
Perceived employability among European workers: The impact of human capital, training practices and national values

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2. Figure 1. Research model (SVG).svg	

Perceived employability among European workers: The impact of human capital, training practices and national values

Abstract

Purpose – Based on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, this article explores how individual factors, organizational training practices and national values of masculinity and uncertainty avoidance influence workers' perceived employability.

Design/methodology/approach – A hierarchical linear model tested the proposed hypotheses among a sample of 26,555 workers from 29 European countries, obtained through the 6th European Work Conditions Survey.

Findings – Results show the influence of individual factors (i.e., level of education, work experience at the current organization, training paid for by employees, etc.), the organization's training practices and national cultural values on the European workers' perceived employability. Post-hoc analysis also shows that current "person-job fit" moderates the influence of several individual factors, organizational practices and cultural values on perceived employability.

Originality – This study provides a comprehensive framework based on a multi-level approach (individual, organizational and national factors) to understand the antecedents of perceived employability among individuals already employed.

Research limitations/implications – It would be interesting to replicate this study in non-European countries to better understand the effect of national cultural values on perceived employability. Future research should also consider a longitudinal approach to better capture the dynamics of employability over time.

Practical/managerial implications – As a complex and increasingly interesting phenomenon in the academic literature on management, this study contributes a deeper understanding of how several factors influence perceived employability. Individuals and organizations should invest in training and development programs that enhance employability, considering individual and cultural factors. Additionally, this research provides insights for policymakers and practitioners aiming to strengthen workforce development and adaptability in Europe.

Keywords: perceived employability; Europe: human capital; training practices; national values; Conservation of Resources (COR) theory.

Introduction

Employability refers to the ability to secure and maintain a job in varying contexts and situations (Forrier *et al.*, 2015). Its relevance stems from the uncertain nature of the labor market, which presents new challenges and opportunities for both workers and employers (Park and Park, 2020; Fugate *et al.*, 2021). Indeed, employability has been recognized as a key driver of sustainable development (Comyn, 2018) and the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In particular, The International Labour Organization (ILO, n.d.) states that the relevant SDGs and targets related to employability skills are SDG-4 Quality education and SDG-8 Decent Work and Economic Growth. These targets emphasize education and training to enhance employability.

Significant changes in the labor market have led employers to implement more flexible HRM practices to help their workers to adapt their competences to the changing environment and mitigate job loss risk, while employees must acquire new skills to stay competitive (Fugate *et al.*, 2004; Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden, 2006; Park and Park, 2020). Remarkably, employability is associated with reduced stress, higher loyalty, productivity, job satisfaction, and lower turnover (Fugate *et al.*, 2021), all of which benefit both employers and employees.

Current labor market dynamics also require a broader perspective on employability, urging consideration of individuals already employed (Forrier *et al.*, 2015; Van Harten *et al.*, 2017; Bernstrøm *et al.*, 2019); employability becomes critical for them to maintain their current employment (internal market) or gain access to a similar one if they are facing job loss (external market). Notably, some previous studies link employability to perceptions on personal employability (Bargsted *et al.*, 2021), as it can be considered a subjective perception of obtaining and sustaining employment appropriate to their level of qualification (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014). However, there is a lack of academic studies grounded in these perspectives (Forrier *et al.*, 2015; Van der Heijden *et al.*, 2018).

Some studies examined perceived employability and its antecedents based on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which views it as a personal resource

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4 that workers strive to protect and enhance (e.g., Bargsted *et al.*, 2021; Decius *et al.*, 2024). COR
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6 theory posits that people strive to obtain, retain, and protect resources, and that their evaluation
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8 of such resources is influenced by the social and cultural context (Hobfoll, 2001). Understanding
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10 the determinants of perceived employability thus requires considering individual, organizational,
11
12 and national factors.
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15 Concerning the individual, works based on the COR theory suggest the relevance of human
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17 capital as a critical resource for employees (e.g., Bargsted *et al.*, 2021). Human capital includes
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19 the worker's skills and competences (Wright *et al.*, 2001), considered antecedents of perceived
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21 employability (Jackson and Wilton, 2017) as they enhance the perception of available job
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23 opportunities (Forrier *et al.*, 2018). This aligns with the traditional association of employability
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25 with human capital variables (Rothwell and Arnold, 2007; Jackson and Wilton, 2017; De Vos *et*
26
27 *al.*, 2021).
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30 Regarding organizations, and drawing on COR theory, several authors have emphasized
31
32 the importance of training and work-related learning, as such training can provide employees with
33
34 updated knowledge, which may impact their perceived employability. However, this relationship
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36 has not always been demonstrated (e.g., Decius *et al.*, 2024).
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39 At the national level, according to COR theory, national culture is considered a significant
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41 aspect of the surrounding context that can affect individuals' employability (Little *et al.*, 2011;
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43 Stoffers *et al.*, 2020). Specifically, from COR theory, we can expect that individuals' own
44
45 appraisal of their employability could be influenced by national cultural values, such as
46
47 uncertainty avoidance (the extent to which members of a culture feel threatened by unknown
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49 situations) and masculinity (the degree to which a society emphasizes competitiveness and
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51 achievement over care and cooperation). For example, these cultural values could condition the
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53 levels to which their societies give relevance to employability, show proactivity in the process of
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55 finding a job, or prioritize resource accumulation (e.g., Niu *et al.*, 2019; Lo Presti *et al.*, 2020).
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57 However, previous studies have either not considered cultural factors or focused on only one or
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4 a few countries (e.g., Little *et al.*, 2011; Lo Presti *et al.*, 2020). Accordingly, authors such as
5
6 Stoffers *et al.*, (2020) have called for studies on employability across diverse national cultures.
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9 Despite the importance of individual, organizational, and national variables on perceived
10 employability, previous research has not considered all these factors together. Some academics
11 argue that literature would benefit from a more holistic view of employability (Rothwell and
12
13 Arnold, 2007; Jackson and Wilton, 2017). Our study answers this call.
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17 Based on the aforementioned points, this study aims to explore the following research
18 question: How do human capital variables, training practices and national cultural values
19 influence the perceived employability of workers? Using a sample of 26,555 workers across 29
20 European countries, we analyze the effects of these factors on the workers' perceptions of their
21 employability using hierarchical linear model estimations. Thus, the study's multinational scope,
22 encompassing a group of European countries and utilizing a large dataset, allows for broader
23 generalization of the findings across diverse national cultures, as called for by Stoffers *et al.*
24 (2020). The primary and original contribution of our study is to provide a comprehensive
25 framework from a multilevel approach to understand the complex and increasingly interesting
26 phenomenon of employability among the already employed. The main findings reveal that
27 variables such as the training practices provided by employers and the ones paid for by employees
28 themselves, as well as national values such as uncertainty avoidance, wield a significant influence
29 on workers perceived employability, while acknowledging that individual factors also have an
30 impact. In countries with higher uncertainty avoidance values, employees have a lower self-
31 perceived employability.
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35 Lastly, in a final post-hoc analysis, we introduce the moderating effect of "person-job fit",
36 finding that this variable conditions the influence of some individual factors, organizational
37 practices and national values on perceived employability. This finding represents an additional
38 innovative advance in the understanding of how skill alignment impacts employability dynamics,
39 adding greater depth to the interpretation of the results.
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Theoretical background

Perceived employability

There exists no singular definition of employability, as this concept has been examined through diverse disciplinary lenses and from varying perspectives (De Vos *et al.*, 2021). For example, some authors state that the term “employability” pertains to the competencies of individuals that allow them to gain and maintain employment (Neroorkar, 2022). Forrier *et al.* (2015, p. 56) define employability as “an individual’s chance of [getting] a job in the internal and/or external labor market”. Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006, p. 453) underscore that employability involves “the continuous fulfilling, acquiring or creating of work through the optimal use of competencies”. Neroorkar (2022, p. 844) adds that employability is “a combination of knowledge, personal attributes, skills and attitudes”. Accordingly, employability can be seen as a holistic process that depends on individuals’ qualities to find and keep a job and on the conditions of the internal and external labor markets.

Some authors recommend utilizing the concept “perceived employability” as a lens through which to study the phenomenon, as it captures the individual’s perception of their chances to obtain and maintain employment appropriate to their level of qualification (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014), considering both the *personal* and *contextual* factors (Berntson and Marklund, 2007; Clarke, 2018). This article specifically focuses on employees’ self-perception of their employability.

Antecedents of workers’ perceived employability

Given the significance of employability, there is a considerable interest in understanding how individuals acquire it. Previous literature on this topic focuses on the antecedents of perceived employability pertaining to individuals (e.g., Berntson and Marklund, 2007; Donald *et al.*, 2017; Jackson and Wilton, 2017), whereas very few address variables at the organizational or national levels. Since the current study seeks to understand the antecedents of employability from a more

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4 holistic approach, as authors recommend (Rothwell and Arnold, 2006; Jackson and Wilton,
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6 2017), we turn to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the appropriate basis for a more comprehensive
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8 study of this topic (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014).
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11 COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) states that people strive to obtain, retain and protect their
12
13 resources, the evaluation of such resources being not only an individual process, but also shaped
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15 by the surrounding social and cultural context (Hobfoll, 2001). Thus, culture, community and the
16
17 nested-self are underlined as relevant in the process of conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 2001).
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19 Because, according to COR theory, perceived employability can be considered a personal
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21 resource (e.g., Bargsted *et al.*, 2021; Decius *et al.*, 2024), it can be said that the understanding of
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23 individuals' perceived employability requires consideration of individual, organizational and
24
25 national factors. Specifically, and according to COR theory, individuals' human capital has been
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27 considered a key resource (e.g., Bargsted *et al.*, 2021) that impacts their perceived employability
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29 (Jackson and Wilton, 2017). Referring to organizations, training and work-related learning are
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31 said to provide employees with updated knowledge and so could also impact on their perceived
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33 employability (e.g., Veld *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, at national level, national culture is
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35 considered a relevant part of the surrounding context that could also affect perceptions of
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37 employability (Little *et al.*, 2011; Stoffers *et al.*, 2020). We go into more depth regarding these
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39 relationships based on COR theory below.
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42 43 *Workers' human capital*

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45 The term "human capital pool" refers to the set of worker's skills and competences (Wright
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47 *et al.*, 2001) that are related to the individuals' level of education, work experience - e.g., time in
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49 the same professional field (Niu *et al.*, 2019), time at the same organization (Becker, 1964), time
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51 at different organizations (Jackson and Wilton (2017), and so on. A considerable body of literature
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53 links individuals' human capital variables to the cultivation of personal competencies crucial for
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55 enhancing their employability (Jackson and Wilton, 2017; Forrier *et al.*, 2018). This is because
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57 workers with a higher level of education, more work experience at the same organization, or more
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4 work experience in general learn more quickly and are more able to use their acquired knowledge
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6 in their job (Becker, 1964), which, according to Fleischmann *et al.* (2015: p. 5), connects to the
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8 banners of “learning begets learning” or “skills beget skills”.
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11 In this regard, COR theory posits that human behavior is motivated by the need to acquire,
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13 protect and expand key resources in order to build a sustainable ‘reserve of resources’ for future
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15 needs (Halbesleben *et al.*, 2014; Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018). Based on this theory, a lack of investment
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17 in education and experience to obtain these resources (i.e., skills, competences) could initiate a
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19 “loss spiral”, where diminished employability leads to further resource depletion (De Cuyper *et*
20
21 *al.*, 2012). On the contrary, success in accumulating education and work experience will give rise
22
23 to the “gain spiral”, which suggests that employees with higher levels of education and experience
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25 are more likely to enhance their self-perceived employability, as these resources bolster their
26
27 ability to attract and secure job opportunities (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014; Bargsted *et al.*, 2021). Thus,
28
29 within COR theory, human capital is viewed as a critical personal resource that significantly
30
31 influences employability (Kidron and Vinarski, 2024).
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35 Accordingly, previous literature has shown that employability is dependent on a set of
36
37 essential skills, knowledge and competencies required for effective job performance, implying
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39 that employees who score highly on these qualities will have greater potential for relocation in
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41 case of job loss (Jackson and Wilton, 2017). For example, one’s level of education likely instils
42
43 greater confidence in securing re-employment (Bernstrøm *et al.*, 2019), allowing more perceived
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45 opportunities with other employers (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014). Consistently with this, previous
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47 literature shows that worker’s human capital and employability are closely related (Berntson and
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49 Marklund, 2007; Donald *et al.*, 2017). Thus, the following hypothesis can be posited as a baseline
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51 on which the current study is built. Specifically, this hypothesis elucidates the baseline effect of
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53 individuals’ human capital on perceived employability that further variables referring to company
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55 and country levels are supposed to complement:
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4 H1: *The higher the individuals' human capital in terms of level of education (H1a) and*
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6 *work experience at their current organization (H1b), the greater their perceived*
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8 *employability.*
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10 *Training practices*

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12 The literature on employability emphasizes the relevance of workers' competences and skills in
13 facilitating job-finding opportunities (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014; Bargsted *et al.*, 2021), with training
14 being a key practice for achieving this objective and one whose impact on employability has
15 consistently (e.g., Veld *et al.*, 2015), although not always (e.g., Decius *et al.*, 2024), been found.
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19 Nowadays, employment faces ongoing changes resulting from technological development,
20 innovations and variations in the way job design is conceived of and organized (Jaiswal *et al.*,
21 2022). In this respect, multitasking and flexible job designs, as well as the need for more
22 specialization, updated knowledge and digital competences, are among the novel demands
23 individuals must meet. Thus, as workers acquire new and broader sets of skills to remain
24 competent and employable, training activities acquire great relevance (Bozionelos *et al.*, 2020).
25 Training can be provided by employers or accessed through workers' own efforts (e.g., studying
26 in their free time and paying for training themselves) (Veld *et al.*, 2015; Decius *et al.*, 2024).
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30 Concerning employers, training is a HRM practice through which the skills of their workers
31 are developed in order to keep them updated and able to efficiently deal with their job tasks and/or
32 assume greater responsibilities within the organization (Ehrhardt *et al.*, 2011). Consequently,
33 organizations' investment in training not only generates better outcomes in terms of workers'
34 effectiveness in the current job, but also increases workers' knowledge and skills (Bozionelos *et*
35 *al.*, 2020), and consequently their higher level of employability (Veld *et al.*, 2015). In this regard,
36 and from the COR perspective, training offered by employers can be considered as a valuable
37 resource, which enhances employees' ability to achieve their goals of improving their
38 competencies and skills. Whether through training activities paid for by the employer or on-the-
39 job learning (e.g., from supervisors, co-workers, etc.), the worker's access to employer-provided
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4 training is their most significant source of new knowledge, skills and competences (Hansson,
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6 2009).
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9 First, by providing paid training, employers contribute to workers' gaining new
10 competencies, and so to their "gain spiral" (De Cuyper *et al.*, 2012). In this spiral, acquiring one
11 resource, such as improving specific skills, leads to further resource gains, like increased
12 confidence in job retention and higher perceived employability (Forrier *et al.*, 2018). Moreover,
13 these training opportunities contribute to a "resource caravan", where the accumulation of one
14 resource attracts further resources, such as better job prospects and career opportunities (Hobfoll,
15 2018). Thus, employer-provided training not only helps maintain existing resources, but also
16 builds additional ones, enhancing perceived employability.
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26 Second, on-the-job training provides employees with job-specific skills that enhance their
27 performance and adaptability. This type of training serves as a continuous resource that not only
28 addresses current job requirements but also builds confidence in managing future challenges,
29 which is critical for maintaining employability in a dynamic labor market (Bozionelos *et al.*, 2020;
30 Decius *et al.*, 2024). In line with COR theory's emphasis on resource conservation and growth,
31 we can say that on-the-job training mitigates the risk of resource depletion associated with skill
32 obsolescence, so being essential for sustaining a robust resource pool and consequently improving
33 the perception of job employability. As Van Hootegem *et al.* (2019) suggest, continuous access
34 to job-related resources like training significantly boosts employees' perceptions of
35 employability, as they feel more equipped to handle the evolving demands of the labor market.
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46 All this leads us to propose the following hypothesis:
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49 H2: *The more training the company offers through their HRM practices (paid for by the*
50 *employer, H2a, and on-the-job, H2b), the greater will be their workers' perception of*
51 *employability.*
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56 Being aware of the potential influence of HRM practices on employability, some organizations
57 may fear that the application of training practices to enhance employability could increase
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4 *external voluntary turnover* of talented workers, and hence be unwilling to make such investments
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6 in training (van Harten *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, other employers that commit to applying those
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8 HRM practices often do not offer training opportunities to all workers –e.g., they provide fewer
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10 training opportunities to older workers (Canduela *et al.*, 2012) or to women (IILS, 2010). In these
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12 contexts, workers might choose to invest in their own training. They can pay for it (e.g.,
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14 occupational courses, continuous training programs, university degrees) and spend part of their
15
16 free time studying to acquire better specialization and a wider range of updated competences.
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18 Following Veld *et al.* (2015) and Akkermansj *et al.* (2019), it can be assumed that the investment
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20 in training may be a shared responsibility of both the worker and the employer. Thus, workers
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22 might choose to invest in their own training even when the employer offers some opportunities,
23
24 viewing it as a necessary step to enhance their employability (Bozionelos *et al.*, 2020).
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28 Self-investment in training is a proactive strategy that aligns with COR theory, which posits
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30 that individuals who actively seek to acquire and expand their resources are better equipped to
31
32 manage potential losses and improve their employment situation (Van Hootegem *et al.*, 2019).
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34 Justifiably for the case of training offered by the organization, and based on COR Theory (Hobfoll
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36 *et al.*, 2018), we can expect that self-investment in training could trigger a “gain spiral” that
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38 benefits the accumulation of resources and the perception of employability while workers’ failure
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40 to pay for their own training could initiate a “loss spiral” where reduced employability and
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42 confidence further deplete valuable resources. Furthermore, in the context of self-paid training,
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44 workers are not just acquiring new skills, they are also reinforcing their sense of control over their
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46 career and resource management. This reinforcement of control strengthens their self-confidence
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48 and perceived employability, as they feel they have more influence over their resources and future
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50 employment (Decius and Klug, 2024). This proactive approach could enable workers to build a
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52 buffer of resources - such as enhanced competencies and increased confidence - that protects
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54 against the risks of unemployment and strengthens their perceived employability. Consequently,
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56 it can be posited that:
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4 *H3: The more workers commit to training activities paid for by themselves, the greater will*
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6 *be their perceived employability.*
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9 *National cultural values of masculinity and uncertainty avoidance*

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11 Based on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), it can be said that national cultural values are a relevant
12 part of the surrounding context that can affect individuals' evaluation of their resources (Hobfoll,
13 2001), among them their perceived employability (e.g., Bargsted *et al.*, 2021; Decius *et al.*, 2024).
14 Because culture influence the individuals' process of conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 2001),
15 national values can provide a useful approach for researching employability (e.g., Little *et al.*,
16 2011; Stoffers *et al.*, 2020) and contribute additional arguments that increase the understanding
17 of the antecedents of workers' perceived employability (e.g., Lo Presti *et al.*, 2020).
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21 Specifically, Hofstede *et al.*, (2010, p. 3) conceptualizes culture as "the collective
22 programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of a group or category of people from
23 others". Hofstede's (2001) model of national culture includes six dimensions that distinguish
24 countries, each dimension representing preferences for one state of affairs over another (Hofstede
25 *et al.*, 2010): individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance,
26 masculinity/femininity, long-term/short-term orientation, and indulgence/restraint. These cultural
27 values condition the way people perceive and interpret events and consequently choose a behavior
28 as a response to them (Hofstede, 2001). As argued below, based on the COR theory (Hobfoll,
29 1989), we can expect that two out of these six cultural values will condition individuals' appraisal
30 of their employability, specifically, values of masculinity/femininity (hereafter *masculinity*) and
31 of *uncertainty avoidance*.
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51 First, 'Masculinity values' reflect a preference for achievement, assertiveness and material
52 rewards in the business context (Hofstede, 1984, 2001). This orientation involves an emphasis on
53 workers' ruggedness and competitiveness, admiration for strength, prioritization of arduous work
54 over personal and family life, and a resolute pursuit of economic success. In contrast, 'femininity
55 values' that are found in societies with very low masculinity (Hofstede, 1984, 2001), prioritize
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4 consensus, cooperation, harmony, care for the vulnerable, and quality of life over material success
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6 (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). Accordingly, and based on the COR theory, we can state that these cultural
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8 values may influence how workers perceive their resources in the labor market. For example, in
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10 societies with high masculinity, where success and assertiveness are heavily emphasized, workers
11
12 may experience heightened pressure to safeguard their current resources, such as job status and
13
14 material gains (García-Cabrera and García-Soto, 2012). This pressure aligns with the COR
15
16 principle that individuals strive to protect and conserve their existing resources, especially in
17
18 competitive environments where material success is paramount (Hobfoll, 1989; Bargsted, 2021).
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20 In these cultures, the constant competition and pressure for achievement can lead to a resource
21
22 “loss spiral”, where the fear of not meeting societal expectations exacerbates stress and reduces
23
24 perceived employability. Indeed, when assessing job prospects in the external labor market,
25
26 workers may find it unlikely to secure comparable employment elsewhere due to perceived
27
28 advantages at their current organization and labor market competitiveness, thus perceiving lower
29
30 employability. In contrast, in cultures with strong femininity values, the emphasis on work-life
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32 balance, cooperation and support within the community may reduce the perceived pressures to
33
34 compete aggressively for resources and it can result in a higher perception of employability, as
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36 workers feel more supported and less threatened by potential resource loss in the labor market.
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41 Second, uncertainty avoidance values reflect the extent to which individuals in a society
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43 feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations, and thus prefer structured conditions with
44
45 clear rules and stability (Hofstede, 1984, 2001). In cultures with high uncertainty avoidance
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47 values, this strong preference for predictability can lead to a heightened perception of threat when
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49 envisioning job loss or employment instability. This cultural value fosters a conservative view of
50
51 career prospects, where individuals may overestimate potential barriers to employment and
52
53 perceive the job market as riskier (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). Consequently, workers in such cultures
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55 are likely to have a lower self-assessment of their employability, viewing themselves as less
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57 adaptable and capable of navigating uncertainties, which may be expected to undermine their
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4 confidence in securing future employment. According to the COR theory, the anticipation of
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6 resource loss - such as the fear of losing a job - can trigger a defensive strategy focused on
7
8 conserving current resources (Hobfoll, 1989). This conservative approach fosters a “loss spiral”
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10 where the avoidance of risk and change reduces the likelihood of developing adaptive skills (and
11
12 so acquiring this resource), and consequently depleting their perceived employability (De Cuyper
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14 *et al.*, 2012). On the contrary, in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance values, opposite effects
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16 can be found as result of the lower degree of relevance that workers attribute to risks associated
17
18 with job loss, job change or labor market volatility.
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21 In summary, and from the perspective of COR theory, we propose:

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24 H4: *The higher the national values of masculinity (H4a) and uncertainty avoidance (H4b)*
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26 *in a country, the lower the perception of workers located in that country of their*
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28 *employability will be.*
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30 The graphical representation of our proposed theoretical model is shown in Figure 1.

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33 **FIGURE I here**
34

35 36 **Methods**

37 38 *Data sources, study context and sample*

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41 To test the hypotheses, individual-level data was combined with country-level data at an
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43 international level. Individual-level data was obtained from the 6th European Working Conditions
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45 Survey - EWCS - (Eurofound, 2017), which was conducted in 2015 by the European Foundation
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47 for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound). The survey addresses issues
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49 in the general job context, including working conditions and access to training.
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52 This edition of the EWCS employed a rigorous methodological process to collect the data,
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54 through face-to-face interviews with a representative sample of workers aged sixteen or over in
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56 28 EU member states and 7 non-EU countries (35 countries). The survey used a multi-stage
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58 stratified random sampling design to ensure representativeness of various demographic groups
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4 within each country. Data collection was conducted by trained interviewers using standardized
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6 questionnaires, translated and adapted to local contexts to maintain consistency and cultural
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8 relevance. To ensure the traceability and validity of the data, Eurofound implemented quality
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10 control measures such as pilot testing, continuous fieldwork monitoring and post-survey
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12 validation procedures, such as weighting adjustments, to account for sampling biases and cross-
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14 check the consistency of responses (Eurofound, 2017).
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17 The total sample size for the 6th EWCS in all 35 countries is 43,850 interviews, and after
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19 excluding self-employed people, a sub-sample of 27,916 workers was obtained for our research.
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22 Country-level data (the values of masculinity and uncertainty avoidance) was obtained
23
24 from Hofstede and colleagues' works (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010)¹, which offer country scores for six
25
26 cultural dimensions referring to 76 countries, among them 29 European ones also included in the
27
28 6th EWCS and in this study's sample: Albania, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech
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30 Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy,
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32 Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain,
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34 Sweden, UK, Serbia, Turkey, Norway and Switzerland. By working with the two databases and
35
36 merging them, it was decided at the researcher's discretion to eliminate those countries from the
37
38 EWCS for which we did not have information on the national cultural values of masculinity and
39
40 uncertainty avoidance. These countries are as follows: Montenegro, Fyrom, Cyprus y Malta.
41
42 Thus, the final sample is reduced to 26,555 workers. The distribution of individuals among the
43
44 29 countries, as well as the Hofstede's scores for masculinity and uncertainty avoidance of such
45
46 countries are presented in Table I.
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48

49 **TABLE I here**
50

51 From a demographic perspective, the 26,555 workers in the sample are on average 44.79
52
53 years of age, of which women constituted 52.0%. Regarding their educational level, almost half
54
55 of them had reached "upper secondary education" (43.76%), 12.96% "Bachelor or equivalent",
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57 10.01% "Master or equivalent"; 10.01% "Doctorate or equivalent"; 63.72% worked in the private
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4 sector and 29.41% in the public sector. The largest percentage of workers (41.96%) was
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6 concentrated in small to medium-sized companies with between 10 and 249 workers, whereas
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8 37.42% work for organizations with 250 or more workers.
9

10 11 *Measures*

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14 *Dependent variable.* Following previous studies regarding the use of single-item scales in the
15
16 field research of HRM (Nagy, 2002; Steel and Landon, 2010; Nelissen *et al.*, 2017), *perceived*
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18 *employability* was measured with the following question: To what extent do you agree or disagree
19
20 with the following statements about your job?: “If I were to lose or quit my current job, it would
21
22 be easy for me to find another job with a similar salary” (Likert scale ranging from “Strongly
23
24 disagree” (1) to “Strongly agree”(6)).

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26
27 *Independent variables.* Referring to *human capital*, two micro-level variables from the
28
29 Sixth EWCS were considered: *Level of education*, which has been grouped into five categories
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31 from the first Pre-primary education (0) to Doctorate or equivalent (5), and *Work experience at*
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33 *the current organization*, which is measured through the number of years the individual has been
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35 at the current company or organization. Concerning *Training practices*, two items were chosen
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37 as proxies for companies’ HR practices (*Training paid for by employer and Training-on-job*) and
38
39 one as a proxy for *Training activities paid for by the worker*. The three items were measured
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41 respectively with the following questions: “Since you started your main paid job, have you
42
43 undergone any of the following types of training to improve your skills?”: “Training paid for or
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45 provided by your employer”, “On-the-job training”, and “Training paid for by yourself”. They
46
47 were dummy variables (1: No; 2: Yes). Finally, and for the macro level (*national values*),
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49 countries’ scores for the index of the cultural values of *masculinity* and *uncertainty avoidance*
50
51 provided by Hofstede were used. For this model, higher scores indicate more *masculinity* and
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53 *uncertainty avoidance* values and lower scores more femininity and low uncertainty avoidance
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55 values (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010).
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4 *Control variables.* This study incorporated two commonly considered control variables in
5 employability research (e.g., Forrier *et al.*, 2015; Bernstrøm *et al.*, 2019): *Gender* (1: male; 2:
6 female) and *Age* (measured by the age of the interviewee). Regarding gender, given the prevalent
7 gender bias in the labor market, it is anticipated that men may exhibit higher perceived
8 employability (Braun *et al.*, 2017). As for age, it is expected that younger individuals may
9 demonstrate higher perceived employability due to their higher level of education (Bernstrøm *et*
10 *al.*, 2019).
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19 *Data analysis*

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22 First, we conducted a correlation analysis among the independent variables to assess the potential
23 for multicollinearity, which could bias the significance tests of the coefficients. Second, to
24 evaluate the proposed hypotheses within a multilevel approach, we applied Hierarchical Linear
25 Modelling (HLM). This approach is particularly well-suited for analyzing data with a nested
26 structure, such as individuals within countries, and it aligns with the hierarchical nature of
27 organizations, making it a widely accepted method in organizational research (Aguinis *et al.*,
28 2013).
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37 In the absence of specific company identifiers, we used company training practices as
38 proxy variables at the individual level (Level 1) to indirectly capture company-specific effects.
39 As a result, our model was structured with two levels: individuals nested within countries. This
40 structure allowed us to break down variance across these levels and evaluate how Level 1
41 characteristics of employees and training strategies influence individual perceptions of
42 employability, while accounting for cultural and national contexts at Level 2.
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50 We performed the HLM analyses using the latest version of the statsmodels library in
51 Python to ensure robust and reproducible results. The Level 1 variables included Gender, Age,
52 Work Experience at the Current Organization, and various forms of Training (paid by the
53 employer, paid by the worker, and on-the-job). The Level 2 variables included Masculinity and
54 Uncertainty Avoidance. The dependent variable was External Perceived Employability (Q89h).
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Results

Correlations and estimations

Table II shows the descriptive statistics and the correlations among the independent variables. For example, at the $\sigma=0.05$ level, Masculinity and Uncertainty Avoidance are significantly negatively correlated with Training Paid for by the employer ($r = -0.06^{***}$ and $r = -0.13^{***}$, respectively) and Training on-the-job ($r = -0.05^{***}$ and $r = -0.17^{***}$, respectively). Additionally, Age is positively correlated with Work Experience at the Current Organization ($r = 0.16^{***}$). Females (Gender = 1) are associated with a higher level of education ($r = 0.07^{***}$). Training On-the-Job is strongly positively correlated with Training Paid for by the Employer ($r = 0.43^{***}$). Regarding multicollinearity in the data, the general rule of thumb is that the correlation between independent variables should not exceed 0.75 (Tsui *et al.*, 1995). The highest significant correlation is between Training Paid for by the Employer and Training On-the-Job, at 0.43^{***} , suggesting that multicollinearity is not a problem.

TABLE II here

The results presented in Table III provide insight into the impact of human capital, training practices and national values on workers' perceived employability. The model's marginal R^2 is 0.093, suggesting that the fixed effects explain about 9.3% of the variance in perceived employability. In addition, the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) value is higher than 0.05 (Aguinis *et al.*, 2013), which indicates that a portion of the variance is attributable to differences between countries and confirms that the multilevel approach is appropriate for the analysis.

At Level 1, the analysis indicates that several individual characteristics significantly influence perceived employability. Gender shows a negative effect ($\beta=-0.097^{***}$), suggesting that being female is associated with a lower perception of employability. Age also has a small but significant negative impact ($\beta=-0.002^{***}$), while education level positively affects perceptions of employability ($\beta=0.098^{***}$). Interestingly, work experience at the current organization

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4 negatively correlates with perceived employability ($\beta=-0.030^{***}$), indicating that longer tenure
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6 may reduce perceived external opportunities. Regarding training practices, both training activities
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8 paid for the employer ($\beta=0.137^{***}$) and training activities paid for the worker ($\beta=0.159^{***}$)
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10 positively influence perceived employability, underscoring the importance of continuous
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12 professional development. However, on-the-job training does not have a statistically significant
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14 effect ($\beta=0.008$). At Level 2, the national values of Masculinity and Uncertainty Avoidance were
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16 examined. The analysis shows that Uncertainty Avoidance is negatively associated with
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18 perceived employability ($\beta=-0.007^{**}$), indicating that in cultures with high uncertainty
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20 avoidance, workers feel less secure in their employability, whereas Masculinity does not show a
21
22 significant effect ($\beta=-0.003$).
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26 **TABLE III here**
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28 Concerning hypotheses testing, H1 - *i.e.*, *higher human capital leads to greater perceived*
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30 *employability* - is partially supported. While a higher level of education (*H1a*, $\beta=0.098^{***}$)
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32 positively influences perceived employability, greater work experience at the current organization
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34 (*H1b*, $\beta=-0.030^{***}$) unexpectedly shows a negative effect, which contradicts the hypothesis.
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36 Concerning HR training practices, the results indicate that training paid for the employer
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38 has a positive and significant effect on employability, so H2a is supported. On-the-job training,
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40 however, does not show a significant effect on perceived employability, indicating that this type
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42 of training might not influence employability perceptions as strongly as other forms of training,
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44 thus H2b is not supported. Finally, and concerning training activities paid for the worker, results
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46 also show that such training increases perceived employability. Therefore, H3 is supported
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48 ($\beta=0.159^{***}$).
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51 Regarding cultural values (H4), the results show that masculinity does not have a
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53 significant effect on perceived employability. In contrast, uncertainty avoidance has a significant
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55 negative effect on perceived employability, indicating that higher levels of uncertainty avoidance
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57 in a country are associated with lower levels of perceived employability among workers. The
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4 results reveal that higher cultural values of masculinity would reduce perceived employability
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6 ($\beta = -0.003$) is not supported (H4a), as the effect is not statistically significant. Contrarily, H4b,
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8 the hypothesis that states that higher cultural values of uncertainty avoidance would lower
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10 perceived employability ($\beta = -0.007^{**}$) is supported, as the results indicate a significant negative
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12 effect.
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15 *Post-hoc analysis: the moderating role of “person-job fit”*
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18 After analyzing the results, in particular the negative impact of workers' experience at the current
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20 organization on their perception of being able to obtain employment with another organization,
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22 doubts emerged about whether or not the relationship found between independent and dependent
23
24 variables could be affected by the workers' current “person-job fit” (e.g., it is not the same to
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26 have accumulated experience in a job where workers feel themselves competent as it is for other
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28 jobs for which they consider themselves to be lacking the sufficient skills). Specifically, the
29
30 “person-job fit” refers to the alignment between an individual's skills, qualifications and
31
32 characteristics, and the specific requirements and expectations of a given job role (Edwards, 1991;
33
34 Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005). According to the demands–abilities perspective of fit, this variable
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36 accounts for the degree to which workers have (or not) the competences necessary to perform job
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38 tasks (Edwards, 1991). Therefore, the “person-job fit” could moderate the impact of workers'
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40 human capital, training practice and national cultural values on their self-perceptions of
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42 employability.
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46 Three scenarios were examined in this study: (1) the workers had the skills to cope with
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48 more demanding duties (Model 1: 6,978 individuals); (2) the workers had skills that correspond
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50 well with their duties (Model 2: 13,527 individuals); or (3) the workers needed further training to
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52 cope well with their duties (Model 3: 3,220 individuals).
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55 Table IV shows the resulting hierarchical regression equations. The model's marginal R^2
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57 are higher than 0.063, suggesting that the fixed effects explain 6.3% or more of the variance in
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59 perceived employability. In addition, ICC values are lower than 0.05 in Models II and III, but
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4 higher than this threshold in Model I. So, according to Aguinis *et al.* (2013), only in the Model I
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6 the multilevel approach is appropriate because a portion of the variance is attributable to
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8 differences between countries.
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10
11 Concerning the results, the control variables (i.e., age and gender) show similar - albeit not
12
13 identical - effects across Models (i.e., being older does not reduce perceived employability in the
14
15 case of the subsample of workers who need further training to cope well with their duties [Model
16
17 I]).
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20 Regarding the independent variables, it was found that while *work experience at the current*
21
22 *organization, on-the-job training* and *uncertainty avoidance values* have similar impacts on
23
24 perceived employability, irrespective of the workers' current "person-job fit", *education level,*
25
26 *training paid for by the employer, training paid for by the worker,* and *masculinity values* see a
27
28 change in impact across Models. Specifically, *training activities paid for by the worker* does not
29
30 increase worker's perceived employability in Model III (i.e., workers with skills to cope with
31
32 more demanding duties) but does increase in Models I and II. In addition, *education level, training*
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34 *paid for by the employer* and *masculinity values* impact on workers' perceived employability in
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36 Models II and III, but not in the case of Model I (i.e., the subsample of workers who need further
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38 training to cope well with their duties). As a result, post-hoc analysis found that the influence on
39
40 perceived employability of these variables is moderated by the worker's "person-job fit".
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43 **TABLE IV here**
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53 **Discussion**

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56 This study, grounded in the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, examines factors
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58 influencing workers' perceived employability at individual, organizational and national levels
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4 using HLM. Perceived employability, reflecting workers' self-assessment of their ability to secure
5 similar jobs, is shaped by individual human capital (Jackson & Wilton, 2017), organizational
6 practices and national cultural values, particularly those of *masculinity* and *uncertainty*
7 *avoidance*.
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13 Firstly, the study confirms that higher levels of education enhance employability as
14 previous authors state (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014; Bernstrøm *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, this effect
15 occurs only in cases where workers have skills that align with their current job duties (Model II)
16 or to cope with more demanding duties (Model III). Workers who feel overwhelmed by their
17 current job due to a lack of skills would find that their academic level is not enough to increase
18 their perceived employability.
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27 Furthermore, the results show that more experience at the same organization consistently
28 reduces perceived employability. This finding contradicts previous literature on human capital
29 (e.g., Becker, 1964) and COR theory, which considers experience as a resource that gives rise to
30 a "gain spiral" (Vanhercke *et al.*, 2014; Bargsted *et al.*, 2021). Our results suggest that when
31 workers accumulate significant experience at a single company, they may feel overly specialized
32 and perceive a lack of up-to-date skills required by other organizations, so they feel a loss of
33 personal resources that gives rise to a "loss spiral" that lessens perceived employability. Thus,
34 according to our results, the impact of experience on perceived employability should be revisited.
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44 Secondly, concerning training practices, the study revealed that employer-funded training
45 enhances perceived employability, while on-the-job training has no significant effect - coherently
46 with Decius *et al.* (2024). In addition, if considering the moderating role of "person-job fit", our
47 results indicate that employer-funded training only enhances employability for those workers
48 whose skills align well with their current job duties or who are overqualified. This suggests that
49 workers well-suited for the roles they are in benefit most from employer-provided training, while
50 those who lack the resources to cope with their job duties will not increase their perceived
51 employability as result of training paid for their employers. The results also show that self-funded
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4 training positively influences perceived employability, which is again in line with Decius *et al.*'s
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6 (2024) findings. However, according to our results in the three subsamples, such impacts diminish
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8 and are not significant for overqualified workers, likely due to a reduced incentive to invest further
9
10 in their development.
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13 Thirdly, regarding national cultural values, our study finds that uncertainty avoidance
14
15 negatively impacts perceived employability, suggesting that workers in cultures that prioritize
16
17 stability may feel too lowly skilled to find a new job, which is consistent with expectations from
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19 the Hofstede's model (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010), and the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Remarkably,
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21 we found this effect irrespective of the worker's current "person-job fit", suggesting that this
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23 national value may act on all the employees in a country.
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27 Interestingly, masculinity values do not hinder perceived employability in the full sample.
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29 This could be due to the relatively slight differences in masculinity scores across European
30
31 countries. However, when considering "person-job fit", we found that masculinity values
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33 negatively impact the perceived employability of individuals who are well-suited or overqualified
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35 for their roles. In particular, in highly competitive cultures, overqualified workers may perceive
36
37 themselves as less employable due to the societal pressures for achievement and assertiveness, as
38
39 suggested by Lo Presti *et al.* (2020).
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43 In the comparative analysis of the antecedents of perceived employability across the three
44
45 levels, our findings suggest that training has a greater influence than human capital, though this
46
47 needs further verification. This comparison sheds light on the most influential factors at each
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49 level, providing a nuanced understanding that can be useful for both researchers and practitioners
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51 in the field. In summary, training—whether funded by the employer or the employee—is the most
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53 significant factor influencing perceived employability, followed by educational level. Although
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55 national cultural values have a lesser impact, high uncertainty avoidance notably decreases
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57 perceived employability, while work experience within the same organization significantly
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4 reduces employability in 'person-job fit' scenarios. However, extensive experience within the
5
6 same organization may reduce adaptability, thus lowering perceived employability.
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9 **Conclusions and recommendations**

10 *Theoretical Implications*

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12 This research addresses a gap in the management literature by showing how the integration
13
14 of the COR theory demonstrates the influence of diverse levels of factors on self-perceived
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16 employability. Our study on the antecedents of *perceived employability* includes variables at the
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18 individual, organizational and national levels and examines how factors at these three levels
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20 influence the perceived employability of European workers. The study makes three main
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22 contributions:
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28 First, it demonstrates that country-level variables, such as cultural values, are important in
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30 understanding factors that affect workers' perceptions of employability. Social values shape how
31
32 workers perceive and interpret reality, particularly in regard to material success and achievement
33
34 (Hofstede, 1984, 2001). National cultural tendencies can alter labor market conditions and, in
35
36 turn, impact individual perceptions of employability. The integration of *uncertainty avoidance* as
37
38 a new independent variable expands our understanding of employability, particularly in countries
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40 that prioritize stability and avoid risk.
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44 Second, we introduce "person-job fit" as a moderating variable that affects employability
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46 perceptions among employed individuals, supporting earlier conclusions, such as those by
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48 Akkermans *et al.* (2019), highlighting the mutual benefits for both employers and employees
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50 when organizations invest in employability.

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52 Finally, regarding training practices, our results reveal the differing effects of training paid
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54 for by workers versus by the employer. These differences become more evident when "person-
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56 job fit" is considered. Companies should be aware that they may lose highly employable workers,
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4 especially those who feel under-skilled for more demanding tasks, as these individuals tend to
5 seek better employment opportunities (Fugate *et al.*, 2004; Fuller and Marler, 2009).
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8 *Practical Implications*

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11 This study provides valuable insights for workers, employers and policymakers. Workers are
12 encouraged to invest in their education, both through self-paid initiatives and employer-provided
13 programs, to enhance their employability. This is particularly important when their skills only
14 meet the minimum needed to perform their duties. Additionally, they should recognize how their
15 country's culture influences their employability expectations, potentially enrolling in courses that
16 address the cultural context and its impact on career progression.
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24 Employers should prioritize offering training opportunities, particularly to those employees
25 with low "person-job fit". They should also adapt their human resource practices to align with
26 their country's cultural values regarding employability. These practices are consistent with the
27 UN's Agenda 2030 goals, specifically SDG-4 (Quality Education) and SDG-8 (Decent Work and
28 Economic Growth). By offering these opportunities, employers not only support workers who
29 aspire to keep their current job and advance their careers (Berntson *et al.*, 2006), but they also
30 foster greater employee loyalty, enhance productivity and increase satisfaction, while
31 simultaneously reducing turnover intentions - ultimately benefiting the organization (Fugate *et*
32 *al.*, 2021).
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43 For policymakers, the multilevel insight of our study highlights the need to design national
44 and organizational training programs that align with workers' specific skill levels and
45 organizational fit. Tailored interventions aimed at improving "person-job fit", should address
46 adaptability and employability. Additionally, governments should consider national cultural
47 differences when implementing policies to promote employability across diverse labor markets.
48 These policies should foster a more inclusive and egalitarian work culture that supports
49 employability for all workers, regardless of gender, age or seniority. Policymakers could
50 implement programs that promote gender equality, offer family-supportive policies and provide
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4 access to child and elderly care services or continuous education courses. This continuous and
5
6 customized training for enhancing employability is of great relevance due to the demands for new
7
8 skills required by emerging trends in the labor market (e.g., artificial intelligence technologies,
9
10 robotics and so on).

11 12 13 *Limitations and Future Research*

14
15 This study has several limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the sample consists of 29
16
17 European countries, primarily reflecting “Western culture.” To broaden the understanding of
18
19 perceived employability, future studies should be conducted in regions such as the Arab world or
20
21 Asia, where cultural values differ significantly. This would be particularly valuable in exploring
22
23 the influence of social values, such as masculinity or uncertainty avoidance, on employability.

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26 Second, the cross-sectional design limits the ability to infer causality. The findings do not
27
28 account for how workers might perceive their own employability after losing their jobs. Future
29
30 research should adopt a longitudinal approach to address these dynamics over time. Additionally,
31
32 it is important to recognize that perceptions of employability may differ between those who are
33
34 employed and those who are unemployed, making longitudinal studies even more relevant.

35
36
37 Moreover, future studies should consider other factors related to the worker that could
38
39 potentially contribute to understanding perceived employability. For example, holding a
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41 leadership position (e.g., being a supervisor who supports other employees) could influence a
42
43 worker’s perception of employability, as leadership skills may be more easily transferable to other
44
45 organizations than highly specialized practical skills. Furthermore, psychological factors such as
46
47 self-confidence, narcissism and other similar traits could influence, regardless of training and
48
49 national culture, workers’ perceptions of their opportunities to find a new job and, consequently,
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51 their perceived employability.

52 53 54 **Endnotes**

¹ Available on: <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/product/compare-countries>.

The Bottom Line

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The Bottom Line

Table I. Sample distribution by country and Hofstede cultural dimensions scores for Masculinity and Uncertainty Avoidance. N=26,555

Country	N	%	Masculinity Index	Uncertainty Avoidance Index
Albania	802	2.876%	80	70
Austria	746	2.968%	79	70
Belgium	1894	7.535%	54	94
Bulgaria	773	2.876%	40	85
Croatia	712	2.833%	40	80
Czech Rep	741	2.948%	57	74
Denmark	815	3.242%	16	23
Estonia	769	2.861%	30	60
Finland	725	2.884%	26	59
France	1227	4.882%	43	86
Germany	1591	6.330%	66	65
Great Britain	1167	4.643%	66	35
Greece	548	2.180%	57	112
Hungary	735	2.924%	88	82
Ireland	723	2.876%	68	35
Italy	787	3.131%	70	75
Lithuania	764	3.040%	19	65
Luxembourg	833	3.314%	50	70
Netherlands	756	3.008%	14	53
Norway	830	3.302%	8	50
Poland	725	2.884%	64	93
Portugal	619	2.391%	31	99
Romania	740	2.944%	42	90
Slovak Rep	745	2.964%	100	51
Slovenia	1219	4.850%	19	88
Spain	2225	8.852%	42	86
Sweden	826	3.286%	5	29
Switzerland	400	1.436%	70	58
Turkey	1118	4.050%	45	85

Table II. Correlations, means and SD, N= 26,555

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender (Male,0; Female, 1)	1.00								
2. Age	0.04***	1.00							
3. Level of education	0.07***	-0.01	1.00						
4. Work experience in the current organization	-0.03***	0.016***	-0.01	1.00					
5. Training paid for by the employer	0.02**	-0.01	0.12***	0.08***	1.00				
6. Training on-the-job	0.01*	-0.02**	0.12***	0.03***	0.43***	1.00			
7. Training paid for by the worker	0.03***	-0.01*	0.06***	-0.02***	0.09***	0.11***	1.00		
8. Masculinity	-0.01	-0.00	0.01	-0.05***	-0.06***	-0.05***	0.01	1.00	
9. Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.01*	-0.03***	-0.07***	0.03***	-0.13***	-0.17***	0.01	0.12***	1.00
Mean	0.52	44.79	2.65	11.00	1.40	1.37	1.07	46.35	71.93
SD	0.52	38.03	1.13	9.59	0.49	0.48	0.25	21.96	20.79

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

Table III. The effect of Human capital, Training practices and National cultural values on workers' perceived employability: hierarchical linear model estimations. N=26,555

Variable	Estimate	SE.	z-statistic	p-value
<i>Fixed effects</i>				
Intercept	3.195***	0.182	17.576	0.000
<i>Level 1 - individual level: Human capital and Training practices</i>				
Gender	-0.097***	0.016	-5.917	0.000
Age	-0.002***	0.000	-7.353	0.000
Education level	0.098***	0.011	8.341	0.000
Work experience in the current organization	-0.030***	0.001	-32.934	0.000
Training activities paid for by the employer	0.137***	0.020	6.941	0.000
Training activities paid for by the worker	0.159***	0.034	4.624	0.000
On-the-job training	0.008	0.020	0.424	0.671
<i>Level 2 - country level: National cultural values</i>				
Masculinity	-0.003	0.002	-1.565	0.118
Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.007**	0.002	-3.167	0.002
Marginal R²		0.093		
P-value		<0.001		
Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)		1.339		
R-Squared		0.5239		
Adjusted R-squared		0.5235		

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

Table IV. The moderating role of person-job fit in the effect of human capital, training practices and national cultural values on perceived employability: hierarchical linear model estimations, N=26,555

Variable	Model I I need further training to cope well with my duties N=3,220				Model II My present skills correspond well with my duties N= 13,527				Model III I have the skills to cope with more demanding duties N= 6,978			
	Estimate	SE	z- statistic	P- value	Estimate	SE	z- statistic	P- value	Estimate	SE	z- statistic	P- value
<i>Fixed effects</i>												
Intercept	2.835***	0.026	110.830	0.000	2.677***	0.182	14.711	0.000	2.836***	0.388	7.311	0.000
<i>Level 1 - individual level: Human capital and Training practices</i>												
Gender	-0.013	0.022	-0.563	0.523	-0.013	0.041	-0.336	0.737	-0.1108	0.072	-1.534	0.125
Age	-0.025	0.025	-1.000	0.317	-0.062***	0.011	-5.627	0.000	-0.104***	0.017	-6.114	0.000
Education level	0.025	0.025	1.011	0.312	0.086***	0.011	7.651	0.000	0.053**	0.017	3.059	0.002
Work experience in the current organization	-0.303***	0.025	-12.161	0.000	-0.304***	0.011	-27.411	0.000	-0.297***	0.017	-17.279	0.000
Training activities paid for by the employer	0.021	0.026	0.793	0.427	0.064***	0.012	5.248	0.000	0.088***	0.018	4.693	0.000
On-the-job training	-0.002	0.026	-0.073	0.941	0.0183	0.012	1.506	0.132	-0.0099	0.018	-0.527	0.598
Training activities paid for by the worker	0.049*	0.025	1.998	0.046	0.050***	0.011	4.549	0.000	0.0132	0.017	0.768	0.443
<i>Level 2 - country level: National cultural values</i>												
Masculinity	-0.006	0.025	-0.236	0.813	-0.056***	0.011	-5.090	0.000	-0.076***	0.016	-4.523	0.000
Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.143***	0.025	-5.742	0.000	-0.109***	0.011	-9.703	0.000	-0.174***	0.017	-10.142	0.000
Marginal R²	0.063				0.075				0.080			
P-value	<0.001				<0.001				<0.001			
Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)	1.373				1.331				1.403			
R-squared	0.3917				0.4572				0.5422			
Adjusted R-squared	0.3910				0.4569				0.5418			

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