant to assess the difference in salary levels and promotions' opportunities across employees for instance, but is expected to influence also subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005). Indeed, people choosing a part-time contract may result to be more satisfied about their careers than those employed full-time because of the larger free time to dedicate to non-work activities.

Organizational variables: several researchers demonstrated how organizational characteristics can influence individual outcomes, for instance turnover and salaries (Pfeffer, 1991, cited in Judge et al., 1995).

Organization sector. The sector in which the company operates (1= private, 0= public) can be strongly related to the employees' perceived career success (Judge et al., 1995).

Organization size. The organization size is represented by the number of employees working in the respondent's organization, including all branches, even abroad. (1= fewer than 10 employees; 2= between 10 and 49 employees; 3= between 50 and 249 employees; 4= between 250 and 999 employees; 5= between 1000 and 4999 employees and 6= more than 5000 employees). Even if organization size is considered an important variable especially to predict objective career success, it is difficult to make projections about the nature of their relationships. Indeed, evidence has been found for both a positive and a negative relationship between organization size and objective career success (promotions, salary). Indeed, if on the one hand larger organizations are expected to pay more (Brown & Medoff, 1989, cited in Judge et al., 1995) and to offer more promotion opportunities, on the other hand some researchers argue that higher pay may be caused by different characteristics of large organizations (e.g. higher-quality workers, ability to pay,...) (Whitely et al., 1991) and that it is difficult to understand if there are more promotion opportunities, because of the higher number of people competing for those promotions (Stewman & Konda, 1983, cited by Judge et al., 1995).

4.2.3 Analysis

The analysis will consist of six multiple regressions, with moderating variables, estimated according to the ordinary least squares method³¹. Firstly, I will focus on the relations between the predictor variable (OCM) and career success (or turnover intentions) in order to answer to *RQ1*. Secondly, it will be necessary to concentrate on the moderators (ICM and PSS) in order to solve *RQ2*.

The analysis has been conducted with IBM SPSS 20. Before running the regressions, it was necessary to check for potential multicollinearity problems in the model and eventually, try to reduce them. In order to do so, I analyzed the correlations among the variables that I wanted to include in the model (Figure 4.4) and eliminated those that were highly correlated (Pearson correlation index ≥ 0.65). In particular, as expected, I noticed that "Age", "Work experience", "Organization tenure" and "Position Tenure" were all highly correlated. Indeed, it is reasonable to think that an old worker is more likely to have a larger work experience and tenure

³¹ Ordinary least squares (OLS), or linear least squares, is a method for estimating the unknown parameters in a linear regression model, with the goal of minimizing the sum of the squares of the differences between the observed responses in the given dataset and those predicted by a linear function of a set of explanatory variables.

within the same organization, with respect to a young employee, and that in many cases the organizational and position tenure coincide.

To account for multicollinearity, I decided to include only “Work experience” and eliminate the other correlated variables in the model. This choice was driven by the expectation that career success and turnover intentions can be better explained by an individual’s total, even transversal work experience, built across companies, rather than in a single firm (organizational and position tenure) or simply controlling for “Age”.

After controlling for highly correlated variables, it can be useful to look at the frequency distribution of career success’ indicators. Indeed, it is noticeable that objective indicators of success (promotions, salary and turnover intention) don’t follow a perfectly normal distribution, but are positively skewed (Figure 4.5).

This because most of the people in the sample have experienced a low number of promotions in their lives, earn a low-middle salary and intend to stay in their current organizations. In order to respect the OLS’ normal distribution assumption more closely, I preferred to substitute the dependent variable “salary” with the natural logarithm of the median term of each salary category, as suggested by the literature (Wooldridge, 2012). This transformation was not necessary for the indicators of subjective career success (perceived career success, work-life balance and financial achievement), which follow a more normal distribution. Nevertheless, these variables present a light skewness to the left, meaning that most of the individuals perceive their careers to be successful in general, but also in terms of work-life balance and financial achievement.

Figure 4.4: Means, standard deviations and correlations of study variables

		MEAN	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Gender	1.474	.500	1											
2	Age	1975.234	11.315	-.001	1										
3	Education	4.328	1.593	.058	-.013	1									
4	Work Experience	16.086	11.124	-.071	-.895**	-.151**	1								
5	Organization tenure	9.861	9.243	.039	-.657**	-.110**	.696**	1							
6	Position tenure	8.177	7.795	.067	-.598**	-.163**	.626**	.642**	1						
7	N of Occupations	2.256	1.285	-.029	-.189**	.010	.190**	-.017	-.108**	1					
8	N of Employers	2.901	1.883	-.034	-.157**	.041	.163**	-.175**	-.035	.463**	1				
9	Overseas Assignments	0.130	.337	-.102*	-.008	.171**	-.008	-.066	-.068	.133**	.169**	1			
10	Professionals	0.269	.444	.148**	-.023	.442**	-.079	.012	.088*	-.161**	-.089*	.019	1		
11	Clerical & Service Workers	0.276	.447	.273**	.139**	-.331**	-.099*	-.036	.001	-.025	-.001	-.129**	-.374**	1	
12	Skilled Labour	0.213	.410	-.316**	.163**	-.407**	-.037	-.035	.015	-.038	-.050	-.070	-.315**	-.321**	1
13	N of Sectors	1.952	1.151	-.009	-.054	.035	.065	-.117**	-.079	.471**	.535**	.101*	-.111**	.048	-.045
14	Full Time Workers	0.880	.326	-.218**	-.041	.144**	.030	.029	.014	-.025	-.022	.098*	.064	-.294**	.069
15	Private Sector	0.668	.471	-.251**	.162**	-.091*	-.123**	-.256**	-.247**	.080*	.075	-.029	-.221**	-.028	.118**
16	Organization size	3.350	1.823	-.003	-.222**	.332**	.162**	.192**	-.014	.130**	.056	.171**	.153**	-.175**	-.261**
17	OCM	4.120	2.804	-.077	-.143**	.128**	.110**	.095*	-.010	.144**	.061	.184**	.026	-.162**	-.140**
18	ICM	4.121	1.463	-.059	.113**	.195**	-.104*	-.095*	-.146**	.129**	.062	.224**	.110**	-.203**	-.101*
19	PSS	4.470	1.481	-.061	.038	-.068	.011	.010	.009	-.036	-.052	.050	-.044	-.019	-.021
20	Promotions	2.322	2.417	-.147**	-.391**	.122**	.391**	.181**	.033	.282**	.225**	.143**	-.136**	-.237**	-.104*
21	Salary	10.183	.810	-.189**	-.444**	.374**	.350**	.182**	.061	.172**	.175**	.233**	.092*	-.432**	-.238**
22	Turnover Intention	3.009	2.151	-.033	.228**	.176**	-.249**	-.268**	-.315**	.086*	.123**	.071	-.025	-.052	-.054
23	Work-Life Balance	3.630	.893	-.002	-.029	-.073	.068	.076	.170**	-.010	-.058	-.078	-.034	.102*	.014
24	Financial Achievement	3.423	.899	-.122**	-.054	-.082*	.106**	.072	.052	.032	.006	.029	-.116**	-.045	.033
25	Perceived Career Success	4.645	1.285	-.067	-.188**	.133**	.190**	.181**	.129**	.034	.025	.088*	.043	-.250**	-.073

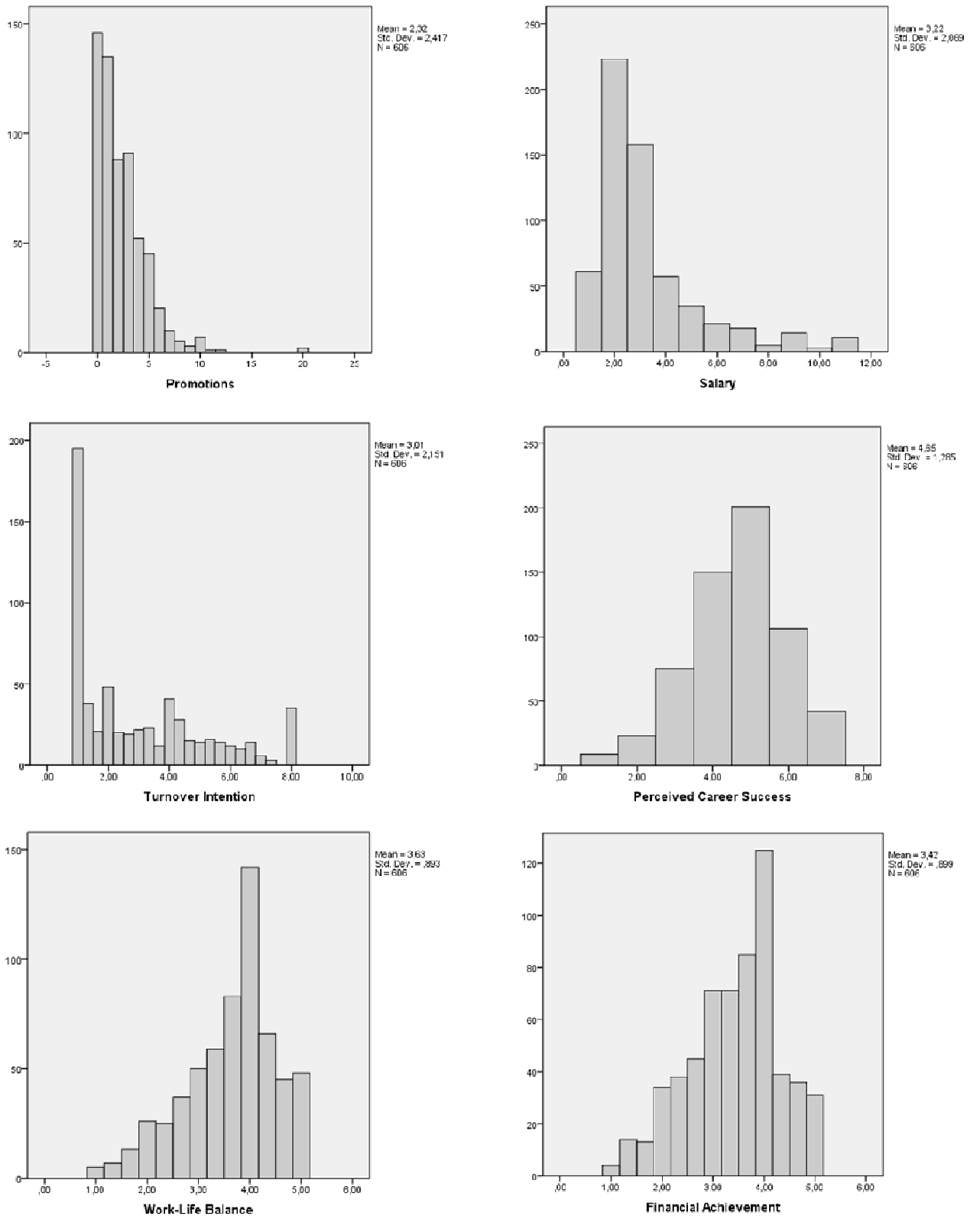
[*: Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)]

Figure 4.4: Means, standard deviations and correlations of study variables

		MEAN	SD	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1	Gender	1.474	.500													
2	Age	1975.234	11.315													
3	Education	4.328	1.593													
4	Work Experience	16.086	11.124													
5	Organization tenure	9.861	9.243													
6	Positional Tenure	8.177	7.795													
7	N of Occupations	2.256	1.285													
8	N of Employers	2.901	1.883													
9	Overseas Assignments	0.130	.337													
10	Professionals	0.269	.444													
11	Clerical & Service Workers	0.276	.447													
12	Skilled Labour	0.213	.410													
13	N of Sectors	1.952	1.151	1												
14	Full Time Workers	0.880	.326	-.068	1											
15	Private Sector	0.668	.471	-.008	-.035	1										
16	Organization size	3.350	1.823	.080*	.177**	-.146**	1									
17	OCM	4.120	2.804	.036	.097*	.063	.235**	1								
18	ICM	4.121	1.463	.094*	.198**	.049	.172**	.396**	1							
19	PSS	4.470	1.481	-.088*	.033	.054	-.042	.196**	.204**	1						
20	Promotions	2.322	2.417	.114**	.135**	.095*	.294**	.273**	.164**	.109**	1					
21	Salary	10.183	.810	.087*	.311**	.045	.436**	.298**	.205**	.057	.519**	1				
22	Turnover Intention	3.009	2.151	.129**	-.005	.193**	.041	-.056	.103*	-.333**	-.041	.043	1			
23	Work-Life Balance	3.630	.893	-.042	-.096*	-.085*	-.099*	.105**	.060	.308**	.004	-.079	-.236**	1		
24	Financial Achievement	3.423	.899	-.083*	.116**	.007	-.012	.290**	.287**	.360**	.215**	.128**	-.219**	.447**	1	
25	Perceived Career Success	4.645	1.285	-.091*	.162**	-.102*	.064	.221**	.328**	.326**	.256**	.287**	-.231**	.200**	.370**	1

[*: Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)]

Figure 4.5: Frequency distribution of study career success' indicators



Regarding the computation of the interaction terms, I decided to use a mean centering. This procedure consists in subtracting a constant from every value of a study variable (in this case the interactions' constituent terms) that can either be its mean or another relevant value. The main objective of the centering procedure is to guarantee that "the coefficients for the two variables that define the product will be interpretable within the range of the data" (Hayes, 2012, p. 15)³². Moreover, it is debatable whether centering may even reduce multicollinearity problems between the products and their constituent terms. (Aguinis, 1995; Kromrey & Foster-Johnson, 1998; Shieh, 2011). As suggested by the literature, I decided to center the variables with respect to their means in order to compute the interaction terms. These new variables will have a mean equal to zero and will maintain their original standard deviations.

Afterwards, the two-way and three-way interaction terms were computed between the predictor variable (OCM) and its moderators (ICM and PSS), using the mean-centered variables. In particular, in each regression, four interactions were included: three two-way interactions (OCM*ICM, OCM*PSS and ICM*PSS) and one three-way interaction (OCM*ICM*PSS).

Finally, it has been possible to estimate the multiple regression model with SPSS, using the hierarchical regression procedure. This method consists in including, in the regression, the independent variables in "blocks", in order to capture the additional Y's variance explained by each of these blocks. A block is formed by a group of independent variables, formed according to theoretical or logical assumptions made by the researchers. In this case, I decided to group the variables into 7 main blocks:

1. Control variables (C): gender, education, work experience, number of occupations, number of employers, number of sectors, overseas assignments, occupation (professionals, clerical and service workers, skilled labour), number of subordinates, employment status, organization sector and organization size;
2. Predictor (X): organizational career management (OCM);
3. Moderator (M): individual career management (ICM);
4. Moderator (M): perceived supervisor support (PSS);
5. Moderators (M): individual career management (ICM) and perceived supervisor support (PSS);
6. Two-way interactions (OCM*ICM, OCM*PSS and ICM*PSS);
7. Three-way interaction (OCM*ICM*PSS).

For what concerns dependent variables, they can be grouped into two categories: (a) Objective career success (OCS) indicators, represented by the natural logarithm of salary (S), the

³² www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf.

number of promotions (P) and employees' turnover intentions (TI); (b) Subjective career success (SCS) indicators, represented by perceived career success (PCS), work-life balance (WLB) and financial achievement (FA).

Therefore, the hypothesized model can be represented by the following formula:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_{C1}C1 + \beta_{C2}C2 + \dots + \beta_{CN}CN + \beta_X X + \beta_{M1}M1 + \beta_{M2}M2 + \beta_{XM1}(X*M1) + \beta_{XM2}(X*M2) + \beta_{M1M2}(M1*M2) + \beta_{XM1M2}(X*M1*M2) + \varepsilon$$

Where Y is the dependent variable, α the intercept, the C's represent the control variables, X is the independent variable and M_i are the moderating terms. Moreover, (X*M_i) represents the interaction terms between the X and the moderators, (M1*M2) is the interaction term between the moderators and (X*M1*M2) the three-way interaction among the X and the two moderating terms.

Figure 4.6 summarizes the models to be estimated in the next paragraph.

Figure 4.6: The models to be estimated

CONTROL VARIABLES (C)		X	M	INTERACTIONS	Y	
Gender	Overseas assignments				S	
Education	Professionals		ICM	OCM*ICM	P	OCS
Work Experience	Clerical & Service workers	OCM		OCM* PSS	TI	
N of Subordinates	Skilled labour			ICM*PSS		
N of Occupations	Employment status		PSS	OCM*ICM*PSS	PCS	
N of Employers	Organization sector				WLB	SCS
N of Sectors	Organization size				FA	

4.3 Results

The results from the estimation of the six hierarchical regressions shown in Figure 4.6, are reported later on (Figure 4.7 to 4.12). Despite the significant results from the ANOVA test and the increasing R² for each block of variables, it is evident that the change of this statistic is not always significant³³.

Focusing on subjective career success indicators (SCS) (Figure 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11) and on the ΔR^2 related to each step of the hierarchical regressions, I can notice that the first five models estimated are always significant (p-value < .01), regardless of the dependent variable. This means that it is always useful to include additional variables (OCM, ICM and PSS) in order to

³³ Unless differently specified, we will consider a significance level of $\alpha \leq .05$ for the analysis.

explain PCS, WLB and FA. On the contrary, the sixth model is significant only when considering SCS (p-value < .032), although WLB presents a two-way interaction significant at 10% level. Finally, considering the three-way interaction among the predictor and the moderators, the seventh model is significant only for FA, always at the 10% level. This means that even if ICM and PSS have a significant relationship with all SCS' indicators, they do not always influence the way in which organizational career practices relate to SCS.

If I concentrate on objective indicators of career success (OCS) instead, it is harder to distinguish a common pattern from their results. Despite the high R^2_S (.573), in the case of S only the first two models are significant, meaning that the moderators have neither a direct nor indirect role in explaining salary. In the case of P, instead, the first five models result significant, underlying that both OCM and the moderators are directly related to promotions. Finally, significant interactions among the predictor and the moderators appear only in the analysis of TI, indicating that the contemporary presence of OCM and the moderators can modify the way OCM interacts with TI, but not with S and P.

By giving a general look at the analysis, and comparing the results from the last significant models³⁴, it is possible to make several considerations.

Control variables. Regarding control variables, it is noticeable that work experience and organization sector (1=private; 0=public) are significant in all the above regressions. In particular, work experience is positively associated to all career success' indicators (but negatively to turnover intention), while working in a private company is more positively related to objective career success outcomes and more negatively related to subjective career outcomes, with respect to working in public companies. This means that although private organizations offer more promotions and higher salary than public organizations, their employees still have higher intention to turnover and experience less career success in general (they might be more stressed for instance or having high expectations of financial achievement). Moreover, overseas assignments also contribute to explain S, by creating a positive relationship with the dependent variable, but it is also negatively related to WLB. Furthermore, another control variable explaining both S and WLB is employment status (1=full-time; 0=part-time): it is logical to think that being full-time employed means earning a higher salary but at the same time it implicates reduced free time to dedicate to family and other non-work activities. Finally, women seem to earn less and perceive a lower financial achievement with respect to men, since gender results significant in both the objective (S) and subjective (FA) indicators of financial success.

³⁴ For each regression, the results from the model with a significant ΔR^2 and the highest adj. R^2 were considered.

Figure 4.7: Standardized coefficients; [$Y = (\ln)Salary (OCS)$]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONTROL VARIABLES							
Gender	-.067*	-.066*	-.067*	-.066*	-.064*	-.062*	-.063*
Education	.113**	.117**	.111**	.118**	.120**	.122**	.124**
Working Experience	.240**	.238**	.240**	.240**	.236**	.235**	.235**
N of Subordinates	.057 ⁺	.054 ⁺	.057 ⁺	.057 ⁺	.054 ⁺	.054 ⁺	.055 ⁺
N of Occupations	-.023	-.028	-.025	-.022	-.026	-.029	-.03
N of Employers	.058 ⁺	.059 ⁺	.059 ⁺	.059 ⁺	.059 ⁺	.057 ⁺	.058 ⁺
N of Sectors	0.015	.017	.014	.018	0.02	.021	.022
Overseas Assignments	.070*	.063*	.068*	.068*	.063*	.062*	.059*
Professionals	-.243**	-.237**	-.244**	-.240**	-.236**	-.236**	-.236**
Clerical & Service workers	-.491**	-.477**	-.489**	-.486**	-.477**	-.478**	-.476**
Skilled labour	-.391**	-.377**	-.392**	-.385**	-.374**	-.372**	-.370**
Employment status	.137**	.135**	.137**	.136**	.137**	.135**	.134**
Organization sector	.076*	.072*	.074*	.075*	.072*	.074*	.074*
Organization size	.170**	.161**	.171**	.171**	.163**	.164**	.164**
PREDICTOR							
OCM		.061*			.061 ⁺	.063*	.059 ⁺
MODERATORS							
ICM			.009		-.015	-.015	-.016
PSS				.035	.027	.027	.020
TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS							
OCM*ICM						.010	.009
OCM*PSS						.007	.003
ICM*PSS						-.032	-.029
THREE-WAY INTERACTION							
OCM*ICM*PSS							.021
Summary Statistics							
R ² adjusted	.571	.573	.569	.571	.573	.571	.571
ΔR^2 significance	.000	.036	.769	.205	.604	.748	.508
F	57.257**	54.049**	53.698**	53.603**	47.668**	40.454**	38.510**

* $p \leq 0.10$ * $p \leq 0.05$ ** $p \leq 0.01$

Figure 4.8: Standardized coefficients; [Y = Promotions (OCS)]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONTROL VARIABLES							
Gender	-.025	-.022	-.027	-.020	-.019	-0.02	-0.02
Education	.028	.034	.028	.041	.044	.043	.042
Work experience	.267**	.265**	.275**	.268**	.273**	.274**	.274**
N of Subordinates	.093**	.089*	.090*	.094**	.090*	.091**	.091*
N of Occupations	.090*	.082*	.085*	.090*	.081*	.082*	.084*
N of Employers	.096*	.097*	.094*	.098*	.100*	.107**	.107**
N of Sectors	-.031	-.028	-.038	-.023	-.026	-.031	-.032
Overseas Assignments	.034	.022	.017	.028	.016	.015	.017
Professionals	-.300**	-.291**	-.305**	-.293**	-.288**	-.289**	-.289**
Clerical & Service workers	-.337**	-.317**	-.321**	-.325**	-.304**	-.303**	-.304**
Skilled labour	-.250**	-.228**	-.244**	-.232**	-.214**	-.214**	-.216**
Employment status	.031	.029	.020	.031	.023	.025	.025
Organization sector	.090*	.084*	.085*	.088*	.082*	.078*	.078*
Organization size	.127**	.114**	.131**	.131**	.119**	.118**	.118**
PREDICTOR							
OCM		.092**			.064 ⁺	.059	.063 ⁺
MODERATORS							
ICM			.079*		.039	.036	.036
PSS				.093**	.074*	.078*	.084*
TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS							
OCM*ICM						.003	.003
OCM*PSS						.033	.036
ICM*PSS						.030	.028
THREE-WAY INTERACTION							
OCM*ICM*PSS							-.016
R ² adjusted	.369	.376	.374	.377	.381	.380	.380
Δ R ² significance	.000	.009	.027	.005	.036	.455	.679
F	25.774**	24.761**	24.874**	24.875**	22.418**	19.174**	18.242**

⁺ p ≤ 0.10

^{*} p ≤ 0.05

^{**} p ≤ 0.01

Figure 4.9: Standardized coefficients; [Y = Perceived Career Success (SCS)]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONTROL VARIABLES							
Gender	-.026	-.022	-.025	-.010	-.013	-.014	-.013
Education	.019	.028	.024	.062	.063	0.06	.057
Work experience	.129**	.124**	.180**	.131**	.175**	.179**	.178**
N of Subordinates	.026	.019	.017	.030	0.02	.019	.017
N of Occupations	.024	.011	-.005	.026	.001	.005	.008
N of Employers	.034	.037	.053	.042	.051	.053	.052
N of Sectors	-.137**	-.132**	-.160**	-.114*	-.136**	-.135**	-.137**
Overseas Assignments	.031	.012	-.017	.013	-.023	-.033	-.028
Professionals	-.182**	-.167**	-.182**	-.158**	-.158**	-.164**	-.164**
Clerical & Service workers	-.370**	-.336**	-.296**	-.329**	-.278**	-.280**	-.282**
Skilled labour	-.253**	-.217**	-.211**	-.196**	-.161**	-.167**	-.171**
Employment status	.066 ⁺	.062	.022	.065 ⁺	.027	.037	.038
Organization sector	-.124**	-.135**	-.148**	-.131**	-.145**	-.147**	-.147**
Organization size	-.096*	-.117**	-.120**	-.083*	-.105**	-.108**	-.109**
PREDICTOR							
OCM		.152**			.018	-.002	.007
MODERATORS							
ICM			.322**		.254**	.269**	.270**
PSS				.298**	.243**	.225**	.240**
TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS							
OCM*ICM						.094*	.096*
OCM*PSS						-.053	-.044
ICM*PSS						.058	.053
THREE-WAY INTERACTION							
OCM*ICM*PSS							-.041
R ² adjusted	.151	.170	.236	.237	.290	.297	.297
Δ R ² significance	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.031	.318
F	8.522**	9.078**	13.307**	13.277**	15.214**	13.511**	12.915**

⁺ p ≤ 0.10

* p ≤ 0.05

** p ≤ 0.01

Figure 4.10: Standardized coefficients; [Y = Work-life Balance (SCS)]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONTROL VARIABLES							
Gender	-.072	-.067	-.074	-.054	-.053	-.048	-.047
Education	.033	.045	.040	.080	.084	.089 ⁺	.087 ⁺
Work experience	.099 [*]	.094 [*]	.126 ^{**}	.102 [*]	.108 [*]	.107 [*]	.106 [*]
N of Subordinates	-.051	-.061	-.058	-.048	-.055	-.056	-.057
N of Occupations	.053	.037	.043	.055	.041	.036	.038
N of Employers	-.055	-.052	-.052	-.047	-.044	-.048	-.049
N of Sectors	-.037	-.032	-.053	-.012	-.015	-.011	-.012
Overseas Assignments	-.040	-.062	-.065	-.060	-.079 ⁺	-.085 ^{**}	-.081 [*]
Professionals	.012	.030	.011	.038	.046	.045 [*]	.044
Clerical & Service workers	.112 ⁺	.153 [*]	.146 [*]	.156 [*]	.187 ^{**}	.185 [*]	.183 ^{**}
Skilled labour	.025	.068	.053	.088	.116 [*]	.120 ^{**}	.117 [*]
Employment status	-.072 ⁺	-.077 ⁺	-.094 [*]	-.073 ⁺	-.084 [*]	-.087 [*]	-.087 [*]
Organization sector	-.101 [*]	-.115 ^{**}	-.110 [*]	-.109 [*]	-.119 ^{**}	-.115 ^{**}	-.115 ^{**}
Organization size	-.097 [*]	-.122 ^{**}	-.102 [*]	-.082 ⁺	-.102 [*]	-.101 [*]	-.102 [*]
PREDICTOR							
OCM		.183 ^{**}			.106 [*]	.108 [*]	.114 [*]
MODERATORS							
ICM			.161 ^{**}		.056	.058	.059
PSS				.326 ^{**}	.296 ^{**}	.292 ^{**}	.301 ^{**}
TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS							
OCM*ICM						.046	.046
OCM*PSS						.003	.009
ICM*PSS						-.071 ⁺	-.074 ⁺
THREE-WAY INTERACTION							
OCM*ICM*PSS							-.025
R ² adjusted	.028	.056	.048	.131	.143	.144	.143
Δ R ² significance	.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.283	.578
F	2.212	3.323	3.021	6.951	6.815	5.992	5.715

⁺ p ≤ 0.10

^{*} p ≤ 0.05

^{**} p ≤ 0.01

Figure 4.11: Standardized coefficients; [Y = Financial Achievement (SCS)]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONTROL VARIABLES							
Gender	-.093 ⁺	-.085 ⁺	-.096 ⁺	-.074 ⁺	-.074 ⁺	-.071 ⁺	-.069 ⁺
Education	-.093 ⁺	-.074	-.085	-.044	-.036	-.034	-.039
Work experience	.053	.044	.105 [*]	.056	.088 [*]	.088 [*]	.087 [*]
N of Subordinates	.007	-.008	-.004	.011	-.005	-.006	-.010
N of Occupations	.045	.019	.016	.047	.012	.010	.015
N of Employers	.028	.033	.040	.036	.046	.044	.043
N of Sectors	-.123 ⁺	-.114 ⁺	-.149 ^{**}	-.097 ⁺	-.113 ⁺	-.111 ⁺	-.114 ⁺
Overseas Assignments	.018	-.019	-.033	-.003	-.051	-.056	-.047
Professionals	-.153 ^{**}	-.124 [*]	-.153 ^{**}	-.126 [*]	-.113 [*]	-.115 [*]	-.115 [*]
Clerical & Service workers	-.114 ⁺	-.047	-.042	-.068	.007	.006	.001
Skilled labour	-.138 [*]	-.066	-.083	-.072	-.010	-.008	-.016
Employment status	.090 [*]	.082 [*]	.042	.088 [*]	.052	.052	.054
Organization sector	-.044	-.065	-.062	-.051	-.074 ⁺	-.072 ⁺	-.073 ⁺
Organization size	-.054	-.095 ⁺	-.071 ⁺	-.039	-.081 [*]	-.081 [*]	-.083 [*]
PREDICTOR							
OCM		.301 ^{**}			.175 ^{**}	.173 ^{**}	.189 ^{**}
MODERATORS							
ICM			.338 ^{**}		.217 ^{**}	.221 ^{**}	.223 ^{**}
PSS				.340 ^{**}	.265 ^{**}	.260 ^{**}	.284 ^{**}
TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS							
OCM*ICM						-.033	-.042
OCM*PSS						-.003	.011
ICM*PSS						.043	.046
THREE-WAY INTERACTION							
OCM*ICM*PSS							-.070 ⁺
R ² adjusted	.043	.121	.142	.156	.237	.236	.238
Δ R ² significance	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.618	.102
F	2.910 ^{**}	6.439 ^{**}	7.594 ^{**}	8.273 ^{**}	11.828 ^{**}	10.122 ^{**}	9.796 ^{**}

⁺ p ≤ 0.10

^{*} p ≤ 0.05

^{**} p ≤ 0.01

Figure 4.12: Standardized coefficients; [Y = Turnover Intention]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONTROL VARIABLES							
Gender	.007	.004	.006	-.011	-.014	-.007	-.008
Education	.109 ⁺	.102 ⁺	.109 ⁺	.060	.057	.067	.069
Work experience	-.268 ^{**}	-.265 ^{**}	-.270 ^{**}	-.271 ^{**}	-.247 ^{**}	-.250 ^{**}	-.250 ^{**}
N of Subordinates	.03	.036	.030	.026	.026	.027	.029
N of Occupations	.007	.018	.006	.005	.002	-.007	-0.01
N of Employers	.096 ⁺	.094 ⁺	.090 ⁺	.087 ⁺	.091 ⁺	.089 ⁺	.090 ⁺
N of Sectors	.066	.062	.072	.040	.027	.027	.029
Overseas Assignments	.007	.022	.004	.028	.022	.014	.01
Professionals	-.116 ⁺	-.127 ⁺	-.116 ⁺	-.143 ^{**}	-.151 ^{**}	-.153 ^{**}	-.152 ^{**}
Clerical & Service workers	-.113 ⁺	-.140 ⁺	-.115 ⁺	-.159 ^{**}	-.154 ^{**}	-.156 ^{**}	-.154 ^{**}
Skilled labour	-.082	-.110 ⁺	-.081	-.147 ^{**}	-.151 ^{**}	-.141 ⁺	-.137 ⁺
Employment status	-.02	-.017	-.022	-.018	-.033	-.042	-.043
Organization sector	.146 ^{**}	.155 ^{**}	.149 ^{**}	.154 ^{**}	.154 ^{**}	.157 ^{**}	.157 ^{**}
Organization size	.036	.052	.036	.021	.025	.026	.028
PREDICTOR							
OCM		-.119 ^{**}			-.093 ⁺	-.085 ⁺	-.093 ⁺
MODERATORS							
ICM			.008		.124 ^{**}	.118 ^{**}	.117 ^{**}
PSS				-.337 ^{**}	-.346 ^{**}	-.340 ^{**}	-.353 ^{**}
TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS							
OCM*ICM						.043	.042
OCM*PSS						.068 ⁺	.061
ICM*PSS						-.119 ^{**}	-.114 ^{**}
THREE-WAY INTERACTION							
OCM*ICM*PSS							.037
R adjusted	.128	.139	.130	.238	.250	.260	.259
Δ R significance	.000	.004	.853	.000	.000	.013	.387
F	7.195 ^{**}	7.359 ^{**}	6.952 ^{**}	13.356 ^{**}	12.581 ^{**}	11.380 ^{**}	10.869 ^{**}

⁺ p ≤ 0.10

^{*} p ≤ 0.05

^{**} p ≤ 0.01

Other control variables particularly significant for all OCS outcomes are the occupation dummies and the number of employers, while the number of subordinates and the organization size positively influence S and P only. Indeed, it is reasonable to think that professionals, clerical and service workers and skilled labour earn less, receive less promotions and are more willing to stay with respect to managers (reference group). At the same time, the number of employers that one individual had in his/her career is positively associated to all OCS indicators, while the number of occupations positively associates with P only.

The relationships among controls and dependent variables are less predictable when it comes to SCS indicators. The occupational dummy variables, for instance, are not always significant. Except for PCS, where all occupational levels perceive less career success with respect to managers, in the case of FA, only professionals seems to reach a lower financial achievement than managers, while clerical and service workers, together with skilled labour are those obtaining an higher balance between work and life (WLB). These results highlight the different importance attributed to the same elements, by different class of workers: even if clericals and skilled labour are objectively those who earn less, only professionals (who probably have higher financial ambitions) feel significantly less financially satisfied with respect to managers. Regarding organizational size, it is negatively associated to all the SCS indicators: the larger the organization, the lower the PCS, WLB and FA. Finally, the number of sectors in which an individual has worked in his/her career is negatively associated with PCS and FA, indicating that the transversal knowledge built across sectors doesn't repay in terms of perceived career success.

Predictor. OCM is significantly and positively related to all the indicators of both subjective and objective career success, except for PCS, where it is significant only in the second model and for TI, where it is negatively associated with the dependent variable, as expected. In general, the strength of the association of OCM is higher on SCS, than on OCS indicators, and lower with respect to the moderators' ($.061 < |\beta_{OCM}| < .189$).

Moderators. Both moderators have a direct and significant relationship with most of the career success predictors. In particular, PSS is positively related to all of them (but negatively to TI), with the exception of S. Instead, the significance of both ICM and the interactions will vary according to the dependent variable. Regarding the strength of the moderator-career success relationship, it is noticeable that the standardized beta are more meaningful for SCS, than for OCS indicators and that the variance in PSS betas is higher ($.118 < |\beta_{ICM}| < .269$; $.074 < |\beta_{PSS}| < .296$).

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

Later on, I will test the hypotheses developed in the previous Chapter (from *H1a* to *H4b*), focusing firstly on the direct associations between the predictor, the moderators and the outcomes and secondly on the indirect relationships among the same variables. The aim of this last analysis is to assess whether and how the OCM-career success and OCM-turnover intention associations can be influenced by the presence of the moderators.

4.4.1 Direct relationships

H1a: Organizational Career Management (OCM) will be positively associated with objective and subjective career success.

OCM stands for the organizational practices in which a company may invest, in order to support its employees' career management. As already seen in paragraph 4.2.2, several practices are represented in the OCM variable (e.g. mentoring, lateral moves, career counselling and workshops, formal education,..), with the expectation that the higher the number of practices that an individual can benefit from, the more he/she will experience objective or subjective career success. As briefly mentioned before, the relationship between the predictor OCM and all the career success indicators, is always positive and significant, even if at different significance levels. In particular, as the variable is included in the regressions (second model), it is always significant with $\alpha \leq .01$ (except for S, where $\alpha \leq .05$).

However, when the moderators are included in the regression (fifth model), OCM always reduces its strength and significance level to $.05 \leq \alpha \leq .10$ and in the case of PCS the predictor definitely loses its significance and the related coefficient becomes negative. This effect is even more evident in the sixth model, when the interactions among the predictor and the moderators are added to the multiple regression. After having excluded potential multicollinearity problems³⁵ ($VIF_{OCM} = 1.455$; $tolerance_{OCM} = .688$), it is reasonable to attribute these significance changes in the estimated parameter to significant interaction effects between OCM and the moderators, which are confirmed in most of the cases. Moreover, it could be that β_{OCM} includes the moderators' β_i , when they are not included in the regressions, because of the small, but significant correlations between them ($\rho_{(OCM,PSS)} = .196^{**}$; $\rho_{(OCM,ICM)} = .396^{**}$).

Finally, by looking at the single dependent variables, focusing on the second models, it is possible to say that *H1a* is fully supported: OCM is positively and significantly associated with salary ($\beta_{OCM} = .061^*$), promotions ($\beta_{OCM} = .092^{**}$), perceived career success ($\beta_{OCM} = .152^{**}$),

³⁵ For $VIF < 3.000$ and tolerance level $> .300$ we excluded multicollinearity.

work-life balance ($\beta_{OCM} = .183^{**}$) and financial achievement ($\beta_{OCM} = .301^{**}$), although this relationship results stronger with SCS indicators (Figure 4.13).

H1b: Organizational Career Management (OCM) will be negatively associated with turnover intention.

As previously stated, TI indicates the extent to which an individual is willing to look for a new job or to change employer in the following year. On the opposite of the indicators of career success, I expected that the higher the organizational investments in employees' careers, the lower the workers' intentions to quit the organization. This expectation was confirmed by the data, since OCM is significantly and negatively related to TI ($\beta_{OCM} = -.119$) at 1% significance level, in all models, although this significance level, as well as the impact size, is reduced when the moderators are introduced in the regression. Therefore, also *H1b* is fully verified.

Figure 4.13: OCM standardized coefficients (second model)

	<i>S</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>TI</i>	<i>PCS</i>	<i>WLB</i>	<i>FA</i>
β_{OCM}	.061*	.092**	-.119**	.152**	.183**	.301**

H2a: Individual Career Management (ICM) will be positively associated with objective and subjective career success.

Consistently with the literature, this hypothesis was framed with the expectation that the more individuals engage in career management behaviours (e.g. networking, developmental feedback seeking, positioning,..), the more they are likely to achieve career success.

In general, it is noticeable that the third model's ΔR^2 is always significant, except for *S* (where only the first two models are significant). Indeed, ICM positively and significantly relates to each of the career success indicators, even if this relationship is stronger and more significant ($\alpha \leq .01$) for SCS outcomes. Indeed, as already said, this variable doesn't significantly explain variance in *S*, while it contributes only at the 5% level for *P*. Similarly to OCM, both the significance level and the impact of ICM on career success decrease when OCM and ICM are included in the regression. Like before, by assuming that this change in the parameter estimate is due to possible interactions between ICM and PSS or between ICM and the predictor (to be verified later on), by having excluded multicollinearity ($VIF_{ICM} = 1.439$; $tolerance_{ICM} = .695$).

This explanation holds for instance in the case of WLB, but doesn't hold for P, where no interactions are significant (sixth model). In this last case, the significance change may be justified by the low, but significant correlations between ICM and OCM or PSS ($\rho_{(OCM,ICM)} = .396^{**}$; $\rho_{(PSS,ICM)} = .204^{**}$)³⁶.

For all these reasons, by looking at the third model only, *H2a* partially supported. Indeed, this hypothesis is verified for promotions ($\beta_{ICM} = .079^*$), perceived career success ($\beta_{ICM} = .322^{**}$), work-life balance ($\beta_{ICM} = .161^{**}$) and financial achievement ($\beta_{ICM} = .338^{**}$), to which ICM is positively and significantly related, but is not verified for salary, whose association with ICM is positive but not significant.

H2b: Individual Career Management (ICM) will be negatively associated with turnover intention.

On the contrary from my expectations, when concentrating on the third model's results, ICM doesn't relate significantly to TI ($\beta_{ICM} = .008$) and therefore *H2b* is not satisfied. Nevertheless, by focusing on the sixth model, where the predictor, the other moderator and the interactions between them are added, ICM becomes significant at the 1% level, positively relating to TI ($\beta_{ICM} = .118^{**}$). This positive relationship is evident also when looking at ICM's standardized coefficient in the third model, although not statistically significant, suggesting that individuals that highly engage in career management are also more willing to leave their organizations.

Figure 4.14: ICM standardized coefficients (third model)

	<i>S</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>TI</i>	<i>PCS</i>	<i>WLB</i>	<i>FA</i>
β_{ICM}	.009	.079*	.008	.322**	.161**	.338**

H3a: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) will be positively associated with objective and subjective career success.

According to our expectations, individuals that feel supported by their supervisors should be more likely to experience both objective and subjective career success, with respect to those who don't perceive supervisor support. Focusing on the fourth models' results, it is noticeable that these expectations are actually confirmed by the data: PSS is positively related to all career success outcomes (except for S), at 1% significance level, as the fourth models' ΔR^2 fur-

³⁶ ρ indicates the Pearson correlation index.

ther indicate. Similarly to OCM and ICM, PSS' standardized coefficients are higher for SCS than for OCS. On the contrary of the variables previously analyzed, PSS keeps its high significance level and strength even in the next models (where additional variables are included), except for P, where PSS' coefficient reduces its significance at $\alpha \leq .05$. This confirms PSS high contribution in explaining Y's variance, despite its positive but insignificant relationship with S. Finally, *H3a* is partially verified, since PSS positively relates to promotions ($\beta_{PSS} = .093^{**}$), perceived career success ($\beta_{PSS} = .298^{**}$), work-life balance ($\beta_{PSS} = .326^{**}$) and financial achievement ($\beta_{PSS} = .340^{**}$).

H3b: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) will be negatively associated with turnover intention.

In line with our expectations, PSS is negatively associated with TI, at 1% significance level ($\beta_{PSS} = -.337^{**}$), suggesting that individuals are more likely to stay within the organization when they feel that their managers are supporting them. Therefore, *H3b* is fully supported.

Figure 4.15: PSS standardized coefficients (fourth model)

	<i>S</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>TI</i>	<i>PCS</i>	<i>WLB</i>	<i>FA</i>
β_{PSS}	.035	.093 ^{**}	-.337 ^{**}	.298 ^{**}	.326 ^{**}	.34 ^{**}

4.4.2 Interactions

After analyzing the direct relationships between OCM, ICM, PSS, career success and turnover intention, I will focus on *H4a* and *H4b*, which aim at assessing whether the positive (negative) relationship between OCM and career success (turnover intention) is jointly moderated by ICM and PSS³⁷. The underlying assumption is that this association is stronger³⁸ when employees contemporaneously invest in career management and feel supported by their managers. Unfortunately, on the contrary of my expectations, this three-way cross-product (OCM*ICM*PSS) significantly explains part of FA's variance ($\Delta R^2 = .102$), but is not statistically significant when analyzing all the other career success outcomes or TI.

Nevertheless, as mentioned in Chapter Three, these hypotheses also refer, implicitly, to potential two-way interactions characterizing the OCM-career success and the OCM-TI relationships. In particular, points number 2. of both *H4a* and *H4b* were framed with the expectation

³⁷ For the analysis I will consider standardized coefficients from models number 6 and 7, where respectively two-way and three-way interactions were added to the multiple regression.

³⁸ "Stronger" means more positive or more negative, according to the original relationship studied.

that the previous associations will be stronger when employees invest in career management (ICM), despite not benefiting from PSS (OCM*ICM). Similarly, points number 3. of both hypotheses were developed expecting that the OCM-career success/TI relationships will be stronger if individuals feel supported by their supervisor (PSS), even when they do not engage in career management behaviours (ICM) (OCM*PSS).

Finally, although not directly linked to our theoretical model and therefore not mentioned among the hypotheses, I will test the two-way interaction between ICM and PSS, when significant. Indeed, from the point of view of employees, it would be useful to know if and when it is more convenient to engage in career management behaviours, in presence of low/high levels of perceived supervisor support (ICM*PSS).

H4a: 1. The positive relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

2. The positive relationship between organizational career management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be next strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

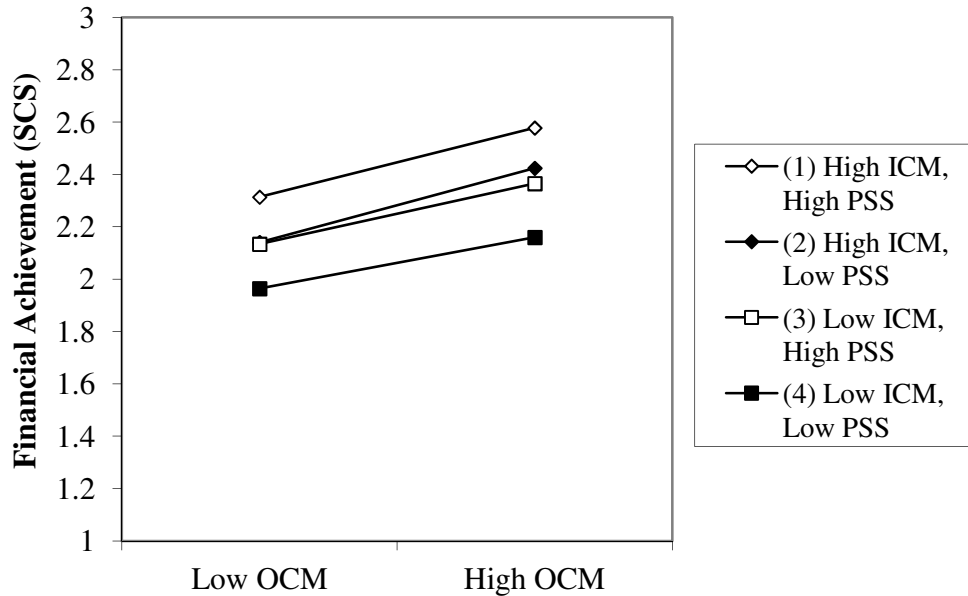
3. The positive relationship between organizational career management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be next strongest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

4. The positive relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and objective and subjective career success will be weakest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

As mentioned before, financial achievement, the subjective indicator for material gains, is the only career success outcome presenting a significant three-way interaction ($\beta = -.070^+$), with ICM and PSS, at the 10.2% level (Figure 4.16). By giving a general look at the above graph, it is evident that OCM always relates positively to FA, regardless of the levels of the moderators (the lines are all positively inclined). This further confirms *H1a* and suggests that organizational investments are always beneficial to individuals, in terms of perceived FA. By focusing on the extreme cases treated by *H4a*, one can notice that the contemporaneous presence of ICM and PSS is associated with an upward shift from the fourth line to the first one, confirming *H4a(1)* and *H4a(4)*. This indicates that PSS and ICM jointly and positively moderate the OCM-FA association, for both high and low levels of organizational investments.

Regarding the intermediate hypothesis, $H4a(2)$ and $H4a(3)$, it is noticeable that the presence of only one of the two moderators still influences the OCM-FA relationship positively.

Figure 4.16: Financial Achievement: Three-way Interaction among OCM, ICM and PSS



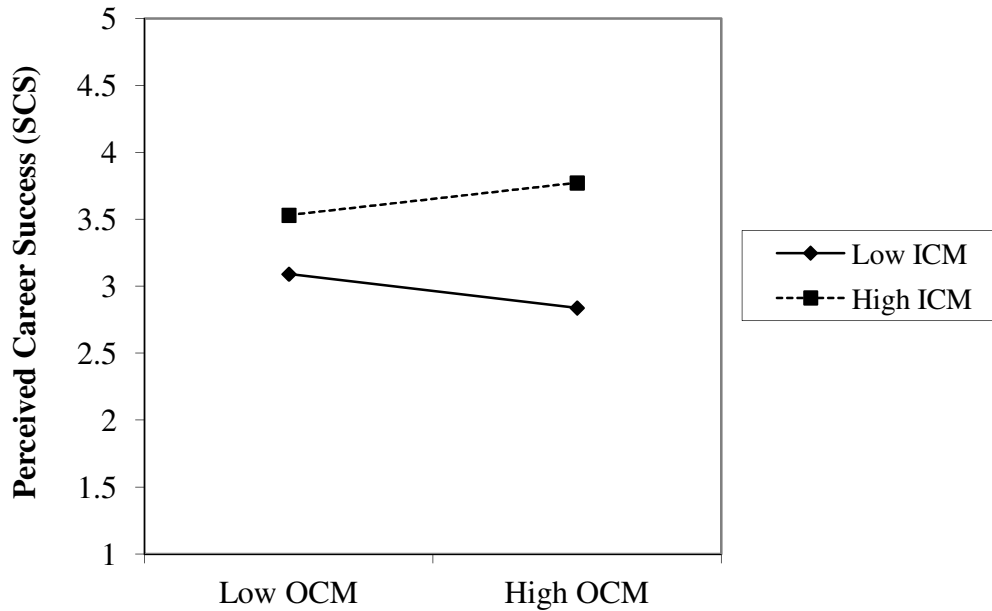
Indeed, both in cases n. 2 (high ICM-low PSS) and n. 3 (low ICM-high PSS) the lines have a positive trend and are positioned in between the previous extreme cases (1,4). Although they overlap when OCM is low, suggesting a perfect substitutability between PSS and ICM, the slope of the second line is slightly higher than the third one, and this is evident especially when OCM is high. This suggests that when organizations highly invest in their employees, high ICM can be associated to higher levels of FA, with respect to high PSS. All the lines are almost parallel to each other, meaning that the presence of PSS and/or ICM is mainly associated to a shift in the intercept rather than in the slope. All these results are perfectly in line with my expectations, giving support to $H4a$ in all its sub-dimensions.

From now on I will deal with two-way interactions only, since no more three-way interactions result significant in the analysis. Figure 4.17 shows how ICM moderates the relationship between OCM and PCS ($\beta_{OCMICM} = .094^*$).

On the contrary of the previous situation, in which OCM always relates to the subjective career success indicator (FA) positively, in this case it is evident that organizational investments are effective in terms of PCS only when individuals also invest in their careers. Indeed, when ICM and OCM are low, PCS is higher with respect to the situation in which ICM is low and the organization invests in career management. By looking at the positive coefficient of ICM ($\beta_{ICM} = .269^{**}$) and negative coefficient of OCM ($\beta_{OCM} = -.002$), this situation may appear in-

consistent with the one described by the fully verified *H1a*, which supports the positive relationship between OCM and career success (tested with the second model).

Figure 4.17: *Perceived Career Success: Two-way Interaction among OCM and ICM*



However, as previously mentioned, in the case of PCS only, the coefficient of OCM becomes insignificant and negative when including the interactions (sixth model). Therefore, the nature of OCM’s coefficient really depends on which model is used in order to test the hypotheses. In this case it is necessary to use the sixth model, which includes the two-way cross-products, and therefore I will consider the negative OCM’s coefficient to analyze the interactions, although not significant. This result may be due to the fact that individuals that do not invest in their careers are not really interested in career advancement or do not believe in the effectiveness of organizational investments in career management. Therefore, OCM practices may be considered as not effective and/or time-wasting for them, reducing their PCS.

Additionally, what is evident from this graph is that the OCM-PCS relationship is always stronger in presence of high levels of ICM, showing the complementarity of organizational and individual investments. This highlights the important role of investing in individual career management, especially when also OCM is high.

Summarizing, H4a is partially verified. Indeed, it is supported in all its points in the case of financial achievement (FA), while the two-way interaction between OCM and ICM satisfies H4a(2) when analyzing PCS. However, no other three-way cross-products significantly explain the relationship between organizational investments and the other subjective and objective career success indicators.

Figure 4.18: Work-life Balance: Two-way Interaction among ICM and PSS

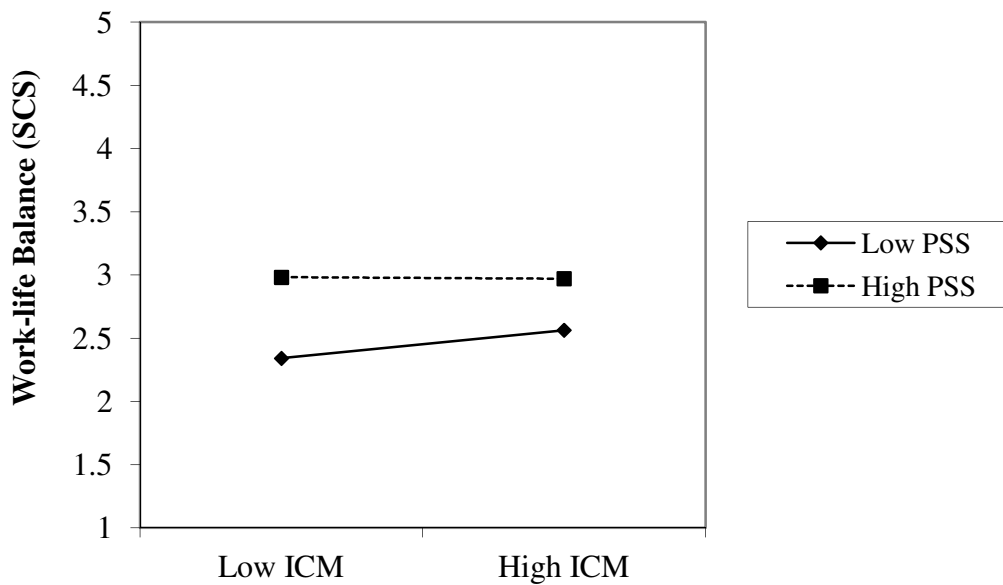


Figure 4.18 captures PSS' moderating effect on the relationship between ICM and WLB ($\beta_{ICMPSS} = -.071^*$). Although this interaction is not directly related to the theoretical model, it can be useful to investigate it, both for individuals and managers, who can better understand when to invest in career management or support their employees and why.

As it is evident in the graph, the positive relationship between ICM and WLB is even stronger when associated to high levels of PSS that, taken as a single variable, positively relates to WLB ($\beta_{PSS} = .292^{**}$). Investing in individual career management is positively related to work-life balance perceptions ($\beta_{ICM} = .058$), despite the fact that ICM's coefficient is not significant in the sixth model. However, because of the interaction with PSS, the difference in the WLB perceived in high and low ICM situations is fully compensated by the high perceived supervisor support. Indeed, when PSS is high, individuals perceive the same level of work-life balance, regardless of the level of individual career management. This suggests that perceived supervisor support is very important in explaining work-life balance, to the point that the positive relationship between ICM and WLB becomes irrelevant when PSS is high.

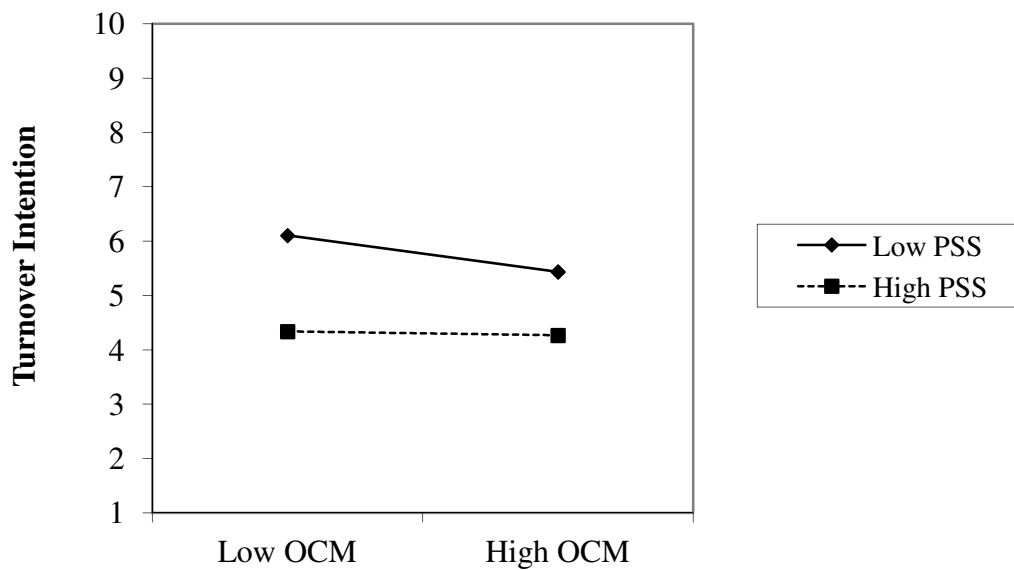
H4b: 1. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

2. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be next strongest when individuals a) invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

3. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be next strongest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

4. The negative relationship between Organizational Career Management (OCM) and turnover intention will be weakest when individuals a) do not invest in Individual Career Management (ICM) and b) do not Perceive Supervisor Support (PSS).

Figure 4.19: Turnover Intention: Two-way Interaction among OCM and PSS



Despite the impossibility of testing H4b entirely³⁹, by analyzing the two-way interaction between OCM and PSS it is possible to test, at least partially, H4b(3)⁴⁰.

In Figure 4.19 it is noticeable how PSS negatively moderates the OCM-TI relationship ($\beta_{OCMPSS} = -.068^+$). Both OCM and PSS, when taken as single variables, are negatively associated to TI, meaning that, when organizational investments (or perceived supervisor support) are high, individuals are more motivated to stay within the organization ($\beta_{OCM} = -.085^*$; $\beta_{PSS} = -.340^{**}$). When considering the interaction between ICM and PSS, the presence of high PSS is associated to an even more negative relationship between OCM and TI, providing support for H4b(3). Similarly to the WLB case, the (negative) influence of PSS is so strong and statistically significant that when PSS is high, individuals perceive the same levels of TI, regardless of OCM investments. Therefore, the difference in TI, due to different levels of OCM, is eliminated when PSS is high (the line associated to high PSS is flat).

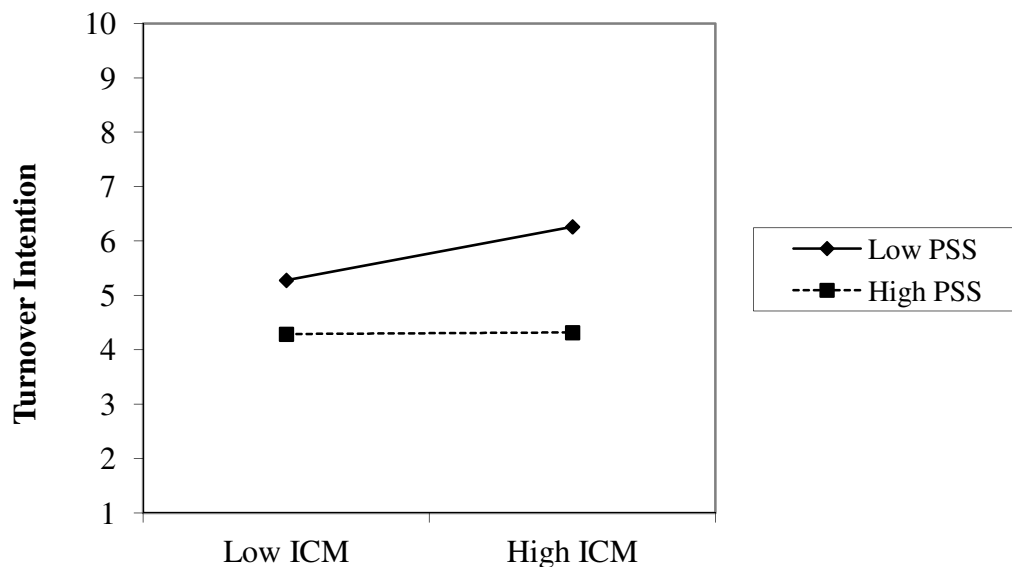
³⁹ The three-way interaction between OCM, ICM and PSS is not significant.

⁴⁰ I will not test if ICM is a stronger moderator than PSS, but I will analyze the nature of PSS' moderation.

These results may indicate that organizational investments are effective in decreasing turnover intention only when employees do not perceive support from their managers.

Finally, *H4b(3)* is partially supported. On the one hand, as predicted, the OCM-TI negative relationship is even stronger when individuals feel to be supported by their supervisors. However, on the opposite of my expectations, PSS results to be a stronger moderator than ICM in explaining TI, since OCM*PSS is the only significant interaction of the model.

Figure 4.20: Turnover Intention: Two-way Interaction among ICM and PSS



As already seen in *H2a*, investing in individual career management is positively associated to TI, on the contrary of my expectations ($\beta_{ICM} = .118^{**}$). In Figure 4.20 this trend is evident when PSS is low, but it radically changes with high levels of perceived supervisor support ($\beta_{ICMPSS} = -.119^{**}$).

Indeed, PSS is negatively associated to TI when taken as a single variable ($\beta_{PSS} = -.340^{**}$), but it also negatively moderates the ICM-TI relationship. Indeed, when associated to high PSS, individuals' intention to stay within the organization is higher and is not influenced any more by the level of ICM. PSS' strength is evident from the graph since it eliminates the difference in TI due to different levels of ICM: the line, firstly positively inclined, turns to be flat.

Individuals that highly invest in ICM are also those who benefit more from perceived supervisor support, in terms of decreased turnover intention, even though the final level of TI is identical for those who invest or don't invest in ICM, when PSS is high.

4.5 Conclusion

This Chapter was divided into two main parts.

In the first part, more descriptive, a general description of the sample was firstly made, summarizing the main information from the data collected, in order to have a picture of the sample composition. Secondly, I described the variables that would have been used in the analysis more specifically, explaining how they had been collected, what they actually measure and the eventual changes that were needed in order to use them in the analysis. Finally, before beginning the analysis, I computed the correlations among all the variables used, in order to account for multicollinearity, beyond explaining in detail the type of analysis that I planned to do.

In the second part, six multiple regressions have been run, using subjective career success outcomes (PCS, WLB and FA), objective career success outcomes (S and P) and TI as dependent variables. Afterwards the data have been analyzed, in order to test the hypotheses developed in the previous Chapter. This was done to capture the nature of the direct and indirect relationships between organizational career management (OCM), individual career management (ICM), perceived supervisor support (PSS) and the previous outcomes.

In particular, it has been showed that:

H1a, H1b, H3b are fully verified.

As expected, OCM presents a positive relationship with all the objective and subjective career success indicators (H1a), but a negative relationship with TI (H1b). Moreover, TI is also negatively associated with PSS (H3b).

H2a, H3a, H4a are partially verified.

As expected, both ICM (H2a) and PSS (H3a) positively relate to SCS and OCS outcomes, except for S. H4a is also partially supported, because only in the case of FA, the three-way interaction among OCM, ICM and PSS resulted significant. Nevertheless, the results from this interaction perfectly reflect H4a in all its sub-dimensions, showing that the OCM-FA relationship is strongest (weakest) when both ICM and PSS are present (absent) and that ICM is a stronger moderator than PSS. Moreover, H4a(2) is also verified in the case of PCS: the OCM*ICM interaction indicates that when individuals invest in ICM, the OCM-PCS relationship is stronger.

H2b and H4b are not verified.

On the contrary of my expectation, ICM is positively and significantly associated to TI. H4b is not supported for what concerns the hypothesis seen as a whole, because the three-way interaction among OCM, ICM and PSS did not explain TI's variance significantly. Neverthe-

less, H4b(3) is verified, because the significant two-way interaction between OCM and PSS shows that the negative association between OCM and TI is stronger when individuals perceive high supervisor support. However, it follows from this that PSS is a stronger moderator than ICM, on the contrary of my predictions.

5. CONCLUSION

DISCUSSION & MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

After having analyzed the data and tested the hypotheses developed in Chapter Three, now it is time to compare the results obtained with those from the recent studies on career success and turnover intention, in order to understand whether they coincide, diverge or guide to new conclusions.

Afterwards, I will translate these findings in managerial implications, addressed both to the organization and individuals. On the one hand, these will aim at assessing if and when it is effective for organizations to invest in career management practices and for supervisors to actively support their subordinates in terms of employees' career success and turnover intention. Is it always worth investing and supporting employees or does it depend on the level of career self-management behaviors? On the other hand, for employees it would be useful to understand whether and when their efforts in terms of individual career management do translate in higher career success. Is it always worth engaging in career management for an individual or does it depend on the level of organizational investment and supervisor support?

Finally, the main limitations and suggestions for future research will be presented.

5.2 Discussion

The most important findings and implications from this study will be reported later on, firstly focusing on the relationships between OCM, ICM, PSS and career success and secondly on their interactions.

5.2.1 Organizational Career Management

According to my analysis, when considering it singularly⁴¹, *Organizational Career Management (OCM) is positively related to objective and subjective career success*, confirming ear-

⁴¹ The results from the second models will be considered to interpret the direct relationships later on.

lier studies (e.g. Orpen, 1994; Ng et al., 2005; Kong et al., 2012; Verbruggen et al., 2007; De Vos & Soens, 2008)⁴². These results suggest that OCM practices may actually enhance employees' intrinsic and extrinsic career success by supporting them in managing their careers. Nevertheless, in line with the findings by Ng et al. (2005), the positive relationship between organizational investments and career success is stronger for subjective career success indicators (in this case perceived career success, work-life balance and financial achievement) than for promotions and salary. This indicates that OCM (as ICM and PSS) may be more suitable for explaining subjective than objective career success⁴³. Indeed, it is reasonable to think that some organizational career management practices (e.g. flexible work arrangements, lateral moves, mentoring..) may lead to high levels of subjective career success, without necessarily affecting salary levels or the number of promotions. Additionally, even when considering intrinsic indicators of career success, the nature of their relationship with OCM seems to vary according to the specific outcome, when interactions are added to the model. Despite maintaining their significance level in the case of WLB and FA, organizational investments lose their significant and direct relationship with PCS, moderating the ICM-PCS positive association. This suggests that OCM by its own is not sufficient to positively influence the individuals' perception of career success, but can be useful when other career management variables are considered.

Moreover, *Organizational Career Management (OCM) is negatively related to turnover intention*. This finding⁴⁴ is consistent with Blau's social exchange theory (1964, cited by Eisenberg, 1986), according to which individuals receiving support from their employers feel indebted towards the organization, and therefore will reciprocate (in this case by staying within the organization).

5.2.2 Individual Career Management

Individual Career Management (ICM) is positively associated with objective⁴⁵ and subjective career success, in line with previous studies on career self-management, and in particular on enacted managerial aspirations⁴⁶. These results give further support to the assumption that in-

⁴² See paragraph 2.2.2.

⁴³ This is evident when comparing the ΔR^2 of the second models for subjective and objective career success indicators, but also the size of the standardized coefficients.

⁴⁴ The relationship between OCM and turnover intention has been poorly treated by the career management literature (paragraph 3.3.1).

⁴⁵ Except for salary (S).

⁴⁶ Enacted managerial aspirations (EMA) reflect the career strategies and actions that individuals implement in order to obtain managerial advancement (Eddleston, 2009). It belongs to the broader category of individual career management (ICM) and its specific construct was used in the analysis, as indicated in paragraph 4.2.2.

dividuals engaging in proactive career behaviours (e.g. developing a network of useful contacts, searching for new jobs, looking for performance or career-related feedback) are more likely to reach their career goals, and therefore career success (Kossek et al., 1998).

In particular, individual career management has been found to positively relate to promotions, consistently with the findings regarding enacted managerial aspirations and objective career success (Tharenou, 2001; Crant & Kraimer, 2001), although in our sample no significant relationship between ICM and salary was found. The findings by Crant and Kraimer (2001) and by Eddleston (2009), dealing with career satisfaction, are supported by the positive relationships between ICM and subjective career success indicators (perceived career success, work-life balance and financial achievement).

However, similarly to organizational career management, the ICM-career success' positive association is stronger and more significant for subjective rather than objective outcomes and becomes weaker when considering other variables in the model. This may suggest again that different variables could be more indicated in predicting objective career success indicators, whose variance is largely explained by the controls. Moreover, even when subjective outcomes are considered, the effectiveness of career self-management in predicting career success may vary according to the specific outcome. Indeed, when looking at work-life balance, ICM has only an indirect relationship with it⁴⁷, while being directly related to PCS and FA.

Contrary to my expectations, *Individual Career Management (ICM) and turnover intention are positively associated*, suggesting that the more an individual engages in career-related behaviours, the more he/she is willing to quit the organization. This result is opposed to the findings by Eddleston (2009), who showed that enacted managerial aspirations reduce turnover intention, when making downward comparisons. Nevertheless, these findings support the studies of King (2004) and Tharenou et al. (2009), who suggest that the type of impact of EMA on turnover intention depends on the individuals' expectations of receiving a certain outcome, when engaging in a specific behavior (expectancy theory). Another possible interpretation is that individuals that highly invest in career self-management also have high expectations for their career advancement, and are therefore less likely to be satisfied by their organizations' offers. Moreover, if employees engage in networking activities, they may also be less afraid to lose their job, since they could be more likely to find a new one. This may explain why high career self-management is associated to high turnover intention.

⁴⁷ The sixth model is considered.

5.2.3 Perceived Supervisor Support

From the analysis in the previous Chapter, it is also possible to conclude that *Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)* is positively related to both objective⁴⁸ and subjective career success outcomes. This confirms my expectations and gives support to the assumptions that when employees perceive to be supported by their supervisors they (a) will be more satisfied about their careers (subjective career success) and (b) will be more likely to experience higher number of promotions, thanks to the feedback, advices and influence on decision processes of the supervisors (objective career success).

Nevertheless, the first assumption is largely more verified by the data than the second one. Indeed, even if PSS is positively associated to promotions, it is not significantly related to income, failing at supporting earlier studies on the role of supervisors in influencing employees' salary (Seidel et al., 2000; Jokissari & Nurmi, 2009). Moreover, the effect size and the significance of perceived supervisor support in explaining career success is higher for subjective career success outcomes than for promotions, similarly to OCM and ICM. However, contrary to these two variables, the perceived support of the supervisor maintains its strength and significance throughout the models tested, when considering PCS, WLB and FA, further indicating its relevance in explaining subjective career success indicators. The underlying reason may be that supervisor support is important for employees, especially from a psychological point of view, rather than from a more practical and material one, linked to increase in salary and promotion levels. Moreover, by being a subjective variable, PSS may be even more suitable than OCM and ICM in predicting subjective career success indicators. Indeed, according to Glazer (2006), perceptions of support are more relevant than objective indicators, because perceptions affect cognitive appraisals of situations. Since evidence for PSS' impacts on career success is scarcely provided by the literature, these results may constitute food for thought for future scholars.

Consistently with my expectations, *Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)* negatively relates to turnover intention. This result is confirmed by earlier studies on turnover intention (Maertz et al., 2007; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Newman et al., 2012), which demonstrate that when employees feel supported by their managers, they are more likely to stay within the organization. This trend is in line with the rule of reciprocity (Eisenberger et al., 1990): individuals who perceive high supervisor support should tend to stay more, because they feel obliged to reciprocate towards the organization. Indeed, supervisors are considered the employees' closest link to the organization, because of their competence to convey the intentions of the organiza-

⁴⁸ Except for salary (S).

tion directly to their subordinates (Dawlet et al., 2008). Finally, recent studies recognize the critical role of relational inducements in affecting employees' decisions to quit their organizations (Allen et al., 2003, cited in Maertz et al., 2007).

5.2.4 Two-way and three-way Interactions

The main objective of this paragraph is to assess the nature of the relationship among OCM, ICM and PSS, in order to understand if they are complementary, substitutes or if they do not interact at all and, eventually, if these relationships are consistent with recent research⁴⁹. The findings reported below will be based on the three-way and two-way interactions discussed in the previous Chapter (paragraph 4.4.2).

First, *Organizational investments (OCM), Individual Career Management (ICM) and Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) are complementary when explaining financial achievement (FA)*. Indeed, from Figure 4.17 it is evident that individuals perceive the highest (lowest) levels of FA when OCM, ICM and PSS are jointly high (low), meaning that each of these variables has a positive and additional influence on FA. However, when looking at the intermediate cases, where either ICM or PSS are experienced by the employees, it is noticeable that the importance of these two variables varies according to the levels of OCM. Indeed, when the organization invests in career management, employees' efforts in terms of ICM are associated to higher FA levels with respect to the case in which employees do not invest in ICM but perceive high levels of supervisor support. On the contrary, when the organization doesn't invest in career management practices, the moderating influence of ICM or PSS on the OCM-FA relationship is identical.

Nevertheless, these results cannot be extended to other indicators of career success, since no other three-way cross-product resulted significant in the analysis. The reason may underlie in the intrinsic nature of the dependent variable, FA. Indeed, financial achievement distinguishes itself from the other outcomes because it is a subjective measure, but at the same time it refers to the perceived achievement of material gains, which are objective indicators of career success. Consistently to the previous assumptions, on the one hand OCM, ICM and PSS are more suitable to explain FA than salary or promotions, by being a subjective career success indicator, but on the other hand FA relates to these explanatory variables differently⁵⁰ with respect to perceived career success and work-life balance, by indirectly referring to an objective out-

⁴⁹ Two-way and three-way cross-products among OCM, ICM and PSS are poorly or no treated by the current career management literature (see paragraph 2.5).

⁵⁰ FA is the only career success outcome that significantly relates to OCM, ICM and PSS at the same time (sixth model).

come. This result suggests that individuals consider organizational investments, career self-management and perceived supervisor support as important elements, leading to financial achievements, although in reality they are scarcely related to salary and promotions. Therefore the contemporaneous presence of OCM, ICM and PSS is associated to a stronger relationship between organizational investments and perceived financial achievement, but not with actual financial outcomes (salary and promotions).

Second, *Individual Career Management (ICM) and Organizational Career Management (OCM) are complementary in explaining Perceived Career Success (PCS), but only when ICM is high*. Indeed, by observing Figure 4.17, it is noticeable that when organizations invest in OCM, individuals perceive more career success only if they jointly invest in career management. Indeed, when individuals do not engage in career-related behaviours, organizational investments reduce their perception of career success. Therefore, it would be more correct to say that organizational investments moderate the ICM-PCS relationship rather than the other way around, although the final result doesn't change. This is evident also by looking at the standardized coefficient of OCM in the sixth model, which loses its significance (Figure 4.10). This is partially consistent with the studies by Sturges et al. (2005), who demonstrated that OCM has a moderating effect on the ICM-subjective career success relationship. However, in the case of PCS, this moderating effect is positive only when individuals highly invest in career management.

Moreover, these findings help at clarifying the results obtained by De Vos et al. (2009), which present contradictory results. On the one hand, this second finding confirms the evidence of OCM-ICM complementarity, according to which individuals that highly invest in individual career management are those expecting higher contribution from the organization in managing their careers. On the other hand, this finding contradicts the evidence of substitutability between OCM and ICM, due to the fact that the positive effect of organizational investments on subjective career success is higher for employees low in ICM. Indeed, according to the analysis in the previous Chapter, organizational investments not only are more beneficial to those who highly invest in career management, but are also damaging for those who do not invest, in terms of PCS. A possible interpretation of these findings is that individual career management, by being a reflection of managerial aspirations, is also an indicator of employees' desire for organizational career management. Indeed, it is reasonable to expect that people having high career-ambitions are also those that desire and appreciate organizational investments more. On the contrary, it could be that individuals low on ICM, having low career ambitions, do not appreciate the career management practices undertaken by the organization. Finally, low individual career management may be a symptom of scarce trust in the organiza-

tional career paths systems and their likelihood to advance within the organization (expectancy theory). In both these scenarios, organizational career management practices may be considered only a waste of time for employees, leading to a decrease in their perception of career success.

Third, *Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)*, beyond being an important predictor for both subjective and objective career success⁵¹, plays a fundamental (moderating) role in explaining work-life balance (WLB) and turnover intention (TI).

In these cases, the ICM-WLB, OCM-TI and ICM-TI relationship is strengthened or weakened by PSS, which is so strong to annul the original association between the predictors and the outcomes. In the case of work-life balance, which is positively related to ICM, high levels of perceived supervisor support make this relationship so strong that the final level of WLB doesn't depend on the level of career-self management anymore (Figure 4.18). Similarly to the previous finding, in this case it would be more appropriate to invert and say that the positive relationship between PSS and WLB is moderated by ICM, which make this association stronger, when perceived supervisor support is low. Indeed, ICM taken as a single variable doesn't have any significant relationship with work-life balance⁵². Analogous results are obtained when dealing with the relationships of OCM and ICM with turnover intention. In the first case, the OCM is negatively related to TI, but when the perceived supervisor support is high, this relationship is even more negative and does not change with the level of OCM (Figure 4.19). Finally in the second case, where career self-management is positively associated to turnover intention, the influence of PSS is so strong that it compensates for the positive effect of ICM, so that turnover intention decreases and becomes fixed, regardless of the level of career self-management (Figure 4.20).

In all these cases it is not possible to talk about complementarity or substitutability among PSS and the other predictors, because the influence of OCM and ICM on the outcome is eliminated when employees perceive to be supported by their supervisors. This result confirms the previous findings on PSS, by further highlighting the important role that perceived supervisor support plays in retaining employees: not by chance, conflict with the boss is one of the most common problems leading to voluntary turnover. Indeed, in the case of TI, when employees perceive to be supported by their supervisors, their willingness to stay in the organization doesn't vary according to the level of organizational and individual career management. This finding will have evident implications when framing HR strategies for workforce retention and therefore should be further addressed by the career management literature.

⁵¹ See paragraph 5.2.3

⁵² The standardized coefficient loses its significance when interactions are added to the model (Figure 4.11).

5.3 Managerial Implications

This paragraph aims at answering to the research questions developed in Chapter Three⁵³, by translating the findings obtained in this study into practical managerial implications, addressed both to the organizations and individuals⁵⁴.

5.3.1 Advices for Organizations

Organizational Career Management (OCM). Organizational career management is always effective in terms of increased career success, when individuals invest in career management too. Indeed, when individuals do not engage in ICM, organizational career management practices are always associated to higher levels of salary (S), promotions (P), work-life balance (WLB), financial achievement (FA) and to lower turnover intention levels (TI), but also to lower perceived career success (PCS).

Therefore, the choice of investing or not in OCM depends on the final objectives of the organization and therefore, on which kind of career success outcome needs to be tackled. If organizational investment is the only instrument on which the organization can rely on, in order to affect FA, and there is no way to understand whether an individual highly invests in career self-management or not, then OCM may be the only solution to FA. In order to reduce TI instead, it is evident from the previous analysis that the organization could rely exclusively on perceived supervisor support.

Nevertheless, investing on individuals who do not have high managerial aspirations may reduce their general perceptions of career success (PCS). Therefore, it would be more cautious to identify individuals' career aspirations in first place, in order to save precious resources and avoid dissatisfaction. This can be done by involving employees in (pre) career management activities, aiming at the self-exploration and assessment, like assessment centers. By doing so, organizations can identify individuals' (enacted) managerial aspirations and ambitions and therefore address their next career management practices to those who highly invest in ICM.

Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS). Perceived supervisor support is an important variable that organizations should always consider and value, when dealing with career management strategies. Indeed, on the opposite of OCM, perceived supervisor support is always positively and strongly related to career success, in some cases even as a moderator, beyond being the

⁵³ RQ1: Is it effective for organizations to invest in career management practices (OCM), in terms of employees' increased career success and reduced turnover intention? RQ2: If so, which are the roles of individual career management (ICM) and perceived supervisor support (PSS)?

⁵⁴ The managerial implications will be based on the results from the latest regression models having a significant ΔR^2 .

strongest predictor of turnover intention. Therefore, managers should continuously make sure that their subordinates actually perceive their support as supervisors, and the organization should both monitor and favour this positive relationship. For instance, anonymous questionnaires could be distributed among subordinates, for supervisor appraisals, in order to capture employees' perceptions about the manager's work and support provided. Eventually, it may be necessary to assess whether the problem lies in the subordinates or in the supervisor, and afterwards, solve it accordingly. The subordinates and/or the supervisor may be involved in training courses for instance, in order to teach them respectively how to perform a specific task or how to behave in the role of supervisor. Additionally, events or other nonworking activities may be organized outside the organizational context, in order to favour the creation of a more stable and positive relationship between the supervisor and his/her subordinates. Another approach could be to prevent eventual negative situations among subordinates and the managers, by focusing *ex-ante* on the recruiting (selecting) process of the subordinates (supervisor). Indeed, in some cases, eventual issues may arise when subordinates do not share the organizational vision and values, because they are in contrast with the organization and therefore, with their supervisor, who is their closest organizational link.

Despite its importance for all the subordinates, perceived supervisor support is particularly relevant for individuals with high ICM. Indeed, these employees are also those more likely to quit the organization when perceiving low PSS. In order to take care of this specific issue, it is necessary to identify these individuals (as explained in OCM), and afterwards to involve them in supervisor appraisal activities.

Individual Career Management (ICM). Organizations should look at self-career management positively, since the more individuals engage in ICM, the more they are likely to perceive career success and financial achievement. Nevertheless, as previously mentioned, organizations should make sure that employees high on ICM do perceive support from their supervisors, in order to retain them within the organization.

5.3.2 Advices for Individuals

Organizational Career Management (OCM). Individuals, who have high (enacted) managerial aspirations should look for organizations that highly invest in their careers. Indeed, OCM is the only variable positively related to salary and at the same time to all the other subjective and objective career success indicators. In order to do so, individuals should try to gather information about the career management practices actually adopted by the organization, before entering it. Today these kinds of data can be easily retrieved, thanks to professional social

networks like LinkedIn, by contacting directly employees, from online press or by directly asking to HR managers during the interviews. If operating ex-ante is not possible, the only way in which an employees can be involved is by expressing his/her desire for formal education, career planning activities or the specific career management practice he/she would like to be involved in, although this is more likely to be possible in big companies.

Finally, individuals that do not invest in career self-management should look at organizational investments like a trade-off. Indeed, although organizational investments would bring to lower perception of career success, these individuals would still benefit from OCM positive influence, on all the other career success variables. Therefore, if an individual is willing to sacrifice his/her PCS in order to have an higher salary⁵⁵, he/she should also be looking for organizations investing in career management. On the contrary, if this individual values PCS more than salary, then he/she may be more willing not to be involved in OCM practices, but to rather nurture the relationship with his/her supervisor, whose support is even more effective than OCM on subjective career success.

Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS). As previously mentioned, perceived supervisor support is an important variable for employees, especially in terms of subjective career success. Indeed, PSS is relevant both for its high significance and effect size on career success outcomes. Although the low relative power that individuals have on this variable, PSS may be enhanced by the development of positive relationships with the supervisor, even outside the work context. This may indirectly lead to more promotions, but also to an higher perception of career success, WLB and FA.

Individual Career Management (ICM). This is the main variable on which individuals can actually take action, by representing the results of their enacted managerial aspirations. Nevertheless, employees should be aware that ICM effectively influences subjective career outcomes only, but has no power on salary and promotions⁵⁶. Therefore, employees that would like to perceive higher career success, financial achievement and work-life balance (only when PSS is present), should highly invest in ICM. Examples of enacted managerial behaviours in which individuals may engage are career planning, networking, extended work involvement and participating in developmental opportunities.

Moreover, by investing in career self-management, individuals become more aware of the labour market opportunities and less afraid of leaving the organization when their career expect-

⁵⁵ Salary is the only outcome exclusively related to OCM.

⁵⁶ In the case of promotions, ICM loses its significance in the fifth model, when adding the OCM and PSS (Figure 4.9).

tations are not satisfied, thanks to the broader network of contacts that they built through their ICM activities.

5.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study presents some limitations that should be identified and specifically addressed in future research.

First, although this study investigates the relations between organizational career management, individual career management, perceived supervisor support and outcomes, it is not possible to assess the causality of these relationships, because the survey used in this analysis is cross-sectional. Nevertheless, my model is consistent with previous researches in career management literature, which consider OCM, ICM and PSS as predictors of career success outcomes (or turnover intention) and not viceversa (Chapter Three). Therefore, my suggestion to future scholars is to complete the findings from this study by conducting a longitudinal investigation across Italian organizations, in order to study the causal relationships among those variables. However, it may be difficult to assess the time needed by a predictor to influence career success and therefore, to determine the interval of time between the collection of the two samples.

Second, the convenience sample collected may not be representative of the entire Italian population, by not being random by definition: the majority of the data were collected through an on-line survey administered by students of two Northern Italian universities (Padova and Milan). Therefore, future research may find a more representative data collection method.

Another suggestion for future research is to analyze the effect of both OCM and ICM, by considering the specific practices in which the organization and the individual invest, rather than the aggregated measure. In this way, it would be possible to understand whether the practices/behaviours adopted are all equally important or not, in influencing the outcomes.

Moreover, by looking at the results, it is reasonable to think that objective and subjective career success may be predicted by different type of variables. Indeed, although subjective predictors are strongly related to OCM, ICM and PSS, these explanatory variables have a poor influence (in terms of size effect and significance) on objective career success. In particular, salary and promotions result highly related to human capital, demographic and organizational variables⁵⁷, on the contrary of subjective career success indicators. For instance, some person-

⁵⁷ Control variables explain a relevant part of the total variance in S and P, and in particular $R^2_S = .571$ and $R^2_P = .369$.

ality traits, like extroversion, may be important predictors of promotions, because they enhance positive relationships and networking. This suggests that different predictors for objective and subjective career success should be identified by future researchers, in order to have a more complete analysis of these outcomes.

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