

How career orientation shapes the job satisfaction - turnover intention link

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How Career Orientation Shapes the Job Satisfaction-Turnover Intention Link

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Abstract

This study examined the impact of career orientation on the static and dynamic relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Longitudinal data of 255 employees were collected at three waves of measurement one year apart. Results for career orientations as a moderator differed between the static and dynamic job satisfaction-turnover link. The static relationship was found to be similar and less negative for employees with independent and loyalty-focused career orientations than for promotion-focused and disengaged employees. Regarding the dynamic relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intention change, however, independent and loyalty-focused employees differed: An increase (decline) in job satisfaction was more strongly related to a decline (increase) in turnover intention for independent employees than for loyalty-focused employees. These findings provide new insights into the differential dynamics involved in assessing work situations and responding to them based on different career aspirations and interests. Consequences for research and practice regarding more effective human resource management are discussed.

Keywords: career orientations, job satisfaction, turnover intention, longitudinal data, growth

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Introduction

Research on new career concepts such as protean or boundaryless careers has increased steadily in the last 20 years and provides substantial knowledge on broad changes in career attitudes, intentions and behavior in response to changing economic and societal conditions (e.g., Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Briscoe, Hall, & Frautschy DeMuth, 2006; Hall, 2002). In particular the highly mobile behavior of individuals embracing these new career orientations has received much attention (e.g., Briscoe et al., 2006; Feldman & Ng, 2007; Gerber, Wittekind, Grote, & Staffelbach, 2009b; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Research indicating comparatively lower job satisfaction and higher turnover behavior of individuals following new careers has also given rise to discussions on the challenges embedded in contemporary career concepts (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Grote & Raeder, 2009).

To date, in the career literature job satisfaction and turnover are examined mainly as consequences of career orientations. In order to permit a more fine-grained analysis of possible impacts of the new, more independent forms of careers we turn to the turnover literature as a basic framework. In this literature the negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is central (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008), and much researched (e.g., Dougherty, Bluedorn, & Keon, 1985; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Joo & Park, 2010; March & Simon, 1958; Trevor, 2001). We argue that career orientations should be considered as important moderators in this relationship. Specifically, we assume that differences in the propensity to change employers, which are central to the debate about traditional and new careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Briscoe et al., 2006; Chudzikowski et al., 2009; Hess, Jepsen, & Dries, 2012), modify the response to (dis)satisfaction with the current employment situations. Individuals, that highly value their employability and their independence from an organization and therefore show high turnover intentions and behavior (Gasteiger, 2007; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), may be affected less by low job satisfaction than

individuals who follow a traditional career path with high expectations on loyalty and advancement in their current organization (Gerber et al., 2009b). This may change, though, when situations worsen or improve leading to a reevaluation of the general propensity to stay or to leave (Chen, Ployhart, Cooper Thomas, Anderson & Bliese, 2011). Dynamic situations are assumed to attract increased attention, possibly leading to a reassessment of appropriate responses in order to minimize potential losses (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), such as for individuals with an independent career orientation leaving a job prematurely.

With our research focus on career orientations moderating turnover intentions and behavior in response to job satisfaction we aim to advance our understanding of the impact of different career orientations in employment relationships. At the same time, we expand turnover research by following recent calls for more research on the effects of individual differences, especially within dynamic models of turnover processes (Holtom et al., 2008; Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Bentein, Mignonac & Rousselet, 2011). In doing so, we focus on turnover intention as a proxy for actual turnover behavior analogous to numerous previous studies (e.g., De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen, & Mäkikangas, 2011; Joo & Park, 2010; Weng & McElroy, 2012; Wittmer & Martin, 2011), because turnover intention is more volatile than turnover behavior. Further explanations for this choice are provided in the methods section.

By looking at the effects of job satisfaction on turnover intention in the context of different career orientations, our research aims to advance career theory. Firstly, in current career theory, job satisfaction has been mainly treated as an outcome, more specifically as the predominant indicator of subjective career success (Colakoglu, 2011; De Vos & Soens, 2008; Heslin, 2005). With our study treating job satisfaction as a precursor to turnover intentions we are able to provide new knowledge on differential dynamics in career-related intentions and behavior in response to assessments of employment situations. Secondly, we contribute to career theory by studying the impact of career orientations both regarding the static relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention and the dynamic relationship

between changes in job satisfaction and turnover intention. Chen et al. (2011) have shown the relevance of distinguishing between the static and dynamic job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship. We aim to expand the evidence for this distinction by showing that it not only holds for main effects, but also for moderating effects. We consider career orientations as a particularly interesting moderator compared to personality traits and more general values because career orientations are more closely related to work and work specific attitudes. From a practical perspective, developing a better understanding of the variability in the job satisfaction-turnover intention link based on career-related individual differences is crucial for human resource management, as it provides knowledge about how different employees should be treated individually and adequately.

The concept of career orientation

Before developing the hypotheses related to the role of career orientation with respect to the job satisfaction-turnover intention link, we briefly introduce the concept of career orientation. Over the last few decades, career research has increasingly paid attention to the investigation of career values and attitudes such as preferences regarding self-determination, advancement, mobility, organizational support and security. These values and attitudes are reflected in individuals' career orientation (Gerber et al., 2009b; Gerpott, Domsch, & Keller, 1988) and are treated as rather stable over time (Schein, 1996). Career orientation refers to the way a person considers their career, even though these values and attitudes are not necessarily reflected in actual behavior (Briscoe et al., 2006). It is an individual's career orientation, which is an essential driving force behind their career intentions and, consequently, their career choice and career path (Feldman & Bolino, 1996).

In response to economic and societal changes, new forms of careers have emerged that are more dynamic and self-determined than the traditional career built on long tenure and advancement in one or few organizations (e.g., Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 2002; Tams & Arthur, 2010). These new careers are assumed to be a response to

increasing demands on competence development, mobility, and career self-management as expressed in the concept of the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Furthermore, they are thought to indicate changes in people's career aspirations and interests, captured for instance in the notion of the protean career (Hall, 1996, 2002).

More recently, several attempts have been made to measure different career orientations representing these new forms, while also including the more traditional attitudes towards one's own career (e.g., Briscoe et al., 2006; Gerber et al., 2009b; Guest & Conway, 2004). We focus here on the conceptualization of career orientations developed by Gerber and colleagues (Gerber, Wittekind, Grote, Conway, & Guest, 2009a; Gerber et al., 2009b), based on nine items, which in addition to the new career orientation (called independent) includes two traditional organization-bounded orientations and an orientation that places less importance on work and career as such. To include the latter orientation is deemed important in line with literature showing that balancing the demands in different life domains is a crucial aim for a certain group of people (e.g., Schein, 1977).

These four types of career orientations are distinguished along their level on each of the three dimensions “boundarylessness” (short-term employment/employability versus long-term employment/job security), “proteanism” (self-determined career management versus organizational career management), and “advancement” (upward promotion/importance of career success versus lateral advancement/no importance of career) (see Table 1). Promotion-focused individuals belong to one of the two traditional career orientations. They value long tenure with an employer and organizational support for career management including upward mobility, while also placing high importance on job security and work as such. Loyalty-focused individuals differ from the other traditional career orientation in terms of less importance given to upward mobility and more emphasis placed on job security and on committing oneself to one's employer. Individuals with an independent career orientation do not expect support in career management, but nevertheless expect opportunities for upward

mobility, even more so than promotion-focused individuals, and they also highly value work as such. These people care for their own employability and organizational mobility, not for job security and organizational commitment. Their career aspirations and interests most closely resemble the "new career". Finally, individuals with a disengaged orientation are similar to the independent individuals regarding career self-management, employability and little organizational commitment, but overall place much less importance on career and work as such (Gerber et al., 2009b). In sum, the loyalty-focused and independent career orientation are the most different in terms of the underlying attributes, whereas the promotion-focused and the disengaged career orientations are somewhat more moderate, lying in between the poles marked by the loyalty-focused and independent career orientations. In this study, we are mainly interested in the impact of the independent and loyalty-focused career orientation as the two most distinct orientations.

Insert Table 1 about here

The impact of career orientation on the job satisfaction-turnover intention link

Prior research has established a relationship between individuals' career orientation and their intention to quit their current job (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Gerber et al., 2009b). Regarding job satisfaction, the focus has also been on treating it as outcome along with other outcomes like turnover intention or commitment (e.g., Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Gerber et al., 2009b; Tams & Arthur, 2010). However, the turnover literature provides strong evidence that job satisfaction is a core predictor of turnover intention. In particular, besides demonstrating this relationship cross-sectionally (e.g., De Moura, Abrams, Retter, Gunnarsdottir, & Ando, 2009; Dougherty et al., 1985; Joo & Park, 2010), several studies found this link also over a defined period of time (e.g., Trevor, 2001; Van Breukelen, Van Der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004). Moreover, recent research investigated the dynamic link between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Chen et al., 2011; Vandenberghe et al.,

2011). That is, the relationship between the dynamics within each concept was analyzed. In particular, it was shown that change in job satisfaction provides additional and relevant explanation of turnover intention change over and above average job satisfaction and initial level of turnover intention (Chen et al., 2011). An important theoretical framework for understanding these dynamic relationships is prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Accordingly to this theory, individuals evaluate their current situation (e.g., level of job satisfaction) depending on a personal frame of reference. Discrepancies between current situation and internal standards contained in the personal frame of reference are evaluated differently, though, depending on the size of the discrepancy and depending on recent changes in the situation indicating improvement or worsening in view of one's own standard (Kahneman, 1999; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). These differences in subjective assessments can explain why different individuals may attribute different subjective meanings to the same absolute level of job satisfaction at a given point in time, depending on whether their job satisfaction has increased or decreased over time. Chen et al. (2011) illustrated that issue in a simple example: Two employees working in the same organization report the same level of job satisfaction (e.g. a rating of 4 on a 5-point Likert scale). However, one employee's job satisfaction has declined from 4 to 3, whereas the other employee's job satisfaction has increased from 2 to 3. These change processes are not reflected in the absolute level of job satisfaction, but one can easily imagine that they have a significant effect on attitudes and behavior such as turnover intention and actual turnover and on changes in these attitudes and behavior.

Our aim is to study the impact of career orientations both for the static and dynamic job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship. By looking at job satisfaction as an antecedent for turnover intention and career orientation as a possible moderator in this relationship, we propose a new approach to conceptualizing these constructs in career research. We will develop our arguments for this shift in perspective both with respect to the

static and the dynamic relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention in the following.

The static link between job satisfaction and turnover intention

Career orientations represent general attitudes towards possible career paths based on preferences regarding, for instance, self-determination, advancement, mobility, organizational support and security. Based on these attitudes, people can be assumed to assess and to react to situations in different ways, suggesting a moderating influence. Gerber, Grote, Geiser, and Raeder (2012) provide one of the rare studies which have empirically determined career orientations as a moderating factor. Their findings show that, depending on their career orientation, people react differently to psychological contract breaches. For instance, for independent individuals it was only breaches in support for career and skill development promises that were related to lower job satisfaction. This is an indication of how important career and skill development are for these employees to remain content in their jobs.

Consequently, one can also assume that different career orientations will influence people's reactions to being (dis)satisfied with their current work situation. Specifically, we propose that the salience of the job situation for contemplating a change of employer at any particular time is different for individuals with different career orientations. Furthermore, we assume that it is the degree of independence sought and experienced in one's career that will affect the salience of any particular employment situation (Grote & Raeder, 2009; Tams & Arthur, 2010).

Previous studies have shown that employees with an independent career orientation evaluate themselves as employable and value job mobility highly (Gasteiger, 2007; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006) which is also reflected in a generally higher intention to quit found for these employees (Gerber et al., 2009b). Loyalty-focused employees, on the other hand, are striving for their core work value job security and long-term employment (Guest & Conway, 2004),

as expressed in Gouldner's (1957) notion of the "company man". This is expressed in generally low intention to quit (Gerber et al., 2009b). Based on these considerations, we hypothesize that for both independent and loyalty-focused employees, the static relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention is comparatively weak, but for different reasons. Employees with an independent career orientation are ready to move on at any time regardless of how good any particular job is, whereas loyalty-focused employees are willing to hang on no matter what given their general attachment to the employing organization.

To examine this assumption, we compare these two career orientations with the remaining two: promotion-focused and disengaged employees. For these two career orientations, job satisfaction is considered to have a more relevant impact on turnover intention. In particular, for promotion-focused individuals, the high willingness to stay in an organization is assumed to be coupled with specific expectations regarding internal career development, which, unless they are met, may further the intention to quit (Gerber et al., 2012; Weng & McElroy, 2012). Disengaged individuals have been found to be committed less either to work in general or to a particular organization and, therefore, may be ready to leave whenever a particular job situation proves to be unsatisfactory in any way (Grote & Staffelbach, 2009). Based on this reasoning we hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Career orientation moderates the static relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention: the static relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention is similar and less negative for independent and loyalty-focused career orientations than for promotion-focused and disengaged career orientations.

The dynamic link between job satisfaction and turnover intention

In the dynamic relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intention change, we also assume to find career orientations acting as a moderating factor. However, the effects we expect for the dynamic link are somewhat different from the static relationship. Namely, while in the moderation of the static link between job satisfaction and turnover

intention differences in the general propensity for mobility were assumed to be dominant, the moderation of the dynamic relationship concerns differences between career orientations regarding adaptation to changing situations (Bowling, Beehr, Wagner, & Libkuman, 2005).

Chen et al. (2011) pointed out that changes in the work situation are a powerful influence on building work expectations which, in turn, influence turnover intentions. In their study, they analyzed work expectations only in terms of expected changes for better or for worse in the current employment. They found that these expected changes were strongly influenced by job satisfaction changes and in turn influenced turnover intentions. These findings are in line with the theory of met expectations which states that individuals' attitudes and behavior are a result of the degree to which the organization meets their expectations (Porter & Steers, 1973).

We follow the theory of met expectations (Porter & Steers, 1973) in building our dynamic moderation hypothesis. As stated earlier, career orientations can be understood as an individual's expectations he or she brings into the work situation and uses as a frame of reference for evaluating the work situation, expressed, for instance, in terms of job satisfaction. It can be assumed that changes in job satisfaction not only affect future work expectations, but that generalized expectations, such as career orientations, influence the assessment of how satisfying a work situation is perceived to be in the first place. Career orientations therefore may have effects similar to personal dispositions (e.g., Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). To test this assumption we specifically focus on the independent and loyalty-focused career orientation. According to Hypothesis 1, these two career orientations are assumed to lead to similar reactions to static job satisfaction, though due to different reasons; regarding changes in job satisfaction we expect different reactions as explained in the following.

Leading up to Hypothesis 1, we have argued that independent and loyalty-focused individuals react similarly to static job satisfaction because (un)met expectations are of

secondary importance compared to the general preference to stay mobile or to settle down. Based on that same preference, one can expect that reactions to job satisfaction change differ. In prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), the salience of change compared to a static evaluation of a given situation is derived from people's general tendency to assess situations in terms of internal standards. These internal standards are influenced, for instance, by past experience of particular aspects of a situation worsening or improving. However, individual differences, in our case individual preferences for mobility and independence, may reinforce or hamper the readiness to act in view of a changing situation (Holtom et al., 2008). So when negative job satisfaction change is experienced this can be a sign for an independent individual that it is really time to leave. When things improve, on the other hand, independent individuals may reconsider their general desire to stay mobile and independent in order to not lose out on good opportunities in the current employment. That is, independent individuals act in line with an economic perspective (Weng & McElroy, 2012) by expecting that the utility of the current job exceeds that of alternatives (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979). In contrast, for loyalty-focused individuals economic considerations are assumed to be less relevant so that even changes for better or for worse have comparatively little impact on the general desire to follow a continuous career with the current employer (Gouldner, 1957; Grote & Raeder, 2009). According to the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), for loyalty-focused employees the important resource, which they do not want to lose, is the job as such. In contrast, for individuals with an independent career orientation resources embedded in the job, such as development opportunities, are more important, which also directly affect their job satisfaction. As a consequence, these individuals react more strongly to presumed losses or gains in these resources than loyalty-focused individuals.

Regarding the remaining two career orientations, promotion-focused and disengaged, hypothesizing reactions to changes in general job satisfaction is more difficult. Promotion-oriented individuals value a long tenure in one organization highly, but they also expect

opportunities for career advancement, which impacts their propensity to stay in the organization. Disengaged individuals are characterized by placing comparatively less importance on their job, which may result in turnover decisions being influenced more by changes outside of the job than within the job situation. Given these assumed more complex relationships, we based our second hypothesis only on the two more straightforward career orientations, that is, independent and loyalty-oriented:

Hypothesis 2: Career orientation moderates the dynamic relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intention change: the dynamic relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intention change is more negative for individuals with an independent career orientation than for individuals with a loyalty-focused career orientation.

Methods

Procedure and Sample

The hypotheses were tested with longitudinal data collected within a larger project of a representative annual telephone survey of employees in the German and French speaking parts of Switzerland (language was controlled in the analysis). Participants included in this study sample took part in three telephone interviews in the Spring of 2007, 2008, and 2009.

To amass the sample in 2007, telephone numbers were randomly drawn from all those registered in Switzerland. From a baseline sample of 1370 participants in 2007, we selected a smaller group of 431 participants (response rate from T1 to T2: 31.5%), who were willing to take part in the second wave of measurement. In the last wave of measurement, 255 participants were interviewed a third time (response rate from T2 to T3: 59%). Non-participation was due to unattainability, retirement, or lacking interest.

The 255 employees included in the sample were employed at least 40% and aged between 16 and 65 years. Self-employed individuals and those in an apprenticeship were excluded from the study. The present sample comprised 43% female employees. At the first wave of data collection, participants' average age was 46 years ($SD = 8.6$ years) and their

average work experience with their current employer was 10 years ($SD = 8.4$ years). About 35% of the participants held a Bachelor's, Master's or equivalent degree. The employees were spread over the whole range of industries. A total of 65% of the participants was working full-time, while 4.3% were temporary or contract employees.

To ensure that there was not a systematic bias in the study sample, chi-square and unpaired t -tests were used to compare the final sample of $N = 255$ with the dropout between T2 and T3 (176 people), and secondly, to compare the final sample of $N = 255$ with the baseline sample of 1370 participants at T1. Participants with complete data for all three waves of measurement did not differ from the dropout between T2 and T3 with respect to socio-demographic characteristics like sex ($\chi^2 = 0.07, p > .05$), age ($t(336) = -0.83, p > .05$), organizational tenure ($t(325) = 1.69, p > .05$), education ($\chi^2 = 1.06, p > .05$), percentage of full-time employees ($\chi^2 = 0.03, p > .05$), and temporary employees ($\chi^2 = 3.25, p > .05$), as well as the dependent and independent variables, i.e. turnover intention T2 ($t(429) = -0.04, p > .05$), job satisfaction T2 ($t(429) = -0.83, p > .05$), and career orientation ($\chi^2 = 0.95, p > .05$). Additionally, participants with complete data for all three waves of measurement did not differ from the baseline sample in 2007 with respect to socio-demographic characteristics like sex ($\chi^2 = 0.40, p > .05$), organizational tenure ($t(419) = 0.83, p > .05$), education ($\chi^2 = 0.03, p > .05$), and percentage of full-time employees ($\chi^2 = 0.93, p > .05$), as well as job satisfaction at T1 ($t(1368) = -1.70, p > .05$). However, participants included in the final sample were slightly older ($t(447) = -3.14, p < .01$), less often employed with temporary contracts ($\chi^2 = 5.45, p < .05$), and had a slightly lower turnover intention at T1 ($t(1368) = 2.10, p < .05$) than the baseline sample in 2007.

Measures

All variables were assessed at all three waves of measurement. As the measures were all taken from a survey carried out annually since 2005 within which they have been tested

for their reliability and validity, no separate pretest was conducted as part of the present study (citations withheld for blind review).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured with a single item (“How satisfied are you with your job?”). The response options range from 1 (not at all satisfied) to 10 (extremely satisfied). Such single item measures of overall job satisfaction, though not ideal, have been shown to be reliable, valid, and comparable to scale measures (Wanous & Hudy, 2001; Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997), and are frequently used (e.g., Felfe, Schmook, Schyns, & Six, 2008; Judge & Hurst, 2008; Rottinghaus, Hees, & Conrath, 2009; Salmela-Aro & Nurmi, 2007; Ybema, Smulders, & Bongers, 2010). Indeed, Chen et al.’s (2011) study has shown consistent results for the link between job satisfaction and turnover intention independently of using a single item or a scale to measure job satisfaction.

Turnover intention. We measured turnover intention using the German translation (Gerber et al., 2009b) of two items developed by Guest and Conway (2004). The first item was: “How likely is it that you will voluntarily leave this organization in the following year?” The responses were measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 4 (very likely). The second item comprised four statements expressing increasing levels of turnover intention, from which the respondents had to choose the one that applied best to them (e.g. “I am currently in the process of trying to leave this job.”). Cronbach’s alpha for the two items was .77 (T1), .74 (T2), and .66 (T3).

In this study we focused on turnover intention as a proxy for actual turnover behavior, although information about turnover behavior is available in the longitudinal data set. We did an extensive analysis concerning turnover behavior within the two years of data collection. Of the 255 participants, 10.6% had changed organizations in the course of the two years, which is fairly similar to the turnover rate in Switzerland at 6.3% for 2008 (BFS, 2012). As found in previous research (Griffeth et al., 2000; Steel, 2002; Van Breukelen et al., 2004), our data showed that job dissatisfaction at T1 predicted actual turnover within the next two years.

However, this effect was no longer significant, when introducing turnover intention at T1 in the regression analysis. The drop in the regression weight suggested that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover behavior is mediated by turnover intention. Therefore, we concluded that — comparable to much prior research (Griffeth et al., 2000; Steel, 2002; Van Breukelen et al., 2004) — turnover intention was a valid predictor of turnover behavior in our sample. Consequently, we used the full sample, as accurate results investigating individuals' turnover intention instead of turnover behavior could be expected.

Career orientation. To measure career orientation, we adapted Gerber et al.'s (2009b) approach to longitudinal data. In their analysis of cross-sectional data, each person got assigned to one of four career orientations, namely (1) independent career orientation, (2) loyalty-focused career orientation, (3) promotion-focused career orientation, and (4) disengaged career orientation. The assignment was based on the answers to nine binary items that were developed by Guest and Conway (2004; German translation by Gerber et al., 2009b). Per item the participants were asked to choose between two statements based on the question: "Looking ahead at your work life, which of the following would you choose?" The two statements of a sample item are: "Managing your own career" versus "Having your organization manage your career for you".

Originally, the assignment to one of the four career orientations was carried out by means of latent class analysis (LCA) (Gerber et al., 2009a; Gerber et al., 2009b). In order to adequately treat the longitudinal data in our study, the nine binary items of each wave of measurement were analyzed by means of latent transition analysis (LTA) using Mplus 5 (Muthén & Muthén, 2005). LTA can be understood as an extension of LCA. This method examines response patterns across a series of items repeatedly measured over some period of time and aims at identifying classes of individuals whose response patterns are highly similar over time (Geiser, Lehmann, Corth, & Eid, 2008). The extracted four classes using LTA were consistent with the four classes defined by Gerber et al. (2009a) and Gerber et al. (2009b) in

several cross-sectional analyses using LCA.

Two sets of parameter estimates were obtained by running the LTA. Firstly, each participant received an assignment probability for each of the four types of career orientation at each time of measurement. Participants showed a preferred, dominant career orientation, with an average assignment probability of 89%. Conversely, the assignment probability loadings on the other three career orientations were low (on average 3%). Based on the dominant assignment probability, the participants were allocated to one of the four career orientations.

Secondly, estimates of the latent transition probabilities were obtained between all pairs of classes at the subsequent points of measurement with a range of 0 to 1. These transition probabilities indicate the temporal stability of the classes: The higher the probability value, the higher the stability of class membership (Geiser et al., 2008). In our study, the latent transition probabilities were rather high for all four classes over the three times of measurement, supporting the assumption of a stable career orientation for the participants over the observed period of time (see Table 2).

The allocated career orientation was used as a categorical variable in the analyses. The distribution of career orientations was as follows: independent career orientation 17%, loyalty-focused career orientation 30%, promotion-focused career orientation 32%, disengaged career orientation 21%.

Insert Table 2 about here

Control variables. Demographic factors can affect turnover intention in various ways and thus were controlled in our analysis. In particular, older employees tend to show lower turnover intention (Blomme, van Rheede, & Tromp, 2010; Carless & Arnup, 2011; De Cuyper et al., 2011; Houkes, Janssen, de Jonge, & Bakker, 2003), whereas well-educated employees often have higher turnover intention (Grote & Staffelbach, 2007; Henneberger &

Sousa-Poza, 2007). Numerous studies with a focus on turnover intention controlled for sex, and although these studies did not reveal a significant effect (e.g., Carless & Arnup, 2011; De Cuyper et al., 2011; Houkes et al., 2003) we decided to control for sex as well. Finally, because the different parts of Switzerland are not only characterized by different languages but also by cultural differences (Gerber et al., 2009a) language was controlled in the analyses. While the control variables sex (0 = female, 1 = male), educational level (1 = bachelor's, master's or equivalent degree, 0 = lower education level), and language (0 = French, 1 = German) were assessed dichotomously, age was measured in years.

Analysis

Besides analyzing the absolute levels of job satisfaction and turnover intention, our study focused on temporal changes in these concepts. In line with Chen et al.'s (2011) approach, the change scores for job satisfaction and turnover intention were described as a slope calculated across the three times of measurement. Particularly, each individual's slope value was generated from the empirical Bayes slope estimate drawn from hierarchical linear models. A more positive value indicates a greater increase and a more negative value indicates a greater decline in the respective variable over time. In order to obtain the slope values, we regressed job satisfaction and turnover intention separately on time using the statistical software HLM (Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2011). The hierarchical linear model indicated significant linear slope variances ($p < .05$) across individuals for both job satisfaction change and turnover intention change. That is, individuals differed significantly from each other in the magnitude and direction of both job satisfaction change and turnover intention change.

Both hypotheses were tested by regression analyses using the statistic program SPSS. Hypothesis 1 was tested with three moderated regression analyses, one for each wave of measurement (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The dependent variables were turnover intention T1, T2, and T3. In Step 1, the control variables

(gender, age, language, education) were entered in the regression equation. In Step 2, job satisfaction T1, T2, and T3 respectively were entered together with career orientation. The interaction terms were entered in Step 3 and Step 4. To avoid only indirect support of Hypothesis 1 by accepting the null hypothesis, the similarity between the independent and loyalty-focused career orientation were tested by a comparison of these two career orientations with the remaining two. That is, three contrast-coded variables representing the four classes were created. Contrast-coded variable C_1 represents the difference between the independent and loyalty-focused versus the disengaged and promotion-focused individuals (codes for C_1 : independent = .5; loyalty = .5; promotion = -.5; disengaged = -.5) and is the base for the interaction term of interest in the hypothesis. Variable C_2 represents the difference between the independent and the loyalty-focused individuals (codes for C_2 : independent = .5; loyalty = -.5; promotion = 0; disengaged = 0). And variable C_3 represents the difference between the disengaged and the promotion-focused individuals (codes for C_3 : independent = 0; loyalty = 0; promotion = .5; disengaged = -.5) (Aguinis, 2004; West, Aiken, & Krull, 1996). All three contrast-coded variables were included in interaction terms, but these were entered stepwise to allow a comparison of their relevance. In Step 3 the first interaction term was entered in the regression equation (job satisfaction multiplied by contrast-coded variable C_1 to test the differences between independent/loyalty versus promotion/disengaged) and in Step 4 the two remaining interaction terms were entered as controls (job satisfaction multiplied by contrast-coded variable C_2 and C_3). In line with Aiken und West (1991), the independent variable, here job satisfaction T1, T2, and T3, was centered before entering the interaction term.

To test Hypothesis 2, we again conducted a moderator analysis which was built analogous to Hypothesis 1, however, only employees with an independent or loyalty-focused orientation were included ($N = 119$). While turnover intention change was entered as the dependent variable, initial level of turnover intention (turnover intention T1) and average job

satisfaction were entered in Step 2 according to Chen et al.'s (2011) model. Moreover, job satisfaction and the dummy coded career orientation (0 = independent, 1 = loyalty) were added to Step 3, and in Step 4, the interaction term was entered.

Results

In Table 3, we provide means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations of all study variables.

Insert Table 3 about here

Hypothesis 1 stated that career orientation moderates the static relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. A similar and weak negative link was expected for independent and loyalty-focused individuals compared to promotion-focused and disengaged individuals. In Table 4, the moderated regression analyses of job satisfaction on turnover intention for each wave of measurement are provided.

While the interaction term job satisfaction T1 multiplied by the contrast-coded variable C₁ was significant ($\beta = .11, p < .05$), the two other interaction terms were without effect on turnover intention T1. This suggests a moderation effect of career orientation as hypothesized. That is, the link between job satisfaction T1 and turnover intention T1 differed between independent and loyalty-focused versus promotion-focused and disengaged employees. However, the relationship did not differ significantly between independent and loyalty-focused employees, nor did it differ between promotion-focused and disengaged employees. In order to interpret the direction of the interaction, a slope examination was conducted plotting the predicted values of turnover intention T1 as a function of job satisfaction T1 and the four career orientations. As shown in Figure 1, the relationship between job satisfaction T1 and turnover intention T1 was less negative for the independent and loyalty-focused employees than for the promotion-focused and disengaged employees. Moreover, as can be assumed from the characterization of the career orientations,

independent employees had a generally higher turnover intention than loyalty-focused employees.

The moderating effects of career orientations shown for turnover intention T1 could not be replicated for turnover intention T2 and T3. At T2 none of the interaction terms reached significance and at T3, contrary to our hypothesis the interaction term between job satisfaction T3 and the contrast-coded variable C_2 reached significance ($\beta = -.13, p < .05$). That is, the relationship between job satisfaction T3 and turnover intention T3 differed between independent and loyalty-focused employees. A slope examination was conducted to clarify the direction of the interaction, plotting the predicted values of turnover intention T3. Figure 2 shows that the negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention was stronger for the independent than for the loyalty-focused employees. With significant results as expected shown only for T1, Hypothesis 1 was only partially supported.

Insert Table 4 and Figure 1 and Figure 2 about here

In Hypothesis 2, we expected that career orientation moderates the dynamic relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intention change. A more negative relationship was predicted for independent than for loyalty-focused employees. Table 5 summarizes the hierarchical regression analysis to test Hypothesis 2, and shows that the interaction term was significantly related to turnover intention change ($\beta = .23, p < .05$). As shown in Figure 3, an increase (decline) in job satisfaction was more strongly related to a decline (increase) in turnover intention for independent employees than for loyalty-focused employees. These results fully support Hypothesis 2.

Insert Table 5 and Figure 3 about here

Discussion

The aim of the present study was to examine how career orientations, and particularly the independent and loyalty-focused orientations which are the most different in terms of the underlying attributes (Gerber et al., 2009b), affect the static and dynamic relationships between job satisfaction and turnover intention. This approach offers an opportunity to move our thinking about job satisfaction and turnover intention toward a more dynamic, career-sensitive understanding. In answering to Vandenberghe et al.'s (2011) call for future research on the impact of individual differences in the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship, we showed that career orientation impacts both the static and dynamic job satisfaction-turnover intention link, though in different ways. For the static relationship, at the first point of measurement we found support for the moderating effect of career orientation as predicted: For employees with an independent and loyalty-focused orientation an unsatisfying job was less associated with a high intention to leave the organization than for employees with a promotion-focused or a disengaged orientation. However, while for the second wave of measurement none of the expected effects were found, the third wave of measurement contained an unexpected effect of career orientation. The independent employees showed a stronger intention to quit their job in situations of low job satisfaction than loyalty-focused employees. Why these differences between the measurement times occurred we can only speculate on. Possibly, extraneous factors were involved, for instance job markets may have presented themselves differently for the respondents, leading them to react differently. Overall, Hypothesis 1 was only partially supported and the found effects at T1 were small. Nonetheless, this is a relevant result when considering the strong and numerous proven main effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention (De Moura et al., 2009; Griffeth et al., 2000; Joo & Park, 2010; Trevor, 2001) and the general difficulty to detect significant interaction terms which rarely explain a high amount of variance (Whisman & McClelland, 2005).

Moreover, the contrast between independent and loyalty-focus individuals constituted a main effect in the regression analyses for all three waves of measurement: Independent employees showed a higher degree of intention to leave the organization than loyalty-focused employees. These findings can be interpreted in the context of new and traditional careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Briscoe et al., 2006; Hall, 2002). Individuals aspiring to a new career as the independent employees in our sample assess themselves as employable and physically mobile (Gasteiger, 2007; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), which is an important antecedent for future turnover (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011). In contrast, individuals aspiring to a traditional career like the loyalty-focused employees in our sample value a secure job and prefer to remain in the organization they are familiar with (Guest & Conway, 2004).

Finally, age was found to be a significant predictor of turnover intention: With increasing age employees showed lower turnover intention. This finding conforms to much of previous research (Blomme et al., 2010; Carless & Arnup, 2011). Two explanations may be relevant in explaining the age effect. On the one hand, older employees are arguably more embedded within their jobs and organizations and are in general more committed to their organizations than younger employees (cf. Carson & Bedeian, 1994; Feldman & Ng, 2007; Ng, Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, & Wilson, 2006). Moreover, they have better emotion regulation skills (Gross et al., 1997) and, therefore, tend to be more satisfied with their life and their work. On the other hand, older employees experience fewer alternatives on the labor market because of suffering from negative stereotyping and age discrimination (Bal, de Lange, Ybema, Jansen, & van der Velde, 2011). Hence, they might have a lower tendency to aim for a job change.

For the analyses of the dynamic relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention we focused on two of the four career orientations: independent and loyalty-focused. These two are the most different in terms of the underlying attributes (Gerber et al., 2009b) while in line with Hypothesis 1 they were — at least for one measurement wave — found to

lead to very similar reactions to static job satisfaction. In support of Hypothesis 2, there was a significant interaction between the two career orientations and job satisfaction change in explaining turnover intention change. Conforming to an economic perspective on career-related choices, for independent employees an increase in job satisfaction was associated with a drop in turnover intention and vice versa (Mobley et al., 1979; Weng & McElroy, 2012). For loyalty-focused employees the general desire to stay with the current employer seems to have been stronger than economic considerations of costs and benefits of turnover, as they showed much less variation in turnover intention change in response to job satisfaction changes. In a broader view, this indicates that individual differences affect the general tendency to assess situations in terms of internal standards, which are influenced by past experience of particular aspects of a situation worsening or improving (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). In our case, differences in the personal valuation of mobility and independence reinforced or hampered the readiness to act in view of a changing situation (Holtom et al., 2008).

Finally, our study represents a replication of Chen et al.'s (2011) findings that job satisfaction change impacts turnover intention change over and above average job satisfaction and initial level of turnover intention, though for a comparatively more diverse sample of employees and a longer (2 years instead of six months) time span (see Step 3, Table 5).

Theoretical contributions and future research

Our findings extend career research in which, to date, both job satisfaction and turnover intention have been conceptualized as outcomes (e.g., Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Gerber et al., 2009b; Tams & Arthur, 2010). By looking at the moderating role of career orientations in the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship, we were able to provide a more dynamic picture of how different career orientations shape individuals' assessments and intentions in different work situations. While static job satisfaction seems to be less salient for forming turnover intentions compared with an overall high versus low need for mobility

in independent and loyalty-focused employees, changes in job satisfaction are more relevant, though mostly for independent employees. Overall, effect sizes were small, but in view of the generally reported strong main effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention (Holtom et al., 2008; Joo & Park, 2010), the evidence for main and interaction effects of career orientations is considered highly relevant.

In our study, career orientation was treated as a rather stable personal disposition that influences individuals' work experiences, assessments, and behaviors. However, following the work by Wu and Griffin (2012) which showed that even stable constructs like core self-evaluations (e.g., Judge, 2009) were affected by job satisfaction and job satisfaction change over a five years period, an interesting extension of our research would be to include possible career orientation changes in longer-term longitudinal analyses.

Another promising extension of our research concerns consideration of additional antecedents of turnover intention and their relationships with career orientations and job satisfaction. For actual turnover, both the desirability — indicated for instance by low job satisfaction — and the ease of movement — determined for instance by an individual's employability — are relevant factors (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Holtom et al., 2008). Given prior research indicating that an independent career orientation is related to higher perceived employability (Gasteiger, 2007; Gerber et al., 2009b; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), one can argue that in our data the salience of job satisfaction change as indication of the desirability of movement was coupled with high perceived ease of movement for the independent employees, thereby increasing the impetus to leave their current employment. Extending our research by explicitly including ease of movement would be a very interesting avenue for future work, thereby also following Direnzo and Greenhaus (2011), who strongly argue that desirability and ease of movement should always be considered together for a fuller understanding of turnover. To expand the dynamic model of desirability of movement, represented by job (dis)satisfaction and turnover intention suggested by Chen et al. (2011)

with another dynamic component representing ease of movement, such as changes in perceived employability, would surely offer highly valuable additional insights. Studying the role of career orientations in this extended set of relationships would be highly recommendable given existing research showing the impact of career orientations on all three elements, that is, ease and desirability of movement and turnover (Forrier, Sels, & Stynen, 2009; Gerber et al., 2009b). Furthermore, such a comprehensive model would constitute an important extension of Chen et al.'s (2011) model.

Beside implications of our study for career research, our findings also contribute to turnover research. We were able to replicate Chen et al.'s (2011) results in a more diverse sample and for a longer time span (two years instead of six months). Also, our findings supporting both Hypotheses 1 and 2 can be considered as a particularly powerful demonstration of the importance of distinguishing between static and dynamic job satisfaction-turnover intention relationships. Employees who appeared to react similarly to average levels of job satisfaction at one point in time — in our case employees with either an independent or a loyalty-focused career orientation — showed different reactions to job satisfaction changes.

Limitations

Although the present investigation makes important contributions to the career and turnover literatures, there are four critical issues that need to be addressed. One important limitation of our study was the sample size which was a limiting factor for the moderation tests (Whisman & McClelland, 2005). In combination with the variability in group sizes for the career orientations, detecting the hypothesized moderating effects was rendered difficult, that is, our effects might be underestimated. A larger sample size would lend more power to a study such as ours (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997).

Another issue that warrants further consideration is the time span selected for the longitudinal analyses. In our case, there were annual measurement points spanning two years,

whereas measurement in previous research occurred in weekly to tri-monthly intervals spanning a maximum of six months (Chen et al., 2011; Vandenberghe et al., 2011). The results concerning the explanatory power of job satisfaction change for turnover intention change over and beyond average levels of job satisfaction seem comparable, which in itself is a notable result. However, for future research it would clearly be worthwhile having more measurement points over a longer period of time, thereby combining our and Chen et al.'s approach. This would allow an even more detailed tracing of the processes involved in continuously (re)assessing one's work situation and acting upon these assessments, including consideration of changes in career orientations and also actual turnover. Setting the right time frame, though, will remain a challenge (Bowling et al., 2005; Mitchell & James, 2001).

Third, measuring job satisfaction by a single item needs to be mentioned as a further limitation of this study. The use of a multi-item scale would clearly have strengthened our results, even though prior research has shown little impact of using a single versus multi-item scale for job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2011).

Finally, the rather low reliability of the scale used to measure turnover intention has to be mentioned. In the third wave of measurement the reliability was even slightly below .7, which is generally considered the lower limit for acceptable reliability (Nunnally, 1978). In particular, the inconsistencies across measurement waves in the results of the static moderator analyses for the static job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship might be attributable to this not fully satisfactory measurement of turnover intention.

Practical implications

From a practical point of view, our research demonstrates what companies may gain from investing in employees with an independent career orientation. There is substantial evidence that people who value independence and mobility have higher turnover intentions than people with more traditional, organization-bound career orientations (e.g., Gerber et al., 2009b; Grote & Raeder, 2009; Guest & Conway, 2004). Given that people with an

independent orientation tend to be younger and better educated (Gerber et al., 2009b) they often represent highly valuable resources for companies. However, companies sometimes seem to be reluctant to invest in these employees due to the presumed small return on investment based on their higher turnover rates of these same people. Our results show that decreases in job satisfaction further turnover intention for employees with an independent career orientation, but that increases in job satisfaction reduce their inclination to leave the company. Promoting positive job dynamics for these employees may therefore be a most worthwhile endeavor for companies.

Secondly, our research emphasizes the reliable attitudes of loyalty-focused employees. These employees generally have low turnover intention (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Gerber et al., 2009b; Guest & Conway, 2004; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006) and are even loyal in difficult times, that is, in periods when the current work situation contributes to a decline in job satisfaction (Gerber et al., 2012). For management, identifying and supporting these employees may be of major importance, especially in turbulent times, because the company can build on them in the long run. In other words, these employees should be considered in strategic human resource planning so that they obtain positions where stability and long-term commitment is needed.

Conclusion

Our results revealed that career orientations moderate both the static and dynamic link between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Regarding the dynamic link, loyalty-focused employees appear to react less on low or decreased job satisfaction with high or increased turnover intention, while overall having comparatively low turnover intention. In contrast, independent employees have a generally high turnover intention, but seem to also be affected more strongly by changes in job satisfaction. That is, these individuals even increase their turnover intention when things get worse, but also rethink their high preferences for mobility in order to not lose out on good opportunities in the current employment. For career

orientation as a moderating variable in the static job satisfaction-turnover intention link we only found partial support. More research is needed to identify relevant contextual factors that affect different reactions to job (dis)satisfaction at any point in time.

Our findings shed some light on the role of career orientations in the differential dynamics involved in assessing work situations and responding to them. They also offer an opportunity to move our thinking about job satisfaction and turnover intention toward a more dynamic, career-sensitive understanding of underlying forces.

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Table 1. Types of career orientations (Gerber et al., 2009b)

	Independent career orientation	Loyalty-focused career orientation	Promotion- focused career orientation	Disengaged career orientation
Boundaryless dimension	high	low	low	high
Protean dimension	high	low	high	high
Advancement dimension	high	low	high	low

Table 2. Maximum likelihood estimates of latent transition probabilities for the 4-Class LTA model (4-class solution).

	Time 2			
	Class 1 (independent)	Class 2 (loyals)	Class 3 (promotion)	Class 4 (disengaged)
Time 1				
Class 1 (independent)	0.941	0.011	0.000	0.047
Class 2 (loyals)	0.031	0.927	0.000	0.042
Class 3 (promotion)	0.026	0.012	0.962	0.000
Class 4 (disengaged)	0.033	0.031	0.138	0.798
Time 3				
Class 1 (independent)	0.922	0.000	0.061	0.017
Class 2 (loyals)	0.000	0.971	0.000	0.029
Class 3 (promotion)	0.000	0.037	0.913	0.050
Class 4 (disengaged)	0.000	0.000	0.076	0.924

The entry in each cell is the estimated probability of moving from Time 1 class (columns) to Time 2 class (rows), or from Time 2 class (rows) to Time 3 class (columns) respectively. Probabilities printed in bold (in the main diagonal) indicate the probability of staying in the same class over time (class stabilities).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics and Pearson correlations.

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Sex ^a	.57	-													
2. Age	43.80	8.65	.02												
3. Education ^b	.35	-	.07	-.14*											
4. Language ^c	.69	-	.09	.01	-.06										
5. Job satisfaction T1	7.52	1.64	-.03	.12	-.04	.07									
6. Job satisfaction T2	7.45	1.56	-.06	.15*	-.05	-.02	.53**								
7. Job satisfaction T3	7.45	1.37	.05	.15*	-.01	.05	.52**	.52**							
8. Average job satisfaction	7.48	1.24	-.02	.17**	-.03	.05	.85**	.81**	.80**						
9. Job satisfaction change	.00	.10	.06	-.10	.02	-.06	-.89**	-.47**	-.22**	-.72**					
10. Turnover intention T1	1.82	.83	.08	-.24**	.12*	.09	-.46**	-.32**	-.23**	-.42**	.43**				
11. Turnover intention T2	1.78	.84	.08	-.29**	.11	.07	-.27**	-.53**	-.26**	-.42**	.26**	.45**			
12. Turnover intention T3	1.76	.78	.10	-.18**	.15*	.03	-.17*	-.30**	-.47**	-.35**	.00	.30**	.50**		
13. Turnover intention change	.00	.13	.00	.08	.01	-.06	.26**	.03	-.17**	.10	-.42**	-.55**	.03	.55**	
14. Independent ^d	.17	-	.11	-.12	.18**	-.04	-.02	.05	.01	.01	.03	.26**	.10	.18*	-.05
15. Loyalty	.30	-	-.22**	.05	-.08	-.25**	-.07	-.03	-.09	-.08	.03	-.15*	-.12	-.10	.07
16. Promotion	.32	-	.12	.06	-.17**	.17**	.10	.08	.12	.11	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.13*	-.08
17. Disengaged	.21	-	.00	-.01	.12*	.12	-.01	-.09	-.04	-.05	-.01	-.01	.10	.10	.06

Note: $N = 255$. ^a0 = female, 1 = male. ^b0 = low education, 1 = high education. ^c0 = French, 1 = German. ^dCareer orientations are dummy coded. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4. Regressing turnover intention on job satisfaction, career orientation and their interaction.

Predictor	Turnover intention T1				Turnover intention T2				Turnover intention T3			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
1. Sex ^a	.07	.02	.03	.02	.07	.02	.02	.02	.10	.09	.10	.11
Age	-.22***	-.15*	-.15*	-.15*	-.28***	-.20***	-.20***	-.19***	-.17**	-.08	-.08*	-.07
Education ^b	.08	.11	.10	.10	.06	.04	.03	.03	.03	.04	.04	.03
Language ^c	.09	.05	.04	.05	.07	.03	.03	.02	.12	.09	.08	.07
2. Job satisfaction ^d		-.48***	-.45***	-.46***		-.50***	-.48***	-.50***		-.46***	-.45***	-.51***
C ₁ ^e		.09	.09	.09		-.01	-.01	-.01		.04	.04	.05
C ₂		.24***	.24***	.24***		.13**	.12*	.13**		.16**	.16**	.16**
C ₃		.02	.02	.03		-.04	-.03	-.04		-.08	-.08	-.08
3. Job satisfaction x C ₁			.11*	.11*			.06	.05			.04	.00
4. Job satisfaction x C ₂				.00				-.04				-.13*
Job satisfaction x C ₃				-.09				-.07				.05
Total R ²	.08**	.32***	.33***	.34***	.10***	.35***	.35***	.36***	.06***	.30***	.30***	.31***
ΔR ²		.24***	.01*	.01		.25***	.00	.01		.24***	.00	.01

Note: $N = 255$. ^a0 = female, 1 = male. ^b0 = low education, 1 = high education. ^c0 = French, 1 = German. ^dFor turnover intention T1 = job satisfaction T1; For turnover intention T2 = job satisfaction T2; For turnover intention T3 = job satisfaction T3. ^eThree contrast-coded variables represent the four career orientations: C₁ = independent and loyals versus promotion and disengaged; C₂ = independent versus loyals; C₃ = promotion versus disengaged. Entries are Beta coefficients. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 5. Regressing turnover intention change on job satisfaction change, career orientation and their interaction.

Predictor	Turnover intention change			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
1. Sex ^a	.08	.15	.12	.11
Age	.11	-.08	-.05	-.07
Education ^b	.03	.03	.00	-.01
Language ^c	-.11	.02	.00	.01
2. Turnover intention T1		-.73***	-.74***	-.73***
Average job satisfaction		-.14	-.51***	-.44***
3. Job satisfaction change			-.44***	-.56***
Career orientation ^d			-.15	-.15
4. Interaction term ^e				.23*
Total R^2	.03	.44***	.52***	.54***
ΔR^2		.41***	.08***	.02*

Note: $N = 119$. ^a0 = female, 1 = male. ^b0 = low education, 1 = high education. ^c0 = French, 1 = German. ^d0 = independent, 1 = loyal. ^e Interaction term = job satisfaction change x career orientation. Entries are Beta coefficients. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

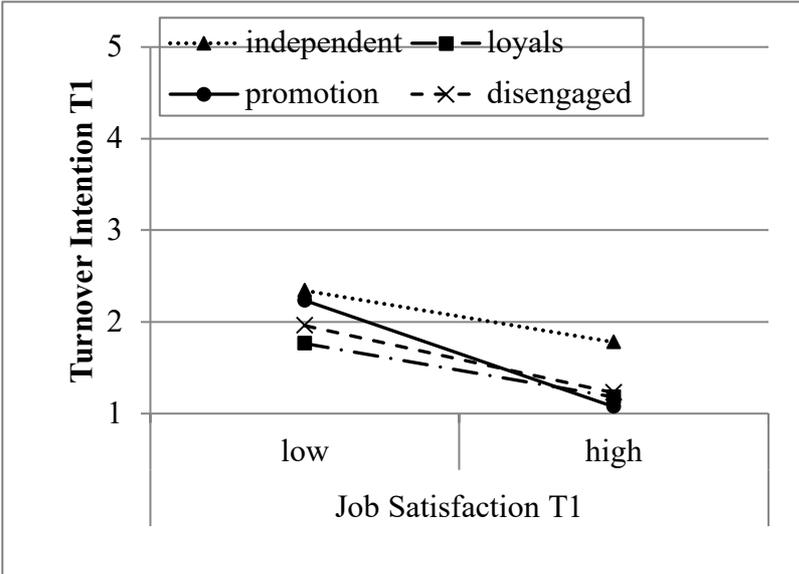


Figure 1. The moderating effect of career orientation on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention at T1.

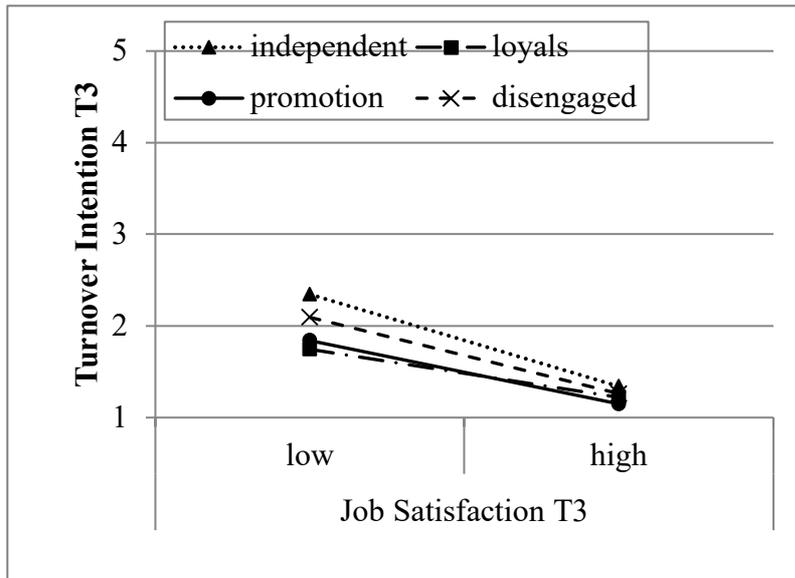


Figure 2. The moderating effect of career orientation on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention at T3.

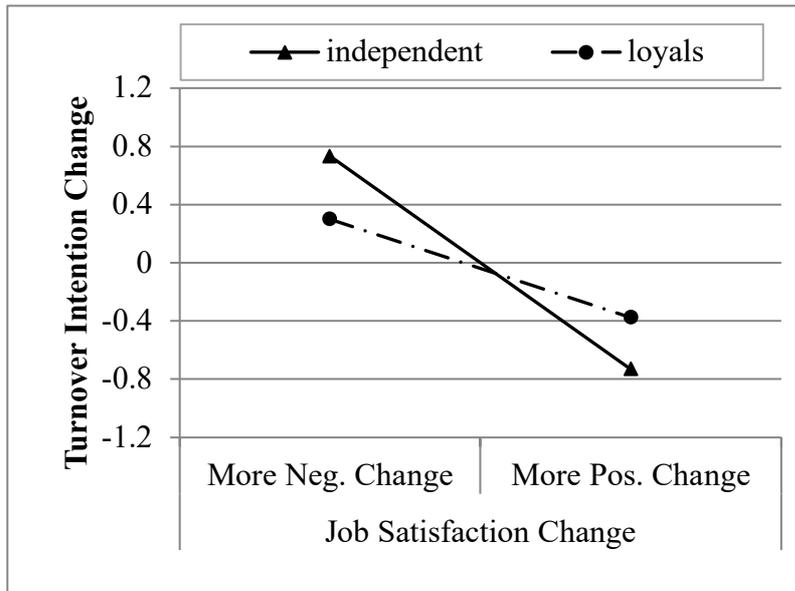


Figure 3. The moderating effect of career orientation on the relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intention change.