

WHY WE WORK: AN INVESTIGATION OF WORK MEANING THROUGH WORK
ORIENTATION

by

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Abstract

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The search for meaning is a fundamental quest for individuals and research indicates many individuals are looking for life meaning from work. Work orientation addresses the functional purposes work serves in life and reflects how individuals find meaning in the work domain. The tripartite model of work orientation categorizes work meaning through three dimensions: job, career, and calling. This dissertation explores how the concept of work orientation helps to clarify the meaning of work for individuals.

I utilized Roberson's (1990) model of work meaning and reviewed the extant literature to clarify the unique role of work orientation in explaining work meaning and to differentiate work orientation from potentially overlapping concepts. I found support for the dimensionality of the tripartite model of work orientation and empirically examined the relationships among the individual attributes of proactive personality, preference for challenging work, self-reflection, and concern for others, and job, career, and calling orientations via an on-line survey of full-time employees in the auto industry ($n = 251$). I also explored the main and moderating effects of work enjoyment on work orientation.

Study findings important to advancing the work orientation concept include clarifying work orientation as a value attribute, identifying preference for challenging work as a differentiating attribute of job, career, and calling orientations, and understanding work enjoyment is not an exclusive attribute of any one orientation, but appears to create a positive reinforcement cycle that strengthens an individual's current work orientation. Theoretically, the results advance a context free view of calling, clarify work orientation's unique role within the work meaning literature, and suggest revisions to trait-factor theories of career development to better predict work outcomes. Practically, the results suggest differences in individuals' preferences for challenging work and perceptions of employment security influence work's meaning. Future research recommendations include longitudinal studies to better understand how work orientations develop and change as well as studies utilizing more occupationally and demographically diverse work groups to understand if culture or occupational identity influences work orientation. Study limitations include cross-sectional design and measurement concerns.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Drudgery, toil, grind. Career, trade, profession. Calling, vocation, craft. All of these are terms individuals use to describe their paid employment. Each word has a distinct meaning, an orientation. Someone using each of these words in describing work has a specific view of or meaning to his or her paid employment.

The Importance of Work Meaning

Work holds a central place in modern life, with most American adults spending more of their waking time working than any other activity (Baumeister, 1991). Work not only provides for material needs, but the meaning attached to work can also fulfill a person's esteem needs, sense of purpose, and social needs (Locke & Taylor, 1990). In addition, the meaning attached to work can make a difference on a number of job-related outcomes. Individuals who find meaning from their paid employment, beyond the financial rewards that a job brings, report higher job and life satisfaction, better job performance, longer tenure, and lower number of self-reported sick days (Claes & Ruiz Quintanilla, 1994; Mottaz, 1985; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). In addition, Americans report that meaningful work is the job feature they value most, above promotions, income, job security, and hours (Cascio, 2003). Therefore, understanding the meanings attached to work, along with the attributes associated with them, is important not only for individuals, but also for the organizations they work for.

Work Orientation

Individuals differ in the meaning they attach to work. An American-based study in the early 1980s suggested three work orientations to define the various meanings of work: job, career, and calling (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985). Individuals with a higher job orientation view work as an instrumental activity providing the financial resources for other life activities. For them, work is simply a way of making money. Individuals with a higher career orientation view work as a source of self-esteem through achievement and advancement in an occupation. For them, work is a means to obtain personal success and recognition. Finally, individuals with a higher calling orientation view work as a purposeful end unto itself, versus the output or profit that results from paid employment. For them, work is a personal obligation or duty to contribute to the greater good. Unlike the other orientations, a calling inherently satisfies the need for meaningfulness (Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006). These three orientations capture variations in the subjective meanings attached to work and the accompanying thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Bellah et al., 1985).

Prior empirical studies support the existence of these three different meanings of work. A large study using an occupationally diverse, church-based sample in the Midwest found that 15% of respondents viewed their work primarily as a calling, 56% of respondents viewed their work primarily as a career, and 29% viewed their work primarily as a job (Davidson & Caddell, 1994). A later study of clerical and professional adult workers in the college and healthcare industries found nearly equal representation in the job, career, and calling categories (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). This study also analyzed data from a subgroup of homogeneous workers, college administrative assistants, and found an equal distribution of workers prioritizing each of the three work orientations within this single

occupational group. The results of this study suggest individuals across and within occupations differ in the meaning they attach to their work.

Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) also found that individuals with higher calling orientation scores had more rewarding relationships to their work, as well as positive outcomes in their work behaviors, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction as compared to those with higher job or career orientation scores. These results were consistent with Bellah et al.'s (1985) earlier qualitative findings.

Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) acknowledged that their study was an initial step in understanding job, career, and calling, and recognized the need for further research developing the work orientation concept. While research on work meaning has increased over the past decade, only a limited number of studies have investigated work orientation beyond Wrzesniewski et al.'s (1997) original study (Dik & Duffy, 2009). Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) suggest the dearth of studies investigating variables associated with work meaning is a contributing factor to the lack of integration, and more widespread use, of work orientation in the career literature. Because we have little research on the role of work orientation in the development of meaning and do not have a clear picture of the individual attributes distinguishing each work orientation, this dissertation expands our knowledge of work orientation by exploring the following question:

How does the concept of work orientation help clarify the meaning of work for individuals?

Purposes of this Study

Answers to this question serve three important purposes. First, this study clarifies the work meaning literature by distinguishing work orientation from potentially overlapping concepts. Second, this study advances our understanding of the dimensionality of work

orientation. Third, this study advances the work orientation construct by examining empirically individual attributes associated with job, career, and calling orientations.

Wrzesniewski (1999) and Dobrow (2006) established the uniqueness of work orientation as compared to the potentially overlapping concepts of work commitment (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), job involvement (Morrow & Goetz, 1988), and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). I review and expand upon this prior research, further distinguishing work orientation from these potentially overlapping concepts, in Chapter 2. To establish work orientation as a distinct concept worthy of study, I need to distinguish work orientation not only from potentially overlapping concepts, but also from other meaning of work concepts. To this end, this study distinguishes work orientation from the meaning of work concepts of work centrality (Dubin, 1956) and work values (Chatman, 1991; Dawis, 1991). I accomplish this through a review of the work meaning literature and the findings of prior empirical studies. This study asserts work orientation is a distinct construct that provides a unique contribution to the meaning of work literature.

There is a lack of clarity in the literature as to the dimensionality of the three work orientation constructs of job, career, and calling (Cardador, 2008; Dekas & Tosti, 2008). To address this concern, this study re-examines the dimensionality of the work orientation model. Last, drawing upon the meaning of work literature (Baumeister, 1991; Hall & Chandler, 2005) as well as motivation and career theory (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Brown & Brooks, 1996; Amabile et al., 1994; Super, 1980), this study develops a framework of hypothesized relationships defining the constructs of job, career, and calling, and tests this framework empirically to gain a better understanding of the individual attributes associated with each work orientation.

To investigate the variables associated with specific work orientations, I chose to study workers within a single organization within the automobile industry. The subjects of this study include both a professional group represented by a corporate office and blue-collar employees in direct service functions. I chose to study workers in a single organization in order to minimize organizational and industry conditions that may influence meaning and to explore the work orientations of employees in various work roles and at various hierarchical levels.

Potential Contributions

Management research suggests that the desire among employees to find meaning in their work and the determination of work's role in the employees' wider world are more important than previously considered (Wrzesniewski, 2002). An example can be seen in the significant increase, in some areas as much as 400%, in the number of applications received for teaching positions in New York City from individuals in other careers in the period after September 11th (Goodnough, 2002). Many of those looking to change careers at the time expressed a desire to obtain meaningfulness from work. This study aims to gain a better understanding of the unique contribution that the concept of work orientation provides in the development of work meaning and the individual attributes that define job, career, and calling work orientations. By knowing the attributes associated with each work orientation, individuals and career advisors counseling clients can develop these attributes to achieve desired work outcomes related to work meaning.

Bloch (1997), in a review of career development theories (Holland, 1992; Krumboltz & Mitchell, 1990; Super, 1980), noted that career theories, although valuable in addressing subjective issues such as career choice, job satisfaction, and work motivation, did not address the question of meaning. Researchers have recently renewed Bloch's call for more studies investigating meaning within the work environment and the attributes influencing the various

meanings people attach to their work (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Hall & Chandler, 2005). This study addresses this call. By better understanding the work orientation concept, this study aims to improve the predictive potential of career theories in addressing work's meaning and in determining the occupational outcomes associated with the meaning attached to work.

Organization of this Dissertation

This dissertation includes six chapters. This first chapter discussed the significance, purposes, and potential contributions of this study. In Chapter 2, I review the work meaning literature in order to establish work orientation as a distinct concept worthy of study. In addition, I review the extant literature with respect to the three work orientations of job, career, and calling, identifying attributes associated with each. In Chapter 3, I present the framework and hypotheses I used for this study. In Chapter 4, I present the research methodology used to test the hypotheses in this study, and in Chapter 5, I present the results of my testing. Finally in Chapter 6, I discuss the findings, implications, and limitations of this study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

In this chapter I review the extant literature on the meaning of work and work orientation including an in-depth examination of the job, career, and calling constructs. This review consists of an examination of the unique contribution work orientation offers within the meaning of work literature, the individual attributes distinguishing each of the three work orientations, and gaps in the current conceptualization of job, career, and calling. This chapter begins with a discussion of the meaning of work literature.

Meaning of Work and Introduction to Work Orientation

The search for meaning is a primary motivator in life (Frankl, 1956) and research indicates that meaning in life is a substantial component of positive psychological functioning (Frankl, 1972), well being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), and mental and physical health (Zika & Chamberlain, 1992). Individuals who experience a lack of meaning in life have higher incidences of personality disorders, depression, and other psychiatric syndromes (Das, 1998). Meaning plays an important role in people's lives. Where an individual achieves meaning in life varies from person to person, however, two recent studies found that more than half of respondents were looking for meaning in life from their work (Holbeche & Springett, 2004; Overall, 2008).

The extant literature defines the meaning of work as an individual's beliefs, values, and attitudes about the outcomes of work and the functions or purposes that work serves in life (Brief & Nord, 1990; Chalofsky, 2003). Individuals vary on the meanings they attach to work. We see these differences historically with the ancient Greeks, where work was seen as a curse that separated a person from leisure and a good life (Grant, 1960), and later with Max Weber's

(1958) Protestant ethic, where work was seen as being noble and psychologically purposeful. More recently, Roberson (1990) detailed how differences in the meaning of work among individual workers influence motivation and performance. Bellah et al. (1985) and Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) substantiated the influence of these differences; finding that individuals who viewed the meaning of work as a source of life meaning such as those with a higher calling orientation enjoyed positive outcomes in their work behaviors, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Conversely, Castillo (1997) and Vecchio (1980) highlighted recent fundamental changes in the meaning of work for individuals, including a decline in the percentage of people who would likely continue to work without pay if they had all the money they needed, and the potential negative effects these fundamental changes have on work outcomes. Gaining a better understanding of the various meanings of work may help clarify these contrasting views that have important personal and organizational implications.

The operationalization of work meaning has taken many forms resulting in a splintered body of work (for a comprehensive review, see Brief and Nord, 1990). Roberson (1990), in an attempt to integrate these various operationalizations without being redundant, identified three dimensions which the various operational definitions and concepts of work meaning assess: work centrality, work values, and work orientation. Each dimension provides a unique contribution to explain meaning within the context of work. Work centrality addresses the prioritization of work necessary if work is to provide meaning (Dubin, 1956). Work values provide relatively enduring standards for idealized behavior at work (Dawis, 1991; England, 1967). Work orientation addresses the purposes work serves in life for the development of meaning. This study focuses on work orientation, the least studied of these three dimensions.

Work orientation addresses the fundamental purposes work serves in the broader context of life and reflects how individuals find meaning in the work domain. Roberson (1990), Wrzesniewski (1999), and Dekas and Kamin (2008) defined work orientation as a person's relationship with work. Although this conceptualization recognizes the multidimensionality of the work orientation concept, it is vague and easily confounded with other meaning of work concepts. Defining work orientation in terms of the purposes work serves in life more specifically denotes the outcomes Roberson (1990) referred to when she discussed work orientation's influence on work motivation and behaviors. Wrzesniewski (1999) categorized work orientation as an attitude. Attitudes derive from the interactions of values and current external information (Albarracin, Johnson, Zanna, & Kumkale, 2005). The social information processing perspective suggests the immediate work environment influences attitudes (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Wrzesniewski (1999) and Dobrow (2006) note that work orientation is a relatively stable disposition, undergoing gradual changes over a person's work life and not changing from task to task or job to job. The influence of the immediate work environment on one's work orientation should be minimal; therefore, I suggest categorizing work orientation as a value. Categorizing work orientation as a value maintains consistency with the other work meaning dimensions identified by Roberson (1990). Seen as values, work centrality, work values, and work orientation form through early socialization and work experiences over time, and influence overall motivation and performance, while maintaining temporal stability. I discuss the dimensionality, relationships among, and independence of the various work orientations in further detail below.

In a study exploring the nature of success and justice in the modern world, American sociologist Robert Bellah and his associates (1985), in their book *Habits of the Heart*, proposed a

model of how individuals frame work in relation to the other areas of life. Through interviews with over 200 mainly white, middle to upper class Americans, the researchers created a tripartite model of work orientation categorizing the purposes work serves in life as job, career, and calling (Bellah et al., 1985). Although studies affirm the existence of these three orientations (Davidson & Cadell, 1994; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), studies testing the dimensionality of the tripartite model have shown inconsistent results (Wrzesniewski, 1999; Yugo, 2006).

Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) conceptualized job and calling orientations as end points on a single dimension, with career orientation being orthogonal to job-calling dimension, and the true-false scale used in their study supported this relationship. Later recognizing the strong theoretical support for the tripartite model versus a two dimensional model, Wrzesniewski (1999) reconceptualized the model to incorporate three dimensions. The results of subsequent studies (Tosti, 2008; Yugo, 2006) using a Likert scale format found three distinct dimensions for work orientation, suggesting measurement issues may have influenced earlier results.

These earlier studies of work orientation assumed an individual had a single work orientation. However, in a qualitative study of police officers, Cardador (2008) found officers who identified primarily with career orientation also expressed work's purpose in their lives in terms of job and calling, suggesting individuals identify with multiple purposes simultaneously for work's role in their lives. Simultaneous work orientations were also noted in Wrzesniewski et al.'s (1997) study; 31% of the study respondents could not be classified into a single orientation, but identified with multiple orientations. These multiple work orientation respondents were excluded from the study's results. Wrzesniewski (1999) recognized the possibility of individuals having a profile in which more than one work orientation is present in varying strengths. A person having multiple simultaneous work orientations is consistent with

work values studies (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Schwartz, 1994). Schwartz (1994) found individuals order values in importance relative to other values to form a system of value priorities. Work orientation appears to share this value attribute; individuals order work orientations in importance relative to the other work orientations to form a system of prioritized orientations. As shown by Tosti (2008) and Yugo (2006), the three work orientations are unique and represent distinguishable purposes for work in the context of life; as shown by Cardador (2008), work serves multiple purposes in the context of life forming a prioritization of individual work orientations.

Relationships among Meaning of Work Concepts

To highlight work orientation's unique contribution to the development of work meaning, I review below the other two dimensions of work meaning identified by Roberson (1990), work centrality and work values, noting the unique contribution each provides to work meaning and each dimension's distinctiveness to work orientation.

Work centrality. Work centrality refers to the relative importance of work for gaining valued outcomes as compared with other life realms. In his seminal article, Dubin (1956) established the idea of work as a central life interest. Despite concerns over measurement (Kornhauser, 1965; Maurer, Vredenburg, & Smith, 1981; Wilensky, 1964), work centrality continued to be a construct of interest, which culminated three decades after Dubin's initial study with the Meaning of Work international research study (MOW, 1987). The MOW team identified 8 patterns of workers cross-culturally from alienated (lowest centrality) to work-centered (highest centrality) based on various outcome measures including work centrality (England & Whitely, 1990). Workers with the lowest centrality tended to be younger, have lower-level jobs, and valued family and other life arenas over work. Workers with the highest

work centrality tended to work longer hours, had greater net income, and higher levels of work commitment.

What work centrality provides to work meaning is a measure of the prioritization of work to other life domains. Work centrality does not capture the purpose work serves in life as provided for by work orientation or give the reasons why workers prioritize work, such as for additional income, for attainment of a higher position, for the greater good, or some combination of these purposes. Although work centrality is still a construct of interest, most of the research on the meaning of work has focused on the more qualitative dimensions of work meaning provided by work values and work orientation.

Work values. Within the meaning of work literature the dimension receiving the most research attention is work values (Brief, Nord, Atieh, & Doherty, 1990). Values are relatively enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state is preferable (Chatman, 1991). Dawis (1991) differentiated between values and preferences, noting that preferences are situation-specific, while values are more general, permanent, and stable, and not tied to any specific referent. By definition, values transcend context, influencing *overall* attitudes, behaviors, and meaning (Chatman, 1991; Roberson, 1990). England (1967) and Dawis (1991) view work values as a relatively permanent framework that shapes and influences behaviors related to work. Work values are values specific to the organizational environment and, by definition, should mirror general values. Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999), in an effort to apply the theory of individual values to the work environment, tested the relationship among the work values of intrinsic, extrinsic, social, and self-enhancement, which they identified from a review of the work values literature, and the higher order general value dimensions of openness to change, conservation, self-transcendence, and self-enhancement, which were identified in the

most comprehensive (DeClercq, Fontaine, & Anseel, 2007) and one of the most tested values models, the Sagiv and Schwartz (2000) values model. Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999) found significant correlations between the general values and the identified work values suggesting a similar structure between the two value types. Elizur and Sagie (1999) also found a structural similarity between general and work values.

In the development of meaning, work values provide idealized standards to judge behavioral decisions. Work orientation is not concerned with the values themselves, but how an individual perceives the purpose of work in relation to achieving work values. Each work orientation can encompass various values and value systems. Individual differences in the purposes work serves in life, or work orientation, result in differences in work outcomes (Roberson, 1990). The following example demonstrates the distinction between work values and work orientation. For this example I assume a person prioritizes the achievement value over other work values. If this person's primary purpose for working is to provide the financial resources, characteristic of job orientation, then the achievement value may manifest itself in trying to obtain a paycheck large enough to allow for other life activities. If this person's primary purpose for working is to obtain personal success and advancement, characteristic of career orientation, then the achievement value may manifest in trying to achieve hierarchical progression or obtaining the corner office, behaviors that are not of interest to someone with a stronger job orientation. If this person's primary purpose for working is to contribute to the greater good, characteristic of calling orientation, then the achievement value may manifest in helping others succeed; earning money and obtaining a higher position may be consistent with the achievement value for other orientations, but are not consistent with perceiving work as a

calling. Although work values shape and influence work behaviors, work orientation is also an important influence in determining the meaning attached to work and work outcomes.

Each of the three dimensions suggested by Roberson (1990) uniquely contributes to an explanation of work meaning. Work centrality provides a measure of the prioritization of work as compared with other life domains required to develop work meaning. Work values provide standards for idealized behaviors and consistency between life domains. Work orientation provides the purposes work serves in life resulting in the various meanings of work for individuals. Table 1 provides a summary of the three work meaning dimensions.

Table 1

Work Meaning Dimensions

Work concept	Definition	Contribution to Work Meaning
Work centrality	The relative importance of work for gaining valued outcomes as compared to other life realms. (Dubin, 1956)	Priority
Work values	Enduring beliefs about preferable conduct or end-states that influence work behaviors (Dawis, 1991; Chatman, 1991; England, 1967).	Standards
Work orientation	Addresses the fundamental purposes work serves in the broader context of life and reflects on how individuals find meaning in the work domain.	Purpose

Relationships to other work concepts. In addition to highlighting the distinctiveness of work orientation to the related meaning of work concepts above, it is also important to differentiate work orientation from other potentially overlapping concepts addressing the importance of work in a person's life or addressing the rewards that come from work. Prior research has identified work commitment, job involvement, and intrinsic-extrinsic motivation as potentially overlapping concepts with work orientation (Dobrow, 2006; Wrzesniewski, 1999).

Work commitment looks at the relative strength of identification with and involvement in one's work in a general sense (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). In comparing work orientation to work commitment, both address work in a general sense, however, work commitment addresses involvement in work, not the purposes work serves. Job involvement emphasizes a person's cognitive and psychological identification with work and implies a state of engagement of the core aspects of the self in one's job (Brown, 1996; Kanungo, 1982). Unlike work commitment, which addresses work in a general sense, job involvement is specific to the position a person currently holds. In comparing work orientation to job involvement, job involvement refers to how much of oneself a person puts into his or her work, as opposed to one's purposes for working. In addition, Kanungo (1982) regards job involvement and alienation to be polar opposites. This conceptualization further distinguishes the concept of job involvement from work orientation. Alienation implies a separation of the self from the work environment and a loss of individuality (Brown, 1996). This is different than having a stronger job orientation, which means that one's purpose for work is instrumental, work is not the central focus of a person's life, and other life activities provide meaning. Having a stronger job orientation, by definition, does not imply a separation of the self from the workplace. Both work commitment and job involvement are more closely aligned with the meaning of work concept of work centrality than work orientation because a person who identifies strongly with work or a specific job is also more likely to view work as central to his or her life. In addition, work commitment and job involvement are work attitudes influenced by a person's work environment (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Morrow, 1983) and do not have the temporal stability of work orientation.

Early studies of work orientation defined an individual's relationship with work in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Andrisani, & Miljus, 1977; Herzberg, Mausner, &

Snyderman, 1959; Roberson, 1990). The intrinsically motivated person engages in work primarily for the positive experiences he or she receives from his or her work, including opportunities to express creativity, overcome challenges, and engage in opportunities for personal enrichment (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This is in contrast to the extrinsically motivated person who views work as an instrumental activity, a means to obtain valued rewards such as money and recognition (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). There are several differences between intrinsic-extrinsic motivation and work orientation as defined in this dissertation study. First, intrinsic-extrinsic motivation focuses on the preference for specific types of rewards while work orientation focuses on the purposes work serves in life. Second, in comparing the relationships among the two dimensions of intrinsic-extrinsic motivation and the three work orientation dimensions, we see further differences between these two sets of constructs. Extrinsic motivation appears associated with job orientation and intrinsic motivation appears associated with calling orientation. However, intrinsic motivation includes not only work motivations associated with calling orientation such as a concern for others, but also motivations associated with career orientation such as self-determination and achievement. Career orientation also includes elements of extrinsic motivation, such as recognition and status. There is no clear motivational category related to career orientation. As seen by these varying relationships and differences in focus, intrinsic-extrinsic motivation and the tripartite model of work orientation are separate constructs.

Per the discussion above, work orientation provides a unique contribution to the study of work meaning over and above the contributions of other work concepts and is worthy of study. Therefore, I explored the construct of work orientation in further detail beginning with a brief overview of the historical development of the work orientation construct.

Historical Development of Work Orientation

As noted above, Andrisani and Miljus (1977) originally defined work orientation as intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation. Although important to motivation, the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy provided a limited amount of information on work meaning, and as a result work orientation became a forgotten construct (Roberson, 1990). However, work orientation received renewed research attention within the feminist movement and critiques of the inadequacy of economic labor theory to explain work preferences within women's employment, and work time preferences for both sexes (Betz & O'Connell, 1989; Fagan, 2001). Economic theories of labor supply (Dex, 1985; Killingsworth, 1983) center around the financial circumstances of individuals and their motivation to work longer hours to increase income to meet physiological and safety needs. Economic theory holds that when income rises to an acceptable level, there is a reduction in the "income effect" and individuals prioritize free time and other life interests over work. Humphries and Rubery (1984) argued that labor supply theories are inadequate due to their lack of conceptualization of and attention to worker preferences.

Sociologist Catherine Hakim (1995) drew attention to the need to evaluate work orientations on labor market behavior in her work on the "heterogeneity of women." Hakim's work suggested that in modern affluent societies, a woman's work position or lack thereof was not the result of social or structural constraints, but a reflection of her own personal goals for work, i.e., her work orientation. Although Hakim recognized social and structural constraints existed, her study centered on the distinction between women who were "family oriented" and women who were "career oriented." Hakim's (1996) longitudinal work followed a group of young women in Britain from early adulthood (ages 14-24) to age 35 and found differences in work orientation were largely explained by differences in education and work planning. Women

who made realistic plans were not only much more likely to be working at 35, but also had 30 percent higher wages and greater work commitment than the non-planning cohort (Hakim, 1996). This study also found that income, educational qualifications, marital status, and age of youngest child were among the most important factors in determining orientation to work and work commitment. Hakim's work is important for drawing attention to the value of understanding work orientation and its influence over work behavior.

Around this same time, Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) utilized Bellah et al.'s (1985) model of job, career, and calling as a basis for developing their tripartite model of work orientation. This study provided empirical support for a stable, generalizable categorization of work orientations, for the existence of the three orientations within a single occupational category, and for differences in work outcomes related to differences in work orientations.

Research on Work Orientation

The research on work orientation is in a nascent state, although interest in work orientation has grown over the past few years (Dekas & Tosti, 2008). Early studies of work orientation (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) provided unambiguous support for the existence of job, career, and calling work orientations and showed each orientation existed across and within various occupations. The first study found that investigated the individual attributes of work orientation surveyed church members in the Midwest (Davidson & Caddell, 1994). The main thrust of this research was to investigate the relationship between religiosity and calling. This research found a positive relationship among calling orientation and religious salience, religious participation, and social justice beliefs, but no difference based on denomination. This study also found respondents who indicated a stronger calling orientation tended to be female, to have a graduate degree, to work in occupations that

involved people (versus things), and to perceive their work to be secure. Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) surveyed employees in a state university health service and a small liberal arts college. Wrzesniewski (1999) investigated the work orientations of the unemployed seeking work. Both studies showed, even in the absence of work, individuals still maintained various work orientations. All three studies showed consistent results; individuals with a higher calling orientation were older and had a higher level of education than individuals with a higher job or career orientation. In addition, these studies found individuals with a higher career orientation were younger than individuals with a higher job or calling orientation, and participants with a higher job orientation had a lower education level.

Measures of the tripartite model of work orientation utilize a common definition of job, career, and calling. Early studies (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) utilized a measure where participants read three paragraphs, representing job, career, and calling orientations, and chose the paragraph best describing their orientation towards work. In an effort to improve upon this single-item measure, Wrzesniewski et al.'s (1997) study developed an 18-item true-false survey measure based upon the paragraph measure. Correlations of the survey results to the associated work orientation paragraph measure were significant and substantial. Tosti (2008) developed a slightly modified version of the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) scale adding two items to the career measure in an attempt to balance the scale. Yugo and Gillespie (2007) developed a Likert scale version of this measure utilizing similar items. All of these measures utilized the same definitions of job, career, and calling, and evaluated only a limited number of predictors that did not fully reflect the conceptual definitions of each orientation found in the literature. The revised measures attempted to strengthen the previous measures

statistically, but the revised measures did not further develop or clarify the three work orientation dimensions.

There is a growing literature clarifying and further conceptualizing the three work orientation dimensions, especially calling orientation (Dekas & Tosti, 2008; Dik & Duffy, 2009). As I show below, the current conceptualizations of work orientation are incomplete and researchers have not incorporated the growing literature on job, career, and calling into the construct of work orientation. These incomplete conceptualizations may be contributing to the lack of integration of work orientation into the career literature and more widespread use of job, career, and calling. This dissertation attempts to identify, clarify, and provide empirical support for additional individual attributes associated with each of the three work orientations. The next section presents an in-depth discussion of each work orientation, including an overview of the relevant literature, the results of studies exploring the attributes of each orientation, and the deficiencies in conceptualizing job, career, and calling orientations.

Job orientation. Job orientation views work as an instrumental activity (Bellah et al., 1985). Individuals with a stronger job orientation are primarily interested in the material benefits work provides and see the purpose of work as a means for acquiring the resources necessary to support other facets of life. The idea of work as an instrumental activity derives from Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, which defines instrumentality as an outcome-outcome association. This interpretation of instrumentality also includes the probability that the individual will obtain the outcome desired. For example, instrumentality includes not only the belief doing one's job will result in obtaining wages, but also the probability the wages brought home will provide adequately for one's family. A meta-analysis of studies exploring the components of Vroom's expectancy model found a small correlation between instrumentality and performance (Van

Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Consistent with this finding, having a higher job orientation does not mean a person is not performing his or her job; it means the person derives less life meaning from the work he or she does.

By definition, individuals with a higher job orientation are likely to have a preference for extrinsic rewards. Self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) provides that focusing on material rewards detracts from achieving satisfaction from the basic needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness critical to well-being. A recent study exploring the tenets of SDT found individuals with a stronger preference for extrinsic, rather than intrinsic, rewards showed lower job and life satisfaction outcomes (Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, Soenens, De Witte, & Van den Broeck, 2007). This result was consistent with an earlier meta-analysis of over 100 studies which found a negative relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). The Vansteenkiste et al. (2007) study suggested the attainment of extrinsic rewards provides short-term satisfaction and will quickly lead to the formulation of new extrinsic goals; therefore, extrinsic oriented employees, such as those with a higher job orientation, seldom have the feeling of getting what they want, and continually experience feelings of incompetence and insecurity. This suggestion is consistent with the results of prior studies on work orientation. Davidson and Caddell (1994) found respondents with low job security were more likely to view work as a job, and workers who felt they could be “fired at any time” indicated a stronger job orientation more than twice as often as respondents with a stronger calling orientation. In addition, the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) study found respondents with a stronger job orientation had lower levels of job satisfaction.

Of the three work orientation dimensions, job orientation has received the least research attention. As a result, we have limited knowledge of the individual attributes related to job

orientation. Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) found the strongest correlations among job orientation and working primarily for the financial rewards, an eagerness to retire, and not seeing work as one of the most important things in one's life. A strong correlation was also noted with seeing one's work as a necessity. These predictors suggest individuals with a higher job orientation do not consider work one of the most important things in their lives, but do see work as a necessity. In addition, those with a higher job orientation tend not to find their work rewarding, would not choose their current line of work again, or encourage young people to pursue their field of work (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). These results indicate individuals with a higher job orientation have a negative view of work.

What is unclear from the extant literature on work orientation are the reasons why a person, spending almost a third of his or her adult life working, stays in a job that is not meaningful or satisfying. Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) found only slight differences among the tenure and age of respondents with a higher job orientation versus those with a higher calling orientation. In addition, a longitudinal study exploring the calling construct noted ability was not a distinguishing factor between individuals who possessed and did not possess a calling (Dobrow, 2006). The results of these studies suggest that variations in work orientation do not originate from differences in knowledge or experience. Career theory built on the early work of Parsons (1909) suggests people who actively engaged in choosing the work they do, rather than operating by chance, have higher job satisfaction (Brown & Brooks, 1996). Individuals with a higher job orientation may not actively engage in choosing or in changing the work they do, but operate by chance, explaining the lower satisfaction noted by individuals with a higher job orientation. Because workplace outcomes are the result of cumulative behaviors over a long period of time, personality variables are more likely to influence variations in work outcomes,

meaning, and choice of employment than any single act or behavioral measure (Buss & Craik, 1983). Bateman and Crant (1993) developed the construct of proactive personality, defined as a stable dispositional tendency to take personal initiative across a range of activities and situations. People who are highly proactive identify opportunities, act upon them, and persevere until they are able to change their current circumstances, including their social and work environments (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). Proactive individuals are more likely to engage in career management and pursue self-improvement activities in an effort to shape their work environments. Prior research supports the relationship among proactive personality and work outcomes including the commissions of real estate salespeople (Crant, 1995), entrepreneurial activities (Becherer & Maurer, 1999), salary and promotions (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), team performance (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999), company sales (Becherer & Maurer, 1999), and career initiative (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 2001). The lack of a proactive personality may prevent a person from exploring more meaningful and satisfying work options. Current conceptualizations of work orientation do not address proactive personality. In an effort to better understand the influence of proactivity on differences in work meaning, this dissertation explores the relationship between proactive personality and work orientation.

Career orientation. The modern definition of career refers to a person's evolving sequence of work experiences over time centering on both the subjective and the objective aspects of a work (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989). The objective view examines a career from the vantage point of society and a general external perspective focusing on identifiable positions, offices, and status attainment (Hughes, 1958; Barley, 1989). The idea of vertical movement in objective definitions of career incorporates the assumption that success in one's career is equivalent to upward mobility. Individuals who make the most money or achieve the most

acclaim are those with the most success. Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) found significant positive relationships among career orientation and the expectation of having a higher level job in five years and viewing one's job as a stepping stone, consistent with the objective view of career. The subjective view examines career from the perspective of the individual, consisting of the meaning an individual attributes to his or her own sense of self as well as psychological success (Hall & Chandler, 2005; Hughes, 1958). Researchers acknowledge the interdependence of the objective and subjective view of career (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005; Goffman, 1961), which one sees in the definition of career proposed by Bellah and his associates (1985) and used in this dissertation. Bellah et al. (1985) conceptualized a career for the tripartite model of work orientation as a desire for success and recognition, providing self-efficacy, and the promise of status, power, and achievement. All of these definitions of career share a focus on achievement. Career orientation casts the purpose of work on one's own achievement, whether viewing oneself from the vantage point of society, as in the objective view, or looking at one's own perspective of achievement, as in the subjective view of career.

Measures of career orientation focus almost entirely on achievement, resulting in a narrow definition of career orientation. In agreement with Wrzesniewski and her colleagues (1997), I believe that the definition of career orientation may be enriched by the attribute, a preference for challenging work. Motivation researchers suggest individuals who are high achievers tend to seek environments that provide challenge, in order to build even higher levels of competence (Czikszentmihalyi, 1990; Kanfer & Heggstad, 1997; Spence & Helmreich, 1983). Individuals with a stronger career orientation see a purpose of work as providing a means to achieve. Challenging work may be preferred by individuals with a higher career orientation because it provides opportunities to test themselves against other competent peers (Spence &

Helmreich, 1983) and to differentiate themselves from others (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Rynes & Connerley, 1993). In a study of college students, Trank, Rynes, and Bretz (2002) found a correlation among several measures of achievement and the preference for challenging work; students scoring higher on achievement placed a higher priority on challenging work than those with lower achievement scores. In an effort to further expand the definition of career orientation and better understand the relationship between the desire for challenging work and work orientation, I test the relationships among the preference for challenging work and all three work orientations in this dissertation.

Calling orientation. Bellah and his colleagues conceptualize calling as “a commitment to a profession in which a person is linked to the larger community and contributes to the common good” (1985; p. 66). Although the meaning of work literature often associates calling with religious vocations, Bellah et al.’s definition of calling is context free. In addition, three additional attributes emerge from the extant literature to describe a calling. They are 1) the belief that one’s work contributes to the lives of others, 2) a process of self-reflection in order to realize one’s work as a calling, and 3) a sense of fulfillment or meaningfulness coming from one’s work. I discuss each of these attributes below.

Martin Luther originated the idea of seeing the purpose of one’s work as a calling in the 16th century (Brief, Nord, Atieh, & Doherty, 1990). Luther believed a calling was a life task set by God. Today the popular connotation of having a calling suggests a person feels called upon to do a particular type of work, such as a preacher called to do God’s work or a soldier called to military service in times of crisis. This strong religious theme is still evident in the calling literature. Davidson and Caddell (1994) and Dalton (2001) define calling as a summons or call to serve God. Although these associations remain valid, many definitions of calling contain a

more secular view of work consistent with Bellah et al.'s (1985) context-free conceptualization of calling. To downplay the religious context researchers conceptualize calling as doing socially valuable work (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) or devotion to a craft, such as music or art, which enriches the lives of the public (Bellah et al., 1985). This secular view is not free from bias, as demonstrated in Dobrow's (2006) recent work on calling. Although it defined calling as a secular construct, Dobrow's study of young musicians promoted an underlying assumption that viewing one's purpose for work as a calling resides only within certain occupations.

Wrzesniewski et al.'s (1997) earlier study showed a similar bias, as the population utilized for testing was administrative staff in the higher education and health care industries, environments known for their socially valued work. Brief and his associates (1990) confirmed biased conceptualizations may be misleading in that they do not recognize a context-free view of calling.

As demonstrated above, there are competing views as to what attributes define calling. A review of the extant literature, however, reveals that calling is best defined by its focus on others. Many definitions of calling advance the idea that calling orientation focuses one's work away from the employee and the extrinsic rewards he or she may receive from work, and towards the effect of one's work on others. The original definition of calling orientation offered by Bellah and his associates (1985) noted calling develops from a sense of responsibility or obligation the employee has for the greater good. Other definitions of calling highlight this tendency of focus on how one's work affects others. Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) described calling as doing work perceived as socially valuable. Weiss, Skelley, Hall, and Haughey (2003) discussed how individuals with a stronger calling orientation maintained an awareness of how their work served others. This is in contrast to someone with a higher job orientation who focuses on financial

rewards or someone with a higher career orientation who focuses on personal achievement. It was the thinking beyond oneself that defined calling originally in the religious context, and continues to provide a point of distinction among calling orientation and job or career. This concern for others is context-neutral, inclusive of both the secular and religious views of calling. It is the object of the employee's attention that will vary depending on the definition of calling used, with the religious view of calling focusing on how one's work glorifies God or some other higher authority, and the secular view focusing on those affected by one's work or society as a whole. Concern for others, however, was not addressed in the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) conceptualization of calling orientation. Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) noted a positive correlation between "my work makes the world a better place" and calling, but making the world a better place taps into a different individual attribute than a concern for others. For example, a funeral director or oncology nurse may view a purpose of his or her work as helping others through a difficult time, but this individual may not see his or her work as making the world a better place because of the tragic circumstances surrounding this type of work. Because a concern for others is inherent to calling orientation and the current conceptualization of calling does not include this individual attribute, this dissertation explores the relationship between having a concern for others within one's work and work orientation.

The third attribute that emerges from the calling literature is the development of calling orientation through introspection or a similar process of self-reflection (Dobrow, 2004; Novak, 1996; Weiss, Skelley, Hall, & Haughey, 2003). This process may include discernment through prayer or meditation, or a process of self-reflection outside of a religious context, which results in the discovery or further development of one's calling. Definitions of calling are consistent in that a strong calling orientation produces a sense of self-awareness (Hall & Chandler, 2005) or

self-realization (Lips-Wiersma, 2002) and within the work orientation literature is unique to calling. Hansen (1997) described this process of self-reflection as part of the development of the “whole person.” A number of career-development theories include a process of understanding one’s self (Stumpf, & Lockhart, 1987; Super, 1980). The positive outcomes associated with a self-reflection process of career development (Rowold, 2007) coincide with the positive outcomes associated with having a stronger calling orientation, suggesting that integration of these two streams of research is appropriate. In comparing calling orientation to career orientation, Wrzesniewski and her associates (Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) found individuals with a stronger career orientation were younger than their calling counterparts. Consistent with socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, Gross, & Fung, 1997), the age differences may be the result of older individuals having more opportunity for self-reflection in response to emotional life experiences and for the discovery of life meaning through work. In an effort to gain a better understanding of the relationship between self-reflection and the development of work meaning, this dissertation explores this relationship empirically.

The fourth attribute that defines calling is the sense of fulfillment or meaningfulness (Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006) one receives from work, and is the hallmark of calling orientation (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Lips-Wiersma, 2002; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Calling provides the most meaningfulness from work of the three work orientations. Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) found positive correlations among calling orientation and finding one’s work rewarding, not wanting to retire, a willingness to work even if not paid, and a sense of work being one of the most important things in life. These findings support the idea a person with a high calling orientation sees a purpose of work as providing fulfillment and meaningfulness.

Although not prevalent within the literature, the extant literature suggests a relationship between calling orientation and enjoyment or love for one's work (Dobrow, 2004; Novak, 1996). Enjoying one's work, however, does not appear to be a necessary condition to having a higher calling orientation. Wrzesniewski and her associates (Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) found individuals in jobs such as hospital cleaners, as well as unemployed people searching for work, had a higher calling orientation and crafted work in such a way that they saw work as providing meaningfulness even when it was far from enjoyable. Conversely, a person with a higher job orientation may enjoy work but not gain fulfillment and life meaning from it, because the purpose of work for this person is to provide financial resources and not to provide life meaning. There does not appear to be a direct relationship between enjoyment of work and any specific work orientation, yet enjoyment of work may influence the strength and direction of the relationships among each work orientation and the attributes of that orientation. In an effort to better understand the effect of work enjoyment on the relationship among each work orientation and its attributes I explore these relationships in this dissertation.

A final note on what defines calling comes from a recent study that suggests a new definition of the calling construct. In a longitudinal study of young musicians, Dobrow (2006) developed a definition of calling that included seven elements; passion, identity, urgency (defined as feeling a sense of destiny towards a particular line of work), engulfing consciousness, longevity, sense of meaning, and domain-specific self-esteem. Although this definition includes elements associated with earlier definitions of calling such as awareness (similar to the identity element in Dobrow's (2006) study, defined as having personal and work identities tightly intertwined), introspection (similar to the longevity element, defined as having always know that one would engage in a particular type of work), and meaningfulness, there are several concerns

with this definition of calling. First, an underlying assumption within this study was that all of the subjects, by virtue of their participation in an exclusive music program, had a high calling orientation. It is not clear if this assumption was valid. When Dobrow compared the study's composite calling score based on the definition above to the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) calling orientation measure, Dobrow (2006) noted inconsistencies that should not have occurred if all participants completing the scales had a high calling orientation. The correlations between Dobrow's calling composite measure and the calling orientation measure decreased as the composite scores increased; the correlations should have increased as the composite scores increased if all participants in the study had a high calling orientation. Second, the definition of calling used in this study, with its elements of passion and domain-specific self-esteem, did not provide a clear distinction between calling and career orientations, and lacked any reference to a focus beyond oneself, a characteristic inherent in most conceptualizations of calling. Third, the scores for calling did not remain stable over time and thus were inconsistent with prior studies within the meaning literature (Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986; Wrzesniewski, 1999). The subjects in this study were of high-school age and had not reached maturity. The assumption of a stable calling orientation may be inappropriate for this group of participants because of their young age. This ongoing longitudinal study represents important work in understanding career development in a hyper-competitive industry and gives additional insights into how specific elements of calling develop over time, but it is not clear if all the elements in this definition of calling are consistent with the extant literature.

Stability of Sources of Meaning and Work Orientation

Wrzesniewski (1999) and Dobrow (2006) conceptualized work orientation as being relatively stable and changing only gradually over a person's entire work life. Researchers have

not confirmed this conceptualization, but studies exploring the stability of sources of life meaning lend support to Wrzesniewski and Dobrow's conceptualization. Researchers (Yalom, 1980; Zika & Chamberlain, 1992) suggest sources of life meaning change gradually over a person's life. To better understand the stability of sources of meaning over the life cycle in the absence of longitudinal data, several researchers (Bar-Tur & Savaya, 2001; Prager, 1996; Reker, 1988) utilized cross-sectional designs to measure sources of life meaning over various age cohorts. These studies separated respondents into ten-year age-group blocks, or into young, middle-aged, and older-adult cohorts. The results of these studies were consistent and found younger subjects tended to obtain life meaning from more materialistic pursuits while older subjects tended to derive life meaning from humanistic, social, and cultural pursuits. Empirical studies of work orientation showed younger individuals had a higher career orientation while older respondents had a higher calling orientation (Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) consistent with the results of studies examining sources of life meaning and the observed changes by age cohort. The results of these work orientation studies are also consistent with a 50-year longitudinal study, which followed a cohort of students from adolescence to late fifties and explored the relationship among affect, a stable personality attribute, and how individuals viewed work, as measured by job satisfaction measures and interview questions about whether they would choose the same work (Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986). This study found affect remained stable over time, while the relationship between affect and viewing work favorably, from early adulthood onward, gradually increased as the participants matured. Consistent with these findings, researchers (Dobrow, 2006; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) conceptualize work orientation as being relatively stable, not changing from job to job but gradually over a person's entire work life.

Conclusion

In reviewing the extant literature, this chapter had three goals: 1) attempt to clarify the work meaning literature by comparing work orientation to potentially overlapping constructs, 2) establish work orientation as a distinct construct worthy of study, and 3) identify incomplete conceptualizations in the current research of job, career, and calling orientations and suggest possible individual attributes distinguishing each of the three work orientation dimensions.

In accomplishing these goals it is evident that the work orientation construct is valuable in clarifying work's meaning in a person's life. In addition, the work orientation construct may be helpful in explaining differences in work and life satisfaction as well as differences in performance in the work domain. This review also highlights the underdeveloped nature of job, career, and calling constructs and the need for reexamination of work orientation to better understand the individual attributes defining each dimension. In the next chapter I utilize the results of this review to develop hypothesized relationships for testing.

Chapter 3

Model and Hypotheses

This dissertation has three stated goals: to provide clarity to the work meaning literature by distinguishing work orientations from related constructs, to clarify our understanding of the dimensionality of work orientations, and to advance the work orientation construct by examining empirically individual attributes associated with job, career, and calling orientations. In Chapter 2 I examined the extant literature and established the unique contribution of work orientation to work meaning and the distinctiveness of work orientation from the potentially overlapping constructs of work commitment, job involvement, and intrinsic-extrinsic motivation. In this chapter I develop the hypotheses I use to test the dimensionality of work orientation and to examine the relationships among identified individual attributes and job, career, and calling work orientations.

Dimensionality of Work Orientation

Chapter 2 explicated theoretical support for the tripartite model of work orientation and its three distinct orientations of job, career, and calling (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Bellah and his associates (1985) conceptualized work orientation as a tripartite model and provided support based on their extensive interview study. Studies using a single paragraph measure of work orientation (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) also showed the existence of three distinct orientations across and within occupations.

Subsequent empirical studies using scale measures for the three work orientations, however, provided conflicting results with regards to the dimensionality of the tripartite model (Tosti, 2008; Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997; Yugo, 2006). Wrzesniewski et al.

(1997) conceptualized job and calling as polar opposites on the same dimension and designed a true-false scale based on this conceptualization. Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) found job orientation and calling orientation fell on one dimension with career orientation having an orthogonal relationship to the job-calling dimension, as a result of this design, instead of the three unique dimensions conceptualized in the literature (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

Recognizing the discrepancy between the results using the true-false scale measure and the extant theoretical literature conceptualizing work orientation with a three dimensional structure, Wrzesniewski (1999) reconceptualized work orientation as a continuum anchored by job and calling, but she did not test this model empirically. Yugo (2006), recognizing the format of the scale may have influenced results, revised the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) scale from a true-false to a Likert format. Yugo's (2006) study testing the revised model resulted in a three dimensional structure. I address measurement concerns in greater detail in Chapter 4, however, the tripartite model I am using in this study is consistent with the preponderance of the extant literature; therefore, I propose the following hypothesis:

H1: Work orientation is comprised of three dimensions: job, career, and calling.

As I expect the data to confirm the above hypothesis, I present three separate hypotheses for each relationship I explore, one for each work orientation dimension: job, career, and calling.

Work Role and Work Orientation

The conceptualization of work orientation I use in this dissertation is consistent with Bellah et al.'s (1985) conceptualization that work orientation is not dependent on work role, location, or hierarchical level. As I discussed in Chapter 2, researchers conceptualized calling orientation as having strong religious overtones (Dalton, 2001; Davidson & Caddell, 1994), or being the purview of those performing socially valuable work (Dobrow, 2006; Wrzesniewski et

al., 1997), suggesting work role influences work orientation. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) found employees in such diverse occupations as administrative assistants, hairdressers, and restaurant kitchen employees craft their work in a way that allows them to have a strong calling orientation. If role was the driving force behind calling orientation, occupations seen as socially valuable, otherwise known as helping occupations (Maslach, 1982), would have a larger percentage of their populations with a higher calling orientation than non-helping occupations. Prior research showed an almost equal distribution of primary work orientation for study participants in helping occupations (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), as well as participants who are unemployed (Wrzesniewski, 1999), supporting the context free view of calling.

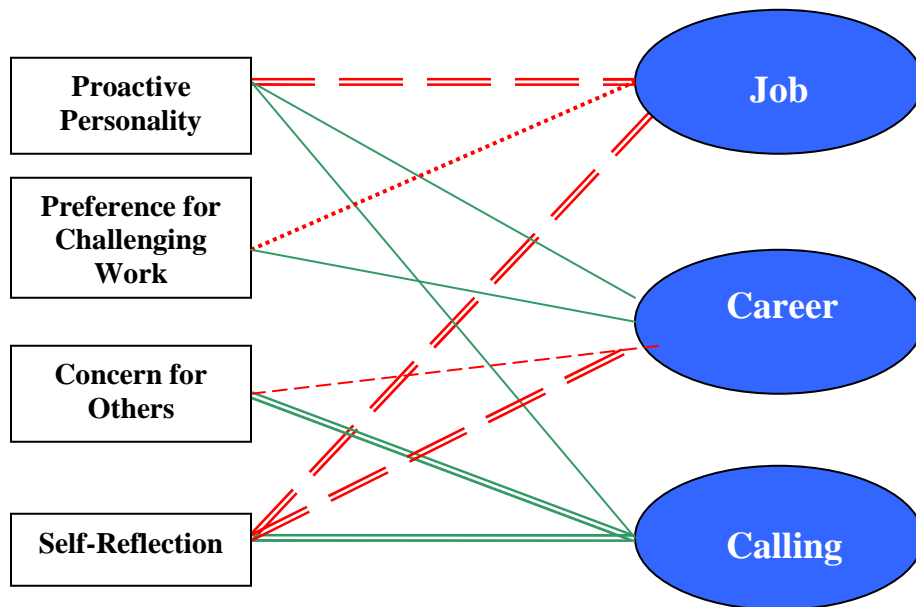
This study utilizes employees from a single industry, the auto industry. Participants in this study work at a corporate office and several branch locations. The corporate office employees provide administrative support, are not involved in the day to day operations of the business, and are geographically remote from direct service functions. The branch employees provide direct service to customers. In three field experiments Grant (2008) found when employees were made aware of the significance of their task, the employees performance increased. The branch employees, who are in a position to see how their work affects customers, should be more aware of the significance of their task, but such awareness may not change the purpose of one's work, nor the life meaning attached to one's work. As such, a person's work orientation profile should not be dependent upon his or her work role; therefore, I hypothesize:

H2: Work orientation is not significantly related to work role.

Attributes to be Tested and Proposed Framework

Through the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, I identified the following individual attributes possibly having an association with work orientation: proactive personality, preference for challenging work, concern for others, self-reflection, and work enjoyment. In this chapter, I further explore these relationships and present hypotheses for testing. The model below provides an overview of the relationships I present in this chapter.

**Figure 1:
Proposed Framework for Work Orientation Relationships**



Legend:

The dashed single line represents a negative relationship

The dashed double bolded lines represent negative relationships strengthened by work enjoyment

The dotted single line represents a negative relationship weakened by work enjoyment

The solid single lines represent positive relationships

The solid double bolded lines represent positive relationships strengthened by work enjoyment

Moderating variable – Work enjoyment

Control Variables - Age, income, education, gender, and perceived employment security

Note: The above figure does not include hypothesized non-significant relationships.

Proactive Personality

Proactive personality is the disposition to take action to influence one's environment rather than passively accepting present conditions (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). Within the career development literature, studies show proactive personality has a significant relationship with career success across occupations and organizations (Siebert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999) and I identify this attribute as possibly differentiating the three work orientation dimensions. For measures of personality, the five-factor model (neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeability and conscientiousness; Dingman, 1990) is one of the most widely accepted frameworks, yet a meta-analysis of 117 studies showed only the conscientiousness dimension had a consistent relationship with work outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Crant and Bateman (2000) note proactive personality captures, conceptually and empirically, unique elements of personality not accounted for by the five-factor model and is a better predictor of career success. Major, Turner, and Fletcher (2006) also suggest proactive personality, as a compound personality variable, is a better predictor of work outcomes than the basic personality traits of the five factor model, consistent with earlier research by Schneider, Hough, and Dunnette (1996). These studies substantiate a relationship between proactive personality and work outcomes.

A purpose of work for a person with a higher career orientation is achievement and individuals with a higher career orientation see their current work as a stepping stone and expect to have a higher level job in 5 years (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). In order to achieve these goals, one must take action to influence his or her environment; therefore, I expect proactive personality to be an individual attribute of career orientation.

Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) model of job crafting suggests employees make small changes in the task, cognitive, and relational boundaries of their work in an effort to change the meaning of work. In order to shape the work environment in this way, an individual must perceive there is the opportunity to craft one's work. Individuals with a proactive personality are more likely to perceive opportunities to craft their work to become a source of life meaning, characteristic of calling orientation. Individuals lacking in proactive personality passively accept their work situation and do not take the actions necessary to develop life meaning from work, or take the action necessary to view work beyond just a paycheck, characteristic of job orientation. Therefore, I propose the following:

H3a: Proactive personality is negatively related to job orientation.

H3b: Proactive personality is positively related to career orientation.

H3c: Proactive personality is positively related to calling orientation.

Preference for Challenging Work

In conceptualizing work orientation, Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) recognized many questions remained as to the attributes of job, career, and calling orientations. Based on Amabile et al.'s (1994) work on motivation, Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) identified challenge as potentially enriching career work orientation and making it less uni-dimensional. Amabile et al.'s (1994) study of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation revealed a positive and significant correlational relationship among problem solving activities and both intrinsic motivation, coming exclusively from challenge, and extrinsic motivation, coming solely from compensation, indicating individuals can simultaneously score high on both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Career orientation includes elements of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Prior study results showed a strong correlation between extrinsic motivation and

career orientation (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). A preference for challenging work should have a positive relationship with career orientation because completing challenging tasks brings a sense of achievement and enhances psychological success (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996), characteristics of career orientation.

A preference for challenging work also appears to be an attribute of calling orientation because calling orientation includes elements of intrinsic motivation. Test-retest reliabilities in the Amabile et al. (1994) study indicated intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are stable, enduring individual characteristics, similar to work orientation. Accomplishment of work challenges may enhance self-esteem, characteristic of intrinsic motivation, but may not increase meaningfulness, characteristic of calling orientation. This view is consistent with the tenets of self-determination theory and the findings of a recent study that found the attainment of goals only provided short-term satisfaction and quickly led to the formulation of new extrinsic goals (Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, Soenens, De Witte, & Van den Broeck, 2007). Because challenging work does not appear to increase meaningfulness, it should not be an individual attribute of calling orientation.

For extrinsically oriented employees, such as those with a higher job orientation, the feeling of accomplishment with completing challenging tasks is short lived (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007) and does not change the purpose work serves in life. For someone with a higher job orientation, challenges coming from work may just be seen as a frustration and, even if accomplished, will not change the meaning of one's work. Therefore,

- H 4a: Preference for challenging work is negatively related to job orientation.
- H 4b: Preference for challenging work is positively related to career orientation.
- H 4c: Preference for challenging work is not significantly related to calling orientation.

Concern for Others

Baumeister (1991) defined meaning as the “shared mental representations of possible *relationships* among things, events, and people” (p.15, emphasis added) and his subsequent work conceptualized meaningfulness as a connection (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003). In exploring the meaning of work through work orientation consistent with Baumeister’s definition I am also exploring connections with others. In a qualitative review of prior studies, Sandelands and Boudens (2000) found when people talked about their desire for meaningfulness from work they expressed a desire to create a connection with others. This result was surprising, as the researchers expected subjects to identify a desire for personal growth or self-actualization as the reasons for obtaining meaningfulness from work. This finding is consistent with Bellah and his colleagues’ (1985) conceptualization of calling orientation, where the individual’s work creates a connection with the larger community. A growing body of research supports the view that interpersonal relationships play a key role in enabling employees to experience their work as important and a source of life meaning (Barry & Crant, 2000; Bradbury & Lichtenstein, 2000; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003). In addition, studies investigating relational perspectives have shown associations with career success (de Janasz, Sullivan, & Whiting, 2003; Higgins & Kram, 2001) and work satisfaction (van Emmerik, 2004). Research on social networks indicates interpersonal relationships often enhance employee motivation, opportunities, and resources at work (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Ibarra, 1993; Leana & Rousseau, 2000; Rangan, 2000). These positive outcomes are similar to outcomes associated with calling orientation.

The objective and subjective views of career (Hughes, 1958) as well as career work orientation do not focus on developing connections with others, but on one’s own achievement and success as a purpose for work. Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory of motivation is

consistent with this self-focused view, suggesting rational self-interest drives work behaviors, as individuals pursue goals that maximize one's own valance based on systematic, rational calculations. A person with a higher career orientation, being more focused on his or her own achievement and success, will not concern him or herself with others at work because of this rational, self-interested decision process; therefore, I expect a negative relationship between having a concern for others and career orientation.

Batson (1990), Holmes (1990), and Simon (1990) have criticized self-interest models due to their inability to explain helping and altruistic behaviors, and suggested individuals may not always rely upon systematic, rational calculations in making decisions. As an alternative to rational self-interest to explain human motivation, Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) developed the theory of other orientation (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1996). Lester, Meglino, and Korsgaard (2008) define other orientation as an individual's concern for the welfare of others independent of the concerns for the self. Other orientation is a predisposition, where an individual will be less likely to systematically screen information in a rational manner and less focused on oneself in making work decisions (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2006). The theory of other orientation suggests individuals with a higher other orientation will rely less on rational, self-interested processing in making decisions, be predisposed to engage in self-sacrificing acts, and be more concerned with others in making work decisions. I expect other orientation to have a positive relationship with calling orientation, but have a negative relationship to career orientation. Individuals with a higher job orientation view work as an instrumental activity; therefore, having a concern for others will not be a purpose for working and I expect there will be no relationship between concern for others and job orientation. Therefore,

H 5a: Concern for others is not significantly related to job orientation.

H 5b: Concern for others is negatively related to career orientation.

H 5c: Concern for others is positively related to calling orientation.

Self-Reflection

An attribute associated with calling is a process of introspection or self-reflection in the development of life meaning (Dobrow, 2004; Novak, 1996; Weiss, Skelley, Hall, & Haughey, 2003). A number of career development theories also advocate self-reflection (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Perosa & Perosa, 1984; Super, 1980), but the self-reflection referred to in these theories addresses the exploration of preferred educational and vocational choices. For example, Super's life span-life space theory of careers includes a process of conceptualizing the self where the individual evaluates his or her vocational abilities, interests, values, and choices in order to maximize the fit between the traits of the person and the traits required by the work environment (Super, Savickas, & Super 1996). This type of reflection may help to maximize vocational choice, but it is not sufficient to create meaningfulness from work. Hall and Mirvis (1995) bring the life meaning and the career development research streams together in discussing the changes from the traditional to the protean career; stressing a process of self-reflection and learning. Hall and Chandler (2005) stated individuals with a higher calling orientation develop this orientation through a process of self-reflection including methods such as introspection, reflection, and meditation. The type of self-reflection Hall and Mirvis (1995) refer to goes beyond evaluations of fit and reflects on past events to develop meta-skills to move beyond the traditional career and towards meaningfulness and psychological success, as embodied by calling orientation. Their research suggests individuals with a higher calling orientation will break the traditional career path, with its hierarchy of goals, to find psychological

success. Individuals who choose not to develop these meta-skills through a process of self-reflection during adulthood will be less likely to experience life meaning from work.

Individuals with a higher career orientation value a traditional career path with its hierarchical structure, where one will not develop and utilize meta-skills through self-reflection. Likewise those having a higher job orientation view the purpose of work in life as instrumental and do not see the need to reflect beyond vocational choice. Therefore,

H 6a: Self-reflection is negatively related to job orientation.

H 6b: Self-reflection is negatively related to career orientation.

H 6c: Self-reflection is positively related to calling orientation.

Work Enjoyment

Work enjoyment refers to the level of pleasure derived from work (Johnstone & Johnston, 2005). Enjoyment, as a positive emotion, can act to reinforce behaviors. Within the career context Hall (2002) hypothesized psychological success developed in a cyclical fashion; as one achieves goals, self esteem increases along with feelings of competence and involvement in one's work, and this increases performance and reinforces behaviors. A similar cycle may occur with enjoyment of one's work; as one enjoys work, feelings of competence increase, and reinforces one's work orientation.

Work enjoyment does not appear to promote the development of life meaning. Bonebright, Clay, and Ankenmann (2000), in a study of 171 high tech employees, found individuals who scored higher in drivenness to work and work enjoyment had higher work involvement, but did not have significantly different scores for life satisfaction or sense of purpose. Anecdotally, someone with a higher career or job orientation may enjoy work, but find meaningfulness from other life roles. On the opposite side, Peace Corp workers and health care

providers for AIDS patients work under extreme conditions that are far from enjoyable, but are examples of work roles many perceive as providing life meaning due to their focus on helping others. Oates, Hall, and Anderson (2005) documented this phenomenon in a qualitative study of university professors noting interviewees appear to have a high calling orientation even when work enjoyment was missing. With unpleasant jobs, such as hospital cleaning staffs, Wrzesniewski and Dutton's model of interpersonal sense making and job crafting suggests employees craft their work in such a way that it is seen as providing life meaning even if it is far from enjoyable (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003).

Although there appears not to be a direct relationship between enjoying one's work and the development of life meaning, enjoying one's work may alter the relationship among work orientation attributes and job, career, and calling orientations. If one enjoys his or her work, this enjoyment will reinforce the person's work orientation profile, affecting the strength of the relationship among each work orientation and the attributes of that orientation or the direction of these relationships or both. If an individual does not enjoy his or her work, the reinforcement cycle does not occur and, in the short term, the identified attributes maintain their original relationship with job, career, and calling orientations. In the long term, work orientations may change as the result of sustained negative work experiences, however, examination of this assertion is beyond the scope of this study. I discuss the proposed moderating relationships I test in this study in greater detail below.

Work enjoyment and proactive personality. Individuals with a proactive personality are more likely to actively engage in changing their work environment to provide meaningfulness instead of operating by chance. In crafting one's work to provide meaningfulness, if a person also enjoys his or her work, he or she will reinforce the meaningfulness attached to work. I

hypothesize a positive relationship between proactive personality and calling and career orientations in this dissertation study; enjoyment of one's work will strengthen these relationships. For the person with less of a proactive personality, hypothesized in this study to be associated with a higher job orientation, he or she will see the outcomes of work as a result of chance and not take steps to change the work environment. For the person with a higher job orientation, enjoyment of one's work will reinforce the relationship between the non-proactive elements of one's personality and strengthen the negative relationship between proactive personality and job orientation. Therefore, I propose:

H 7a: The relationship between proactive personality and job orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their negative relationship.

H 7b: The relationship between proactive personality and career orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their positive relationship.

H 7c: The relationship between proactive personality and calling orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their positive relationship.

Work enjoyment and preference for challenging work. In this dissertation I hypothesize preference for challenging work will be an individual attribute associated with career orientation, as accomplishment of tasks increases psychological success and self-esteem. For an individual with a higher career orientation, if this individual also enjoys work, this positive relationship will be strengthened, as enjoying challenging work will create a positive reinforcement cycle. For those with a higher job orientation, I suggest challenging work will be seen as a frustration, because the purpose of work is simply to obtain resources and challenging work makes this

harder to achieve; therefore, I hypothesize a negative relationship between job orientation and preference for challenging work. If a person enjoys work, even with a higher job orientation, he or she may embrace challenging work, weakening this negative relationship. For those with a higher calling orientation, enjoying challenging work may make challenges more pleasant and increase satisfaction, but work enjoyment will not influence the life meaning attached to work and not change the null relationship between a preference for challenging work and calling orientation. Therefore,

H 8a: The relationship between preference for challenging work and job orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment weakens their negative relationship.

H 8b: The relationship between preference for challenging work and career orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their positive relationship.

Work enjoyment and concern for others. This dissertation asserts enjoyment of one's work reinforces one's current work orientation; it does not change the purposes work serves in one's life. Consistent with extant literature (Bellah et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997; Weiss et al., 2003), I anticipate a positive relationship between concern for others at work and calling orientation and enjoying one's work should create a positive reinforcement cycle strengthening this relationship. I hypothesize there will be a negative relationship between concern for others and career orientation because the achievement and advancement purposes for work associated with career orientation are self-focused. Enjoying one's work will not change the purposes work serves in life; therefore, the hypothesized negative relationship with career

orientation and the hypothesized null relationship with job orientation will be the same regardless of how much someone enjoys his or her work. Therefore,

H 9: The relationship between concern for others and calling orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their positive relationship.

Work enjoyment and self-reflection. Self-reflection provides an individual the chance to analyze past work events and reflect upon where the meaning in one's life comes from. If a person enjoys his or her work and has not gone through a process of self-reflection, he or she will not see the need to self-reflect on past work events and develop self-reflection meta-skills (Hall & Mirvis, 1995) due to the positive experience from work, regardless of work's purpose in life. In this dissertation study I hypothesize negative relationships among job and career orientations and self-reflection. If a person with a higher job or career orientation enjoys his or her work he or she will see even less of a need to self-reflect than someone who does not enjoy his or her work due to the positive experiences obtained from work. For a person who has gone through a process of self-reflection, not only will this person be more likely to have a higher calling orientation, but enjoying one's work will act to reinforce the relationship between self-reflection and calling orientation, strengthening this positive relationship. Therefore:

H 10a: The relationship between self-reflection and job orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their negative relationship.

H 10b: The relationship between self-reflection and career orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their negative relationship.

H 10c: The relationship between self-reflection and calling orientation is moderated by enjoyment of work: work enjoyment strengthens their positive relationship.

Control Variables

Earlier studies found positive relationships among work orientation and differences in age (Charles & James, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), education (Davidson & Caddell, 1994), and income (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Malka & Chatman, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997); therefore, I included these variables as controls in this study. Career research has shown gender differences (Fagan, 2001; Hakim, 1991) in career outcomes; therefore, I also included gender as a control variable in this study.

Davidson and Caddell (1994) noted a positive relationship between perceived employment security and calling orientation. At the time of this study, the US was in an economic recession and many individuals were fearful of becoming unemployed (Uchitelle, 2009). Due to the widespread fear among US workers of becoming unemployed and the potential impact on work orientation and the results of this study, I measured and controlled for employment security.

Conclusion

Empirical support for the tripartite model of work orientation is in a nascent state and questions remain as to the dimensionality of this model. This research begins to fill this gap by not only testing the dimensionality of the model, but also by testing possible relationships between job, career, and calling work orientations and the individual attributes of proactive personality, preference for challenging work, concern for others, self-reflection, and work enjoyment. With the changes in the relationship between employers and employees from lifetime employment to lifetime employability (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall & Chandler, 2005) and the positive work and life outcomes associated with finding meaningfulness from

work (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), gaining an understanding of the individual attributes associated with each work orientation has individual and organizational implications.

In Chapter 4, I describe the methods I used to test the hypotheses presented, including the study design, the operationalization of variables, and the survey instrument I used.

Chapter 4

Methods

In this chapter, I describe the design of my study including the survey protocol, participants, and measures used to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3. This study attempts to clarify the attributes of job, career, and calling work orientations by empirically testing relationships among the identified variables and the different meanings people attach to their work. By clarifying the distinctive attributes of each work orientation, this study endeavors to better understand the meaning of work and how differences in work orientation can help explain differences in work outcomes.

Survey Protocol

I utilized a cross-sectional design to test the hypotheses presented in this study using an Internet based survey sent to all employees of a corporate office and 29 East Coast locations of the same private employer. To minimize organizational and industry conditions that may influence meaning, all participants invited to participate in this study worked for the same employer. Approximately one week before I conducted the survey, a representative of the employer sent an introductory email letting employees know about my forthcoming email providing them an opportunity to participate in the survey. This notification heightened awareness of the survey and let employees know the email regarding the survey was a legitimate, non-spam email. Using email addresses of potential participants supplied by the employer, I emailed 631 employees, 404 employees working in locations on the East Coast of the United States and 231 corporate employees working primarily in the Midwest, and asked if they would participate in the survey. I sent emails to all corporate office and branch level employees at the

selected locations in an effort to include respondents at various levels of income, education, job responsibilities, and experience. Appendix A contains a copy of the online survey and recruitment notices.

Employee participants accessed the survey via a link embedded in my email. I utilized the commercial software package Qualtrics to collect survey responses due to its built in functionality for maintaining confidentiality of responses and its ability to minimize multiple responses. I sent two follow-up emails at approximately one week and two weeks after my initial email. I also provided an incentive to increase the response rate to the survey, a drawing for two \$100 gift cards. I maintained separate files for the study survey and the gift card entries to protect the confidentiality of survey respondents. Baruch College's Institutional Review Board reviewed and approved the survey protocol.

Power Analysis

I conducted a power analysis using G*Power 3 software (Faul, Erdfelder, Land, & Buchner, 2008) to determine if the number of responses was adequate to achieve statistically significant results (Cohen, 1990). During the three week period the survey was open, I received 251 usable responses for an overall response rate of 39%. The sample size for this study of 251 achieved 85% power to detect a small to medium effect size ($f^2 = .05$, Cohen, 1992) attributable to six predictor variables (work role, proactive personality, preference for challenging work, concern for others, self-reflection, and work enjoyment as a moderator variable) and five control variables (age, income, gender, education, and employment security) at a significance level (α) of 0.05.

Participants

The individuals participating in this study consisted of 74 employees (33% response rate) from the corporate office of the national automobile company and 177 employees (44% response rate) working in East Coast branch locations of the same company. The corporate office employees were executive, paraprofessional, and administrative employees. The senior management of the company works within the corporate office and was included in the population I invited to participate in this study. The branch location employees provide direct service to the company's clients. Branch employees are almost equally divided by gender, with females working mainly in administrative office functions and males working primarily outside receiving automobiles and preparing the autos for auction. Most employees are native-born US citizens. I selected the East Coast locations due to number of employees and accessibility. Per discussion with the employer, no employees worked less than 30 hours per week on a regular basis and all employees were 18 years of age or older. Because all employees worked over 30 hours per week, work played a substantial role in the employees' lives, at least from a time commitment. Based on prior research (Higgins, Duxbury & Johnson, 2000) employees working less than full-time have different priorities for working and have different experiences than those working full-time, potentially impacting their work orientation.

I compared demographics of the survey respondents to the company as a whole to evaluate the representativeness of the respondents to the company population. The company as a whole is 48% female and 52% male. Survey respondents matched the population gender demographics of 48% female for the corporate employees, but the branch respondents were 59% female, representing a higher percentage of female employees completed the survey as compared to the overall population of branch workers. The mean age of respondents was 41.0 years (sd =

11.2), slightly younger than the overall company's mean age of 42.8 years. The difference in age between branch employees ($m = 40.6$, $sd = 10.8$) and corporate employees ($m = 41.8$, $sd = 12.2$) responding to the survey was not significant ($z = 1.32$, $p = .093$). The mean salary of survey respondents, excluding officers, was \$46,895, which was slightly higher than the overall mean salary for the company, excluding officers, of \$41,000. The survey respondents had a higher salary than the overall company population because a larger percentage of the employees who completed the survey were corporate employees. Corporate employees have higher salaries than branch employees. For this study I surveyed only one of the five regions of the company where branch employees work; therefore, the study population and the survey respondents were skewed towards higher salary workers. In looking at the branch employees exclusively, the average salary for the branch employees was \$39,771 ($sd = \$20,011$), which was slightly below the overall company mean salary, as expected for these respondents. Table 2 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics for the survey respondents and a comparison of the demographics for the company population, as provided by the employer. Based on this review the survey respondents appear representative of the company population and response error is not a cause for concern.

Table 2

Characteristics of Survey Respondents

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Branch</u>	<u>Corporate Office</u>	<u>Total</u>
Usable Responses (n)	177	74	251
Age – Mean (SD)	40.6 (10.8)	41.8 (12.2)	41.0 (11.2)
Age - Overall Org. Mean	43.0	41.0	42.8
Salary – Mean (Std Dev)	\$39,771 (\$20,011)	\$61,940 (\$22,929)	\$46,895 (\$26,610)
Salary - Overall Organization Mean			\$41,000 ¹
Gender – Respondents			
Male – Number (%)	73 (41%)	38 (52%)	111 (44%)
Female – Number (%)	104 (59%)	36 (48%)	140 (56%)
Gender – Overall Organization			
Male – %			52%
Female – %			48%

¹excludes officers Salaries

Variables

Dependent Variable

Work orientation. I measured work orientation using a modified version of Wrzesniewski (1999) work orientation scale with Yugo's (2006) 5-point Likert response format. This scale asked respondents to rate the extent each item described them from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. To reflect the finer grain attitudes of respondents, increase the variance and covariance of responses, and potentially increase reliability of the scale (Babbie, 1998), I utilized a Likert response format instead of a true-false binary response format. Yugo (2006), using the full Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) scale, compared the true-false response format to the five-point

Likert scale, and found higher reliability for the job and the calling subscales using the Likert scale format. In addition, the Likert scale resulted in three factors, where the true-false response format did not produce an interpretable factor structure. A subsequent study by Tosti (2008) also showed a three dimensional structure for work orientation using the Likert scale format.

I used a 12-item modified version of the shortened Wrzesniewski (1999) work orientation scale. Over time studies found a number of items in the original 18-item work orientation scale did not correspond theoretically to the work orientation construct and added superfluous data to correlation matrices (Tosti, 2008; Yugo, 2006). Wrzesniewski (1999) recognized this fact and revised her measure to only include the ten items that consistently had the highest factor loadings. The items removed from the scale related mainly to work activities, such as taking work home and on vacation, and thinking about work when not at work, that are not theoretically consistent with job, career, or calling, as evidenced by the consistently low factor loadings among these items and the three work orientations (Tosti, 2008; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). I added two items to the 10-item scale to better complete the content validity of the job and calling scales; these items were “I find my work rewarding” and “I greatly anticipate weekends, I say ‘Thank God it’s Friday’”. These two items have consistently shown high factor loadings (Tosti, 2008; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) and are consistent with modifications made by Wrzesniewski in other studies measuring the work orientation construct (Wrzesniewski personal communication, 2008). The 10-item scale has shown good validity in prior studies considering the true-false response format (Tosti, 2008; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

I conducted a factor analysis to confirm the factor structure in hypothesis one, which is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5. Based on the results of the factor analysis I calculated three work orientation scores, a job score, a career score, and a calling score, for each respondent

using the average score for the three items related to job orientation, the two items related to career orientation, and the seven items related to calling orientation. I used the average score for each work orientation to test the hypothesized relationships because there were an unequal number of items in each subscale. With the limited number of items comprising each subscale I expected internal consistency reliability of the sub-scales, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, to be less than conventional levels (Cortina, 1993); therefore, to better understand the internal consistency reliability of each subscale I calculated and reviewed the average intercorrelations for each work orientation subscale in Chapter 5.

Predictor Variables

Work role. In this dissertation study I defined work role as direct service versus administrative support staff. I classified employees based on the employee's main job function, classifying all branch employees, by virtue of their daily contact with customers, as direct service and all corporate employees, with the exception of senior management, as administrative support staff. I classified senior management as direct service employees due to their direct customer contact. I separated the two groups through a survey code, one for all branch employees and a second for corporate employees, embedded in the initial email link sent to employees. To identify senior management employees, I asked all participants to identify their level of job responsibility and coded the corporate employees selecting "executive/senior management" as direct service employees. I coded direct service employees with a 1 and administrative support staff as 0. I used this coding for all statistical analysis.

Proactive personality. This dissertation study measured proactive personality using Bateman and Crant's (1993) 10-item proactive personality scale. The shortened version of this scale had ten items originally developed using the items with the highest average factor loadings

in previous research (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Siebert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). Item scoring utilized a 7-point agreement scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Bateman and Crant (1993) presented initial evidence for the 17-item proactive personality scale's test-retest reliability (reliability coefficient was .72 over a 3-month period), convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity. Siebert, Crant, and Kraimer (1999) noted correlations between the revised 10-item scale and the original 17-item scale of .96 and the scales showed little difference in reliability (17-item $a = .88$; 10-item $a = .86$). The coefficient alpha for proactive personality in this study was .89. Sample items for the shortened scale used in this study included, "I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life" and "If I see something I don't like, I fix it." For correlation reporting and regression analysis, I combined the ten items to create one score for proactive personality.

Preference for challenging work. I measured preference for challenging work using Amabile et al.'s (1994) Work Preference Inventory challenge subscale. This scale contained five items including, "I enjoying trying to solve complex problems" and "I prefer work I know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities" (reverse scored). The scale measured preference for challenging work on a five-point preference scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The coefficient alpha for preference for challenging work in this study was .77. For statistical analysis and reporting, I combined the five items to create one score for preference for challenging work.

Self-reflection. I measured self-reflection using the self-exploration subscale of the Career Exploration Survey (CES; Stumpf, Colarelli, & Hartman, 1983). The self-exploration subscale measured the extent of an individual's career exploration involved self-reflection and retrospection. The CES self-exploration subscale contained five items asking respondents to

what extent they participated in each reflective activity based on a five-point scale from *little to a great deal*. Sample items included to what extent the respondent had “Reflected on how my past career and activities match with my future career” and “Understood my past behavior in a new way that will help with my future career”. The coefficient alpha for self-reflection was .83. For analysis and reporting, I combined the five items into a single measure for self-reflection.

Concern for others. I measured concern for others using the concern for others subscale of Ravlin and Meglino’s (1987a, 1987b) comparative emphasis scale (CES). The CES was a forced-choice scale asking respondents to choose among pairs of statements representing the workplace values of concern for others, achievement, fairness, and honesty/integrity. Because obtaining an accurate measure of concern for others posed a problem due to the socially desirable nature of this construct, I used a forced-choice measure. The CES presented 48 statements describing each of the four values paired with each of the other values four times. Statements representing the concern for others subscale included, “Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time” and “Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their job”. Prior studies showed good convergent validity for the CES scale with other measures of concern for others, including pro-social behavior (McNeely & Meglino, 1994) and empathy, (Davis, 1980) as well as divergent validity with self-focus measures such as narcissism (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1996). Ravlin and Meglino (1987a) found scores on the CES were not significantly correlated with social desirability as measured by the Marlowe–Crowne social desirability scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

The CES is a fully ipsative measure, measuring the values most important to each individual relative to other values he or she considers. Ipsative measures are inherently within-subject measures. Even though Likert scales are more amenable to between-subjects

comparisons, ipsative scales yield a more accurate classification of value preferences and are better estimates of participants' actual feelings than more normative alternatives (Baron, 1996; Judge & Bretz, 1993; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987b). In order to not alter the integrity of the scale and preserve the ability to make between-subject comparisons (Baron, 1996), I used the full scale. To make these comparisons I noted the highest ranking value of the four and if concern for others ranked highest, I coded it as 1; if another value ranked higher, I coded the concern for others variable as 0. I used this coding for correlation and regression analysis.

Moderating Variable

Work enjoyment. I measured work enjoyment using Amabile et al.'s (1994) intrinsic motivation sub-scale for enjoyment. This scale contained ten items including, "What matters most to me is enjoying what I do" and "I enjoy doing work that is so absorbing that I forget about everything else." The scale measured work enjoyment on a five-point preference scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The coefficient alpha for work enjoyment in this study was .72. For correlation reporting and regression modeling, I combined the ten items to create one score for work enjoyment.

Control variables

Due to their previously established relationships to work orientation, I controlled for age, education, employment security, gender, and income in this study. I measured age, education, and gender using standard survey questions. For annual income I used 13 pre-established categories from *less than \$10,000 per year* to *more than \$250,000 per year*. For data analysis, I calculated and utilized the midpoint of each income range except for the "less than \$10,000 per year" and "more than \$250,000 per year" categories, where I used \$10,000 and \$250,000, respectively. I measured and controlled for employment security using Brandes, Castro, James,

Martinez, Matherly, Ferris, and Hochwarter's (2008) four-item scale. This scale measured employment insecurity on a seven-point scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* and used items such as "I am waiting for the next shoe to fall in that I am wondering if my job will be eliminated" developed from definitions of job security presented by Rosenblatt and Ruvio (1996) and Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck (1997). The coefficient alpha for the employment security scale was .79.

In reviewing all variables for outliers, normality, skewness, and kurtosis, I noted that annual income was positively skewed so I performed a logarithmic transformation of annual income in order to make the distribution of incomes more symmetric and closer to a normal distribution. I used the log of annual income in ANOVA and regression analyses. I performed no other data transformations.

The scales used in this study were based on instruments developed, tested, and used in prior research. Appendix B contains a summary of the psychometric properties for each scale used in this study including the discriminant and convergent validities and reliabilities for each scale as established in previous research. In the next chapter, I present the results of the statistical analysis conducted to test the hypotheses in this study.

Chapter 5

Results

In this chapter I present the results of this study including a general overview of the relationships among study variables and the results of the tests of each hypothesis, noting significant findings.

Overview of Study Variables

Table 3 presents means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables for all respondents. I reviewed the correlation matrix and noted a number of significant correlations among the three work orientations and the variables in this study. The results showed significant relationships among career orientation and all four of the predictor variables ($r = -.132$ to $.320$) and significant relationships among calling orientation and three of the four predictor variables ($r = -.125$ to $.212$); only the relationship between concern for others and calling orientation did not meet conventional levels of significance ($r = .038$, $p = .567$). The only significant relationship among the predictor variables and job orientation was a negative relationship with preference for challenging work ($r = -.181$, $p < .01$). Reviewing the relationships among the three work orientations and the control variables, respondents with a higher career orientation score tended to be younger ($r = -.473$, $p < .001$), respondents with a higher calling orientation score tended to be older ($r = .233$, $p < .001$) and felt more secure in their employment ($r = .373$, $p < .001$), and respondents with a higher job score tended to feel less secure in their employment ($r = -.164$, $p < .001$). Relationships among the control variables of gender, education, log of annual income, and the three work orientation variables did not meet conventional levels of significance ($r = -.086$ to $.106$, $p = .095$ to $.824$). I conducted a preliminary review of the regression analysis to better understand the influence of the control variables to predict each work orientation. Gender ($t = 1.457$, $p = .147$ for job orientation, $t = -.387$, $p = .699$ for career

orientation, and $t = -.054$, $p = .380$ for calling orientation), education ($t = .187$, $p = .852$ for job orientation, $t = 1.386$, $p = .167$ for career orientation, and $t = -.079$, $p = .232$ for calling orientation), and income ($t = .683$, $p = .495$ for job orientation, $t = .383$, $p = .702$ for career orientation, and $t = .628$, $p = .531$ for calling orientation) did not meet conventional levels of significance, consistent with the results of the correlational analysis, and offered little explanation of the differences in work orientation scores. I initially included these variables in this study as control variables because Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) and Davidson and Caddell (1994) found correlations between them and work orientation. This study utilized employees from a single organization in a single industry; thereby controlling for industry and organizational affects. Prior studies utilized a more occupationally diverse workforce and this diversity may have influenced results. Based on the results of the review of the correlation matrix and the preliminary review of the multiple regression results, I included only age and employment security as control variables in this study. By utilizing two control variables instead of five, I conserved degrees of freedom and increased the power to detect significant relationships among the predictor variables and the three work orientations.

I reviewed the correlation matrix to determine whether the variables in this study were highly correlated with each other and multicollinearity was a potential problem. In reviewing the dependent variables, I noted a significant correlation between job and calling orientations ($r = -.366$, $p < .001$). In order to determine if there was collinearity in the data, I calculated the average variance inflation factor (VIF) between job and calling orientation variables ($VIF = 1.154$). Collinearity between these dependent variables was not a cause for concern because the VIF value was well below 10 (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990). Among the predictor variables the largest correlation was between proactive personality and work enjoyment ($r = .483$, $p < .001$).

The VIF between proactive personality and work enjoyment was 1.305. Among the control variables, as expected, the largest correlation was between income and education ($r = .462$, $p < .001$). The VIF factor between these two variables was 1.271. Because the calculated VIF values were all below 10, collinearity among the variables was not a cause for concern.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-correlations of Study Variables (n = 251)

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Job Orientation	3.39	0.76	1.000												
2. Career Orientation	3.30	0.94	0.068	1.000											
3. Calling Orientation	3.24	0.68	-0.366***	0.005	1.000										
4. Proactive Personality	5.32	0.82	0.036	0.320***	0.171**	1.000									
5. Concern for Others	0.21	0.41	0.038	-0.132*	0.038	-0.118	1.000								
6. Self-Reflection	3.24	0.91	0.045	0.259***	0.125*	0.382***	-0.036	1.000							
7. Pref for Challenging Work	3.81	0.62	-0.181**	0.129*	0.212**	0.288***	-0.101	0.224***	1.000						
8. Work Enjoyment	3.83	0.44	0.097	0.255***	0.199**	0.483***	0.024	0.370***	0.323***	1.000					
9. Age in Years	41.00	11.18	-0.165**	-0.473***	0.233***	-0.126*	-0.018	-0.040	-0.030	0.005	1.000				
10. Gender	0.56	0.50	0.078	-0.023	-0.086	-0.079	0.072	-0.014	-0.093	-0.071	-0.057	1.000			
11. Education Level	3.96	1.46	0.014	0.106	-0.053	0.072	0.046	0.078	0.043	0.086	-0.013	-0.179**	1.000		
12. Log Annual Income	10.66	0.37	-0.030	-0.069	0.101	0.000	0.020	-0.077	0.040	-0.081	0.282***	-0.331***	0.462***	1.000	
13. Employment Security	5.11	1.19	-0.164**	0.011	0.373**	0.109	0.068	0.029	0.127	0.051	-0.004	-0.077	-0.053	0.027	1.00

Note: All scale measures were based on a 5 point scale except for proactive personality and job security, which were based on a 7-point scale. Gender coded as female = 1, 0 = male. Concern for others (CFO) coded as 1 = CFO as primary value, 0 = CFO not primary value. * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Tests of Hypotheses

My first hypothesis explored the dimensionality of the tripartite model of work orientation. I used the results of this analysis to determine the dependent variables for the other hypotheses tested in this study.

Dimensionality of work orientation. Hypothesis 1 stated that the data will support the tripartite model of work orientation with its three dimensions of job, career, and calling. To test this hypothesis, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS statistical software to determine the factor structure of the work orientation data and the items to include in each work orientation subscale. To assure the adequacy of the data for factor analysis, I calculated Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's (KMO) measure of sample adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO measure of .756 indicated an adequate sample size for the factor analysis (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). The result of the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 686.076$, $df = 66$, $p > .001$) was significant, indicating the correlation matrix for the data was not an identity matrix and the data was adequate for factor analysis.

Because I expected correlated factors I utilized oblique (oblimin) rotation to analyze the 12-item work orientation scale. This analysis produced three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (3.453, 1.686, and 1.279) and the next highest eigenvalue at .882, clearly indicating three factors. I produced and reviewed a scree plot for the data, which also indicated three factors. I prepared a factor correlation matrix for the three factors, noting the largest correlation was between calling and job factors ($r = -.44$). A review of the factor correlation matrix indicated the factors were correlated, but not identical, and collinearity was not a cause for concern.

To further explore the appropriateness of the three-factor model, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.80 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) software and the factor structure indicated by the exploratory factor analysis. In order to determine if the model fit the data, I calculated and reviewed the chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 98.58$, $df = 41$, $p < .001$) noting the degrees of freedom were less than the chi-square statistic. Ideally a well fitting model has a chi-square less than the degrees of freedom and a large p-value (Field, 2000). The goodness of fit index (GFI), showing the proportions of variances and covariances accounted for by the model, was .93, above the desired level of .90 (Bentler & Bonner, 1980). The AGFI, the GFI adjusted for the degrees of freedom, of .89 was slightly below the desired level. I ran several other models, including a one-factor model with all the scale items loading onto one factor and a two-factor model combining job and calling items onto one factor. The results of these analyses were less favorable than the original three-factor model. Table 4 presents a summary of LISREL fit statistics for the confirmatory factor analyses testing the one-, two-, and three-factor models.

Table 4

Summary of LISREL Fit Statistics for CFA Models Tested for Work Orientation

Model	χ^2	df	p	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA
Three Factor Model	236.00	54	>.001	.93	.89	.110
Two Factor Model	166.34	53	>.001	.91	.86	.088
One Factor Model	98.58	41	>.001	.87	.82	.073

N = 262, χ^2 = Chi-Square Statistic, df = degrees of freedom, GFI = goodness of fit index, AGFI = adjusted GFI, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation

Although the results were less than ideal, the confirmatory factor analysis supported a three-factor structure.

Table 5 shows the results of the exploratory factor analysis rotated by item. In interpreting each factor, I noted the first two items related conceptually to career orientation, the next seven items related to calling orientation, and the last three items related to job orientation. I ran a second exploratory factor analysis using the original 10 items from Wrzesniewski et al.'s (1997) scale, which also indicated three factors, but the 12-item scale showed better reliability for the underlying factors. By adding the item "I greatly anticipate weekends, I say 'Thank God it's Friday'" to job orientation, the number of items in the job factor increased from two to three and the reliability, as measured by Cronbach's alpha (α), increased from .331 to .533. The addition of the item "I find my work rewarding" to the calling factor increased the reliability (α) from .738 to .777. The reliability (α) for the two-item career measure was .651. The calling and job orientation reliabilities were less than conventional levels, which was not surprising, considering the small number of items representing each factor and the exploratory nature of this study.

To better understand the reliability of the work orientation sub-scales, I calculated average inter-item correlations for each work orientation, noting an average inter-item correlation of .277 for the job scale, .483 for the career scale, and .389 for the calling scale. The average inter-item correlation for the job orientation scale was below the desired level of .30 (Robinson, Shaver, & Wrightsman, 1991), however, with inter-item correlations of .202, .323 and .305, two of the three inter-item correlations for the job orientation scale were above the .30 level. Although the reliability of the work orientation sub-scales were less than ideal statistically, the items within each factor were conceptually consistent with the definitions of job, career, and calling orientations found in the literature (Bellah et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

Overall the results of the factor analysis supported hypothesis 1; work orientation is comprised of three dimensions: job, career, and calling. Using the results of the factor analysis, I calculated an average score for the items comprising the job orientation factor, the career orientation factor, and the calling orientation factor for each respondent. I utilized these average scores in subsequent hypotheses testing.

Table 5

Factor Analysis of Work Orientation Items and Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor:	1 Career	2 Calling	3 Job
Item:			
I view my job primarily as a stepping stone to other jobs. (STEPPING STONE)	.996	-.054	.080
I expect to be at a higher level job in five years.(HIGHER LEVEL)	.486	.060	.030
I enjoy talking about my work to others (ENJOYTALK)	.103	.712	.087
I would choose my current work life again if I had the opportunity. (CURRENT WORK)	.135	.632	-.134
I find my work rewarding (REWARD)	-.046	.621	-.091
I expect to be doing the same work in five years. (SAMEWORK)	-.203	.498	.100
My work makes the world a better place.(BETTER)	.059	.477	-.053
If I was financially secure, I would continue with my current line of work even if I was no longer paid. (FINSECURE)	.056	.414	-.290
My work is one of the most important things in my life. (WORKIMP)	.146	.388	-.290
I am very conscious of what day of the week it is and I greatly anticipate weekends. I say, "Thank God it's Friday." (TGIF)	.073	-.020	.682
I am eager to retire. (RETIRE)	-.077	.014	.492
My primary reason for working is financial – to support my family and lifestyle. (FINANCIAL)	.153	-.044	.389
Eigenvalues	3.453	1.686	1.279
Percentage of Variance Explained	28.8%	14.0%	10.7%
Alpha	0.651	0.777	0.533

Note: Boldface indicates primary factor loadings. n = 251 and all items were measured on the same 5 point scale.

Factor Correlation Matrix

	1 Career	2 Calling	3 Job
1. Career	1.000		
2. Calling	.041	1.000	
3. Job	-.009	-.443	1.000

Review of highest and lowest work orientations and potential biases. I utilized workers in the auto industry for this study. In utilizing an occupational group not known for socially valued work there was the potential for a job or anti-calling bias among respondents. To determine the impact of these potential biases, I reviewed the distribution of highest-average-scoring work orientation for survey respondents and compared these results to prior studies of work orientation. I also calculated and reviewed the distribution of lowest-average-scoring work orientation, but I could not find prior studies containing comparison data for the lowest-scoring work orientation distribution. Table 6 details the distribution of the highest-scoring work orientation for respondents in this study. I reviewed the overall distribution of highest-scoring work orientation as well as the distributions for the direct service (branch) employees and the support (corporate) employees to evaluate differences between the two groups. The direct service group had an almost equal percentage of respondents with their highest-scoring work orientation in the job and the career orientation categories, while the support group had a higher percentage of respondents scoring highest in the career orientation category. Overall only 7% of the survey respondents did not have a single highest-scoring work orientation. Table 7 details the distribution of the lowest-scoring work orientation among respondents. Similar to the distribution for the highest-scoring work orientation the distribution for the lowest-scoring work orientation had an almost equal percentage of respondents in each of the three work orientation groups with a slightly higher percentage of workers in both the direct service and support groups with calling orientation as their lowest-scoring work orientation. Overall only 5% of survey respondents did not have a single lowest-scoring work orientation.

Table 6

Distribution of Highest-Scoring Work Orientation (n = 251)

<u>Highest-Scoring Work Orientation</u>	<u>Direct Service</u>	<u>Support</u>	<u>Overall</u>
Job Orientation – Number (%)	58 (32.6%)	21 (28.8%)	79 (31.5%)
Career Orientation – Number (%)	56 (31.5%)	25 (34.2%)	81 (32.3%)
Calling Orientation – Number (%)	52 (29.2%)	21 (28.8%)	73 (29.1%)
Hybrid Orientation – Number (%) (more than 1 primary orientation)	12 (6.7%)	6 (8.2%)	18 (7.2%)

Table 7

Distribution of Lowest-Scoring Work Orientation (n = 251)

<u>Lowest-Scoring Work Orientation</u>	<u>Direct Service</u>	<u>Support</u>	<u>Overall</u>
Job Orientation – Number (%)	56 (31.5%)	21 (28.8%)	77 (30.7%)
Career Orientation – Number (%)	49 (27.5%)	22 (30.1%)	71 (28.3%)
Calling Orientation – Number (%)	65 (36.6%)	26 (35.6%)	61 (36.3%)
Hybrid Orientation – Number (%) (more than 1 primary orientation)	8 (4.5%)	4 (5.5%)	18 (4.8%)

Table 8 provides a summary for this study and the two prior studies reporting highest-scoring work orientation distributions (Davison & Caddell, 1994; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Similar to this study the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) study also found nearly equal representation in each of the three categories of work orientation; however, the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) study found a much higher percentage of respondents without a highest-scoring work orientation. The Davidson and Caddell (1994) study utilized a church based group of respondents working in

a variety of industries. This group had much higher percentage of respondents with a career orientation. Davidson and Caddell (1994) were able to identify a primary work orientation for all respondents because of the way they measured work orientation. The results of this review of the distributions of highest- and lowest-scoring work orientations and comparisons to the highest-scoring results in prior studies indicated neither a bias towards job orientation nor a negative bias against calling orientation among survey respondents in this dissertation study.

Table 8

Distribution of Highest-Scoring Work Orientation as Compared to Prior Studies

<u>Primary Work Orientation</u>	<u>Overall % In this Study (n = 251)</u>	<u>Davidson & Caddell, 1994 (n = 1,869)</u>	<u>Wrzesniewski et al., 1997 (n = 196)</u>
Job Orientation – (%)	32%	29%	22%
Career Orientation - (%)	32%	56%	22%
Calling Orientation – (%)	29%	15%	25%
Hybrid Orientation – (%) (more than 1 primary orientation)	7%	none reported	31%

Work role and work orientation. Hypothesis 2 stated work orientation was not related to work role. For this study there were two distinct work groups; corporate employees performing administrative functions in support of the business and branch employees working with customers in direct service roles. To test hypothesis 2, I performed a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test the relationship between work role, defined as direct service (branch) versus support (corporate), and work orientation. I included the covariates of the control variables of age and employment security in this analysis. I calculated a Box's *M*

statistic and Levene's test of error variances for each dependent variable to assure the assumptions of MANOVA were met for the data and a MANOVA test was appropriate. The Box's *M* statistic did not meet conventional levels of significance (2.44, sig. = .879) indicating a lack of evidence the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrix assumption was violated. The Levene's test of equality of error variances for job orientation ($F = 1.447$, $df = 1, 246$, $p = .225$), career orientation ($F = .000$, $df = 1, 246$, $p = .998$), and calling orientation ($F = .562$, $df = 1, 246$, $p = .454$) also did not meet conventional levels of significance, indicating the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met and MANOVA was an appropriate test for the data. Olsen (1974) found with unequal sized groups and when the assumption of multivariate normality is tenable the Pillai's trace statistic is a more robust multivariate test; therefore, I used the Pillai's trace statistic for the multivariate test of differences between groups. The Pillai's trace statistic did not meet conventional levels of significance ($p = .673$), as shown in Table 9. Table 9 also contains a summary of the univariate *F* tests conducted for each work orientation, which also did not meet conventional levels of significance ($p = .242$ to $.818$). Based on the results of the MANOVA analysis, work orientation was not related to work role; thus, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 9

Summary of Multivariate Test of Significance and Univariate F Tests of the Relationship between Work Orientation and Work Role

<u>Multivariate Test</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Degrees of Freedom</u>		<u>Significance of F Statistic</u>
			<u>Between Groups</u>	<u>Within Group</u>	
Pillai's Criterion	.006	.513	3	242	.673

Univariate F Tests for the Relationship between Each Work Orientation and Work Role

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Between Groups Sum of Squares</u>	<u>Within Groups Sum of Squares</u>	<u>Degrees of Freedom</u>	<u>.Between Groups Mean Square</u>	<u>Within-Groups Mean Square</u>	<u>F Statistic</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Job	.030	136.368	1 and 244	.030	.559	.054	.816
Career	.953	169.235	1 and 244	.953	.694	1.374	.242
Calling	.020	93.333	1 and 244	.020	.383	.053	.818

Note: Analysis included covariates of age and job security. Work role defined as direct service (1) or support (0) employee.

Testing of Attributes Related to Work Orientation

To test hypotheses 3a-c through 6a-c, I performed hierarchical multiple regression using SPSS software. I conducted several tests to assure regression assumptions were met and hierarchical multiple regression was appropriate to use for this data. I reviewed the data for outliers and linear relationships among variables and performed significance tests for skewness and kurtosis. The results of these reviews indicated the relationships among the variables were linear and outliers, skewness, and kurtosis were not causes for concern. I calculated variance inflation factors (VIF) and tolerance statistics for each regression analysis to determine if collinearity existed in the data. All calculated VIFs were between 1.5 and 1.6 and all tolerance statistics were between 0.65 and 0.985, far below the levels of 10 and .2, respectively, which indicates collinearity in the data (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990; Menard, 1995). For each regression analysis conducted I reviewed the standardized residuals for each set of regression equations to determine the presence of outliers and to assure normally distributed standardized residuals. I also prepared and reviewed histograms and probability plots of the residuals for each dependent variable to check for normality. The results of each of these reviews indicated normally distributed residuals within acceptable limits and no outliers noted. I also plotted residuals against fitted values for each variable to test for the assumption of homoscedasticity, which was not violated. Based on the results of these reviews and tests, this data met the assumptions for regression.

I utilized the same statistical tests for each set of hypotheses because all four predictors and all three dependent variables were measured using metric, interval, or continuous scales. To understand the relationship between each predictor and each work orientation, over and above the control variables identified, I used two regression models to test each hypothesis; the first

model contained only the covariates (controls) and the second model contained the covariates and the predictor. I included the covariates of age and employment security in each regression analysis. I discuss the results for each hypothesis test below and present tables summarizing the results of each regression analysis including the standardized regression coefficients, the F-tests and t-tests used to determine the significance of each predictor over and above the controls, and the R and R-squared for the models used to test each hypothesis.

Proactive personality and work orientation. Hypotheses 3a-c predicted a negative relationship between proactive personality and job orientation and a positive relationship among proactive personality and career and calling orientations. Table 10 presents the multiple regression results for hypotheses 3a-c. The results showed the relationship between proactive personality and job orientation score did not meet conventional levels of significance ($t = .691$, $p = .490$); therefore, hypothesis 3a was not supported. The results showed a significant positive relationship among proactive personality and career orientation score ($t = 4.839$, $p < .001$) and calling orientation score ($t = 2.723$, $p = .007$); therefore, hypotheses 3b and 3c were supported.

Table 10

Standardized Regression Coefficients for Proactive Personality Predicting Work Orientation
(n = 248)

	Job Orientation β	Career Orientation β	Calling Orientation β
Step 1. Control Variables			
Age	-.160 **	-.439 ***	.254 ***
Employment Security	-.158 *	-.020	.351 ***
R	.226	.473	.433
R ²	.051	.223	.188
Adjusted R ²	.043	.217	.181
F	6.582 **	35.244 ***	28.290 ***
Step 2. Predictor Variable			
Proactive Personality	.044	.264 ***	.157 **
t	.691	4.839 ***	2.723 **
R ² Change	.002	.068	.024
F – Change	.478	23.418 ***	7.412 **

Note: The standardized coefficients (β) presented are for the final (second) model with all variables included. No differences in significance were noted between the first and second models. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Preference for challenging work and work orientation. Hypotheses 4a-c predicted a negative relationship between preference for challenging work and job orientation, a positive relationship between preference for challenging work and career orientation, and a non-significant relationship between preference for challenging work and calling orientation. Table 11 presents the multiple regression results for Hypotheses 4a-c. The results of the multiple regression analysis showed a significant negative relationship ($t = -2.635$, $p = .009$) between job orientation score and preference for challenging work and a significant positive relationship ($t = 2.017$, $p = .045$) between career orientation score and preference for challenging work; therefore,

hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported. The results showed a significant positive relationship between calling orientation score and preference for challenging work ($t = 2.983$, $p = .003$); therefore, hypotheses 4c was not supported.

Table 11

Standardized Regression Coefficients for Preference for Challenging Work Predicting Work Orientation (n = 248)

	Job Orientation β		Career Orientation β		Calling Orientation β	
Step 1. Control Variables						
Age	.170	**	-.469	***	.239	***
Employment Security	-.135	*	-.010		.345	***
R	.226		.473		.433	
R ²	.051		.223		.188	
Adjusted R ²	.043		.217		.181	
F (original model)	6.582	**	35.244	***	28.290	***
Step 2. Predictor Variable						
Preference for Challenging Work	-.163	**	.114	*	.170	**
t	-2.635	**	2.017	*	2.983	**
R ² Change	.028		.013		.027	
F – Change	6.942	**	4.070	*	8.899	**

Note: The standardized coefficients (β) presented are for the final (second) model with all variables included. No differences in significance were noted between the first and second models. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Concern for others and work orientation. Hypotheses 5a–c predicted a non-significant relationship between concern for others and job orientation, a negative relationship between concern for others and career orientation, and a positive relationship between concern for others and calling orientation. Table 12 presents the multiple regression results for hypotheses 5a–c.

The results showed the relationship between concern for others and job orientation score did not meet conventional levels of significance ($t = .749$, $p = .455$) and a significant negative relationship between career orientation score and concern for others ($t = -2.464$, $p = .014$); thus, hypotheses 5a and 5b were supported. The results showed the relationship between concern for others and calling orientation score did not meet conventional levels of significance ($t = .247$, $p = .805$); thus, hypothesis 5c was not supported.

Table 12

Standardized Regression Coefficients for Concern for Others Predicting Work Orientation (n = 226)

	Job Orientation β		Career Orientation β		Calling Orientation β	
Step 1. Control Variables						
Age	-.193	**	-.451	***	.239	***
Employment Security	-.167	*	.042		.373	***
R	.258		.448		.450	
R ²	.066		.201		.203	
Adjusted R ²	.058		.194		.196	
F	7.942	***	27.994	***	28.367	***
Step 2. Predictor Variable						
Concern for Others	.049		-.146	*	.015	
t	.749		-2.464	*	.247	
R ² Change	.002		.017		.000	
F – Change	.560		6.072	*	.061	

Note: The standardized coefficients (β) presented are for the final (second) model with all variables included. No differences in significance were noted between the first and second models. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Self-reflection and work orientation. Hypotheses 6a–c predicted a negative relationship among self-reflection and job and career orientations and a positive relationship between self-reflection and calling orientation. Table 13 presents the multiple regression results for hypotheses 6a–c. The result showed the relationships between self-reflection and job orientation score ($t = .904$, $p = .367$) and self-reflection and calling orientation score ($t = 1.952$, $p = .052$) did not meet conventional levels of significance; therefore, hypotheses 6a and 6c were not supported. The results showed a positive relationship between self-reflection and career orientation score ($t = 4.347$, $p > .001$); therefore, hypothesis 6b was also not supported.

Table 13

Standardized Regression Coefficients for Self-Reflection Predicting Work Orientation (n = 244)

	Job Orientation β	Career Orientation β	Calling Orientation β
Step 1. Control Variables			
Age	-.165 **	-.468 ***	.230 ***
Employment Security	-.158 *	.003	.358 ***
R	.229	.478	.422
R ²	.053	.228	.178
Adjusted R ²	.045	.222	.172
F	6.690 **	35.685 ***	26.162 ***
Step 2. Predictor Variable			
Self-Reflection	.057	.238 ***	.113
t	.904	4.347 ***	1.952
R ² Change	.003	.056	.013
F – Change	.817	18.899 ***	3.811

Note: The standardized coefficients (β) presented are for the final (second) model with all variables included. No differences in significance were noted between the first and second models. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Moderating Effect of Work Enjoyment

To test the effect of work enjoyment as a moderating variable, potentially altering the relationships among identified predictor variables and each of the three work orientations as proposed in hypotheses 7 through 10, I performed moderated multiple regression analyses. Prior to running the analyses I centered the predictor variables of proactive personality, preference for challenging work, self-reflection, and work enjoyment and used the centered variables for the analyses to improve the interpretation of results and reduce potential problems of multicollinearity in the data (Aguinis & Gottfredson, in press). Centering was not appropriate for concern for others because I measured this variable using a dichotomy. I created interaction terms by multiplying the centered moderator variable of work enjoyment by each centered predictor variable. For each moderated relationship tested I developed an initial regression model with the control variables of age and employment security, each centered predictor variable, and the centered work enjoyment variable to determine the main effect of work enjoyment on each work orientation. I prepared a second model by entering the calculated interaction term to the equation developed in the first model. I performed a t-test on the interaction term to determine significance. Table 14 presents the results of the regression analysis for the main and moderating effects of work enjoyment on work orientation for the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3. I discuss the results of the regression analyses in more detail below.

Table 14
Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Effects of Work Enjoyment on Work Orientation

	Proactive Personality and Work Enjoyment (n = 248)						Preference for Challenging Work and Work Enjoyment (n = 248)								
	Job Orientation		Career Orientation		Calling Orientation		Job Orientation		Career Orientation						
	Work	Work	Work	Work	Work	Work	Work	Work	Work	Work					
	Enjoyment - Main Effect	Enjoyment as Moderator	Enjoyment - Main Effect	Enjoyment as Moderator	Enjoyment - Main Effect	Enjoyment as Moderator	Enjoyment - Main Effect	Enjoyment as Moderator	Enjoyment - Main Effect	Enjoyment as Moderator					
β		β		β		β		β							
Control Variables															
Age	-.168 **	-.168 **	-.451 ***	-.451 ***	.245 ***	.245 ***	-.173 **	-.171 **	-.473 ***	-.480 ***					
Employment Security	-.158 *	-.158 *	-.019	-.019	.352 ***	.352 ***	-.135 *	-.137 *	-.011	-.006					
Predictor Variables															
Proactive Personality	-.212	-.015	.181 **	.182 **	.092	.092									
Pref. for Challenging Work							-.222 **	-.224 **	.035	.044					
Work Enjoyment	.120	.118	.169 **	.175 **	.133 *	.136 *	.183 **	.178 **	.245 ***	.261 **					
Moderation (Interaction)															
Proactive Personality x Work Enjoyment		-.017		.046		.026									*
Pref for Challenging Wk x Work Enjoyment								.034							-.118
t (for main effect of work enjoyment)	1.697		2.788 **		2.063 *		2.862 **		4.290 ***						
t (for interaction term)		-.274		.862		.464		.542							-2.154 *
F (full model)	4.150 **	3.322 **	27.728 ***	22.308 ***	17.650 ***	14.118 ***	7.304 ***	5.885 ***	24.808 ***	21.072 ***					
R	.253	.253	.560	.562	.474	.475	.328	.329	.538	.551					
R ²	.064	.064	.313	.315	.225	.226	.107	.108	.290	.303					
Adjusted R ²	.049	.045	.302	.301	.212	.210	.093	.090	.278	.289					

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

Table 14 (continued)
Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Effects of Work Enjoyment on Work Orientation

	Concern for Others and Work Enjoyment (n = 226)		Self-Reflection & Work Enjoyment (n = 244)							
	Calling Orientation		Job Orientation		Career Orientation		Calling Orientation			
	Work Enjoyment - Main Effect	Work Enjoyment as Moderator	Work Enjoyment - Main Effect	Work Enjoyment as Moderator	Work Enjoyment - Main Effect	Work Enjoyment as Moderator	Work Enjoyment - Main Effect	Work Enjoyment as Moderator	Work Enjoyment - Main Effect	Work Enjoyment as Moderator
	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	B
Control Variables										
Age	.238 ***	.241 ***	-.167 **	-.167 **	-.474 ***	-.475 ***	.225 ***	.226 ***		
Employment Security	.364 ***	.362 ***	-.161 *	-.162 *	-.003	.001	.354 ***	.352 ***		
Predictor Variables										
Concern for Others	.013	.010								
Self-Reflection			.024	.022	.166 **	.172 **	.054	.052		
Work Enjoyment	.133 *	.139 *	.091	.099	.196 **	.160 *	.163 **	.177 *		
Moderation (Interaction)										
Concern for Others x Work Enjoyment		-.034								
Self-Reflection x Work Enjoyment				-.019			.079			-.032
t (for main effect of work enjoyment)	2.226 *		1.350		3.413 **		2.642 **			
t (for interaction term)		-.555		-.269		1.345				-.505
F (full model)	15.630 ***	12.526 ***	4.015 **	3.214 **	27.864 ***	22.729 ***	16.284 ***	13.038 ***		
R	.470	.471	.251	.251	.564	.568	.463	.464		
R ²	.221	.222	.063	.063	.318	.323	.214	.215		
Adjusted R ²	.206	.204	.047	.044	.307	.309	.201	.199		

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

Note: *

Proactive personality, work enjoyment, and work orientation. The regression results testing the relationship among proactive personality and each work orientation in hypotheses 3a-c found proactive personality had a significant positive relationship with career and calling orientation scores and the relationship between proactive personality and job orientation score did not meet conventional significance levels. In hypotheses 7a-c I anticipated work enjoyment would strengthen the positive relationships among proactive personality and career and calling orientations and weaken a negative relationship with job orientation. The moderating effect of work enjoyment did not meet the conventional levels of significance for any of the hypothesized relationships ($t = -.274$, $p = .785$ for job orientation, $t = .862$, $p = .389$ for career orientation, and $t = .464$, $p = .643$ for calling orientation); therefore, hypotheses 7a-c were not supported.

Preference for challenging work, work enjoyment, and work orientation. The regression results testing the relationship among preference for challenging work and each work orientation in hypotheses 4a-c found a significant negative relationship to job orientation and significant positive relationships to calling and career orientations. I hypothesized a non-significant relationship between preference for challenging work and calling orientation. I hypothesized work enjoyment, as a moderating variable, would weaken the negative relationship between having a preference for challenging work and job orientation and strengthen a positive relationship between career orientation and preference for challenging work. The moderating effect of work enjoyment did not meet the conventional levels of significance for job orientation ($t = .542$, $p = .588$); therefore, hypothesis 8a was not supported. The results indicated work enjoyment did moderate the relationship between career orientation and preference for challenging work ($t = -2.154$, $p = .032$). The moderating relationship was in the reverse direction

of what I had predicted; therefore, hypothesis 8b was not supported. The results showed for career orientation as work enjoyment increased the preference for challenging work decreased.

Concern for others, work enjoyment, and work orientation. The regression results for concern for others and the three work orientations had relationships consistent with hypotheses 5a and b; the relationship between concern for others and job orientation did not meet conventional levels of significance and there was a significant negative relationship between concern for others and career orientation. Hypothesis 5c was not supported as the relationship between concern for others and calling orientation did not meet conventional levels of significance. For hypothesis 9, I anticipated work enjoyment would strengthen a positive relationship between concern for others and calling orientation. The moderating effect of work enjoyment did not meet the conventional levels of significance for the relationship between concern for others and calling orientation ($t = -.555$, $p = .580$); thus, hypothesis 9 was not supported.

Self-reflection, work enjoyment, and work orientation. The results of testing for hypotheses 6a-c found the relationships among self-reflection and job and calling orientations did not meet conventional levels of significance, but the relationship between self-reflection and career orientation was positive and significant. I hypothesized a negative relationship between self-reflection and job orientation with work enjoyment strengthening this relationship. When I added work enjoyment to the regression equation as a moderating variable the relationship between self-reflection and job orientation still did not meet conventional levels of significance ($t = -.269$, $p = .788$); therefore, hypothesis 10a was not supported. I hypothesized a negative relationship between self-reflection and career orientation, with work enjoyment strengthening this relationship. This was not the case, as this relationship did not meet conventional levels of

significance ($t = 1.345$, $p = .180$); therefore, hypothesis 10b was not supported. I hypothesized a positive relationship between self-reflection and calling orientation with work enjoyment strengthening this relationship. When I added work enjoyment to the regression equation as a moderating variable this was not the case and the significant positive relationship in the original regression equation did not meet conventional levels of significance ($t = -.505$, $p = .614$); therefore, hypothesis 10c was not supported.

Overall Results and Conclusions

One of the goals of this study was to provide a framework of attributes associated with job, career, and calling orientation constructs. Table 15 provides a summary of findings from the regression analyses and results of hypothesis testing of attributes associated with each work orientation.

Table 15

Summary of Findings from Regression Analysis and Results of Hypothesis Testing

	<u>Job Orientation</u>	<u>Career Orientation</u>	<u>Calling Orientation</u>
Control Variables			
Age	Neg **	Neg ***	Pos ***
Employment Security	Neg *	NS	Pos ***
Predictor Variables			
Proactive Personality	NS	Pos ***	Pos ***
Pref. for Challenging Work	Neg **	Pos **	Pos **
Concern for Others	NS	Neg *	NS
Self-Reflection	NS	Pos ***	NS
Work Enjoyment –moderating effect			
Proactive Personality	NS	NS	NS
Pref. for Challenging Work	NS	Neg*	
Concern for Others			NS
Self-Reflection	NS	NS	NS

Note: Neg = Significant negative relationship between predictor and work orientation, Pos = significant positive relationship between predictor and work orientation. Supported hypothesized relationships are in bold.
 NS = non-significant relationship, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Chapter 6

Discussion

This study explored how the concept of work orientation helps to clarify the meaning of work for individuals. To establish work orientation as a distinct concept worthy of study, I utilized Roberson's (1990) work meaning model and reviewed the work meaning literature to clarify the unique role of work orientation in explaining work meaning and to differentiate work orientation from possibly overlapping concepts. I then tested the dimensionality of the work orientation construct via an online survey of employees in the auto industry ($n = 251$). The results supported the tripartite model of work orientation and the three orientation dimensions of job, career, and calling. Drawing on motivation and career theory (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Brown & Brooks, 1996; Czikszentmihalyi, 1990; Super, 1980), I developed a framework of attributes and tested hypothesized relationships among individuals' job, career, and calling orientation scores and the individual attributes of proactive personality, preference for challenging work, concern for others, self reflection, and work enjoyment. The results partially supported the framework of attributes. In the following sections I interpret the findings of this study and discuss the implications of these findings to organizational research and practice. In order to better understand the contributions of this study, I also address the limitations of this research. Finally I suggest areas for future research based on the results of this study.

Clarifying and Distinguishing Work Orientation

In an effort to integrate the various operationalizations of work meaning without being redundant, Roberson (1990) identified three dimensions to explain work meaning: work centrality, work values, and work orientation. Work centrality addresses the prioritization of work necessary if work is to provide meaning (Dubin, 1956). Work values provide relatively

enduring standards for idealized behavior at work (Dawis, 1991; England, 1967). Work orientation, as defined by Roberson (1990), refers to an individual's perception of the relationship of work to desired outcomes. Although defining work orientation in terms of a relationship recognizes the multidimensionality of the work orientation concept, this definition is vague and easily confounded with other meaning of work concepts. This study refined the definition of work orientation as the fundamental purposes work serves in the broader context of life and reflects how individuals find meaning in the work domain. This definition is similar to Roberson's (1990), but specifically denotes the desired outcomes Roberson referred to when she discussed work orientation's influence on work motivation and behaviors. What differentiates the work orientation dimension from the work values dimension in Roberson's model (1990) is that work orientation is not concerned with the values themselves, but with how an individual perceives the purpose of work in relation to achieving work values.

To further clarify the work orientation concept, I used a social information processing perspective (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and prior conceptualizations by Wrzesniewski (1999) and Dobrow (2006) to categorize work orientation as a value attribute instead of an attitude (Wrzesniewski, 1999). Categorizing work orientation as a value allows for consistency with the other work meaning dimensions identified by Roberson (1990). The work orientation construct is temporally stable and forms through early socialization and experiences over time, as other value concepts do. This study assumes individuals can have multiple simultaneous work orientations and individuals can order these work orientations to form a system of prioritized work orientations. The possibility of multiple simultaneous orientations, versus identification with a single work orientation, is an additional attribute work orientation shares with other work values concepts (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Schwartz, 1994).

This study not only distinguished work orientation from the related meaning of work concepts noted above, but also distinguished work orientation from the following concepts related to the importance of work in a person's life: work commitment, job involvement, and intrinsic-extrinsic motivation (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994; Kanungo, 1982; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Through reviews of the extant literature, this study clarifies work orientation's unique contribution to the work meaning literature by distinguishing work orientation from these potentially overlapping concepts.

Dimensionality of Work Orientation

Building on the work of Bellah (1985), Wrzesniewski (1997), and their colleagues I tested the dimensionality of the work orientation concept. Bellah et al.'s (1985) interview study provided initial support for the tripartite model of work orientation; however, Wrzesniewski et al.'s (1997) empirical study revealed a two-factor model, that cast job orientation and calling orientation as polar opposites on a single dimension with career orientation orthogonal to the job-calling dimension. Yugo (2006), recognizing that the true-false format of the scale used in the Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) study may have influenced the empirical results, revised the work orientation measure to utilize a Likert scale format and produced a model with three distinct dimensions. The results of this dissertation study, utilizing this same Likert scale format, found three interpretable factors, and supported the tripartite model of work orientation and the dimensions of job, career, and calling. The results of this study support Yugo's (2006) assertion that measurement issues had influenced earlier results.

Although the results of this study supported a three-factor model, the results of goodness of fit tests were less than ideal while reliabilities for the job and calling orientation scales were less than conventional levels. The low reliabilities and weak dimensionality may have

underestimated the relationships among the predictors and job and career orientations. The limited number of items in the job and career subscales is a reflection of the nascent state of work orientation research and measurement, which this study tries to advance, and offers opportunities for future research.

Attributes of Work Orientations

To further advance the work orientation construct, I used the work meaning literature (Baumeister, 1991; Hall & Chandler, 2005) and career (Hall, 2002; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; Super, 1980) and motivation (Amabile et al., 1994; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004) theories to identify attributes associated with job, career, and calling orientations, and tested these relationships empirically.

Because prior studies found relationships among each of the three work orientation dimensions and age (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), education (Davidson & Caddell, 1994), income (Davidson & Caddell, 1994; Malka & Chatman, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), and employment security (Davidson & Caddell, 1994), I included these variables as controls in this study. As expected, participants with a higher career orientation were younger, while participants with a higher calling orientation were older and more secure in their employment, and participants with a higher job orientation were less secure in their employment.

Interestingly, none of the relationships among the three work orientations and income or education met conventional levels of significance. This is noteworthy because Hall and Chandler (2005) suggest that lack of resources can prohibit an individual from seeing one's purpose for working as a calling. Although this study used employees from a single organization, which may have influenced the results, it included participants representing all organizational levels. Survey participants' salaries ranged from below \$25,000 per year to

\$175,000 per year and education levels ranged from “less than high school graduate” to “advanced graduate degree.” Although restrictions may exist on the extremes of the income ranges in this study, with such a diversified group of participants the results counter Hall and Chandler’s (2005) suggestion regarding the relationship between income and calling and support this study’s assumption that any work can be seen as a job, a career, and a calling.

The results of this study indicate several new attributes for each of the three work orientation dimensions. A relationship that did not reach conventional levels of significance was the relationship between calling orientation and concern for others. This result was unexpected as having a concern for others is inherent in many definitions of calling (Bellah et al., 1985), which I discuss in further detail below. In looking at the results of the hypotheses testing several findings are important in gaining a better understanding of the individual attributes associated with each work orientation and advance the work orientation concept. These findings are revisions to the attributes associated with calling orientation, the relationship among self-reflection and career and calling orientations, and the relationship between work enjoyment and work orientation. I discuss each of these findings below.

Attributes associated with calling orientation. Prior research identified a number of attributes of calling orientation including a belief that one’s work contributes to the lives of others, a process of self-reflection to realize one’s work as a calling, and enjoyment of one’s work (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Dobrow, 2006; Weiss, Skelley, Hall, & Haughey, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). The results of this study supported a positive relationship between calling orientation and work enjoyment, but did not support positive relationships among calling orientation and having a concern for others and self-reflection. These results were unexpected as a concern for others has been a cornerstone of calling orientation since Bellah and his associates

(1985) first conceptualized and explored the tripartite model and meaning of life researchers (Novak, 1996; Weiss, Skelley, Hall, & Haughey, 2003) had suggested that calling orientation developed through a process of introspection or self-reflection. The results of this study call into question the attributes associated with calling orientation.

This study hypothesized the relationships among concern for others and the three work orientation dimensions would differentiate job, career, and calling. Definitions of work orientation assert having a concern for others is an attribute of calling orientation, self-interest is an attribute of career orientation, and a focus on financial resources is an attribute of job orientation (Bellah et al., 1985). The results of this study suggest what defines calling is not concern for others, which relegates calling orientation mainly to “helping” professions (Maslach, 1982), but rather one’s perception of challenging work, which is applicable to most occupations. These results are consistent with Delle Fave’s (2010) work on optimal experience (Delle Fave & Massimini, 2003) and life meaning. Delle Fave and her colleagues (Coppa & Delle Fave, 2007; Delle Fave & Basi, 2003) found participants reported the perception of high challenges provided life meaning, regardless of the activity associated with optimal experience. The results of this study suggest an individual who avoids challenging work has a higher job orientation score; a person who prefers challenging work has a higher calling orientation score; while a person whose preference for challenging work is dependent upon enjoying one’s work has a higher career orientation score. These findings have theoretical and practical implications, which I discuss in detail below.

Self-reflection and work orientation. Another unexpected result of this study was the significant positive relationship between self-reflection and career orientation. I hypothesized a positive relationship between self-reflection and calling orientation with self-reflection

differentiating career and calling orientations. A number of career development theories include a process of self-knowledge and self-reflection (Rowold, 2007; Super, 1980); however, consistent with Hall and his associates (Hall & Chandler, 2005; Hall & Mirvis, 1995) I hypothesized such processes would result in a higher calling orientation, not a higher career orientation. The results showed self-reflection had a stronger relationship with career orientation than calling orientation. A person with a higher career orientation may use self-reflection to evaluate his or her accomplishments and to determine how he or she can structure work in a way that maximizes work outcomes and hierarchical progression versus a person with a higher calling orientation, who I hypothesized would use self-reflection to evaluate the meaningfulness of his or her work. Qualitative interview studies of individuals with high career orientations may help to better understand the relationship between self-reflection and career orientation.

Work enjoyment and work orientation. In this study I hypothesized work enjoyment would moderate the relationships among the three work orientations and several of the attributes identified in this study. In 8 of the 9 hypothesized relationships tested in this study the results showed work enjoyment, as a moderating variable, was above conventional levels of significance. The results of these tests yielded a number of interesting insights into the relationship between work orientation and enjoying one's work, which I discuss here.

In order to better understand the relationship among the three work orientation dimensions and work enjoyment I conducted a post-hoc analysis of the main effect of work enjoyment and found significant positive relationships among work enjoyment, and career orientation ($t = 4.737, p > .001$) and calling orientation ($t = 3.124, p = .002$), while a positive relationship with job orientation was above conventional levels of significance ($t = 1.825, p = .069$). As shown in Table 14, when I added work enjoyment to regression equations containing

predictor variables, work enjoyment continued to maintain a significant positive relationship in seven of the nine relationships tested.

Dobrow (2006) and Novak (1996) suggest enjoyment of one's work is an attribute exclusive to calling orientation. The work orientation literature also asserts a negative relationship between job orientation and work enjoyment, with work enjoyment differentiating job and calling (Bellah et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). The positive relationships among all three work orientation dimensions and work enjoyment found in this study suggests there is no association among work enjoyment, or lack thereof, and any particular work orientation, but enjoyment of one's work may strengthen one's current work orientation. I theorized that work enjoyment creates a positive reinforcement cycle; when a person enjoys his or her work, feelings of competence increase, strengthening the person's work orientation. Although the results did not support work enjoyment as a moderator, the results showed a positive main effect for work enjoyment in seven of the nine relationships tested, suggesting the creation of this positive reinforcement cycle may be correct. The weak measures for the dependent variables used in this study may have prevented detection of a moderating effect and offers an opportunity for future research.

The results of this study indicated work enjoyment moderated the relationship between career orientation and preference for challenging work. The results initially showed a significant positive relationship between career orientation and a preference for challenging work. When I added work enjoyment to the regression equations as a predictor variable and then as a moderating variable, the relationship between career orientation and preference for challenging work did not reach conventional levels of significance. This was surprising because studies of career orientation clearly indicated a person with a strong career orientation saw work as a

stepping stone and desired a higher level job in the next 5 years (Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Prior studies also found individuals who desired achievement preferred challenging work because it allowed them to compete against competent peers (Spence & Helmreich, 1983) and to differentiate themselves from others (Kanfer & Heggstad, 1997; Rynes & Connerley, 1993). The results of this study suggest work enjoyment interacts with the relationship between the desire to achieve as a purpose for working and the preference for challenging work. Additional studies are needed to understand the influence of work enjoyment on the relationship between career orientation and preference for challenging work.

Theoretical Implications

The results of this study have theoretical implications for organizational research in the areas of work meaning and career development, as discussed below.

Implications for work meaning. This study moves work meaning research forward by updating Roberson's (1990) model of work meaning to incorporate a refined definition of work orientation that clarifies this concept and its unique role within the work meaning literature. This revised model provides a multidimensional framework, where a researcher can measure and evaluate each dimension to better understand how work meaning influences an individual's motivation and work behaviors.

This study asserts, and its results support, a context-free view of calling consistent with Weber (1958) and Bellah et al. (1985), in which anyone can see his or her work as a calling. By reconceptualizing calling orientation with the approach to challenging work as a defining attribute, this study advances this context-free view of calling. Such a move is also consistent with both the religious view (Dalton, 2001; Davidson & Caddell, 1994) and the secular view (Bellah et al., 1985; Dobrow, 2006) of calling. Consistent with the religious view, individuals

with a stronger calling orientation may embrace challenging work based on religious teachings such as Matthew 19:26, "...but with God all things are possible." (New International Version). Consistent with the secular view, individuals with a stronger calling orientation may embrace challenging work for the challenge itself and the ability to persevere through and overcome the challenge presented. One must interpret these results with caution as they are based on one organization in a single industry, which is not known for socially valued work. Additional studies are needed to generalize these results to a larger population of workers.

Implications for career theory. Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) suggested the dearth of studies investigating variables associated with work meaning was a contributing factor to the lack of integration and limited use of work orientation in the career literature. This study addresses this need and provides a more detailed explanation of the attributes associated with each work orientation. Trait-factor theories of career development (Betz, Fitzgerald, & Hill, 1989; Holland, 1992) advocate a matching model of individual traits to work environments to determine preferred vocational choice and to maximize work outcomes. Wrzesniewski and her associates (1997) found relationships among work outcomes and the three work orientations. The results of this study found work orientation is context-free and varies across and within occupations. By adding measures of work orientation to trait-factor models, career researchers can expand these models beyond characteristics of specific occupations and develop more comprehensive models to predict work outcomes. Expanded models may be especially helpful in predicting work outcomes related to occupation changes, due to the temporal stability of work orientation.

Practical Implications

The findings of this study have important practical implications for individuals and those who counsel them on work choices. This study found differences in the preference for challenging work among the three work orientations. The results of this study suggest how an individual approaches work challenges could improve work outcomes through one's work orientation. For career counselors, understanding this relationship is helpful in advising clients who are trying to maximize work outcomes through work meaning, especially during career transitions. Because I categorize work orientation as a value, daily work experiences should not change one's work orientation profile in the short term. Counselors and advisors helping individuals seek more meaningfulness from work should advise their clients the meaning attached to work will not change overnight with a change in employment, but will occur gradually. The results of this study suggest individuals may be able to influence the process of creating meaningfulness from work by seeking out challenging assignments and creating opportunities for positive experiences with challenging work to modify one's work orientation profile and increase a person's focus towards calling orientation.

Consistent with Davidson and Caddell (1994) the results of this study revealed individuals with higher job orientation scores were less secure about their future employment than individuals with higher career or calling orientation scores. What is unclear is if this insecurity lead to a higher job orientation score or does a higher job orientation score cause a person to feel insecure about future employment? Longitudinal studies are needed to disentangle this causality question. However, work orientation is a temporally stable disposition; therefore, having a stronger job orientation may be causing the insecurity more so than the current work environment. The positive relationship between employment insecurity and job orientation may

be a reason for the lower job performance and the lower job and life satisfaction reported by individuals with a higher job orientation in prior work orientation studies (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). If this is indeed the case, employers may be able to work with employees on strategies to increase feelings of job security and over time lessen the employees' focus on job orientation, reduce insecurity, and possibly improve performance outcomes.

The results for work enjoyment suggest the current work environment has minimal short-term impact on an individual's work orientation profile, especially for job and calling orientations. If employers are looking to create workplaces where employees view work as providing life meaning in the hopes of maximizing workers' job and life outcomes, hiring practices may be the key. Spending time and resources on making the work environment a more enjoyable place may be good for employee relations, but the results of this study suggest it will not change the purpose of work for the employee. Modifying selection processes to seek out employees with a higher calling orientation may be a better use of resources if the employer wants to create an environment where employees derive more meaningfulness from their work.

Limitations of Study

As with any research, one should consider the results and conclusions of this study in light of a number of recognized limitations. First, the design of this study was cross-sectional and not longitudinal. A recognized limitation of this study's design is that I am not able to infer causation. Due to this limitation, my interpretations of changes based on age and other changes occurring over time are tentative and future longitudinal studies are needed to better understand these relationships and the causes of changes in work orientation over time.

Second, this study utilized subjects who are primarily white, middle-to-upper-middle-class adults working a minimum of 30 hours per week in the United States at a single employer.

Although the use of a single employer controlled for industry and organizational conditions, due to the homogeneous sample utilized, the results of this study are not generalizable to more demographically and socioeconomically diverse groups of domestic workers or work groups outside of the United States. Hofstede's work on national cultures (2001) characterizes the United States work environment as highly individualistic. Employees of different cultures, especially more collectivistic cultures, may perceive work differently and work orientation may therefore have a different structure, as the purpose work serves in life may be subordinate to the collective's purpose and meaning of work. The tripartite model of work orientation advanced in this study may be irrelevant in other cultures. This limitation offers an opportunity for future research.

Another potential criticism of this study is that I collected the dependent and predictor variables simultaneously via the same self-report source. This produced a risk of common-method variance and possible inflation of the results of statistical relationships presented in this study. To determine the potential impact of this risk, as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986), I performed Harman's single-factor test. I entered all variables of interest into a factor analysis to determine the number of variables necessary to account for the variance in the variables. This test assumes if a substantial amount of common method variance is present, either a single factor will emerge or one factor will account for the majority of the covariance in the dependent and predictor variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The results of this test for this study data yielded five factors with eigenvalues greater than one accounting for 63.5% of the variance in the dependent, control, and predictor variables. The largest eigenvalue of 2.372 accounted for only 18.2% of the variance in the variables. The results showed the impact of common-method variance leading to an inflation of statistical relationships was minimal for this

data. Although I cannot interpret the results of this test unequivocally and this test does not correct the problem of common-method variance, it provides additional information on the potential impact of utilizing self-report measures for this study.

A final limitation of this research involves the subscales used to measure job and career orientations. The job and career orientation scales had internal consistency reliability below conventional levels, as measured by Cronbach's alpha (α). With low reliabilities a potential criticism is the job and career orientation scales used in this study are multidimensional. I determined the work orientation scale items based on the results of prior studies and confirmed the unidimensionality of job and career orientations through factor analysis. The low reliabilities may limit one's ability to replicate this study and may have led to an underestimation of the relationships among the predictors and job and career orientations. Future research should focus on developing better measures for these work orientation subscales.

Future Research

This study suggests several possible areas for future research. As noted above, qualitative studies, including retrospective work histories, may help to better clarify the relationships among the three work orientations and the identified attributes as well as to identify additional related attributes. Studies utilizing non-US workers should also be conducted to better understand the work orientation construct in different cultural contexts. Future research should also develop better scales for job and career orientations to improve reliability of these measures. Consistent with prior studies (Wrzesniewski, 1999; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) the results of this study showed a significant relationship between age and work orientation, suggesting a person's work orientation profile changes gradually over the course of his or her work life. Longitudinal studies exploring how work orientations develop over time are needed to better understand how

the meaning of work changes longitudinally and whether such changes are the result of normal changes over the lifespan, generational factors, or changes in employment over the course of one's work life. Longitudinal research will not only help to disentangle these causality questions, but will also provide greater insight into the causes of the relationships among the attributes identified in this study and job, career, and calling work orientations.

This study explored work orientation within a single employer in the auto industry. By utilizing the auto industry, an industry not known for socially valued work, this study attempted to explore work meaning in a context where participants did not confound the individual's meaning of work with the socially constructed meaning of work. The results of this study supported a context-free view of work meaning consistent with Bellah et al. (1985) and Brief, Nord, Atieh, and Doherty (1990). One must interpret these results and the results for the relationships among study variables with caution, as this study utilized a homogeneous group of workers in an occupation not known for socially valued work. Studies utilizing workers in occupations known for socially valued work may produce different results. Additional studies are needed using diverse occupational groups to better understand if identification with a particular occupation influences the attributes of each work orientation.

This study explored work orientation based on an average score for each of the three work orientations for each respondent. This method of calculating work orientation assumes multiple simultaneous purposes for work in a person's life and accounts for individual variations in each work orientation. I did not test for significant differences across work orientation scores or attributes of individuals based on their highest work orientation score because doing so was beyond the scope of this study. Future studies should not only explore the relationships among the attributes and average work orientation scores, but also the relationship among attributes and

respondents' highest-scoring work orientation and the variance between individual work orientation scores to gain additional insights into the unique attributes of individuals with a dominant job, career, or calling orientation.

Conclusions

Career researchers (Bloch, 1997; Hall & Chandler, 2005) called for more studies investigating meaning within the work environment and the various meanings people ascribe to their work. To address this need and clarify the meaning of work for individuals, this study explored the concept of work orientation. The results provided support for work orientation's unique role in explaining work meaning and for the dimensionality of the tripartite model of work orientation, and advanced the work orientation construct by identifying and examining empirically additional attributes associated with job, career, and calling work orientations.

Appendix A

Copy of Recruitment Notifications and On-line Survey

Email sent to Employees Announcing Survey

From: [VP Human Resources]

Sent: Wednesday, January 13, 2010 11:13 AM

To: [Corporate Office Employees - East Coast Branch Employees]

Subject: Survey on Job Attitudes

In a few days you will be receiving an email asking you to participate in a survey about job attitudes and how you view your work. This survey is being conducted by a former employee, Rita Shea, as part of her requirements for a doctorate degree in management at Baruch College, City University of NY.

Participation in this confidential survey is entirely voluntary, and neither respondents nor non-respondents, will be identified. You should be receiving the survey via email within the next few days directly from Rita Shea and it should only take 15 minutes to complete.

If you have any questions about this survey or the research project, please feel free to contact Rita Shea directly at Rita.Shea-vanfossen@baruch.cuny.edu. If you have questions about your participation in this research please contact the Baruch College (CUNY) Institutional Review Board administrator, Keisha Peterson, at Keisha.Peterson@baruch.cuny.edu

[Electronic signature]

Vice President, Human Resources

Initial Email sent to Employees inviting them to participate in Survey

RE: Survey on Job Attitudes

From: **Rita Shea Van Fossen** (Rita.Shea-VanFossen@baruch.cuny.edu)

Sent: Thu 1/14/10 7:48 AM

To: Corporate Office Employees – East Coast Branch Employees

Dear Employee:

Yesterday you received an email from [Vice President-HR] announcing a survey regarding job attitudes. This email is to invite you to participate in this survey. This survey is part of a research project for my doctoral studies in business, and the purpose of this research is to increase understanding of how individuals view their work.

Completing the survey is voluntary and should only take about 15 minutes. Your data will be completely confidential. I will not ask you to identify yourself. Only aggregate data analysis will be presented for this study, no individual or unit information will be disclosed. [The Company] will receive the aggregate results of this survey but will not learn who participated and who did not, nor will it have any access to any individual survey responses.

In appreciation for completing the survey, you can enter a drawing to win a \$100 American Express Gift Card. Entering the drawing is voluntary. At the conclusion of the survey, you will be directed to a second separate survey where you can enter the drawing. If you enter the drawing, your name and email addresses will only be used for the drawing and not provided to anyone. This information will be maintained separately from the survey data and will not be linked to your survey responses in any way.

If you would like to discuss this research with me, please contact me via email at Rita.Shea-vanfossen@baruch.cuny.edu. If you seek information about your participation in Baruch College research you can contact the Baruch College (CUNY) Institutional Review Board administrator, Keisha Peterson, at Keisha.Peterson@baruch.cuny.edu.

Please click here to start the survey

http://ramapo.qualtrics.com//SE?SID=SV_b0XiDqQZnyLnJIw&SVID=Prod

Thank you,
Rita J Shea-Van Fossen
Ph.D Candidate in Business
Baruch College, City University of New York

Follow Up Email Asking Employees to Participate in the Survey

From: Rita Shea Van Fossen

Sent: Tue 1/26/2010 8:13 AM

To: Corporate Office Employees – East Coast Branch Employees

Subject: Job Attitudes survey – 2nd request

Recently you received an e-mail asking you to participate in a survey to better understand job attitudes. If you have filled out the survey, thank you!

If not, I am hoping you will take a few minutes to go to the website below and complete the survey. The survey data will be used in research to increase understanding of how individuals view their work.

Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary. Only aggregate responses will be made available to [The Company], not individual or unit responses. To assure we accurately reflect the opinions of [The Company] employees, we want to assure we have as many employees participate in this survey as possible and your help with this goal is appreciated.

Remember, you can enter a drawing to receive an American Express Gift Card in appreciation for completing the survey so please consider going to the link below to submit your survey.

http://ramapo.qualtrics.com//SE?SID=SV_1Rf208jcCPpA0h6&SVID=Prod

If you have any questions about this survey, the research project, or your participation, please feel free to contact me at Rita.Shea-vanfossen@baruch.cuny.edu or if you seek information on your participation in Baruch College research you can contact the Baruch College (CUNY) Institutional Review Board administrator, Keisha Peterson, at Keisha.Peterson@baruch.cuny.edu

Please click here to start the survey.

http://ramapo.qualtrics.com//SE?SID=SV_1Rf208jcCPpA0h6&SVID=Prod

Many thanks for helping.

Sincerely,

Rita J Shea-Van Fossen
Ph.D Candidate in Business
Baruch College, City University of New York

Copy of Internet Survey

Qualtrics Survey Software



Work Orientation Survey

Welcome to this Work Orientation Survey.

This survey is part of a research project for my doctoral studies in business at Baruch College/Graduate Center, The City University of New York. The purpose of this research is to increase understanding of individuals' job experiences and to identify attributes associated with the different ways an employee views his or her work.

Completing the survey is voluntary and should only take about 15 minutes. There are no incorrect answers; we are just looking for your honest responses to all questions.

Your answers will be completely confidential. You need not identify yourself, and I will only be reporting aggregate results for this survey, not analysis of individual or unit data. Your employer will not learn who participated and who did not in the survey, nor will it have any access to the data.

[The Company]will receive a copy of the aggregate results of the survey, no individual data will be reported to [The Company].

In appreciation for completing this survey, you can enter a drawing to win a \$100 American Express Gift Card. At the end of the survey, you will be directed to a second separate survey where you can provide your name and email address to enter the drawing. Your odds in winning a gift certificate depend on the number of entries received but are estimated to be 1 in 150. Entering the drawing is voluntary. If you enter the drawing your name and email address will only be used for the drawing. This information will be maintained separately from the survey data and will not be provided to anyone nor linked to your survey answers in any way.

If you encounter any technical difficulties while completing the survey or would like to discuss this research, please contact me via email at rita_vanfossen@msn.com. If you seek information about your participation in Baruch College research you can contact Keisha Peterson, the Baruch College Institutional Review Board administrator, at Keisha.Peterson@baruch.cuny.edu

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.

By clicking on the arrow below you are giving your voluntary consent to participate and will begin the survey.

Sincerely,

Rita J Shea-Van Fossen
Ph.D Candidate in Business
Baruch College/Graduate Center
City University of New York

**Job
Attitudes**

Views About Work

How much do the following statements describe how you feel about your current job?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I find my work rewarding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am eager to retire.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My work makes the world a better place.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am very conscious of what day of the week it is and I greatly anticipate weekends. I say, "Thank God it's Friday."	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I expect to be at a higher level job in five years.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would choose my current work life again if I had the opportunity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy talking about my work to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I view my job primarily as a stepping stone to other jobs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My primary reason for working is financial – to support my family and lifestyle	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I expect to be doing the same work in five years.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I was financially secure, I would continue with my current line of work even if I was no longer paid.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My work is one of the most important things in my life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Job Environment Questions

Job Environment Questions

The following statements look at the stability of your employment. Thinking about your current job, please read each statement carefully and decide the level of agreement or disagreement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am certain that I will still be employed by this organization this time next year	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel secure in my present job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am waiting for the next shoe to fall in that I am wondering if my job will be eliminated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not fearful that a layoff will affect me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following questions look at various aspects of work. Please read each statement and express the extent to which you agree or disagree by clicking the appropriate circle:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy trying to solve complex problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The more difficult the problem, the more I enjoy trying to solve it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I want my work to provide me with opportunities for increasing my knowledge and skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Curiosity is the driving force behind much of what I do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I prefer work I know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy relatively simple, straightforward tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I want to find out how good I can really be at my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I prefer to figure things out for myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
What matters most to me is enjoying what I do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to have an outlet for self-expression	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
No matter what the outcome of a project, I am satisfied if I feel I gain a new experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I'm more comfortable when I can set my own goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy doing work that is so absorbing that I forget about everything else	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to be able to do what I most enjoy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Work Attitude Questions

Work Attitude Questions

Reading the following statements, select how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I excel at identifying opportunities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am always looking for better ways to do things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Work Choices

Work Choices

Please read the following pairs of statements and indicate which one in each pair you feel describes you better. Some choices will probably be difficult, but please select one statement from each pair.

Pair 1

Taking care of all loose ends on a job or project

Being impartial when dealing with others

Pair 2

- Taking actions which represent your true feelings

- Trying to avoid hurting other people

Pair 3

- Encouraging someone who is having a difficult day

- Considering different points of view before taking action

Pair 4

- Speaking your mind even when your views may not be popular

- Working to meet job requirements even when your personal schedule must be rearranged

Pair 5

- Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved

- Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time

Pair 6

- Trying to help reduce a friend's burden

- Admitting an error and accepting the consequences

Pair 7

Being impartial in judging disagreements

Helping others on difficult jobs

Pair 8

Taking on additional tasks to get ahead

Admitting to making a mistake rather than covering it up

Pair 9

Offering help to others when they are having a tough time

Doing whatever work is required to advance in your career

Pair 10

Judging people fairly based on their abilities rather than only on their personalities

Seeking out all opportunities to learn new skills

Pair 11

Trying to be helpful to a friend at work

Being sure that work assignments are fair to everyone

Pair 12

Refusing to take credit for ideas of others

Maintaining the highest standard for your performance

Pair 14

Finishing each job you start even when others do not

Making sure that rewards are given in the fairest possible way

Pair 15

Refusing to tell a lie to make yourself look good

Helping those who are worried about things at work

Pair 16

Trying as hard as you can to learn as much as possible about your job

Taking a stand for what you believe in

Pair 17

Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their job

Always setting high performance goals for yourself

Pair 18

Allowing each employee to have an equal chance to get rewards

Taking on more responsibility to get ahead in an organization

Pair 19

- Correcting others' errors without embarrassing them
- Holding true to your convictions

Pair 20

- Providing fair treatment for each employee
- Lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty

Pair 21

- Making decisions which are fair to all concerned
- Expressing your true opinions when asked

Pair 22

- Always being truthful in dealing with others
- Giving everyone an equal opportunity to work

Pair 23

- Trying to bring about a fair solution to a dispute
- Admitting responsibility for errors made

Qualtrics Survey Software

Pair 24

Refusing to do something you think is wrong

Providing fair treatment for all employees

Career Questions

Career Questions

The following sets of statements look at how much you have thought about your career options. To what extent have you done the following?

	Little	Somewhat	A moderate amount	A substantial amount	A great deal
Reflected on how my past career and activities match with my future career	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Focused my thoughts on the type of person I am	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Contemplated my past in general	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Been retrospective in thinking about my career	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Understood my past behavior in a new way that will help with my future career	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Demographic Information

Demographic Information

The following questions are intended to help us better understand your personal background. All responses will be kept confidential.

Age

Your age in years

Gender

Male

Female

Your highest level of education:

What is your level of job responsibility:

Please specify what your level of job responsibility is (clarifying your prior response):

What was your annual income from all jobs you held in 2009?

What was your total household income in 2009?

If you have any comments on this survey or wish to provide any additional information, please feel free to provide your comments below.

Closing

If you have any questions on this survey or the research project, please feel free to contact Rita Shea-Van Fossen, Management Department, Baruch College, One Bernard Baruch Way, New York, NY 10010, or by email at rita_vanfossen@msn.com or Rita.Shea-vanfossen@baruch.cuny.edu. If you have questions about your participation in this research please contact the Baruch College (CUNY) IRB administrator, Keisha Peterson, at Keisha.Peterson@baruch.cuny.edu.

Clicking on the Right Arrow ">>" below indicates your consent to your survey data being included in this research.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Baruch COLLEGE

The City University of New York

ZICKLIN SCHOOL OF BUSINESS



Gift Card Entry Survey

Gift Card Entry

Please enter your name, email address, work location, and phone number below if you would like to be entered in the American Express Gift Card drawing.

First Name	<input type="text"/>
Last Name	<input type="text"/>
Email Address	<input type="text"/>
Phone Number	<input type="text"/>
Work Location (branch name or department)	<input type="text"/>

Thank you again for participating!

Gift Cards will be awarded within the next 4 to 6 weeks.

Please click on the arrow below to exit this survey.

Survey Powered By Qualtrics®

Supplemental Information Regarding Work Orientation Survey

Note: Section Titles (Titles with margins to the far left) are not visible in the on-line version of the survey. These titles are used for blocking questions and paginating within the survey software which does not have an option to print the survey without these blocking titles.

An on-line version of the survey can be reviewed at:

http://ramapo.qualtrics.com//SE?SID=SV_8HXpNj17wTm102M&SVID=Prod

Drop down menus options for Survey

Your highest level of education:

- Less than high school
- Graduated from high school or GED
- Technical training beyond high school
- Some college
- Graduated from college
- Some graduate school
- Completed master's degree (e.g., MA, MS, MBA)
- Advanced graduate degree (e.g., Ph.D., M.D., J.D.)

What is your level of job responsibility?

- Top & Executive Management: Vice President or Above
- Upper-Middle Management: Corporate Department Head, Regional Manager
- Middle Management: Branch Manager, Corporate Manager
- First-Level Supervisor: Office Supervisor, Yard Supervisor, Corporate Dept Supervisor
- Administrative Employees: Corporate Admin Staff, Regional Admin Staff
- Line Employees: Branch and Yard Staff

Annual Income Levels

- Less than \$10,000 per year
- Between \$10,000 and \$22,000
- Between \$22,001 and \$25,000
- Between \$25,001 and \$30,000
- Between \$30,001 and \$40,000
- Between \$40,001 and \$50,000
- Between \$50,001 and \$60,000
- Between \$60,001 and \$75,000
- Between \$75,001 and \$99,999
- Between \$100,000 and \$150,000
- Between \$150,001 and \$200,000
- Between \$200,001 and \$250,000
- More than \$250,000 per year

Appendix B

Summary of Psychometric Properties of Measures

Dependent Variable: Work Orientation (12 item scale)

<p>Source for Scale: Utilizing Yugo, 2006's WO Likert format and items from Wrzesniewski et al., 1997, 12 item scale</p> <p>Yugo, J.E. (2006). <i>The Effect of Response Format on the Criterion Related Validity of a Measure of Work Orientation</i>. Unpublished mater's thesis, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH.</p> <p>Wrzesniewski, A., McCauley, C., Rozin, P., & Schwartz, B. (1997). Jobs, careers, and callings: People's relations to their work, <i>Journal of Research in Personality</i>, 31, 21-33.</p>
<p>Convergent Validity:</p> <p>Calling orientation and Meaningfulness (Cardador, Pratt, & Dane, 2006)¹</p> <p>Calling orientation and Organizational and Professional Identity (Cardador, Pratt, & Dane, 2006)¹</p>
<p>Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha : .87 with Likert scale (Yugo, 2006); .73 to .79 with true-false format (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997; Wrzesniewski, 1999)</p>
<p>Test-retest reliability: .76 over a 6 month period (Wrzesniewski, 1999)</p>

Predictor Variables:

Challenge (5 item scale) – Subscale from the Work Preference Inventory (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994)

<p>Source for Scale:</p> <p>Amabile, T.M., Hill, K.G., Hennessey, B.A., & Tighe, E.M. (1994). The work preference inventory: Assessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations, <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i>, 66(5), 950-967.</p>
<p>Convergent Validity: Problem solving ($r = .34$, $p > .001$) and innovation ($r = .55$, $p > .001$; Amabile et al., 1994)</p>
<p>Discriminant Validity: Social desirability ($r = .12$, n.s.) and intelligence ($r = .09$, n.s.; Amabile et al., 1994)</p>
<p>Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha : .73 (Amabile et al., 1994)</p>
<p>Test-retest reliability: .89 over a 6 month period (Amabile et al., 1994)</p>

Proactive Personality (10 item scale)

<p>Source for Scale: Siebert, S.E., Crant, J.M., & Kraimer, M.L. (1999) Proactive personality and career success. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>, 84 (3), 416-427.</p>
<p>Convergent Validity: Consistent results to Big 5 dimensions of Extroversion ($r = .20$ to $.35$, $p > .05$), and Conscientiousness ($r = .26$ to $.43$, $p > .05$; Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006) Need for achievement ($r = .45$, $p < .001$) and Need for dominance ($r = .43$, $p < .001$) (Bateman & Crant, 1993) A significant number of studies show a strong relationship to career success as measured in a number of ways (see Dissertation proposal for references and further discussion).</p>
<p>Discriminant validity: General intelligence ($r = -.14$, n.s.) and social desirability (Bateman & Crant, 1993) Big 5 dimension of agreeableness ($r = -.12$ to $.05$, n.s.; Bateman & Crant, 1993; and others noted above) Big 5 factors account for about 26% of variance in Proactive Personality suggesting PP is more than a combination of Big 5 factors (Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006)</p>
<p>Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha : .89 (Bateman & Crant, 1993) .86 (Siebert, Crant, & Kramer, 1999)</p>
<p>Test-retest reliability: .72 over a 3 month period (Siebert, Crant, & Kramer, 1999)</p>
<p>Relationship between original 17 item scale and revised 10 item scale: .96 (Siebert, Crant, & Kramer, 1999)</p>

Other Focus (20 item scale) – Subscale from the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a)

<p>Source for Scale: Ravlin, E.C., & Meglino, B.M. (1987a). Effect of values on perception and decision making: A study of alternative work values measures. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>, 72, 666-673.</p>
<p>Convergent Validity: Prosocial behavior ($r = .19$, $p > .05$) and empathy ($r = .23$, $p > .001$; McNelly & Meglino, 1994); Social interest (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1996)¹</p>
<p>Discriminant Validity: Self-enhancement and narcissism (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1996; McNeely & Meglino, 1994)¹</p>
<p>Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha : .94 (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a)</p>
<p>Test-Retest Reliability: .70 at 4 weeks (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1996)</p>

¹ Study discusses validity but did not note actual results. Additional information was requested from author but not received.

Self Reflection - (5 item scale) – Subscale from the Career Exploration Survey (CES; Stumpf, Colarelli, & Hartman, 1983)

Source for Scale: Stumpf, S.A., Colarelli, S.M., & Hartmann, K. (1983). Development of the Career Exploration Survey (CES). <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i> , 22, 191-226.
Convergent Validity: Intended-Systematic exploration of job search information ($r = .41$, $p > .05$; Stumpf, Colarelli, & Hartmann, 1983)
Discriminant Validity: Social desirability ($r < .12$, ns; Stumpf, Colarelli, & Hartmann, 1983)
Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha : .81 - .82 (Blustein, Devenis, & Kidney, 1989; Rowold, 2007)
Test-retest reliability: .83 over a 2 week period (Blustein, Devenis, & Kidney, 1989)

Moderator Variable: Enjoyment (10 item scale) – Subscale from the Work Preference Inventory (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994)

Source for Scale: Amabile, T.M., Hill, K.G., Hennessey, B.A., & Tighe, E.M. (1994). The work preference inventory: Assessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations, <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i> , 66(5), 950-967.
Convergent Validity: Writing and art involvement ($r = .32$ to $.45$, $p > .05$; appropriate for population of artists and poets) (Amabile et al., 1994)
Discriminant Validity: Social desirability ($r = .11$, n.s.) and intelligence ($r = -.09$, n.s.; Amabile et al., 1994)
Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha : .67 (Amabile et al., 1994)
Test-retest reliability: .83 over a 6 month period (Amabile et al., 1994)

Control Variable: Job Security (4 Item scale)

Source for Scale: Brandes, P., Castro, S.L., James, M.S.L., Martinez, A.D., Matherly, T.A., Ferris, G.R., & Hochwarter, W.A. (2008) The Interactive Effects of Job Insecurity and Organizational Cynicism on Work Effort Following a Layoff. <i>Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies</i> , 14, 233-247.
Convergent and Divergent Validity: Measure based on prior scales by Rosenblatt and Ruvio (1996) and Davy et al. (1997). Roseblatt and Ruvio (1996) found convergent validity of their measure to intention to quit ($r = .13$, $p > .001$). Davy et al. (1997) used scale of job security (measure developed by Brandes et al. has very similar items written in negative to Davy et al.'s measure) Davy et al. (1997) found convergent validity of job security to organizational commitment ($r = .23$ to $.31$, $p > .05$), job satisfaction ($r = .41$, $p > .05$) and divergent validity to withdrawal cognitions ($r = -.13$ to $-.16$, $p > .05$).
Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha : .74 (Brandes et al., 2008)

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