

TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF ONE'S FUTURE WORK SELF SALIENCE AS AN
INDICATOR OF WORK RELATED BEHAVIORS

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ABSTRACT

Future work self (FWS) refers to who a person aspires to become in the future as it relates to his or her work. FWS serves as a distal goal that motivates individuals to engage in three work-related behaviors: job crafting, proactive career behavior (PCB), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Because there is multifinality in goal attainment (e.g., several goals linked to the same means), individuals take steps, serving focal and distal goals, to advance in achieving their FWS. As individuals move toward their work goals, they incorporate feedback to reassess their progress and alter steps necessary to fully achieve their future self. I expand future focused research by integrating regulatory focus theory (RFT)—how individuals approach desired or avoid undesired outcomes—and extend research on three work-related behaviors in the context of becoming one's FWS. I expect that a person's promotion focus (and not prevention focus) will moderate the relationship between one's FWS and these three work-related behaviors (i.e., job crafting, PCBs, OCBs). Overall, I suggest that a FWS is a valuable motivational resource that induces specific work-related behaviors.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my family. You are all represented in this dissertation in many ways. To my grandparents, I am eternally thankful for your wisdom and guidance over the years. Grandpa, thank you for your passion teaching me to work smarter not harder. Grandma, your advice on the importance of education has paid dividends for me. I learned so much from you at an early age that it inspired me to continue learning my whole life. To my parents, Chris and Mary, I appreciate the way you raised me and I am grateful for all of your guidance, love, and support over the years. You teach and inspire me every day!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

N	Sample Size
+	Positive Relationship
-	Negative Relationship
SD	Standard Deviation
$\sqrt{\quad}$	Square Root
AVE	Average Variance Explained
df	Degrees of freedom:
χ^2	Chi-square
$\Delta\chi^2$	Change in Chi-square Statistic
Δdf	Change in Degrees of Freedom
r	Pearson product-moment correlation
b	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient
β	Beta coefficient
p	Significance Level (unless otherwise specified)
$s.e.$	Standard Error of the Estimate
Σ	Summation
∞	Infinity
α	Coefficient alpha (unless otherwise specified)

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Future work self (FWS) represents who individuals aspire to become in relation to their work (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Strauss, Griffin, Parker, 2012). FWS is an incentive to engage in workplace behaviors today that link one's current self-concept with one's anticipated future self at work (Markus & Nurius, 1986). The salience of the FWS construct – how clearly and effortlessly individuals can think of their future selves – as a distal goal, plays a key role in how individuals alter job tasks at work today to become their FWS. In years past, employers directed how employees progressed through an organization (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1980). More recently, researchers have given more attention to how employees actively shape their paths in an organization by customizing their own work (Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Strauss et al., 2012; Tharenou & Terry, 1998). This is captured in the construct of job crafting, which extends the job design literature by suggesting that employees take proactive steps in order to alter the task, relational, and cognitive boundaries of their jobs (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) in order to derive personal meaning from their work (Berg, Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

In addition to job crafting, individuals look for ways to do more than their required tasks because they seek career advancement (e.g., promotions, more responsibilities, leadership roles) or are concerned with potential losses due to downsizing and changing labor markets (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Proactive career behavior (PCB) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) are other examples of ways in which employees can manage their own careers.

Proactive career behaviors indicate how employees prioritize future outcomes over short-term benefits and use situational cues to indicate which activities will generate the best career outcomes (Parker & Collins, 2010; Strauss et al., 2012; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). OCBs target organizational effectiveness and fall outside the scope of an employee's formal job description (Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Examples of PCBs include seeking mentorship, setting goals, skill development, and exploring career options that ensure future employability (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998). These behaviors often lead to promotions and career satisfaction (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; Seibert et al., 2001). OCBs are generally categorized by three motives: (1) organizational concern (commitment to enhancing the organization), (2) impression management (trying to look good in front of others to gain rewards), and (3) prosocial values (desire to help others) (Rioux & Penner, 2001). In sum, PCBs are focused internally, toward the individual, to enhance one's career. OCBs are focused outward, towards others and/or the organization. To date, there is a limited understanding of the mechanisms that link motives with OCBs over time (Kim, Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Johnson, 2013). Researchers are seeking ways to connect distal-proximal theories of the self and what motivates behaviors at work (Lord & Brown, 2004). By looking at differences in one's current and planned future self, I expect that one's FWS salience is a mechanism by which dispositional motives are linked to various work-related behaviors.

Despite job design being one of the most studied organizational topics in the last six decades, scholars have barely scratched the surface on how today's work impacts tomorrow's opportunities (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976, 1980; Herzberg, 1966; Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Although cognition about one's future (i.e., future focus) is an important antecedent for proactive behavior in general (e.g., De Bilde, Vansteenkiste, & Lens, 2011; Parker & Collins,

2010), researchers have not explained how future focus can impact behaviors in a work context (e.g., job crafting, PCBs, and OCBs). Although various theoretical concepts explain the overall importance of future focus, often from a strategic organizational perspective (Wright & McMahan, 1992), there is a limited knowledge base for the role individuals play in connecting their present tasks to future goals (Shipp, Edwards, & Lambert, 2009). For these reasons, scholars are interested in the motives people have at work. Addressing these issues is critical because future goals are positive antecedents to functions organizations value most (e.g., sustained competitive advantages, structured planning, efficiency, effectiveness, and performance) (Barney, 1991; Porter, 1980; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). Because of these underexplored areas, this dissertation addresses these gaps by investigating present day work activities in the context of the salience of an individual's future focus. I expect one's FWS to influence how likely, and to what extent, individuals will engage in three work-related behaviors (i.e., job crafting, PCBs, OCBs).

As noted, individuals are concerned with promoting successful outcomes and preventing negative consequences at work. One mechanism that explains how individuals make choices at work is through their regulatory focus. Regulatory focus theory (RFT) indicates that people are self-regulated with a distinct promotion or prevention focus (Higgins, 1998). Promotion and prevention focus are depicted as orthogonal mindsets in approaching one's goals (Higgins, 1997, 1998; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). The difference between the two foci is that a promotion focus leads one to **approach desired** end states (e.g., goals) whereas a prevention focus leads one to **avoid undesired** end states (Higgins, 2000). With a promotion focus, individuals look for growth and advancement, which aligns them with their future selves by making those possibilities salient (i.e., they feel positive future outcomes) (Higgins, 1997,

1998). With a prevention focus, individuals align their need for security and safety with where they expect to be in the future; the salience of potential losses (i.e., negative outcomes) guides behavior (Brockner, Higgins, & Low, 2004). A promotion focus reflects hopes, wishes, and aspirations whereas a prevention focus reflects a sense of duty, obligation, and responsibility (Higgins, 2000).

Although promotion and prevention are distinct orientations, these foci are not mutually exclusive. Self-regulation operates in the context of one's disposition, needs, and goals and often can be primed by a given situation (Higgins, 2000). Situations can induce either focus, but individuals tend to pursue means (i.e., actions) that help fulfill goals that fit their regulatory orientation. Indeed, research indicates that one's regulatory focus is generally stable (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Individuals are likely to implement an approach or avoidance strategy to their behaviors based on which actions they expect to be most valuable in attaining their desired end state (i.e., their FWS). This combination (goal pursuit in conjunction with regulatory focus) tends to increase the value of the behaviors individuals engage in (Higgins, 2000). In essence, the pursuit of one's FWS can be enhanced by selecting pathways to achieve goals in conjunction with one's regulatory focus. RFT explains how people incorporate their future, ideal selves when trying to accomplish tasks and objectives through various work-related behaviors.

To explain these relationships in a familiar context, one could think of basketball coaches (or coaches in general) as an example. Coaches have clear career paths; they are hired as low-level assistants and work their way through the ranks thinking of their future self as a head coach. Perhaps due to their competitive nature, few coaches aspire to be an assistant coach. With a clear vision on **who** they want to become, my dissertation explains **how** they get there. I propose three separate, but interrelated studies, to capture this process (i.e., one's FWS as an

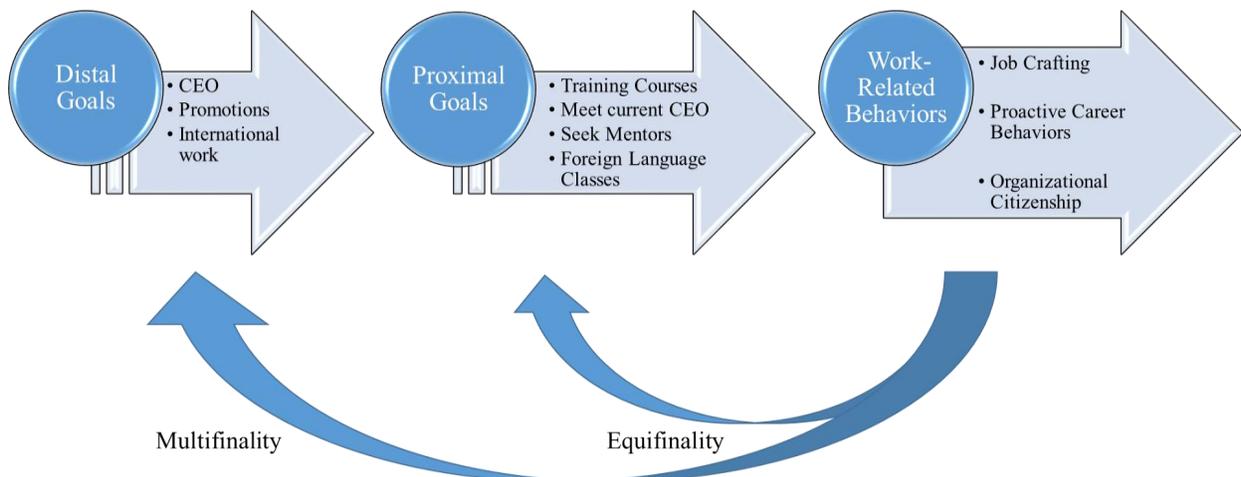
antecedent to work-related behaviors) in varying work settings (e.g., hospitality workers, engineers, sales associates, managers) but this example helps crystalize the constructs in my model shown in Figure 2. Continuing the coaching example, one might consider an end of game situation where the score is close. Given the choice between being down one point and on offense or up one point and on defense, some individuals (or coaches) prefer offense and others prefer defense. Those with an offensive mindset are seeking pleasure by finding a way to win; they want a positive outcome. Those with a defensive mindset rely on their sense of duty and responsibility to stop the other team from scoring; they want to avoid a negative outcome. This example shows that RFT is dependent on dispositional and situational factors, which is consistent with the theory and practically important (Higgins, 1997, 1998) because it helps explain the manner in which people choose what they do at work. Thus, RFT affects the direction or strength of the relationship between one's FWS and the amount and timing of work-related behaviors as depicted in Figure 2.

Individuals prioritize tasks that are relevant to the outcomes they expect (Parker & Collins, 2010). As they move forward and engage in work-related behaviors, their successes and failures (i.e., outcomes) will guide further actions. Feedback from these outcomes will elicit future behaviors that help people shape their career trajectories. Understanding how employees are achieving long term goals in order to bring them closer to their FWS is important because: (1) influencing work situations increases potential career success (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001), (2) having a salient view of the future is key to motivating PCBs (Strauss et al., 2012), and (3) attaining goals implies an implicit goal calculation process that allows multiple pathways of achievement (Chun, Kruglanski, Sleeth-Keppler, & Friedman, 2011). Therefore, I incorporate multifinality – multiple goals served via the same means – to uncover how individuals can serve

explicit focal goals while fulfilling implicit background goals to effectively bring one closer to his or her FWS (Kruglanski, 1996; Kruglanski et al., 2013). Multifinality suggests that one can serve a background (distal) goal while attending to a near term (proximal) goal through the same means (Chun et al., 2011).

A related concept, equifinality (several pathways linked to one goal) explains how choices may be carried out (Chun et al., 2011). Equifinality would allow a person to substitute different ways of accomplishing one goal. As this process unfolds, the goal could also change (e.g., target being CFO instead of CEO) based on the outcomes related to the behaviors. Equifinality typically shapes the proximal goals that are served through multifinal means. Multifinality maximizes the value of these options because one can attend to separate goals (focal and distal) through one action. For example, consider a coach that likes to read. Buying a book on coaching strategy serves a multifinal purpose; one behavior satisfies two objectives – the preference to read (proximal, near-term goal) and gaining work knowledge for career advancement (distal, long-term goal). The choice is equifinal based on how the coach pays for the book (e.g., cash, check, credit card) because paying for the book serves only the focal goal. Figure 1 below provides a conceptual framework for understanding these concepts.

Figure 1: Conceptual Process of Multifinality and Equifinality as Feedback Indicators of Goals



As individuals progress at work, they realize if, and to what extent, their daily workplace behaviors bring them closer to goal attainment (Fried & Slowik, 2004). Feedback from this process allows them to reassess which pathways lead to more direct or meaningful goal attainment (Kruglanski et al., 2002). Because choices are guided by individuals' quests for goal achievement (Chun et al., 2011), this feedback loop can encourage employees to start, stop, or continue reshaping their jobs in ways that they perceive will help them over time. Equifinality specifies that individuals choose which proximal behaviors are most likely help achieve a single goal; it indicates that several means can be tied to one goal. Therefore, individuals can substitute the best means for accomplishing a task based on the feedback received after engaging in work-related behaviors. Multifinality links several goals to the same means and maximizes value by allowing one action to serve more than one goal concurrently (Chun et al., 2011). Once, via equifinality in choice, the appropriate means are selected, a multifinal approach prioritizes these actions; individuals select actions that are efficacious for the most distal goals. By prioritizing behaviors, individuals can best satisfy two objectives – a proximal and distal goal. Through various actions at work, individuals realize what works best and re-assess future plans based on equifinality and multifinality. I investigate these effects to detail successes, failures, and changes to the FWS based on how people use feedback to reshape their work activities and boundaries.

Through this dissertation, I elucidate FWS (the extent to which today's activities are based on tomorrow's desires) in three ways. First, I extend the literature that has begun to find that dispositional antecedents of OCBs (e.g., Organ & Ryan, 1995; Rioux & Penner, 2001) are driven by individuals' future focus (Strobel et al., 2013). Much of that research has focused on the "Big Five" personality traits (e.g., openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness,

neuroticism) or the specific personality dimensions of OCBs (e.g., altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship) (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Organ, 1988). Instead, I focus on the proactive dimension of an individual's personality manifested through these work-related behaviors. It is essential to consider proactive perspectives because of the growing importance of how employees shape their work and potential short and long-term consequences that result. Further, because organizations report more uncertainty and interdependence (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007), it is important to clarify the nature of how proactivity manifests in the workplace. With increased levels of autonomy, proactive behaviors have been linked to idea implementation and problem solving, which are key ingredients for successful organizations (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). In fact, proactivity has become more important in understanding job performance (Crant, 2000). Overall, research clearly indicates the importance of understanding proactive behaviors at work in order to advance the understanding of how various workplace features (e.g., autonomy, accountability, ambiguity, work-design) encourage proactive behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant & Parker, 2009; Holman & Wall, 2002; Langfred & Moye, 2004; Morgeson & Campion, 2003)

Second, individuals with a proactive personality are likely to engage in job crafting (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012; Bateman & Crant, 1993) in order to reshape their tasks, increase their self-image, connect to others, and think about their jobs in a manner that they perceive benefits them (Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafters use their autonomy at work to act in a way that best suits their short and long-term needs; job crafting manifests independent of the effects on coworkers or the organization. Job crafting can manifest in many ways; one could craft his or her job by helping others (e.g., building relationships to cultivate meaning, adding meaning to existing relationships, or simply increasing

OCBs), adding new tasks or projects, developing new job skills (e.g., earning a master's degree), or mentally connecting one's current job with his or her envisioned FWS. It is a continual process, influenced by one's current career trajectory, whereby individuals alter their work boundaries in order to make it more meaningful. Job crafting has an inherent future focus; as employees seek meaning by making changes to present day tasks, they can alter their career trajectory based on their future vision. However, because the antecedents and outcomes of job crafting have been understudied to date (Tims et al., 2012), scholars have called for researchers to consider newer mechanisms that explain how proactive behaviors are influenced by work characteristics (Grant & Parker 2009). Further, calls in the literature suggest that we need a more nuanced and process-based account of how people introduce job crafting in their jobs, how people continue job crafting, and to what extent people express their creativity, improvise, and learn (i.e., receive and implement feedback) from these actions over time (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Thus, I extend the job crafting literature by explaining how one's FWS will explain "meaning" through specific career goals that, with latitude to make changes, leads job crafters to change the breadth and scope of their jobs today.

As indicated above, research has demonstrated the value in proactivity, workplace behaviors, and FWS (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Organ, 1998; Strauss et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, there has been minimal work that translates today's work into tomorrow's success. Therefore, my third contribution integrates research on one's future focus – how it drives individuals to alter their job characteristics today – with regulatory focus theory to explain this connection more thoroughly. As noted, individuals are motivated to enhance their careers over time. RFT is a framework that explains the process by which individuals align themselves with their standards and future goals (Brockner et al., 2004). Regulatory focus helps

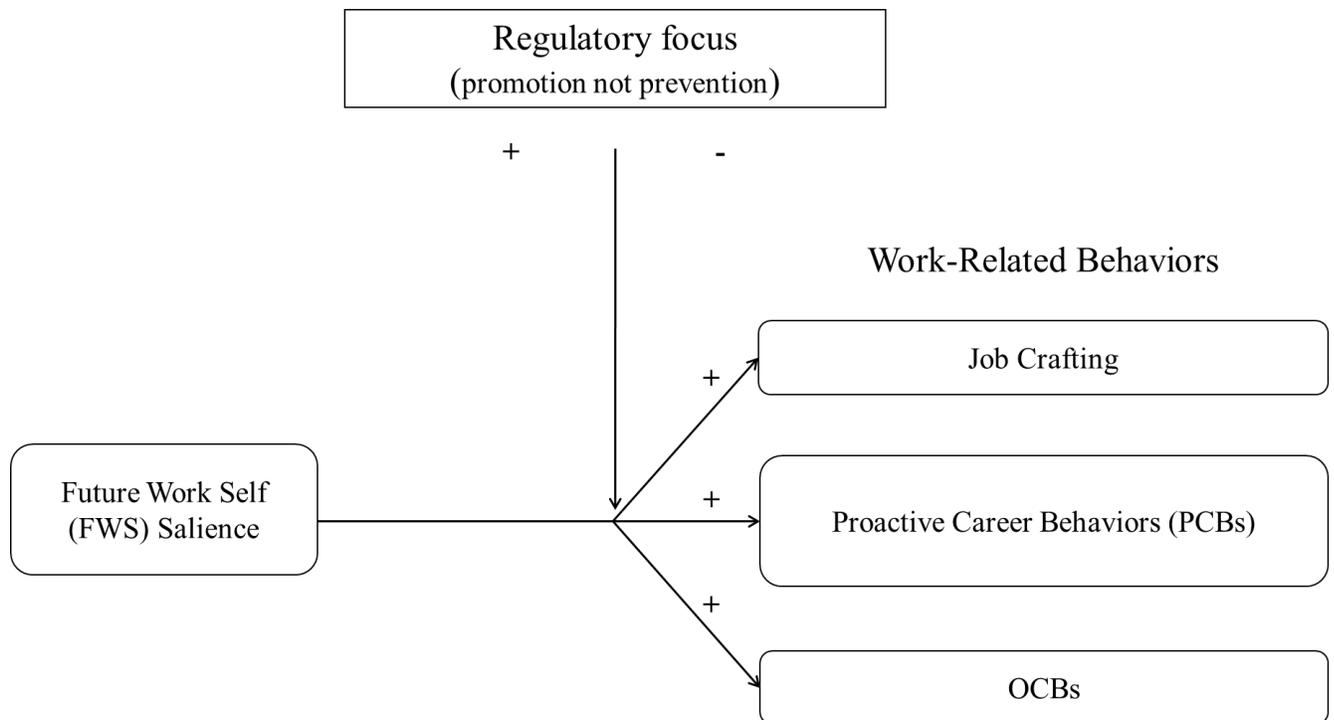
explain when and why certain behaviors would be preferable over others and which type of focus will better match one's intentions, actions, and goals with outcomes (Higgins, 1998). RFT helps us understand the circumstances under which individuals will be successful in their activities (Brockner et al., 2004).

In short, one's FWS is an antecedent to various work-related behaviors (i.e., job crafting, PCBs, OCBs). The connection is moderated by one's regulatory focus at work. As individuals engage in workplace behaviors to come closer to achieving their FWS, they incorporate an amorphous, multifinal approach. As they progress, they receive direct or indirect feedback and respond to situational cues that allow them to adjust their approach or perspective of their FWS. With a conceptual understanding of multifinality in goal attainment and the feedback loop created as one approaches the goals described in a FWS, I can empirically test these relationships as explained below.

The purpose of my dissertation is to test a model of workplace behaviors based on RFT. The model, presented in Figure 2, shows that one's FWS is an antecedent of three work-related behaviors (i.e., job crafting, PCBs, and OCBs). One's regulatory focus moderates the influence of one's FWS on these behaviors. One's regulatory focus is generally stable such that an individual is likely to employ the same strategy (approach or avoidance) when facing a given situation or choosing among options that best satisfy one or more goals. Regulatory focus helps explain the congruence (or lack thereof) between environmental conditions and individuals' behaviors (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Camacho, Higgins, & Luger, 2003; Higgins, 2000). A promotion focus is a gain seeking, approach strategy wherein individuals proactively seek gains (Higgins, 1997). A prevention focus is a safe, avoidance strategy concerned with avoiding unwanted outcomes (Higgins, 2000). Essentially, these foci represent different ways that induce

individuals to act in ways to achieve their goals. Because of the distinction between these two foci, I expect that a promotion focus aligns well with the future-oriented constructs in Figure 2. On one hand, a promotion focus should interact with the salience of one’s FWS such that he or she is even more likely to find ways (e.g., engage in work-related behaviors) to accomplish goals at work. On the other hand, I do not expect an individual with a prevention focus to be eager to increase work-related behaviors because he or she would be more concerned with safety and carefully monitoring his or her current work, not seeking new opportunities. Specifically, I test the two regulatory foci (i.e., promotion and prevention focus) because I expect a promotional focus to exert a significant, positive influence on these work-related behaviors whereas a prevention focus will be non-significant. In turn, one’s regulatory focus will affect employee job crafting, PCBs, and OCBs.

Figure 2: The Moderating Effect of Regulatory Focus on Work-Related Behaviors.



CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theory: Future Work Self

Temporal focus explains the attention people dedicate to past, present, and future thoughts; its importance stems from how people incorporate experiences, situations, and expectations into future actions (Shipp et al., 2009). The fundamental ability for the human mind to fashion behavior around future consequences has rarely been studied. People have different views of the future and differ in how much time they spend thinking about the future (Bluedorn, 2002; Bluedorn & Standifer, 2006; Nuttin, 1985, 2014; Shipp et al., 2009). Having a vivid mental picture of the future speaks volumes about where one expects to be (Szpunar, Watson, & McDermott, 2007). Thus, a salient vision can be an important frame of reference for daily activities (i.e., focal goals). The capacity for future focus relies on anticipating, planning, monitoring, and reviewing actions and consequences. Studies indicate that future oriented thought suggests people really see themselves participating in specific future events (Ingvar, 1984; Raynor, 1969). In fact, much of our daily thought is devoted to how we see ourselves performing in future events (Raynor, 1969). In sum, future-oriented cognition (e.g., FWS) is an important driver of motivation and achievement; it is related to many important outcomes at work (e.g., efficiency, industriousness, satisfaction) (Fried & Slowik, 2004; Raynor, 1969; Strobel et al., 2013).

In this dissertation, I explore how one's future focus manifests as a salient vision of one's future work self (FWS) as an antecedent to three workplace behaviors (i.e., job crafting, PCBs,

OCBs). All of these behaviors have naturally future oriented components. Job crafters seek meaning in their work based on actions today (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001); future focus is a core component of PCBs (Parker & Collins, 2010); the goal of OCBs is to increase performance and effectiveness going forward (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Multifinality: Feedback and Re-assessment

Multifinality suggests that individuals maximize decision value because they are incorporating a background (i.e., distal) goal while serving a temporal (i.e., proximal, focal) goal (Chun et al., 2011). As individuals initiate these behaviors at work, they continually monitor their progress. In addition to explicitly thinking about choices, much choice occurs subconsciously. Many studies have demonstrated the value of multifinality in goal priming which incorporates unconscious choices (Fishbach & Ferguson, 2007; Köpetz, et al., 2011; Morsella, Bargh, Gollwitzer 2009; Wilson & Nisbett, 1978).

Throughout this workplace cycle, people experience decision points that can affect their developmental trajectory (Park-Taylor & Vargas, 2012). These junctures provide opportunities for individuals to receive feedback by engaging in these work-related behaviors. Affirming activities will likely result in continued behaviors along that trajectory whereas undesirable feedback may result in a re-assessment of one's FWS. Multifinality helps us understand the connections between current activities and how they shape future opportunities.

For example, suppose an individual really enjoys playing team sports at the local recreation center. Also, suppose a work announcement comes out looking for people to play in a charity basketball tournament. In this instance, the worker may prefer to play basketball with workmates because it serves a desired focal goal (playing team sports) and allows the individual

to identify with his or her coworkers or supervisors, which may serve a distal goal of being promoted. Further, the charity aspect may serve as a distal goal because it falls in line with OCBs as a prosocial value. Because this one activity (i.e., means) accomplishes multiple ends, it is multifinal. In sum, multifinality implies that people engage in various behaviors not only based on current, proximal goals, but also because they can maximize value, given the individual's concomitant objectives in the situation, by serving more than one goal with their present actions (Chun et al., 2011).

Influence on Job Crafting

Employees are increasingly viewed as contingent workers responsible for their own career and life needs (Bridges, 1994; Okhuysen, Lepak, Labianca, & Steensma, 2013; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). This trend compels employees to shape their work and career trajectories (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafting is a dynamic process that allows employees to shape their jobs based solely on their preferences, knowledge, skills, and abilities (Berg et al., 2010). Following calls to examine antecedents that predict the occurrence and type of job crafting and the consequences for individual employees and entire organizations (Tims et al., 2012), I will add insight into how job crafting is initiated and why. I focus on the process-based account of job crafting and how it unfolds over time based on successes (or failures) people attribute to job crafting and the continual learning cycle that promotes feedback to the job crafter.

Extant theory suggests that job crafting is a continual process involving adjustments based on how employees view their future workplace opportunities (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010). Employees seek ways to overcome obstacles that preclude achieving their FWS goals. As people come closer to achieving their FWS, feedback from their crafting activities may motivate them to continue crafting and further shape their jobs in line with their FWS

(Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, the extent to which one traverses these career pathways remains unclear (Fuller & Marler, 2009). To understand fully which career pathways individuals choose and which factors influence these choices, I start by examining details about cognitive perceptions of where individuals expect to be in the future. By linking the research on FWS and including the stream of research on job crafting, I expect it to be a strong predictor of job crafting activities.

Because job crafting is centered around the individual employee, each person can redesign his or her job to feel more satisfied, engaged, and connected by considering only what brings personal meaning (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, & Rozin, 1997). Since individuals will engage in job crafting to achieve their goals, the more salient these future goals are, the more likely the person will craft his or her job. Stated more formally:

Hypothesis 1a: Future focus is positively related to job crafting such that individuals with a more salient (higher) future focus engage in more job crafting.

Proactive Career Behaviors (PCBs)

Proactivity is a key component of job crafting and is inherent in PCBs (Crant, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2010). Proactivity is often studied in contexts other than work such as extracurricular and other community supportive activities (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Buss & Finn, 1987). A proactive personality means individuals are more active in the world around them and involved in activities aimed at positive change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Further, individuals may be more proactive in an extracurricular event than at work. Therefore, instead of general proactive tendencies across all aspects of a person's life, I am interested in proactive behaviors only in the context of a work setting (i.e., PCBs). Context is important to understand the person-

situation interactions (Johns, 2006); it conveys the applications of a study more clearly (House, Rousseau, & Thomas-Hunt, 1995). Some studies have shown that proactive behaviors, in a work context (e.g., career planning, developing skills, seeking advice and training), influence successful career progress (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Seibert et al., 1999; Seibert et al., 2001) by incorporating career-related goals (Strauss et al., 2012).

Because individuals change jobs more frequently than before (Pfeffer & Barron, 1988) and today's jobs are more boundaryless (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), people must take a more active role in shaping their career paths. Ensuring future employability that aligns with one's values and FWS requires continual action and reassessment. Employee driven action to manage workplace behaviors breaks the traditional job design perspective in which managers dictated roles and responsibilities (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1980). These actions stem from the broader research indicating that proactivity, especially in workplace, helps employees manage their careers (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Career path planning, developing skills, setting and actively pursuing goals, building networks, and making coworkers and supervisors aware of work aspirations are some examples of proactive career behaviors.

Future focus is a core characteristic of PCBs (Parker & Collins, 2010) and having a salient vision of one's FWS allows a person to be flexible and adaptable while maintaining focus by engaging in PCBs that are directed towards achieving one's FWS (Ibarra, 1999). This allows individuals the freedom to assess and reshape their career trajectory based on feedback from various PCBs (Cross & Markus, 1991). Feedback helps one identify future requirements that helps direct a person to engage in PCBs that produce the best results (Kosslyn, 1987). Feedback creates mental stimulation such that people feel closer to their FWS and continue to generate

plans to achieve these outcomes (Taylor, Pham, Rivkin, & Armor, 1998). The mental connection between thinking about one's FWS and receiving feedback from PCBs puts a person in a frame of mind such that they can almost "feel" like they have already experienced their FWS. "Pre-experiencing" an event (Atance & O'Neill, 2001) helps an individual make FWS predictions more likely to materialize. As a result, there is a strong connection between one's FWS and PCBs. From this connection, identifying discrepancies that can be resolved via feedback makes one want to engage in more PCBs. Such discrepancies may stem from incongruities between one's current skill set and the requirements of a desired future position. To harmonize such mismatches, one may go to a training course to improve one's skills or seek feedback from a supervisor. PCBs close gaps between one's current and FWS by motivating a person to explore these possibilities. In doing so, tacit knowledge increases as do the meanings that come from these activities. As a continual cycle, each success becomes easier to internalize and allows a person to more readily act (i.e., engage in PCBs) on these salient future visions. This positive relationship between future focus and PCBs is well-established (Strauss et al., 2012), and I expect it to hold in this context as well. Stated formally:

Hypothesis 1b: Future focus is positively related to PCBs such that those with a more salient (higher) future focus are more likely to engage in PCBs.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)

In addition to taking initiative by engaging in PCBs, which directly relates to individual career path planning, employees also perform a variety of extra-role and helping behaviors, which collectively manifest as OCBs. Whereas PCBs are individually focused and often within the scope of one's job responsibilities, OCBs are typically targeted at others, including the organization (Organ & Ryan, 1995). With respect to OCB and PCB, job crafters are likely to

engage in OCBs or PCBs when they expect that, by altering their work boundaries in such a way, their work will become more meaningful to them. That is, individuals can engage in job crafting that is individually focused or they can incorporate job crafting activities with others in mind. OCBs contribute to the proper functioning of the collective workplace whereas PCBs are focused on individual enhancement. OCBs include volunteering for extra duties, helping others, ensuring people follow rules, and contributing to organizational effectiveness, regardless of convenience to the individual.

Proactivity is also a component of OCBs. Individuals may choose certain OCBs over others based on their future vision, underlying motives, or based on feedback from previous actions or interpretations of others' actions (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997; Rioux & Penner, 2001). These motives are largely based on a functional approach to behavior (actions based on goals and needs). Multifinality helps explain how goals and behaviors are connected because a multifinal approach does not assume behaviors serve only one goal; indeed, one action can serve multiple motives (or goals) (Rioux & Penner, 2001). OCBs also incorporate equifinality such that different motives can elicit many behaviors that accomplish the same goal.

There are three primary motives linked to OCBs. Prosocial values indicate the extent to which an individual is motivated to help others; organizational concern explains the motivation for an individual to find ways to increase organizational effectiveness and enhance the reputation of the organization; impression management explains that individuals may attempt to influence other people's perceptions of them to achieve rewards (Rioux & Penner, 2001).

By definition, OCBs have an inherently future-related component because the goal is to enhance organizational performance and effectiveness (Dewett & Denisi, 2007; Organ, 1988). OCBs aim to enact positive future change, which coincides with most work contexts because

they emphasize goal attainment (Podsakoff et al., 1990). When employees view their employment with a longer-term horizon (i.e., salient future focus), they engage in more OCBs (Joireman, Kamdar, Daniels, & Duell, 2006). Overall, I expect OCBs to be related positively to one's FWS vision.

Hypothesis 1c: Future focus is positively related to OCBs such that those with a more salient (higher) future focus engage in more OCBs.

Regulatory Focus

Regulatory focus theory explains that people aim to seek pleasure (i.e., get what they desire) and avoid pain (i.e., avoid undesired outcomes) (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004). Two foci explain contrasting RFT orientations: (1) seeking pleasure describes a promotion focus and (2) avoiding pain portrays a prevention focus (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Both perspectives are goal directed such that people seek to reduce discrepancies between their current work and future work (Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier, 2009). The difference is in which work-related behaviors a person chooses to complete in order to realize these goals.

Individuals with a promotion focus concentrate on hopes, aspirations, nurturance, and potential gains. Because goals are seen as hopes and aspirations, those with a promotion focus are eager to make progress and gain; they avoid making errors of *omission* (i.e., lack of accomplishments or failing to pursue all means of goal attainment) (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, 1997). Individuals with a prevention focus adhere to rules, responsibilities, obligations, and avoid losses. A prevention focus would induce individuals to ensure safety while avoiding losses. They strive to avoid errors of *commission* (i.e., making mistakes) by following rules and being careful during task completion. When focused on preventing losses, individuals are

attentive to potential mistakes and vigilant to counter any threats (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Grant, 2007)

Regulatory focus is a deep-rooted disposition influenced by early experiences, personality, or other traits (Wallace & Chen, 2006). Although these foci are not mutually exclusive, one's regulatory focus is generally stable (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). With this in mind, regulatory fit, then, is an ongoing subconscious process influencing the way a person evaluates a work situation (Higgins, 2000). It is a mechanism that induces behaviors that synchronize individuals with the demands of the environment (i.e., congruence between regulatory disposition and situation) (Camacho et al., 2003). Empirical findings supported this notion because when people were presented with a situation framed in a manner that fit with their regulatory disposition, they performed better on a task than those with an incongruent regulatory fit for the situation (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 1997; Shah, Higgins, & Friedman, 1998). For example, in Shah et al., (1998) participants received \$5 for completing a task. The incentive was manipulated such that one group automatically received \$4 and could earn the extra \$1 (i.e., promotion focused prompt) if they solved 90% of the given problems. The other group was told they would be given the full \$5 but would lose a dollar (i.e., prevention focused prompt) if they failed to solve 90% of the problems. Participants with higher level of fit (e.g., promotion focused given a promotion frame) performed better than those with a lack of fit. Further research in this area indicates people will (retrospectively) evaluate situations more positively when their fit is higher (Higgins, 2000). Fit congruence makes people feel like what they are doing is more valuable. Value translates into favorable work attitudes that increase the meaning gained from work (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). As people look back, they can analyze

the implications of their decisions (e.g., determine the extent to which they are closer to achieving their FWS) and use this feedback as a starting point for future situations.

Prior research has demonstrated that RFT is useful in explaining the relationships between personal dispositions and future performance related outcomes (Wallace & Chen, 2006). I incorporate RFT because these two foci translate future focus into different activities at work (Higgins 1997, 1998). I apply and test this theory to determine how it influences these three types of work related behaviors.

RFT and job crafting

On one hand, prevention-focused individuals pay more attention to rules and notice situational cues related to costs, losses, failures, and punishments (Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992; Neubert et al., 2008). Because these individuals are predisposed to value safety and follow rules, they are concerned simply with what they ought to do, especially in order to prevent any losses (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Thus, it is unlikely that those with a prevention focus will step outside the boundaries of their job to engage in job crafting. This is especially true since job crafting activities may or may not be authorized and could result in punishment or negative consequences (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). On the other hand, individuals concerned with advancement, gains, and accomplishment exhibit a promotion focus and look for ways to enhance their jobs. They seek positive outcomes and are more likely to change aspects of their jobs to become more satisfied and achieve their goals (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Thus, a promotion focus may induce an employee to actively engage in job crafting more so than a person with a prevention focus.

Hypothesis 2a: The influence of future focus on job crafting is moderated by promotion focus (but not by prevention focus) at work such that a higher promotion focus increases the positive relationship between future focus and job crafting.

RFT and PCBs

Proactive career behaviors occur when employees initiate, intervene, or perceive a situational cue that they can act upon or respond to in order to produce the best future career outcomes (Crant, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2009; Straus et al., 2012). Indeed, proactivity requires action oriented individuals to act directly instead of respond passively to imposed changes (Fryer & Payne, 1984). Because of the dynamic environment surrounding today's employment settings, people are proactively managing boundaryless careers by seeking skill development, extending networks, and explicitly considering future events while making career decisions (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998; Crant, 2000). This model of action aligns well with promotion-focused individuals because of the propensity to pursue future growth and advancement. Promotion-focused individuals aim to grow, achieve, and gain; they avoid maintaining the status quo (Neubert et al., 2008). Conversely, individuals with a prevention focus are responsive to security needs and seek to avoid negative outcomes (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Further, since personal initiative (e.g., proactivity) may involve challenging the status quo, which is not always perceived positively, individuals maintaining a prevention focus are not likely to be as proactive (Crant, 2000). Because a prevention focus increases the salience of negative outcomes, these individuals are likely to maintain the status quo, follow rules more carefully, and be more concerned with situational cues related to the present instead of looking for ways to enhance future career outcomes. Thus, I expect that one's regulatory focus will moderate the relationship between one's future focus and engaging in PCBs.

Hypothesis 2b: The influence of future focus on PCBs is moderated by promotion focus (but not by prevention focus) at work such that a higher promotion focus increases the positive relationship between future focus and PCBs.

RFT and OCBs

I empirically advance earlier theorizing (Dewett & Denisi, 2007; Moon et al., 2004; Strobel et al., 2013) on the relationship between the two types of regulatory focus – promotion focus and prevention focus – and OCBs. By definition, OCBs have a future-related component (Dewett & Denisi, 2007) because they are actions completed with the intent of advancing future performance, effectiveness, or functioning (Organ, 1988). Despite this understanding, very few studies (cf. Strobel et al., 2013) have connected one’s future focus and OCBs. I expect that individuals with a more salient FWS concept will be more likely to engage in OCBs, especially when they have a higher promotion-oriented focus. Research suggests that people that focus more on the future are likely to use self-regulatory efforts to influence their career (Strobel et al., 2013). In fact, by being able to visualize one’s possible future self, one can alter current activities to bridge the gap between one’s current and future self (Karniol & Ross, 1996; Markus & Nurius, 1986). As noted, individuals with a more salient FWS (i.e., higher FWS scores) will likely have a promotion focus and look for creative ways to gain, seek pleasure from, and receive desirable outcomes at work. Conversely, those with a prevention focus will have a less salient FWS, and will be more concerned with adhering to norms, rules, and looking for ways to maintain safety and security. Therefore, my study integrates one’s FWS with RFT to test the moderating effect of how one’s future focus influences OCBs.

Hypothesis 2c: The influence of future focus on OCBs is moderated by promotion focus (but not by prevention focus) at work such that a higher promotion focus increases the positive relationship between future focus and OCBs.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Overview

Before I began collecting data, I obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Alabama. Each participant received an informed consent document (ICD) that explained the participant's rights. Participants were only allowed to continue if they understood and agreed with the ICD. Surveys were completed via a secure third party website (i.e., Qualtrics) contracted through the University of Alabama. I used a mixed methods approach to connect research from three studies, involving both quantitative and qualitative analyses. This incorporated multiple approaches to answer the research questions and did not constrain research options (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007). By using a triangulated approach (Bluhm, Harman, Lee, & Mitchell, 2011), these studies became inclusive and complementary of one another. In fact, most research questions are best answered through mixed methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

In Study 1, I collected surveys from individuals in hospitality companies because of the variety of jobs, skills, and expertise within these companies. For example, most have divisions that, at a minimum, include sales, engineering, maintenance, transportation, food & beverage, cleaning, and clerical work. This study tested the relationships in Figure 2. My goal was to focus on deduction and hypotheses confirmation in order to predict and explain the ways people make changes to present day tasks in order to alter their career trajectory.

In Study 2, I used small focus groups to analyze how individuals use current tasks as a means to achieve focal and distal goals (i.e., multifinality) and how it relates to one's FWS. The focus groups consisted of science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) undergraduate students. This purposeful sample complements the sample in Study 1 because it focused on individuals just beginning their careers. Students, especially in these highly technical fields, are developing their skills and networks in order to provide the basis for subsequent employability in highly competitive job markets (Strauss et al., 2012). Since these students are proactive and typically committed to their career fields, they provide a rich depiction of career aspirations and alterations in today's job characteristics in order to approach their FWS (Keller, 1997; Page, 1998). This qualitative study helped me understand the meaning of individuals' actions. By emphasizing the context within which these activities occur, I improved the understanding of one's career path with respect to these work-related behaviors. Using a qualitative method to complement Study 1 provided a more process-based understanding of how and why people engage in these work-related behaviors, which is useful to practitioners and researchers alike (Merriam, 1998).

Finally, in Study 3, I interviewed basketball coaches to gather descriptions of their workplace behaviors and goals (Kvale, 1983). Interviews and small focus groups allow individuals to elaborate on their FWS and explain the complexities of the multiple elements involved (Strauss et al., 2012). This generated openness and depth based on relevant information and feedback the participants provided that led to their future behaviors. In fact, understanding how one changes tasks to coincide with future career plans is not directly answerable by empirical research (Maxwell, 1996; 2005). These questions have an inherent value component (i.e., openness, depth, understanding) that is hard to tap directly from survey questions. Thus,

Study 3 provided a well-rounded understanding of one's future self and directly contributed to the practical purposes implied in the previous two studies.

Taken together, these studies are a mixed-methods (collecting and analyzing qualitative and quantitative data) approach (Creswell, Plano-Clark, Gutman, & Hanson, 2003) that allowed me to combine the findings in order to provide stronger evidence for the relationships I found. Indeed, a tenet of mixed methods research is to mindfully create research designs that converge on answering research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). My mixed-methods approach (i.e., incorporating quantitative and qualitative designs) allowed me to add words, pictures, and narratives (Study 2 and 3) to the numbers from Study 1.

There are numerous benefits to this approach. First, combining quantitative and qualitative studies allowed me to contribute a broader and more complete understanding of the relationships in my model. Second, strengths in one method can overcome shortfalls in other methods. For example, where the quantitative study may not reflect complete attitudes toward one's FWS or the exact activities one envisions as these work-related behaviors, the qualitative studies allowed participants to elaborate on their meaning in depth. Third, using a triangulation approach added insights that may have been missed with only one method (Hossler & Vesper, 1993). Fourth, by having various studies with diverse samples, these results are more generalizable. Finally, using qualitative and quantitative studies in conjunction produced a more complete understanding, which should translate into more advanced theory and better information for practitioners (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Sample Description and Procedure

In Study 1, I conducted a survey of hospitality employees from two companies. I surveyed hospitality employees for Study 1 for a variety of reasons. First, I was granted in depth access, facilitated through personal contacts. Second, this industry is well known—represented in every country in the world—and similar across geographic regions (i.e., cities, states, and countries) with a diverse set of workers (Slattery, 2002). Finally, there was variation in the data on typical demographic variables (e.g., age, tenure, gender, ethnicity), which I used as control variables to test if these variables affected one's FWS or one's propensity to engage in work-related behaviors. The mean age was 37.7 years ($SD = 12.7$), and the mean tenure in the current job was 2.6 years ($SD = 2.7$). About 20% of the respondents have been working in their current job for less than six months and 21% have been working there for more than five years. On average, respondents worked 35.8 hour per week ($SD = 12.8$) and 62.6% were female.

To ensure I could detect the effects in my hypothesized model, I used an a priori sample size calculator to conduct a power analysis. To calculate the sample size needed, I used the calculators found at <http://danielsoper.com/statcalc3/category.aspx?id=19>. For a hierarchical regression analysis, the minimum sample size needed was 49, assuming an effect size of 0.35, statistical power of 0.80, three control variables, six predictor variables, and a probability level of 0.05. For a structural equation model, the minimum recommended sample size to detect a medium effect (e.g., 0.3) is 82, and the recommended size was 132 (Cohen, 1988, 1992). This included a statistical power level of 0.80, with 16 latent variables, 57 observed variables, and a probability level of 0.05.

The literature is mixed on the best method for selecting an appropriate sample size for any empirical analysis. There are many reasons for this and, to name a few, sample size is

dependent on factors in the model and model size, variable distributions, missing data, reliability of variables, and correlations among variables and factors (Muthén & Muthén, 2002). On one hand, a ratio of 5:1 is recommended for the sample size to free parameters (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Cohen, 1988). On the other hand, several cases per observed variable may be sufficient (Bollen, 1989; Satorra & Saris, 1985). Recent studies based on Monte Carlo simulations recommend using an indicator to latent variable approach (Westland, 2010). The estimate I obtained from the Daniel Soper website follows this third approach. Overall, to be conservative and ensure I had the best chance of detecting the hypothesized effects, I collected data from 183 people.

Procedure

I went to each location to oversee the data collection. All respondents were given the opportunity to complete the survey online or by paper. Each person had a unique identification number in order to assure all responses were confidential and anonymous to other coworkers and supervisors. Participation was voluntary and anyone was allowed to withdraw from the survey at any point, although no one did. There was no incentive for completing the survey nor any penalties for declining to complete the survey or withdrawing from it. In addition, each question had an option where the respondent could decline to respond but still complete the other items on the survey.

I worked with human resource (HR) departments to verify demographic data (e.g., age, tenure, income, job position) on the participants and to confirm only adults were allowed to participate in these studies. Collecting this data from archival systems indicated how accurate the respondents' self-reported demographic data was; there was a 100% match. Using multiple sources decreases chances for errors, reduces biases (e.g., common method bias), and increases

accuracy (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

I coordinated the survey dates and times with the general manager (GM) of each organization and ensured all participants read and understood the ICD. The GM provided me with an employee list which included demographic information. I had laptops available for computer-based surveys and paper copies if needed. As noted, all participants received a unique survey code identifier, which allowed them to enter their responses without fear of anyone (e.g., coworkers, supervisors, subordinates) knowing how they responded. The GM and senior level staff (i.e., directors of each business unit) allowed employees to complete the surveys during work hours that fit their schedule. I scheduled survey collections during one week for each organization to ensure all employees had the opportunity to participate because of the different shifts and other operational constraints (e.g., busy time, sick workers, turnover) that came up. I was available during all data collection periods. I introduced myself, ensured all respondents were aware of the purpose of the study, and explained that I was available to answer any questions pertaining to the survey. I reiterated the confidentiality and anonymity of responses and reminded the participants that they could stop or withdraw at any time.

After each survey collection period, I downloaded the output from the web-based repository. From there, I recoded the reverse coded items such that high values correspond to high levels of each variable of interest. The survey tracked the number of clicks per page and how much time an individual spent on each page. I did not find any problematic (e.g., rushed or contradictory answers) or inaccurate (e.g., if verifiable through HR records) data to correct or remove.

Measures

Future Work Self Salience ($\alpha = .83$). The FWS survey opened with a statement that asked participants to mentally travel into the future and imagine their future work. Consistent with the FWS literature, I did not specify a time because I wanted the participants to naturally pick a salient time for themselves (Strauss et al., 2012). I used the three items in a unidimensional scale from King and colleagues and two items from Strauss and colleagues (King & Patterson, 2000; King & Raspin, 2004; King & Smith, 2004; Strauss et al., 2012). King and colleagues demonstrated reliabilities from .65 to .83. The two items added by Strauss et al., (2012) improved the internal reliability in their study to .92. The two added items were “I am very clear about who and what I want to become in my future work” and “What type of future I want in relation to my work is very clear in my mind.” Respondents selected how much they agreed with each statement (1 = “Strongly disagree.” 5 = “Strongly agree.”).

Job crafting (α for each subscale Task. = .85, Cog. = .90, Rel. = .79). Extant literature indicates that job crafting is a three dimensional construct composed of cognitive, task, and relational boundaries that represent a three factor structure (Leana et al., 2009; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The overall job crafting scale consists of 15 items and each sub-dimension consists of five items (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). This portion of the survey was introduced with a statement about what job crafting is and that it could consist of making subtle changes to one’s work boundaries. For example, the statement indicated that job crafting gives employees an opportunity to make their work more meaningful. These opportunities might consist of changing work tasks to increase enjoyment or finding ways to interact with coworkers more often. In addition, job crafting may involve viewing one’s work such that it seems like it has a better purpose. Respondents selected how often they engage in job crafting activities (1 = “Never.” 5 = “Very often.”).

Proactive career behavior (α for each subscale CP = .90, PSD = .80, CC =.82).

Proactive career behavior was operationalized by using 10 of the 13 items combined by Strauss et al., (2012). These items were previously combined by Claes and Ruiz-Quintanilla (1998) and originated from Bachman, O'Maley, and Johnston (1978) and Penley and Gould (1981). These studies used four types of PCBs (career planning [CP], proactive skill development [PSD], career consultation [CC], and networking) whereas my study used only the first three because job crafting (the relational dimension) captures the networking aspect of PCBs. Respondents selected how much they agree with each statement (1 = "Strongly disagree." 5 = "Strongly agree.").

Regulatory Focus (α = promotion = .76 prevention = .84). I used the 18 item scale developed by Neubert et al., (2008) in this study. This is a two dimensional scale; the first nine items are expected to load on the prevention factor and the remaining nine items on the promotion factor. Respondents selected their agreement with each statement (1 = "Strongly disagree." 5 = "Strongly agree.").

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (α for each subscale OC = .86 , PV = .90 , IM = .82). OCBs were operationalized with the three highest loading items from the scales used in Rioux and Penner (2001). The dimensions for this scale include, organizational concern (OC), prosocial values (PV), and impression management (IM). This stems from a scale developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). Respondents were asked how important each statement is to them (1 = "Not at all important." 5 = "Extremely important.").

Control Variables

I collected common demographic variables such as age, gender, ethnic background, education level, and marital status. Based on previous research, (cf. Berg et al., 2010; Strauss et

al., 2012; Strobel et al., 2013) I asked respondents to provide their current tenure, years worked in their lifetimes, hours worked per week, number of jobs currently held, job title/position, primary job status, and salary. I used those variables as my primary controls because it is likely that younger individuals have a longer future and more ideas of how their career paths may change over time. Individuals that have been working for many years (i.e., older or more tenured) may be closer to their FWS and not need to engage in as many work-related behaviors. In addition, these individuals may have a better or more realistic understanding of where their career will culminate. Research indicates higher-rank employees adapt to what they expect of themselves whereas lower-rank employees adapt their work-related behaviors to what they think others expect of them (Berg et al., 2010). Thus, I expect that individuals with higher salaries may not need to exhibit as many work-related behaviors because they may be in a position that previous work-related behaviors helped them to achieve. However, I will test for differences across all categories and present any significant results.

Study 1 provided empirical results to test my hypotheses. The results indicated how individuals engage in work-related behaviors to alter their career trajectories and explained how one's regulatory focus interacts with one's FWS salience and the work-related behaviors. However, these data are not enough. To understand the meaning of these variables, a qualitative approach, using inductive methods, was warranted. I allowed participants to expand on their life events, situations, and actions that accounted for their experiences and projections. By allowing participants to elaborate, I gathered important information with respect to the context within which individuals frame workplace decisions and how regulatory focus influenced their actions. Study 2 did just this; it gave me a preliminary career perspective from individuals at the cusp of

their work professions. In essence, Study 2 built upon Study 1 because it detailed the *process* by which FWS explains how and why individuals engaged in these behaviors (Merriam, 1998).

Analysis Overview

I used multiple hierarchical regression and structural equation modeling to analyze the empirical data after the exploratory and confirmatory analysis outlined below. For the qualitative analysis of data, I took iterative steps between theoretical ideas and interviews which ensured sound results. I outline the specific qualitative details in the sections that follow the explanation of the quantitative methods.

Study 1 Analysis

Exploratory and Confirmatory Analysis

To analyze convergent and discriminant validity among the latent constructs, I employed factor analysis. Although some of these constructs (e.g., regulatory focus, OCBs) have been analyzed in numerous studies, others (e.g., FWS, PCBs) have not been rigorously analyzed to determine a consistent factor structure. Therefore, I used both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to ensure that the items loaded on the appropriate latent constructs.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). An EFA offers preliminary guidance for a scale's validity. To confirm the factor structure of the items in each scale, I used principal axis factoring (PAF) with an oblimin rotation, and exclude cases listwise. For completeness, I also ran each EFA by selecting the option to exclude cases pairwise and replace with mean in SPSS to ensure there were no issues with how I handled the missing data. I viewed the pattern matrix and ensured each factor had more than one item loading on it, and that each item loaded on only one factor (i.e., no cross or double loadings) above |0.40|. I initially used the SPSS default (i.e., Kaiser's rule) that extracts factors based on Eigenvalues > 1. Because relying solely on

Eigenvalues > 1 can induce fundamental problems in analyses, I viewed the scree plot, and ran a parallel analysis to confirm the factor structures. If a parallel analysis had indicated that a different factor structure was appropriate, I would have used values that are above the 95 percentile cutoff. However, since I used a large number of cases, the factor structure of all the scales was clear. For each scale, I used the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. KMO ranges from 0 to 1 and is adequate above 0.5. Bartlett's test compares the correlation matrix to an identity matrix for equivalence; it tests if the correlations between the items are large enough for factor analysis to be appropriate (Field, 2013). If this measure is significant (i.e., below 0.05) then it is unlikely that an identity matrix exists and factor analysis is appropriate (Field, 2013; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). I also examined the anti-image matrices and ensured the values along the diagonal were above 0.5 (Field, 2013). An iterative approach suggests that problematic items that did not load or cross loaded should be dropped and the factor structure be re-assessed to ensure it is accurate for the constructs I tested (Field, 2013). For example, the literature indicates the FWS scale is unidimensional (King & Patterson, 2000; King & Raspin, 2004; King & Smith, 2004; Strauss et al., 2012). Since the sample size should be large, I viewed the communalities as well. A one-factor solution is warranted if the communalities are > 0.6 and values below these prescribed levels should be removed to ensure a clean factor solution (Field, 2013).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA is a form of structural equation modeling (SEM) that determines the amount of variance explained in the factors based on each item; it determines a goodness of fit between a hypothesized factor structure and the observed, sample data. I checked the factor loadings and squared multiple correlations (SMC) for each factor. Doing this indicates how well the model fits the data based on the relative degree of correlation

among constructs. Measurement model fit is necessary in order to use a structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The significance of the estimated pattern coefficient on the underlying construct factor indicates convergent validity and comparing constrained (i.e., setting one estimated correlation parameter to 1.0) and unconstrained constructs indicates discriminant validity when the χ^2 value is significantly lower in the unconstrained model (Jöreskog, 1971). Discriminant validity is achieved because the traits would not seem perfectly correlated (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982).

I first determined the fit of the measurement model. I expected 12 latent constructs in my model or 16 latent constructs with four of these being higher order constructs. The four higher order constructs were: (1) regulatory focus, (2) job crafting, (3) PCBs, and (4) OCBs. Regulatory focus is comprised of two dimensions: promotion and prevention focus. Job crafting includes three dimensions: task, relational, and cognitive crafting. PCBs involve three dimensions: career planning, proactive skill development, and career consultation. OCBs include three dimensions: organizational concern, prosocial values, and impression management. Finally, I expect FWS to be unidimensional. All of these latent constructs had three or more items (i.e., indicators) which is required for an identified model (Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998; Kline, 2011; Rigdon, 1995). I used a maximum likelihood estimation process to assess the discriminant validity of each construct. Thus, I ran the CFA with my expected factor structure and compared it to other factor structures such as a one factor or other structure that seemed reasonable and theoretically justified. As a preferred method, I fixed the variance of all the factors to 1.0 (i.e., fixing the diagonal of the phi matrix to 1.0) in order to test the significance of pattern coefficients (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Gerbing & Hunter, 1982). For ease of interpretation, I fixed the value of one of the indicators (i.e., the first one listed was set to 1.0 by

default and then I changed the highest loading indicator to 1.0 so none of them was above 1.0) for each latent construct to 1.0 for standardization which set the metric variances of the factors (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). I based the model fit on the output, which includes χ^2 CFI, TLI, RMSEA, SRMR, and a p-value as the most commonly used measures (Bentler, 1990; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Tucker & Lewis, 1973). However, I checked other measures of fit (e.g., NFI, NNFI, GFI) in conjunction with this model based on theoretical and/or empirical reasons (Byrne, 1994). To determine fit, χ^2 (chi-squared) should be non-significant because such a value indicates that my observed results are not significantly different from what I expected (Hoyle, 1995). However, chi-squared is susceptible to sample size and trivial differences between observed and predicted matrices. Thus, a significant chi-squared value is not a cause for great concern because CFI and other fit indices should be at least 0.90 and preferably above 0.95 (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2006). The RMSEA accounts for the error of approximation in the population and tests if the model fit to a population covariance matrix if it was available (Byrne, 2010). RMSEA should be below 0.05 for great results, less than 0.08 for good results, and under 0.10 for adequate results (although 0.08 is a generally considered the upper limit for an acceptable RMSEA). For SRMR, 0.06 is typically a maximum cutoff value. I examined the residuals, modification indices, stem and leaf plots, average variance extracted, composite reliability, and other output, which ensured the model was appropriate. I did not find any theoretically justifiable reasons to remove or modify any items based on empirical results (Levine, Hullett, Turner, & Lapinski, 2006). When I compared models (e.g., a one vs. multiple factors), I looked at the change in chi-squared (i.e., $\Delta\chi^2$) and change in the degrees of freedom (i.e., Δdf). I found that my hypothesized factor model fit better than any other model and

confirmed this because the resulting change in chi-squared was significant ($p < 0.05$) indicating that other models were significantly different.

Regression Analysis

To test the incremental validity of my model, I used hierarchical multiple regression. First, I entered control variables (e.g., age, tenure) that could be potential confounds. Age could play a strong role in determining how one views his or her future work self. For example, individuals close to retirement may have achieved their FWS or a FWS may not be salient or relevant to them. A similar argument can be made for tenure. For example, individuals who have worked for the same organization for a long time may be happy with their roles, could already be as high as they wanted to go in the organization, or may have limited job mobility (e.g., Ellemers, de Gilder, & van den Heuvel, 1998; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Topel, 1990) which may affect the degree of FWS salience or outcome variables in my model. I entered the predictor variable, FWS, as the second step. Then I entered the moderator, regulatory focus, into the model. Finally, I included the interaction terms after centering the independent variable (IV) and the moderator. With hierarchical analysis, the standardized beta coefficients, R^2 , ΔR^2 , p-values, and F statistics are provided. The interaction plot displays high and low levels of the moderator. I tested the simple slopes to ensure they were significantly different from zero.

To confirm the data did not violate any standard regressions assumptions and conformed to other acceptable standards, I ran various diagnostic tests. For example, I investigated the collinearity diagnostics and the variance inflation factors (VIF); all were near one, which is less than 10—a common cutoff for VIF—and even less than a more stringent cutoff of five (Cohen, Cohen, West, Aiken, 2003; Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1989). The condition index (CI) and

variance proportion (VP) for each variable were within acceptable limits (i.e., $CI < 15$ or no more than two VPs > 0.50). A histogram of the regression-standardized residuals (RSRs) indicated normality as did normal P-P plot, and a scatter plot of the RSRs and predicted values appeared in a normal pattern. I did not expect (or find) any of the residuals to have undue leverage on the data or a value inconsistent with expectations of influence based on Mahalanobis, Cooke's, DFFIT, CVR, SDBETA, or any other residual statistics (e.g., raw, standardized, or studentized). I reviewed details on coefficients, collinearity, and residuals to ensure the data conformed to the abovementioned expected ranges.

Sample Description and Procedure

Study 2 builds on Study 1 because it emphasized the processes that led to the outcomes I found in Study 1. This study explored how people view their careers and the processes that connect these views; it is an analysis of causal processes where some events (i.e., one's FWS salience) influence others (i.e., work-related behaviors) (Maxwell, 2005). For Study 2, I conducted focus groups with STEM and business students. Focus group participants are more stimulated and can provide rich experiences with an elaboration of details (Bristol & Fern, 1996; Kidd & Parshall, 2000). Focus groups help researchers triangulate data from multiple participants with a similar context related to the constructs under investigation. The focus groups included junior and senior college students, committed to the STEM program, seeking careers in technical fields (e.g., engineering, science). One time should be sufficient because I do not expect the students' future goals and career aspirations to change much while they are in their programs; these students are typically more committed to their programs as is (Keller, 1997). Further, it is impractical to reconvene the same focus group and, if it is possible, the group dynamics are not the same (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Finally, while Study 1

encompassed a wide range of ages and other demographic variables, Study 2 focused on the rich, process data of actual events driving specific outcomes (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

I used a student sample in Study 2 because the way they see future opportunities is an integral part of their transition from school to work. Students in these highly skilled fields are prototypical examples of knowledge workers (Strauss et al., 2012) and are generally more committed to their tasks, career opportunities, and organizations (Keller, 1997). Therefore, students can provide insight into knowledge jobs that complement the data from the hospitality staff and are applicable to many careers (Page, 1998). Moreover, it helped ensure that I analyzed a broad spectrum of age groups across my studies. This is important because age is a potential confound since the applicability of these behaviors in connection with one's FWS may change over time (Nurmi, 1992).

One of the main benefits of a focus groups study is that the participants are all experiencing the same situation that is the focus of the interview (Merton & Kendall, 1946). This fits well in Study 2 because my interview protocol was based, in part, on what I found in Study 1. I elicited information relevant to my research questions and hypotheses (Kidd & Parshall, 2000). Another benefit of focus groups is that they help develop a theoretical understanding of processes (e.g., cognitive, behavioral, environmental) involved with one's FWS.

Procedure

Having established that one's FWS leads to work-related behaviors in Study 1, I determined how important these links were in the context of becoming one's FWS and how feedback plays an integral part in this process in Study 2. I worked with colleagues who are teaching undergraduate students in the science, technology, engineering, math (i.e., STEM

disciplines), and business fields at a large public university in the southern U.S. I recruited students out of these classes to participate in a focus group study. I explained the purpose of the study and allowed the students to provide contact information to participate. Next, I contacted the students that signed up and conducted the focus groups. Each focus group had two or three people and lasted about an hour. Smaller groups gave each person enough time to respond and provide enough depth with multiple experiences (Edmunds, 1999; Greenbaum, 1998). Once the focus group convened, I gave each person time to read the ICD, ask questions, and withdraw if desired. After that, I started the focus group by reminding the participants that, although I was recording the audio of the session, everything would be kept confidential and anonymous. I collected basic demographic information such as age, gender, major, year of study (e.g., junior, senior), and ethnic background. I used the focus group interview protocol (see appendix) to guide my questioning. I managed the time and questions such that each person had an adequate time to respond and stayed on topic. I encouraged all participants to respond and elaborate. I managed responses by letting the conversation flow freely and asking specific questions to participants as necessary. For example, when relevant but incomplete answers were given, I posed follow-up questions to engender participants to elaborate. Throughout the session, I managed responses and followed the interview protocol to ensure the discussion was relevant and pertained to the constructs of interest.

After each focus group concluded, I took notes (Miles & Huberman, 1984) to help me connect the constructs based on the responses I received. I edited the interview protocol, as needed, to ensure I collected rich data that was not redundant. From there, I began qualitative content analysis to ensure the data was appropriate for full analyses. I made protocol changes based on the preliminary results and incorporated the changes into future focus group sessions.

I took short hand notes (noting time, speaker and question) on any response that needed to be post-processed on the audio tapes and clarified anything that I suspected would be problematic on the recording. At the end of each session, I addressed any remaining questions and clarified any uncertainties in responses. After each focus group was dismissed, I wrote down everything I remembered (i.e., created memos) from the session (Miles & Huberman, 1994). These memos helped me recall the context and details that may not be as obvious when reviewing the tapes and analyzing the responses later.

Using the focus groups to uncover how people expected their current tasks to alter their career trajectory and, ultimately, reach their FWS was an excellent foundation for Study 3. I was immersed in the actions (i.e., work-related behaviors) and events as participants described them. I asked specific interview questions that would help me use the results from Study 2 to triangulate and find answers to the research questions. The observations from these interviews built on the previous studies and provided a more complete and accurate account than any one method could by itself.

Study 2: Analysis

I used NVIVO 11 for qualitative content analysis involving multiple, iterative steps for Study 2 (Charmax, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967, 2009; Sonenshein, 2014). With the focus group interview data, I categorized the data as I progressed (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). I used an iterative process as I searched for content that fits expected categories (i.e., nodes) and allowed emergent themes to come from the data (Locke, 2001). This gave me a more refined focus on what paths people took to manage their careers and how feedback made them reassess their steps (i.e., how they incorporated equifinality and multifinality as they progressed). I reviewed the interview transcripts and session notes to uncover new categories or

ideas that coincided with any new findings. I continued this process until I had the first order codes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) which indicated that continued refinement would not yield many new insights (Sonenshein 2014). With the first order codes itemized, I found second order (i.e., axial coding) codes to help identify categories and concepts that relate to the initial codes, which may convert them to higher order categories (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Glaser & Strauss, 1967, 2009; Maxwell, 2005; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This required me to go back and forth between the data and literature to ensure that my data represented the constructs in this particular context (Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013). In sum, the first order categories were refined into second order themes. These categories and themes were denoted by overall aggregate dimensions that represented the data, in this context, and were elaborating the theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, 2009; Sonenshein, 2014).

Since a primary goal of focus group analysis is to group data that is similar in order to better understand how theory can be applied (Kidd & Parshall, 2000), I sorted statements as they applied to the broad topics, the particular focus group, or individually held viewpoints. I sorted the transcripts by individuals and groups to check how much each individual contributed (Kidd & Parshall, 2000). I set cut-off points to preclude redundant material for anything that was tangential to the core topics of discussion. This reduced over-coding idiosyncratic discussion points that were not shared by many participants and were not consistent with the theory. To address these issues, all transcripts and participants were coded uniquely. This allowed me to search for data on one individual, a particular group, a specific keyword, topic, phrase, or content that was relevant to preclude any perceived or evident biases.

I tailored the questions based on participants' responses in order to gain the most insightful and useful information. This improved the value of the responses, kept participants

engaged, and tapped experiences relevant to the focal constructs. Gathering data that is similar across focus groups supported content validity (Kidd & Parshall, 2000). Qualitative data shows construct validity if the pattern of discriminant and convergent connections in the themes are similar to findings from other sources.

To determine the reliability of the data I coded, I used an iterative, multi-step process. I assessed both, intrarater and interrater reliability, and calculated two interrater reliability statistics (i.e., Cohen's kappa and Krippendorff's alpha). After a few months passed, I recoded a randomly selected sample of the data to assess intrarater reliability (i.e., comparing my coding the first time to my coding a second time) (Conger, 1998; Erdener & Dunn, 1990; Schilling, 2006) and worked with researchers knowledgeable on these constructs to develop a common understanding of the categories. To facilitate the interrater reliability of this study and enhance its reproducibility, I had four independent raters (current PhD students in management or recent PhD graduates with experience and knowledge of the constructs in this study) code the content by also using NVIVO 11. This allowed me to give each independent rater detailed definitions (i.e., coding instructions or rules) of all the constructs and many examples of text that fit into each category or node as their sole guide to coding the data (Krippendorff, 2012). The raters were allowed to code the data as they saw fit based on the coding instructions. This included the flexibility to assign content to more than one category or create new categories as warranted. There was a "general" category that raters used to place content they thought fit somewhere but were unsure which category was the best fit. I clarified those items with an iterative approach by discussing the material with the raters, by referring to the coding guide, and by finding references in the literature to guide where the content fit best. Once we resolved all cases of

doubt and reviewed any content that was not categorized (i.e., misfit analysis), the raters completed coding and all of the coding was analyzed to ensure reliability.

To capture interrater reliability, I implemented the coding comparison feature in NVIVO 11 to calculate Cohen's kappa, which measures the interrater reliability for two individuals (or groups) coding qualitative data (Cohen, 1960). Kappa is a standard measure that is useful because it takes into account more than just the percentage of agreement; it accounts for agreement that could happen by chance (Cohen, 1960; Fleiss, 1971). Kappa is calculated by assessing the amount of content that could have been identically coded by chance, how much of the content was coded by one rater and not the other, and then by dividing out how much material was coded net of the amount expected by chance.

More formally, kappa is denoted by equation 1 below.

Equation 1: Cohen's Kappa

$$\kappa = \frac{\rho_o - \rho_e}{1 - \rho_e} = 1 - \frac{1 - \rho_o}{1 - \rho_e}$$

ρ_o is the relative observed agreement among raters

ρ_e is the hypothetical probability of chance agreement, using the observed data to calculate the probabilities of each observer randomly saying each category

Kappa alone may not be sufficient because research indicates that kappa does not allow raters to be interchangeable, is defined more like a correlation, and may be inflated by systematic disagreements (Brennan & Prediger, 1981; Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Zwick, 1988). In addition, because kappa is limited to comparisons between two raters (or two groups of raters), it is not as useful when comparing many raters. Therefore, I incorporated Krippendorff's alpha as a reliability statistic for qualitative content analysis (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Krippendorff, 1970, 2004). Although alpha accounts for agreement by chance (like kappa), it calculates disagreements instead of correcting for percentage agreements (cf. Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007;

Krippendorff, 2004, 2012). In addition, alpha is beneficial because, unlike other specialized coefficients, it can be used with any numbers of raters (not just two), on any type of category, scale, or measure, is applicable to any level or measurement (nominal, ordinal, ratio, etc...), accounts for missing or incomplete data, and works with any sample size (Krippendorff, 2004, 2012).

Kappa can be reported at the category (node) level or for the entire content; I analyzed both levels of interrater reliability. To calculate alpha, I used a macro for SPSS provided by Hayes & Krippendorff, (2007) with 1000 bootstrap samples. The output uses a bootstrapping approach (cf. Efron & Tibshirani, 1998; Mooney & Duval, 2003) to determine the true value of alpha—applied to everything instead of a subsample coded by raters—and presents the probability that the score calculate for true alpha is acceptable (i.e., above 0.70 or other limit) (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007). In the SPSS output, alpha is reported with a 95% confidence interval and a probability table displaying the chance alpha falls below each of six typical thresholds (i.e., 0.9, 0.8, 0.7, 0.67, 0.6, and 0.5). This allowed me to view a probability that alpha for this data reached a certain level of reliability.

Study 2 investigated individuals at the cusp of their professional careers. It provided keen insight into the mindsets of workers entering their careers. Since young workers are only a portion of the total workforce, I complemented my research with Study 3 to assess a variety of workers at varying points in their careers. Consistent findings across these groups supported the validity of my research.

Sample Description and Procedure

In Study 3, I interviewed coaches at various athletic departments across the United States. I expected that coaches would share a variety of experiences because they all want (or wanted) to become head coaches (i.e., coaches have a distinct FWS and career path). They are constantly involved in skill development, building relationships, and seeking proactive ways to become a head coach; I anticipated coaches to be an excellent source for data connecting FWS to the work-related behaviors. Coaches are keenly aware of their current trajectory and what will allow them to change this trajectory in order to get the job they want (i.e., a job at a particular school or particular position at any school).

Procedure

Based on previous work relationships, I contacted athletic directors, coaches, and support staff at various schools across the country. Next, I conducted one on one, recorded (audio only; everything kept anonymous and confidential) interviews with those willing to participate. Each interviewee reviewed the ICD and was allowed time for questions before starting the interview. Like Study 2, I followed the interview protocol (i.e., individual interview protocol found in the Appendix) while encouraging elaboration based on these constructs and analyzed the recorded data in the same manner. There is a point of diminishing returns in qualitative analysis; more data does not necessarily mean new or better information (Mason, 2010). I followed the concept of saturation (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and concluded interviews when I felt that collecting more data would be repetitive or superfluous. I reached the saturation point after about 20 interviews. However, I interviewed several other coaches to confirm I was receiving repetitive information (Maxwell, 2005).

Study 3: Analysis

I used an iterative approach (as in Study 2) to gain understanding of the responses in Study 3. I used the interview protocol, discussed above and found in the Appendix, to provide a semi-structured framework to examine my model. As in Study 2, I took notes immediately after each interview and reviewed my notes, along with the audio tapes and transcriptions, as soon as they became available. I identified the relationships between variables in the model and used many cycles of comparing the data by developing codes for responses (Berg et al., 2010; Miles & Huberman, 1994). I used a “start list” of codes based on my model that are rooted in theory from previous studies (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Even though I used a “start list” based on existing theory, I developed other codes inductively as I analyzed the data; the coding was all grounded in the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, 2009). My analysis was tailored to the understanding of these data and I cross-referenced the data to retain its original context. As I noticed patterns in the data, I dimensionalized the responses and recoded them based on similar properties or relevant themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This included extracting quotes that pertain specifically to each construct and parsing the quotes into categories or subcategories. I analyzed the data until no new themes were evident.

I created matrices from these data to identify patterns, comparisons, trends, and/or relationships. After I completed the steps above, I re-read the interviews and completed short interview summaries. The purpose of these summaries was to identify threads that connected interviews, which gave me context for quotes to use in the results section of this dissertation. Although I analyzed all of the interviews (focus groups and individuals) as a whole, I also compared the interviews from the focus groups with individuals to appreciate similarities, differences, trends, and cycles. In sum, I created memos and notes and categorized (coding and

thematic analysis) and contextualized (uncover narratives and quotes) the interview data (Maxwell, 1996, 2005).

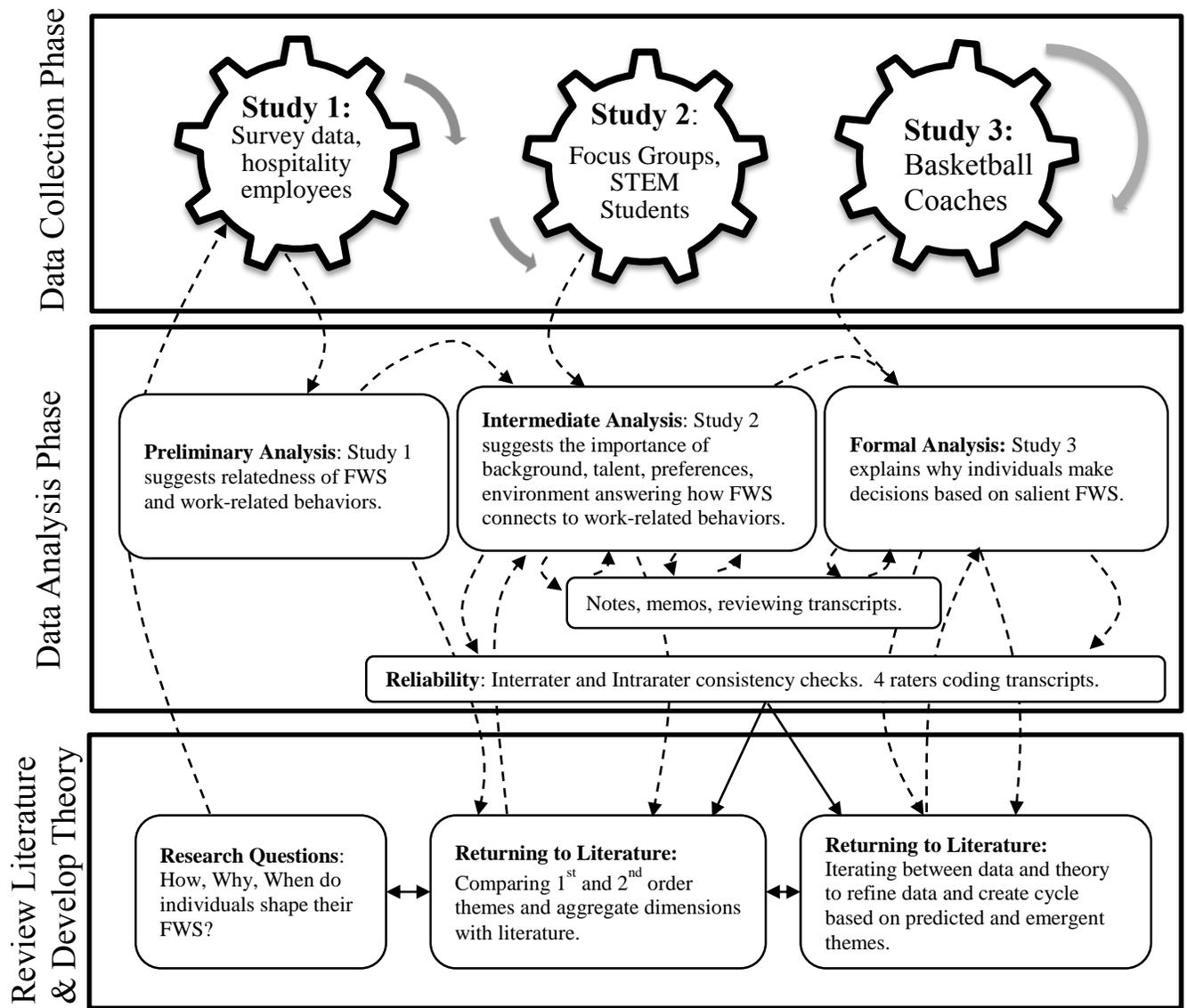
For detailed content analysis, I followed the same procedure and analysis presented above in Study 2. To avoid full repetition, I am merely listing the key points here. I used NVIVO and SPSS, confirmed categories with experts, and assessed intrarater and interrater reliability with Cohen's kappa and Krippendorff's alpha. Taken together, these steps produced a "coherent whole" that showed how individuals engaged in work-related behaviors based on how they viewed their FWS. Overall, these three studies gave me a well-rounded view of how workers of all ages progress through their careers, what steps they take to become their FWS, when they take those steps, and why they choose certain steps (i.e., means) over others in an equifinal and multifinal manner.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

By analyzing these constructs across three studies, I gained a deeper understanding of how individuals see themselves at work in the future, which steps they consider taking in order to achieve their FWS, and why they choose some options over others. Figure 3 depicts the iterative approach I took between the data collection and analyses phases throughout the process. First, I spent time reviewing the literature to ensure I understood and could properly apply the theoretical constructs. In doing so, I collected and analyzed the quantitative data in Study 1. This preliminary analysis identified the connections among the constructs and provided insight into how, why, and to what extent individuals shape their future careers. Study 2 gave me more detail in the context of individual just beginning their careers. Hosting focus groups with STEM students resulted in a deeper understanding of how one's FWS is developed and achieved through the work-related behaviors such as job crafting, OCBs, and PCBs. As I returned to the literature, various themes emerged and allowed me to categorize the data and test its reliability. The model I hypothesized in Study 1 guided the way I initially coded (i.e., categorized or rated) the transcripts from the focus groups and interviews. It required a constant, iterative approach between my data and existing literature to ensure each categorization was true to my data, fit within the literature, and was properly extracted from the particular context based on what the participant said. Study 3 resulted in a more formal understanding of one's entire career. It explained many of the decisions individuals make and gave a rich understanding of how individuals incorporate equifinality and multifinality.

Figure 3: Data Collection and Analysis Iterative Approach



Study 1 Results and Discussion

The main effects of my model (H1a-H1c) were all highly significant. Although my moderation hypotheses (H2a-H2c) were non-significant, it seems plausible that regulatory focus may act as a mediator instead. Further, I was able to gain a deeper, richer understanding of which types of activities were more salient or more useful to those in trying to become their

envisioned FWS. Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics of, and correlations among, all of the variables.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	0.34	0.48										
2. Tenure	2.80	3.13	0.03									
3. Ethnic	2.00	0.92	-0.05	0.08								
4. AGE	37.76	13.33	-0.04	0.26**	0.13							
5. FWS	4.00	0.72	0.05	0.02	-0.05	0.00						
6. PREFOC	4.52	0.42	-0.15	-0.17	-0.16	-0.11	0.37***					
7. PROFOC	3.88	0.55	-0.19	-0.00	-0.07	-0.34***	0.31***	0.42***				
8. PCB	3.58	0.81	-0.06	-0.25*	-0.09	-0.44***	0.39***	0.32***	0.49***			
9. JCall	3.22	0.74	-0.11	-0.13	-0.21*	-0.23*	0.24*	0.21*	0.37***	0.64***		
10. OCBall	4.01	0.74	-0.14	-0.16	-0.19	-0.22*	0.24*	0.30**	0.39***	0.35***	0.48***	

Notes:

1) N = 102 Listwise

2) *(p < 0.05); ** (p < 0.01); *** (p < 0.001)

Exploratory Factor Analyses

To assess the distinction between the variables in my model, I tested the factor structure of each variable using a two-stage process (Gerbing & Hamilton, 1996; Hurley et al., 1997) which includes an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The EFA was especially pertinent to FWS and PCB in order to distinguish these variables from other career related measures (e.g., job crafting and OCBs) and indicate the underlying factor structure of variables that have not been cross-validated to determine a consistent factor structure that other variables have. Although I focused on FWS and PCB during the EFA phase, I still ran the EFA for all of the variables. For simplicity, Table 2 is provided to concisely portray these results of the complete EFA. All of the EFA models were analyzed in SPSS with the following guidelines. I used principal axis factoring (PAF) with an oblimin rotation and I compared the results using listwise, pairwise, and replace with mean option for missing values. There was no difference in the resulting factor structure with any of the missing values techniques. Regardless

of the EFA results, I analyzed the data with a CFA to confirm my a priori hypotheses outlined above and I explain those findings in the next section.

Table 2 compares different methods of identifying underlying factor structures. First, I report the hypothesized factors that I analyzed in the CFA analysis in the next section. KMO is a measure of sampling adequacy that is calculated as the ratio of the squared correlation between variables to the partial correlation between variables; it summarizes how small the partial correlations are relative to the original correlations (Cerny & Kaiser, 1977; Field, 2013; Kaiser, 1970, 1974). KMO ranges from 0 to 1 and equals 0.5 when these matrices (original and partial correlation) are identical. Values near 1 indicate that an EFA should produce distinct and reliable factors. Values above 0.5 are considered adequate, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are considered good, between 0.8 and 0.9 are great, and values above 0.9 are superb (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). As seen in the table, all of the KMO values for my data fell into the 0.7 to 0.9 (good to great) range. Bartlett's test checks if the correlation matrix resembles an identity matrix which, if true, would indicate a problematic correlation among variables (i.e., correlation coefficients close to zero). A significant value on Bartlett's test indicates that the correlation matrix for the data is significantly different from an identity matrix which means that the correlations among variables is significantly different from zero (Field, 2013). Therefore, when Bartlett's test is significant, then it is good news, which is the case for all of the variables I tested and shown in table 2.

I analyzed the scree plot in conjunction with Kaiser's criterion (retaining factors with Eigenvalues > 1). Because this criterion is best suited for factor extraction when there are few variables (i.e., < 30) and the communalities (after extraction) are greater than 0.7 or when the sample size is greater than 250 with an average communality of 0.6 (Field, 2013), I also

employed parallel analysis (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004; Horn, 1965). The KMO values for individual variables are represented on the diagonal of an anti-image correlation matrix and should also be greater than 0.5. In addition, the values in the off diagonal cells of the anti-image correlation matrix represent partial correlations between variables and should be low (close to zero). This was the case for all of the variables in my data. The last column in the table identifies the average communalities after factor extraction for the EFA I conducted. The proportion of variance of each variable explained by the retained factors is represented by the communalities after extraction, that is, communality measures the proportion of variance explained by the retained factors (Field, 2013). These values should be greater than 0.5 and help determine how many factors to extract. Because many of these measures are dependent on sample size or the numbers or variables, I outlined and explained many different approaches to determine how many factors to extract from a data set in the table below. As noted, I still conducted the CFA based on a priori hypothesized factor structures.

Table 2: Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Construct(s)	Hypothesized factors	KMO	Bartlett	Scree Plot	Kaiser	Parallel Analysis	Factors Retained	Anti-image correlation matrix diagonals	Average Communalities After Extraction
Full model (all 57 variables)	12	0.823	0.000	3-8	14	7	12	>0.50	0.625
FWS	1	0.744	0.000	1	1	1	1	>0.50	0.504
RF	2	0.801	0.000	3-5	5	4	2	>0.50	0.544
Prevention only	1	0.847	0.000	1	2	3	1	>0.50	0.508
Promotion only	1	0.700	0.000	3	3	3	1	>0.50	0.552
OCB	3	0.793	0.000	3	2	3	3	>0.50	0.621
PCB	3	0.827	0.000	3	2	3	3	>0.50	0.593
JC	3	0.872	0.000	3	3	3	3	>0.50	0.556

Notes: Results obtained using principal axis factoring, oblimin rotation, and mean replacement for missing data.

No items were allowed to cross-load and all items loaded at $> |0.40|$

Future Work Self (FWS), Regulatory Focus (RF), Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), Proactive Career Behavior (PCB), Job Crafting (JC)

Reliability

In conjunction with EFA, I analyzed the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the measures to ensure each measure was consistently reflecting the construct it was measuring. Alpha is not a measure of unidimensionality and should be applied separately to items associated with different factors (Cortina, 1993; Cronbach, 1951; Grayson, 2004). In essence, I calculated a separate alpha for each subscale (or dimension) based on the items I expected to load onto each factor. For example, I expected OCB to have three dimensions (i.e., organizational concern, prosocial values, impression management) so I calculated the reliability for each of those dimension separately. Table 3 displays this information for each of the factors.

Some of the subscales indicated that by removing one or more items (one at a time) the value of alpha would increase. This was true of prevention focus, organizational concern, and

impression management. However, the increase in alpha was minimal and removing items could cause the measurement model in CFA to not be identified. This is because SEM (e.g., conducting CFA) requires three items per latent construct (Kline, 2011). If I removed items at this stage, I would have re-run the EFA to see if the factor structure changed with an item deleted and then recalculated the alpha. Doing so could lead to other plausible and theoretically based models that I could compare with my hypothesized model. With this in mind, I determined that, since all of the alpha values were acceptable (well above 0.7), I would keep the scales intact and only consider alternatives through post hoc testing.

Table 3: Reliability Analysis

Construct	Factors (Dimensions/ Subscales)	Cronbach's Alpha
Future Work Self	1	0.83
Regulatory Focus	2	
Prevention Focus		0.84
Promotion Focus		0.76
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	3	
Organizational Concern		0.86
Prosocial Values		0.90
Impression Management		0.82
Proactive Career Behavior	3	
Career Planning		0.90
Proactive Skill Development		0.80
Career Consultation		0.82
Job Crafting	3	
Task		0.85
Relational		0.79
Cognitive		0.90

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

The purpose of CFA is to explicitly test a priori hypotheses between items and the underlying latent factors (Jackson, Gillaspay, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009). CFA is a type of

structural equation modeling (SEM) that helps validate a measurement model in path analysis (Brown, 2006). Thus, I conducted a CFA with the raw data as input and maximum likelihood (ML) as the estimation technique to examine the nature of the relationships between the latent constructs in my model in order to validate the measurement model.

All constructs were hypothesized and initially modeled as first-order factors with the items corresponding to each factor modeled as reflective indicators. FWS was a unidimensional construct with five items. Regulatory focus was a two dimensional construct (prevention and promotion focus) and each dimension had nine indicators. Job crafting, PCB, and OCB are all three dimensional constructs; each job crafting dimension (task, relational, cognitive) had five indicators and PCB (career planning, proactive skill development, career consultation) and OCB (organizational concern, prosocial values, impression management) each had three items per factor. This represents a 12 factor structure. If I allowed the first order factors to load onto second-order factors, my model would consist of 16 latent variables.

The next step was to review and evaluate my hypothesized factor structure to determine the goodness of fit to my sample data. Decisions to modify or change factors, paths, or other parts of a model can be based on theoretical, practical, logical, or empirical reasons. For example, modification indices are empirical indicators that suggest paths that could improve the fit of a model. This usually involves allowing error terms to correlate, but would allow me to capitalize on chance variations in my sample data that may not be replicated across other samples (Byrne, 2010; MacCallum, 1986). Instead, I made decisions to identify factors or incorporate paths based on theoretical implications, prior research, and my a priori hypotheses. I would only consider such changes through post hoc analysis starting first with a theoretical and practical reason for making changes to the model. Indeed, post hoc analyses on models, such as

using modification indices, should be done sparingly and only when the modifications are theoretically and practically plausible (MacCallum, 1995).

The next step was to run the CFA to determine if my hypothesized factor structure fit my sample data. I analyzed the model in MPlus, which fixes the loading of the first indicator variable on each latent factor (also called latent constructs or latent variables) to 1.0. After viewing all of the loadings for each latent factor, I set the highest loading indicator to 1.0. Setting an indicator to 1.0 simply establishes the metric (i.e., sets the scale) of each latent factor. I allowed all of the latent constructs to correlate because they are all theoretically related; work-related behaviors are related by definition and are predicted (in my model) by one's FWS and regulatory focus. All other correlations were fixed to 0.0.

To determine how well my model fit the data, I employed various fit indices that have different measurement properties based on recommendations in the literature (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Jaccard & Wan, 1996; Jackson et al., 2009; Marsh, Balla, & Hau, 1996). I used the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Steiger 1990), standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1986), chi square/df ratio (χ^2/df), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973). SRMR is based on transforming the sample covariance matrix and the predicted covariance matrix into correlation matrices; it indicates the overall difference between observed and predicted correlations (Kline, 2011). The χ^2/df ratio provides an estimate of fit that is not as dependent on sample size as is the regular χ^2 statistic. Based on previous studies (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Marsh et al., 1996; Marsh, Hau, Balla, & Grayson, 1998), RMSEA, CFI, and TLI are good indices used in detecting model misspecification and lack of dependence on sample size (Jackson et al., 2009).

In addition to choosing acceptable fit indices, it is also important to note prescribed cutoff values that are typically accepted even though there has been debate about what the cutoff values should be (Jackson et al., 2009). Generally, values above 0.90 for CFI and TLI are accepted, but Hu and Bentler, (1999) recommended 0.95 as a cutoff value; others prefer a value above 0.97 (Schermelel-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003). The χ^2/df ratio is also debated and is widely accepted to represent a plausible model when it is below 2.0 (Byrne, 2012, 2013) although some accept a ratio as high as 5 to 1 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). Thus, the objective is for the χ^2/df ratio to be lower than 2.0 but it is acceptable between 2.0 and 5.0. The RMSEA is a parsimony-adjusted index that does not approximate a central chi-square distribution and accounts for how well the model would fit the actual population variance matrix (Kline, 2011). The value of RMSEA decreases as more degrees of freedom (i.e., a more parsimonious model) are available or when the sample size increases, assuming everything else is held constant (Kline, 2011). As such, a lower value indicates better fit. Values above 0.10 indicate the model should be rejected, values between 0.08 and 0.10 indicate barely acceptable minimums of fit, values between 0.05 and 0.08 indicate reasonable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), and values less than 0.05 indicate good fit (Steiger, 1990).

My hypothesized model consisted of 12 factors (16 if I use four of them as 2nd order factors). I compared various plausible models of fit to my hypothesized model; the results are presented in Table 4. First, to examine if this 12 factor model fit the data best, I ran the CFA with all 57 items loading on the first-order factors I hypothesized. Next, I aggregated the first-order factors into a hierarchical CFA with four second-order factors (regulatory focus, job crafting, PCB, OCB). I also ran a one-factor model CFA with all of the items loadings onto one

factor. Then, I investigated a model where all of the items for each scale were allowed to load onto one factor (five-factor model).

Table 4: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
12-factor (hypothesized)	2507.40	1473	1.702			0.06	0.81	0.80	0.09
16-factor (2nd order)	2627.38	1518	1.731	119.98*	45	0.06	0.80	0.79	0.10
5-factor (collapsed items)	3753.16	1529	2.455	1245.76*	56	0.09	0.60	0.58	0.11
1-factor (all items)	5057.21	1539	3.286	2549.81*	66	0.11	0.37	0.34	0.13

Note: $N = 183$. Change in χ^2 and df is relative to the hypothesized model. RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. * $p < .001$.

As displayed in Table 4, the hypothesized model (including the 2nd order model) fit the data significantly better than the other models. As I collapsed the items into more broad factors (e.g., 1-factor and 5-factor model), the fit became noticeably worse. Although my hypothesized model fit better than the other plausible models, it is important to note that the fit statistics did not reach the most generally accepted levels (i.e., CFI/TLI > 0.90, SRMR < 0.06) although the RMSEA was acceptable (i.e., RMSEA < 0.08).

Regression Analysis

I analyzed the hypotheses via hierarchical regression in SPSS and compared these results using the PROCESS macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008) to crosscheck the results. Hierarchical regression is useful when analyzing variables that may be correlated or with multiplicative terms such as in moderation analysis (Bagozzi, 1984; Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics and correlations among variables. The zero-order correlations between future work self (FWS) and job crafting ($r = .24, p < .05$), PCB ($r = .39, p < .01$), and OCB ($r = .24, p < .05$) were all significant. My three main effects hypotheses suggested a positive relationship between one's FWS and job crafting (H1a), PCB (H1b), and OCB (H1c). To test these hypotheses, I regressed each of the outcome variables (i.e., the three

work-related behaviors) on FWS (in separate models) while controlling for age, gender, tenure, and ethnicity. In each model, I input the control variables in Step 1 (Model 1) and the predictor (FWS) in Step 2 (Model 2) as depicted in Table 5. One's FWS had a positive and significant effect on job crafting ($\beta = 0.33, p < .001$), on PCB ($\beta = 0.43, p < .001$), and on OCB ($\beta = 0.19, p < .01$) supporting all three main effects hypotheses (H1a, H1b, and H1c).

At this point, I found support for my main effects hypotheses (H1a, H1b, H1c), which indicated the relationship between one's FWS and work-related behaviors. Next, I considered the role of one's regulatory focus and how it interacts with one's FWS to predict work-related behaviors. To test my moderation hypotheses (H2a, H2b, and H2c), I again implemented hierarchical regression and crosschecked those results using the regression procedures outlined by Preacher and Hayes (2008). For each outcome variable, I entered the control variables in Step 1, FWS in Step 2, the moderator (promotion focus) in Step 3, and the interaction term (FWS*Promotion) in Step 4. These correspond to Models 1-4 in Table 5. To determine that one's prevention focus did not interact with one's FWS to predict work-related behaviors, I ran an additional model (Model 5) replacing promotion focus with prevention focus. Neither dimension of regulatory focus interacted with one's FWS to predict any of the work-related behaviors. Thus, H2a, H2b, and H2c were not supported. The interaction plots are presented in Figures 4-6. Variables have been mean centered such that the lines indicate values one standard deviation above and below the mean.

Table 5: Regression Analysis

Variable	Job Crafting					PCB					OCB				
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Control															
Age	-0.15*	-0.15*	-0.08	-0.08	-0.15*	-0.31***	-0.30***	-0.22***	-0.22***	-0.30***	-0.06	-0.06	0.00	0.00	-0.05
Gender	0.03	0.03	0.06	-0.62	0.04	0.00	-0.01	0.03	0.03	0.00	-0.11	-0.11	-0.09	-0.09	-0.10
Tenure	-0.08	-0.10	-0.11	-0.10	-0.08	-0.16	-0.18**	-0.19**	-0.19**	-0.17**	-0.11	-0.12	-0.13	-0.13	-0.09
Ethnicity	-0.14	-0.11	-0.11	-0.11	-0.11	-0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.10	-0.08	-0.08	-0.08	-0.07
FWS		0.33***	0.25***	0.25***	0.30***		0.43***	0.35***	0.35***	0.39***		0.19**	0.13	0.13	0.13
Promotion Focus			0.25***	0.24***				0.29***	0.29***				0.20*	0.20*	
Prevention Focus					0.10					0.13					0.20*
FWS*Promotion				-0.06					0.01					0.00	
FWS*Prevention					-0.02					0.05					0.05
R^2	0.06	0.17	0.22	0.22	0.18	0.14	0.33	0.40	0.40	0.34	0.04	0.08	0.11	0.11	0.13
Adjusted R^2	0.04	0.14	0.19	0.19	0.14	0.12	0.31	0.38	0.38	0.30	0.02	0.05	0.08	0.07	0.06
ΔR^2	0.06	0.11	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.19	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.00
F	2.89*	7.12***	8.25***	7.16***	5.38***	7.35***	17.34***	19.52***	16.64***	7.37***	1.92	2.92*	3.61**	3.08**	2.92**

Note: standardized coefficients are reported, * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

The independent variable and moderator were centered before creating an interaction term

Figure 4: Moderation Results for Job Crafting

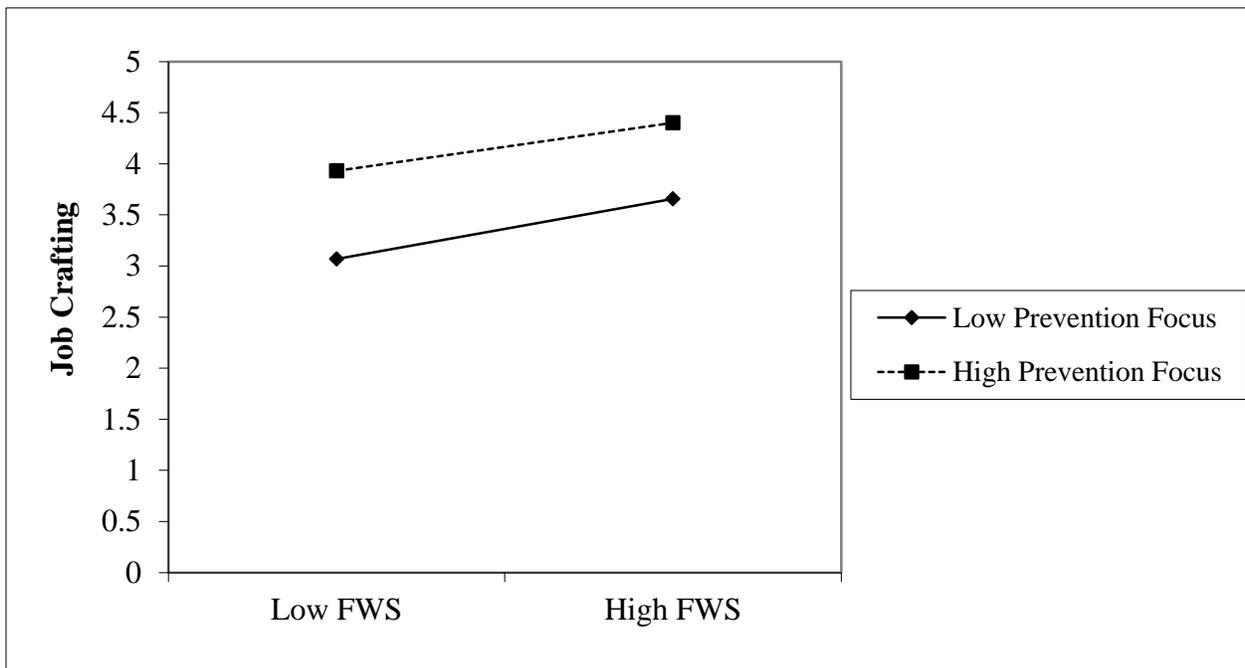
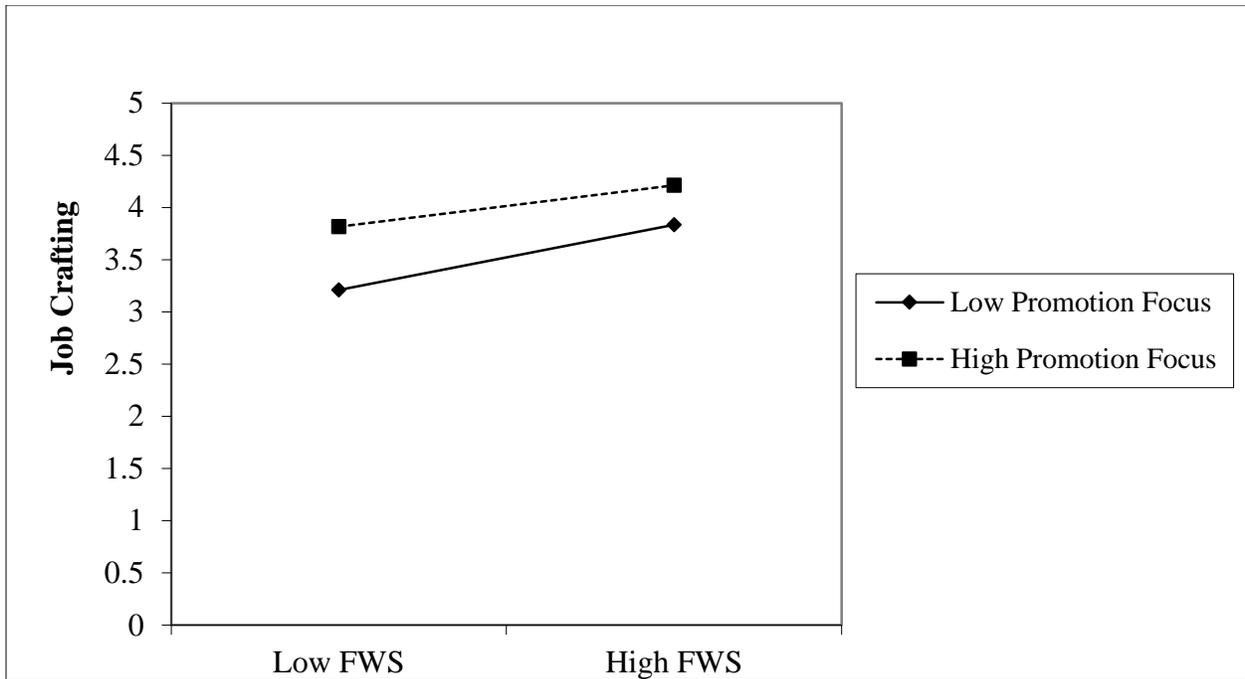


Figure 5: Moderation Results for Proactive Career Behavior (PCB)

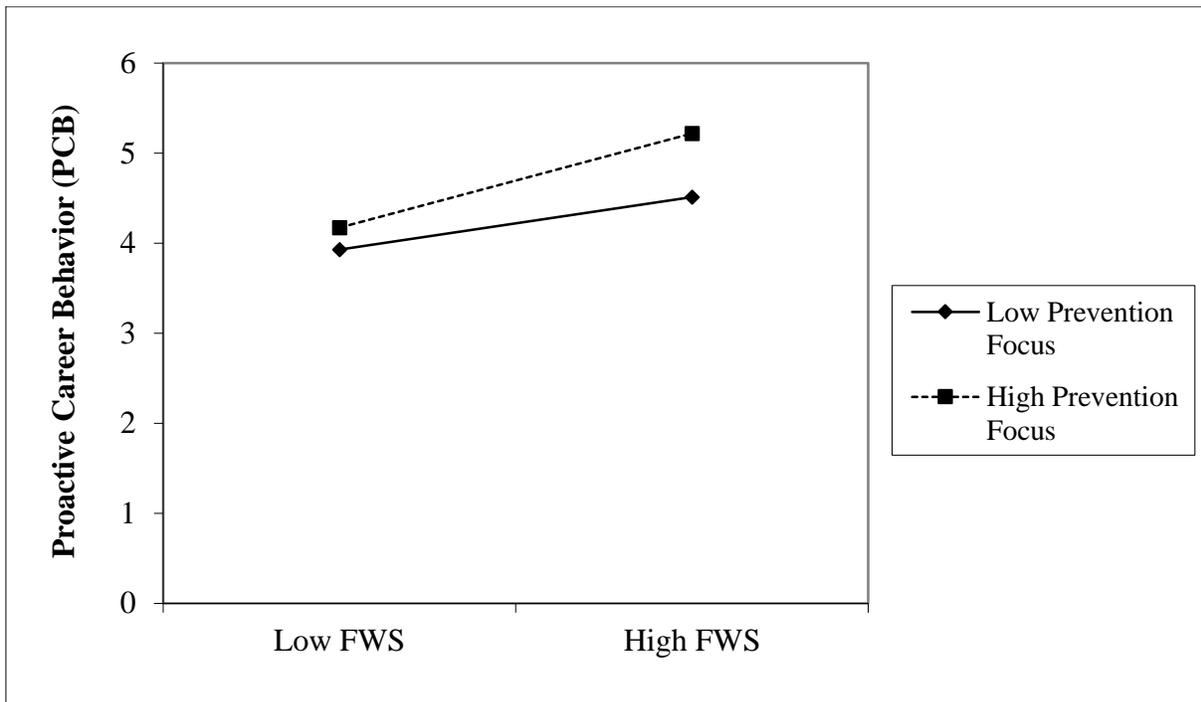
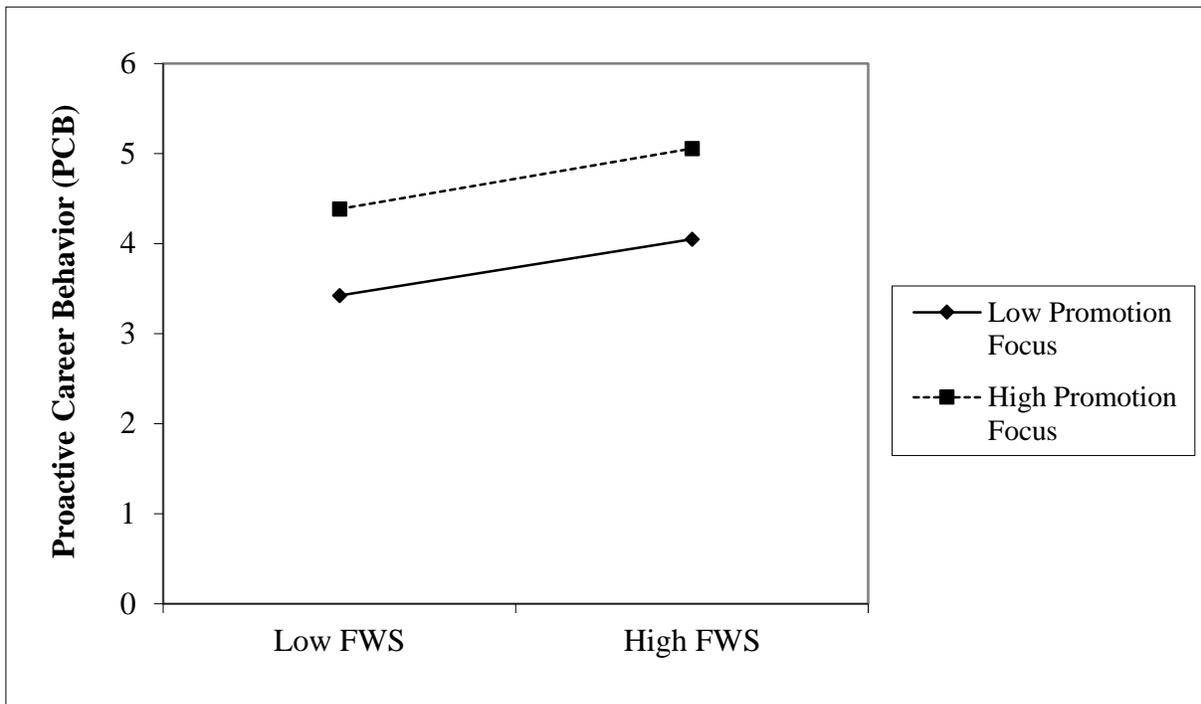
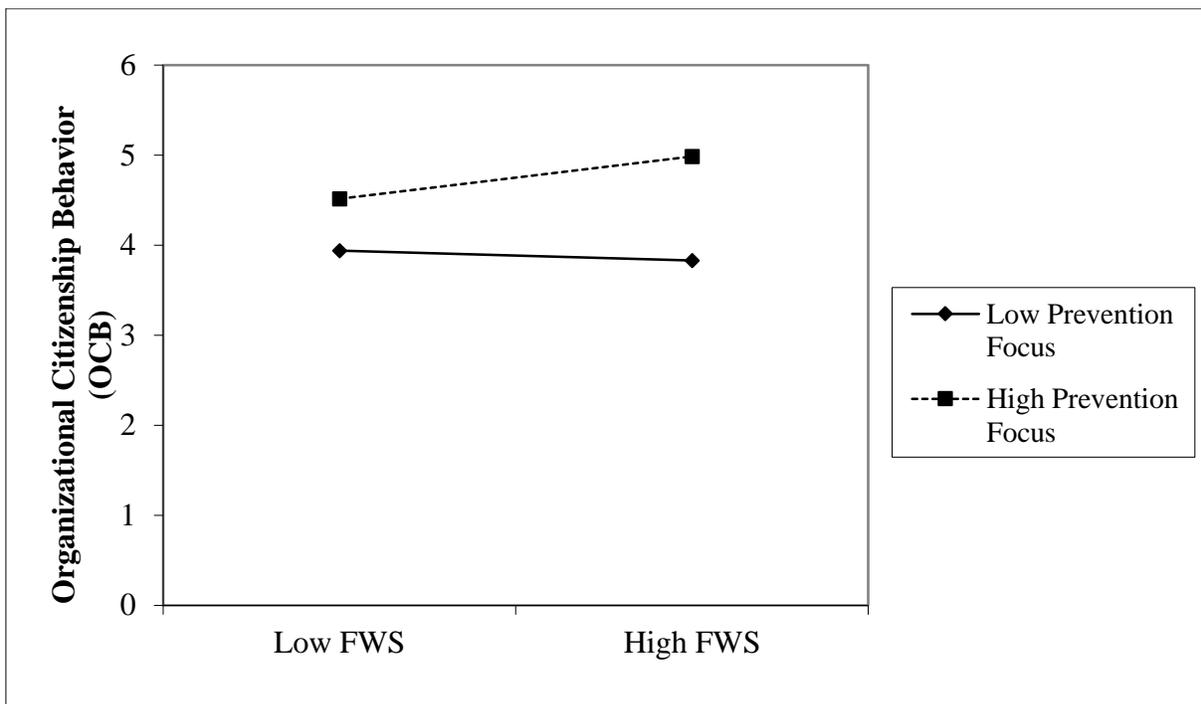
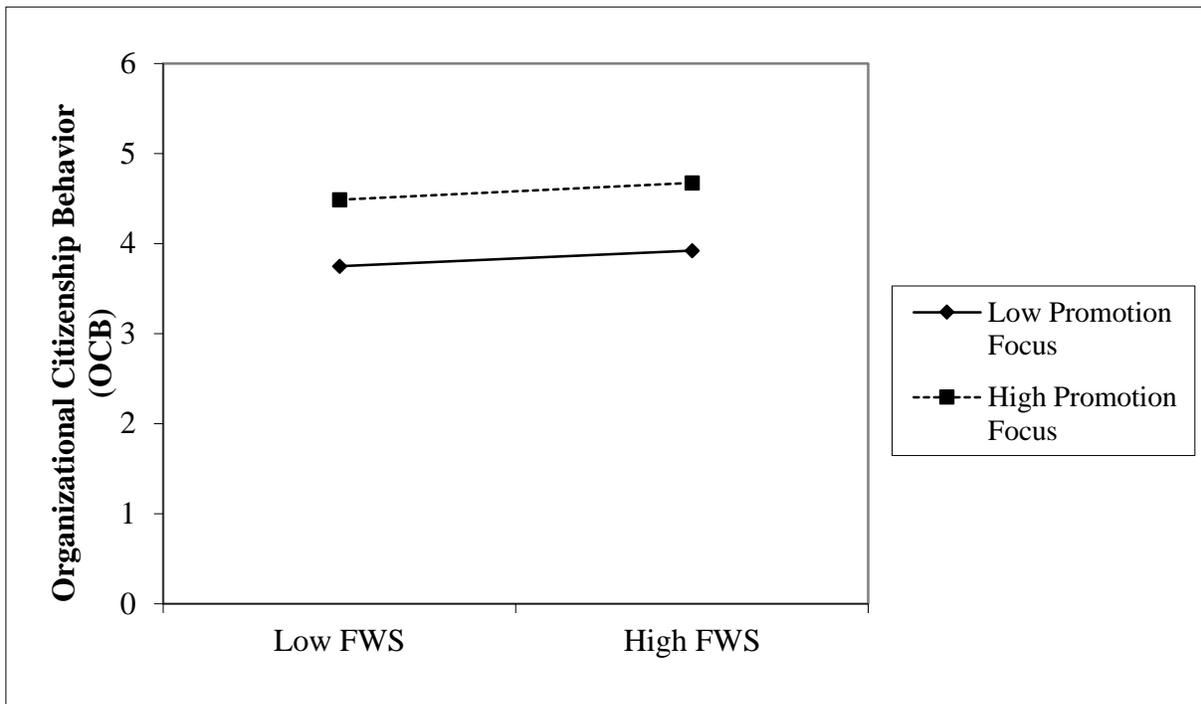


Figure 6: Moderation Results for Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)



To confirm my data did not violate any standard regressions assumptions and conformed to other acceptable standards, I ran various diagnostic tests. For example, I viewed the

collinearity diagnostics and found the variance inflation factors (VIF) near 1, which is well under 10 and even less than a more stringent acceptable norm of 5 (Cohen et al., 2003). The condition index (CI) and variance proportion (VP) for each variable was also within acceptable limits (i.e., $CI < 15$ or no more than two VPs > 0.50). A histogram of the regression-standardized residuals (RSRs) indicated normality as did a normal P-P plot, and a scatter plot of the RSRs and predicted values indicated a normal pattern. None of the residuals had undue leverage on the data or a value inconsistent with expectations of influence based on Mahalanobis', Cooke's, DFFIT, CVR, SDBETA, or any other residual statistics (e.g., raw, standardized, or studentized).

The results of Study 1 consistently indicated that one's FWS has a positive and significant relationship with all three work-related behaviors. However, the data did not support a multiplicative relationship between one's FWS and one's regulatory focus in predicting any of these work-related behaviors. Although this finding was disappointing, recent literature has found that the relationship between FWS and OCB is mediated by regulatory focus (Strobel et al., 2013). Because of this, I briefly investigated this role in my data through post hoc testing. I used the PROCESS macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008) to test singular and multiple mediator models and analyzed the models in MPlus as a crosscheck. In models with one mediator (singular mediation models), FWS was the predictor, each of the dimensions of regulatory focus (promotion and prevention) was used (separately) as the mediator, and each of the work-related behaviors (separately) was used as an outcome variable. In essence, I ran six separate models with one mediator. Next, I ran multiple mediator models with both, promotion and prevention, as mediators and the three work-related behaviors (separately) as outcomes. This created an additional three models. I used bias-corrected bootstrapping (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) which computes confidence intervals around the indirect effects which represent the paths

through the mediators. A significant mediation effect is present when zero does not fall within this interval.

These findings are promising because, in each of the nine models, promotion focus significantly mediated the relationships between one's FWS and all three work-related behaviors, while prevention focus was not significant in any of the models. Since this analysis is tangential to my dissertation, I am providing only this basic overview on the plausibility of a mediation model. It seems likely that these work-related behaviors are driven by a gain seeking mentality (i.e., promotion focus) to promote change more so than the desire to maintain the current situation (i.e., prevention focus). It builds on the literature calling for a better understanding of mediating mechanisms through which dispositional differences culminate in different behaviors at work (Spitzmuller, Van Dyne, & Ilies, 2008; Strobels et al., 2013).

Study 1 Discussion:

I incorporated one's future work self because I expected it to be a strong indicator of how individuals manage their work tasks and engage in various work-related behaviors. Because modern careers are becoming more boundaryless (Arthur & Rousseau, 2001; Briscoe, 2006; Hall 1996, 2010), individuals are actively shaping their jobs to enhance the meaning they derive from work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Indeed, I expected and found that those with a more clear future self were more likely to engage in work-related behaviors. In addition, I expected that one's promotion focus would affect the strength and/or direction of the relationship between one's FWS and the work-related behaviors. However, this moderation effect was not significant which may be indicative of one's FWS inspiring work-related behaviors across all levels of regulatory focus. As tentative evidence suggests in post hoc testing, promotion focus may be more likely to account for *why* the relationship between FWS and work-related behaviors exists

(i.e., as a mediator variable) rather than affecting the strength and direction of the relationship. Study 1 provided excellent evidence that, if a person has a clear view of who he or she wants to become at work, he or she will be more likely to initiate changes to his or her work boundaries. In essence, it is likely that future focus leads individuals to seek situations where they can make these changes. Study 2 and Study 3 build on this body of research by detailing possible mechanisms through which individuals are motivated to engage in work-related behaviors to progress through their careers.

Study 2 Results and Discussion

Building on the support for my main hypotheses and intrigued by the non-significant moderation results, I analyzed the focus group data I obtained in Study 2. To assess the reliability of my data, I had four independent raters code the content (interrater reliability) and I also recoded a random portion of the content to compare against my earlier categorization (intrarater reliability). The keys to reliability are rater agreement, number of raters, and the size of the data set that was coded. As the agreement among raters increases, researchers can be more comfortable that other raters would categorize the data in a similar fashion, which indicates the data are reproducible and trustworthy (Hayes, 2005). With this in mind, I calculated Cohen's Kappa (Cohen, 1960) and Krippendorff's alpha (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Krippendorff 2004, 2012) for the statistical measures of reliability. Values below 0.40 represent poor agreement, values between 0.40 and 0.70 are considered fair, and values above 0.70 are considered good. These reliability measures represent whether the coding among raters, based on a common set of instructions, yields similar results within a tolerable margin of error (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007). Table 6 displays the results from the reliability calculations.

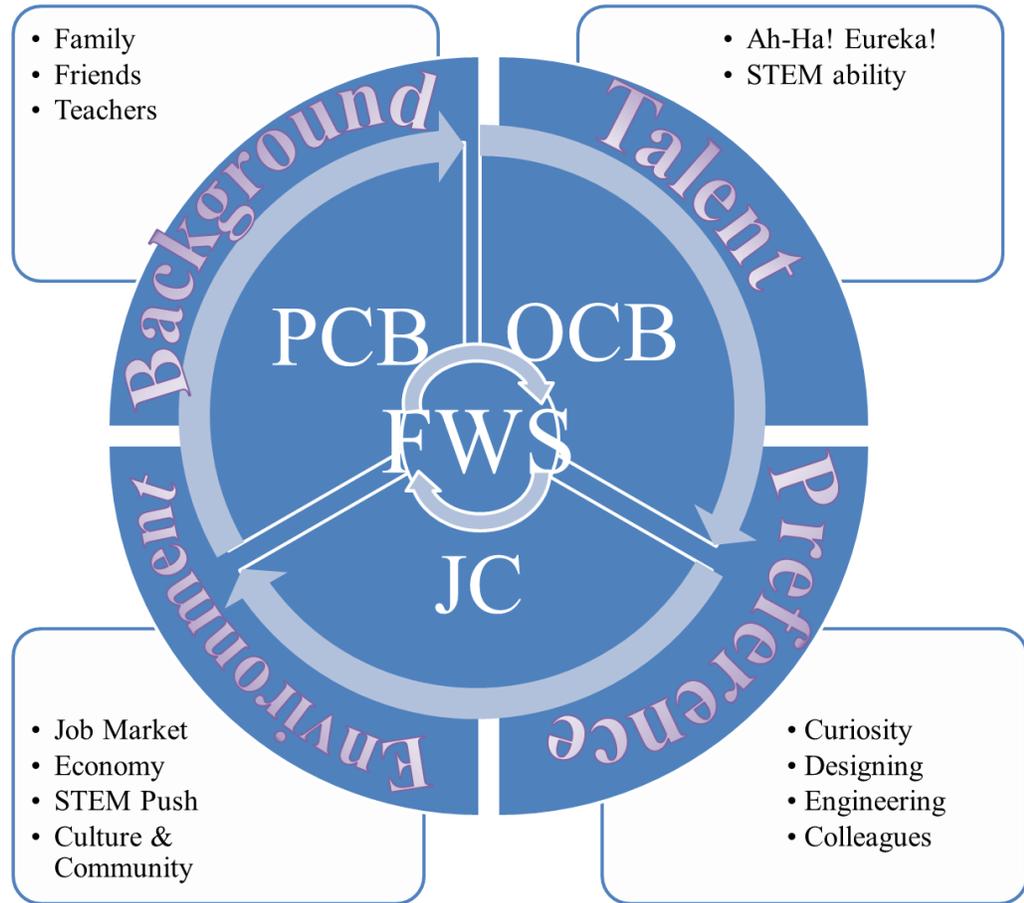
Table 6: Study 2 Reliability

Independent Rater	Kappa*	Alpha*	LL95%CI	UL95%CI	$p < 0.70$
Rater 1	0.66	0.76	0.44	0.95	0.28
Rater 2	0.76	0.82	0.66	0.93	0.06
Rater 3	0.65	0.88	0.75	0.96	0.00
Rater 4	0.82	0.80	0.52	0.97	0.24
All 4 Raters	N/A	0.81	0.64	0.93	0.09
Self re-code	0.87	0.97	0.94	0.99	0.00
Total Comparison	N/A	0.76	0.71	0.80	0.01

Kappa = Cohen's Kappa; Alpha = Krippendorff's Alpha
 LL(UL)95%CI = Lower (Upper) limit 95% confidence interval
 $p < 0.70$ is probability alpha is less than 0.70.
 * Kappa and Alpha values are compared to my original categorization of the data.
 Alpha computed with 1000 bootstrap samples.

After analyzing the data to gain confidence in how well it fit my hypothesized model and was based on existing literature, I reviewed all of the data for emergent themes and other ways to aggregate the story behind the data. The participants in Study 2 detailed the processes that led them to pick STEM careers and elaborated on what they did during school, work, and internships to enhance their ability to become their FWS. Figure 7 portrays the interconnectedness of the continual cycle that emerged as the participants explained how their background and talent led them into STEM and their preferences and environmental cues keep them focused on future opportunities in their desired career fields.

Figure 7: Study 2 Process Model Cycle



My analysis of the focus groups revealed that, over the course of one’s life, various factors motivate behaviors that results in one’s FWS. I noticed four distinct patterns: backgrounds, talent, preferences, and environmental cues that made one’s FWS more salient and, in turn, led individuals to engage in work-related behaviors. I provide interpretations of these interactions patterns in the sections that follow.

Background

I began each focus group by asking participants what propelled them into a STEM discipline. Nearly every person indicated that a family member helped them develop an initial

interest in STEM fields. For those that mentioned family, I asked follow up questions to see how strong this push was and to what extent it was beneficial. The interactions below portrays this guidance:

Participant 1: My older brother had gone to another university and majored in engineering. He sat me down and told me what mechanical engineering was. I thought a really diverse type of study would open up a lot of doors for me. That was a really great way to have lots of opportunities. I chose to do that (STEM). This was something that, when he invested the time into telling me that, and really getting me interested, I chose to then follow the STEM field. Hopefully I will graduate and go into the industry.

Participant 6: I'm a biology major so I guess my family had some input in that. A couple members of my family are physicians and just being around that was why I was interested going into the medicine field. I want to be a physician with a lot of independence. I'm interested in doing work serving Hispanics in the United States. Having a position where I'd be starting some kind of clinic myself and having that so I could specifically do what I want to do in terms of the care the clinic would provide.

Participant 8: Well I started off in mechanical engineering, but that was more a push from my parents than something I wanted to do. So I got away, got a little more freedom, thought about what I really was planning to do with my life and switched to a major (statistics) I enjoy a lot more.

As participant 1 points out, his brother was influential on him choosing a STEM field.

He has a salient view that it will open up “doors” in the future for him. In doing so, he incorporated career planning and career consulting, which are two dimensions of PCB.

Participant 6 mentioned the members of her family that exposed her to medical practice. She is interested in independence and autonomy in the sense that she can craft her job in a way that brings her meaning by serving communities that she feels drawn to. She noted she is working on a minor in Spanish, which aids in the pursuit of her calling. She is interested in expanding her future job by incorporating an unanswered calling (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010) to serve Hispanics in the United States. This is a form of job crafting that is predicated on a salient FWS view. Participant 8 noted a push from his parents led him to engineering, but he used his autonomy to focus more on career planning (i.e., changing majors) to prioritize future outcomes

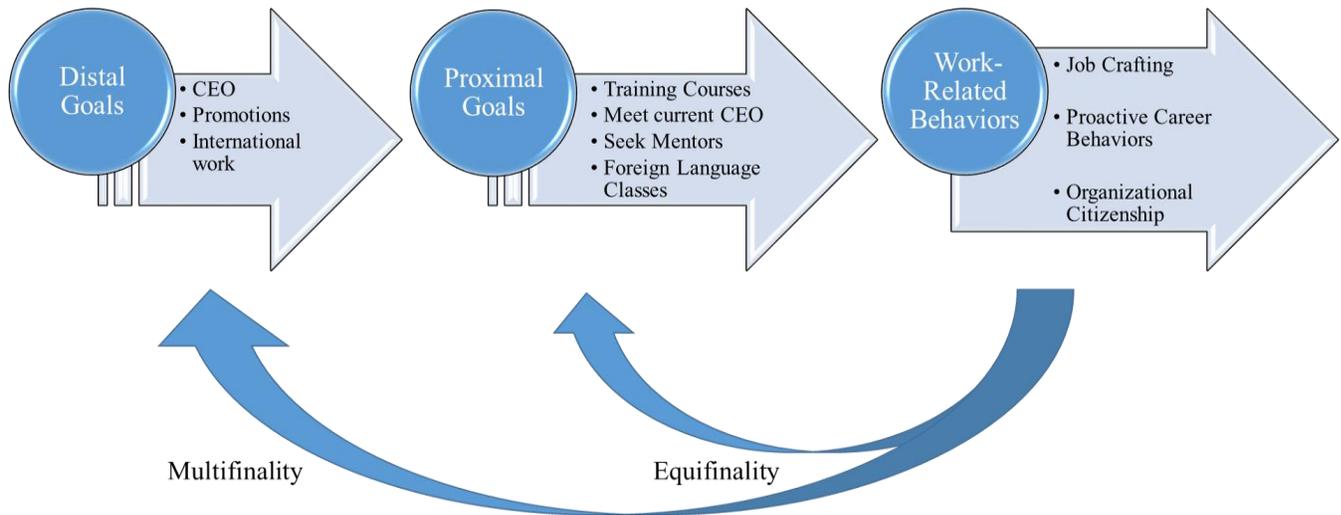
over short-term benefits (e.g., pleasing mom and dad); he was exploring options that would shape his future career (Fryer & Payne, 1984).

In addition, it was clear that participant 6 is seeking opportunities in a manner consistent with a promotion focus. She continued with an example that shows her commitment to proactive skill development, a dimension of PCB. It highlighted her need for growth and advancement, which is in line with the pleasure seeking disposition of promotion focus:

Participant 6: This semester I'm taking a medicinal chemistry class. I'm not getting credit for it or anything. I just saw, shadowing doctors, there's not necessarily understanding of drugs. With older patients, especially drugs interacting. I felt like it would be important to have that ability to read medical papers and have a better idea of what's going on, just understanding of drugs. I can see myself applying that in patient treatment in the future, or at least being able to keep up with that literature.

She made it clear that this class was not required when asked by responding, "Yeah, just something I added for fun." By proactively adding tasks, she crafts her job in a manner that promotes skill development and brings her closer to being able to fulfill her unanswered callings as a doctor. This combination of completing one task (i.e., shadowing doctors for class) helps her achieve many goals (e.g., skill development, network building with doctors, FWS) that are multifinal. Her path is clearly set in a manner such that she can envision her FWS, engage in work-related behaviors, substitute tasks that she assumes are most valuable (i.e., equifinality), and complete one of those tasks to accomplish multiple goals. This cycle is represented in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Multifinality and Equifinality Feedback Cycle



While some participants noted family members that had great influences on their career choice, others mentioned teachers that guided their path choice.

Participant 5: I was never very good at English in high school and so my math professors we're like "ok you are really good at this stuff (math). You should probably pursue this (math and engineering) in college" and I started in chemical engineering. I just feel like that's what professors kind of say, "Well don't worry if you don't know what you want to do when you graduate you can go get this job and just do two years figure out what you want to do and then all these different paths open up." I feel like all the books we read, this guy interned in this and then started at this company and then moved over here and I feel that's kind of how a lot of people did it, but for me my dad has worked for the same software company for 16 years. I just don't see why he would have ever given that up to move somewhere else.

Participant 7: I had a teacher in high school in my math and science classes who realized I was good at math and those subjects, so they suggested engineering and things as a better job opportunity.

Both, participant 5 and 7, indicated teachers influenced their decisions. In a sense, this began to frame their perspectives about STEM fields, which aligns with cognitive job crafting. It was more evident from participant 5's perspective as he mentioned the thought process of moving around in jobs, which he felt mimicked what he read. However, because of his dad's influence on his background (staying 16 years in a job), he was unsure about the conflicting

guidance from his professors. In fact, as he began to rationalize his future, his cognitions came through more clearly:

Participant 5: I always felt that like I was always told “oh well you can start at this job and three years later move down,” but I don’t think that I ever want to give up what I would have built for three years at a certain company to go start somewhere else just cause a pay increase or something.

He began to see a more integrated whole where he would be part of a company for a long time; he wanted to build on his accomplishments instead of starting over every few years. By avoiding the potential uncertainties of starting over at a new job, participant 5 seems more concerned with the safety that a current job would have over the opportunities of a new job. This is a clear example of prevention focus; participant 5 would be more concerned with the safety and security of a current job over the uncertain opportunities at a new job. As he continued, he showed an understanding of the big picture of long-term employment at a company and the importance of the broader context of relational job crafting while building the business, not just sitting at a desk all day with a myopic scope of mundane tasks:

Participant 5: I don’t necessarily want to be an engineer forever. I want to move into management. As much as I like to say I enjoy the design side of what I do, I really enjoyed what I did this summer; I got the chance to interface with all the different people that we worked with and I really enjoyed that part of the work. I don’t want to be sitting at my desk doing AutoCAD stuff.

On the other hand, although participant 4 mentioned professors shaping his STEM desire, it was evident that his dispositional background—a true promotion focus—was driving his thirst for stimulating work.

Participant 4: One big thing for me would be to not ever be bored at my job. If I work on a project for two years and I want to work on something different I feel if the company didn’t allow me to work on something different then I would definitely look at other companies and see what they were doing. I’ve worked at a couple places and I haven’t found that sense like, “I want to be here for 10 years,” yet. There’s things that I like and

dislike about the places that I worked at. So really, I'm just trying to get more experience and see if I can find a company that I could see myself... . Somewhere where I can jump around on projects and have the ability to move up. I'm still kind of looking for that.

Participant 4 explained that autonomy was important and that he would be proactive in making changes to his work, including switching jobs, if the current opportunities at work did not allow seem meaningful to him. By seeking salient possibilities for work experience, participant 4 is concentrating on aspirations for potential gains in the sense that he wants to choose the best path in order to "have the ability to move up." Thus, equifinality of choice is present in his desire to substitute one job for another until he feels comfortable that his long-term needs are fulfilled at work.

Talent

In addition to parents and teachers influencing the choice of STEM pathways, each participant indicated that he or she had an innate ability to understand and be successful in these fields. Participant 2 indicated "it was just because I was good at science and math classes... so that's how I got into engineering... I've come to realize that I'm just a curious person in general." Participant 3 mentioned "I've kind of always just wanted to go into technical fields... I just always knew that being a scientist or engineer was kind of where I wanted to go... It's just sort of been since elementary school." Participant 3 engage in job crafting at an internship by using his technical talents, coupled with his proactive nature to reduce time spent on certain tasks:

Participant 3: My first term at the company I interned with I was working in product allocation running feature testing on one of their units... . Our mentor, was out 2 ½ days of the week cause he was actually finishing up a degree. So, I was in charge of running it [testing procedures] by myself about half of every week. One of the things we had to do on a fairly regular basis was back up the configuration files of the units. Backing up configuration files took about 2 ½ hours or so. So I wrote a Python script to automate that for us. I had to learn Python to do it, but it took me two weeks to learn the Python I needed to do it and another two weeks to actually write the script, but when I was finished with it,

it [the Python script] would go into the units automatically pull the configuration files from them and store them on to our computer. So we could then just organize them how we wanted to and go back to them whenever we wanted and it would do the whole thing in about 2 ½ minutes instead of the 2 ½ hours it would take me manually.

In this case, participant 3 was able to redesign tasks in order to make them more meaningful. By expanding his tasks and reframing his role, he increased his knowledge by learning Python coding, exhibited organizational concern—a dimension of OCB—by showing pride and commitment to the organization, and showed his supervisors and colleagues that he was proactive and would take charge if given the opportunity. It was evident how this fit into his FWS because he continued that he wanted to make his, “base skill set as an electrical engineer as strong as possible. So I could then go into any industry I wanted to and have the company expect and have me know that I can handle the work they give me.” Because of his successful timesaving script, he was able to enhance the relationships he had with co-workers. He also noted how his FWS included management; he was seeking mentors (i.e., exhibiting PCB) and changing the relational boundaries of his job:

Participant 3: In my case (at his internship) it was a couple of people I directly worked with... My mentor for my first term and for my third term, I got pretty close with. They really taught me about what it means to be an engineer and stuff. There's someone who's higher up who is...our main contact for the company. He sort of is my role model in terms of what I want to do if I do move up into management. He's one of the VP's of engineering and his job is probably the closest I have to sort of an end goal... I worked with that guy as a role model for my career path.

The common theme is that these individuals used their talents, in conjunction with work opportunities to engage in work-related behaviors. By helping others, networking, and proactively developing skills, participant 3 is taking a multifinal path to achieving his FWS. He used a single means (i.e., writing a script) in order to accomplish multiple goals (e.g., save time, show initiative, display management qualities, and enhance work relationships).

Preference

Although the participants' backgrounds and talents led them to the STEM field, their continued desire to remain in the field—their preferences for STEM work—helped explain the cycle of work-related behaviors and their FWS shown in Figure 8. As they became more engrossed in their field of study, they tailored opportunities to combine their STEM preferences with their innate desires to help others, make changes, and derive meaning at work. It was a combinatory effect such that they enjoyed STEM, but really enjoyed making a difference at work. It seemed that they were inspired to get into STEM and passionate about staying there. This calling—a consuming and meaningful passion individuals have towards work or other domains—kept their FWS salient as they progressed at work (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011). This helped them to begin understanding the meaningfulness of the work they would do and the self-actualization that comes from a good fit with one's work (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015; Wrzesniewski, 2002). In fact, their internship and co-op choices were driven by the multifinal approach that allowed them to not only enjoy the job but also to change their identity and the meaning of their work in the process; they were called to pursue work they expected to be meaningful and would be a central part of their lives (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Participant 2 explained his preferences for work projects that prepare him for his FWS and how he expects the results of those projects to have a prosocial impact for less fortunate individuals:

Participant 2: I've been trying to pick elective courses that apply best to the career path I want to be on. I took a class on failure of engineering materials, because if I'm going to be designing products, I want to know how they fail. The project I'm working on is an alternative means of wheelchair propulsion...I thought that would be great to apply to learning about something that I want to get involved with in the future. You want to design something that someone wants to use, that someone wants to buy, not just something that technically performs very well...but no one wants to use it. It kind of brings you back to why you're doing this in the first place; it's for those who are going to use it.

In addition to proactive skill development, Participant 2 had a preference for continual growth and advancement; his promotion focus led him to seek work opportunities by relational job crafting:

Participant 2: My internship last summer... they weren't sure what to do with me... in the beginning when I didn't have a whole lot going on... I reached out to another person in the company in a different area that worked along with my group and said, "I'm available if you need me to work," so I got a couple different tasks and activities to do while I was there, while I was waiting on my other projects.

By seeking a mentor, a form of proactive career planning behavior, participant 2 was able to explore options and formulate a plan by adapting in a way to create a viable definition of work for himself. Because of this, he was able to build relationships at his internship. His excitement about the job was hard to contain as he continued on about how the project was going, "Good... . It's been going well. They've been great. One of them I'd never really spoken to before, but great guy, really good at what he does, puts in the work. Everything's been going really well!" He was able to change the nature of the relationships at his job to be far more meaningful and serve a valid purpose. He went from not having "a whole lot going on" to designing wheelchairs that would benefit disabled individuals—a clear prosocial motivation that brought meaning to his work.

In addition to preferences about work project, some participants were clear about how much work they would want and their preferences about who they would (or would not) work with. Participant 6 was very focused about her perceptions of her future work; she preferred to focus on specific tasks and choose her work relationships carefully:

Participant 6: I would prefer a job that maybe not a ton of different things, but maybe two or three. Or maybe one or two because I think that having that focus is something that to do anything well you really have to have that. So, just figuring out... things we're really actually passionate about and really are willing to put in a lot more time to pursue. Once you are with the same group of people for a while, you flock to certain people...it's kind of knowing them and

whether or not they're the best workers...a second requirement. I'm just kind of practical. I don't see the point in doing something if it's not really going to ensure any type of job in the future...I did more of the science and the Spanish language because being bilingual is important for jobs.

The preferences each person had were tied to their curiosity in work tasks and/or how they would alter their relational boundaries based on psychological, social, and physical acts (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Their job crafting actions framed the work they did along with their identity at work. They interpreted environmental cues in order to act within the context of their defined jobs. In doing so, the combination of their actions kept their FWS salient as they progressed.

Environment

In addition to one's background, talent, and preferences for STEM, participants were conscious of the current job market and environmental cues that guided their desire to remain in STEM. They all noted a strong push from their family, professors, or cultural norms based on what they felt others expected of them. Participant 8 noted "it's just the cultural idea that certain jobs are easier to get jobs, like it's ingrained in us." He continued:

Participant 8: There's a whole joke that artists end up working at Starbucks. It's kind of terrifying, because they (professors and at career fairs) tell you the job market's so tough, so you really want to go someplace where you feel like you can get a job eventually or you'll be stuck out in the cold.

Other participants were keenly aware of their friends that could not find jobs because of their knowledge base. Although these perceptions were not always based in facts, it shows how situational triggers can motivate individuals to keep their FWS in perspective; that is, seeing others struggle to find jobs increases one's resolve to engage in work-related behaviors partly because of a possible self that he or she does not want. In essence, these participants realized the

value and employability a STEM degree would provide as opposed to other fields; this salient reminder fit well with their future plans and kept them focused.

Participant 6: Maybe it comes from when the Occupy Wall Street stuff was going on, and reading that. I don't know. It's almost like it's not even research or hard facts, it's just stories of people coming from that, people you know who've graduated from college in literature or something and can't find a job.

Participant 7: It's definitely a combination of things for me. I had a teacher in high school in my math and science classes who realized I was good at math and those subjects, so they suggested engineering and things as a better job opportunity... . I know stories of people who graduated undergrad in art history or something and couldn't find a job, so in order to delay paying student loans, decided to go to grad school and still can't find jobs.

Besides their perceptions of the overall job market, the participants expected the culture and environment of a potential employer to align with their FWS. For example, as the participants returned from internships, they noted what they liked and did not like. They also used this experience to gauge other companies at career fairs. It was interesting to note that the participants wanted to work in organizations that valued the community and other prosocial aspects of helping others. This was evident by the interactions during their internships and at career fairs as they proactively planned their future careers:

Participant 1: The fact that they (company representatives) came to campus and had a presentation that was solely for them...that stood out to me... . The way he (a medical doctor from the company) explained it (breast cancer research), I could imagine it because of what I've been learning in engineering, how things interact with each other... . I want to be working on some level with serving people and hopefully on a more one to one type basis, I've made time to build relationships here, whether it's networking with professors or people who will help me in my career.

Participant 1 then continued about his prior work experience:

Participant 1: It helped me as a leader to see a project I'm working on as not just "we have to get this done and I don't care what it takes", it was more of "I care about you as a person and so I'm willing to do things that'll make you better." It helps with conflict resolution, quality of life as a worker, as a leader, and that was something that wasn't required of me, but something I really thought was important to do, and I'm very glad that I did.

The environment at the company was such that OCB was quite commonplace. While this behavior is discretionary, consciously choosing to engage in OCB helped participant 1 satisfy multiple goals (e.g., helping others, enjoying work, having others help him, promoting a long-term career). The company culture inspired him to seek ways to help others, which brought meaning to the way he identified with his work and the company making him “glad” that he did it. Participant 6 also saw the value in her employer being connected to the community and felt the environment should be conducive to a work-family balance:

Participant 6: I think that interaction (between the company and its community) is really important, and diversity’s really important. Having a diverse group of people I’m working with is important for me... . I think location is important, but I think it has to do with if you have kids, if you’re married, that kind of thing. For me, I feel like if I want to have kids, I would want to make sure it has a good school...

General perceptions about the job market, guidance from mentors (e.g., teachers, parents family members, supervisors), and prosocial values reinforced the participants’ FWS. They portray a coherent whole that showed how individuals engaged in work-related behaviors based on how they viewed their FWS. They incorporated experiences from past work and what they expected from future employers to develop a more salient view of who they wanted to become.

Summary Study 2:

Overall, participants’ background, talent, preferences, and the environment played a concerted role in shaping how they engaged in work-related behaviors in order to achieve their FWS. Family members typically sparked participants’ interest in STEM, but as they progressed, and realized their talents aligned with STEM work, they became more interested in how they could make a prosocial difference, how their employers would benefit others, and how they could achieve meaning in what they did. They became more involved in PCB: they actively sought career advice; they carefully planned classes to take, built relationships with colleagues,

found mentors, developed skills, and built networks that would help them more quickly become their FWS. Participant 2 noted he became more proactive over time because of the efficiencies he could gain; it brought him closer to his FWS in a shorter amount of time:

Participant 2: When I was in high school I was someone who learned a lot on my own. I would learn best by working out a problem. If I had math homework, I would sit there and do it on my own and get it right myself. I wasn't someone who liked to ask a lot of questions, and that carried on for a while. Getting older, asking questions is not just a faster way to learn things, it's also a better way, it's a discussion, and you learn it better.

They focused on the physical and cognitive changes to the boundaries of their work; they became job crafters (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). They took actions to shape, mold, and redefine their jobs. They used cues from the work environment and others to determine the best paths to follow (i.e., incorporating equifinality) and found ways to achieve multiple goals that were connected to the same means (i.e., multifinality). Thus, Study 2 complemented Study 1 well. Study 1 outlined that the main effects of my hypothesized model were highly significant; a salient FWS was indicative of the work-related behaviors individuals would engage in. Study 2 gave me a deeper understanding of how individuals make changes to current work boundaries to fit their ideal FWS. However, Study 2 left some gaps because the participants were all young and at the cusp of their careers. Because of this, I also wanted to understand how individuals transitioned from one point to another and see how each career path choice fit into a person's FWS. Table 7 contains an overview of the participants in Study 3.

Table 7: Study 3 Participants

Participant	Name	Current Position	Age	Total years of experience (all levels)	Notes	Interview Length (min)
1	Thomas	Youth League coach	33	9	Recently diagnosed with cancer, decided (a month ago) to stop the D1 coaching grind to spend time with family. He coaches basketball camps locally with youth teams to fulfill his calling.	74
2	Bob	D1 Assistant	32	8	Worked as grad assistant then became video coordinator, then director of basketball operations, and now D1 assistant	26
3	Mark	D1 Assistant	36	12	Grad assistant upon college graduation. Moved from 4th to 3rd assistant coach.	86
4	John	D2 Head coach	34	13	Previous HS head coach, became D1 assistant to move up and be more competitive for head coaching position after being turned down. Leveraged D1 assistant experience to earn D2 head coaching job.	58
5	Ricky	D1 Assistant	50	31	Landed various coaching jobs early (soccer, football, track, girls & boys basketball). Always wanted to become D1 head coach. Hired at a small town HS as head coach for boys basketball. Succeeded and earned top level HS head coaching job. Won there and was hired to lead a junior college level men's basketball team that feeds into a D1 program. Feels stuck at that level because he controls his own program but stills answers to the D1 head coach.	59

6	Vernard	D1 Assistant	57	36	Life-long assistant coach looking for his first D1 head coaching job. Only prefers to work at D1. Has been at numerous (> 10) D1 schools in various capacities. Feels looming retirement age will preclude head coaching opportunities. Looking to maximize current income to be set for retirement.	45
7	Lister	D1 Head coach	51	30	Newly minted head coach. Was life-long assistant that was working as the 1st assistant (i.e., associate head coach). The head coach was fired and he became the interim head coach. Success allowed him to be named head coach.	53
8	Javier	D1 Assistant	32	10	Worked as grad assistant and then went away from basketball for a few years. Returned as an unpaid volunteer for 6 months until being hired as a full time assistant.	35
9	Francisco	D3 Head coach	40	14	Had a different job and then was asked to coach a local community team. That inspired him to look for and get assistant jobs. Moved around a few times and considered going back to industry until an ideal D3 head coaching position opened up. Took a big pay cut (> 50%) by going from D1 assistant to D3 head coach.	83
10	Ted	HS Head coach	38	18	Worked various positions as an assistant. Found an opening at his high school alma matter and couldn't pass it up.	25
11	Nathan	D1 Assistant	52	31	Life-long assistant coach looking for his first D1 head coaching job. Has worked at many schools. He worked at some places where the head coach was fired. Still would consider a head coaching job if the conditions were right for his growing children.	52

12	Oscar	D1 Assistant	57	33	Started early and expected to play pro ball; was drafted but did not play much. Has been a HS and D1 head coach before. Was taking time off when he was called to take the current job.	39
13	Chris	D1 Head coach	33	11	Decided early to become a low-level assistant instead of a D1 director of basketball operations. Credits this with early experience that earned him his first D1 assistant job. Success there gave him credibility to receive his current job.	96
14	Aki	HS Principal	53	30	Previous D1 assistant and HS head coach. Was released from HS and went into teaching and administration. Works as a principal to have control over life and limits the chance to be released again. Considering another basketball job if job security seems acceptable.	51
15	Dean	Junior College Assistant	36	12	Previous D2 and D3 assistant. Prefers a D1 head coaching position.	26
16	Reggie	D1 Assistant	31	7	Knew early he wanted to coach. Decide to become D1 manager in college instead of playing D3 basketball. Became grad assistant and then a video coordinator upon graduation. Success allowed him to obtain a D1 assistant job. The head coach at the school he was at was just fired leaving Reggie unemployed. Already had wedding date and honeymoon set. Networked and landed a D1 assistant job recently.	42
17	Mary	D1 Assistant	39	17	Still looking for D1 head coaching job. Conducts many of her own camps, clinics, and individual workouts for local kids.	42

18	Barbara	Administration	54	31	Became a lower level head coach early and used that success to land a D1 assistant job. Worked on many D1 staffs and also taught when she could (one of her passions). Eventually, the head coach where she worked was released and she ended up in administration. Has turned down offers to go back into coaching because she is teaching and working with students in her admin job.	53
19	JoAnn	HS Head coach	58	34	Worked at many levels in many positions. Her work ethic gave her early success which allowed her to become a D1 head coach. Success at a lower level D1 school prompted her to earn a higher level D1 head coaching job. After many years, her contract expired and she went into coaching high school.	57
20	Josephine	D1 Assistant	53	29	Her HS coach inspired her to begin coaching. She had her first job right after college and just wanted to become a HS head coach. Success made her attractive to D1 schools and she liked the pay in college better.	46
21	Lathan	Retired	70	46	Played basketball at a small school and was not very good. The coach there took him under his wing and he learned from that coach. He became a head coach of a junior college. He used that experience to land a D1 assistant job. From there, his network opened up and he became an NBA scout (recently retired).	46
22	Eddie	D1 Assistant	37	15	Left home in a war-torn country with nothing to come to the USA. Was terrible at basketball early on. Perseverance paid dividends in the form of a D1 basketball scholarship. Used playing success to land coaching jobs. Has ben D1 assistant his whole	43

					coaching career and has persevered through various coaches being fired.	
23	Ellios	HS Head coach	55	29	Worked as a grad assistant after college. Then went into another industry for a few years. His college coach called him back to work as a D1 assistant. He wanted to become a head coach and, after bouncing around at a few places where the head coach was fired, decided autonomy and job security were more important. He became a HS head coach.	87
24	Carl	D1 Assistant	58	34	Worked as a grad assistant after college. Always wanted to become a head coach and has worked as a D1 assistant looking to move up soon.	42

Notes: All notes based on time interview conducted. All names are pseudonyms.
 HS = High School, D1 = Division 1, D2 = Division 2, D3 = Division 3

Study 3 Results and Discussion

Study 3 complemented Study 1 and Study 2 by filling in details about individuals' work over time; I revealed reasons why individuals took certain jobs over others, which helped explain how a salient FWS guides this behavior. Individuals see their work as a job (focus on getting a paycheck; not a major part of life), a career (focus on promotions and advancement), or a calling (focus on gaining meaning from and enjoying work while finding it socially useful) (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985; Schwartz, 2001; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Although my dissertation was not directed at assessing how individuals viewed their work orientations, it seemed that each study's participants aligned well, as a whole, with these work dimensions (i.e., job-career-calling).

The coaches in Study 3 often mentioned the meaningful impact they had on the work. They enjoyed teaching, training, inspiring, mentoring, and molding their players and felt passionate about doing so, regardless of their salary, time commitment, or job title. In fact, the coaches often mentioned their work as a calling or something they felt compelled to do. This orientation towards work aligns well with research that explains a calling as a passion to be involved in work (or any domain of life) that they felt destined to do (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011). Coaching seemed to be much more than a job because the participants all elaborated on how consuming their work was, how coaching was central to their identity, how meaningful they felt coaching was, and how they felt coaching was a guiding force in their lives such that its values and goals were consistent with their primary sources of motivation (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Dik & Duffy, 2009; Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011; Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015).

I interviewed (current and former) basketball coaches because, while some coaching jobs

can be lucrative, it seems coaching is more of a calling because they find their work inseparable from their lives (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Individuals remain in coaching because of their desire to make their work more meaningful. In addition, this sample fit well with the literature because coaches have a clear future goal (i.e., individuals aspire to become a head coach) and cope with many turning points (i.e., coaches typically change positions every few years).

Following the procedure outlined in Study 2, I calculated Cohen’s Kappa (Cohen, 1960) and Krippendorff’s alpha (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Krippendorff 2004, 2012) for the statistical measures of reliability. Table 8 displays these results.

Table 8: Study 3 Reliability

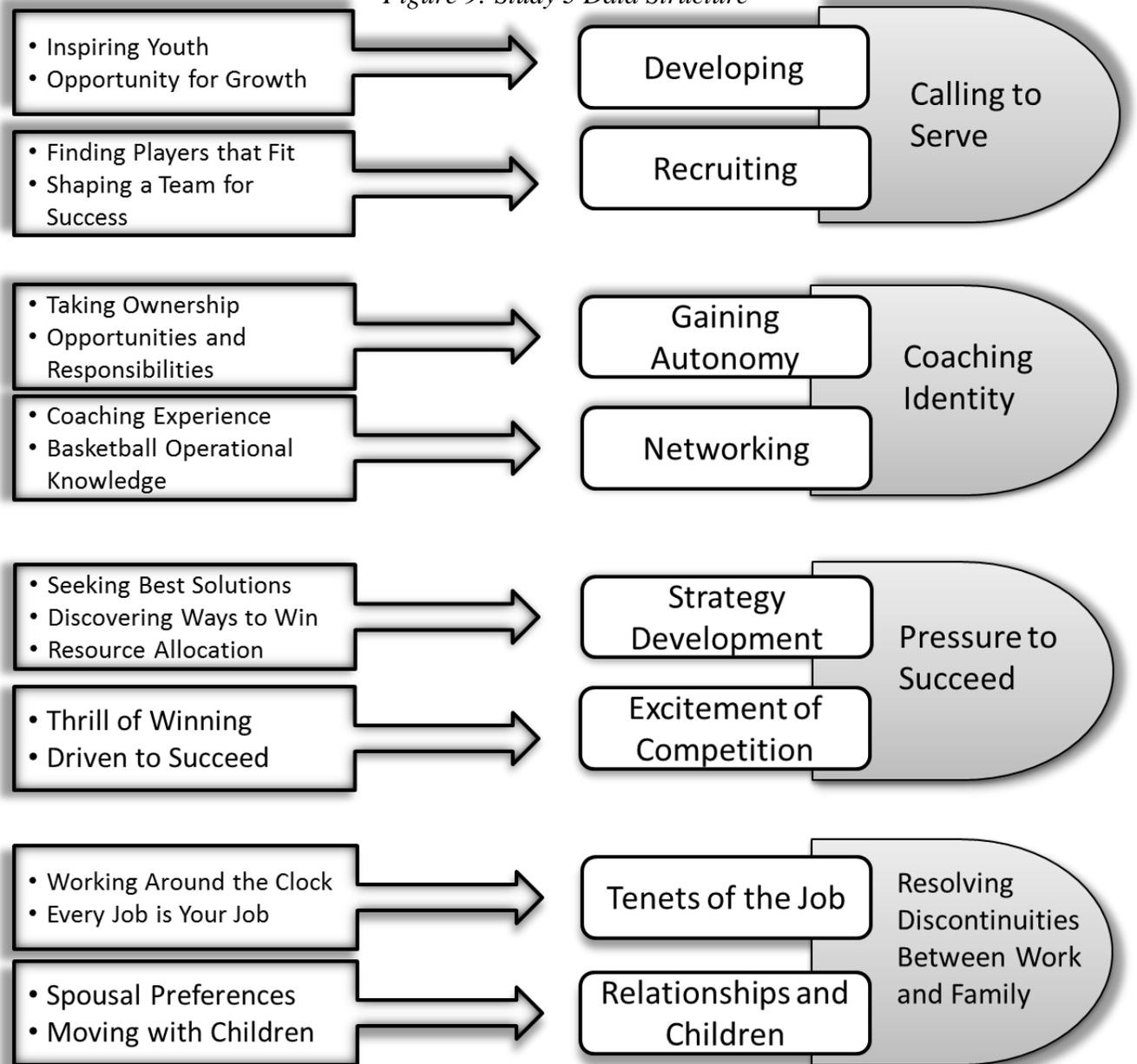
Independent Rater	Kappa*	Alpha*	LL95%CI	UL95%CI	$p < 0.70$
Rater 1	0.71	0.78	0.61	0.90	0.14
Rater 2	0.80	0.74	0.57	0.88	0.27
Rater 3	0.63	0.82	0.77	0.86	0.00
Rater 4	0.76	0.84	0.79	0.92	0.00
All 4 Raters	N/A	0.76	0.65	0.83	0.08
Self re-code	0.88	0.94	0.91	0.97	0.00
Total Comparison	N/A	0.82	0.76	0.87	0.02

Kappa = Cohen's Kappa; Alpha = Krippendorff's Alpha
 LL(UL)95%CI = Lower (Upper) limit 95% confidence interval
 $p < 0.70$ is probability alpha is less than 0.70.
 * Kappa and Alpha values are compared to my original categorization of the data.

As in Study 2, the reliability results in Study 3 gave me confidence that various independent raters coded the data in a similar fashion, given the same coding instructions. The participants (i.e., basketball coaches) in Study 3 detailed early life experiences that led them to sports, explained the triggers that made them want to get into coaching, and walked me through their decision making process at each turning point in their career. These turning points revolved around promotions within the current organization, seeking new positions at other organizations,

deciding to change coaching levels, family constraints, and deciding to remain in coaching or pursue other options (e.g., media, athletic administration, teaching). As I analyze the transcripts, I settled on four aggregate theoretical dimensions that represented why coaches made each decision along their career paths. These dimensions, calling to serve, coaching identity, pressure to succeed, and resolving discontinuities between work and family emerged from the data, fit the constructs of my model, and are based on the existing literature. This allowed me to concisely display the connections across the aggregate dimensions and the theoretical implications of this study. Figure 9 outlines the data structure that emerged from Study 3.

Figure 9: Study 3 Data Structure



To unpack my findings, I began with each person’s life story. It was important to establish the catalyst for individuals’ interest in sports and becoming a coach. Their backgrounds planted the seeds for how they progressed through the coaching ranks and why they made choices to change jobs or remain in their current job. Once each individual established why he or she was called to be a coach—something that was often not evident until or after

college—it was clear that each person engaged in work-related behaviors in a manner consistent with his or her FWS. Table 9 provides additional quotations to support the main text based on the data structure in Figure 9 as is customary in qualitative research (Pratt, 2008).

Table 9: Representative Quotations Underlying the Data Structure

1st order categories with 2nd order themes	Exemplary Quotations	Aggregate Dimensions
Developing	Mark: that’s a big part of what I think coaching is: mentoring, inspiring, telling them how I did it from experience, life lessons.	
Inspiring youth	Chris: I really enjoy leadership...I’m pretty competitive...I’m more interested in people’s individual development than I am winning and losing...I like developing leaders.	
Opportunity for growth	Lister: It’s complicated, but in the long run I don’t ever want a player to finish and graduate and say, “I wish I’d done something else.” I want them to enjoy the journey, and when they leave, be happy they did it. Javier: I’m enjoying what I’m doing. I love coaching, and I’m doing well enough with this that I’m glad I didn’t do that...I just try to have a good relationship with these kids...I just try to be there for them, because they go through struggles of being a HS superstar and then...learn what it means to be part of that team. I want to help them with that transition, talk to them, and relate with them. Some kids have a lot of problems, some kids have no problems. Going through the process, I think it helps me relate to the kids.	<i>Calling to Serve</i>
Recruiting	John: I’d talk to all my friends in the business and try to get best practices and best ideas. I’d try to seek out people I thought were good recruiters...our culture, our style of play, and organizational clarity our program operates under. We feel that we can make quicker decisions and beat people to the punch because we know what works here, what fits here, how we operate.	
Finding players that fit	Mary: At the college level, you’re always recruiting, so that was probably my top priority was always find kids that would be able to help us out...I’ve developed the philosophy of the earlier I can get [the recruits]	

<p>Shaping a team for success</p>	<p>phone numbers, the earlier I can start talking to them when the recruiting process starts, the better. It's so important to build trust with kids.</p> <p>JoAnn: I believe that whether you're a head coach or an assistant coach, everyone has a responsibility to fulfill their duty. You want people who are go-getters. You don't want to have to constantly ask them if they're getting things done. You want people who are self-starters.</p> <p>Carl: I was a better coach...because I learned and studied and watched. I think if you do that, you get better at it...I built the program from the bottom up, and in the 3rd year we won a district championship and got into the state playoffs...That was a good experience, I really liked it, and there were really good athletes from the inner city...I keep contact with some guys.</p>	
<p>Gaining Autonomy</p> <p>Taking ownership</p> <p>Opportunities and responsibilities</p> <p>Networking</p>	<p>Oscar: He gave us autonomy however we saw best, but he gave us our areas that we were responsible for. We had to make sure the job was achieved properly, but he didn't micromanage and tell us how to do it.</p> <p>Josephine: I saw a need, and we figured out how to fill the need...had to figure out how to make it more efficient for our players to work out...I did my thing, for the most part, except on rare occasions.</p> <p>Dean: I've always wanted to move [there]. It was a pay increase [and] I have way fewer job responsibilities, and I'm very comfortable with his offensive and defensive system...my job responsibilities here are just to recruit and coach. I don't have to do video work or much scouting, traveling, or academics. It's much easier.</p> <p>Eddie: After the 1st year I had there as a coach, we won the league and set every school record imaginable... We got offered a [better] job...and we won the league and had great success there.</p>	<p><i>Coaching Identity</i></p>

Coaching experience

Nathan: building relationships with coaches goes on today. It's a little different today, with the text messaging and all that. Back then, you didn't have text, you didn't have much email, you had to communicate through letters. Every time I saw a coach on the road or at a camp, I always had in the back of my mind that I'd send them a note that it was good to see them, told them I wanted to stay in touch, asked them if there was anything I could help them with. The networking back then was totally different than it is now...[it is] Very important. The more people you know and the more people know you, the better chance you have to get jobs and better jobs.

Barbara: Back then, I was a full-fledged member of the coaching staff. I was able to recruit; that was one of my big jobs. There were no restrictions; you could literally go out every night. As the youngster who was so excited about all this, I went out every night. It was great. I got incredible experience doing that. My first summer before I was there, before school started in the fall, I was able to go out to events and watch players. There weren't as many, but there were a number of them, and at that point some were considered pretty high profile. I was lucky enough to be able to go to games and get a lot of recruiting experience.

Basketball operational knowledge

Aki: There were only two of us, the head coach and graduate assistant. It's not like D1 where there are so many dudes. It was a good experience because I got to be involved in all the on the court stuff. The head coach dealt with the guards and I dealt with post guys, mostly.

Bob: My eyes have been open. I think my current boss thinks I need to work somewhere else. He thinks I've been in one spot for a long time. It would be a good experience for me to go somewhere else and work.

Strategy Development

Seeking best solutions

Thomas: We were [running a play]...So I told him [the head coach] one of the things we used to do was play the other way right away. He paused for a second and said, "you know what, I like that; go ahead and put it in." so, the first day at OTC, he turned the team over to me for 15-20 minutes so I could put in the offense. He liked what I did so from then on out he would split the team up into the black and gold team and he would take the black team and I would take the gold team and we would implement and run the offense. And the other coaches would just kind of stand there

Pressure to Succeed

and watch. To be as offensively minded as the [our] system is, that was a large chunk of practice. Even though I wasn't an official coach per se, I was acting like one.

Eddie: Winning people usually care about you and want what's best for you...It gave me great structure, and showed me the importance of organization. His [the head coach] philosophy was that we could win 20% more games based on our organization. I think there's some truth to that. That really helped me moving forward. I don't do things to that extent now, but it showed me the importance of detail.

Discovering ways to win

Reggie: I met a lot of guys from other teams on game days, other managers, and I met lots of people that way...To continue to climb. I wanted to do anything they asked me to do...I've always wanted to go somewhere where they struggled, where it's tougher to win, not because I have an ego, but because I want to be a part of something special and help a university achieve basketball success.

Mary: I told her I wanted to go back and coach the athletes that I'd recruited. It was an incredible experience. We [had] one of the best records that the basketball program had ever had.

Chris: While they're [other teams] spending time and energy, because they need [certain positions filled] right now, we can focus on the future, when we will need a wing. Everyone's got 100% energy; it's not about how it works for someone. It is about putting your resources in the right place when you can.

Resource allocation

JoAnn: I would have taken a D2 or junior college job; I didn't know about D3 then. I wanted to be a head coach, but I was pretty set on staying in the area. I wasn't willing to go anywhere just to become a head coach. I wanted to stay in the west, I knew that for sure. I wanted to be in an area or location or school where you could have resources and the support in order to build a successful program, so I had some parameters. I wanted to become a head coach, but I wasn't actively looking at that point. It just happened that the timing was right.

Excitement of Competition

Thrill of winning

Eddie: Yeah, players [help you win]. We had really good players, some of the best in the league. The 2nd thing we had was a tremendous head coach. He was organized, and we had great discipline in our program. If you didn't do the right thing, you weren't going to be on our team.

Francisco: We ended up winning the championship, and I was only 25. I really enjoyed it, and at that point, I started trying to figure out how I could do it as a career. I knew as part of my grad school deal, I was going to go back [and teach]. I thought maybe when I went back, I could coach...as a volunteer.

Nathan: My aspiration was always to end up as a head coach. That was always my aspiration and where I wanted to be, where I wanted to go. It was really just about doing the right things and going up the ladder to become a head coach.

Driven to succeed

Mark: As far as tactical strategies go...We never had a "quick, let's try to increase the tempo and change the game in our favor". He [the head coach] just believed in playing one way, and whether we win or lose, this is the way we play. I believe that if you're behind, you have to do something to try to get some quick scores, or if you're ahead, do something to control the ball and the tempo. That was just his philosophy. He didn't necessarily want to allow the players to have their own personality, be creative, and do what they needed to do. He didn't want any flow outside of what he wanted to do, didn't want to push the tempo. It's an opportunity to actually practice some life lessons in a competitive scenario, and see whether you succeed in that. Then, make an adjustment and do it again. I think that that's one of those things that you need to be able to do. I think that's more important than how you pursue winning.

Tenets of the Job

Working around the clock

Bob: I think about the job more from a work standpoint than an enjoyment standpoint. I'm probably stressed more about being successful in my job, trying to keep my job, than I thought I would be.

*Resolving Discontinuities
Between Work and
Family*

Every job is your job

Chris: I just wanted to get in and learn as much as I could as fast as I could...I didn't even think about being a head coach....One of the biggest weaknesses for a lot of people is that they focus so much on what they're doing and don't understand what other people are doing....He [the head coach] came in with a playbook and told me he wanted me to learn the entire 650 pages. I was able to learn it in sufficient time, and I worked hard at it, and that's the difference...I was just obsessed with getting to the top of the league, that's what I wanted.

Vernard: [There was a] big difference in levels. The funds were better, the facilities were better, the admin had a different mentality. It was significantly different. For me, it could have been the worst job in the world or it could have been the best, it wouldn't have mattered. I was just trying to get my foot in the door at the D1 level...I had to do all of our travel, scheduling, organization of practice times, financial aid, academic schedules for players, everything.

Nathan: My main job as a volunteer assistant was whatever needed to be done...going to the dry cleaners, going on errands, picking up his kids...research, practice, anything he needed to motivate the team, hours in the library, ordering meals, making sure the bus is ready for road trips, directions to and from the arena.

Relationships and Children

Spousal preferences

Ricky: I had the opportunity to be a graduate assistant. I was offered a job and said no, because I didn't know what my wife would want to do. She wasn't really enthusiastic about it. Looking back, though, if I was going to go college, I should have jumped on that.

Aki: I was looking for other jobs, but the problem was that [my current job] was a pretty good one. I made good money, I had good kids, and I couldn't take a D2 job, because I made more money than them...to move up to the mountains, take a [huge] pay cut, and move up where you have to take your car to recruit, and I didn't know if it was worth it.

Moving with children

Francisco: I get to spend a lot of time with my kids. I'm divorced now, but my kids live with me. I get to go to their baseball games, go on their field trips, and I still get to coach and recruit. Being at a D3 level allows me to do that. D1 would be different...The big tradeoff (on taking a head coaching job at D3 for less pay than as an assistant at D1) was family time. I was so hungry to be with my family, and I was willing to do and make whatever sacrifices I needed to make to make it work. I would say the first thing that drives me right now is my family, more than earlier in my career, when that was not the case. As much as I hate to say it, I think it was my decision to be a coach that used to drive me, first and foremost, and now it's my family."

Oscar: My wife was ill; we just had our 1st child. I was kind of a workaholic. I would be at my office first thing in the morning, I would go to study hall, leave the office at 10pm, and with a sick wife and newborn, I thought it'd be best to get back [to our hometown], where we had family who could support us. That's why I started looking for a head job in [our hometown].

Calling to Serve

The first dimension, a calling to serve, emerged as each participant explained the transition point in which he or she decided to enter the coaching profession with the aspirations of becoming a head coach. This calling fit the definition of a calling from the literature such that each person was drawn to pursue coaching, expected it to be meaningful, and would be a central part of his or her life for years to come (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Within this context, I found two broad categories that explained one's calling to serve.

Developing youth. Participants often cited that past coaches inspired them take up coaching. Because they were inspired when they were young they wanted to give back in order to provide opportunities for others to grow. These two forms of development (i.e., inspiring youth and opportunity for growth) were evident as Mark (3)¹ explains “I’m a servant first...if I believe that I have to be a servant leader.” He continues:

I want to have the influence and do it the right way, to prove that it can be done. I want to do it in a way that fills people up, as opposed to having to do it and pursue the negative aspects of what I’ve seen in some coaches. The most important thing I feel is to mentor, motivate, and inspire the young people you’re coaching. You create men and women of character when they grow up, beyond sports. The reason I say that’s the most important is because sports are a temporary thing. At any moment, you can break an ankle, break a leg, or develop a condition that prevents you from ever playing basketball again, but the lessons you’ve learned while playing sports are opportunities to teach someone about life in a better way. I believe that sports are a microcosm of life.

As Mark noted, he is called to serve others by preparing them with life lessons. In this sense, his prosocial values shine through because he expects these characteristics to help him “build a program.” John (4) adds that it was his coach “the guy who recruited me...got me my first assistant coaching job in college, and was a great mentor to me all the time, through college

¹ The number in parentheses after each name corresponds to the number of the participant from Table 7.

and today” that initially developed his calling to serve. He learned over time that “the older I get, the less it’s about me and the more it’s about the players and coaches that I work with. I think that there comes a point in your life when you go from being at the top to being at the bottom. You’re worrying about advancing your career, but then it becomes more about helping other people, and that’s what it’s become for me.” Again, this shows a need for development as it relates to one’s calling. The participants expanded their perceptions about the job by broadening the scope of what they were called to do. Coaching was the conduit for them to change the lives of the next generation of youth. This form of cognitive job crafting keeps the holistic purpose of one’s job clear; it keeps one’s FWS salient and is rewarding because each coach could see the development over time. To achieve this level of development by inspiring growth, Dean (15) mentioned the opportunities to grow that his mentor gave him:

He let me go, told me what he needed done, and I got it done. It was a very difficult job, but it was a very good experience for learning and growth, because I got to do everything how I wanted. I figured out what I messed up, what I could do better, what I did well. It was a great opportunity.

In giving back, Dean mentioned that he followed his mentor’s philosophy as he coached. Even though his current job only allowed him to coach players for one-year (he coached at a prep school), by giving his players the same opportunities he saw them “get better, faster, stronger. They’re eating the best foods and getting the best training that they can, so you do see growth.” To grow, he challenges his players to “get better every day.” He tries to “create a culture where guys come in, bust their butts, and give you everything they have every day. If you have that, you’re fine.” To develop a successful culture, the coaches noted how important it was to put together a winning team.

Recruiting. In order to have the opportunity for growth, the coaches stated that finding players that fit their system would best contribute to team success. Finding players that fit a

particular system or ideology was one of the most challenging aspects of the job according to the coaches I interviewed. All of the coaches, assistants and head coaches alike, emphasized that recruiting is the lifeblood of any program. At the same time, the players that coaches bring in are reflections of the coaches which makes recruiting a delicate balance between finding the best players (based on pure talent) and the right players (based on program fit). Reggie (16), an assistant coach, explained his view of recruiting:

You have to bring the best players to your program. I also think a lot of assistants want credit (for bringing in the best recruits). A lot of programs have gotten into trouble because they don't take responsibility...because, if the head coach doesn't trust the kid, it's not going to end well. You have to do what's best for your program, wherever you are, and if you don't have that mentality, you can get into trouble.

As a new head coach, Francisco (9) explains that he internalized the growth opportunities that he had (both good and bad) and incorporated them into his program:

He [the head coach where Francisco previously worked] and I didn't always agree with how he did things, but it helped me as a man. It helped me learn to handle more adversity. ...He helped me get this job. He fully supported me. If he didn't, I probably wouldn't have gotten it. ...There was an unhealthy culture when I got here, but it's a work in progress. [Now] We have 4 pillars: character, academics, community service, and basketball is last. My philosophy is that if the first isn't in order, the others won't be in order. That's what we're built on, and it's been a process to change the culture.

As part of his culture changing process, Francisco mentioned that it is important to bring in the right recruits with attitudes that align well with these pillars. This allows him to fulfill his calling to serve as he sees the growth in the recruits he brings into his program. He said that "the 2nd thing that drives me [behind family] is to help young people grow. I think people grow the most between ages 18-23. That's an unbelievable time of growth in a person's life, and to be a part of that growth is special."

Mark (3) added that, once the recruits are in place, fulfillment of his calling to serve

comes full circle when players internalize the opportunities they have been given:

After motivating and inspiring, [the next most important step] would be teaching them to give back to others. That's how you build a program. Not only have you motivated and inspired them to do something, achieve their goals, and do their best, but once they've achieved their goals, they can give back. That can be giving back to their teammates, financial contributions, working in the community, or just learning that it's more than just you who made you successful. After you've learned and gained the success and opportunity, you can give back, and that's where the fulfillment comes from.

It was evident that the coaches were inspired by their callings to recruit and develop their players. They crafted their jobs in a manner consistent with how they defined themselves at work. As they progressed through their careers, they solidified their "work identity" with a continual physical and cognitive approach; they decided the best paths to becoming a head coach by choosing what works and what does not.

Coaching Identity

In addition to pursuing a calling, I found that each coach evaluated themselves as they progressed and established a coaching identity that fit where they desired to be. They focused on gaining autonomy in their jobs as assistants or efficiently using their autonomy as a head coach. They also found ways to build relationships in their current jobs and proactively sought other coaches as they increased their professional networks. This suggests that coaches are constantly incorporating multifinality because they actively shape the relational boundaries of their jobs, and incorporate a host of PCBs as they attempt to find ways to become a head coach (i.e., achieve their FWS) sooner.

Gaining autonomy. As the coaches progressed, they had to account for their increasing levels of ownership in their programs. They also has to pay attention to the opportunities they had to make career changes and understand the responsibilities that came with achieving their FWS. Thomas (1) made it very clear that his FWS was being a head coach, "being a head coach

was always [my] goal. For whatever reason, I feel I don't like other people telling me how to do things when I don't agree with them. So, I figure the only solution to that program is to be in charge of my own program." Another coach, Mary (17) explained how she took more and more ownership of her job as she moved up the coaching ranks. At her first (assistant) coaching job, she remarked "I'm not really that efficient, or someone that likes to do a lot of that [media relations] stuff." But, as Mary thought about how important each aspect of the job was, she crafted her next opportunity (still as an assistant) in a manner that allowed her to control her work boundaries:

I did all our media relations, website updates, I wrote all of our articles on the site. I was the recruiting coordinator and head assistant. I also taught at a junior high school full time, and also did color TV, so [I had] 3 jobs. She [the head coach at that school] gave me a lot of freedom. She knew what she wanted, but since her and I were really similar, she kind of just let me go with it.

Mary prioritized her duties to become more efficient; she evaluated her fundamental strengths and weaknesses and took ownership of different aspects of the program. "[Recruiting] was probably my top priority...find kids...to help us out. #2 was keeping the website up to date. Practices were probably #3." By being proactive and prioritizing her tasks, Mary reshaped the boundaries of her job which allowed her to frame the way she would design the job as a head coach. In fact, Mary moved up and became a head coach. She recounts her steps and what she did as a head coach:

A big part of coaching is that you learn what not to do...the prior coach I'd worked with was not a good communicator at all, and so I wanted to be able to communicate with my kids on not only a daily basis, but to earn and build that trust. That was a big thing for me. ...One thing I did [as a head coach] was...break down film for them [her players] and do individual clips...It's really important that kids learn, especially now. Kids are so visual, because everything they do is with a computer. We had a kid that year that was a sophomore, who went from 8 points a game to being an All-conference player averaging 18 points a game next year. It was an incredible experience. We were 23-12, one of the best records that the basketball program had ever had. ...There were different pieces I put

in the puzzle...how I would break down scouting reports, how we would watch film. There were definitely positive changes that I brought to the table [as a head coach] from that experience [as an assistant].

Lister (7), another lifetime assistant coach, was recently named head coach after his interim head coaching position went well, explained how he took advantage of opportunities and felt obligated to take on many responsibilities as an assistant. He explains how that shaped his mindset for how he ran his program as a head coach:

The boss that I worked for, the head coach, said, "It's your job, run with it. Act like you're the head coach. Do whatever you want. If I see something I don't like, I'll tell you, but don't ask, just run with it." I had a lot of freedom to do things, which was pretty neat...but it was challenging because we were limited financially. We were challenged to get pretty creative. We started basketball camps, fundraising, tip off dinners, cookouts with players...midnight madness...We went door-to-door and tried to sell tickets...[and would] try to get advertising in exchange for tickets or free food... I recruited, coached, game preparation, I scouted, I ran the camps, equipment inventory, I was an academic mentor for study halls...every night...anything and everything that was put upon us.

[As a head coach] Looking back on the people I worked with, and the best of the coaches I worked with, I tried to give more freedom to my staff, creating an environment that was hopefully more positive when the team came together, whether it be workouts, games, lifting sessions. I tried to make it a total team and family atmosphere.

Coupled with the autonomy given to him as an assistant, Lister had the mind-set that he could make incremental changes to his job. He was eager to make progress and sought gains; with a promotion-focused mind-set, he wanted to avoid errors of omission by doing everything he could think of to build the program. He concentrated on potential gains and, in an equifinal sense, could substitute many actions (e.g., basketball camps, fundraising, tip off dinners) to increase revenue for his team. In a multifinal sense, he found ways to achieve many goals with single actions. For example, he could give companies free advertising in the arena or free tickets (equifinality of choice) in exchange for free food (cost savings). Giving away free tickets, especially if those seats would go unfilled, is multifinal in goal attainment because the team

receives free food and the program gets more exposure, increases its fan base, and has in-game support. Having an extra 10-20 fans from a local company—or even a local Boy Scout troop—cheering for you can be a significant boost for a team that only has a few hundred people attend games.

These examples show how taking ownership and understanding opportunities can help build one's coaching identity. It explains the feedback from work-related behaviors to distal and proximal goals outlined in the conceptual model shown in Figure 1. As the coaches utilized their autonomy to architect their jobs, they noticed small improvement they helped them meet short and long-term goals. It fulfilled their callings, helped them establish coaching identities, and prepared them to move up the coaching ladder. Building on these autonomous changes, coaches gained experience and knowledge, often by learning from others, that further cemented their coaching identities.

Networking. A key aspect of coaching, and most professions, is network building. I found that coaches built their network in two ways: (1) Coaches used relational job crafting to build their networks from within by changing how when, or with whom they worked with in their current organization (Berg et al., 2013) and (2) were proactively building their outside networks by interacting with other coaches before games, while out recruiting, or at various conferences. In exhibiting OCB, although the calling to serve as a coach in order to help others and build positive relationships (i.e., prosocial values) was clear, impression management was evident as coaches avoided looking bad (e.g., landing a bad recruit, recommending the wrong strategy, losing games) and were constantly seeking rewards (e.g., promotions within the organization, better jobs at other institutions, incentive bonuses). Nathan (11) highlighted these OCBs by helping fellow assistants clean up their scouting reports. He said, “I did anything I

could to be a better assistant coach, and it made me look better in the head coach's eyes.”

Bob (2) stated how important experience was in moving throughout the coaching ranks because “you have to have head coaching experience to become a head coach. The position I was in doing video or operations stuff, it'd be hard to get a coaching job because you don't have coaching experience. I think the same applies for head coaching experience. They're going to hire someone with head coaching experience.” John (4) emphasizes how important experience is when he applied for a head coaching job at a school he was well-connected to:

I wanted to get to the D1 level. I was a pretty successful high school coach... I had a lot of ties there [at the school I applied to], but I didn't get an interview for it. They only interviewed three guys, who I thought were similar to me in some ways, but they all had D1 experience. I felt like if I wanted to get a head coaching job at the college level, I'd have to get D1 coaching experience.

Because John's experience as a high school coach was not as extensive enough to land a head coaching job and his network was not as effective as he hoped it would be, he relied on his basketball knowledge to get his first D1 assistant job:

Because I didn't have a relationship with them [the D1 staff he applied to], I had to essentially put together a portfolio of my work and show my skills and level of responsibility, how detailed I was. I showed them a video of my teams that I'd coached...they were looking for someone who had an influence with the offense.

John has to impress an unknown staff when he applied to a D1 school. Because of his tacit knowledge with an offensive system that few people know, he landed the job. While there, he changed the way he interacted with the staff, and, in particular, the head coach:

Then, if I thought something, I would just bring it up in front of everybody, to get it out on the table so everyone can think about it. Now, I would probably try to bring some of those things up one-on-one with the [head] coach, so he has time to think about it, so he wouldn't think I didn't believe in him. I'd try to handle things one on one, face to face.

Once John settled into his routine, he detailed his network building:

I had to establish new relationships with people [in] some areas I hadn't been to. I'd never been [in this area] before. I had no connections out here, I just had to set out brick by brick and reach out to people who know people to build the program. In a lot of ways I think the relationships that I've cultivated are starting to blossom. ...I would just call people and ask for recommendations on other people to talk to [like] other coaches who knew those areas well, ask them who they knew, who was important to know, and reach out to those people. I just try to keep in contact with them every now and then, and just over time build a relationship with them.

Vernard (6) outlined the cognitive processes of how he thought about networking as it shaped his identity because it is "All about networking. Anytime you went and scouted there were usually other coaches there. If they were a full-time coach, you wanted to know as many people as you can, and develop relationships and trust, because someday that could help you."

Vernard's integrative thinking paid off because the relationships he built secured every job in his career path. He described a few of these moves in detail:

I knew the staff at [a rival school], because they were in our league. One day, [an assistant at the rival school] called me up and asked me if I was interested in interviewing for a job, and told me he was going to get me the job. I didn't believe him when he told me that, but I went down there and met with [the head coach]. For 15 minutes they walked me around the building, and 30 minutes later, they brought me a contract, and said the job was mine.

From there, Vernard was hired at another school—each time gaining more responsibilities and earning a salary raise—by an assistant coach he worked with at a prior school. Because of this prior relationship, when Vernard's friend received the head coaching job at that school, he told Vernard "I need you to go with me." Vernard continued to proactively build his network and, in doing so, had established a reputation among his peers which, based on his expertise, solidified his coaching identity. In fact, after five years at that school, he was offered a very high profile assistant job at a top tier school because of his reputation based solely on his network:

I was offered the [high profile] job, which I said yes to, because I was going from a low major program...to a high major school, and there was an increase in salary. I didn't know him [the head coach who hired Vernard]. The assistant coach that was there called me one day and said he wanted me to interview with [the head coach].

Job crafting shapes one's work identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, the form and amount of interaction with others affects future social environments. Just as being connected to the "right" individuals could help one get a job, being connected to the "wrong" individuals could be toxic to future job opportunities. Ironically, Vernard mentioned that, the assistant coach that got him the prestigious job, "became a bad guy." He continued, "he was just a bad person from the beginning...I didn't trust him, couldn't work with him. It was just not good, not healthy." Vernard realized that, if he continued to be associated with this coach, his reputation and network may be damaged. He cognitively processed much of this information in his decision to leave. He said that this "was my favorite job, by far. It was very easy, I loved living [there], I loved being at an academic school like [that]. It was very prestigious...But I left because I had a very bad working relationship with [that coach], and I just didn't want to deal with it anymore, so I made the decision to move."

Instead of dwelling on the negative aspects of this situation, Vernard relied on his experience and ability to proactively build his network. He responded to the negative situation by seeking other coaching opportunities:

Every day is a chance to network, whether it's a phone call for recruiting, a scheduling phone call, whatever it is, you have the opportunity to network all the time. [I was] just being friendly and talkative, calling guys and asking them how they're doing, picking their brains about basketball, recruiting, different matters that give you a reason to call someone.

In the end, because of the way Vernard saw his coaching identity, he realized the current situation was not allowing him to create a desirable identity that fulfilled his needs and brought meaning to his job. Like many of the coaches, he found other positions by relying on his network and being able to prove his experience and knowledge. However, each coach had aspirations of becoming a head coach. In achieving this goal, they began to understand the

broader context that inevitably meant they had to be a part of a winning program; they had to win games.

Pressure to Succeed

In addition to fulfilling a calling and establishing an identity, I found there was an intense pressure for coaches to succeed. They would not be able to continue pursuing their calling if they were forced out of coaching because they did not win. I found two ways in which coaches mitigated the pressure to succeed: (1) they worked around the clock to develop strategy and (2) they were intrinsically motivated by competition. Because the coaches had been competitors throughout their lives, they were excited by the challenges of winning games.

Strategy development. When coaches engaged in strategy development, it was a combination of seeking the best solutions, discovering ways to win, and allocating their recourse efficiently. Seeking best solutions were proactive change coaches could make during a game (e.g., making substitutions or deciding which plays to run given a certain situation). Discovering way to win was based on scouting reports that depicted opponents' strengths and highlighted way to exploit their weaknesses. Coaches managed their budgets, boosters, decided which coaches to send out recruiting and which players to offer scholarships when allocating resources.

Work-related behaviors were evident as the coaches explained how they approached strategy in the context of winning games in order to succeed. First, Nathan (11) set the context of working at D1 vs. D2 because of “the pressure of the D1 level. You have to win, and there’s more pressure recruiting. The school is bigger, there are more people, there are more departments, so it’s more of a business type thing than at the D2 level.” Oscar (12) added, “It’s just the harsh reality of what this business is all about. It’s about winning, money...you have to win. If you don’t win...chances are you’re going to be fired.”

The coaches mentioned several keys to winning. Although easier said than done, Oscar explained the importance of good players because “You aren’t going to win if you don’t have good players.” JoAnn (19) found the best solutions during games as she “was implementing certain plays and defensive and offensive strategies, out of bounds plays, things like that. [Handling] pressure situations.” She mentioned that the reason she was hired was that she could find ways to win by making in-game adjustments, “She hired me, not because of my recruiting at that point, but more for my X’s and O’s and strategies.” JoAnn altered her job tasks by reframing the purpose of her job to experience her work differently. Although she had recruited before and considered it her top priority, her current job required a focus on in-game strategy in order to win. By grounding her priorities within the context of her current job, she achieved meaning through a different purpose.

Another part of the strategic development relied on preparing to win before facing an opponent. This included ensuring players were well rested, had proper nutrition, and were prepared with an accurate scouting report of each opponent. JoAnn explained her complete approach to building strategy and how her approach helped her become an X’s and O’s expert:

Every time you work for someone, you learn...whether you like what they’re doing or not, you can put things in your memory bank. I have probably 10 file boxes with basketball stuff. I save everything...drills, plays, philosophy. You take a little bit from everyone you work with, and develop your own way of how you want to do it. I learned a lot from her [the head coach], whether it was her ideas about how to play player-to-player defense, or zone press offense, or running jump, you just steal from everything.

Carl (24) explained that his view on strategy comes from knowing what your current players can and cannot do:

I’m not a fan of pick n’ roll. The game’s changed a little bit...I think that players back then were more well-rounded. With how basketball has come, you have guys now who only shoot 3 point shots. They’re specialists...I think some of these guys aren’t as well-rounded as they were before, because all they do is shoot 3 pointers.

He also explained that, just because a team wins an NBA championship, does not mean every coach should adopt that team's strategy and expect to win:

The thing is that 99.9% of [teams] don't have players who can shoot like the [NBA champs] do. [Every team will] be out there doing the same thing they [NBA champs] do, but they're not going to spend hundreds of hours improving their jump shots. Back in the day, when [championship teams] ran, everybody wanted to play like them, but they didn't understand that they had to make a big commitment to the strategy and conditioning, and handling ball transition at a great pace. That takes a lot of work.

Carl emphasized that changing strategy should be done based on a team's current personnel, not based on outside influences from other teams that win. Barbara (18), recounting her time as a high school head coach, explained "When you are the figurehead of the program, what you think and what you say are very important. ...When you have so much is on your plate, you have to be organized." Her perspective was informative because she illuminated how a head coach has to juggle many sources of data in order to develop her strategy and handle the pressure to succeed:

[As a] head coach, there are things you thought you wanted to do, but the bottom line you have to realize is that you have to stay true to what you believe. Just because you don't take someone's suggestion doesn't mean it wasn't good, it just means that you thought something else would work better. ...If I don't do everything you [assistant coaches] suggest to me every time, don't feel hurt. I use them [suggestions] a lot of the time, but not every time. Ultimately, as head coach, I have to make what I think is the best decision at the time.

Barbara highlighted one aspect of the resourcing decisions coaches make. Head coaches have to process various inputs from their staff and choose the best solutions, an exercise in equifinality. They must choose the means they expect will most directly help them achieve their goals. The quest for success is multifinal in the sense that head coaches have limited resources and must use them efficiently. They must choose single options that satisfy multiple goals. Barbara's career path showed how she incorporated her proactive skill development (a PCB),

high school coaching experience, and network to earn a job as a D3 head coach. She explained, “I became a D3 head coach after that year. Since I had a master’s degree, I could teach.” In this case, her master’s degree allowed her to not only coach, but also teach, which is something that brought meaning to her life.

All coaches must decide on which players to recruit, which teams to schedule, which plays work best, and a host of other options (e.g., where to stay, which classes players take, when to host study hall, what players eat, budget constraints etc...). Head coaches are ultimately responsible for these decisions, but must rely on assistants for input. JoAnn (19) explained this well when she applied to become a head coach, “I had questions I wanted answered, not so much my salary, but things that the program was going to offer itself, like what is the budget...or what kinds of assistance did they have academically for the athletes.”

To some degree, assistants must impress the head coach with their ideas so that, when they want to be promoted or apply for a head-coaching job, their current head coach will support them. Nathan (11) illustrated this concept by stating, “The biggest thing I learned...was sticking up if you believe a kid is good enough, or fighting for something if you think it’s the right idea. If you had an opinion, the coach is going to make you fight for it, just to see how much you believe in your opinion, whether it’s about recruiting, a player, an issue on campus, or a game plan.” One reason being a champion for their ideas drives assistants to succeed is because they are typically on single-year contracts that renew annually. Head coaches are often on multi-year contracts and will be bought out of that contract if they are fired. Because assistants do not have as much job security, they, too, feel the pressure to succeed.

Excitement of competition. Coaches are also drawn to this profession by its competitive nature. Many coaches previously played the sport they coach and long for the game day atmosphere. The thrill of winning keeps them coming back and the fear of losing drives them to work harder so that they do succeed.

Javier (8) makes it clear that “We’re competing; trying to win every game...because that’s what makes sports worth playing. It’s not just about going out there and having fun. It’s competitive!” Ricky (5) expands on the atmosphere demanding success, “Coaching’s not a 9-5 job; you’re going to invest a ton of time into the players and program, and you want to be in a situation that’s healthy as much as possible. That may be hard to do, because money corrupted the game...there’s serious money going to head coaches, high stakes there. Those guys feel the pressure with every basket, and every missed shot. For some guys, I think it changes them.” Because of these high stakes, coaches are evaluated on “Wins and losses. All it takes is one booster who isn’t happy, and wasn’t willing to pay the remaining part of the head coach’s contract...We knew it was a possibility, and 2 weeks later, we were fired,” said NaThan. Oscar explained he had to increase his responsibilities to preserve his job:

My 1st 2 years, it [my job] was all on the floor player development, practice planning, game planning, and then after two years, we didn’t get many good players, so I did a lot of recruiting and moved into that role [lead recruiter]. ...the [other] assistants didn’t do anything [to that point] but recruit and I did everything else. That was the real reason we weren’t very successful, and I did a lot of recruiting after that.

Oscar was motivated to craft his job and because it had been changing in unexpected ways; he changed its purpose to suit his desire to succeed. He altered job tasks dramatically by taking over as recruiting coordinator for the program. Although he made sizeable changes and disrupted others’ work, he was determined to “win” the recruiting game because his future job opportunities depended on it. He reframed the purpose of how they recruited and focused on

younger recruits. He said, “We tried to get commitments from guys who were underclassmen. We got one who committed as a junior in high school. There are only two players in the history of college basketball who have scored 2500 points, 600 rebounds. We had a couple guys like him who committed early, and totally turn the program around.” Oscar altered the landscape of his job from a promotion-focused lens; he sought opportunities with potential gains by recruiting younger players. He wanted to take advantage of opportunities other recruiters had overlooked or not considered in order to experience the thrill of winning.

After being fired, Nathan realized how unpredictable the coaching business was. Job security became far more important to him and his family. In fact, he began to view his job through a prevention-focused lens:

It taught me how to be a recruiter. I had to recruit every day, just little things. Sometimes the kids you get are your backup recruits, because you don’t always get who you want. Your backups had better be good players, too. Sometimes, guys have backups who are just backup recruits and things go wrong.

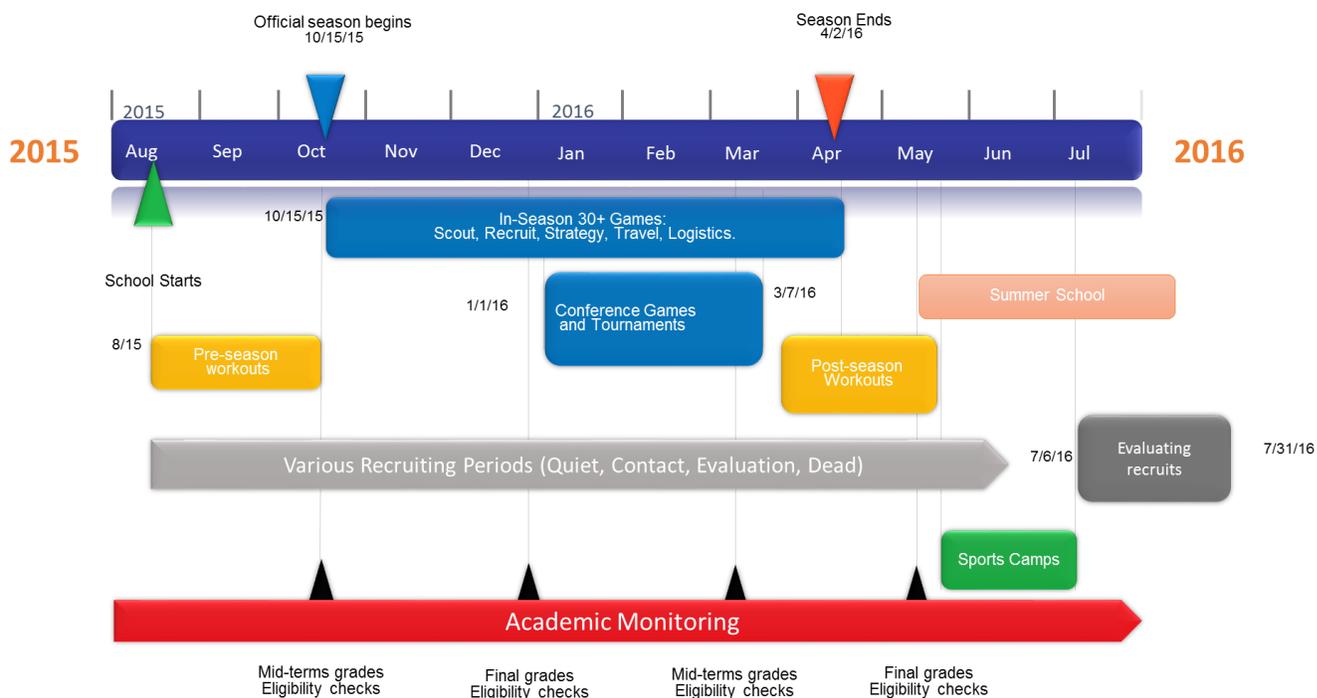
Nathan wanted to avoid the pain of being fired again. He wanted to avoid errors of commission in the sense that, if he was unable to sign his top recruit, his back up recruits were almost as good. He would not commit the error of signing an unprepared recruit. It was clear that the strength of his regulatory (prevention) focus was interacting with the way he saw his future such that he altered work-related behaviors to minimize losses in order to keep his FWS salient and intact.

Resolving Discontinuities between Work and Family

As a result of these interviews, I came to realize how hard it was for coaches to balance work and family. Basketball is the longest season in college sports lasting from October to April. Pre-season workouts go from August to October and post-season work start after the season ends in April and continue until graduation. Figure 10 is a calendar of the most important

events in the college basketball timeline. The pressures of the job led coaches to decide which of their many responsibilities would be given priority. Many coaches outlined tenets they prioritized and explained it in the context of balancing time with their loved ones.

Figure 10: Example Timeline of D1 Coaching Schedule and Events



Notes: Not all events included. Example only.

Tenets of the job. As illustrated in Figure 10, coaching is a year round job. The coaches realized they had to work around the clock, holidays and weekends are consumed with basketball, vacations are scarce, and family time is nearly non-existent. Chris (13) detailed his duties: “I did everything: scouting, recruiting, individual workouts, game prep, laundry, cleaning the floor, getting money, whatever it was I had a chance to do. ...I was just obsessed with getting to the top of the league, that’s what I wanted.” He indicated that those duties gave him clarity and a focus on what was most important:

Humility, unselfishness, empathy. ...Get people to have empathy for their teammates, you have a chance at creating a special player. We talk a lot about the energy they bring into the arena every day. I think it’s very important to bring the right mindset. One of the

things I wrote down in my notebook the other day was, “You become what you cultivate,” so I’m going to work on what we’ve cultivated here. Over the past 3 years, we’ve cultivated a great group of guys who believe in one another. They believe they can beat anyone on any given day, and that when things get tough, they can rely on the guy next to them. We’ve also cultivated unselfishness, goal definition, and we have to evaluate that and see what those things mean for us.

Interestingly, when I asked coaches if they had any tenets that they incorporated into their work, most focused on intangible qualities and personal characteristics. This seemed to resonate with these individuals seeking occupations that fulfilled their callings; they wanted to inspire young individuals to have core personal values, help others, and be productive members of society. Indeed, the coaches expected more from their work than just a salary; they expected to derive meaning and fulfill a sense of purpose at work. Reggie (16) experienced meaning at work by narrowing the mental scope of his job. He mentioned his tenets stem from “focusing on the short-term, trying to be the best you can be daily, in life, academics, and basketball, in that order. You have to try to be a good person, get better, improve, and grow.”

Eddie (22) underscored these points as he described some of the tasks he was responsible for as a D2 assistant. He explained his career path and some of the steps along the way:

...driving the bus, the vans, cleaning the dorms, sweeping the court, cleaning the locker room, room checks, curfew checks, recruiting. ...Player development, defense, at that level you have to do it all. I was making \$10,000/yr [in 2005] and I was working more than full-time hours. My dad said I was smart and had a degree and wondered what I was doing, but then again, having that experience has made me appreciate every stop on my coaching journey. When you get into this business, you should never do it for money, you should do it because you’re called to do it, and you’re passionate about it.

Eddie’s articulation of his jobs and why he chose this profession allowed him to draw mental connections between what he was doing (i.e., specific tasks) and how those experiences would help him develop as a coach. He knew he wanted to be a head coach but was unsure of the exact path he needed to take. Through a series of equifinal steps, he continued to move forward and became a D1 assistant. His promotion focus allowed him to seize every opportunity

to craft his job, add tasks, build relationships, and seek mentorship. His FWS was clear and salient:

I've always been driven to be a coach...knew I wanted to coach at the highest level of basketball, and those were my goals. I never put a timetable with any of them, but I knew I wanted to be a head coach. ...My mentor told me it was my job to figure it out. If it needed to be done, I did it. If we needed to mop, I mopped. You didn't ask questions. If there was film we needed to watch, we did it. It doesn't have to be coaching, but in life, you have to be proactive, get things done without people telling you what to do.

By understanding the amount of work that needed to be done and the types of tasks that were required, Eddie showed how he (or anyone) could leverage his strengths to cultivate meaningfulness while pursuing his passions.

Relationships and children. Sometimes outside influences compelled coaches to take a hard look at their priorities. Thomas (1) explained his internal cognitive struggles as he balanced work and family:

The demands of coaching at a D1 level with recruiting travel and the hours...was hard. My kids were getting to the age of knowing when I would leave and how long I would be gone. It was hard for me to balance being a good dad and a basketball coach so...I started looking back at a D3 job. I applied for a few of those. At D3, the rules are different, you can't work out with kids in summer. It's...not year round like in D1. ...There is more flexibility there.

During that time, Thomas was diagnosed with cancer, which made him interpret, evaluate, and craft his job much differently:

I always struggled with the amount of time required for the job and travel required. ...But then I was diagnosed with cancer...and realized...it could cut your life short. The realization of that throws things back into the correct order of priorities. ...Before [the diagnosis] it was job, family, health, faith. Now it became flipped to faith, family, health, job. Job went from first to last. ...It doesn't have to be this way. It was like people thought if you're not at work, you're not working. ...The only time you need to be a basketball coach is on the court. All this other stuff can be done from home. ...For some reason people think unless you are in the office you're not doing your job.

In this case, Thomas was reframing the relationships he had not only at work, but also

with his family. He spent a lot of time cognitively crafting his job and worked through these issues with his wife. He decided to craft his job in a way that he could spend time with his family, coach basketball, and work a side hobby he was fond of:

Right now I'm enjoying not coaching...but my wife says I don't want you to leave coaching because I don't want you regret it. I told her that coaching is probably 10% of a coach's job. The rest of it is just crap! So, I can get that 10% working camps, [basketball] clinics, and other ways. And spend the other 90% of my time doing graphic design or with my kids and family. I can get my coaching fix and then still be able to do all this other stuff.

It was clear many of the coaches struggled with this balance. Lister (7) said, "I'd probably prefer to be a D3 head coach...I could spend my summers with my kids; I wouldn't have the recruiting pressure and all those things. I thought it'd be a good way to raise a family and do what I wanted, which was coaching." Francisco (9) left his D1 assistant job to become a D2 head coach and took a 50% pay cut "because what I can do here, spending time with my boys, is priceless." In fact, this seemed to be a recurring theme as Bob (2) had the same preference: "I'd say for \$70 or \$80K I'd take the D2 job over twice that as a D1 assistant." Overall, Lister explained, "You have to be sensitive to your family, to their needs, because all coaches have wins and losses. You take that [pressure] home, and it's not fair to [your family]. You have to be considerate of their time and their needs as well." And Nathan (11) described how family affects his career path and FWS:

You have to try to better yourself and your family, and hope that your kids can adjust. At this point, I can't jump around, just like other jobs. I can't go to one school this year, and another next year, with my kids. That's not giving them time to mature, have friends, etc.... Like I said earlier, kids change things, and it's no longer about you.

Accordingly, all of the coaches had a deep sense of personal fulfillment and responsibility to their families. They also had to balance the tenets of their job and work around the clock to satisfy both, their boss and family.

Summary Study 3:

Study 3 portrays a self that is predicated on how individuals make changes at work in order to become their FWS. It shines a spotlight on the experiences coaches have as they navigate their career paths to become head coaches. It provided a unique window into the challenges of such an esteemed profession. To understand this more fully, I explained that coaches are drawn to this profession as a calling. Individuals with a calling orientation find their work and life inseparable, are not merely seeking financial gain, and are fulfilled with the work they do (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). In line with these principles, the respondents were driven to become coaches from an internal passion that inspired them to engage in meaningful work that consumed their lives (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011; Neubert & Halbesleben, 2015). Recruiting and developing young people brings meaning to their lives through their work. In fulfilling their callings, coaches build their identities. They take ownership of their jobs and alter work boundaries to ensure they remain fulfilled. They leverage their experience and knowledge as they build their networks through various proactive career behaviors. As they gain more autonomy and move up the coaching ladder, they begin to feel more pressure to succeed. They combat this pressure by developing strategies and looking forward to the competition. Finally, they must constantly resolve conflicts between their jobs and their loved ones. This total experience is heavily dependent on their disposition to seek gains (promotion focus) or avoid losses (prevention focus). As they assess the results of their work-related behaviors, they substitute among means to determine which will bring them closer to their FWS. They decide which parts of their jobs (e.g., recruiting, scouting, networking) are most important and when; they decide which opportunities (e.g., D1 assistant or D2 head coach) are best for their careers and families. Because time is precious, and they are working around the

clock, they seek multifinal means to accomplish more than one goal concurrently. Some had proactively developed skills (e.g., earned master's degrees) that allowed them to coach and teach; some spent time networking while they were recruiting. Put simply, coaches understand the constraints of their profession; they adapt by staying focused on their end goal—their FWS—and engage in a variety of work-related behaviors in order to become a head coach.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of my dissertation was to test a model of how a salient FWS would predict various work-related behaviors. I also sought to explain how one's regulatory focus would interact with one's FWS concept to predict these behaviors at work. This chapter highlights those findings and explains them in the context of past, current, and future theoretical contributions. Next, I will then explain the theoretical and managerial implications of this body of research. Finally, I will discuss the strengths and limitations of my dissertation and offer suggestions on how future research can extend the research I have outlined here.

My goal was to build on the existing research that examined connections between one's FWS and various concepts at work (e.g., proactivity, engagement, self-development). Previous work showed that a salient FWS was distinct from other, related constructs such as career commitment, career aspirations, or general future orientation (Strauss et al., 2012). Other researchers used FWS to predict specific personality traits such as conscientiousness and altruism (Strobel et al., 2013).

I advanced the theory by examining the role one's FWS plays in guiding work-related behaviors. To produce a deeper explanation of one's FWS, I employed three studies in a mixed-methods approach in order to investigate these relationships. Study 1 was a quantitative study that analyzed the empirical moderation model. In Study 1 I predicted, and found support, that those with a more salient future focus (i.e., FWS) would engage in significantly more work-related behaviors. I also incorporated the role of one's regulatory focus because I expected that

having a promotion focus (i.e., gain seeking mentality) as opposed to a prevention focus (i.e., loss avoidance mentality) would interact with one's FWS to significantly increase the relationship between FWS and work-related behaviors. While I did not find support for regulatory focus as a moderator, post hoc analyses indicated regulatory focus may act as a mediator. Indeed, research has shown that regulatory focus does mediate the relationship between one's FWS and some personality characteristics (e.g., altruism, civic virtue) related to OCB (Strobel et al., 2013).

I conducted focus group interviews in Study 2 to emphasize the process that explained the relationships I tested in Study 1. Through this qualitative approach, I studied STEM students at the cusp of their careers and found that, each had a salient vision of his or her FWS and was engaged in all of the three work-related behaviors I described. Study 3 built on my first two studies by allowing me to uncover how, when, why, and to what extent individuals engage in work-related behaviors in pursuit of their dream job or FWS. I interviewed basketball coaches at various stages in their careers to explain how they make decisions among job opportunities, what they take into account (e.g., salary, family, prestige, autonomy), and why they would choose options that, from the outside looking in, seem bizarre (e.g., taking a pay cut to work at a lower level). I found they constantly balance their desires and preferences with their passions in order to get closer to their FWS of becoming a head coach.

Throughout the studies, I explained the pathways to one's FWS with the concepts of equifinality and multifinality. These concepts were especially lucid in Study 2 and Study 3. The participants explained the choices they made between tasks, or means, and how they balanced those choices by envisioning their future. By substituting what they considered the best choice of alternatives, they incorporated equifinality in order to obtain their career goals. Because of

time or other constraints, participants often selected alternatives that could satisfy more than one goal. This course of action is multifinal in goal attainment. In Study 2 for example, participants might choose to learn a foreign language to help them study abroad or because they thought they might enjoy the challenge. However, learning a language was useful in their career because of the international reach of most modern companies. In essence, learning a foreign language in school helped them study abroad and it helped them become a more attractive job candidate in the future. Study 3 participants would find ways to recruit, scout, network, and strategize while traveling with their teams to games. Overall, participants exhibited work-related behaviors in a manner consistent with achieving their FWS and chose the best options among many possible behaviors to satisfy both short and long-term goals.

Results and Outcomes

In Study 1, I developed and tested an empirical model suggesting the importance of one's FWS in how individuals engage in work-related behaviors. This is especially true because careers have become more boundaryless and individuals have increasing responsibilities to shape their own paths (Strauss et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). I expected that those with a salient picture of their future at work would be most likely to engage in these specific work-related behaviors (i.e., job crafting, PCB, OCB). Hypotheses 1a-1c predicted that FWS would have a significant and positive relationship with each of the three work-related behaviors I examined. The results of Study 1 supported each of these three hypotheses; individuals that had a clear vision for their future exhibited significantly more of all three work-related behaviors.

In addition, drawing on regulatory focus theory, I expected that individuals more likely to have a promotion focus, but not those with a prevention focus propensity, would interact with one's FWS to predict these work-related behaviors. Hypotheses 2a-2c predicted that promotion

focus would moderate the relationship between one's FWS and work-related behaviors. Unfortunately, these hypotheses were not supported. Perhaps one suggestion for the lack of support for these hypotheses is the reduced power from a smaller sample size than initially expected and procedures for handling missing data. Also, due to turnover, a negligible number of employees survived all three waves of data collection. A longitudinal analysis with more employees would be useful in determining if, and to what extent, regulatory focus impacts these relationships. Further, because some studies have indicated regulatory focus is a mediating mechanism through which FWS relates to work-related behaviors, I ran post hoc tests to investigate these effects and found support.

In Study 2, I used qualitative content analysis to analyze focus group interviews. I reviewed the transcripts and discovered emergent themes as participants explained how they became STEM students and why they wanted to continue down that path. Analyzing the focus groups revealed that, over the course of one's life, various factors motivate behaviors that result in one's FWS. I noticed four distinct patterns: backgrounds, talent, preferences, and environmental cues that made one's FWS more salient and, in turn, led individuals to engage in work-related behaviors. In doing so, I found support that individuals choose certain behaviors over others (i.e., equifinal in nature) in order to accomplish goals on their career paths. In addition, those with salient visions of their future were very clear on what they wanted to do and what steps they need to follow to accomplish their goals. Thus, I was able to understand why individuals would choose certain behaviors over others in order to promote both short and long-term success in a multifinal sense. For example, one participant was taking a class on soccer to have fun, to learn, to exercise, and to prepare for studying abroad in Italy—where soccer is very popular—because he wanted to work in Italy one day. At first glance, taking a soccer class

instead of a class more related to STEM seemed odd until he explained how it supports multiple life goals. Overall, Study 2 gave me insight into how individuals become committed to STEM and why they want to continue in that field. Because these individuals were just beginning their careers and did not have much work experience, I incorporated Study 3 to look at individuals in all stages of their careers.

In Study 3, I interviewed basketball coaches because they have a very clear career path. They all had played basketball and, at some point, decided they wanted to coach. I was interested in understanding the trigger point that represented the shift from being a player to becoming a coach instead of working in another profession. I found that becoming a coach was a clear calling. All of the coaches were drawn to pursue it and expected it to be intrinsically enjoyable and meaningful (Berg, Grant, Johnson, 2010). My results showed that coaches selected work-related behaviors based on the likelihood that each behavior would bring them closer to becoming a head coach. Although it was evident that coaches, especially as they began their careers, had to do every task imaginable, they were constantly thinking about how each task fit into the overall picture (i.e., cognitive job crafting) and wanted to show they could do anything and do it well (i.e., impression management). Another surprising result was how much coaches valued their autonomy. Many coaches indicated that they would rather be a head coach at a lower level (e.g., D2, D3, high school) than an assistant at the D1 level. This indicated that the coaches valued autonomy over salary because most D1 assistants are paid more than lower level head coaches. In fact, many of the coaches mentioned taking pay cuts to become lower level head coaches instead of remaining D1 assistants.

Throughout my interviews, four aggregate themes emerged. I noticed coaches were called to serve, wanted to establish their own identity, were under significant pressure to

succeed, and had to balance all of their work stressors against family commitments. By investigating this, I found that coaches quickly learned which tasks would bring success and meaning quickest. And, when choosing options, each coach's regulatory focus clearly impacted decisions. For example, coaches that previously worked at a school where the coaching staff was released were more likely to focus on job security in their new jobs. Indeed, prevention focus dictated that they concentrate more on the rules and responsibilities of their jobs in order to prevent losses and avoid mistakes. Conversely, new coaches or coaches that did not have that negative experience were more likely to engage in these three work-related behaviors because they sought every possible opportunity to move up in the coaching ranks. They concentrated on hopes and aspirations to align them more closely with their future selves; they were eager to make progress by finding ways (e.g., talking to other head coaches with vacancies on their staffs may increase the chances of getting a job there or earning a promotion in the current job) to achieve their goals.

Coaches also had constraints that made them focus on which tasks or jobs were most promising. While in their current roles, coaches had to prioritize among tasks such as recruiting, scouting, monitoring academics, developing strategy, and fundraising. In addition, coaches had to be aware of other open coaching positions and understand the likelihood that their contracts would be renewed each year. To accomplish this, I found that coaches also incorporated equifinality and multifinality. Equifinality and multifinality worked as feedback mechanisms based on the work-related behaviors each coach engaged in. For example, assistant coaches had to decide if they stayed in their current position with aspirations of moving up in at their current school, finding an open assistant job at another school, or taking a head coaching job that was

usually at a lower level. Equifinality explains this decision as coaches are substituting among possible means to reach their long-term goal of becoming a head coach.

I noticed that the coaches said that they always wanted to be a D1 head coach. This was the case at least when they started coaching. They knew that taking a lower level head coaching job could take them off their preferred D1 head coach career path. This decision did not come lightly. However, as coaches progressed, they learned how much time and effort goes into being an assistant and how hard it is to balance work with family. Multifinality explained that they had to take the job that could meet many, sometimes conflicting, goals. Thus, some coaches took lower level head coaching jobs because it satisfied their career goals (they became their FWS) and gained control over their time, which made their families happier. This indicates the continual feedback loop of having a salient FWS, engaging in various work-related behaviors to achieve that FWS, and incorporating equifinality and multifinality in order to efficiently accomplish multiple goals.

Overall, the results from these three studies explain one's career path. I found that individuals with salient visions of their FWS will find ways to promote their career trajectory in order to achieve their FWS. Each study built on the others, such that Study 1 provided initial empirical support for some of the relationships among these constructs, Study 2 explained how individuals initially start their careers, and Study 3 offered a coherent holistic picture of the process of achieving one's FWS over an entire career.

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical implications of my dissertation revolve around understanding and interpreting one's FWS in concert with regulatory focus theory. In addition, I investigated equifinality and multifinality in goal attainment as it relates to achieving one's FWS. Therefore,

my hypotheses help refine theory about the nature and pursuit of one's FWS in conjunction with job crafting, PCB, and OCB.

I was able to extend the perspective on these constructs in three key ways. First, I extended the literature that has been investigating that dispositional antecedents of OCB are driven by one's FWS (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Strobel et al., 2013). However, the majority of the past research focused on "Big Five" personality traits and did not concentrate on one's career path. By focusing on how one progress through work, I found a more accurate depiction of why individuals choose certain behaviors over others. By focusing on the proactive dimension of an individual's personality as manifested through the work-related behaviors I specified, I explained how the process unfolded for individuals and was able to base this to some extent, on their disposition to promotion focus.

My second contribution adds insight into the inherent future focus of all three work-related behaviors. Specifically, I extend the job crafting literature because its antecedents and outcomes of job crafting have been understudied to date (Tims et al., 2012). Answering calls in the literature to develop a more nuanced and process-based account of how and why people introduce job crafting at work and to what extent people express their creativity, improvise, and learn (i.e., receive and implement feedback) from these actions over time (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), I found that specific career goals led job crafters to change the breadth and scope of their current job to align with their FWS. This, in turn, enhanced the meaning of their jobs and gave them confidence they could achieve their end goals at work. In essence, I uncovered the way individuals translate the work they do today into future success, which explains the motivational power of future work selves.

My third contribution integrates regulatory focus with one's FWS. Although my empirical model did not support my predictions in Study 1, I was able to see a clear interactive connection between how individuals viewed opportunities and how much they sought to engage in work-related behaviors. Regulatory focus theory explains how individuals align actions with future goals (Brockner et al., 2004). Regulatory focus helps explain when and why certain behaviors would be preferable over others and which type of focus will better match one's intentions, actions, and goals with outcomes (Higgins, 1998). RFT helps us understand the circumstances under which individuals will be successful in their activities (Brockner et al., 2004). For example, the STEM students in Study 2 seemed eager for advancement and were strategically inclined to approach their FWS (Wallace et al., 2009). In line with a promotion focus, they were matching their actions to their goals by seeking positive outcomes. In Study 3, coaches had a wider range of views on how they would achieve their FWS. It was clear that many had a promotion focus because they sought ways to approach their desired end-states. However, some coaches, especially those that had been fired or gone through other negative events (e.g., bad seasons, losing recruits, many players with injuries), mentioned how they would seek security in their job by avoiding actions that could lead to those negative events. They were vigilant to avoid anything that would prevent them from reaching their desired FWS (Higgins, 1997). The implication for the students in Study 2 is that age or even naivety may play a factor in one's mindset. Because these students may not have experienced the same negative outcomes as some of the coaches in Study 3 (or more seasoned workers in STEM fields), they may not realize the challenges that could prevent them from attaining their goals or how the demands of the environment may influence the trajectory of their FWS. Understanding how one's regulatory focus plays a role in one's actions can be useful in job that may be best suited for one orientation

over the other. This underscores the importance of regulatory fit—the ongoing subconscious process of synchronizing preferred behaviors with the demands of the environment—because of its ties to work performance (Shah et al., 1998; Higgins, 2000). For example, a high-tech firm may be more interested in growth and being at the cusp of new technology. In this case, a company with these goals may seek promotion focused individuals. In contrast, prevention focused individuals may be more suited for roles in accounting, regulatory, safety, and compliance occupations.

In short, as individuals engage in workplace behaviors to come closer to achieving their FWS, they incorporate an amorphous, multifinal approach. As they progress, they receive direct or indirect feedback and respond to situational cues that allow them to adjust their approach or perspective of their FWS. With a conceptual understanding of multifinality in goal attainment and the feedback loop created as an individual approaches the goals described in a FWS, I extended the literature by presenting findings that connect individuals' goals with what they choose to do in order to accomplish their goals.

Managerial Implications

These studies provide insight on employees' work behaviors, which provides a valuable tool for managers in the workplace. By realizing that future work selves are tied to ways employees use agentic efforts to shape their futures, managers can play a role in framing the identity of their subordinates as they progress. For example, because these work-related behaviors are tied to the individual and what the individual perceives will bring meaning, consequences for co-workers, managers, and organizations are not well developed. If managers understand what future employees desire, they can actively play a part in molding that individual into the FWS that fits within the organization and brings the individual meaning. My findings

suggest that cultivating this manager/employee relationship through career development opportunities can be beneficial to the organization, managers, and employees. However, managers must ensure that the future they provide for their employees fits their employees' salient vision of their future. Managers can inspire future work selves in employees by providing feedback to employees that resonates with their FWS. By showing confidence in how the employee shapes his or her career, a manager can build on the employee's ability and potential (Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999).

Because work-related behaviors stem from individuals using their autonomy to change work in order to meet their goals, these actions can create problems in organization; the agentic situation where employees may not always have the organization's best interests in mind may be counterproductive. Managers can resolve this conflict if they carefully decide which employees are best suited for certain situations. For example, if an employee often takes the initiative and enjoys working with others, a manager may request that this person be involved in the next group project. This coincides with this employee's preferences and may guide him or her to use distinctive strengths to craft this situation in a manner that could be beneficial and meaningful to the employee and the organization. A more introverted self-starter who prefers to work alone may be best suited for an individual project that requires much thought and little coworker interdependence. The distinction is that the manager is not dictating what or how someone must complete a task. The manager is creating situations for employees to achieve their goals within the context of work in a manner more likely to coincide with organizational goals. This gives employees autonomy to pursue meaning by completing tasks they desire most.

Limitations and Future Directions

As is the case with all studies, some limitations in this study must be addressed. First, although using self-report data is standard in management research, this introduces the possibility of upward bias as respondents may wish to inflate their true scores to match what they think is socially desirable or expected of them. However, my results were similar to other studies (Leana et al., 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Strauss et al., 2012; Strobel et al., 2013) using self-assessments of these variables which indicates consistent findings. Further, some behaviors, such as OCBs, may be hard for others to observe and one's own FWS and regulatory focus can only be ascertained by self-reports.

Although students were an appropriate sample for Study 2, as I described above, the characteristics of this sample may limit generalizability of the results. Proactivity and future thought are both likely to be prevalent among students because they are at the cusp of their careers; all they have is the future in front of them. Many of these PCBs are embedded in STEM programs; they are challenged to work together, build relationships, and seek job opportunities. Because they are at a transition point, students are likely to be more involved in future planning and have a more clear view of where they want to end up. However, despite these limitations, the depictions of work-related behaviors by the students fit within the context of the ratings in Study 1 and the elaborations in Study 3. Because Study 1 and Study 3 both included a wide range of people, the student population in Study 2 complemented the body of research in total. Future research should include different and diverse samples to tease out any biases in using a younger population when analyzing one's future focus.

The cross-sectional nature of Study 1 limits the evidence that can prove one's FWS causes one to engage in these work-related behaviors. Turnover in the organization for Study 1

made it difficult to capture longitudinal data. Future research that could follow participants through a longer portion of their career would be beneficial in noting how one's FWS vision changes over time or is realized. In fact, longitudinal data could help clarify differences in the starting points of individuals' FWS and the trajectory of one's career. For example, if a young, new employee desires to become CEO, when does that vision change? When does becoming a low-level manager become acceptable as achieving one's FWS, or does it ever replace the vision of becoming the CEO? If the person is passed over for a promotion to manager or vice president, is the FWS altered? Does this alter the trajectory of one's career path? If a person is promoted early, does the vision become more salient? Study 3 began to show how some of this plays out. Regardless of where they started their coaching careers, nearly all of the coaches initially desired to become a D1 head coach. Over time, and as they balanced work and family life, they realized that becoming *any* head coach could serve as achieving their FWS.

Finally, using abbreviated measures could be considered problematic. However, consistent with prior research, I chose the highest loading items from each of these scales. My decision was based, in part, on reducing survey fatigue by having fewer items on the survey. This allowed me to maximize comparability between my study and other research. Further, confirmatory factor analyses results supported the factor structure I hypothesized. Future studies may employ the full measures in order to gain more confidence in the findings.

Conclusion

The aim of my dissertation was to test a model of work-related behaviors that people engage in to become their FWS. I found significant and positive relations between one's FWS and three work-related behaviors (i.e., job crafting, PCB, OCB). I expected one's regulatory focus to play a role in interacting with one's FWS such that those with a higher promotions focus

would engage in more work-related behaviors. Although this was not evident, I briefly conducted post hoc testing to uncover that regulatory focus may be more likely to act as a mediator. In two qualitative studies, I gained a deeper understanding of how, why, when, and to what extent individuals engage in these work-related behaviors. It was clear that one's future focus influences the full range of work-related behaviors. Because one's FWS represents a goal, I found that equifinality and multifinality played a role in focal and distal goal attainment. Taken together, the results of this dissertation suggest that one's FWS is an important concept that motivates various work-related behaviors. Managed incorrectly, organizations could run the risk of higher turnover as they could more than ostracize and alienate employees who were seeking ways of making their jobs more meaningful. Managed correctly, the link between one's future focus and these behaviors can contribute to positive organizational results. Working with employees to develop a short and long-term plan that includes their FWS and meets organizational goals can cultivate a more engaged workforce over time.

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APPENDIX

Scale Items

Future Work Selves Salience (Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012)

This future is very easy for me to imagine.

The mental picture of this future is very clear.

I can easily imagine my Future Work Self.

I am very clear about who and what I want to become in my future work.

The type of future I want in relation to my work is very clear in my mind.

Proactive Career Behaviors (Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012)

I am planning what I want to do in the next few years of my career.

I am thinking ahead to the next few years and plan what I need to do for my career.

I engage in career path planning.

I have recently begun to think more about what I would like to accomplish in my work during the next year or two.

I develop skills which may not be needed so much now but in future positions.

I gain experience in a variety of areas to increase my knowledge and skills.

I develop knowledge and skills in tasks critical to my future work life.

I seek advice from my supervisor(s) or colleagues about additional training or experience I need in order to improve my future work projects.

I initiate talks with my supervisor about training or work assignments I need to develop skills that will help my future work chances.

I make my supervisor aware of my work aspirations and goals.

Job crafting (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013) - 15 items, * = Adapted from Leana et al., 2009

Introduce new approaches to improve your work*

Change the scope or types of tasks that you complete at work

Introduce new work tasks that you think better suit your skills or interests

Choose to take on additional tasks at work

Give preference to work tasks that suit your skills or interests

Think about how your job gives your life purpose

Remind yourself about the significance your work has for the success of the organization

Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community

Think about the ways in which your work positively impacts your life

Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being

Make an effort to get to know people well at work

Organize or attend work related social functions

Organize special events in the workplace (e.g., celebrating a co-worker's birthday)*

Choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially)
Make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) (Rioux & Penner, 2001) - 10 items in 3 OCB

Motive areas

Organizational Concern

Because I want to understand how the organization works.

Because I care what happens to the company.

Because I want to be fully involved in the company.

Prosocial Values

Because I feel it is important to help those in need.

Because I believe in being courteous to others.

Because I am concerned about other people's feelings.

Impression Management

To avoid looking bad in front of others.

To avoid looking lazy.

To look better than my co-workers.

Work Regulatory Focus Scale - (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, & Chonko, 2008) Based in Higgins 1997, 1998 RFT. 18 Items, first 9 for Promotion and last 9 for prevention

I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security.

Job security is an important factor for me in any job search.

At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security.

At work I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities.

Fulfilling my work duties is very important to me.

At work, I strive to live up to the responsibilities and duties given to me by others.

I do everything I can to avoid loss at work.

I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work.

I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work.

I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement.

I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success.

If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project I would definitely take it.

If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one.

A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job.

I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement.

I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations.

My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be.

At work, I am motivated by my hopes and aspirations.

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

GENERAL & BACKGROUND

When or how did you know you wanted to get into STEM?

Do you have family or friends involved in STEM? Or encouraging STEM?

What did you do previously to get you here today?

FUTURE SELF

What specific things interest you and why? (Pertaining to STEM or work in general)

What got you here?

What keeps you here?

What is your dream job? (And/or realistic dream job?)

What aspects make it so “dreamy?”

Does your current work align well with what you had thought you would do?

Where would you be if you weren't here? (Now or in general)

At work, do you (or will you) try to incorporate these [FWS ideas & plans] into daily routines?

How so?

How do you incorporate things you've done or learned at work to other parts of your life (personal, family, social, spiritual)? (And vice versa)

Have you thought about your future? With a particular company? With other companies?

Do you do anything outside of work that brings you closer to where you want to be in the future? Schooling? Taking lessons for something?

Are you pursuing any other occupations? (outside of STEM)

Have you been to a career fair? Recruiting materials? Seen websites? Presentations?

What did you like and why? Or why not? (ELABORATE)

Which companies are you interested in working for? Why?

Where do you see yourself in XX years? (1,3,5,10,20; and/or allow participant to pick time most salient for them)

What type of occupation or industry?

Could you see yourself working for the same company? For how long? Same industry?

Would you change industries? Why?

Do you expect to work on STEM tasks or would you ever work on the management side or another aspect of the business or company?

Where were you XX years ago?

Did you plan to be here?

How would you feel if you were working there (for named company) in XX years?

Have you had any difficulties getting to where you want to be?

Looking back, are you on your planned career path?

Is so, elaborate... (Why do you feel this way? What keeps you on track?)

If not, why not? What would get you on the path?

How will a STEM job balance with where you want to be in the future? Does it help you get there?

Does your family know about your plans? Are they supportive?

Do you have other life plans to share?

What else do you do that sets you up for this career?

What do you do that is unrelated to this career field?

JOB CRAFTING

**** Researcher's note: the job crafting section may go faster if participants have not held a job****

Has your job (or degree pursuit) changed since you started? If so, how?

What tasks do you do now? How did you end up doing these tasks?

Do you prefer certain tasks over others? Why?

What do you like least about the tasks you perform? Best?

Have you done anything to make this job "your own"?

Were there any key events that led you to make these changes?

Tasks (at work, internship, co-op, or in school)

Have you done anything to decide and define what responsibilities you have on your own?

Do you have assigned tasks?

Can you change these tasks?

Can you tell me a story about what you did on your own to alter tasks on a project (in school or at work, internship, or co-op)?

Did you encounter any problems or successes while making these changes?

Did anyone notice you doing this? If so, did they allow it? Stop you? Praise or penalize you?

Have you added tasks that you weren't originally supposed to do? Why? Which ones?

Are there tasks that have a "prescribed" way to be completed (i.e., company policy) that you have found an alternate way of completing?

Who decides when you complete your tasks?

Who picks the order in which you complete tasks?

Can you try new things at work? Examples?

Can you take action to complete a task if you notice it needs to be done? Examples?

Relational

Do you work with others on the job (at school)? How many others? In what capacity?

Have you always worked with them? For how long?

Do you get to choose who you work with?

Can you adjust who you work with?

Do you work in teams or groups?

Can you tell a story about who you've worked with or chose not to? How did that go?

Have other relationships at work changed?

What about with new employees? Who trains them?

Do you decide who to work with and when?

Cognitive

Do you think about this job and your work? How so? When?

Have you changed the way you think about your work (STEM) since being hire (here)?

How so? Why? Did anyone or anything influence this?

Do you think about this work in connection with past or future work you may want to do?

CONNECTIONS

Do you alter tasks today in order to set yourself up for a promotion? Another job? How so?

Do you try to work with people that can help you align with where you want to be?

Do you think about what you can do at work/school today to achieve future goals you may have?

Is there anything else that you do at work now in order to set yourself up for future work? Jobs? Careers?

RECRUITING:

(work in above or specifically here)

How many companies have contacted you? How did they reach you? [email, phone, career fair etc...]

How many have you contacted? How do you contact them?

When did they reach you? [before college – senior year]

Who contacted you? [HR, engineers, blanket email to everyone]

Get at the timing of when they were contacted and see if this impacts the companies they would look for or seek at a career fair etc...

Notes:

Bold items are primary (priority) questioning.

Follow up or deeper probing questions are in *italics*.

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

GENERAL & BACKGROUND

When or how did you know you wanted to get into coaching?

Did you play this sport? Other sports?

Do you have family or friends involved in coaching? Or encouraging coaching?

What did you do previously to get you here today?

Where else have you worked?

FUTURE SELF

What specific things interest you and why? (Pertaining to coaching or work in general)

[coaching, recruiting athletes, competition, scouting, winning, pay, prestige]

What got you here?

What keeps you here?

Does your current work align well with what you had thought you would do?

Where would you be if you weren't here? (Now or in general) [what other industry]

How do you incorporate things you've done or learned at work to other parts of your life (personal, family, social, spiritual)? (And vice versa)

At work, do you (or will you) try to incorporate these [FWS ideas & plans] into daily routines?
How so?

Have you thought about your future? With a particular school/organization?

Do you do anything outside of work that brings you closer to where you want to be in the future? Schooling? Taking lessons for something?

Are you pursuing any other occupations? (outside of coaching)

Where are you interested in working for? Why?

Where do you see yourself in XX years? (1,3,5,10,20; and/or allow participant to pick time most salient for them)

What type of occupation or industry?

What is your dream job? (And/or realistic dream job?)

What aspects make it so "dreamy?"

Could you see yourself working here? For how long? Same industry?

Would you change industries? Why?

Do you expect to work on coaching tasks or would you ever work on the administrative side or another aspect of the job?

Where were you XX years ago? [seek answers on varying time frames]

Did you plan to be here?

How would you feel if you were working there (for named company) in XX years?

Have you had any difficulties getting to where you want to be?

Looking back, are you on your planned career path?

Did it happen fast? Take too long?

Is so, elaborate... (Why do you feel this way? What keeps you on track?)

If not, why not? What would get you on the path?

How will a different coaching job balance with where you want to be in the future? Does it help you get there?

Does your family know about your plans? Are they supportive?

Do you have other life plans to share?

What else do you do that sets you up for this career?

What do you do that is unrelated to this career field?

JOB CRAFTING

Has your job (or degree pursuit) changed since you started? If so, how?

What tasks do you do now? How did you end up doing these tasks?

Do you prefer certain tasks over others? Why?

What do you like least about the tasks you perform? Best?

Have you done anything to make this job “your own”?

Were there any key events that led you to make these changes?

Tasks

Have you done anything to decide and define what responsibilities you have on your own?

Do you have assigned tasks?

Can you change these tasks?

Can you tell me a story about what you did on your own to alter tasks at work?

Did you encounter any problems or successes while making these changes?

Did anyone notice you doing this? If so, did they allow it? Stop you? Praise or penalize you?

Have you added tasks that you weren't originally supposed to do? Why? Which ones?

Are there tasks that have a “prescribed” way to be completed (i.e., company policy) that you have found an alternate way of completing?

Who decides when you complete your tasks?

Who picks the order in which you complete tasks?

Can you try new things at work? Examples?

Can you take action to complete a task if you notice it needs to be done? Examples?

Relational

How important are relationships in your work?

Do you work with others on the job? How many others? In what capacity?

Have you always worked with them? For how long?

Do you get to choose who you work with?

Can you adjust who you work with?

Do you work in teams or groups?

Can you tell a story about who you've worked with or chose not to? How did that go?

Have other relationships at work changed?

What about with new employees? Who trains them?

Do you decide who to work with and when?

How likely is it to get a job in coaching without knowing someone?

How could it be done?

Cognitive

Do you think about this job and your work? How so? When?

Have you changed the way you think about your work since being hired? How so? Why?

Did anyone or anything influence this?

Do you think about this work in connection with past or future work you may want to do?

What would make you give up coaching? or take you away from it?

Have you or a staff you've been on been **fired** or non-renewed?

Walk me through that process and what you did to get another job.

CONNECTIONS

Do you alter tasks today in order to set yourself up for a promotion? Another job? How so?

Do you try to work with people that can help you align with where you want to be?

Do you think about what you can do today to achieve future goals you may have?

Is there anything else that you do at work now in order to set yourself up for future work? Jobs?
Careers?

Notes:

Bold items are primary (priority) questioning.

Follow up or deeper probing questions are in *italics*.

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
R E S E A R C H

March 25, 2015

Jonathon Halbesleben, PhD
Dept. of Management & Marketing
CCBA
Box 870225

Re: IRB#: 15-OR-086 "Retention and Recruitment of STEM Students in the
Aerospace and Defense Industry"

Dear Dr. Halbesleben

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for
your proposed research.

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part
46. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined
below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but
not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language,
communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research
employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation,
human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies

Your application will expire on March 24, 2016. If your research will continue
beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application.
If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved
Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval,
except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants.
When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Request for
Study Closure Form.

Please use reproductions of the IRB approved stamped consent forms to obtain
consent from your participants.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal,
please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



358 Rose Administration Building
Box 870127
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0127
(205) 348-8461
FAX (205) 348-7189
TOLL FREE (877) 820-3066

Carpantato T. Myles, MSM, CIM, CIP
Director & Research Compliance Officer

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects



October 26, 2015

Ji Qi
Dept of Management & Marketing
College of Commerce & Business Admin.
Box 870225

Re: IRB # 15-OR-323, "Job Crafting as a Difference in Teamwork: Linking Managerial Engagement and Managerial Integrity to Team Effectiveness"

Dear Ms. Qi:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research.

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of written documentation of informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your application will expire on October 22, 2016. If your research will continue beyond this date, please complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application. If you wish to modify the application, please complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. When the study closes, please complete the Request for Study Closure form.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



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