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CAREER CHANGE INTENTION AMONG MILLENNIAL PROFESSIONALS

BY

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct, I also declare that as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

Although career change has received little research attention compared to job turnover, it is an important part of career development process. The current study examined career change intentions of Millennial professionals, who are at the early stages of their career development. Using Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) as the theoretical framework, the present research extended the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) framework to career-related issues to examine the effects of career satisfaction, career calling, job satisfaction and job stress on career change intention. Data were collected from 227 full-time employees. Results showed that controlling for the demographic and individual difference variables, presence of career calling, job satisfaction, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control predicted career change intention. Path analysis further revealed that career satisfaction, presence of and search for career calling and job ambiguity had indirect effects on career change intention through job satisfaction. We further conducted latent profile analysis and distinguished two career profiles, based on career satisfaction, career calling, job satisfaction, job stress and TPB variables. Higher levels of attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms and normative beliefs together with lower levels of satisfaction and higher levels of job stress and search for a calling created response patterns in latent profile analysis to distinguish a 'dissatisfied and searching' profile of people who had higher career change intention. In the 'satisfied' profile, lower levels of attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms and normative beliefs went along with higher levels of satisfaction, presence of career calling and lower levels of job stress and search for a calling. ANCOVA results showed that these two profiles differed in their career change intention, with 'dissatisfied and searching' profile having higher career change intention. These findings indicated that both within and outside individual factors play role in career change intention. Given the fact that Millennials

will make up majority of work force in the coming decades., understanding their career change intentions has important policy implications with respect to organizational and career counseling and guidance practices.

Keywords: Career change intention, Millennials, Theory of Planned Behavior



ÖZET

Kariyer değiřtirmek iř değiřtirmeye kıyasla daha az ilgi gören bir araştırma alanı olsa da kariyer gelişimi sürecinin önemli bir parçasıdır. Bu araştırma, kariyerlerinin başında olan Milenyum kuşağındaki çalışanların kariyer değiřtirme niyetlerini anlamayı amaçlamıştır. Teorik çerçeve olarak Planlanmış Davranış Teorisi (PDT) (Ajzen,1991) kullanılmış, bu teorik çerçeveye kariyer memnuniyeti, kariyer çağrısı, iş memnuniyeti ve iş stresi gibi kariyer ve iş ile ilgili değişkenler eklenmiştir. Tam zamanlı çalışan 227 kişiden veri toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın sonuçları, demografik değişkenler kontrol edildiğinde kariyer çağrısının, iş memnuniyetinin, öznel normların ve algılanan davranış kontrolünün kariyer değiřtirme niyeti üzerinde etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Yol analizi sonuçları kariyer memnuniyeti, kariyer çağrısı ve rol belirsizliğinin iş memnuniyeti üzerinden kariyer değiřtirme niyetine indirekt etkileri olduğunu göstermiştir. Araştırma değişkenlerini kullanarak yapılan örtük profil analizi iki kariyer profili ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu analize göre PDT değişkenlerinde yüksek ortalamaya sahip olan kişilerin iş ve kariyer memnuniyeti ortalamalarının düşük, iş stresi ve kariyer çağrısı arayışında olma ortalamalarının yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Bu profil 'memnuniyetsiz ve arayışta olan' diye adlandırılmıştır. İkinci profilde ise PDT değişkenlerinde düşük ortalamaya sahip kişilerin, kariyer ve iş memnuniyeti ortalamalarının yüksek, iş stresi ve kariyer çağrısı arayışında olma ortalamalarının düşük olduğu görülmüştür ve bu profil 'memnun' profil olarak adlandırılmıştır. Kovaryans analizi sonuçlarına göre bu iki profilin kariyer değiřtirme niyeti ortalamaları birbirinden farklıdır. Tüm bu bulgular kişiyle ilgili hem iç hem dış faktörlerin kariyer değiřtirme niyeti üzerinde rol oynadığını göstermiştir. Milenyum kuşağının önümüzdeki yıllarda iş gücünün büyük bir kısmını oluşturacağı göz önüne alındığında, bu kuşağa mensup çalışanların kariyer

deęiřtirme niyetlerini anlamının kurumsal politikaları ve kariyer danıřmanlıęı uygulamalarına ıřık tutması aısından yararlı olacaęı ngrlmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kariyer deęiřtirme niyeti, Milenyum kuřaęı, Planlı Davranıř Teorisi





DEDICATION

To my role models, iđdem Kađıtıbaşı and bykhalam...

Also to my sweet daughter, Ada, for whom I will become a role model...

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CAREER CHANGE INTENTION AMONG MILLENNIAL PROFESSIONALS

INTRODUCTION

“Today is a very meaningful day for me. Last year on May 4, 2016, I said goodbye to my white-collar work life. A more important day is the day when I said ‘I won’t do this job any more’, but there is no exact date for that. This was an idea since 2013, but I had never felt the courage to do it. Then, one morning I woke up and I was very sure. I gave resignation notice to my employer in February and after two months I started a new life. First, I had a long holiday, a very long holiday. Then, everything went perfect. I’m just kidding. Of course, nothing went like what I had planned. There were disappointments, anxious and worried times, hesitations, financial burdens and uncertainties until the end of January 2017. Starting with February, things started to go well. I let things go and I was lucky enough to have met good people. In the last one year, I better understood that time is the greatest richness, because it is the only value that cannot be reversed or replaceable. That is why using the time just as you want is the greatest luxury in one’s life. A tiniest dream seed may sprout to become a tree. Here is my tree position from Bostancı seashore and I salute all the dreamers: Never give up and never lose your courage. With love,” (Beste, 32, Pilates instructor)

The most difficult thing is to hear the voice coming from inside amid all other voices around us. If we cannot hear that voice and follow it, we live the life which is designed for us by the others (Özge, 40, Media and comic artist)

Career encompasses one’s life in such a way that work, family and personal lives are shaped accordingly. Career change intention is a career-related decision which is likely to have a similar butterfly effect in one’s life (Hall, 2002). In many professions, we hear about people who have made changes in their career paths; doctors becoming singers, asset managers becoming winemakers, engineers becoming chefs, chemists becoming psychologists and so on, with some having passions since childhood or having skills for another occupation or just feeling fed up with their current careers. There are also people who combine many careers at the same time, who are called multipotentialities, delving into more than one career and becoming professionals in different occupations at the same time (Wapnick, 2017). Changing and combining career

examples lead us question traditional linear career paths where one sticks to a job and holds it for long years and build a career upon that job to gain more experience, more pay and higher title. Instead of such a linear career path, new generations seem to follow nonlinear career paths, which include changes and breaks (Hall, 2002). The current study examines the correlates of career change intention among young Turkish employees who might be having the potential, contextual reasons and intention to get out of traditional linear career paths.

At any age, an individual may intend to change career for any reason, but what is intriguing is the ones who are currently at the early stages of their careers and lives, called the Millennials or the Generation Y, who aspire to change the flow of their career paths, despite their investment in their education and professional work so far. It is both timely and necessary to understand the intentions of young employees of the Y Generation who survive in a rapidly changing and technologically advanced era when the nature of jobs, skills of the workforce as well as the values and priorities are dramatically different from those of the previous eras and generations (Gorman, Nelson & Glassman, 2004). From an organizational perspective, research on career decisions of young people is important because of its implications with respect to human capital, work and organizations. Quitting jobs and careers may adversely affect organizations, because money and time to recruit employees are wasted and training and recruiting new employees for the vacant position is costly. Problems may arise in attracting, recruiting and retaining employees and may lead to subsequent skills shortages (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Organizations might lose competitive advantage due to loss of specific know-hows and even their reputations in the market. In this sense, addressing factors that influence career change intention may be useful for reducing voluntary turnover and costs associated with it (Griffeth &

Hom, 2001). From a psychological point of view, career-related concerns play a central role in most people's lives, and pursuit of a satisfactory career is crucial to psychological well-being. When unsatisfied with careers, people may feel burnout, stress and physical and psychological malfunction (Creed, Rogers, Praskova & Searle, 2014). In this sense, addressing factors that influence career change intention may be useful for finding new ways to sustain work force and to enable employees to go one step closer to their intended careers.

Instead of doing research on career changers (i.e., those who started brand new careers), the present study focuses on career change intentions. The first reason for focusing on intention is that although actual change stories are inspiring and interesting, the sample of career changers would be very limited in size and difficult to recruit to participate in our study. Whether a job changer can also be categorized as a career changer requires clear differentiation between job and career as well as job change and career change. With intentions, a larger sample is more likely to be available. Another reason is that stories of those who previously changed careers would not be reliable and they would be retrospective such that individuals would be more likely to remember the negative aspects of the previous careers and to exaggerate the positive aspects of the present careers. When we ask about intentions, such bias would be reduced. Last reason is that previous literature showed that intention is a good predictor of behaviour and represent a person's motivation in the sense of her or his conscious plan or decision to exert effort to enact the behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Randall & Wolff, 1994). So, understanding the correlates of career change intention, further venues would be opened to understand and study career change behaviour.

Although research on protean careers underlines the importance of personal growth and

personal fulfilment as the ultimate aim for a satisfactory career (Briscoe, Hall & De Muth, 2006), from sociological and social psychological point of view, it is not always related to desires and resources, but also the social context (e.g. expectations, pressures and approvals from other people that enable or disable such a change in career). Given that we focus on a particular generation, the Millennials, various motivations and contextual factors may play a role in their career decisions. Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) framework has mostly been used in health behaviour research (e.g. Borland et al., 1991; Godin & Kok, 1996; Guo, Wang, Liang & Huang, 2015). In work and organizational psychology, there are only few studies that used TPB in entrepreneurship and job search behaviour research (e.g., Leroy et al., 2015; Lortie & Castogiovanni, 2015; Van Hooft, Born, Taris & Van der Flier, 2005; Van Hooft et al., 2004 a,b). Using TPB (Ajzen, 1991) as the theoretical framework, the present research seeks an answer to the question: what are the correlates of career change intention for Millennial professionals? In this framework, attitudes, social norms and perceived behaviour control are expected to influence intention. In addition, the present research will extend the TPB framework to career-related issues, such as career satisfaction, career calling, job satisfaction and job stress on career change intention.

In Chapter 1, traditional and contemporary definitions of career, different perspectives on career change, Millennials and age 30 transitions and theoretical framework for the current research will be explained. In Chapter 2, literature related to career and job satisfaction, career calling, job stress and TPB variables as well as their relationship with career change intention will be reviewed. In Chapter 3 and Chapter 4, methodology and findings of the current study will

be presented, respectively. In Chapter 5, findings will be discussed, contributions and limitations of the study will be highlighted and policy implications will be stated.

Career: Traditional and Contemporary Definitions

The terms career, occupation and job are used interchangeably and this leads to confusion. Lock (1992) defined these terms in such a way that career is one's entire work history, occupation is one's vocation, business, profession, or trade, and job is a position of employment within an organization. One can have a succession of jobs in the same occupation and one's career might include one occupation or several occupations in which one job or several jobs have been held.

There was less confusion in previous years with respect to definitions of job and career, because career has historically been referred to as a job or profession that someone did for life (Hall, 1994). However, with the transition to post-industrial era and recently to the information age, economic and social changes such as downsizing, outsourcing, entrepreneurship, and immigration have brought about changes in the way people do work and their relationship with work (Borg & Ohlsson, 2010). The work characteristics of the 21st century make a person less likely to pursue his/her job for many years. According to the traditional view of career, a career path grows and progresses at specific hierarchical levels, and the length of time spent in a position and the position's title define personal power and worth (Buzzanel & Goldzwig, 1991). Metaphors used for traditional career path include *linear* images such as a pyramid or ladder to imply progress through predetermined paths and competitions; those who reach the top are rewarded by financial success.

Contemporary conceptualizations of career underline the possibility of nonlinear paths (e.g. Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Briscoe, Hall, &

DeMuth, 2006). Greenhaus and colleagues (2000) defined career as a pattern of work related experiences, such as job positions, jobs duties or activities, work-related decisions and subjective interpretations of work-related events, such as work aspirations, expectations, values, needs and feelings about work experiences, spanning the course of a person's life. This definition describes career as a multi-faceted phenomenon and considers career as a self-directed lifelong sequence of work-related experiences. Research on boundaryless careers demonstrated that the boundaries of organizations, such as levels, functions and locations have become more permeable (Cheremie, Sturman & Wlash, 2007). In such environments, people can explore new career options. In their search, people begin to be driven by their own values, agency, and self-direction in the pursuit of psychological success in their work as research on protean careers highlighted (Briscoe, Hall & De Muth, 2006). Protean career is shaped more by the person's values and needs than by the organization. Through this self-directed exploration, people start to experience nonlinear career paths which include transitions, breaks and shifts (Hall, 2002). Super's life-span, life space theory (Super, Savickas & Super, 1996) sheds light on adult career development by conceptualizing career development as a lifelong process. In this perspective, career change is regarded as a personal growth process through which individuals continuously seek better jobs and careers (Super et al., 1996).

Both the structural changes such as transition to post-industrial era, as well as financial downturns, which include job losses, business closures, and the concern with personal growth, self-fulfilment, and self-awareness, have made practice of holding one job or remaining with one organization for life less likely. These changes paved the way for changing professions and/or organizations (Arthur, 2008; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 2004; Hall & Moss, 1998).

Therefore, the concepts “job” and “career” began to differentiate. Conceptual differences between career and job will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Millennials in Age 30 Transition

Not only the nature of jobs or skills of the workforce are dramatically different from the previous eras, but also generational characteristics do matter in conceptualizing current career paths.

Millennials, or the Generation Y, are people whose birth years are between the 1980s and the mid-1990s. They are currently at their thirties, and according to Young Careerist Research of Business and Professional Women’s Foundation (2011), 75% of workforce will be Millennials in 2025.

The reason why we focus on Millennials, instead of those who are at their 40s and 50s, is that popular perception depicts Millennials as impatient, self-focused, lacking in loyalty and work ethic (Hill, 2008; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Jacobson, 2007, Marston, 2009). There is widespread speculation and concern about how Millennials’ predispositions, behaviors, attitudes as well as skills will affect others in the organizations, especially those members of Generation X. Surrounded by high-tech environment, Millennials grew up adapting to the fast-paced world that includes instant access to information and constant social networking and communication (Pew, 2009). Research on generational differences showed that Millennials scored higher in measures of general self-esteem (e.g., Gentile et al. 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2001); narcissistic personality traits (e.g. Stewart and Bernhardt, 2010); and gender equality (e.g. Koenig et al. 2011). They were found to be different than previous generations in terms of work attitudes, work centrality, work ethic and leisure values (Wood et al., 2012). These generational differences can be attributed to raising styles of this generation. As Tulgan (2016) put it:

“Every step of the way, Gen Yers’ parents have guided, directed supported, coached, and protected them. Gen Yers have been respected, nurtured, scheduled, measured, discussed, diagnosed, medicated, programmed, accommodated, included, awarded, and rewarded (...) Their parents (were) determined to create a generation of superchildren” (p. 8)

And because they were overly supervised, coached and rewarded by their parents, in the workplace many have difficulty in adapting to the “system”. That is why they are generally portrayed as disobedient, self-focused or lazy (Wood et al., 2012). Millennials grew up adopting the philosophy of ‘do what you love’.

There are also positive characteristics associated with this generation. They are technologically adept, independent and goal-oriented, cooperative, optimistic, civic-minded fast-learners, (Gursoy, Maier and Chi, 2008), flexible and skilled in using advanced communication technologies (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). They were found to assess work in terms of its significance in human life and human nature (Singh, Rai & Bhandarker, 2012). Their motivations, priorities and values were found to be different than their families who belong to the Generation X (Pendergast, 2009). Millennials are also characterized as being more populous in number, more affluent and better educated than previous generations (Howe & Strauss, 2000). From organizations’ perspectives, they are found to be more accepting of diversity than were the past generations, have better competencies with advanced communication and information technologies, have the ability to see problems and opportunities from fresh perspectives, and are more comfortable working in teams than were the past generations (Howe & Strauss 2000; Gorman et al. 2004; Zemke et al. 2000). The existence of both of these negative and positive

perceptions of and attitudes toward Millennials in the workplace make them more likely to have heightened impulse to get out of the corporate world where they currently work side by side with the previous generations.

Members of this generation are currently around 30 years old. Although they currently do not have many years of job and career experience, this early stage of the career is a period when many life decisions are taken and career decisions potentially influence many domains of their lives. According to the life cycle theory (Levinson, 1986) there is an underlying order in the human life course; although each individual life is unique, everyone goes through the same basic sequence (Levinson, 1986, p.4). According to this perspective, life cycle is conceived as a sequence of eras, each having major changes with respect to biopsychosocial characteristics (Levinson, 1986). Each era and developmental period corresponds to age intervals. For instance, early adulthood is one of the peak years of life cycle in social and psychological terms, because these years ranging from age 17 to 45 when individuals form and pursue aspirations and make choices regarding marriage, family, work and life-style (Levinson, 1986). Currently, Millennials can be considered in an Age 30 transition. In that sense, theoretical perspectives about age 30 transition are relevant for studying Millennials. Career change may happen at any time in one's life, so it has been theorized in the framework of life transitions (Helfand, 1995). There are several perspectives to view life transitions such as age related, life stage related and life events/transitions related (Helfand, 1995; Levinson, 1978). From an age-related life transition perspective (Levinson, 1978), age 30 transition is a period of self-assessment and evaluation of career, because it is the determining factor of income, prestige and place in society as well as one's happiness, satisfaction and dreams. Age 30 transition represents a time when people

question themselves about how well they are doing with respect to meeting their goals. Possible life adjustments at this period include career change, move to another city, marriage, birth of children and so on. Although current trends in society might make it difficult to consider people at stages, because people are delaying marriage or having children, there are lay-offs or new jobs which encourage people to return to college to begin, complete or extend their education, still, thirties are generally a time for evaluating needs, interests, desires, commitments and relationships. Overall, although there are some age-related general stages in individuals' lives, as life cycle theory suggests (Levinson, 1986), such as Age 30 transition, each generation needs to be evaluated within their own structural context and values developed within that context. Millennials have been raised in an era when Internet and technology changed the way people work, their relationship with work and their values about work. Conceptualizations of career as well as nature of jobs changed. Leisure time, care for oneself, contributing to the society are some of the values that this generation was found to value the most (Pendergast, 2009). In this sense, research on Millennials' career change intention is not only about their age 30 transition, but would also provide insight about values and characteristics specific to this generation.

The reason why current study did not focus on mid-life transition or people at their 40s and 50s is that implications of younger people's such career changes can inform better educational and career counseling policies. If we can understand the influences and reasons behind young people's career change intentions, potential turnovers can be prevented at the early stages of career development. Moreover, career change intentions of these young people might give a better understanding of potential problems with the current career development approaches. According to Super's career development model (1994) career self concept begin to

grow in early adolescence. However, in Turkey early adolescents have limited knowledge about how to prepare for the careers they might be interested in, how to get information, and also have limited ability in associating their school experiences with careers (Nazlı, 2014). This lack of career counseling from early years on is likely to lead to haphazard career choices, which might end up in career changes.

Our aim is to find if these young people have career change intention and if the reasons can be understood in the Theory of Planned Behavior framework. In light of this research, negative stereotypes about this generation might be reduced and better policies can be implemented to utilize their abilities, skills, energies in the work force.

Career Change: Different Definitions and Perspectives

Career change has received little attention compared to job turnover. Therefore, a comprehensive theoretical understanding of the factors leading to career change and career change intention is limited. Career change is more than just leaving an organization, it encompasses interprofessional transition from one occupational field to another which requires new training and additional human capital investment in the new field (Ahn, 2016). The concept of *career change* was defined as a marked shift in jobs requiring new (primary) skills or knowledge or a totally different work environment, or both (Robbins, 1978). According to this definition, one could experience a job change that is not a career change when the new job requires similar skills, and has similar work environment, and a job change can be a career change when the skills and/or work environment are not similar to the previous one. According to Lawrence (1980), career change is a movement to a new occupation that is not part of a typical career progression. In this definition, career change overlaps with voluntary turnover, involuntary

turnover, and intraorganizational transfer. Ibarra (2002, p.10) defined career change as “a move into a position of greater managerial responsibility and organizational status, a transfer to a similar job in a new company or industry, a lateral move into a different work function within a familiar field”. In this definition, it is assumed that there is some familiarity of career changers with their prospective field of occupation, be it just a higher position, a similar occupation, or a familiar field. A more recent definition is that “career change often occurs when one decides to leave a job and subsequently an industry with an intention of never working in that industry again” (Kariru, Odhuno & Kambona, 2013, p.15).

In the current study, career is conceptualized in such a way that an individual works in an area similar to his / her education where s/he gets experience and promotion over the years in the same area. According to this conceptualization, career may include many jobs, including the current one. We conceptualize career change as an overall change in career into a different paid or non-paid area, which might include examples such as changing occupation, starting one’s own business, giving a break, going back to school which is different than solely defining it as changing one’s job.

Theories that have guided career change research are mainly career change model of Rhodes and Doering (1983) and Holland's theory of congruence of person and work environment (Holland, 1997). Dissatisfaction was the central aspect of Rhodes and Doering’s (1983) model of career change. The integrated career change model (Rhodes and Doering, 1983) is comprised of 17 blocks which include: organizational factors, perceived person/organization correspondence, personal factors, job performance, performance–reward relationship, evaluation of current job outcomes vs. alternative opportunity outcomes, perceived avail- ability of alternative

opportunities, personal and environmental factors, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, thoughts of changing jobs or careers, intention to search, actual search, intention to change careers, preparation for change, actual change and other factors. In this model, key drivers of career change are job satisfaction, career satisfaction, career progression, and job performance. This model suggested that people who are highly dissatisfied with their jobs are likely to think about changing careers. This is followed sequentially by job search intentions, actual job search, and by actual career change. This career model integrated career change and turnover research to provide a framework for the identification of an individual's motivation to undergo a career change. They developed this framework by integrating key aspects of three turnover models (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Price, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981) with expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), the theory of work adjustment (Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1968) and career change theory and research. In their integrated model, several dimensions including organizational, environmental and personal factors are associated with career change intention.

Rhodes and Doering (1993) examined determinants and processes associated with career change intention of public school teachers in New York. They tested a similar model with some of the dimensions of the integrated model omitted. In their model, the central relationship in the model was between job satisfaction and career change process. This model explained career change withdrawal process in four steps, beginning with thoughts of changing careers, then intention to search, then actual search and intention to change careers. Although Rhodes and Doering (1983) posit that career change is a distinct variable from turnover, it is unclear if the path from intentions to actions is the same. Some recent studies suggested that the integrated career change model ignores important factors such as work stress, job security, professional

identity and social pressure (e.g., Carless & Arnup, 2011; Khapova et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2000; Shropshire & Kadlec, 2012).

Holland's theory of personality-work environment congruence suggested that people search for environments where they can use their skills and abilities and express their values and attitudes. Therefore, a fit between personality type and work environment is important in the sense that people who choose to work in an environment similar to their personality type are "congruent" and they are more likely to be successful and satisfied. Holland created a hexagonal model that showed the relationship between the personality types and environments. This model had the following personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, conventional. Although Holland's theory has been a dominant one in career psychology especially in vocational choice, and it has been very practical and good for grouping personality types and jobs, research has failed to find as strong a link as might be expected between congruence and outcomes such as satisfaction and performance. Recent research applied Holland's framework to predict career persistence and career change (Donohue, 2006, 2007, 2014) and found that individuals, whose personalities are poorly matched to their work environments, are more likely to change careers than their congruent counterparts. However, congruence was considered as only one factor determining career change and persistence. Stress, expectations and agency were lacking in these recent studies.

Theories mentioned above aimed to understand the determinants of career change. However, the number of systematic studies on career change was few and the models they provided were not parsimonious. Moreover, the frameworks used for studying career change were not comprehensive to include factors both within and outside the individual in the same

theoretical framework. Models and findings of previous studies on career change intention will be explained in more detail in the next chapter.

Theory of Planned Behavior

The conceptual framework that guides the present study is based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Given the insufficiencies of the above-mentioned frameworks and the need for a framework which considers both within and outside the individual factors to predict intention, this framework was used in the current study. In the TPB framework, a central factor is individual's intention to perform a given behaviour in a specific context. In other words, intention is conceptualized as the most proximal and strongest determinant of behaviour and intentions to perform various kinds of behaviours have been theorized to be predicted by attitudes toward the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Figure 1). According to this model, attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control all exert their impact on behaviour through intentions. Only perceived behavioural control is assumed to have a direct link with the behaviour. Perceived behavioural control is the addition to the previous Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Attitude toward the behaviour refers to the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable appraisal of the behaviour, such that a person forms a generally positive or negative evaluations of performing a particular behaviour. *Subjective norms* refer to perceived social pressures to perform or not perform the behaviour. If an individual perceives that significant others approve or disapprove of the behaviour, s/he is less likely to intend to perform the behaviour. *Perceived behavioural control* refers to perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour (e.g. opportunities, resources) considering past experiences as well as anticipating

future opportunities or obstacles (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen (1991) extended the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) to include this perceived behavioural control variable, because it would allow prediction of behaviours that were not under volitional control. In other words, while TRA could adequately predict behaviours that were straightforward, intention was insufficient to predict behaviour when there were constraints on action. By adding this variable, TPB was able to provide information about potential constraints on action as perceived by the individual. So, perceived behavioural control was suggested to be able to explain why intentions do not always predict behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The reason why perceived behavioural control was theorized to have both direct and indirect effect on behaviour was that when the behaviour is not under complete volitional control, greater perceived behavioural control is associated with stronger intention-behaviour relationship (Armitage & Conner, 2001). A direct link is expected between perceived behavioural control and behaviour when intention accounts very little for the variance in behaviour, perceived behavioural control in the form of increased feelings of control would independently predict behaviour.

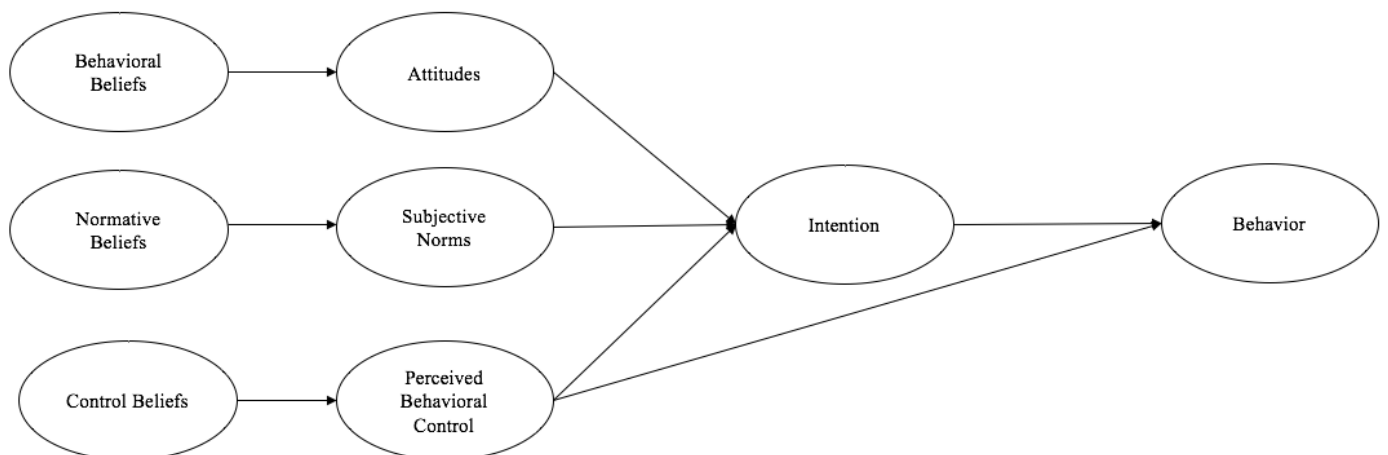


Figure 1. Theory of Planned Behavior model (Ajzen, 1991)

The theory suggests that the more favourable the attitude and subjective norm are with respect to a behaviour, and the greater the perceived behavioural control, the stronger an individual's intention to perform the behaviour under consideration is. Moreover, Ajzen (1991) stated that the relative importance of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control in the prediction of intention is expected to vary across behaviours and situations, meaning that the magnitude of the relationship between each variable and intention is dependent upon the type of behaviour and the nature of the situation. For instance, in situations where attitudes and subjective norms are strongly influential, perceived behavioural control may be less predictive of intentions.

TPB framework also includes antecedents of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, which are corresponding beliefs. Beliefs reflect the underlying cognitive structure (Armitage & Conner, 2001). *Behavioural beliefs* are considered as the indirect indicators of attitudes which are about evaluations about the outcomes or costs of the behaviour. While subjective norms are perceptions of general social pressure, *normative beliefs* are the indirect indicators of subjective norms and refers to the likelihood that specific individuals and reference groups would approve or disapprove of them for performing the behavior. *Control beliefs* that provide the basis for perceptions of behavioural control are concerned with the perceived power of specific factors that facilitate or inhibit performance of the behaviour

Several meta-analyses have been conducted to assess predictive power of TPB (Ajzen, 1991; Andrew, Mullan, de Wit, Monds, Todd & Kothe, 2016; Godin & Kok, 1996; Guo, Wang, Liao & Huang, 2015; Hausenblas, Carron, & Mack, 1997; Rich, Brandes, Mullan & Hagger, 2016; Riebl, Estabrooks, Dunsmore, Savla, Frisard, Dietrich, Peng & Zhang, 2016; Scalco,

Noventa, Sartori & Ceschi, 2017). These meta-analytic reviews examined research mainly in health behaviour, such as organic food consumption (Scalco et al., 2017), dietary behaviours (Riebl et al., 2015), and treatment adherence in chronic illness (Rich et al., 2015). The most recent meta-analysis by Scalco et al. (2017) showed that attitude played a major role in predicting consumer's buying intention of organic food. Riebl et al.'s (2015) meta-analysis on nutrition-related behaviours in youth also found that attitudes were the most frequently associated predictor of intention. Andrew et al.'s (2016) meta-analysis explored whether the constructs in the TPB explain condom use behaviour, and they found medium effect sizes of the relationships between the constructs in TPB. They reported that attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control accounted for 24 % variance in condom use intention; and intention and perceived behavioural control accounted for 12.4 % variance in condom use behaviour. Guo et al. (2015) assessed applicability and efficacy of TPB in predicting breastfeeding and found that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control were all significant predictors of breastfeeding intention, having medium effect sizes ranging from 0.20 to 0.59. In Rich et al.'s (2015) meta-analysis, TPB explained 33 % and 9 % of the variance in intention and adherence behaviour, respectively. Although most of the reviews showed that TPB can be applicable to a range of health behaviours, Rich et al.'s (2015) meta-analytic review on treatment adherence behaviour in people with chronic illness indicated that the theory's application is limited in this area. In Ajzen's (1991) meta-analysis, average correlation of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control with intention was $R = .71$ and $R = .51$ for prediction of behaviour from intention and perceived behavioural control. Another meta-analytic review by Godin and Kok (1996) which examined health behaviours found that

perceived behavioural control contributed a mean additional 13% of variance to the prediction of intentions and 12% to the prediction of behaviour. Hausenblas et al. (1997) meta-analysis investigated applications of the TRA and TPB to exercise behaviour. Based on correlations between the variables, they reported that TPB is more useful than the TRA.

These meta-analytic reviews suggest that the TPB is a useful model for predicting a wide range of behavioural intentions and behaviours. Use of TPB has been very limited in work and organizational psychology. Applying TPB to career change research, the current study aims to find correlates of career change intention for Millennials. career change intention as the dependent variable, represents voluntary and conscious component of actual career change. In our conceptual model, we included all the direct and indirect measures of TPB variables (Figure 2) and added career- and job-related variables as well as control variables to examine the predictive power of each group of factors for predicting career change intention.

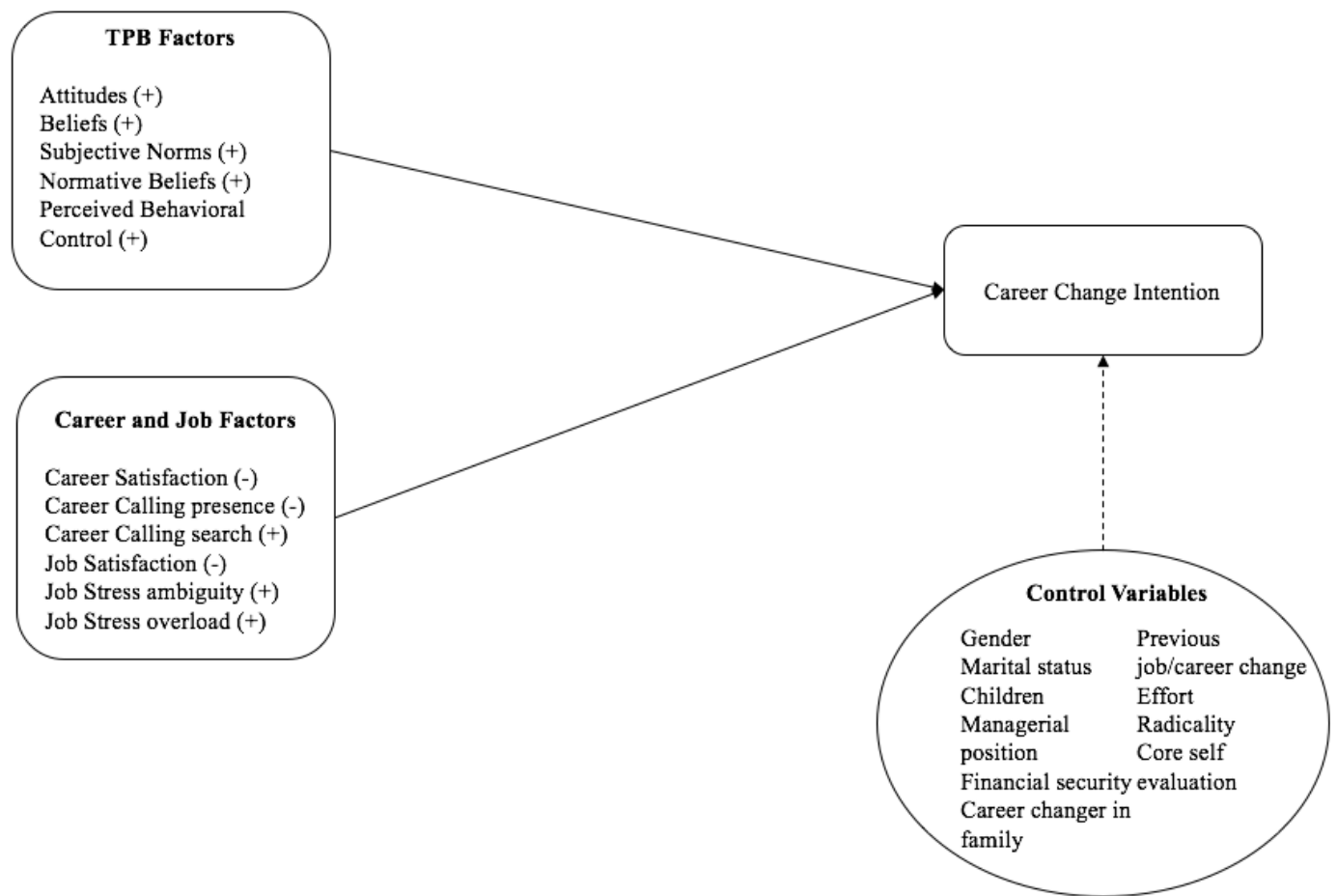


Figure 2. Conceptual model of the current study

(Signs in parentheses indicate the direction of expected relationships with career change intention)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Career Change Intention

There have been few studies that focused on career change intention. Several studies addressed the intention to leave the field or profession of nursing, teaching or hospitality sector (e.g., Chapman, 1984; Fimian, Fastenau, & Thomas, 1988; Lane, Mathews, & Presholdt, 1988). The reason why samples were chosen mainly from these professions may be because professions such as nursing has high demand and low control, involving high levels of role stress, burnout, and long working hours and leads to high turnover rates. In this chapter, various research findings with respect to relationships between satisfaction, calling and stress variables as well as TPB variables and career change intention are reviewed.

Satisfaction and Career Change Intention

Job satisfaction is an integral part of career planning and development (Hall, 2002). However, rather than focusing only on job satisfaction, present study focuses on career satisfaction, because happiness with a career has a broader and more longstanding impact on perceptions and behaviors of various job positions held by the individual (Valentine et al., 2011).

While career satisfaction is an individual's general attitude towards his or her profession (Robbins & Judge, 2011), and satisfaction with the accumulation of the person's career-related experiences (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007), job satisfaction is more of a transitory feeling about immediate work situation. Therefore, career satisfaction is not limited to an employee's feelings toward job, pay, status and other benefits (Arogundade & Arogundade, 2015).

Career satisfaction is defined as the extent to which employees are happy with their progress toward career success, the extent to which the organization fulfils their career expectations through rewards, as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's career or career experience (Colquitt, et. al. 2011; Gosnell, 2000; Greenhaus et al., 1990). General perceptions of career satisfaction were also found to be empirically distinct from financial success and hierarchical status in an organization (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley, 1990). Job and career satisfaction have been cited as a major factor that influences employees' career change intentions (Günlü et al., 2009; Kariru, Odhuno & Kambona, 2013). For example, hospitality employees intend to leave this sector due to career dissatisfaction (Kariru, Odhuno & Kambona, 2013). Tett and Meyer (1993) in their meta-analysis found that job satisfaction was negatively related to career change intention ($r = .25, p < .05$).

Voluntary turnover intention and its relationship to job satisfaction have been established in the literature (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Maertz & Campion, 2004; Mobley, 1977). A meta-analysis by Hellman (1997) has shown that there is a significant negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intention ($r = -.47$). Another research looked at the relationship between job dissatisfaction and turnover intention and found that job satisfaction is related to organizational commitment to predict turnover intention (Dumani, 2007). Some studies showed that individuals would remain in their jobs and industries despite being dissatisfied and this resilience could have been due to the poor economic conditions and high unemployment rates.

Research findings on the relationship between job satisfaction and career change are mixed. Some studies reported that dissatisfaction with the current job is associated with thoughts about career change (Blau, 2000; Carless & Bernath, 2007; Donohue, 2007). A descriptive study

of 44 public school teachers examined organizational determinants of career change intentions of teachers (Parker, 1982). Poor administration and morale were the organizational factors were found to lead to dissatisfaction with the current job, which predicted career change intention for these teachers. Some research found no relationship between job satisfaction and career change. In a recent study conducted with young hotel managers, job satisfaction and professional identity were found not to be key factors in the decision to change careers. However, dissatisfaction with career progression and work to life conflict predicted career change. A longitudinal study (Muja & Appelbaum, 2012) with actual career changers revealed that job satisfaction was not an antecedent of change, but satisfaction was higher after the change was undertaken. These differing effects of job satisfaction might be due to whether intentions or actual change was assessed. In the current study, we expect that higher career and job satisfaction would be associated with lower levels of career change intention.

Calling and Career Change Intention

The early notion of a calling was described as a divine inspiration to do morally responsible work (Weber, 1958). However, recently it has become more secularized. It now refers to a strong sense of inner direction to find the meaning in one's work and to contribute to a better world (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Wrzesniewski, 2003). Research suggests that experiencing work as a calling is associated with a series of psychological benefits, including increased life-, health-, and job-satisfaction (Hall & Chandler, 2005).

Calling in the context of work means that a person believes that s/he is called upon to do a particular kind of work either by her/his inner potential, a higher power or the needs of the society (Duffy et al., 2104). It is relevant not only in religious careers, but the concept can

basically be applied to any area of work. Individuals with a career calling approach their work with a strong sense of meaning and purpose, and desire to contribute to the community (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Elangovan, Pinder, & McLean, 2010; Hall & Chandler, 2005). While some people may see work as a way of gaining financial rewards for living, some may feel called to a certain career that aligns with one's life purpose (Duffy, Bott, Allan, Torrey & Dik, 2012). There is some research reporting that those with career calling are more engaged in their job and miss fewer days at work (Duffy, Dik, & Steger, 2011). For young people, a calling is associated with higher career expectations (Dik, Sargent, & Steger, 2008), more confidence (Hirschi, 2012), and higher motivation to pursue a career (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011; Lobene & Meade 2013).

A recent review of the literature by Duffy and Dik (2013) highlighted over 40 studies that have examined predictors and outcomes of a career calling. Results showed that feeling called is linked to a host of positive work and well-being outcomes, including career maturity, career commitment, work meaning, job satisfaction, life meaning, and life satisfaction (Duffy & Dik, 2013). Although some people do feel externally called, in recent research a calling is more often seen to originate from a sense of destiny or perfect fit with a particular career (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Duffy et al., 2012). Most of the studies consistently found that a calling represents a career that is personally meaningful and prosocial in nature (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Dik, Eldridge, Steger, & Duffy, 2012; Duffy, Foley, et al., 2012). People who endorse a calling view it as an integral part of their life meaning and actively use their job to help others (Duffy et al., 2014).

Recent work by Duffy and Autin (2013) distinguished two types of calling: having a calling and living a calling. They suggested that presence of a calling does not always mean

living the calling, for there might be some barriers for actualizing the calling in one's career (Duffy & Dik, 2009). Dik and Duffy (2009) proposed three-part definition of calling such as “a transcendent summons, experienced as originating beyond the self, to approach a particular life role in a manner oriented toward demonstrating or deriving a sense of purpose or meaningfulness and that holds other-oriented values and goals as primary sources of motivation” (p. 427). This conceptualization posited two aspects of the construct: presence of and search for a calling. Presence of calling referred to an individual's perception that s/he is called to a particular career path; and search for a calling referred to the sense that one is not currently in a career which matches his/her calling, but actively seeking one.

In the context of the present study, career calling is especially important for emerging adults when making career change decisions and setting career goals (Praskova, Creed & Hood, 2014). Although there has not been an established definition of career calling, generally it is agreed that adults with a calling approach their work with a stronger sense of meaning, purpose, and fulfilment, and have a greater desire to contribute to others and the community through their occupational activities (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Steger, Pickering, Shin, & Dik, 2010). Hence, in the current study we expect that the presence of career calling is associated with lower career change intention and the search for a career calling is associated with more career change intention.

Stress and Career Change Intention

Peterson and colleagues (1995) conceptualized role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload as components of job stress. When the role of the individual is not well defined (role ambiguity) or

clashes with one's values and expectations (role conflict) or at an overloading level when the individual cannot function (role overload), the individual feels stress.

Ambiguity, conflict and overload can also apply to one's career. When the scope of the jobs and responsibilities of the employee are poorly defined or unstructured, role ambiguity arises. When there is a disparity between the requirements of jobs held and employee's own values and expectations, role conflict arises. When employees have less control over their work and feel burnout, role overload arises. People seek and endure a certain level of challenge and stress in their jobs and careers to the point that they are stimulating and invigorating, but when ambiguity, conflict and overload are beyond an optimum level, it would be expected that it is difficult for employees to function and be healthy both psychologically and physically (Creed, Rogers, Praskova & Searle, 2014).

Research with various samples of nurses revealed that job stress variables were significant predictors of job turnover (Fang & Baba, 1993). There were also similar positive relationships found for career change intention. In a study conducted with IT professionals, role conflicts and role clarity were found to lead IT workers to consider career change (Shropshire, 2012). Based on these findings, we expect that each dimension of job stress is positively associated with career change intention.

TPB Variables and Career Change Intention

According to the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioral control all exert their impact on behavior through intentions. Theory of planned behavior has been mostly used to predict health behavior (Godin & Kok, 1996). In health psychology, researchers aim at explaining addiction (e.g., Borland et al., 1991), screening

(e.g., De Vellis et al., 1990), eating (e.g., Madden et al., 1992), and exercising behaviors (e.g., Theodorakis, 1994). It has also been used in leisure studies (Hagger et al. 2003), entrepreneurship research (e.g., Leroy et al., 2015; Lortie & Castogiovanni, 2015) and some organizational studies (e.g., Dunstan, Covic & Tyson, 2013). In the current study, we aim to apply this theory to career change intention.

TPB has been used in marriage and family research and health behavior research (Guo, Wang, Liao & Huang, 2015; Andrew, Mullan, de Wit, Monds, Todd & Kothe, 2016; Godin & Kok, 1996; Hausenblas, Carron, & Mack, 1997; Rich, Brandes, Mullan & Hagger, 2016; Riebl, Estabrooks, Dunsmore, Savla, Frisard, Dietrich, Peng & Zhang, 2016; Scalco, Noventa, Sartori & Ceschi, 2017). TPB framework has also been used to study career and job-search behaviors, but they are limited in number (Carless and Bernath, 2007; Van Hooft et al., 2005; 2004). Meta-analysis, as discussed in theoretical framework section, showed that TPB has predictive validity. We applied this framework to predict career change intention.

We expect that the more favorable the attitude and subjective norm with respect to a behavior, and the greater the perceived behavioral control, the more an individual's career change intention.

Demographic and Individual Difference Variables and Career Change Intention

Both job turnover and career change literatures paid attention to demographic characteristics as well as individual difference variables. There is some evidence to suggest that demographics such as age, gender and marital status may be covariates of career change.

Some studies treated gender, marital status and having children as control variables and

some found moderating effects of these demographics. The findings about gender differences in career change have been mixed with some studies reporting males reporting their career change intentions more frequently than women (Blau, 2000; Blau & Lunz, 1998); other studies reporting no gender differences in intentions to change careers (Carless & Bernath, 2007; Markey & Parks, 1989). Findings about the effect of marital status on career change is also mixed. Some studies showed those who are single are more likely to change careers, because they have fewer commitments and relocation for a new career is easier (Breedon, 1993; Markey & Parks, 1989; Parrado et al., 2007). Yet, other studies found marital status has no impact on intentions to change careers (Blau, 2000; Blau & Lunz, 1998; Carless & Bernath, 2007). With respect to effect of having children, meta- analyses have shown that the number of children is negatively related to job turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). In career change research, some studies found that individuals with dependent children are less likely to change careers (Neapolitan, 1980). Given these findings, age, gender, and education were treated as control variables in the current study.

Among the personality characteristics, self-esteem was a personality characteristics that has been found to affect career change and job turnover. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1997) has been applied in vocational psychology to understand how individuals make career choices. According to this theory, individuals' conception of their confidence to perform tasks (self-efficacy) mediates between their beliefs in their ability to accomplish things and the actions they will take. In the current study, core self evaluation (REF) was measured as an individual difference variable, because this concept incorporates different aspects of agency which is an important factor in career decision-making. Core self evaluation measure consists of self-esteem,

generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control.

Apart from these variables, some work-related characteristics, such as previous jobs and career change experiences, managerial position, effort for career change and perceived radicality of intended career were also controlled for (Appendix A).



METHOD

Sample

Selection of Participants

A pilot study was conducted with 22 full-time employees to develop TPB scale items. After the questionnaire was finalized, data were obtained from a sample of 227 employees mainly from Istanbul, Turkey. Age and work status were the two main selection criteria of the study. Generation Y employees between the ages of 20-40 years of age and those who were in full-time paid-work (working in an organization or self-employment) participated in the study.

Data were collected from various sources. First, graduates of Koç University and Boğaziçi University were contacted via the alumni groups in LinkedIn and Facebook. Then, snowball sampling was used to reach more Generation Y employees. Among those who shared e-mail addresses at the end of the survey, one fifth of them had the chance to win a D&R gift card in the amount of 30 Turkish lira or donation on behalf of their names to TEMA Foundation in Turkey. Total number of people who answered all questions in the survey were 227.

Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 reports employees' socio-demographic characteristics, age, gender, education, and work experience. The age of the sample ranged from 20 to 40 ($M = 30.25$, $SD = 3.85$) and 63.4% of the sample was women (144 women 83 men). Almost half of the sample was married, 5.3 % of the sample lived with a partner, 5.3 % of the sample lived without his/her partner and 2.2 % of

the sample was divorced. Seventy five percent of the sample had a working partner. Only 17 % of the sample had children and age of the children ranged between new born to 12 years old. Only 6 % of the sample had someone to care for at home. The sample was highly educated ($M = 17.3$ years, $SD = 4.13$); all having at least a university degree, 38 % of them having a graduate degree and 10.2 % having a PhD or post-doc degree.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics of the Sample*

Variable	Sample (N=227)	
Demographics		
Age	<i>M (SD)</i>	30.25 (3.85)
	Range	20-40
Gender	Women (%)	63.4
Marital status	Married (%)	46.7
Children	Have children	17.2
	(%)	
Years of education	<i>M (SD)</i>	17.33 (4.13)
Work characteristics		
Total work experience (<i>years</i>)	<i>M (SD)</i>	6.95 (4.26)
Experience in current career (<i>years</i>)	<i>M (SD)</i>	5.33 (3.76)
Experience in current job (<i>years</i>)	<i>M (SD)</i>	3.83 (3.09)
Work organization (%)	Public	9.9
	Private	88.7
	NGO	1.4
Job position (%)	Managerial	33.9
	Non-managerial	65.3

Most of the sample worked in private organizations. Thirty four percent of the sample had a managerial position. Average total work experience among the sample was 7 years ($M = 6.95$ $SD = 4.3$). The average years of experience in the current career was 5.3. With respect to sectors they work in, 22% of the sample was from finance, % 11 from marketing, sales and service, % 8 from law, public safety, corrections and security, 8.4% from science, technology, engineering and mathematics, 8% from human resources.

Measurement

The employees were surveyed with a self-administered questionnaire. In the first part of the questionnaire, career was defined and career satisfaction and career calling questions were asked. In the second part, career change was defined and previous career change experience, career change intention and perceived radicality were asked. In the third part, attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms, normative beliefs and perceived control were assessed based on the questions used in TPB research (Ajzen, 2006). In the fourth part, an individual difference variable, core self evaluation was measured. In part five, job satisfaction and job stress were assessed. In the last part, employees were asked about their demographic and work characteristics. An anonymous online survey link was created in Qualtrics and distributed. The survey took 15-20 minutes to complete.

All items measuring all study constructs were on a 5-point Likert-type scale ($1 = strongly disagree$ to $5 = strongly agree$) unless otherwise stated. Scale scores were computed by averaging across scale items, resulting in a possible range between 1 and 5 such that higher numbers indicate a higher level of the construct. Information about all study variables, including number of items, reliability, descriptive statistics and source of the scales can be found in Table 2.

Career change intention. According to the TPB model, the key is defining the goal behavior in terms of a target, action, context and timing. Thus, career change intention was operationalized as ‘making a change in your career (behavior) to some paid or non-paid (context) employment area (target) in the next three years (time).’ Career change intention variable was adopted from the scale development procedure developed by Ajzen (2006) and measured by four items measuring ‘plans, desires, expectations and self-prediction, concerning the performance of the behavior’ namely, career change. Items measuring career change intention were “I want to make career change”, “I expect to make a career change”, “I plan to make a career change”, “Probability of making a career change in the next one year is very high”. A mean score was created for the items, higher scores obtained from the subscales indicating higher intention. Confirmatory factor analysis results revealed acceptable fit indices ($\chi^2 (2) = 5.36, p=.07$, RMSEA= .08, CFI=.99). The reliability estimate for four-item career change intention scale was .93.

Career Satisfaction. Career satisfaction was assessed by a 5-item scale developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), adapted to Turkish by Avcı and Turunç (2012). Each item referred to a different facet of career satisfaction such as success, achievement of overall career goals, promotion, pay, and development of skills. A sample item was “I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement”. Greenhaus et al. (1990) reported an acceptable level of internal consistency for this scale ($\alpha=.88$). In the present study, the Cronbach’s alpha was also .88.

Career Calling. Four-item brief calling scale (BCS) was used (Dik et al., 2012). Because this concept is not commonly used in the Turkish culture, the author was advised to add two more

items for each dimension (personal communication with Berrin Erdoğan on July 13, 2015). The author added two questions for presence dimension and two questions for search dimension to make the concept clearer for the Turkish participants. The new items captured the concept in more detail. An exploratory factor analysis was run to see if the 8-item calling scale has a two-factor solution to have presence and search dimensions. The items were examined for their factor structure through maximum likelihood method. Oblique rotation based on Direct Oblimin was used to find minimum number of factors and to account for the observed correlations, assuming that factors may be correlated. Correlation matrix showed that the relationships between the items have some moderate to high correlations ($r = .23-.78$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .79, above the commonly recommended value of .6, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (28) = 962.92, p < .001$). Eigenvalue criterion was used to find the number of factors that can adequately explain the observed correlations. We specified the criterion that the number of initial factors equal to the eigenvalues that are greater than or equal to 1.0. All items had communalities above .5. Two factors explained 74% of the total variance. The items in the first factor were about presence of calling, such as "I have a good understanding of my calling as it applies to my career"; the items in the second factor were about search for calling, such as "I am trying to figure out my calling in my career". The reliability scores for the presence and search subscales of the measure were .87 and .80, respectively. CFA results also showed acceptable levels of fit for the 2-factor model ($\chi^2 (13) = 27.21, p = .01, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .99$).

Direct and Indirect Measurement of Attitudes. In the current study, all TPB variables were created following the TPB scale construction procedure developed by Ajzen (2006). Both direct

and indirect scores were used. Because they are different methods tapping the same construct, it was recommended that both are included in TPB questionnaires. Direct measurement of attitude was developed using instrumental items (whether the behavior achieves something (e.g., good–bad) and experiential items (how it feels to perform the behavior, e.g., pleasant - unpleasant). The items were arranged so that the scale endpoints were a mix of positive and negative endpoints to minimize the risk of response. The negatively worded items were re-coded in SPSS software analysis so the higher numbers reflected a positive attitude toward career change intention. CFA results also showed acceptable levels of fit indices (χ^2 (27) = 44.04, $p=.02$, RMSEA= .05, CFI=.98). The Cronbach's Alpha for ten-item attitude score was .80.

Belief items were created based on the literature review and the pilot study. The items included “Career change enables me to gain respect and approval from others”, “enables me to feel more useful and productive”. Three items were reverse coded. Higher scores reflected more favorable beliefs about performing the behavior. Item 5 was dropped to reach a better reliability score. Fit indices for these items were acceptable (χ^2 (9) = 13.69 $p=.13$, RMSEA= .05, CFI=.99). The Cronbach's alpha for final six-item belief variable was .72.

Direct and Indirect Measurement of Subjective Norms. Two items were used to measure to the social pressure one feels to perform or not perform a particular behaviour. The items were: “Most people who are important to me (e.g. my family, close friends) think I should make a career change”, “Most people who are important to me want me to make a career change”. The negatively worded items were re-coded in SPSS software analysis so high scores reflected

greater social pressure to perform the behavior. The subjective norm items had internal consistency of .89.

Normative beliefs questions referred to individuals and reference groups that would approve or disapprove of them for performing the behavior. By answering these questions, participants indicated the approval of each referent group or individual. Fit indices for these items were ($\chi^2(3) = 10.76, p=.01, RMSEA = .10, CFI=.98$). The indirect measure of normative beliefs had internal consistency of .83.

Perceived Behavioral Control. Five items measured individuals' perceived amount of control over behavioural performance. Example items were: "I am confident in my ability to make a career change", "making a career change is under my control". The Cronbach's alpha for the five-item perceived control scale was .81. Fit indices for these five items were acceptable ($\chi^2(3) = 5.08, p=.17, RMSEA = .06, CFI=.99$).

Control beliefs were measured by open-ended questions where participants were asked to write three facilitators and three inhibitors for a possible career change. Due to high number of missing cases, control beliefs were omitted from the analyses.

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured by three-item Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh, 1983) contained in the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Turkish adaptation by Korabik, Ayman & Ayman, 2017). The items measured overall satisfaction with the current job. This scale has been widely used and shown to be internally consistent ranging from .77 to .87 (Cammann et al., 1979; Jex & Gudunowski,

1992). A sample item is “I am generally satisfied with my job”. One of the items was reverse coded. Items were averaged to yield an overall job satisfaction score ($\alpha = .70$).

Job Stress. Job stress was measured by the thirteen-item job stress scale (Peterson et al., 1995), consisting of subscales of role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload (Turkish adaptation by Korabik, Aycaan & Ayman, 2017). Due to low reliability (.51), the conflict subscale was removed from the analyses. The five-item role overload scale had a reliability of .82 and Cronbach’s alpha for five-item role ambiguity scale was .76. Example item for overload subscale was “I feel overburdened in my role”, for ambiguity subscale was “My responsibilities are clearly defined”. Ambiguity items were reverse-coded.

Control Variables. Gender, marital status, having children, managerial position, previous job and career experience, existence of career changer in the family, existence of failed career change in the social network were categorical demographic and work-related control variables asked in the questionnaire (Appendix A). Participants were also asked to rate their financial security ($1 = none, 10 = high$), their effort for a possible career change ($1 = no effort, 10 = active effort$) and radicality of their intended career change ($1 = not radical at all, 10 = very radical$). As an individual difference variable, twelve-item core self evaluation scale was used (Judge, Erez, Bono & Thoresen, 2003; Turkish adaptation by Kisbu, 2006).

Table 2. *Reliability and Descriptive Statistics of the Scales*

Scales	N of items	α	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Skewness	Kurtosis	Source
Career Change Intention	4	.93	2.82(1.09)	.194	-.838	Created according to TPB and pilot study
Career Satisfaction	5	.88	3.47(.84)	-.608	.326	Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley (1990)
Career Calling Presence	4	.87	2.82(.92)	.061	-.097	Dik, Eldridge, Steger and Duffy (2012)
Career Calling Search	4	.80	2.84(.95)	.031	-.614	Dik, Eldridge, Steger and Duffy (2012)
Attitudes	10	.79	3.45(.48)	-.057	1.539	Created according to TPB and pilot study
Beliefs	6	.72	3.33(.61)	-.456	1.206	Created according to TPB and pilot study
Subjective Norms	2	.89	2.46(.95)	.444	-.003	Created according to TPB and pilot study
Normative Beliefs	5	.83	3.61(.75)	-.251	.295	Created according to TPB and pilot study
Perceived Control	5	.81	3.26(.83)	-.080	-.364	Created according to TPB
Job Satisfaction	3	.70	3.59(.80)	-.493	.342	Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh (1983)
Job Stress Ambiguity	5	.76	2.20(.61)	.246	.287	Peterson et al., 1995
Job Stress Overload	5	.82	2.98(.80)	.415	-.034	Peterson et al., 1995
Core Self Evaluation	12	.82	3.43(.53)	.186	.807	Judge, Erez, Bono & Thoresen, 2003

RESULTS

The data were pooled and cleaned by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 24.0). Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages were used to summarize the demographic characteristics of the data. Relations between the variables were investigated via bivariate correlations. Multiple regression analysis was run to test the associations between study variables. Direct and indirect effects of TPB variables as well as career and job variables were examined through path analysis in Mplus (Mplus Version 8). As will be described below, based on the results of the regression and path analysis, a profiling was made using all study variables. Latent profile analysis and ANCOVA were used to show if career change intention varies by different career profiles.

Descriptive Statistics

Prior to the main analysis, the accuracy of data entry, missing values, distributions of all variables and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis were examined. The variables demonstrated acceptable levels of normality. The means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the study variables can be found in Table 2.

The mean for career change intention was $M = 2.82$ ($SD = 1.09$). It is interesting that its distribution looked almost like a bipolar distribution with 52% of the sample having scores between 1 and 3 and 48% of the sample scoring between 3 and 5. It appeared that half of the sample had low or no career change intention whereas half of the sample was either undecided or had some or high career change intention.

Correlations

Bivariate correlations among the study variables revealed that career change intention had moderate correlations with career satisfaction, career calling dimensions, TPB variables, job stress ambiguity and job satisfaction. While career satisfaction, job satisfaction and calling presence were negatively correlated with career change intention, search for calling, job ambiguity and all TPB variables were positively correlated with change intention. The associations between career satisfaction, calling presence, job satisfaction and career change intention were negative, meaning that the more satisfied with career and job and the more there is calling, the less likely the career change intention was. The correlation between career satisfaction and job satisfaction was .51. Career satisfaction had low correlations with TPB variables and moderate correlations with presence of career calling and job stress ambiguity. Career calling dimensions had low to moderate correlations with TPB variables, job satisfaction and job stress ambiguity ($r = .13- .51$).

TPB variables mostly correlated with each other and job satisfaction, and some of them correlating with job stress ambiguity. Attitudes had low to moderate correlations with search for calling, job satisfaction; subjective norms correlated with all study variables except for perceived control and job stress overload. Perceived control had low to moderate correlations with career satisfaction, calling dimensions, attitudes and job stress ambiguity. Among job stress variables, overload dimension had no correlations with any of the study variables whereas ambiguity dimension had low to moderate correlations with all the study variables except for attitudes. Overall, these low to moderate correlations between the study variables indicated that there is no problem of multicollinearity due to common method variance and the study variables are related yet different concepts which would yield various effects on the dependent variable (Table 3).

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of the Study Variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
1.Career Change Intention	2.82	1.09	1	.29***	-.34***	.39***	.21***	.37***	.45***	.19**	.11	-.46***	.26***	-.02	-.23***	.65***	.18**	-.31***	
2.Career Satisfaction	3.47	.84		1	.47***	-.07	-.10	-.25***	-.18**	.03	.18**	.51***	-.27***	-.01	.37***	-.19**	-.08	.40***	
3.Calling-presence	2.82	.92			1	.01	-.06	-.13*	-.21**	.05	.28***	.51***	-.28***	.01	.22***	-.18**	-.20**	.36***	
4.Calling-search	2.84	.95				1	.15*	.26***	.27***	.06	.13*	-.24***	.14*	.05	-.10	.35***	.14*	-.23***	
5.Attitudes	3.45	.48					1	.66***	.18**	.14*	.23***	-.15*	.05	-.05	.04	.22***	.02	.02	
6.Beliefs	3.33	.61						1	.33***	.23***	.16*	-.26***	.14*	-.03	-.13*	.29***	.10	-.20***	
7.Subjective Norms	2.46	.95							1	.28***	.08	-.34***	.22***	.06	-.11	.29***	.00	-.17*	
8.Normative Beliefs	3.61	.75								1	.31***	.07	-.12	-.22***	.10	.05	-.09	.19**	
9.Perceived Control	3.26	.83									1	.16*	-.18**	-.04	.29***	.11	.00	.44***	
10.Job Satisfaction	3.59	.80										1	-.48***	-.11	.28***	-.35***	-.08	.44***	
11.Job Stress ambiguity	2.20	.61											1	.09	-.18**	.22***	.08	-.43***	
12.Job Stress overload	2.98	.80												1	.03	.07	-.02	-.14*	
13.Financial security	6.00	1.96													1	-.11	-.02	.41***	
14.Effort	3.36	2.88														1	.10	-.18**	
15.Radicality	5.67	3.01															1	-.08	
16.Core Self	3.43	.53																	1

Note. $N=227$, *** $p<.001$, ** $p<.01$, * $p<.05$.

Among the control variables, financial security had positive correlations with career satisfaction, presence of career calling, job satisfaction, perceived behavioral control. Effort was also correlated with most of the career and job variables. Core self evaluation had correlations with almost all the variables except for attitudes and radicality.

Although there was no multicollinearity problem, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to check if all items of the study variables loaded on different scales. Communalities ranged between .40 to .70. Results showed that only some items of career satisfaction, job satisfaction and career calling presence cross-loaded on the same factor. Overall, factor loadings of the items were consistent with the study scales (Table is available upon request).

T-tests

Mean differences between groups were assessed using t-tests in SPSS. Differences in scores of study variables between men and women, married and not married individuals, those who have children and those who do not, managers and non-managers, those who had previous job / career change experience and those who do not were analyzed through independence group t-tests.

There were no significant differences in career change intention scores with respect to gender, marital status, having children, managerial position, career change experience, having a family member who had changed career previously and having an acquaintance who intended yet failed to change career. The only significant difference in career change intention score was between those who had a previous job change experience and those who don't have. Individuals who had no job change experience scored higher in career change intention ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 1.11$) compared to those who had previous job change experience ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 1.06$), $t(225) = -2.24$, $p < .05$.

Career satisfaction scores differed between managers and non-managers, with managers having higher career satisfaction score ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 0.74$, $p < .00$) than non-managers ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 0.85$), $t(225) = 4.18$, $p < .000$. Managers had higher scores on job satisfaction as well ($M = 3.78$, $SD = 0.80$) than non-managers ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.78$), $t(225) = 2.71$, $p < .01$.

There was a significant difference in search for a calling score between those who have children ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 0.94$, $p < .00$) and those who do not ($M = 2.53$, $SD = 0.95$), $t(225) = 2.32$, $p < .05$; and between non-managers ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 0.97$, $p < .00$) and managers ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 0.90$), $t(225) = -2.12$, $p < .05$, non-managers and those who do not have children scoring higher on search for a calling.

Core self evaluation scores were significantly higher for managers ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 0.49$, $p < .000$) than non-managers ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 0.50$), $t(225) = 5.23$, $p < .00$ and higher for married individuals ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 0.48$), $t(225) = 3.10$, $p < .01$.

Overall, mean differences in all study variables with respect to demographic and work-related variables were examined and results showed some significant differences, justifying the treatment of these variables as control variables in the subsequent analyses.

Multiple Regression Analysis

All study variables in the conceptual model (Figure 2) were entered in the regression analysis. Results revealed that controlling for the effects of demographics, work-related variables, financial security, effort, radicality and core self evaluation, the effects of subjective norms ($\beta = .16$), presence of career calling ($\beta = -.16$), job satisfaction ($\beta = -.15$) and perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .14$) were significant (Table 4). Presence of calling and job satisfaction had negative effects on career change intention, indicating that the more a person felt called to career and the

more s/he had job satisfaction, the less the career change intention was. Subjective norms and perceived control had positive effects on career change intention, indicating that the higher the social expectations as well as perceptions of self-confidence and controllability, the higher the career change intention. Among the TPB variables, the hypothesized effects of attitudes, beliefs and normative beliefs were not found. Moreover, among the career and job factors, career satisfaction and job stress variables had nonsignificant effects on career change intention. The overall model was significant, $F(23) = 15.54, p < .00$ with all these variables explaining 64 % of variance in career change intention.

Table 4. *Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Career Change Intention*

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>Beta</i>
Control Variables						
Gender	.22	.11	.10*	.31	.10	.14**
Married	.01	.13	.00	-.04	.11	-.02
Children	.02	.16	.01	.03	.15	.01
Financial security	-.06	.03	-.10	-.06	.03	-.10*
Managerial	-.16	.12	-.07	-.08	.11	-.04
Previous career change	-.15	.13	-.07	-.10	.12	-.04
Previous job change	-.11	.13	-.05	-.09	.12	-.04
Changer in family	.03	.11	.02	.15	.10	.07
Failed change	.02	.14	.01	-.01	.12	-.00
Effort	.23	.02	.61***	.17	.02	.45***
Radicality	.04	.02	.11*	.03	.02	.07
Core Self Evaluation	-.22	.12	-.11	-.17	.13	-.08
TPB Variables						
Attitudes				-.05	.14	-.02
Beliefs				.13	.12	.07
Subjective norms				.18	.06	.16**
Normative beliefs				.12	.07	.08
Perceived behavioral control				.18	.07	.14**
Career and Job Variables						
Career satisfaction				.06	.07	.05
Calling presence				-.19	.07	-.16**
Calling search				.08	.06	.07
Job satisfaction				-.20	.09	-.15*
Job stress ambiguity				-.03	.09	-.01
Job stress overload				-.10	.06	-.07
<i>R</i> ²	.50			.64		

Note. *N* = 227, *** *p*<.001, ** *p*<.01, * *p*<.05.

An Exploratory Mediated Model

Multiple regression analysis results showed that only presence of calling, job satisfaction and subjective norms and perceived control were significant predictors of career change intention. Even if we did not hypothesize career satisfaction as a main variable predicting career change intention, its nonsignificant effect in the regression analysis indicated almost no relationship with the career change intention. Both theoretically and empirically such a nonsignificant relationship close to zero did not make sense. Given that career satisfaction had significant negative correlation with career change intention ($r = -.29, p < .00$), we suspected that this association might be lost due to the correlation of .51 between career satisfaction and job satisfaction. Job stress variables were also nonsignificant in the regression analysis. Although job stress overload had no significant correlation with career change intention, job stress ambiguity had a significant positive association with career change intention ($r = .26, p < .00$). Similar to career satisfaction's association with job satisfaction, job stress ambiguity had a correlation of .48 with job satisfaction ($r = .48, p < .00$).

For the indirect effects, previous literature on the relationship between career satisfaction and job satisfaction (e.g. Dumani, 2007; Ghiselli et al., 2001) as well as between job stressors and job satisfaction (e.g. Jamal, 1997; Siu, Lu & Cooper, 1999) showed that job satisfaction acted as a mediator. Also in previous career change models job satisfaction was found to be a more proximal variable to predict career change. Therefore, we wanted to test an exploratory mediated model where job satisfaction was expected to mediate the relationship between career and job variables and career change intention. We specified simultaneous regression equations in path analysis in Mplus and examined the direct and indirect effects. Tests for the indirect effects were performed with Bootstrapping method which is suggested to have better statistical power

with small sample sizes (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Although no previous research tested indirect effects of TPB variables through job satisfaction, we tested all direct and indirect paths in Mplus. Results are provided in Table 5.

Similar to regression analysis findings, path analysis results revealed that career calling presence, job satisfaction, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control had direct effects on career change intention.

Paths to reveal indirect effects showed that job satisfaction partially or fully mediated some of the relationships. All career variables, i.e., career satisfaction, presence of career calling and search for a calling had significant indirect effects on career change intention via job satisfaction. Among job variables, job stress ambiguity had a marginally significant indirect effect on career change intention. Model fit indices showed good fit of data to the model, ($\chi^2 (9) = 15.21, p=.08, RMSEA=.06, CFI=.98$). Overall, when demographic and work-related characteristics were controlled and exploratory mediation analysis was run, we found indirect effects of career satisfaction, career calling and job stress ambiguity on career change intention through job satisfaction. Significant direct and indirect effects in the path analysis were shown in Figure 3.

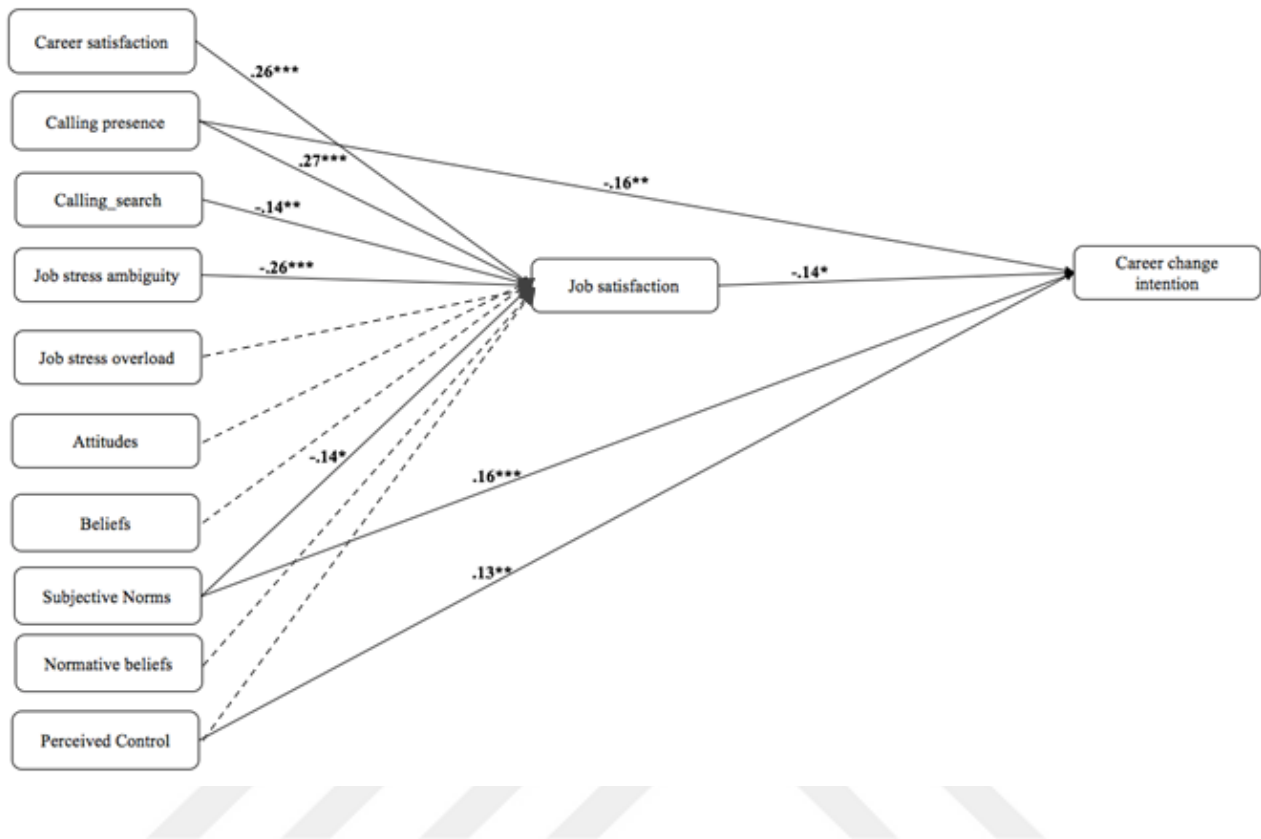


Figure 3. Standardized significant bootstrap estimates

These results suggested that after controlling for the demographic, work-related and individual difference variables, feelings about the career, such as satisfaction and calling and job ambiguity affected perceptions of current job satisfaction which then predicted career change intention. With respect to TPB variables, only subjective norms and perceived behavioral control predicted career change intention. Subjective norms also had a negative indirect effect on career change intention via job satisfaction. Overall, career, job and TPB variables together accounted for 63 % variance in career change intention.

Table 5. *Bootstrap ML Estimates for Indirect Effects*

Path	Unstandardized Estimate	S.E.	Standardized Estimate	S.E.
Job satisfaction <= Career satisfaction	.25	.06	.26***	.07
Job satisfaction <= Calling presence	.23	.06	.27***	.06
Job satisfaction <= Calling search	-.12	.04	-.14**	.05
Job satisfaction <= Job stress ambiguity	-.34	.09	-.26***	.07
Job satisfaction<= Subjective norms	-.12	.05	-.14*	.06
Career change intention <= Calling presence	-.19	.07	-.16**	.06
Career change intention<= Subjective norms	.18	.07	.16**	.06
Career change intention<= Perceived control	.17	.08	.13*	.06

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Although recent meta-analysis on predictive validity of TPB suggested that attitudes were the most significant predictor of intention (e.g. Scalco et al., 2017, Rieble et al., 2015), our results showed that any of the attitude component of TPB, neither attitudes nor beliefs, had no effect on intention. This finding led us to suspect that different TPB variables might be influential for different groups of people. As Ajzen (1991) stated, relative importance of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control in the prediction of intention might vary across behaviors and situations. In our study, relative effects of each TPB variable might vary across different career profiles. We decided to make an exploratory profiling based on the career and job-related indicators and TPB variables to see if TPB variables play different roles for creating different profiles.

Career Profiles

We identified latent profiles using mean scores of career satisfaction, career calling, job satisfaction, job stress and TPB variables. In the LPA framework, inter-individual differences with respect to indicators are examined by the existence of several subgroups (latent profiles). Latent profile analysis identifies cases using a model-based method, meaning a statistical model is assumed to underlie the population and the model is used to identify groups of individuals that are similar with respect to a categorical latent variable (Muthén & Muthén, 2000, 2004). Unlike cluster analysis, the variables used in the latent class and latent profile analyses are measured at the latent level, and thus, measurement error is partitioned and reflected in estimates of within-class residual variance (Muthén & Muthén, 2011; Patel, Thatcher & Bezrukova, 2013).

The latent profiles had distinct response patterns such that there was smaller variability of indicators within a group than between the groups. The number and properties of the groups were not known a priori but determined in the analysis by means of certain fit criteria and model comparisons. We conducted Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin likelihood ratio tests and compared models using Bayes information criterion (BIC) to identify the model that best and most parsimoniously described the variability in the profiles.

We used the career- and job-related indicators and TPB variables stated above and estimated 2-class and 3-class models (Table 6). A 2-class model had better fit statistics and a high probability of unique identification of the participants in those two groups (Entropy is .77, BIC is 11687.222). This model seemed to be reasonable, because the mean class assignment probabilities were high (class 1: .95, class 2: .91), indicating that 2 different profiles could be distinguished reliably. Latent profiles based on their most likely latent profile membership identified a larger group of individuals (60%) and a smaller group of participants (40%). The

number of people in each profile was 135 and 92, respectively. Three-class model resulted in a third class with a very small sample size of 10 people. Based on the fit statistics and theoretical interpretability, we analyzed 2 profiles (Figure 4).

Table 6. *Latent Profile Analysis Model Comparisons*

Model	AIC	BIC	aBIC	Entropy	N in each class (%)	Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubi Likelihood Ratio Test	<i>p</i>
2-classes	11447.475	11687.222	11465.372	.773	135 (%60)	-5804.433	.02
					92 (%40)		
3-class	11329.181	11651.126	11353.214	.876	10 (%4)	-5653.738	.60
					150 (%66)		
					67 (%30)		

Note. AIC, Akaike's information criterion; BIC, Bayesian information criterion; aBIC, sample-size-adjusted BIC.

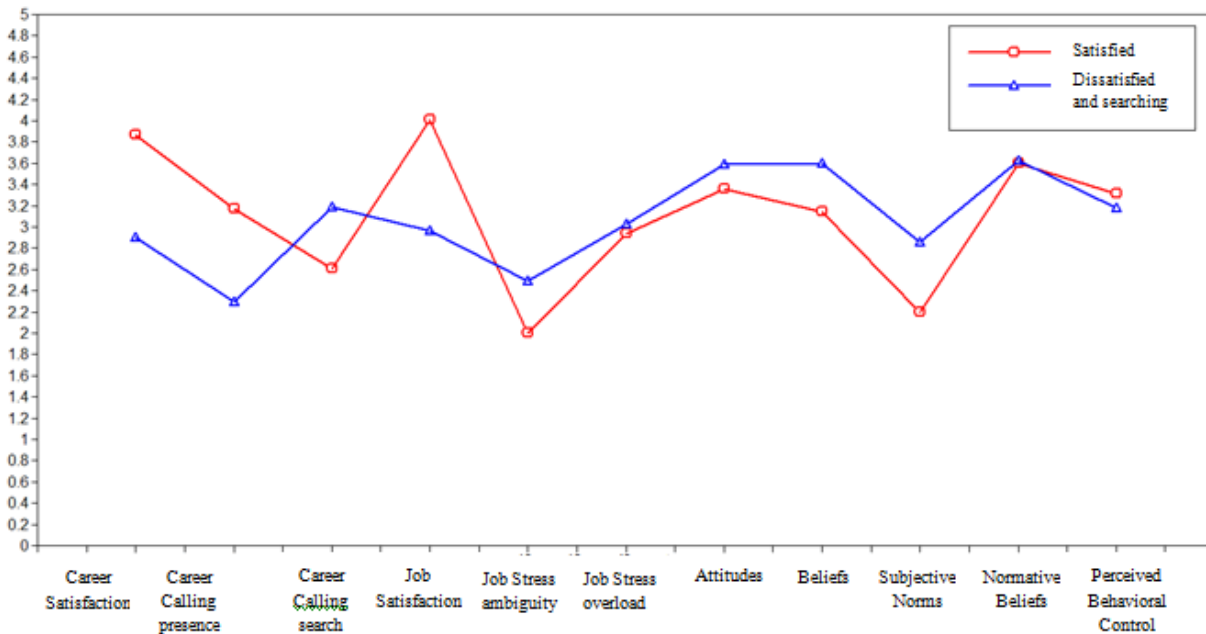


Figure 4. Career profiles for the two groups of participants identified by the latent profile model based on their career, job and TPB mean scores.

The first profile ($N = 135$) had higher means for career satisfaction, job satisfaction and presence of career calling, and had lower means for search for a calling, job ambiguity and job overload when compared to the second profile. With respect to TPB indicators, this profile had lower means for attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms and normative beliefs. Only perceived behavioral control was higher than the second profile. This profile can be named as “satisfied”, because the satisfaction scores are high and they had relatively less positive attitudes and beliefs as well as perceived social pressure for career change intention. The second profile ($N = 92$) had lower means for career satisfaction, job satisfaction and presence for career calling, and had higher means for search for a calling, job ambiguity and job overload. With respect to TPB indicators, this profile had relatively more positive attitudes, beliefs and higher perceived social pressure for career change intention. Perceived behavioral control of this profile was lower on

average than the first profile. This profile can be characterized as “dissatisfied and searching” given that the satisfaction indicators were lower, stress indicators were higher, search for a calling and all TPB indicators except for perceived behavioral control were higher than the first profile. These two profiles were mirror opposites in terms of their average scores on career- and job- indicators and TPB variables (Table 7).

This profile analysis enabled us to see that two career profiles can be distinguished based not only on career- and job-related variables but also on TPB variables. In other words, different components of TPB variables contributed to differentiation between two profiles of people. Lower levels of attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms and normative beliefs seemed to go along with higher levels of career and job satisfaction, presence of career calling and lower levels of search for a calling and job stress. Likewise, higher levels of attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms and normative beliefs seemed to go along with lower levels of career and job satisfaction, presence of career calling and higher levels of search for a calling and job stress. With respect to perceived behavioral control, ‘satisfied’ profile had on average higher levels of perceived control, whereas ‘dissatisfied and searching’ profile had relatively lower means of perceived behavioral control.

This profile analysis indicated that those who had more positive attitudes and beliefs toward career change and those who perceived more social pressure from significant others are more likely to have lower career and job satisfaction and presence of career calling, and higher job stress and search for a career calling. This ‘dissatisfied and searching’ profile was expected to have higher career change intention score compared to ‘satisfied’ profile. In order to test mean differences in career change intention between these two profiles we ran a one-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA).

Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations of the Indicators of the Latent Profile Analysis

Profiles	Career satisfaction	Career calling presence	Career calling search	Job satisfaction	Job stress ambiguity	Job stress overload	Attitudes	Beliefs	Subjective Norms	Normative Beliefs	Perceived Control
Profile 1	3.89 (.57)	3.20 (.77)	2.63 (.89)	4.01 (.54)	1.99 (.53)	2.95 (.83)	3.36 (.46)	3.14 (.60)	2.19 (.85)	3.61 (.73)	3.31 (.82)
Profile 2	2.87 (.82)	2.25 (.83)	3.16 (.96)	2.96 (.70)	2.50 (.59)	3.01 (.76)	3.59 (.47)	3.61 (.52)	2.86 (.96)	3.62 (.79)	3.17 (.85)

Note. Rating scale 1-5

ANCOVA

In order to see if career change intention of these two profiles significantly differed from each other, we conducted ANCOVA. The results indicated significant mean differences in career change intention between 'satisfied' and 'dissatisfied and searching' profiles. In ANCOVA, latent profile membership was entered as the independent variable and career change intention as the dependent variable. We entered effort, radicality and financial security as covariates, because in the previous regression analysis these three control variables were significant.

Table 8. *ANCOVA Results and Descriptive Statistics for Career Change Intention by Latent Profiles*

	Career Change Intention				
	Observed Mean	Adjusted Mean	SD	N	
Satisfied	2.38	2.59	.91	135	
Dissatisfied and searching	3.47	3.16	.99	92	
Source	SS	df	MS	F	Partial eta squared
Profile membership	13.85	1	13.85	523.50***	.10
Effort	63.85	1	63.85	108.32***	.33
Radicality	3.21	1	3.21	5.45*	.02
Financial security	1.79	1	1.79	3.04	.01
Error	130.86	222	.589		
Total	2072.94	227			

Note. *** p<.001, ** p<.01, * p<.05.

The results yielded a significant effect of latent profile membership, $F(1, 222) = 23.50, p = .00$. Dissatisfied and searching profile had higher means for career change intention ($M = 3.47, SD = .99$) than satisfied profile ($M = 2.38, SD = .91$). Latent profile membership explained 10 % of variance in career change intention. Among the covariates, effort and radicality had significant effects. Controlling for the effects of covariates, the overall model explained 51 % of variance in career change intention.



DISCUSSION

In this study, we examined career change intention through the Theory of Planned Behavior framework. We extended the TPB model of Ajzen (1991) by adding career and job variables into the model and examined the effects of TPB in career change intention. Results revealed that career change intention can be understood within the TPB framework. Latent profile analysis showed that TPB variables together with career- and job-related indicators reliably distinguish between two profiles which have significant mean differences in career change intention.

TPB, Career and Job Factors and Career Change Intention

The current study applied the TPB framework to career change intention and found that along with career and job variables, TPB variables predicted career change intention. Regression analysis revealed that 64 % of variance in career change intention could be explained by our study variables. Presence of calling, job satisfaction, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control had direct effects on career change intention. Career satisfaction, presence of and search for a calling and job ambiguity had indirect effects on career change intention through job satisfaction. These findings indicated that formation of career change intention is not only a self-driven process, but also social context such as expectations and approvals from other people matter. By using TPB framework, we could incorporate various different variables, career-related, job-related variables as well as attitudes, subjective norms and perceived control into the same model to understand career change intention.

To start with career and job factors, these direct and indirect relationships between satisfaction, calling and career change intention highlighted the importance of satisfaction and

calling variables in career change research. Although there is a general term as career calling (Duffy et al., 2012), two dimensions of calling as used separately in the current study, had opposite effects on career change intention. Presence of calling is an individual's perception that s/he is called to a particular career path and search for a calling referred to an individual's seeking for a calling (Dik et al., 2012). When a person feels called to a career, s/he is less likely to have career change intention. In the current study, we found this positive direct link between presence of calling and career change intention. With respect to search for career calling, we found its negative indirect effect through job satisfaction. In other words, the more individuals searched for their career calling, the less they were satisfied with their current job and this resulted in higher career change intention. These significant effects of career calling dimensions in the current study might point to the values and characteristics specific to this Millennial generation. Given that previous research established generational differences with respect to work values and attitudes (e.g. Wood et al., 2012), we can speculate that Millennials might be having this career calling as an influential criterion in their career decision-making which has effect on their career change intentions. In this sense, career change intention is not just a matter of an Age 30 transition that all generations pass through, but Millennial generation might be having this urge to feel called to a particular career which serve their purpose to have self-fulfilment in their careers.

Both career satisfaction and job satisfaction were expected to be negatively related to career change intention. While the effect of job satisfaction was significant, we found no direct relationship between career satisfaction and career change intention. Path analysis results revealed that the effect of career satisfaction was fully mediated by job satisfaction. General thoughts about different aspects of one's career, such as overall career goals for advancement,

income, development of new skills were found to affect general feelings about current job which then predicted career change intention. Taking into account the moderate correlation between career satisfaction and job satisfaction, this relationship makes sense. Participants in the current study could distinguish between the terms career and job, given that there was no multicollinearity, and we were able to find both variables' effects on career change intention. In line with the previous models of career change (Rhoades & Doering, 1983), satisfaction was one of the key factors of career change intention.

Job stress variables were the least effective variables in our model. When the job roles of the individuals were not well defined or ambiguous, this effected their job satisfaction, but feeling overloaded had no such effect neither on job satisfaction nor on career change intention. This might be due to the fact that overload or ambiguity is just one specific aspect of what one feels about his /her job and when thinking about a career change, combination of different aspects or more generalized feelings about the current job might be more important. For instance, burnout measures which address more generalized scales could have been better at predicting career change intention.

Our expectations to find positive relationships between attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms, normative beliefs, perceived behavioral control and career change intention were partially supported. Subjective norms referred to perceived social pressures to perform or not to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Results revealed that expectations of significant others mattered to the degree that the more individuals perceived that their significant others expect and want them to change career, the more the career change intention was. In contrast with the idea that social norms might represent the weakest part of the TPB (Armitage & Conner, 2001), current study showed that expectations and desires of significant others had important influence on young

people's career decisions. Subjective norms are the social pressures one perceives from their close environment. Its significant effect on career change intention both in regression and path analysis suggest that individuals who are at the early stages of their careers give importance to what other people think about and expect from them. This can be interpreted from the Millennial perspective as well as from a cultural point of view. The sample in the current study are young employees between the ages of 24 and 40. They are the members of Millennial generation who were raised with a parenting style which included high levels of guidance, direction, support and protection (Tulgan, 2016). Therefore, it is reasonable that they value what others expect from them. From a cultural point of view, Turkish culture is a collectivistic culture where relationships, especially with the family, are very important (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). Turkish cultural context also endorses high power distance which is often associated with power and prestige in the family, in the community and in the society (Fikret Pasa, Kabasakal, & Bodur, 2001; Hofstede, 1980). In the current study, significant others referred to family, relatives and close friends. Pressure as formed by their expectations seemed to be an important factor for young Turkish employees' career change intention.

Another component of TPB, perceived behavioral control, was also a significant predictor of career change intention. Given that it refers to perceived feelings of confidence and control, it is a form of agency that help individuals form career change intentions. In the TPB framework, perceived behavioural control was conceptualized to have both direct and indirect effect on the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 2001). Recent meta-analyses revealed low to moderate effect sizes for perceived behavioural control (Guo et al., 2015; Rich et al., 2015). In the current study, the effect of perceived behavioural control was significant for the overall sample in regression and path analysis. Given that Millennials are characterized as highly self-

confident (Gentile et al. 2010; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2001), it makes sense to see self-confidence and controllability playing a role in their career change intention.

Although subjective norms and perceived behavior control could account for the variance in career change intention, the effects of attitudes and beliefs were nonsignificant in the regression and path analyses. Recent meta-analyses (e.g. Scalco et al., 2017, Rieble et al., 2015) found attitudes as the most influential TPB variable to predict intentions, however we found no effect of attitudes and beliefs in career change intention. In health behaviour or consumer research attitudes may be more influential in predicting behavioural intention, because they can be modified with various means, such as advertisements, incentives and the like. However, attitudes toward career change behaviour, as measured in the current study, referred to personal evaluations and instrumental and experiential perceptions about the outcomes of the career change behaviour. Nonsignificant effects might be due to level of specificity between attitudes and career change intention. In the current study, agreement with ten general and bipolar adjectives were used to measure attitudes. General attitudes might not have corresponded to specific behavior of career change. Although behavioural beliefs were more proximal in terms of measuring evaluations about the specific outcomes of career change, this variable was also not significant. Normative beliefs which referred to approvals of people important to the individual were also nonsignificant in predicting career change intention.

Nonsignificant effects of attitudes, beliefs and normative beliefs led us question if different TPB variables were important for different career profiles. Apart from testing the associations between career and job factors, TPB factors and career change intention, we also wanted to examine if TPB variables together with career- and job-related indicators contribute to formation of different career profiles. Latent profile analysis revealed that two career profiles

could be distinguished based on career satisfaction, career calling, job satisfaction, job stress and TPB variables. Higher levels of attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms and normative beliefs together with lower levels of satisfaction and higher levels of job stress and search for a calling created response patterns in latent profile analysis to distinguish a ‘dissatisfied and searching’ profile of people who had higher career change intention. This profile had relatively lower levels of perceived behavioral control when compared to the ‘satisfied’ profile. This might suggest that positive attitudes and higher social pressure do not necessarily go with higher controllability and self-confidence for enacting career change intention. In line with what Ajzen (1991) suggested, relative importance of TPB components may vary across different career profiles. In the ‘satisfied’ profile, lower levels of attitudes, beliefs, subjective norms and normative beliefs went along with higher levels of satisfaction, presence of career calling and lower levels of job stress and search for a calling. Perceived behavioural control was relatively higher on average for this profile. This might suggest that people who are already satisfied with their current jobs and careers, who do not seek a calling and have lower levels of job stress might be living in a comfort zone, having more confidence in themselves. They might think that they can change career if they really want to and it is under their control. Controlling for their perceived effort for a possible career change, perceived radicality of intended careers and their perceived financial security, we tested if these two profiles really differed in their career change intentions. ANCOVA results showed that these two profiles differed in their career change intention, with ‘dissatisfied and searching’ profile having higher career change intention. We can speculate that relative importance of perceived control might be lower than the other components. Satisfaction, search for a calling and expectations of other people might be playing a more important role for a higher career change intention despite lower perceived control. This exploratory profile analysis

led us have a better understanding of relative importance of TPB components in relation to career- and job-related indicators and better interpretation of different career profiles.

Limitations and Strengths

The findings of the current study should be interpreted in light of some limitations. First, the sample was highly educated white-collar employees reached through alumni network of one public and one private university in Istanbul and through snowball sampling by sending anonymous survey links in social media platforms such as LinkedIn and Facebook. The sample can be considered biased in terms of their socioeconomic status, given that they are highly educated, urban and full-time employees having access to Internet. The current sample might be considered advantageous in terms of their background, not necessarily because of their SES levels *per se*, but their education and family background might endow them with more resources, networks and alternative career opportunities. Even though the focus of the study was purposefully these urban professionals, it would be more informative to conduct further studies with a larger sample of Millennials from a variety of SES and education backgrounds. Also, a more gender-balance in the sample would better inform results and policies. Future studies can include cross-cultural as well as within culture comparisons of different groups of Millennials to have better insight about their career development processes.

Second, the current study is cross-sectional and the results of the study are correlational in nature. Therefore, the associations among variables do not yield causal inferences. Moreover, due to its cross-sectional nature, it can only provide information about the concurrent relationships between variables although it is also important to assess longitudinal effects of these satisfaction, calling, stress and TPB factors on the actual career change behaviour.

Although previous studies using TPB framework have well established the link between predictors and behavioural intention, significant relationships are difficult to be established between predictors and the actual behaviour. Given that the current study is one the few studies to apply TPB framework to career change research, a follow up study and further longitudinal designs to predict actual career change would be an important contribution to the existing TPB scholarship.

Another limitation is that the current study did not include moderators in the analysis. For instance, presence of career alternatives, seeking career opportunities, over qualification are some variables which may potentially have effect on the strength of the relationship between TPB, career and job factors and career change intention. Previous research which used integrated theory of career change (e.g., Rhodes, Doering and Mildred, 1993) made step by step analysis of job search intentions, actual job search, and by actual career change and incorporated various organizational and personal factors. However, for a more parsimonious model, current study limited the number of variables used to predict career change intention. For further studies, some of our control variables can be considered as moderators. For instance, among our control variables effort and radicality could have been treated as moderators such that the relationship between TPB variables as well as career and job variables and career change intention would be expected to be stronger for those who had active effort for a possible career change and those who intend to make a relatively more radical career change. Both effort and radicality in our study were subjective measures of how one perceives effort towards and radicality of career change, so their codings were very difficult in the sense that radical compared to whom or having active effort compared to whom were our main considerations. That is why we wanted to control their effects to see career change intention of our sample regardless of their effort and

radicality. In other words, our concern was the intention itself, not the effort invested or its perceived radicality. In order to develop a model to predict career change intention regardless of subjective perceptions of effort and radicality, we treated them as control variables and controlled for their effects. For future studies, coding intended careers according to their radicality and examining different types of individual effort would give better insight for the career decision-making processes of young generations.

Despite these limitations, the study also had several strengths. First, the current study had a novel approach to modeling career change intention by drawing upon TPB framework and creating profiles based on different career, job and TPB indicators. Among these indicators, career calling is a recent and novel construct applied in career research. Although it has some religious basis and notions, it has been applied in career research (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Duffy et al., 2014; Wrzesniewski, 2003). The current study contributed to career change research by incorporating a variable which is different than career or job satisfaction. It is a concept which we don't see in job turnover research. Both dimensions of career calling contributed to the explanation of variance in career change intention. Especially for creating career profiles, calling was an important indicator for conceptualizing, interpreting and differentiating between the profiles. Calling is not a very familiar construct in the Turkish culture, but its significant direct and indirect effects suggest that it might be particularly important for the people of this age group. Members of Generation Y grew up in a time when 'do what you love' motto was very influential both in child raising and in approaches to work (Howe & Strauss 2000), therefore it is reasonable to see the significant effect of calling playing role in their career change intentions. We can speculate that career calling imply some of the values and characteristics specific to this Millennial generation. Career calling appeared to be an important career-related consideration of

this young generation. Their raising styles, nonlinear conceptualizations of career paths as well as the way they see work and leisure differently than the previous generations indicate that feeling called to a particular career is especially important for the Millennials more than any of the previous generations. We suggest that further studies need to incorporate career calling into career change conceptualizations and models to understand the current and subsequent generations' career considerations.

Another related contribution of our study is focusing on the Millennials. Research on Millennials is timely and important, because in current workplaces there is a mix of different generations and understanding career-related intentions of Millennials are especially important for they will make up the majority of work force in the coming decades. From an organizational perspective, career change means job turnover and costs associated with it (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). When individuals leave jobs and careers, not only money and time to recruit employees are wasted, but also human capital and unique skills are wasted. Matching personality and careers have previously been studied and theorized (Holland, 1997). Fit between desires and careers are particularly important for the Millennial generation, because beginning from their childhood, the career paths are pre-set by families who belong to the previous Generation X or the society which contributes to making certain occupations popular and desirable. When choosing a career for themselves or for their children, their main criterion has been to ask if that job or that career earns them a living. Previous research on generations revealed that, the Millennials are different in terms of their work ethic, work centrality, leisure preferences and work attitudes (Wood et al., 2012). Further studies are needed to have a deeper understanding of how young people choose their careers from early years on would be informative for career-decision processes and subsequent career change behaviors of this generation.

When we evaluate the current study in the framework of life cycle theory (Levinson, 1986) we can say that the current age of the Millennials corresponds to an age-linked period, age 30 transition, which individuals of all generations pass through with some common experiences with respect to making life choices. So, career change intention can be considered as a decision-making process that is part of adult development when individuals form and pursue aspirations and make choices regarding marriage, family, life-style and career (Levinson, 1986). Still, some peculiar characteristics of this generation can be inferred from our results as well as previous research on generational differences, such as career calling as discussed above. Future studies can delve more into the type of careers this generation aspire to pursue and their motivations and expectations about pursuing such careers.

The present study also showed that Millennials are not a homogeneous group of people. Even a profile analysis revealed that different profiles exist within this sample. There can be a long list of reasons of why these people intend to change their careers. Taking into consideration the previous theoretical frameworks on career change, such as Holland's person-work environment fit, some of these reasons or motivations to change careers might be related to personality characteristics. Although in the current study we controlled for core self evaluation which incorporates measures of self-efficacy, neuroticism, self-esteem and locus of control, this particular variable was chosen for its expected influence given that it is related to the perceived behavioral component of TPB. As Holland's (1997) Person-Environment Fit Theory suggested individual differences do exist and future studies need to pay more attention to within group differences not only with respect to personality, but also other individual differences such as sources of motivations for career change.

Another contribution of the present study is the differentiation between the terms job and career. We gave definitions for job and career separately and used separate measures for career and job satisfaction. Moderate correlations between career satisfaction and job satisfaction indicated that these are similar yet different concepts. Previous research models underlined the importance of satisfaction in career change research (Rhodes & Doering, 1983). We further analyzed each of job and career satisfaction's effects on career change intention separately. Although we could not find a direct effect of career satisfaction on career change intention, its indirect effect through job satisfaction suggested that satisfaction with the current job could be a more immediate predictor of career change intention. This finding is in line with previous findings about the direct link between job satisfaction and career change (Blau, 2000; Carless & Bernath, 2007; Donohue, 2007; Tett and Meyer, 1993). When people feel lower levels of career satisfaction, this may affect their perceptions about their current job satisfaction, such that they might question their overall happiness with their job, which then predicts their career change intention. Differentiating between these terms and constructs in future studies would contribute to conceptual clarification and formation of more rigorous theoretical models.

Policy Implications

The current study revealed the importance of career- and job-related variables as well as TPB variables in understanding young people's career change intentions. Several policy implications can be drawn from these findings. Research findings about career change intention can be interpreted by lay individuals as a positive and inspiring story which would support even very radical career changes at the cost of leaving one career behind and starting a new one from scratch. From a psychological standpoint, individual well-being would be sustained if people live

their dream careers which fit their abilities, skills, competencies as well as their passions, dreams and desires. From this perspective, career change can be supported if the ultimate career for the individual will be the one which makes the person most happy. In order to attain such psychological satisfaction, individuals can be encouraged to explore themselves better from early on to discover who they are, what they love to do and how they can canalize their abilities and skills to match the best career for themselves. One take away message for individuals can be the following: not only self exploration but also guidance from families as well as career counseling organizations can contribute to better career-decision making processes and career decisions in the most active and productive years of young generations.

By organizations, the results of this study can be a negative and demoralizing story for they would be the potential losers of effective and productive brains. From the organizational perspective, sustaining young talents is important for the higher performance and productivity of the organizations depend on their competitive advantage provided by their employees. From organizational standpoint, organizations cannot provide brand new careers for their employees, but they can develop personalized HR policies or customized HR practices which value everyone's skill set and interests. Understanding young employees' intentions and developing personalized road maps may prevent voluntary turnovers and subsequent skill shortages. Job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) is one example of such policies that has recently come to the agenda of some firms. As opposed to fitting individuals to existing job definitions, job crafting suggests crafting the job according to the individual. Another practice is "i-deals", idiosyncratic employment arrangements, which refer to "special terms of employment negotiated between individual workers and their employers (present or prospective) that satisfy both parties' needs" (Rousseau & Greenberg, 2006, p. 977). In such practices, employment terms of the

individual may differ from his / her co-worker. Agile workplaces are another example of recent practices that organizations customized for the young generation. Allsopp (2009) defined agile working as bringing people, processes and technology, time and place together and make effective work within guidelines but without boundaries. In these practices, employers aim to create a win-win situation where both employers' and employees' needs are satisfied. In Turkey, some multinational companies use these practices, however most of the public and private organizations do not have such practices.

As another policy implication, present study showed that profiling can be implemented as a useful way of understanding needs and desires of young individuals with respect to their career satisfaction, career calling, job satisfaction, job stress as well as understanding their attitudes, perceptions about social pressures and their behavioral control. Organizations may develop ways to create career profiles based on various job and career-related indicators so that they can canalize their resources toward certain profiles instead of doing one thing to fit all. They can better use organizational resources for profiles who are potential candidates for voluntary turnover. Such profiling would be a useful way of developing and supporting Millennial-friendly careers.

Another important policy implication of the current study is about career counseling. It is not only organizations, but also schools and universities that should take career counseling seriously from early years on. In Turkey, career decision-making involves processes of searching about the most prestigious schools and jobs instead of asking first who is the person, what does s/he want, which abilities does s/he have. Preference guidance is mostly score-based instead of individual potential-based (Yeşilyaprak, 2017). Children and adolescents are not guided well enough to know who they are and what are the occupations. Instead they are directed to careers,

mostly by their parents, which would possibly pay them back in monetary terms. As careers, trainings associated with them and qualifications required of employees change, career counseling and guidance practices should also change to keep up with the new careers and career approaches that new generations are heading to.



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APPENDIX

PART I

Career Satisfaction

Kendi kariyer hedeflerinizi göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Kariyerimde elde ettiğim başarılarımdan memnunum.				
2. Tüm kariyer hedeflerim düşünüldüğünde kariyerimdeki ilerlemelerden memnunum.				
3. Maddi kazanımlarım düşünüldüğünde kariyerimdeki ilerlemelerden memnunum.				
4. Atama ve terfi durumu düşünüldüğünde kariyerimdeki ilerlemelerden memnunum.				
5. Yeteneklerimdeki gelişim düzeyi düşünüldüğünde kariyerimdeki ilerlemelerden memnunum.				

Career Calling

Aşağıda kariyerinize dair düşünceleriniz ile ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Ben bu kariyer için yaratılmışım.				
2. Hayata gelme amacımın bu kariyer olduğunu biliyorum.				
3. Kendimi bildim bileli bu kariyere sahip olmak istemişimdir.				
4. Kariyerim, hayattaki amacımı gerçekleştirmemi sağlıyor.				
5. Bu kariyerimin bana verdiği ulvi görevi bulmaya çalışıyorum.				
6. Varoluşumun kariyerimle olan bağlantısını bulmaya çalışıyorum.				
7. Hayatımın Anlamını bulabileceğim bir kariyer arayışındayım.				
8. Nasıl bir kariyer için yaratıldığımı keşfetmeye çalışıyorum.				

PART II

Career Change Intention

Bu bölümde kariyer değişikliği yapmak ile ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen kariyer değişikliğini "**bugünden itibaren önümüzdeki 3 sene içerisinde para kazandıracak veya para kazandırmayacak başka bir alana geçmek üzere bir kariyer değişikliği yapmak**" olarak düşününüz ve aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Kariyer değişikliği yapmak istiyorum.				
2. Kariyer değişikliği yapacağımı tahmin ediyorum.				
3. Kariyer değişikliği yapmayı planlıyorum.				
4. Önümüzdeki bir sene içerisinde kariyer değişikliği yapma ihtimalim çok yüksektir.				

Previous job and career change experience

Daha önce hiç kariyer değişikliği yaptınız mı? Evet (). Hayır ()

Daha önce hiç iş değiştirdiniz mi? Evet (). Hayır ()

Career changer in family

Ailenizde daha önce hiç kariyer değişikliği yapan biri var mı? Evet (). Hayır ()

Career change failure in social network

Yakın çevrenizde kariyer değişikliği yapmak istediği halde yapamamış biri var mı? Evet ().

Hayır ()

Effort

Kariyer deęişiklięi yapmak için nasıl bir çabanız var? Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçeęi göz önünde bulundurarak deęerlendiriniz.

0= Bir şey yapma çabası içerisinde deęilim / Hiçbirsey yapmıyorum

5= Fırsat kolluyorum / CV'mi ve LinkedIn gibi sosyal medya hesaplarımı güncelliyorum.

10= Aktif ve yoğun bir çaba içerisindeyim /Başvurular yapıyorum

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Pasif

Aktif

Radicality

Bazı kariyer deęişiklikleri dięerlerine göre daha radikaldir. Örneęin, akademik kariyerdan müzik kariyerine geçen birinin kariyer deęişiklięini radikal olarak görebiliriz. Finans üzerine yapılan bir kariyerdan danışmanlık üzerine yapılan bir kariyere geçiş ise kariyer deęişiklięi olmakla birlikte çok radikal bir deęişiklik deęildir.

Bu örnekleri baz alarak kendinizi düşündüğünüzde, yapmak istediğiniz kariyer deęişiklięi size göre ne kadar radikaldir?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Hiç

Çok

PART III

Attitudes

Aşağıda kariyer değişikliğine dair bazı tutumlar yer almaktadır. Lütfen katılma derecenizi belirtiniz. Kariyer değişikliği yapmak:

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. iyidir				
2. pişmanlık vericidir				
3. sıkıntılıdır				
4. akıllıcadır				
5. zararlıdır				
6. mutluluk vericidir				
7. kötüdür				
8. faydalıdır				
9. kaygı vericidir				
10. zevklidir				

Beliefs

Kariyer değişikliği yapmak:

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Benim daha faydalı ve daha üretken hissetmemi sağlar.				
2. Benim daha mutlu biri olmama yardımcı olur.				
3. Bana başkaları tarafından kabul görme ve saygınlık kazandırır.				
4. Sosyalligimi artırır.				
5. Maddi durumum üzerinde olumsuz etki yaratabilir.				
6. Beni strese sokar.				
7. Kendi me yaptığım onca yatırımın ziyan olmasına neden olur.				

Subjective Norms

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Benim için önemli olan insanlar (örneğin ailem, yakın dostlarım) kariyer değişikliği yapmam gerektiğini düşünür.				
2. Benim için önemli olan insanlar (örneğin ailem, yakın dostlarım) kariyer değişikliği yapmamı isterler.				

Normative Beliefs

Bir kariyer değişikliği yaparsam:

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Eşim / partnerim bunu onaylar.				
2. Yakın aile fertleri (annem, babam, kardeşlerim) bunu onaylar.				
3. Yakın arkadaşlarım bunu onaylar.				
4. İş arkadaşlarım bunu onaylar.				
5. Akrabalarım bunu onaylar.				

Perceived Behavioral Control

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum

1. Kariyer deęişiklięi yapmak konusunda kendime güveniyorum.
2. Kariyer deęişiklięi yapmak konusunda zorluk çekmem.
3. Kariyer deęişiklięi yapmak tamamen benim inisiyatifimdedir.
4. Kariyer deęişiklięi yapmak dış etkenlere baęlı olmaksızın benim kontrolümdeyir.
5. Eęer istersem önümüzdeki bir sene içerisinde kariyer deęişiklięi yapabilirim.

PART IV

Core Self Evaluation

Aşaęıda kişilik özellikleriyle ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|--------------|--------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|
| Kesinlikle katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle katılıyorum |
| 1. Hayatta hak ettięim başarıyı yakaladıęıma eminim. | | | | |
| 2. Bazen kendimi depresyonda hissederim. | | | | |
| 3. Uęraştıęım zaman genelde başarıyım. | | | | |
| 4. Bazen başarısız olduęumda kendimi değersiz hissederim. | | | | |
| 5. İşleri başarıyla tamamlarım. | | | | |
| 6. Bazen kendimi işime hakim hissetmiyorum. | | | | |
| 7. Genel olarak kendimden memnunum. | | | | |
| 8. Yeteneklerimle ilgili şüphe duyuyorum. | | | | |
| 9. Hayatımda ne olacağını ben belirlerim. | | | | |
| 10. Meslek yaşamımdaki başarıyımın kontrolünün elimde olmadığını hissederim. | | | | |
| 11. Sorunlarımyın çoęuyla başa çıkabilirim. | | | | |
| 12. Bazı zamanlar var ki her şey bana karamsar ve ümitsiz gözükür. | | | | |

PART V

Job Satisfaction

Bu bölümde işiniz ile ilgili sorular yer almaktadır.

Lütfen şu anki işinizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum

1. Genel olarak işimden memnunum.
2. Genel olarak işimi sevmiyorum.
3. Genel olarak burada çalışmayı seviyorum.

Job Stress

Şu anki işinizi düşünerek lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum

1. Genellikle birbiriyle çakışan gerekliliklerin olduğu durumlarla karşı karşıya kalırım.
2. Sorumluluklarımı biliyorum.
3. Farklı koşullar altında farklı şekilde yapılması gereken şeyler yapmam gerekir.
4. İşimle ilgili önceden planlanmış belli hedeflerim var.
5. Benden bekleneni tam olarak biliyorum.
6. İki veya daha çok kişiden birbiriyle uyuşmayan talepler alırım.
7. İş yüküm çok ağırdır.
8. Sorumluluklarım açıkça tanımlanmıştır.
9. Yapmak zorunda olduğum işin miktarı, iş kalitesini korumama engel oluyor.
10. İşimde üstlendiğim rolün fazla geldiğini hissediyorum.
11. İşimde bana çok fazla sorumluluk yükleniyor.
12. İşimde rollerimin bir kısmını azaltmaya ihtiyacım var.
13. Ne kadar sorumluluğum olduğunu kesin olarak biliyorum

PART VI

Demographics

Cinsiyetiniz:

Doğum yılınız:

Medeni durumunuz: Hiç evlenmemiş () Evli () Partneriyle birlikte yaşıyor () Partneriyle ayrı yaşıyor () Boşanmış () Dul ()

Çocuğunuz var mı? Evet () Hayır ()

Eğitim düzeyiniz: Lise () Üniversite () Yüksek lisans () Doktora () Doktora sonrası ()

Eğitimde geçirdiğiniz toplam yıl sayısı:

Financial Security

Kendinizi finansal olarak ne kadar güvende hissediyorsunuz?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Hiç

Çok

Work characteristics

Yönetici misiniz? Evet () Hayır ()

Çalıştığınız kurum: Kamu () Özel sektör () Kar amacı gütmeyen kuruluş ()

Toplam çalışma deneyiminiz (..yıl .. ay) :

Bu kariyerdeki toplam çalışma deneyiminiz (..yıl .. ay) :

Şu an çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumdaki çalışma deneyiminiz (..yıl .. ay) :