JOB DESIGN, PERSONALITY TRAITS, AND THE PURSUIT OF MEANINGFUL

WORK: A CONFIGURAL APPROACH

A Dissertation

by

GARY ROY THURGOOD

Submitted to the Office of Graduate and Professional Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Chair of Committee,	Murray R. Barrick
Committee Members,	Stephen H. Courtright
	Deidra R. Schleicher
	Stephanie C. Payne
Head of Department,	Wendy R. Boswell

December 2016

Major Subject: Management

ABSTRACT

Job design scholars have shown that the strongest link between job characteristics and several attitudinal and behavioral outcomes is a person's experienced meaningfulness at work. However, there has been very little research that has described *how* each unique job characteristic impacts meaningfulness, or considered the influence that a person's dispositional characteristics have on this critical psychological state.

Drawing upon job characteristics and the meaning of work literature streams and integrating it with the Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior, I propose that there are four fundamental "meaning of work" goals that serve as the mediating mechanisms linking one's job characteristics and personality traits with their eventual experienced meaningfulness at work. These goals can be separated into two broad types, those that are self-focused (i.e. developing role mastery and gaining clarity of accomplishments) and those that are others-focused (i.e. acquiring social impact and attaining power). I propose a differential pattern of relationships whereby the two self-focused goals are more strongly impacted by one's task-focused job characteristics, while the others-focused goals are more strongly impacted by one's social-focused job characteristics.

In addition, I adopt a person-centered approach with respect to the dispositional characteristics by considering an individual's profile across all Big Five personality traits. I propose that individuals can be described as being represented by one of three broad personality profile types, and that some personality profile types tend to experience a higher level of meaning of work goal fulfillment as compared to other

types, apart from the influence of one's job characteristics. Finally, I propose that when predicting the fulfillment of these four meaning of work goals, the relationship between job characteristics and personality trait profiles is compensatory in nature in that goal fulfillment is more strongly impacted by one's dispositional characteristics for individuals with a more desirable personality profile. In contrast, goal fulfillment is more strongly impacted by the characteristics of one's work environment for those with a less-desirable personality profile. I test my hypotheses with a sample of 184 individuals using multiple regression and latent profile analysis, and find overall support for these fundamental theoretical propositions.

DEDICATION

       To my amazing and supportive wife Jennifer, our (as of now) three beautiful girls Samantha, Halle, and Hannah, and finally my parents Glen S. and Brenda J. Thurgood.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

While I cannot adequately acknowledge all those individuals who have helped and supported me and my family during this Ph.D. program, I would like to formally express my thanks to a few of the individuals who have played a larger role in this process.

First, I would like express both my gratitude and my utmost respect for my chair, Dr. Murray Barrick. When I was deciding which Ph.D. program to enroll in, Dr. Barrick was one of the two individuals at Texas A&M (at the time) who I was most interested in working with. When he told me that he had just finished his term as department head, and that he had a new project in the works that I could be a part of, that was the final piece of information that allowed me to make my decision. Throughout my time at Texas A&M, Dr. Barrick has been a tremendous mentor and role model for me, both professionally as well as personally. I cannot thank him enough for always granting me the latitude to "take a first cut" at articulating a new idea, or addressing a shortcoming of a manuscript, and then helping to refine and shape my rough ideas throughout the process. He has also served as a great example of maintaining priorities in life by reminding me to step away and spend time with family during some critical times over the past five years.

Next, I would like to thank the other members of committee, Drs. Deidra Schleicher, Stephen Courtright, and Stephanie Payne. I am grateful for their guidance and feedback, and their patience in working through my "longer than average"

dissertation. Their suggestions have certainly made this dissertation better than I could have ever done on my own. In addition, I'd also like to thank Stephen Courtright for giving me the opportunity to join some great projects that have also allowed me to continue to develop as a scholar. He and his family have also been great friends to my family, and have provided a great deal of support to us as we've worked through the challenges of starting a family during this Ph.D. program.

I would also like to thank all of the Management Department faculty at Texas A&M for providing a great environment in which to be introduced to the academic community. In particular, I'd like to thank Drs. Wendy Boswell, Richard Woodman, Laszlo Tihanyi, Steven Boivie, David Flint, Asghar Zardkoohi, Duane Ireland, Michael Hitt, Michael Wesson, Michael Withers, Michael Howard, Cindy Devers, Cindy Zapata, and Christopher Porter for teaching one of my doctoral seminars, allowing me to be a co-author on a project, helping me on the job market, or simply saying hello in the hallway and asking how I am doing. In addition, there are a number of administrative staff members who do a lot to support the Ph.D. students and I thank them one and all.

Next, I would like to collectively thank all the other Ph.D. students at Texas A&M, past and present, that I have gotten to know over the past five years, and that helped me along the way. I consider them all colleagues and friends. I'd also like to thank all of the dear friends that my family and I had the chance to get to know during our time in Aggieland. I cannot name them all, so I won't even try, but they have been a tremendous source of support to us and we miss them all very dearly. I am sure that they'll never know how much we love, appreciate, and admire them for the kind of

people that they are. It is because of our time around these people that we will always consider College Station home. While there also many people who encouraged me to pursue a Ph.D. and helped me start down that path, I must express my thanks to Kirk Young, a great friend who I've known since I was about 4 years old, for always believing in me and giving me the final push that I needed to start down this path.

Now I must express my love and gratitude to my family. First and foremost, to my amazing wife Jennifer who has never expressed anything but complete support and commitment to pursuing this challenging career. Without her love and unconditional support, I never could have made it through this program. I also want to acknowledge my little girls, Samantha and Halle, who were born during our time in College Station, and our newest daughter Hannah, who was born about six weeks after we left. That these precious girls joined our family during our time in Texas made the experience that much sweeter (although we still don't know how we survived having our first child during the first semester of a Ph.D. program)! As another testament to my wife's patience and resilience throughout this process, our last three moves have occurred when Jennifer was at least 7 months pregnant, with each of these three girls.

I would also love to express my love and gratitude to my siblings, their spouses, and all of our nieces and nephews who supported us, especially those who came to visit us in our home in Texas. Although I know that most (if not all) of them still do not really understand what it is that I really do, they are always concerned with how things are going, and express their support and admiration for what we are doing. Finally, I must acknowledge my parents Glen and Brenda for helping me to become the person I

am today. While I know that it was hard for them to see us move away, they always supported us in our decision to pursue a Ph.D. Also, that my dad also received his Ph.D. from Texas A&M made it all the more special as we talked about the places and experiences that we shared in Aggieland, separated by about 40 years. My father passed away less than one month after I defended this dissertation, and less than one week after we moved back to Utah. The last meaningful conversation I had with him before he died was when I called to tell him that I had successfully passed my dissertation defense, and where he responded that he knew I'd do a great job, and then told me how proud he was of me. I miss him dearly and wish Jennifer, the girls, and I could have had more time with him after we moved back to Utah, but I am grateful for the firm conviction that he has been reunited with Michael and that we will all be together as a family one day.

Finally, I would be remiss if I did not express my gratitude to my Heavenly Father, for without Him I would be nothing. There is no doubt in my mind that I have seen His hand in my life, and this has been more evident than ever these past five years. At times when I was up against a wall, with seemingly no way over or around it, the heavens seemed to part and somehow, someway, things would fall into place and we'd make it through. That is not to say that the past five years have been easy. On the contrary, we have experienced some of the most challenging times of our lives during this program, and those challenges have only seemed to get harder and more frequent these past two years. However, we have never felt like we were alone, and as long as we have kept our faith and kept moving forward, we have made it through these trials and have become stronger because of them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study of the work environment, specifically that which is related to the influence that certain task and social characteristics have on individual motivation and job performance has been a dominant theme in the management and industrial organizational psychology literatures for decades (Diefendorff & Chandler, 2011; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Scholars have found that certain task and social characteristics of one's work environment are positively related to a number of attitudinal, behavioral, and well-being outcomes (Humphrey, et al., 2007), and that experienced meaningfulness represents the strongest link between job characteristics and outcomes (Humphrey et al., 2007; Johns, Xie, & Fang, 1992). However, we know very little about the mechanisms connecting job characteristics to meaningfulness, such as whether distinct job characteristics influence experienced meaningfulness in the same way, or if they do so through the same, or very different, mechanisms. Therefore, one of the principal contributions I seek to make in this dissertation is to provide greater clarity regarding *how* a number of task and social characteristics of one's work environment impacts meaningfulness at work.

A second shortcoming of much of the job characteristics literature is the general assumption that the relationship between job characteristics and experienced meaningfulness is more or less uniform across individuals within the population. I contend that scholars have not adequately considered how person-based characteristics, such as individuals' personality traits, directly and also jointly when considered with job

characteristics, impact their perceptions that their work is meaningful to them. The notion of the joint influence of person and situational variables on critical psychological states, such as meaningfulness, is certainly not new to the field (see Allport, 1966; Murray, 1938). On the contrary, more recently scholars have argued and found evidence that both characteristics of the work environment and person-based factors jointly impact a person's motivation and eventual performance by fulfilling certain goals or drives that arise from within the individual (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Tett, Simonet, Walser, & Brown, 2013). However, I submit that the impact that person-based factors have on this joint relationship has not received adequate attention in the job design literature up to this point. Therefore, the second principal contribution I seek to make with this dissertation is to increase our understanding of how certain within-person factors, specifically one's Big Five personality traits directly and when considered in combination with job characteristics, jointly affect one's perceptions of meaningfulness at work.

In addition, I also submit that when considering the impact that one's dispositional characteristics, such as personality traits, have on experienced meaningfulness at work there is value in going beyond a traditional variable-centered approach that focuses on only one or two traits at a time. This approach is inherently limiting in that while there may be several traits or dispositional characteristics that may influence experienced meaningfulness, a variable-centered approach only allows for one or at best two traits to be considered in any one model. To illustrate this point, consider a model, (which based on sound theory), that has four dispositional characteristics that

may be included as moderators in a person x situation interactionist framework. Trying to incorporate all four moderators into a single omnibus model using a traditional variable-centered approach would mean that the relationship between any specific independent variable and an outcome of interest would be represented as a five-way interaction. Such a model is extremely complex to consider, both theoretically and empirically, and as such is essentially not practical to consider in most cases.

In contrast, a person-centered approach can be used to identify subgroups of individuals within the population who share a similar profile across any number of variables, and then evaluate differences in the pattern of relationships (e.g. between predictors, mediators, and outcomes) across those different subgroups. Applying a person-centered approach to this dissertation, I will present and test a model that separates individuals into distinct personality profile groups based upon their standing upon all of the Big Five personality traits. Doing so will allow me to test the hypotheses that are founded on one of two fundamental propositions that underlie my theoretical model. The first of these propositions is that there are significant differences across personality profile groups in the level of meaningfulness and fulfillment individuals experience at work, apart from the characteristics of their work environment. The second of these propositions is that the relationship between job characteristics and experienced meaningfulness and fulfillment at work systematically differs across these profile groups. I adopt a person-centered approach to the development of my theoretical model for two key reasons. First, focusing on types or classes of individuals rather than on individual traits is more theoretically consistent with the research question underlying

this study. That is, when seeking to predict a person's motivation and behavior, ultimately it is an individual's sum total of all traits, cognitions, affective states, and other within-person characteristics that represent who that person is and how he or she will react to certain situational cues of his or her work environment (Magnusson, 1999). Second, a person-centered rather than variable-centered approach is driven by the desire to balance a comprehensive view of the person with the need for parsimony in the development of testable hypotheses.

In order to develop my theoretical model and formulate some a priori hypotheses regarding the personality trait profile groups I expect to see emerge in my sample, I draw upon the work of personality scholars who have sought to identify personality profile clusters or groups of individuals for several decades (e.g. Block 1971; Robins, John, Caspi, Moffitt, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1996; Specht, Luhman, & Geiser, 2014). While there has been some variance across these studies in terms of the exact profile of each cluster or group, these scholars have fairly consistently identified three broad personality types in their work. These profile groups are referred to as Resilients, Undercontrollers, and Overcontrollers. Individuals in the Resilient class are broadly described as being self-confident, self-directed, emotionally stable, full of energy, dependable, smart, assertive, verbally expressive, personable, open-minded, not anxious, or insecure and well-adjusted in general as a result of being high in extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness and relatively low on neuroticism. Individuals in the Undercontroller class are broadly described as being stubborn, self-centered, outgoing, physically active, disobedient, impulsive, confrontational, and at times manipulative and are particularly

4

low in conscientiousness and agreeableness (Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Individuals in the Overcontroller class are broadly described as being emotionally brittle, sensitive, introverted, shy, timid, and dependent, but also warm, cooperative, and considerate and are particularly low in extraversion and openness to experience and high on neuroticism (Robins, et al., 1996; Specht, et al., 2014).

In order to address these shortcomings and test the fundamental propositions underlying this dissertation, I will present study model that draws upon my theoretical integration of job characteristics research, the meaning of work literature, and the Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior (TPWB, Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013). One of the seminal works from the meaning of work literature that I build upon is a thorough review of that literature as well as an integrative framework recently published by Rosso and colleagues (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). An important element of their work that is fundamental to this dissertation is the clarification of the terms *meaning* and *meaningfulness*. Consistent with their work (as well as others), I define *meaning* as referring to what it is that specific work experiences signify to the individual (i.e. the type of meaning), whereas I define *meaningfulness* as referring to the to the amount of value or significance that one derives from those experiences (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Wrzesniewski, 2003). Thus, it is the critical psychological state of experienced meaningfulness that represents the focal outcome of the theoretical model I present and test in this dissertation. In contrast, the fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals that I will present in this dissertation can be thought of as representing the type of meaning, or what it is that one's work signifies to the individual. I refer to these four goals as

developing role mastery and control, gaining clarity of accomplishments, acquiring

social impact, and attaining power and recognition.

With respect to the relationship between these four meaning of work goals (i.e.

the mediators) and the focal outcome, (i.e. meaningfulness) that I will present in my

theoretical model, Rosso and colleagues (2010) identify several distinct mechanisms

found in the meaning of work literature that describe *how* and *why* certain job

experiences arising from the characteristics of one's work environment may lead to

higher experienced meaningfulness at work. These mechanisms originate from sources

within the self, other persons, and the work context and represent the psychological and

social processes through which one derives different types of meaning from the

experiences that one has at work. While each of these mechanisms is distinct from one

another, Rosso and colleagues (2010) proposed that they could be organized into four

quadrants along two key dimensions, and that these four quadrants represent the

fundamental pathways through which individuals experience meaningfulness at work.

The first dimension represents the motives that underlie one's actions, with some

mechanisms focused on asserting agency from, while others focus on achieving

communion with others, such as other individuals, groups, organizations, or spiritual

entities. The second dimension is focused on the target of those actions, with some

mechanisms focused on the self vs. some that are focused on others. Rosso and

colleagues (2010) name these four fundamental pathways Individuation (agency-self),

Contribution (agency-others), Self-Connection (communion-self), and Unification

(communion-others). While Rosso et al.'s (2010) framework outlines these four

pathways to meaningful work, the delineation of these pathways represents the culmination of their review. They do not outline what situational characteristics serve as antecedents to these four pathways to meaningfulness. In addition, they wholly neglect any discussion about the influence that dispositional characteristics have on meaning and meaningfulness at work. Therefore, in order to present a model that outlines how one's job characteristics and personality traits individually and jointly combine to influence these four pathways to meaningfulness, I integrate Rosso et al.'s (2010) framework with the Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior (Barrick et al., 2013).

One of the fundamental tenets of the TPWB is that individuals are driven by the desire to experience a sense of purposefulness and meaningfulness in their work (Barrick et al., 2013). Specifically, individuals are driven by one or more of four motivational drives, or strivings that determine the types of actions that will be most meaningful and fulfilling to the individual. These are the drive for autonomy, status, achievement, and communion (Barrick et al., 2013). Autonomy striving refers to individuals' desire to gain control over important elements of their work and to have the opportunity to pursue opportunities for growth and development (Deci & Ryan, 2000; de Charms, 1968; Murray, 1938; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). Status striving refers to the desire that individuals have to exert power and influence over others (Adler, 1939; Hogan, 1996). Achievement striving refers to individuals' desire to demonstrate personal competence and to feel a sense of accomplishment in their work (Allport, 1955; McClelland, 1951; White, 1959). Communion striving refers to the desire that individuals have connect with and to get along with others (Bakan, 1966; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996).

Another fundamental tenet of the TPWB is that individuals' purposeful behavior in the pursuit of meaningful work is driven by the pursuit of implicit, superordinate goals that are connected to these cognitive motivational strivings. Due to the variance in the strength of these cognitive motivational strivings across individuals, there is also variance in terms of how instrumental each meaning of work goal is in terms of its impact on the eventual experience of meaningfulness at work. Thus, these higher-order meaning of work goals drive one's behavior by influencing the lower-order goals one pursues on a day-to-day basis. As mentioned previously, the four meaning of work goals that represent the mediating variables in my theoretical model are 1) developing role mastery and personal control, 2) attaining power and recognition, 3) gaining clarity of accomplishments, and 4) acquiring social impact (Barrick, Mount & DeGreest, working paper). *Developing role mastery and personal control,* which is most strongly connected to one's desire for autonomy, is fulfilled by experiences that provide the individual with greater control of one's task demands and other aspects of one's work environment (de Charms, 1968; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). *Attaining power and recognition*, which is most strongly connected to one's desire for status, is fulfilled by experiences that allow the individual to exert power and influence over others (Adler, 1939; Hogan, 1996). *Gaining clarity of accomplishments*, which is most strongly connected to one's desire for achievement, is fulfilled when experiences allow the individual to demonstrate competence in one's work and get things done (Allport, 1955; McClelland, 1951). *Acquiring social impact*, which is most strongly connected to one's desire for

communion, is fulfilled when experiences allow the individual to connect with and get along with others (Bakan, 1966; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996).

These four goals also draw upon the agency-communion, self-others conceptual framework used by Rosso et al., (2010) to organize their mechanisms to meaningfulness, and thus have a great deal of conceptual similarity with Rosso et al.'s (2010) four pathways to meaningfulness. Thus, this conceptual similarity serves as the basis for the integration of these two frameworks for the purposes of uncovering the mechanisms through which one's job characteristics and personality traits individually and jointly influence experienced meaningfulness at work. I propose that the acquiring social impact goal, which arises out of one's drive for communion, is most closely aligned with the Unification pathway, and is fulfilled by experiences that allow individuals to connect and unite with others primarily through the belongingness and self-efficacy: perceived impact mechanisms. I propose that the developing role mastery and personal control goal, which arises out of one's drive for autonomy, is most closely aligned with the Individuation and to a lesser degree the Self-Connection pathways primarily through the self-efficacy: control/autonomy mechanism. I propose that the gaining clarity of accomplishments goal, which arises out of one's drive for achievement, is most closely aligned with the Self-Connection and to a lesser degree the Individuation pathways primarily through the self-efficacy: competence and perceived impact mechanisms. Finally, I propose that the fourth grouping of mechanisms is defined by the attaining power and recognition goal, which arises out of one's drive for power and status. Of the four pathways defined by Rosso, I argue that the mechanisms that they suggest comprise

9

this pathway (i.e. self-efficacy: perceived impact and purpose: significance) do not adequately capture the conceptual definition of this pathway as the desire for actions that allow one to separate, master and differentiate oneself with respect to others. Therefore, in this dissertation I rely more heavily on Barrick et al. (2013) for the conceptual definition of this one pathway.

In sum, I propose that each of these four meaning of work goals and the mechanisms that are connected to them represent the four fundamental higher-order mediating mechanisms or pathways through which job characteristics and personality traits influence experienced meaningfulness at work. While I have spoken of these pathways in terms of the goals that define them, a clearer and more accurate conceptualization of each pathway is that they capture the psychological and social processes through which individuals interpret their work experiences in terms of the meaning they provide and the significance (i.e. meaningfulness) that one attaches to that type of meaning. Thus, it is these collective psychological and social processes through which one attaches meaning to one's work experiences and the significance that one derives from that meaning that serve as the most proximal predictors of meaningfulness at work.

In addition, there are several conclusions presented in Rosso et al.'s work and the TPWB that serve as critical foundational elements of the theoretical model I will present in this dissertation. First, these authors assert that ultimately it is the individuals themselves and their own perceptions of their work experiences that matter in terms of their experienced meaningfulness at work. Second, they propose that there is equifinality

with respect to these pathways to meaningfulness in that there are distinct mechanisms through which job characteristics and within-person characteristics influence the overall critical psychological state of experienced meaningfulness. Third, they argue that that while each of these pathways are distinct, they are not mutually exclusive and multiple pathways may be in operation simultaneously depending upon one's collection of work experiences. Fourth, in contrast to much of the job characteristics literature, they argue that rather than being passive recipients of their work environment individuals actively shape that environment in both tangible and psychological ways so as to make their actions at work more meaningful to them.

Having provided this summary of the conceptualization of four mediating variables that I present in this dissertation, I will now move on to briefly summarizing the relationships between various job design characteristics and personality traits on each of these four mediating variables. To do this, I focus on several task characteristics found in the Job Characteristics Model (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; 1976) as well as some of the social characteristics that have been included in more recent job characteristics research (e.g. Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Humphrey et al., 2007). The task characteristics are job autonomy, task variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback from the job. The social characteristics are task interdependence, social support, and feedback from others. To these I add a fourth, which is particularly relevant to this dissertation, namely the ability to obtain power and influence over others (Barrick et al., 2013; Hogan, 1996; Humphrey et al., 2007). I posit that job autonomy and task variety are most strongly related to experienced meaningfulness through developing role

mastery and personal control, and to a lesser degree through gaining clarity of accomplishments by providing experiences that allow for greater self-determination at work (i.e. self-efficacy: control, Baumeister, 1998; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and having the freedom and flexibility to structure work so as to be in alignment with their own interests and values (e.g. authenticity: self-concordance, Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). I posit that task identity and feedback from the job are most strongly related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments and to a lesser degree developing role mastery and personal control by providing individuals with greater understanding of how their work impacts others (i.e. self-efficacy: perceived impact, Grant, 2007) and how one's work makes a meaningful contribution to the success of the work group or organization (i.e. self-efficacy: competence, Elsbach, 2003; Swann, Johnson, & Bosson, 2009). I posit that social support, task interdependence, and task significance are most strongly connected to meaningfulness through acquiring social impact by providing the opportunity to develop lasting, supportive relationships strengthens interpersonal bonds among coworkers (i.e. belongingness: interpersonal connectedness, Pratt & Ashforth, 2003) and allowing individuals to feel like they are part of desirable social groups (i.e. belongingness: social identification, Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Task significance impacts meaningfulness through acquiring social impact by increasing individuals understanding of how their work makes a positive impact and is appreciated by others (i.e. self-efficacy: perceived impact, Grant 2007; 2008; Leary & Baumeister, 2000). Finally, I posit that job experiences that provide power and influence lead to greater

meaningfulness by fulfilling individuals' desire to "get ahead" of others and to attain power within an organizational hierarchy (Adler, 1939; Hogan, 1983).

Although strongly impacted by the on-the-job experiences that provide cues that the individual's purposeful actions lead to meaningful work, I posit that one's personality traits will also be directly related to one's perceptions of meaningfulness for at least two reasons. First, individuals will actively engage in efforts to shape their work environment so that their actions at work may be more aligned with the goals that are most meaningful to them (Barrick et al., 2013; Bell & Staw, 1989; Rosso et al., 2010). These actions may take the form of job crafting efforts within a specific job (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010; Wrzesnieski & Dutton, 2001) or through self-selection out of and into jobs that allow for a higher degree of fulfillment (Schneider, 1987; Kristof, 1996). Second, in addition to the tangible efforts individuals engage in to shape their work environment, individuals will also actively shape their psychological perceptions of their environment as well (Rosso et al., 2010). I posit that through the sensemaking process, individuals will be "crafters of meaning" and through this process will alter their evaluations of their work experiences in ways that are more favorable to the attainment of meaningfulness (Weick, 1995; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003). In sum, I posit that Resilients represent a more desirable personality type and will engage in more proactive efforts to craft their jobs and will be more adept at shaping their psychological evaluations of their work experiences so as to provide them with greater meaningfulness through all four pathways as compared to either the Undercontroller or Overcontroller personality profile types.

Thus, Resilients will experience a higher level of fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals as compared to Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers, apart from the influence of any situational characteristics. In contrast, I propose that Undercontrollers and particularly Overcontrollers, represent "less desirable" personality types due to their standing on the key traits that define these profiles. Therefore, I posit that Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers will experience a lower level of meaning of work goal fulfillment as compared to Resilients.

In addition to their direct effects on meaningfulness through the attainment or fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals, I propose in interactive relationship such that the relationship between job characteristics and meaningfulness through each of the four meaning of work pathways differs systematically across these three personality classes. One of the key theoretical questions related to this concerns the nature of this interaction, specifically is it synergistic or compensatory in nature? I propose that the interaction between job characteristics and personality trait profile is substitutive or compensatory in nature such that relatively high levels of experienced meaningfulness occur when certain task or social characteristics are high, *or* when individuals possess a more desirable personality type. The principle reason I argue in favor of a compensatory interaction is due to the assumption that individuals actively shape rather than passively submit to their work environment, and they do this in both tangible and psychological ways (Bell & Staw, 1989).

As mentioned, I posit that Resilients will engage in more proactive efforts to shape their work in tangible ways, such as job crafting, and are also more capable of

positively shaping their psychological perceptions of the meaningfulness of their work. Thus, it is their own dispositional characteristics that most strongly determine the degree to which they find meaning and fulfillment at work. In addition, I posit that the incremental gains to meaning of work goal fulfillment due to higher levels of the relevant job characteristics will yield only minimal gains for Resilients. In contrast, I posit that Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers will be less likely to engage in proactive efforts to shape their job and will also tend to have more negatively-skewed psychological crafting of their perceptions of their work environment. As a result, Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers are more dependent upon the characteristics of their work environment to compensate for their dispositional limitations and enable them to still find meaning and fulfillment at work. Thus, a higher level of relevant job characteristics will yield greater gains in goal fulfillment for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers as compared to Resilients.

Through the integration of the various literatures and theoretical frameworks I draw upon in this dissertation, I submit that this dissertation has the potential to make several contributions to the field. First, by integrating the meaning of work literature with the TPWB, this dissertation strengthens the conceptual distinction between the *type* of meaning individuals' attach to their work experiences, and the degree to which each type of meaning is valuable to the individual (i.e. meaningfulness). In doing so, I propose that the fundamental meaning of work goals, (i.e. developing role mastery and control, gaining clarity of accomplishments, acquiring social impact, and attaining power and recognition) represent distinct constructs that capture these different types of

meaning. In this dissertation I also propose measures for each of these four meaning of work goals and provide empirical data that aids in establishing the discriminant and convergent validity of these meaning of work goals.

Second, this dissertation extends the job characteristics and meaning of work literatures by presenting and testing a model that outlines *how* each of a number of task and social characteristics impact a person's experienced meaningfulness at work by uniquely influencing these different types of meaning. In general, I find that the majority of the task-focused job characteristics presented in this dissertation (i.e. job autonomy, task variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback from the job) are more strongly related to one or both of the two self-focused meaning of work goals (i.e. developing role mastery and control and gaining clarity of accomplishments). In contrast, I find that in general, the majority of the social characteristics included in this dissertation (i.e. social support, task interdependence, power, and feedback from others) are more strongly related to one or both of the two others-focused meaning of work goals (i.e. acquiring social impact and attaining power and recognition).

Third, the results of this dissertation show that there is value in considering both situational and dispositional characteristics when predicting experienced meaningfulness at work. This extends the job characteristics research which to date has largely ignored the influence that within-person characteristics, such as one's personality traits, have on this process. In addition, I show that there is value in taking a person-centered rather than a more traditional variable-centered approach to evaluating the impact that one's Big Five personality traits have on individuals' perceptions that their work fulfills one or

more of these meaning of work goals. When individuals are separated into distinct

subgroups based upon their profile across all Big Five traits using latent profile analysis,

I find that there are significant differences between these subgroups in terms of the level

of fulfillment of these four meaning of work goals apart from the influence of any

situational characteristics.

Finally, by applying the person-centered approach to understanding the joint

relationship between job characteristics and personality traits when predicting meaning

and fulfillment at work, I find support for my proposition that the interaction is

compensatory (rather than additive or synergistic) in nature. A corollary to this finding is

support for the notion of personality profile "desirability" in that for some individuals,

meaningful work is more strongly driven by their dispositional characteristics while for

others, it is more strongly dependent upon the characteristics of the work environment.

In the following chapters, I will provide a more thorough review of the research

streams and theoretical frameworks I draw upon in this dissertation, and provide an

integrative theoretical framework that ties them together. Next, I will present the study

model and corresponding hypotheses that allow me to test the fundamental propositions

I will present here. Finally, I will provide a summary of my research design, study

sample, and findings followed by a discussion of some of the potential contributions and

implications of this dissertation.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

In order to develop the theoretical model and the associated hypotheses related to

the impact that job characteristics and personality traits individually and jointly have on

meaningfulness at work, I draw upon two theoretical frameworks and integrate them into

one model that will allow for a test of the hypotheses I will present in this dissertation.

The first is a recent review, integration, and unifying framework related to the meaning

of work literature published by Rosso and colleagues (2010). The key elements of their

work that I build upon here are a conceptualization of the various sources from which

one may derive meaning in their work, and more importantly, the various pathways by

which certain job experiences are connected to greater levels of experienced

meaningfulness at work. The second theoretical framework upon which much of the

theoretical model I will present in this dissertation is built is the Theory of Purposeful

Work Behavior published by Barrick and colleagues (2013). The key elements of the

TPWB that are most relevant to this dissertation are the fundamental proposition that all

individuals desire purposefulness and meaningfulness at work, and that one's personality

traits and work design characteristics are critical factors that influence how purposeful

actions at work are translated into perceptions of experienced meaningfulness (Barrick et

al., 2013).

Meaning and Meaningfulness

The key theoretical connection that explains the degree to which person and

situational variables impact motivated behavior at work is the degree to which

individuals experience meaningfulness in their work. Within the organizational behavior domain, there are two broad perspectives regarding what "meaning" is and from where it originates (Rosso et al., 2010). The more common psychological perspective assumes that one's perceptions of meaning are largely rooted in one's own individual, subjective evaluations and interpretations of one's interactions and experiences at work (Baumeister, 1998; Brief & Nord, 1990; Wrzesniewski, 2003). The sociological perspective assumes that individuals come to attach meaning or view certain aspects of their work experiences and interactions as more or less meaningful when the cultural and social environment in which one is embedded places some value on those activities (Geertz, 1973; Kluckhohn, 1951; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Mead, 1934). In this dissertation I utilize the psychological perspective specifically because I am focusing on how one's own perceptions of his or her work experiences influence one's cognitive evaluations of the meaning and the meaningfulness derived from those experiences through each of the mechanisms presented in the model.

Before discussing the connection between one's personality traits, job characteristics, and one's perceptions of meaningful work, it is first necessary to provide a clear conceptual definition of the terms "meaning" and "meaningfulness" and clearly delineate the relationship between the two within the context of this dissertation. Providing a clear conceptual definition of meaning on its own is not an easy task, an assertion that has been made by previous meaning of work scholars (e.g. Brief & Nord, 1990; Super & Sverko, 1995). To make this task even more difficult, in the past many scholars have used the terms "meaning" and "meaningfulness" interchangeably which

19

has only added to the confusion as to the distinction and the relationship between the two (Rosso et al., 2010). In their review and integration of the meaning of work literature, Rosso and colleagues (2010) attempt to provide some clarity by differentiating between "meaning" and "meaningfulness" within the work context. Drawing on the work of Pratt and Ashforth (2003) and Wrzesniewski (2003), Rosso and colleagues (2010) define *meaning* as "the output of having made sense of something, or what it signifies; as in an individual interpreting what her work means, or the role her work plays in the context of her life" (Rosso et al., 2010, p. 94). While meaning refers to what it is that one's work experiences represent to the individual, it does not capture or describe the value or the significance that one places on those experiences. Thus, *meaningfulness* refers to the amount of significance something, in this case one's work experiences, holds for an individual and are perceived to be valuable and worthwhile (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Rosso et al., 2010). Thus confusion has persisted as some scholars have used the term "meaning" when indicating that one's work holds some degree of significance to the individual when according to Rosso and colleagues (2010), the term meaningfulness would be more appropriate.

In this dissertation, I will follow these conceptual definitions provided by Rosso and colleagues (2010) with respect to the distinction between meaning and meaningfulness. In short, meaning refers to what it is that one's work signifies to the individual, (i.e. the *type* of meaning), whereas meaningfulness, or experiencing meaningful work, refers to the *amount* of significance that one derives from that work (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Rosso et al., 2010). Going further, Rosso and colleagues (2010)

define the broad domain of the "meaning of work" as in the meaning of work literature, as encompassing both meaning and meaningfulness. With respect to the relationship between meaning and meaningfulness, Rosso and colleagues (2010) identify seven distinct mechanisms found in the literature that describe *how* and *why* certain job experiences arising from the characteristics of one's work environment may lead to higher experienced meaningfulness at work. These mechanisms represent the psychological and social processes through which one attaches a certain type of meaning to those experiences as well as the corresponding value or significance of those experiences to the individual. Rosso and colleagues (2010) name these distinct mechanisms authenticity, self-efficacy, self-esteem, purpose, belongingness, transcendence, and cultural and interpersonal sensemaking. With one exception (i.e. cultural and interpersonal sensemaking), these mechanisms are focused on the psychological processes surrounding perceptions of experienced meaningfulness, (i.e. the focal outcome of this dissertation), rather than on the construction of meaning itself (Rosso et al., 2010).

The first mechanism, authenticity, is defined as a sense of alignment between one's behavior and perceptions of the "true" self, and is one of the more common mechanisms found in the meaning of work literature (Markus, 1977; Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995; Sheldon, Ryan, Rawstorne, & Ilardi, 1997). Authenticity can be separated into three distinct types, which are self-concordance, identity affirmation, and personal engagement. Meaningfulness derived through the *self-concordance* form of authenticity occurs when one's behavior at work is consistent with or is in alignment

21

with one's interests and values (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Meaningfulness derived through *identity affirmation* occurs when valued or desired personal identities are verified, affirmed, or activated through one's roles or actions at work (Elsbach, 2003; Swann, Johnson, & Bosson, 2009). Meaningfulness derived through *personal engagement* occurs when one experiences the feeling of being immersed or alive while working on tasks, largely by being allowed to engage in specific tasks or activities at work that are intrinsically motivating to the individual (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Kahn, 1990; Spreitzer, 1996). As can be seen by these definitions, although at some level of abstraction, the common element is that they lead to the alignment between one's work experiences and one's perceptions of the true self. They are also quite distinct in that they each draw upon a different source of meaning, specifically the self, others, and the work context, respectively.

The second mechanism, self-efficacy, is defined as an individual's belief that he or she has the capability to accomplish the task at hand and to make a difference (Bandura, 1986; Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). Similar to authenticity, self-efficacy can be differentiated into three distinct types as well, which are referred to as control or autonomy, competence, and perceived impact (Rosso et al., 2010). Meaningfulness derived through *personal control or autonomy* occurs when one feels that he or she has sufficient freedom and discretion (i.e. self-determination) to manage one's own work-related activities (Baumeister, 1998; Deci, 1975; Wrzesnieswki & Dutton, 2001). Meaningfulness derived through *competence* occurs when one feels that one's work allows him or her to develop desirable skills and abilities and that one is able to

successfully overcome challenges and complete one's work (Masten & Reid, 2002; Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005). Meaningfulness derived through *perceived impact* occurs when one feels that he or she is making a positive impact on others, which may include coworkers, their organizations, individuals outside the organization, the environment, or other entities beyond the self (Cardador, 2009; Grant, 2007; 2008).

The third mechanism, self-esteem, is defined as the feeling that one is valuable and worthwhile (Baumeister, 1998). Self-esteem is distinct from self-efficacy in that the former is an assessment of one's own self-worth while the latter is related to perceptions that one has control over one's environment (Baumeister, 1998; Baumeister & Vohs, 2002; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Meaningfulness derived through *self-esteem* occurs when one feels that he or she is a valuable contributor to the success of one's organization, or that one is able to identify oneself as a member of valued in-groups at work (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

The fourth mechanism, purpose, is defined as the perception that one has a sense of direction and intentionality in life (Rosso et al., 2010; Ryff, 1989). The need to have a sense of purpose in life has been viewed by scholars and philosophers as a fundamental human need, the fulfillment of which is especially influential on perceptions of meaningfulness (Aristotle, 2000; Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Frankl, 1959). The purpose mechanism can be separated into two distinct types, one of which relates to significance and the other with respect to value systems. Meaningfulness derived through *significance* occurs when one feels that his or her work is valuable to the

23

community or to society in general, and therefore serves some greater purpose beyond one's own self-interests (Grant, 2008; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Wrzesniewski, 2003). Meaningfulness derived through *values systems* occurs when behavior is in alignment with shared value systems which emphasizes that one's behavior is virtuous and consistent with those fundamental values (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002; Wiener, 1988; Frankl, 1959).

The fifth mechanism, belongingness, is defined as the desire to maintain positive, long-term interpersonal relationships and to be considered a member of desirable social groups (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Homans, 1958; White, 1959). Belongingness can be separated into two distinct types: social identification and interpersonal connectedness (Rosso et al., 2010). Meaningfulness derived through *social identification* occurs when one feels that he or she is a member of desirable social groups and is more strongly connected to shared identities, values, and beliefs with others in the in-group as compared to out-group members (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Meaningfulness derived through *interpersonal connectedness* occurs when one experiences a more affective connection to others at work through relationships that provide feelings of comfort, support, and belongingness (Blatt & Camden, 2007; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Dutton, Worline, Frost, & Lilius, 2006; Kahn, 2007, Rosso, 2010).

The sixth mechanism, transcendence, is defined as setting aside one's ego or a focus on self and engaging in actions that allow one to connect with an entity that is greater than or beyond the material world (Maslow, 1971). Conceptually, transcendence

is quite distinct from the previous five mechanisms in that those are focused on attaining some type of connection to valued aspects, goals, or motives of the self. In contrast, transcendence is focused on subordinating oneself to "groups, experiences or entities that transcend the self" (Rosso et al., p. 112; Frankl, 1959; Weiss, Skelley, Haughey, & Hall, 2004). Transcendence can be separated into two distinct types: interconnection and self-abnegation. Meaningfulness derived through *interconnection* occurs when one sets aside one's ego and elements of the material world and connects with some entity outside of and greater than oneself, an entity that often only exists due to the collective efforts of the many (Lips-Wiersma, 2002). Meaningfulness derived through *self-abnegation* occurs when one deliberately gives up some degree of control over one's fate and subjugates oneself or one's own self-interests in favor of an organizational vision, one's family, a social group, or a spiritual entity (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006; Weiss et al., 2004).

The seventh mechanism described by Rosso and colleagues (2010), cultural and interpersonal sensemaking, is fundamentally different from the previous six in that it focuses on the role that the social environment plays in understanding the construction of meaning (Weick, 1995; Wrzesniewski et al., 2003). Thus, rather than being focused on fulfilling a fundamental human need similar to the previous six mechanisms, this last mechanism is more focused on the production of meaning rather than the degree of experienced meaningfulness (Wrzesniewski, et al., 2003). As this dissertation is focused on the distinct pathways to meaningfulness, I will focus on the latter six mechanisms only in the development of my theoretical model and hypotheses.

While each of these mechanisms is distinct from one another, Rosso and colleagues (2010) proposed that they could be consolidated into four distinct types by differentiating them along two key dimensions. The first dimension is centered on the motives that underlie each mechanism with respect to self and others, with some mechanisms aimed at fulfillment of the drive for agency while others a desire for communion (Rosso et al., 2010). This agency-communion theoretical distinction draws upon the psychology literature and argues that much of human behavior is driven by two fundamental modalities. The first of these is the desire to separate, assert, expand, master and create (i.e. pursue agency) and the second is the desire contact, attach, connect, and unite (i.e. pursue communion; Bakan, 1966). The second dimension is centered on the target of one's purposeful actions (i.e. self or others), and specifically the degree to which experiences that activate these mechanisms are perceived as internal or external to the self. (Rosso et al., 2010). The organization of these mechanisms using the agency-communion and the self-others dimensions forms the basis for the conceptualization of the four main pathways to meaningful work that I present in this dissertation. Rosso and colleagues (2010) name these four distinct pathways Individuation (agency-self), Contribution (agency-others), Self-Connection (communion-self), and Unification (communion-others).

The Individuation pathway provides meaningfulness through actions that define and distinguish the self as valuable and worthy, and encompasses the self-efficacy: control/autonomy, self-efficacy: competence, and self-esteem mechanisms. The Contribution pathway provides meaningfulness through actions that are perceived as

26

being significant and for the benefit of something greater than oneself, and encompasses the self-efficacy: perceived impact, purpose: significance, transcendence: interconnection, transcendence: self-abnegation mechanisms. The Self-Connection pathway provides meaningfulness through greater alignment between one's actions and one's self-perceptions, and encompasses the three authenticity (i.e. self-concordance, identity affirmation, personal engagement) mechanisms. Finally, the Unification pathway refers to the meaningfulness of bringing one's actions into greater harmony with other beings or principles, and encompasses the purpose: value systems, belongingness: social identification, and belongingness: interpersonal connectedness mechanisms (Rosso et al., 2010). A replication of Rosso et al.'s (2010) organizing framework and the various mechanisms that correspond to their four pathways to meaningfulness is shown in Figure 2.1.

Rosso and colleagues (2010) offer several key conclusions from their review of the meaning of work literature that are relevant to the research questions I am pursuing in this dissertation. First, they assert that ultimately, individuals themselves are the final judge as to just what constitutes meaningful work, and it is their own perceptions of their work experiences that matter in making these judgments. Second, they argue that while each of these four pathways to meaningfulness is distinct, they are not mutually exclusive and multiple pathways may be activated or in operation simultaneously. Third, they assert that while the desire to achieve meaningfulness in one's work may be common across all individuals, the relative salience or importance of each of these pathways to individuals is not uniform across all individuals. In this regard, there is a

27

possibility for equifinality in that while all individuals desire to experience

meaningfulness at work, there are different pathways through which that end may be

achieved.

Figure 2-1 Mechanisms to Meaningfulness; Adapted from Rosso, Dekas, &
Wrzesniewski, 2010

Agency

(drive to differentiate, separate, assert, expand, master, and create)

Individuation

Self-Efficacy: Control/Autonomy
Self-Efficacy: Competence
Self-Esteem

Contribution

Self-Efficacy: Perceived Impact
Purpose: Significance
Transcendence: Interconnection
Transcendence: Self-abnegation

Self ——————————————————————— **Others***

Self-Connection

Authenticity: Self-concordance
Authenticity: Identity Affirmation
Authenticity: Personal Engagement

Unification

Purpose: Value Systems
Belongingness: Social Identification
Belongingness: Interpersonal Connectedness

(drive to contact, attach, connect, and unite)

Communion

*Others = other individuals, groups, collectives, organizations, and higher powers

Although Rosso and colleagues suggest that there may be variance across

individuals in terms of the relative importance that each person attaches to each of these

pathways to meaningfulness, they do not address these factors in their paper. Another

key conclusion they derive from their review of the meaning of work literature is that

much of that literature has assumed that individuals are relatively passive recipients of

28

the forces arising from their work environments (Rosso et al. 2010). In contrast, they argue that most of the research has failed to consider how individuals actively shape their work environment, in both tangible and psychological ways, and these purposeful actions have a strong impact on their eventual perceptions of meaningfulness at work (Bell & Staw, 1989; Wrzesnieswki & Dutton, 2001). Therefore, while Rosso et al's (2010) framework outlines these four pathways to meaningful work, they do not describe which work characteristics are connected to each pathway, nor do they provide any theoretical explanation for the within-person factors that influence which pathways are more valuable or instrumental to some individuals as compared to others. In order to extend theory surrounding the pursuit of meaningful work by exploring these connections, I draw upon the Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior and integrate it with the meaning of work literature that I have discussed previously.

Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior

Consistent with the theoretical assumption made by Rosso et al. (2010), one of the fundamental propositions of the TPWB is that individuals' are driven by the desire to experience meaningfulness in their work (Barrick et al., 2013). To achieve this desired state, individuals' behavior is driven by two fundamental and related self-regulatory processes: striving for purposefulness and striving for meaningfulness. Purposefulness is defined as having a directedness and intentionality in ones' behavior directed toward desired end states, in this case the experience of meaningfulness. Barrick et al.'s (2013) definition of experienced meaningfulness is consistent with the broader literature, and is defined as the perceived meaning or significance one gains from one's work activities.

Together, these two self-regulatory processes (i.e. purposefulness and experienced

meaningfulness) serve as the key mechanisms through which job characteristics and

personality traits combine to influence the volitional actions they take in their work

(Barrick et al., 2013). An illustration of these fundamental processes outlined in the

TPWB is shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2-2 The Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior; Adapted from Barrick, Mount, &
Li, 2013
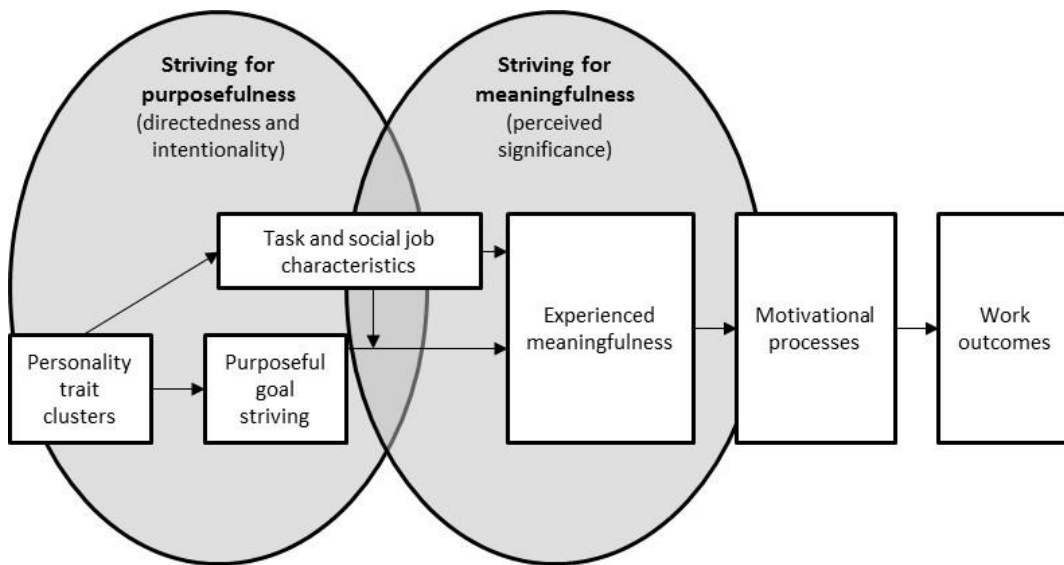
Another fundamental assertion of the TPWB is that individual's purposeful

behavior is driven by the pursuit of implicit, superordinate goals that represent

fundamental, desired motivational states that people strive to attain (Barrick et al., 2002;

Locke, 1976). These goals, or desired ends states, sit at the top of an individual's goal

hierarchy and represent stable, lasting personal agendas that implicitly drive behavior

through their connection to the lower-order goals one pursues on a day-to-day basis

(Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Cropanzano, James, & Citera, 1993; DeShon & Gillespie,

2005). In addition, the TPWB asserts that while there may be a relatively few of these higher-order goals that are common across individuals, the relative importance or valence of those goals varies, and the key source of this variance is rooted in the personality of the individual (Barrick et al., 2013; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005).

Drawing upon and assimilating a number of dominant theories of motivation and behavior, the TPWB proposes that there are four distinct goals arising from one's personality traits that drive individuals' pursuit of meaningful work. These higher-order goals, referred to as cognitive motivational strivings, are found among the dominant typologies that are common across a number of motivational theories found in the literature over the past several decades (Barrick et al., 2013). Autonomy striving refers to individuals' desire to gain control and understanding of important elements of their work and to have the opportunity to pursue opportunities for growth and development (Ryan & Deci, 2000; de Charms, 1968; Murray, 1938; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). In order to avoid confusing between one's desire for autonomy and the job characteristic that represents the experience of autonomy on the job, throughout this dissertation I will refer to the former as autonomy striving, (or striving for autonomy) and the latter as job autonomy. Status striving refers to the desire that individuals have to exert power and influence over others (Adler, 1939; Hogan, 1996). Achievement striving refers to individuals' desire to demonstrate personal competence and feel a sense of accomplishment in their work (Allport, 1955; McClelland, 1951; White, 1959). Communion striving refers to the desire that individuals have to have meaningful contact and to get along with others (Bakan, 1966; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). Collectively,

these four motivational strivings are represented by the "purposeful goal striving" box in the illustration shown in Figure 2.2. Note there is some degree of conceptual similarity with Rosso's work in terms of the agency-communion, self-others dimensions, however, there are also some discrepancies between the two that I will address later in this chapter.

Although these four higher-order motivational strivings play a role in the pursuit of meaningful work, they are much more proximal to individuals' desire for *purposefulness* and more distal to the degree to which individuals actually experience *meaningfulness*. Also, they arise from one's personality traits and are only indirectly connected to task and social characteristics through the combined impact that they each have on experienced meaningfulness. In essence, these higher-order trait-like motivational strivings represent the types of purposeful actions (i.e. directedness and intentionality) that the individual will be driven to pursue in order to experience meaningfulness. However, they do not capture or describe anything related to the degree to which those higher-order goals *are achieved* through one's work experiences and the value that one attaches to those experiences (i.e. perceived significance).

Integrated Theoretical Framework

In recent work that is building upon Rosso et al.'s (2010) work and extending the TPWB, Barrick and colleagues have proposed that individuals' cognitive motivational strivings drive them to pursue four corresponding higher-order "meaning of work" goals, and that the fulfillment of these goals are most proximal to individuals' perceptions of experienced meaningfulness at work (Barrick, Mount, & DeGeest, working paper).

These four meaning of work goals are 1) developing role-mastery and personal control, 2) attaining power and recognition, 3) gaining clarity of accomplishments, and 4) acquiring social impact. It is these four meaning of work goals as conceptualized by Barrick and colleagues, and the four pathways to meaningfulness as conceptualized by Rosso et al. (2010) that serve as the area of intersection between these two frameworks that provides the basis for the integrated conceptual framework I present in this dissertation. They key theoretical connection is that in both cases, the four goals or pathways represent the psychological and social processes that serve as the mediating mechanisms through which one's work experiences are connected to the experience of meaningful work. Although there is a great deal of conceptual overlap between Barrick et al.'s meaning of work goals and Rosso et al.'s (2010) four pathways (i.e. individuation, contribution, self-connection, and unification), there are some discrepancies as well. Next, I will attempt to identify these discrepancies and integrate these two frameworks so as to provide a sound conceptualization of the four distinct pathways to experienced meaningfulness that I will use in this dissertation. In addition, I will outline the primary, secondary, and minor mechanisms through which each of these pathways lead to the experience of meaningfulness at work. A summary of the mechanisms to meaningfulness organized according to the four pathways is shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2-3 Meaningfulness Mechanisms Organized According to the Four Meaning of Work Goals

Developing role mastery and personal control	Attaining power and prestige
Self-Efficacy: Control/Autonomy Authenticity: Self-concordance Authenticity: Identity affirmation Authenticity: Personal engagement	Self-Efficacy: Perceived Impact Purpose: Significance
Gaining clarity of accomplishments	Acquiring social impact
Self-efficacy: Competence **Self-efficacy: Perceived impact** Self-efficacy: Control/Autonomy Authenticity: Self-concordance Authenticity: Identity affirmation	**Belongingness: Social Identification** **Belongingness: Interpersonal Connectedness** **Self-Efficacy: Perceived Impact** Purpose: Value Systems Self-Esteem

Note: **Primary mechanism(s)**, secondary mechanism(s), minor mechanism(s)

I propose that acquiring social impact is the goal that bears the strongest conceptual similarity with one of Rosso et al.'s pathways, namely the Unification pathway. *Acquiring social impact*, which is most strongly connected to one's striving for communion, is fulfilled through experiences that allow the individual to connect with and get along with others (i.e. communion-others, Bakan, 1966; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). Conceptually, this is consistent with the desire to contact, attach, connect, and unite with others that defines the Unification pathway (Rosso et al., 2010). In terms of the specific mechanisms that comprise this pathway, I propose that this goal is most strongly fulfilled by experiences that allow individuals to build and maintain positive, supportive interpersonal relationships (i.e. interpersonal

connectedness), to identify as a member of desirable in-groups (i.e. social identification), and to feel that one's work has a positive impact on others (i.e. self-efficacy: perceived impact). I posit that these are the primary mechanisms through which this pathway leads to meaningful work. In addition, I propose that acquiring social impact is fulfilled, albeit to a lesser degree, by providing reassurance that one's actions are consistent with shared value systems, which is represented by the purpose: value systems mechanism. I do not see a strong conceptual connection between acquiring social impact and any of the mechanisms contained in Rosso et al.'s (2010) remaining three pathways.

I propose that developing role mastery and personal control is the goal that comes next in terms of conceptual similarity with Rosso et al.'s pathways, and that it is most similar to the Individuation and to a lesser degree the Self-Connection pathways. *Developing role mastery and personal control*, which is most strongly connected to one's striving for autonomy, is fulfilled by experiences that provide the individual with greater control of one's task demands and other aspects of one's work environment (i.e. agency-self) and to have opportunities for growth and development (i.e. communion-self, de Charms, 1968; Murray, 1938; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). As such, I propose that this pathway is activated most strongly by experiences that increase individuals' perceptions that they have the capability to complete their work (i.e. self-efficacy: control/autonomy), which represents one's internal desire to master one's work environment (i.e. agency-self), and thus represents the primary pathway to the fulfillment of role mastery and personal control. I also propose that this pathway is activated, but to a lesser degree, by engaging in actions that are consistent with one's

values (i.e. authenticity: self-concordance) and that reinforce one's valued personal identities at work (i.e. authenticity: identity affirmation). I propose that these two mechanisms most strongly fulfill the desire to contact or connect with valued aspects of self (i.e. communion-self) and represent secondary pathways to the fulfillment of developing role mastery and personal control. Finally, the ability to work on tasks that are intrinsically motivating to the individual and allow one to feel immersed and alive while working (i.e. self-efficacy: personal engagement) represent an additional secondary pathway to developing role mastery and personal control.

I propose that gaining clarity of accomplishments comes next, and overlaps with Rosso et al.'s (2010) same two pathways, although the pattern of is reversed in that gaining clarity of accomplishments is more strongly related to the Self-Connection and less-so with the Individuation pathways. *Gaining clarity of accomplishments,* which is most strongly connected to one's striving for achievement, is fulfilled when experiences allow the individual to demonstrate competence in one's work and get things done (Allport, 1955; McClelland, 1951; White, 1959), which most strongly captures one's desire to connect and unite with desired aspects of self (communion-self). As such, the activation of this pathway is most strongly related to having experiences that allow one to develop the skills required and then be able to successfully overcome challenges in order to complete one's work (i.e. self-efficacy: competence). In addition, one's perceptions that one is gaining clarity of accomplishments are also strongly influenced by experiences that signal to the individual that he or she is making an impact on others (i.e. self-efficacy: perceived impact). Thus, I posit that these two mechanisms (i.e. self-

36

efficacy: competence and self-efficacy: perceived impact) represent the primary

pathways to meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments. In terms of

secondary or minor mechanism that are encompassed within this pathway, I posit that

having greater control over one's work environment (i.e. self-efficacy:

control/autonomy) is also related to the attainment of gaining clarity of

accomplishments. In terms of the Self-Connection mechanisms, task demands and work

experiences that allow one to engage in actions that are consistent with one's values (i.e.

authenticity: self-concordance) and that reinforce one's valued personal identities at

work (i.e. authenticity: identity affirmation) also provide information related to gaining

clarity of accomplishments. However, I propose that these experiences are not as

strongly related to this pathway as they are to developing role mastery and control, and

represent only minor mechanisms with respect to one's gaining clarity of

accomplishments.

Finally, I propose that the fourth meaning of work goal, attaining power and

recognition, is the one that does not align well with any of Rosso et al.'s (2010)

pathways, or the underlying mechanisms that are comprised within them. The reason I

argue that there is a lack of alignment for attaining power and recognition is due to one

of the criticisms I have of Rosso et al.'s (2010) framework, specifically the Contribution

pathway. Using the two dimensions upon which their pathways are based to define this

specific pathway, Contribution should be defined as the desire for agency, which

includes differentiation, separation, or mastery with respect to others, such as other

individuals, groups, collectives, or organizations (Rosso et al., 2010). Using this

definition, this pathway should align with the *attaining power and recognition* goal, which is most strongly connected to one's striving for status and is fulfilled by experiences that allow the individual to exert power and influence over others within the organizational hierarchy (Adler, 1939; Hogan, 1996). However, the mechanisms that Rosso et al. (2010) assign to this pathway, particularly the two forms of transcendence, are defined by the setting aside of one's ego or self-interests in favor of other individuals or entities (Rosso et al., 2010). The remaining two mechanisms, self-efficacy: perceived impact and purpose: significance are defined in terms of having a *positive* impact on others, the community, or society in general. Conceptually, these mechanisms are quite distinct from the notion of separation from or mastery with respect to others, which from the perspective of the target may largely refer to negative rather than positive impacts. Therefore, I argue that none of the pathways to meaningful work outlined by Rosso et al. (2010) appropriately captures the conceptual notion of what this pathway should be. I argue that the two mechanisms that are somewhat related to attaining power and recognition (i.e. self-efficacy: perceived impact and purpose: significance) are only marginally related to the activation of this pathway and are relatively minor mechanisms at best. Thus, for this pathway, I rely much more heavily on Barrick and colleagues conceptual definition of attaining power and recognition and much less so on Rosso et al.'s (2010) mechanisms when presenting the hypotheses related to this specific pathway to meaningfulness.

Building upon the integration of these two frameworks, I propose a model that more comprehensively describes the mechanisms through which individuals' personality

traits and their task and social job characteristics individually and jointly impact their meaningfulness at work. An illustration of my conceptual framework is shown in Figure 2.4. Focusing on the "right-hand" side of the model, I propose that experienced meaningfulness represents one of the critical psychological states that individuals desire to attain through their work experiences. Referring back to the conceptual definition offered earlier, this psychological state of experienced meaningfulness represents the value or the significance that one derives from one's work. At the area of intersection between purposefulness and meaningfulness lie the four main pathways to meaningfulness which are defined by the meaning of work goals and the mechanisms that are comprised within them. These mechanisms represent the psychological and social processes through which individuals attach distinct types of meaning to the experiences they encounter in their work environment, and which serve as the critical link between the actions one pursues at work and the degree to which one ultimately achieves greater meaningfulness at work as a result of those actions. Referring back to the distinction between meaning and meaningfulness, these mediating mechanisms define *what* one's work signifies to the individual (i.e. the type of meaning) while experienced meaningfulness represents the amount of significance that one derives from that work. On the "left-hand" side of the model are the person and situation-based characteristics that influence the types of experiences one has at work as well as the interpretation of those experiences when formulating one's perceptions related to what that work signifies to the individual.

Figure 2-4 Conceptual Framework
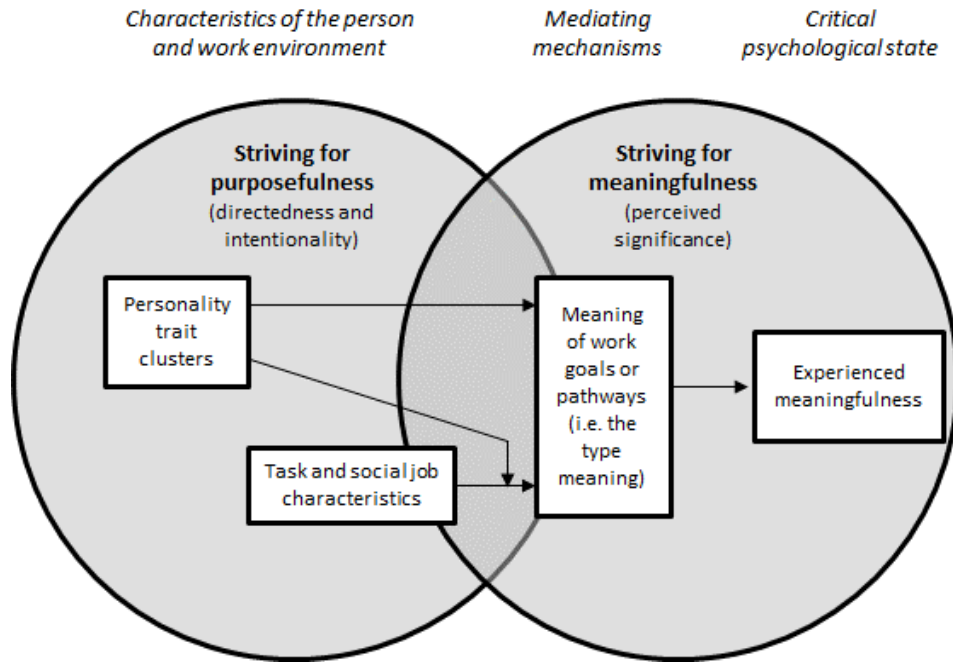
With the critical elements of the conceptual framework laid out, I will now focus

on presenting the hypotheses that are based upon this framework. First, I will articulate

how each of the task and social characteristics included in this dissertation influences

experienced meaningfulness through the activation of one or two specific pathways to

meaningfulness. Second, I will describe how one's perceptions of meaningfulness

through each of these four pathways is also directly influenced by one's personality trait

profile, both through the effect on one's efforts to shape the work environment as well as

on the sensemaking process. Finally, I will describe how these task and social

characteristics and one's profile of personality traits combine to jointly impact

experienced meaningfulness through the four pathways. A comprehensive summary of

the full model that I will present and test in this dissertation is shown in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2-5 Full Hypothesized Model
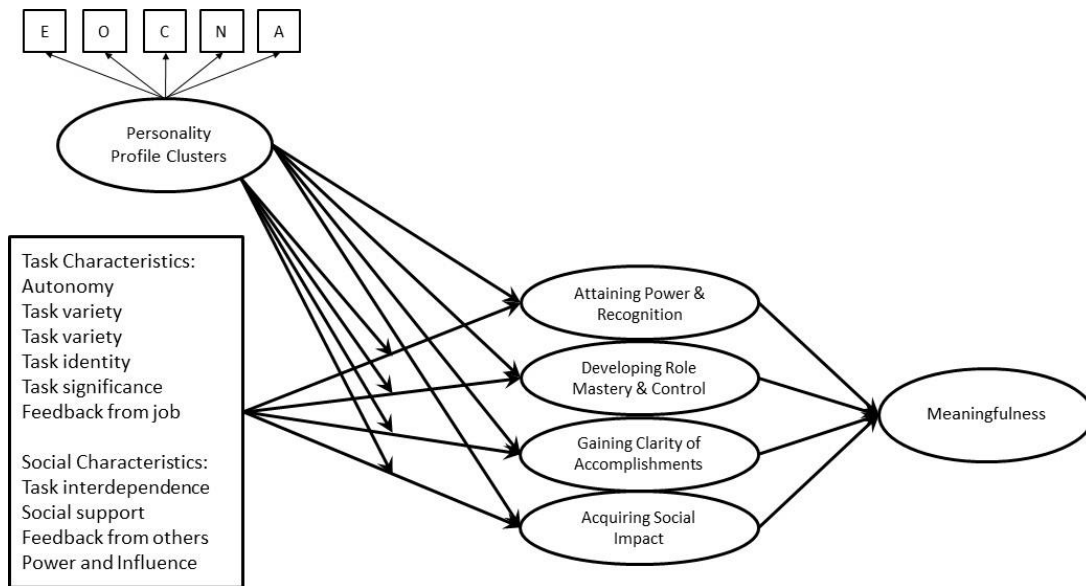
Job Characteristics

The earliest research related to work design essentially treated employees like machines and was focused on identifying ways in which jobs could be "simplified, specialized, standardized, and routinized" (Hackman & Lawler, 1971 pg. 259) in order to reduce labor costs and increase efficiency (e.g. Gilbreth, 1911; Ghiselli & Brown, 1955; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Lytle, 1946; Stigers & Reed, 1944; Taylor, 1911). In time, scholars discovered that taking this approach to job design that was focused on simplicity and efficiency resulted in many negative consequences such as higher employee dissatisfaction, increased absenteeism and turnover, and personnel management difficulties (e.g. Argyris, 1964; Blauner, 1964; Davis, 1957; Friedmann, 1961; Guest, 1955; Hackman & Lawler, 1971). These findings led researchers and

41

practitioners to shift their focus away from the design of jobs aimed at efficiency and toward the design or redesign of jobs that considered the job-related needs of employees (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975/1976/1980; Herzberg, Mausner, & Sniderman, 1959; Turner & Lawrence, 1965). These early job design researchers built upon the theoretical foundation provided by expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) and argued that the characteristics of one's job can be designed so as to increase the intrinsic motivation of employees by satisfying certain higher-order physiological or psychological needs as individuals believe that they have accomplished something worthwhile and meaningful in the completion of their work (Argyris, 1964; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Lewin, Dembo, Festinger, & Sears, 1944). Building on the work of Turner and Lawrence (1965), Hackman and Lawler (1971) and Hackman & Oldham (1975) theorized that jobs that provide higher levels of job autonomy, task variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback impact outcomes by influencing three critical psychological states, namely experienced meaningfulness, responsibility for outcomes of work, and knowledge of results. In the earliest versions of their theory, they also proposed that each of these job characteristics affected outcomes such as motivation, performance, job satisfaction, and turnover, by operating primarily through only one of these distinct mediators. They proposed that skill variety, task identity, and task significance operated through experienced meaningfulness, job autonomy operated through experienced responsibility, and feedback through knowledge of results (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). In subsequent years, scholars have found that of these three hypothesized mediators that serve to link job design characteristics and outcomes,

scholars have asserted that experienced meaningfulness is a "particularly encompassing psychological state" (Johns et al., 1992, p. 667) that serves as the dominant mediator (Humphrey et al., 2007; Johns et al., 1992; Oldham, 1996) linking job characteristics to motivation, attitudes, and behaviors. Thus, experienced meaningfulness plays a critical role in job characteristics research and represents the focal outcome in the theoretical model I present in this dissertation.

In addition to increasing our understanding about the importance of experienced meaningfulness in job characteristics research, recent work has also expanded the focus of job design research to include elements related to the social context of the work environment within which jobs are embedded (Grant, 2007; 2008; Grant, Campbell, Chen, Cottone, Lapedis, & Lee, 2007; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The social element of the working environment has been recognized by researchers as being a critical component in work design research (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Humphrey et al., 2007; Trist & Bamforth, 1951; Turner & Lawrence, 1965). In fact, two social characteristics, dealing with others and friendship opportunities, were included by Hackman and Lawler (1971) in their original job characteristics research, but were not included in subsequent versions of the model (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; 1976; 1980). As scholars have focused on these social elements of the work environment, they have found empirical evidence that these characteristics explain additional variance in employee motivation above and beyond other job design characteristics (Grant, 2007; Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Parker & Wall, 2001). Research taking this social or relational job design perspective has found that the social structures

in which one's job is embedded increase the meaningfulness of one's work by providing

a link between the functions of the job and the impact that those functions may have on

other people (Grant, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2007). Social structures and relational job

design elements can be particularly motivating when individuals perceive that their work

is both beneficial to and valued by others, particularly beneficiaries of the work (Grant,

2008). This perspective expands upon traditional job-design research which had taken a

predominantly individualistic approach and focuses on how job tasks can be structured

so as to draw upon the intrinsic motivation within the individual performing the job

(Grant, 2007; Grant, 2008; Grant & Parker, 2007; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; 1980;

Kahn, 1990). This relational perspective argues that individuals are also motivated when

they feel that they are meaningfully connected to other people through their job

functions (Grant, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2007).

In this dissertation, I focus on several task and social characteristics that

represent the majority of the characteristics found in the extant job design research

(Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). The task-focused characteristics

are job autonomy, task variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback from the

job. I draw upon three social characteristics included in Morgeson and Humphrey (2006)

which are task interdependence, feedback from others, and social support, and add to

them a fourth social characteristic included in the TPWB, namely power and influence. I

propose that these task and social characteristics represent critical elements of one's

work environment that provide opportunities for experiences that directly, and in

combination with personality traits, jointly impact meaningfulness through the four

44

pathways. A summary of the primary and secondary mechanisms by which each task

and social characteristic is connected to its respective pathway(s) and ultimately

experienced meaningfulness is shown in Figures 2.6.

Figure 2-6 Direct Influence of Job Characteristics on Meaning of Work Fulfillment
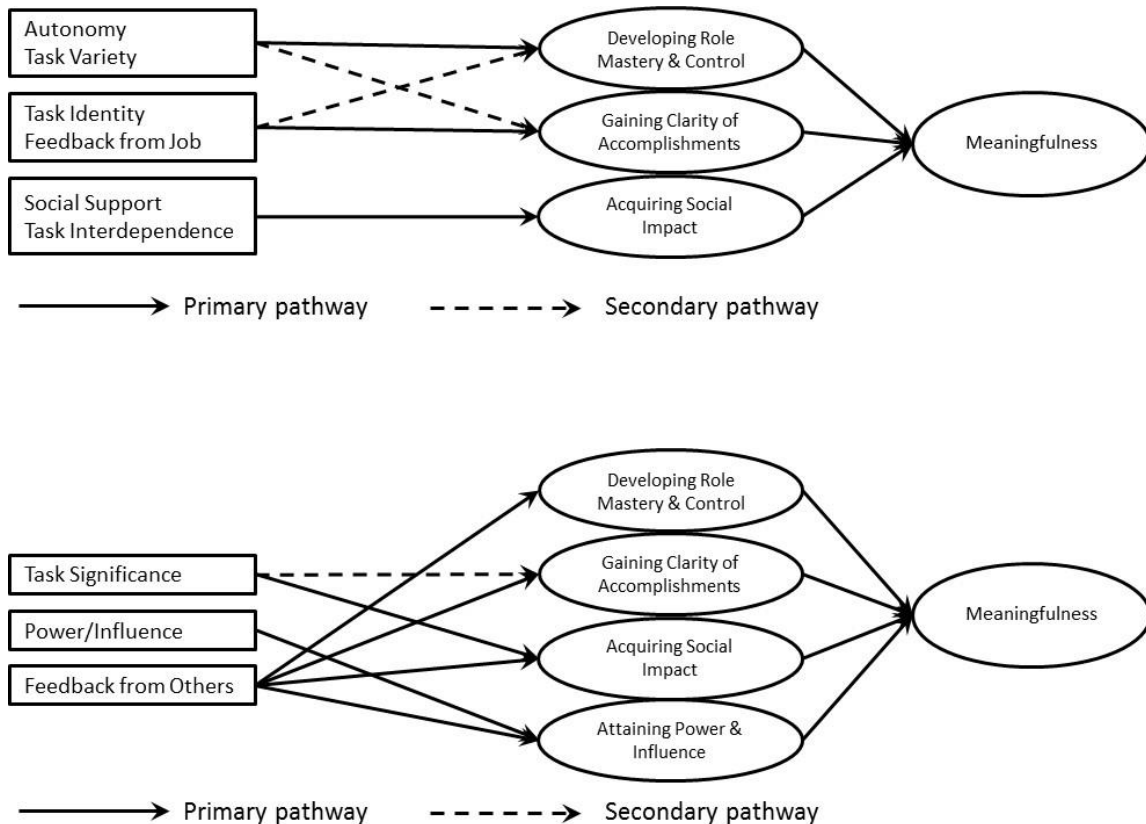
Job Autonomy. The desire for autonomy (i.e. striving for autonomy), or having

control over the execution of one's job demands has been conceptualized as one of the

most basic human desires in a number of motivation theories within the management

literature (Deci & Ryan, 2000; de Charms, 1968). Therefore, it is not surprising that the

role of granting job autonomy to employees in the completion of their work has been a

critical aspect of job design research since its inception (Hackman & Oldham, 1971;

Turner & Lawrence, 1965). Originally defined more narrowly as the freedom one has in carrying out one's work assignments (e.g. Campion, 1988; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), job autonomy has more recently been conceptualized as consisting of different types. Work-scheduling job autonomy refers to the degree to which a job provides one with more control over the way one is able to schedule one's work, such as in the ordering of tasks. Decision-making job autonomy refers to the freedom one has in making key decisions or to take initiative with respect to one's work. Work-methods job autonomy refers to the degree to which one is given control over what methods one uses to complete one's work (Breaugh, 1985; Wall, Jackson, & Davids, 1992; Wall, Jackson, & Mullarkey, 1995). In this dissertation, my hypotheses will be reflective of a broad conceptualization of job autonomy that includes an aggregation of all three types.

I posit that having autonomy with respect to one's work (i.e. job autonomy) will be most strongly related to meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control, and to a lesser degree through gaining clarity of accomplishments. This relationship occurs by providing opportunities or experiences that reinforce one's desire to view oneself as capable of exercising freedom and self-determination at work and having greater control over one's fate (Baumeister, 1998; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gecas, 1991; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This is the essence of the self-efficacy: control/autonomy mechanism, which is primarily related to developing role mastery and personal control and to a lesser extent gaining clarity of accomplishments. In addition to these primary mechanisms, I also posit job autonomy is related to these same two pathways through the authenticity: self-concordance mechanism by providing the

freedom and flexibility to individuals so that they may structure the way they go about their work so as to be more consistent or in alignment with their own interests and values (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002; Gecas, 1991). Self-concordance is a secondary mechanism leading to meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control and a minor mechanism leading to gaining clarity of accomplishments. Thus, I offer the following hypotheses:

>*Hypothesis 1a: Job Autonomy will be positively related to experienced*
>
>*meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.*
>
>*Hypothesis 1b: Job Autonomy will be positively related to experienced*
>
>*meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.*
>
>*Hypothesis 1c: The relationship between job autonomy and developing role*
>
>*mastery and personal control will be more strongly positive than that between*
>
>*job autonomy and gaining clarity of accomplishments.*

Task Variety. Task variety is conceptually very similar to the concept of job enlargement, and is defined as the degree to which one's job demands allows him or her to work on a variety of different types of tasks on the job (Herzberg, 1968; Lawler, 1969). Referring back to the earliest job design research, jobs that are streamlined and simplified were found to be extremely de-motivating and unfulfilling to the employees who performed them (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). In contrast, jobs that allow incumbents to perform a number of different tasks or duties while on the job have been found to be more enjoyable and satisfying to the individuals who perform them (Sims, Szilagyi, Keller, 1976). Similar to job autonomy, I posit that a higher degree of task

variety will be most strongly related to meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control, and to a lesser degree through gaining clarity of accomplishments. However, I also posit that the mechanisms through which these two pathways are activated differ for these two task characteristics. Beyond the inherent motivational benefits of performing a variety of tasks in and of itself (see Sims et al., 1976), task variety also increases the likelihood that individuals will be able to craft their job so that they are able to focus on tasks that are more intrinsically motivating than other tasks, at least for some of the time (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). I posit that even if the more intrinsically motivating tasks only comprise a portion of an individual's overall task demands, the person's overall perception and evaluation of their job will be higher as a result. In essence, I suggest that perceptions of meaningful work are somewhat "sticky" in that they will remain with the individual for a time even while the individual is performing some of the less-desirable tasks associated with one's job. The ability to work on intrinsically motivating tasks is strongly related to experienced meaningfulness (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Kahn, 1990; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010) and will lead to developing role mastery and personal control through the primary authenticity: personal engagement mechanism.

In addition to allowing for intrinsically-motivating work, the ability to work on a variety of tasks will increase a person's self-efficacy, or the perception that they are developing the skills and abilities necessary to be successful in their current job and their overall career (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Cervone, Jiwani, & Wood, 1991; Gist, 1987). This activates the self-efficacy: competence pathway, which is the

dominant pathway to gaining clarity of accomplishments. Also, task variety combined with the notion that individuals are purposeful and that they desire to shape their work environment allows them to focus more of their time and energy toward certain tasks that they may be most capable of completing, or that are most intrinsically motivating to the individual (Bandura, 1977; Schmidt & DeShon, 2010; Tolli & Schmidt, 2008). I posit that these types of purposeful job crafting efforts combined with task variety also fulfill the desire to have control over one's work as represented by the self-efficacy: control/autonomy mechanism (Barrick et al., 2013; Bell & Staw, 1989). Taken together, I offer the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 2a: Task variety will be positively related to experienced*
>
> *meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.*
>
> *Hypothesis 2b: Task variety will be positively related to experienced*
>
> *meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.*
>
> *Hypothesis 2c: The relationship between task variety and developing role*
>
> *mastery and personal control will be more strongly positive than that between*
>
> *task variety and gaining clarity of accomplishments.*

Task Identity. Task identity is defined as the degree to which one's job involves the completion of a whole, identifiable piece of work, which is much more motivating to the individual than focusing on more discrete portions of the end product or output (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Sims et al., 1976). Along with the other elements in the job characteristics model, the notion of task identity was one of the critical developments in job characteristics research that changed scholars and practitioners view regarding the

nature of jobs, which represented the shift away from efficiency and toward the maximization of motivating job design (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Sims et al., 1976). Similar to the previous two job characteristics, I posit that a higher level of task identity will be most strongly related to meaningfulness through the same two pathways: developing role mastery and control and gaining clarity of accomplishments. However, I propose that the strength of the relationship between task identity and these two pathways is reversed from job autonomy and task variety, with task identity being more strongly related to gaining clarity of accomplishments and less strongly to developing role mastery and control.

The ability to have a greater understanding of how one's work contributes to focal product or service (i.e. task identity) allows the individual to have a greater understanding of how his or her work positively impacts one's coworkers, business units, customers, and the overall success of the organization (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). In addition, having a greater understanding about how one's work makes a meaningful contribution to the success of the work group and the organization reinforces perceptions that one's skills and abilities are valued and needed. Together, these perceptions lead to gaining clarity of accomplishments through the primary mechanisms of self-efficacy: perceived impact and competence, respectively. Gaining clarity of accomplishments may also be attained when the perception of one's contributions to the organization, as viewed by others within the organization, are consistent with one's own view of their importance to the organization (Elsbach, 2003; Swann et al., 2009). The alignment of these perceptions can be particularly meaningful to the individual when

these perceptions affirm or verify a valuable concept of self within the individual

(Gecas, 1991). This reinforces one's desire for identity affirmation, which represents a

minor mechanism to gaining clarity of accomplishments and a secondary mechanism to

developing role mastery and personal control. Due to the relative dominance of the

pathways leading from task identity to gaining clarity of accomplishments, I offer the

following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 3a: Task identity will be positively related to experienced*
>
> *meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.*
>
> *Hypothesis 3b: Task identity will be positively related to experienced*
>
> *meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.*
>
> *Hypothesis 3c: The relationship between task identity and gaining clarity of*
>
> *accomplishments will be more strongly positive than that between task identity*
>
> *and developing role mastery and personal control.*

Feedback from the Job. Feedback from the job is defined as the degree to which

one's job provides clear and direct information to the person regarding effective task

performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Humphrey et al., 2007). Feedback from the

job is distinct from feedback from others as the former is focused specifically on

information that comes from one's work activities (i.e. the job itself) rather than from

other people (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). I posit that receiving this type of information

directly from the performance of one's work will be most strongly related to

meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments. I also propose that feedback

from the job will be moderately related to developing role mastery and control.

Broadly defined, the receipt of feedback at work could activate multiple pathways to meaningfulness by operating through several distinct mechanisms and leading to differing outcomes (Carver & Scheier, 2000; Kluger & DiNisi, 1996; Locke & Latham, 2002). This may be due to the different sources from what the feedback originates, the content of the feedback, whether the feedback is solicited or not, or whether the feedback is related to individual vs. group or organizational performance (e.g. Brown, Ganesan, & Challagalla, 2001; Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, & Beaubien, 2002; Roberson, Deitch, Brief, & Block, 2003; Saavedra, Earley, & Van Dyne, 1993). As feedback from the job is specifically focused on the feedback that is derived directly from the completion of one's tasks, I posit that it is most strongly related to meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments by providing information about one's competence with respect to one's task demands. In essence, feedback from the job provides information to the individual that helps to answer the question: "how am I doing?" rather than questions such as "how does my work affect others?" Thus, it is most strongly related to this one pathway through the self-efficacy: competence mechanism rather than other mechanisms such as self-efficacy: perceived impact.

Although not as strongly related to the activation of self-efficacy: competence, I posit that the receipt of feedback from the job will also provide information that may affirm one's identity that is consistent with his or her concept of self. For example, for a person who views him or herself as being highly creative, the completion of tasks that require a great degree of creativity would affirm the self-concept that one is a creative

person (Elsbach, 2003; Rosso et al., 2010; Swann et al., 2009). This would activate the authenticity: identity affirmation mechanism, which would add to the activation of gaining clarity of accomplishments as well as in a small measure developing role mastery and personal control. Therefore, I offer the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4a: Feedback from the job will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 4b: Feedback from the job will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.

Hypothesis 4c: The relationship between feedback from the job and gaining clarity of accomplishments will be more strongly positive than that between feedback from the job and developing role mastery and personal control.

Social Support. Social support is defined as the degree to which a job provides individuals with opportunities to receive advice, ask for assistance, or develop friendships while on the job (Karasek, 1979; Karasek et al., 1998; Sims et al., 1976; Humphrey et al., 2007). Not included in the earlier job design research that was specifically task-focused, the critical influence that social support has on employee well-being and other outcomes has become well-established by scholars in recent years (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003). This is particularly true for jobs that are more stressful or in which the task design elements are not as inherently motivating in and of themselves (Humphrey et al., 2007). I posit that having the perception of social support at work will primarily be related to meaningfulness through the acquiring social impact pathway.

53

The ability to give and receive assistance and to develop lasting, supportive relationships will be strongly related to meaningfulness by providing a sense of mutual support and belongingness (Blatt & Camden, 2007; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Dutton et al., 2006; Kahn, 2007; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Rosso, 2010). This sense of a supportive environment may be strong enough that coworkers feel like they are part of a close-knit group with bonds that approach those found in family relationships (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). In addition, these strong bonds and the membership in such close-knit groups leads to the formation of shared identities, beliefs, and other attributes among the group that facilitate perceptions that one is able to identify with these in-groups (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The meaningfulness derived from being able to identify with groups is further enhanced when membership in that group is perceived as providing something valuable as compared to out-group members (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). These perceptions of strong relationship bonds and identification with desirable groups are what define the belongingness: interpersonal connectedness and identification mechanisms, respectively, which are the dominant mechanisms activating the acquiring social impact pathway.

Hypothesis 5: Social support will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through acquiring social impact.

Task Interdependence. Task interdependence is defined as the degree to which an individual cannot complete one's work until others complete theirs and vice versa (Kiggundu, 1983; Thompson, 1967; Wageman, 1995). There has been a certain degree of confusion that has existed in earlier research incorporating interdependence that largely arose due to discrepancies in conceptual definitions and operationalizations of

54

interdependence across studies. Some of these discrepancies include lumping task-based and outcome-based forms of interdependence into one overall interdependence construct or viewing interdependence as a structural vs. a behavioral property of teams (Guzzo & Shea, 1987; Wageman, 1999). In this dissertation, consistent with the majority of job characteristics research, I focus specifically on task interdependence and do not include other forms of interdependence found in the literature, such as goal, reward, or feedback interdependence (e.g. Campion et al., 1993; Courtright, Thurgood, Stewart, & Pierotti, 2015; Shea & Guzzo, 1987; Saavedra et al., 1993). Thus, consistent with recent job characteristics research, I focus on a conceptualization of task interdependence that focuses on workflow, which captures the degree to which work downstream is dependent upon completion of the focal tasks (i.e. initiated interdependence) and the degree to which the focal tasks depend upon completion of the work by others (received interdependence; Courtright et al., 2015; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006).

Workflow structures that require a greater degree of task interdependence among coworkers, will require more extensive interaction to take place among coworkers, both in terms of frequency and duration (Courtright et al., 2015; Guzzo & Shea, 1992; Langfred, 2005; Stewart, 2006). This greater interaction with one another leads to greater familiarity with one's coworkers, which allows greater opportunities for the development of supportive relationships among coworkers. The dependence upon one another will also facilitate the development of a supportive environment in which coworkers provide assistance to one another when needed due to an increased felt responsibility for those who depend upon one's work (Kiggundu, 1983; Mudrack, 1989;

55

Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Bachrach, Powell, Collins, & Richey, 2006). The

dependence upon one another also increases feelings of trust among coworkers (De

Jong, Van der Vegt, & Molleman, 2007; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998).

Finally, high levels of task interdependence encourage employees to be committed to

one another and to place collective goals and objectives above their own self-interests

(Bishop & Scott, 2000; Mudrack, 1989; Murnighan & Conlon, 1991). All of these

elements will contribute to the development of positive interpersonal relationships

(interconnectedness) and an increase in the identification with one's work groups (social

identification), which will influence perceptions of meaningful work most strongly

through acquiring social impact pathway.

> *Hypothesis 6: Task interdependence will be positively related to experienced*
>
> *meaningfulness through acquiring social impact.*

> ***Task Significance***. Task significance is defined as the degree to which an

individual perceives that his or her work has a lasting, positive impact on others, whether

those individuals are inside or outside of the organization (Grant, 2008; Hackman &

Oldham, 1975). I posit that the job experiences that provide opportunities for increased

perceptions of task significance are most strongly related to meaningfulness through the

acquiring social impact. The main mechanism through which task significance impacts

acquiring social impact is through self-efficacy: perceived impact. Task significance is

focused on the elements of the job that provide opportunities to improve the welfare of

others (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The degree to which one believes that one's actions

have actually helped others, defined by Grant (2008) as *perceived social impact*, is the

essence of the perceived impact mechanism (Grant, 2007). This occurs by the formation of psychological connections between one's actions and the potential benefits to others (Grant, 2008). Drawing upon expectancy theory, Grant (2008) argued that the more that individuals recognize that they are in a position to positively impact others (i.e. expectancy), and that effective performance will result in those benefits (i.e. instrumentality), the more motivated those individuals will be to exert greater effort toward that end (Van Eerde, & Thierry, 1996; Vroom, 1964). Thus, according to Grant (2008), while task significance represents an awareness that opportunities to make a difference exists, perceived impact represents the more concrete, emotionally driven understanding of how's one's efforts actually make a difference (Karau & Williams, 1993; Small & Loewenstein, 2003).

In addition to increased perceptions of social impact, the degree to which task significance opportunities result in more experienced meaningfulness at work is also influenced by the degree to which one perceives that their actions are appreciated by others (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). This concept, referred to by Grant (2008) as *perceived social worth*, has been argued by scholars to be a basic human need that has a strong influence on motivated behavior across all settings (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). I posit that the more that individuals feel that their efforts are appreciated by others, the stronger will be their sense that they identify with those individuals and that they are connected to them. Thus, in addition to activating the acquiring social impact pathway through perceptions of impact, I also posit that this pathway will be activated through the belongingness mechanisms as well.

In the framework I have presented in this dissertation, I have proposed that perceived impact is a primary mechanism that leads to the activation of both the acquiring social impact and gaining clarity of accomplishments pathways. However, I believe that the specific manner in which each goal is fulfilled through this mechanism differs for these two goals. For gaining clarity of accomplishments, I believe that the perceptions of impact are broader in nature, in that they signal that one is accomplishing *something* through one's actions. In the case of acquiring social impact, the concept of perceived impact is more specifically focused on the target of one's actions. By this I mean that perceptions of social impact will not only be influenced by the degree of impact on others, but also by the *manner* in which others' lives are affected. Thus, I posit that task significance will also be related to gaining clarity of accomplishments although to a lesser degree than to acquiring social impact.

> *Hypothesis 7a: Task significance will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through acquiring social impact.*
>
> *Hypothesis 7b: Task significance will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.*
>
> *Hypothesis 7c: The relationship between task significance and acquiring social impact will be more strongly positive than that between task significance and gaining clarity of accomplishments.*

Power and Influence. Power and influence refers to the degree to which a person's job experiences allow him or her to lead or achieve dominance over others (Steers & Braunstein, 1976). These experiences fulfill the individual's desire to obtain

power, influence, and prestige and to earn a certain level of status within an organizational hierarchy (Barrick et al., 2002; Deci & Ryan, 2000, Hogan, 1983). This draws upon one of the most dominant dichotomies found in motivation research, which is the desire to get along with or ahead of others in the workplace (Adler, 1939; Hogan, 1996). As such, I posit that experiences that provide for power and influence will be most strongly related to meaningfulness through the attaining power and recognition pathway. As mentioned previously, I argue that there is not an adequate mechanism described in the meaning of work literature that adequately captures the connection between an individual's drive to obtain power over others and experiences that allow for the fulfillment of that desire. Of those that are reviewed by Rosso et al. (2010), I posit that the most relevant mechanisms are self-efficacy: perceived impact and purpose: significance. The essence of perceived impact in terms of meaningfulness is the perception that one's work makes a difference or has a positive impact on others (Grant et al., 2007). Purpose: significance is conceptually similar in that it refers to perceptions that one's work is positively contributing to one's community or society and therefore serves some higher purpose (Grant, 2008; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Wrzesniewski, 2003). As mentioned previously, both of these carry a positive valence, particularly when viewed from the perspective of those who are impacted by one's work. Thus, while the desire to exert power and influence is well-established in the literature, the manner in which the fulfillment of this desire is perceived to be meaningful for the focal individual is not. I posit that for those individuals who have a reasonably high level of this desire (i.e. high status striving), the ability to exert power, even if doing so is perceived in a

negative way by others, will nonetheless be perceived to be meaningful by the focal individual. What matters most to the individual in terms of their judgments regarding the meaningfulness of one's work is one's own perceptions of their work, and how that work activates the meaning of work pathways that are most salient to them. Therefore, I offer the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 8: Power and influence will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through attaining power and recognition.*

> ***Feedback from Others***. Feedback from others, which is distinct from feedback from the job, refers to the amount of feedback about one's performance a person receives from others within the organization (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Recall that the notion that feedback could come from both the job itself and other people was included in the Hackman & Lawler's (1971) early work but was largely absent from job characteristics' research (Sims et al., 1976 is one exception) until only recently (e.g. Gersick, Bartunek, & Dutton, 2000; Myers, 1999; Wrzesniewski, 2003).

In contrast to feedback from the job, I posit that feedback from others is broader in nature as the specific source of the feedback as well as the nature of that feedback will strongly affect its impact on an individual's perceptions of meaningfulness. Therefore, I predict that feedback from others may be connected, but only moderately, to several of the pathways to meaningfulness, but not strongly related to any one of them over the others. I posit that feedback from one's supervisor or another individual that is focused on task performance, will be most strongly connected to one's perceptions of competence to perform one's job (i.e. self-efficacy: competence; Masten & Reed, 2002;

Spreitzer et al., 2005). If the feedback comes from coworkers or one's peers, it has the potential to influence one's identification with and interconnectedness with others (i.e. belongingness), which would largely influence the acquiring social impact pathway (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). Also, feedback from coworkers may provide information as to how the focal individual's work impacts their work or their well-being, which may also impact one's perception of significance and impact (Grant, 2007; 2008; Wrzesniewski, 2003). Feedback from supervisors, coworkers or others within the organization may affirm one's concept that one is acting in accordance with one's values or one's concept of self, which is most strongly related to self-concordance or identity affirmation (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999; Elsbach, 2003; Swann et al., 2009). Finally, if the feedback provides information that reinforces one's standing relative to others within the organization, it will be most directly related to attaining power and recognition (Hogan & Holland, 2003).

> *Hypothesis 9: Feedback from others will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through a) developing role mastery and personal control, b) gaining clarity of accomplishments, c) acquiring social impact, and d) attaining power and recognition.*

The preceding hypotheses articulate how each of the various task and social characteristics are connected to experienced meaningfulness through the activation of each of the four pathways to meaningfulness via the mechanisms contained within them. Next, I will focus on the direct impact that personality traits have on perceptions of meaningfulness through each of these four pathways.

Person-Centered Approach

The vast majority of the research on personality generally, and specifically that related to the influence traits have on the pursuit and attainment of meaningfulness at work has utilized a construct-by-construct (i.e. variable-centered) approach. This means that models have incorporated one specific trait as being a predictor of mediating mechanisms and outcomes, or as a moderating variable that influences the direct relationships of interest. Research taking this variable-centered approach, while informative, has its limitations in that it fails to consider how the other personality trait dimensions may impact those same outcomes as well, or how collectively they may define distinct types of people that exhibit similar types of behaviors or reactions to certain situational cues. Concerns regarding the reliance on variable-centered approaches with respect to personality research were raised by Block (1971) nearly a half century ago. As recently summarized by Morin and colleagues (2011) and Meyer and colleagues (2013), variable-centered approaches such as regression and structural equation modeling are most appropriate if the goal is to understand how individuals within a population are different from one another with respect to the relationships among a limited number of variables (Morin, Morizot, Boudrias, & Madore, 2011; Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013). Thus, the empirical results from variable-centered studies represent a synthesis, or average estimate, of the relationships among the variables across all individuals within the sample (Morin et al., 2011). Therefore, variable-centered approaches fail to consider that the relationships among variables may differ systematically across subgroups of individuals within the population, such as due

to qualitative and quantitative differences in personality trait profiles (Morin et al., 2011).

In contrast, person-centered approaches identify and compare sub-groups of individuals within a population who share similar patterns of relationships among a potentially large number of variables (Meyer, et al., 2013; Morin et al., 2011). In doing so, person-centered approaches, such clustering analysis or latent profile analysis, explicitly account for intra-individual variation within a system of variables, such as variables representing personality traits and the situational characteristics of one's work environment. It is important to note that person-centered approaches are not inherently superior to variable-centered approaches, and in fact the two should be viewed as complementary to one another (Zyphur, 2009). Variable-centered approaches are most appropriate for addressing research questions related to how the variance in the criterion can be accounted for by one or more variables across the entire population. Person-centered approaches are most appropriate for addressing research questions related to understanding how systems of variables operate within individuals, and as such are considered as taking a more holistic view of the persons of interest (Meyer et al., 2013).

In this dissertation, I adopt a person-centered approach to the development of my theoretical model and my focus on the direct and interactive influence that the collection of dispositional characteristics have on meaningfulness at work, and I do so for two key reasons. First, I argue that it is appropriate to take a person-centered rather than variable-centered approach as it is most consistent with the overall research questions that underlie this study. Whether we are studying cognitions, attitudes, or behaviors within

the management disciplines, on some very fundamental level, I argue that the smallest unit of analysis is the individual person. I suggest that this is the case because in the end, within this discipline we are largely concerned with predicting or explaining human attitudes and behaviors. I am not suggesting that there is little value to studying how individual traits or other attributes are related to emergent states, attitudes, and behaviors. I am suggesting, however, that while we may omit other relevant traits from theoretical models or at the very least, statistically control for them, the traits or attributes of interest do not operate in isolation. That is, ultimately it is an individual's sum total of all traits, cognitions, affective states, and other within-person characteristics that represent who that person is and how he or she will react to certain situational cues of his or her work environment (Cooper & Richardson, 1986; Magnusson, 1999; Meehl, 1992). The fundamental purpose of this dissertation is to study the mechanisms through which person-based attributes and job characteristics (i.e. P x E interactionist framework) individually and jointly influence an overarching emergent state, namely meaningfulness, which a wealth of research has shown is related to a number of positive attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Thus, as I am focused on this broad, overarching emergent state as my focal outcome, I argue that it is most appropriate to take a similar, comprehensive view of the individual with respect to the person-based attributes and focus on a collection of rather than individual personality traits or characteristics.

The second key reason for adopting a person-centered rather than a variable-centered approach is driven by the desire to balancing taking a comprehensive view of the person described previously with the need for parsimony in the development of the

theoretical model and hypotheses. One of the fundamental elements of person-centered analyses such as I am proposing in this dissertation, is the focus on identifying groups or classes of individuals using the collection of person-based attributes of interest. For the sake of illustration of this point, consider a model that would take a more comprehensive view of individuals by including only four person-based characteristics as moderators in a person x situation interactionist framework, similar to the model I present in this dissertation. Using a typical variable-centered approach would mean that there are a total of four moderators in this hypothetical model. Thus, the relationship between any specific independent variable, such as a certain job characteristic and an outcome of interest that is moderated by the personality traits would be represented as a five-way interaction. Such a relationship would be extremely complex to consider, both theoretically and empirically. Therefore, as I will describe in the following section, there is both theoretical and empirical justification for focusing instead on subgroups of individuals who share similar profiles across a number of dispositional characteristics, which will allow for a proper balance between comprehensiveness and parsimony in the development of theoretical model I present in this dissertation.

Personality Profiles

In order to apply this person-centered approach to the theoretical model I present in this dissertation, there are two fundamental questions that must be answered so as to provide sufficient theoretical justification for this component of my conceptual model. First, what is the most theoretically appropriate trait framework to draw upon and second, given that framework, what is the most theoretically-sound approach to

clustering individuals based upon those traits? In this section, I will attempt to answer these two key questions as I present the theoretical justification for the person-centered approach I will present here.

While there are a number of constructs or trait frameworks that are related to individuals' behavior at work, such as goal orientation, proactive behavior, or regulatory focus, in this dissertation I draw upon the FFM trait framework for multiple reasons. First and foremost, the FFM is most consistent with the overall theoretical framework which serves as the basis for my conceptual model and hypotheses, specifically the TPWB. As proposed in my conceptual model (see Figure 2.4), the most proximal predictors of experienced meaningfulness are the four meaning of work goals and the degree to which one or more of those goals are met through one's work experiences. A fundamental premise of my integrated theoretical framework is that different individuals experience meaningfulness from each of these four meaning of work goal mechanisms in different ways and to differing degrees depending upon certain dispositional characteristics within the individual. The TPWB links these four meaning of work goals back to four corresponding cognitive-motivational strivings (i.e. autonomy, status, achievement, communion), each of which is strongly connected to one or more of the FFM traits. Therefore, in order to identify the personality attributes that serve as the distal antecedents that influence meaningfulness through the more proximal cognitive motivational strivings and meaning of work goals I present here, the most theoretically consistent trait framework is the Five Factor Model.

Second, the FFM represents a broader, higher-order, and more comprehensive conceptualization of one's overall personality as compared to other narrower traits such as goal orientation or proactive personality. While these narrower frameworks may share some conceptual space with one's motivational strivings and the mechanisms through which one derives meaning from one's work, they may not adequately capture all of the mechanisms or the individual's motivation strivings that make each mechanism more or less salient to the individual. One of the broad frameworks that that could be used as the basis for separating individuals into distinct personality types is the concept of self-regulation, and more specifically regulatory focus. Self-regulation is defined as the processes through which people seek to align their behaviors and their own self-concepts with desired goals or standards (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, 1997; 1998). Regulatory focuses distinguishes separates these self-regulatory goals and processes into two broad categories, namely those with a promotion focus vs. those with a prevention focus. Promotion-focused self-regulation is driven by the pursuit and achievement of goals that represent the "ideal self", such as one's hopes, desires, and aspirations (Higgins, 1997; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Prevention-focused self-regulation is driven by the avoidance of losses or punishments and is focused on goals that represent the "ought self", such as one's duties, obligations, and responsibilities (Higgins, 1997; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). When considering the different processes that are most strongly connected to the four meaning of work goals, I argue that these two forms of self-regulation and the goals and processes that comprise them are largely contained within two of the four goals, namely developing role mastery and control and gaining clarity of

accomplishments (see Figure 2.3). Specifically, the pursuit of one's "ideal self" (i.e.

promotion focus) is conceptually very similar to the authenticity mechanisms described

previously, wherein one is motivated to align one's actions at work with one's desired

concept of self (Rosso et al., 2010). I propose that mechanisms focused on having

autonomy and control over one's environment and demonstrating one's competence are

conceptually those that are goals and the processes that are most strongly related to the

one's ability to maintain stability and avoid negative consequences or losses, which is

the core of the prevention focus. In contrast, I argue that regulatory focus does not

adequately capture two meaning of work goals and their respective mechanisms that are

focused on one's desire to commune with or to separate oneself from others (i.e.

acquiring social impact and attaining power and prestige), such as through

belongingness (social identification and interpersonal connectedness), or self-efficacy:

perceived impact. Thus, regulatory focus may be more appropriate when focusing on the

self as a source of meaningfulness at work, but less so when also considering the

meaning that is to be derived from one's relationships with other people.

Another classification framework that shares some conceptual overlap with

regulatory focus is the approach/avoidance motivation framework (Elliot, 2006; Ferris,

Johnson, Rosen, Djurdjevic, Chang, & Tan, 2013). Similar to the promotion/prevention

dichotomy within regulatory focus theory, an approach orientation refers to a sensitivity

to positive stimuli while a prevention orientation refers to a sensitivity to negative

stimuli (Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Specifically focused on an

individual's motivations with respect to goal setting and goal striving behavior, the

concept of goal orientation draws upon this approach/avoidance framework and represents another possible trait framework upon which to separate individuals into distinct personality types. However, similar to regulatory focus, goal orientation captures some but not all of the four meaning of work goals and the mechanisms through which certain sources may provide experiences that lead to meaningful work. For example, in a meta-analysis examining the goal orientation nomological network, Payne and colleagues (2007) found that need for achievement is positively correlated with learning goal orientation (LGO, $\rho = .48$) and negatively correlated with avoid performance goal orientation (APGO, $\rho = -.15$). However, little to no work within the goal orientation literature has established any relationship between the goal orientation dimensions and the other three cognitive motivational strivings outlined in the TPWB. Conceptually, this makes sense as at a fundamental level goal orientation is focused on the types of goals that individuals set and then seek to attain in task completion. Thus, while goal orientation may represent a useful trait framework when focusing on the mechanisms that fulfill one's desire for achievement, it is much less relevant when considering the meaningfulness that may be derived in other ways, such as through forming lasting relationships at work.

Similar to goal orientation, proactive behavior (also referred to as proactive personality or proactivity) is defined as the relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change and represents a narrower and more specific disposition in comparison to the Five Factor traits (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Also similar to goal orientation, proactive behavior shares some degree of conceptual overlap with some of

69

the Big Five traits and the cognitive motivational strivings, but not others. Proactive behavior is related to one's need for achievement and dominance (or status as named here) in that they are related to the instrumental actions one seeks to make in order to achieve objectives (Buss & Finn, 1987). However, there is little conceptual overlap with proactive behavior and one's desire for communion or autonomy. With respect to the FFM traits, Bateman and Crant (1993) argued and found empirical support (r = .25) that proactivity is most strongly related to extraversion, as both imply a desire for new experiences and activities. They also argued that proactivity is related to conscientiousness as both are goal-oriented and imply persistence in pursuing objectives (r = .43). They did not find that proactivity is significantly related to openness, agreeableness, or neuroticism. Thus, similar to goal orientation, proactivity represents a useful, and perhaps more appropriate predictor of meaningfulness derived through gaining clarity of accomplishments or attaining power or recognition, but not necessarily so when considering all four meaning of work goals. Thus, based upon this brief summary of a few of the possible alternative trait frameworks, I argue the that the FFM is the one that is the most theoretically consistent with the four meaning of work goals, the mechanisms that lead to them, and the overall theoretical framework upon which this dissertation is based.

A great deal of work was done by psychology researchers seeking to organize one's constellation of dispositional characteristics into a comprehensive yet parsimonious typology through much of the middle to the latter part of the 20th century (John, Angleitner, Ostendorf, 1988). A pioneer in this regard, McDougall (1932)

suggested that an individual's personality could be separated into five distinct, separable

factors which he labeled intellect, character, temperament, disposition, and temper. Over

time, much of the subsequent personality research found that despite some differences in

content within each factor, five distinct personality factors consistently emerged

(Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990). One of the exceptions to the emergence of five factors

was the work of one of the personality pioneers, Cattell, (1943; 1946; 1947; 1948) who

proposed that personality could be described using 16 primary dimensions and 8 higher-

order factors. Several scholars attempted to replicate Cattell's work (e.g. Fiske, 1949;

Tupes, 1957; Tupes & Christal, 1961) but were unable to find anything more complex

than a five-factor structure. Tupes and (1957) and Tupes and Christal's (1961) work with

the United States Air Force resulted in the identification of five factors, which they

labeled surgency, agreeableness, dependability, emotional stability, and culture. Scholars

following up on their work found a similar factor structure (e.g. Borgatta, 1964; Norman,

1963; Smith, 1967), with factors Borgatta (1964) labeled assertiveness, likeability,

emotionality, intelligence, and responsibility. Going further, Norman (1967) investigated

the composition of the five factors at various levels of abstraction and proposed that at

the highest level were the five superordinate personality traits, each of which were

comprised of several facets or characteristics, which were comprised of lower-order

habits, act frequencies or dispositions, which at the most basic level are assessed in

terms of behaviors exhibited in response to specific situations (Digman, 1990; Norman,

1967).

Based on the work of these scholars, a general consensus seemed to emerge that one's personality could be described using five, higher-order factors (Digman, 1990). However, there was less consensus regarding the meaning of each of these five factors. Much of the personality research conducted during the last two decades of the 20th century was focused on clarifying the conceptual meaning of each of the five dimensions. By the 1990s, the dimensions that comprise the Five Factor Model (FFM) or the Big Five traits were emerging as the dominant typology of personality trait models (Costa & McCrae, 1985; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990; Hogan, 1983; McCrae & Costa, 1987). A summary of the seminal works in personality research taken from Digman (1990), which contains the various names for the factors across these studies is shown in Table 2.1. In this dissertation, I will develop my conceptualization of personality profile subgroups or classes using the five dimensions that are consistent with Costa & McCrae (1985; 1992), which are extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (Costa & McCrae, 1985). Extraversion is defined as the tendency to be sociable, dominant, and positive (Watson & Clark, 1997). Agreeableness is defined as the tendency to be kind, gentle, trusting and trustworthy, and warm (McCrae, 1996). Conscientiousness is defined as the tendency to be achievement-oriented, dependable, orderly and deliberate (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Neuroticism (often referred to by its positive pole, emotional stability) is defined as the tendency to show emotional instability which manifest itself in the form of higher stress, anxiety, insecurity, and irrationality, depression, and greater difficulty overcoming minor challenges in order to complete tasks (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Openness to experience is

72

defined as the tendency to be creative, flexible, curious, and unconventional (McCrae, 1996).

Scholars adopting a person-centered approach using the FFM personality traits using several different measures and empirical methods have found that individuals can be broadly described as falling into one of three distinct groups bases upon their profile across the Big Five personality traits (Block, 1971; Caspi & Shiner, 2006; Robins et al., 1996). These personality profile groups are referred to as Resilients, Undercontrollers, and Overcontrollers. Individuals in the Resilient class are broadly described as being self-confident, self-directed, emotionally stable, full of energy, dependable, smart, assertive, verbally expressive, personable, open-minded, not anxious, or insecure and well-adjusted in general (Robins, et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Individuals in the Undercontroller class are broadly described as being stubborn, self-centered, outgoing, physically active, disobedient, impulsive, confrontational, and at times manipulative (Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Individuals in the Overcontroller class are broadly described as being emotionally brittle, sensitive, introverted, shy, timid, dependent, but also warm, cooperative, and considerate (Robins et al, 1996; Specht et al., 2014).

There have been a number of studies that have defined these three personality profiles using the Five Factor traits, and there has been some variance across these studies with respect to the composition of each profile group. A summary of these studies, provided by Specht et al. (2014), is found in Table 2.2. While there has been some variance in the composition of the three profile groups, a relatively consistent

pattern of personality profiles for each group has emerged (Specht et al., 2014). In general, these scholars have found the Resilient class to be most consistently comprised of individuals who are relatively high on extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness and relatively low on neuroticism. Scholars have also defined the Resilient class as being high on openness to experience in 40% of their studies (Robins et al., 1996). The Undercontroller class has most consistently defined as being comprised of individuals who are particularly low in conscientiousness, with Undercontrollers being described as being low in agreeableness in about 45% of the studies. Undercontrollers are described as being around the average on the other three traits (Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). The Overcontroller class is most consistenly defined as being comprised of individuals who are particularly low on extraversion and high on neuroticism, while approximately 45% of studies have also described Overcontrollers as being low in openness as well. Most studies have described Overcontrollers as being around average on the other two traits (Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). In this dissertation, I will focus on these three distinct personality types in the development of my theoretical model, and therefore offer the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 10a: The individuals in the study sample can be separated into three distinct profile groups (i.e. Resilients, Undercontrollers, Overcontrollers) based upon their standing on the Five Factor Model personality traits.*

Hypothesis 10b: The Resilient class will be comprised of individuals who are comparatively high on extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and comparatively low on neuroticism.

Hypothesis 10c: The Undercontroller class will be comprised of individuals who are comparatively low on conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Hypothesis 10d: The Overcontroller class will be comprised of individuals who are comparatively low on extraversion and openness, and high on neuroticism.

Just as with job characteristics, the key mediator that explains the relationship between a person's personality profile and his or her perceptions of experienced meaningfulness is through the activation of one or more of the four pathways to meaningfulness. Recall that the relative importance of these four meaning of work goals to the individual in terms of their connection to the attainment of experienced meaningfulness arises from the person's motivational strivings, which are rooted in the person's personality traits. Therefore, the person's personality trait profile and the cognitive motivational strivings that arise from that profile together represent the distal and proximal forces, respectively, that capture the directedness and intentionality to one's pursuit of meaningfulness (Barrick et al., 2013). Activation of one or more of the four pathways, then, represent the individual's cognitively-based evaluation of the degree to which those pursuits have achieved that end, and are the most proximal predictors of experienced meaningfulness.

Although strongly impacted by the on-the-job experiences that provide cues that the individual's purposeful actions lead to meaningful work, I posit that one's

personality profile will also be directly related to one's perceptions of meaningfulness

through each of the four pathways, and this occurs for two reasons. First, one of the

fundamental assumptions underlying this dissertation that arises from the meaning of

work literature and the TPWB is that individuals have a strong desire to achieve

purposefulness and meaningfulness at work (Barrick et al., 2013). This fundamental

desire leads individuals to actively engage in efforts to shape their work environment so

that their actions at work may be more aligned with the goals that are most meaningful

to them (Barrick et al., 2013; Bell & Staw, 1989; Rosso et al., 2010). These actions may

take the form of job crafting efforts within a specific job (Berg et al., 2010; Cohen, 2013;

Wrzesnieski & Dutton, 2001) or through self-selection out of and into jobs that allow for

a higher degree of fulfillment (Kristof, 1996; Schneider, 1987). Therefore, I argue that

there is certain degree of equifinality with respect to these pathways to meaningfulness

in that while the desired state of experienced meaningfulness is relatively common

across all individuals, the manner and the degree to which individuals will engage in

purposeful actions to actively shape one's work environment to attain that end differs

across individuals.

Second, another fundamental assumption of the TPWB and the meaning of work

literature is that the individual is the ultimate judge of what constitutes meaningful work

(Rosso et al., 2010). Therefore, I posit that in addition to the tangible efforts individuals

engage in to shape their work environment, individuals will also actively shape their

psychological perceptions of their environment as well (Rosso et al., 2010). I posit that

through the sensemaking process, individuals will be "crafters of meaning" and through

this process will alter their evaluations of their work experiences in ways that are more favorable to the attainment of meaningfulness (Weick, 1995; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Specifically, I posit that when individuals are making evaluations regarding the meaningfulness of their work, they will focus those evaluations on the aspects of their work that they perceive to be most meaningful in accordance with their most salient meaning of work goals. As the three personality classes represent a categorical rather than a continuous variable, the relationship between personality classes and perceptions of meaningfulness through the four pathways will be evaluated through a comparison of means rather than regression coefficients. Therefore, the following paragraphs and the resulting hypotheses will be described and stated so as to be consistent with this distinction.

The Resilient class is comprised of individuals who are relatively high in the four positive personality traits and low in the one negative trait (i.e. neuroticism). As such, Resilients are ambitious and have a desire to dominate others (Digman, 1990; Specht et al., 2014). This leads them to have a greater desire for status, which is fulfilled through activities that allow them to attain power and influence over others. In addition to being ambitious, Resilients are also curious, creative, and unconventional, and are high in intellectance (i.e. high openness). This leads them to have a greater striving for autonomy, which is fulfilled by experiences that provide greater activation of the role mastery and personal control at work pathway. Resilients have a low level of stress, anxiety, and insecurity and are also dependable and deliberate in their work (i.e. low neuroticism and high conscientiousness). This creates in them a desire for achievement,

which is fulfilled through actions that reinforce one's accomplishments at work and activate the gaining clarity of accomplishments pathway. Finally, in addition to being emotionally stable, Resilients are also cooperative, kind, warm, gentle, and trusting and trustworthy (i.e. high agreeableness). This leads them to have a greater desire for communion, which most strongly activates the acquiring social impact pathway. In sum, I posit that Resilients will engage in more proactive efforts to craft their jobs so as to provide them with experiences that fulfill these desires and thus activate all four of these pathways to meaningfulness. In addition, I posit that due to Resilients strong overall emotional state, they will also be more adept at shaping their psychological evaluations of their work experiences so as to be more meaningful and fulfilling with respect to these four pathways. Thus, perceptions of experienced meaningfulness will be higher for Resilients as compared to both Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers across all four meaningful pathways.

Undercontrollers are particularly low on conscientiousness and agreeableness, which means that they are not dependable, orderly, nor deliberate; nor are they generally cooperative, trustful, compliant, affable, warm, gentle or kind (Digman, 1990; Specht et al., 2014). These attributes are most relevant to their striving for achievement and for communion, respectively (Barrick et al., 2013). However, these two motivational strivings are also driven by one's level of neuroticism, and Undercontrollers' level of neuroticism is at or near the average in comparison to the other two classes. Therefore, on balance, I posit that Undercontrollers will engage in fewer purposeful actions that will create job experiences that activate the gaining clarity of accomplishments and

acquiring social impact pathways to meaningfulness. In addition, as Undercontrollers have only a moderate level of overall emotional adjustment, I also posit that they are less able to adjust their psychological perceptions of their work experiences to be favorable toward the pursuit of meaningfulness. As such, I posit that perceptions of the fulfillment of these two pathways will be moderately low for Undercontrollers.

With respect to the other two pathways (i.e. attaining power and recognition and developing role mastery and control), I posit that Undercontrollers will exhibit a moderate level of purposeful job crafting and psychological-crafting efforts. This is due to Undercontrollers possessing a relatively neutral or average level of the attributes that are most strongly connected to these two goals. Attaining power and recognition is most strongly connected to one's striving for status, which arises out of one's desire for ambition and dominance (i.e. high extraversion; Barrick et al., 2013). Developing role mastery and control is most strongly connected to one's striving for autonomy, which in addition to the desire for ambition and dominance, arises out of one's desire to be creative, unconventional, broad-minded, and flexible (i.e. high openness). As such, I posit that Undercontrollers will engage in a moderate amount of purposeful actions aimed at shaping their work environment in order to activate these particular pathways. In addition, as stated previously, Undercontrollers have only a moderate level of overall emotional adjustment, and thus will only moderately shape their psychological perceptions of their work experiences to be favorable toward the pursuit of meaningfulness through these two pathways. In sum, I posit that perceptions of attaining

power and recognition and developing role mastery and control will be moderately high for Undercontrollers.

Overcontrollers are defined as being particularly low on extraversion, openness to experience and are high on neuroticism (Specht et al., 2014). As such, they are generally not sociable, do not desire to dominate others, and are not particularly ambitious, which means that they will exhibit a very low level of striving for status (Barrick, et al., 2013; Digman, 1990). In addition to these qualities, they are generally not creative, unconventional, broad-minded, nor flexible, which results in a very low level of striving for autonomy (Barrick et al., 2013). Therefore, I posit that Overcontrollers will engage in very few purposeful actions toward obtaining greater power and recognition or developing role mastery and control as compared to the other two classes. Going further, Overcontrollers' attributes are the least aligned with those that would most enable individuals to successfully shape their work environment with respect to these two pathways to meaningfulness as compared to any of the other pathways or personality classes. Thus, I posit that perceptions of activation of attaining power and recognition and developing role mastery and control will be very low for Overcontrollers.

Finally, Overcontrollers are comparatively high in neuroticism which means that they are more anxious, hostile, depressed, emotionally brittle, and insecure as compared to the individuals in the other two classes (Digman, 1990; Specht et al., 2014). These attributes are in part, those that are most strongly connected to the level of striving for achievement and communion (along with conscientiousness and agreeableness,

80

respectively; Barrick et al., 2013). However, Overcontrollers possess a relatively average or neutral level of conscientiousness and agreeableness. As such, I posit that Overcontrollers will exhibit a moderate ability to successfully engage in tangible efforts that shape their work experiences but a relatively weak ability to adjust their psychological evaluations or perceptions of their work as being meaningful through the gaining clarity of accomplishments and acquiring social impact pathways. Therefore, I posit that Overcontrollers will experience a moderately low level of fulfillment of gaining clarity of accomplishments and acquiring social impact that is at a relatively equivalent level with that of Undercontrollers for these same two goals. An illustration of these hypotheses is shown in Table 2-1.

> *Hypothesis 11a: Perceptions of fulfillment of the developing role mastery and personal control meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients, moderate for Undercontrollers, and very low for Overcontrollers.*
>
> *Hypothesis 11b: Perceptions of fulfillment of the clarity of accomplishments meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients and low for both Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.*
>
> *Hypothesis 11c: Perceptions of fulfillment of the acquiring social impact meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients and low for both Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.*
>
> *Hypothesis 11d: Perceptions of fulfillment of the attaining recognition and influence meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients, moderate for Undercontrollers, and very low for Overcontrollers.*

Table 2-1 Level of Meaning of Work Goal Fulfillment across Personality Classes

	Developing Role Mastery & Control	Gaining Clarity of Accomp.	Acquiring Social Impact	Attaining Power & Recognition
Resilients	High	High	High	High
Undercontrollers	Moderate	Low	Low	Moderate
Overcontrollers	Very low	Low	Low	Very low

Joint Impact of Job Characteristics and Personality Traits on Meaningfulness

Now that I have articulated the hypotheses related to how job characteristics and personality traits influence perceptions of meaningfulness through the four pathways, in the final section of this chapter I will focus on describing how these person and situational characteristics combine to jointly impact meaningfulness through these same pathways. The key theoretical question underlying the hypotheses that I will present in this section is: what is the nature of the interaction between job characteristics and personality classes? I submit that the joint influence of job characteristics and personality classes may be either synergistic or compensatory in nature, and that there is adequate theoretical basis for either type of interaction. It is important to note that although the TPWB presents propositions related to the joint influence of job characteristics and personality traits on experienced meaningfulness, the authors do not explicitly state their position on the nature of the interaction. However, in evaluating the interaction propositions that they present, they seem to imply that they are proposing a synergistic interaction between job characteristics and personality traits. For example,

Barrick and colleagues state that the job characteristics of social support, interdependence, and interaction outside the organization would represent concordant job situations for highly agreeable and emotionally stable individuals due to them possessing a higher level of the drive for communion as compared to individuals low in these two traits. In contrast, they argue that situations that are low in these same job characteristics would be highly discordant to individuals who highly agreeable and emotionally stable as they do not provide the experiences that enable the fulfillment of their communion goals (Barrick et al., 2013). Beyond that, the theory is relatively silent on presenting any further theoretical arguments regarding the nature of the interaction, and thus presents an opportunity for me to address this important theoretical issue and extend the TPWB with this dissertation. Therefore, in the following paragraphs I will briefly provide the theoretical justification that would support either type of interaction, and then I will present my remaining hypotheses by adopting one of these perspectives. Presenting and testing these interaction hypotheses will enable me to make an important contribution to the literature and specifically extend the TPWB by providing greater clarity regarding the nature of the interaction between job characteristics and personality trait classes when predicting experienced meaningfulness at work.

The theoretical justification for a synergistic interaction between job characteristics and personality classes is rooted in the concept of person-environment fit, which broadly defined is the compatibility between one's individual characteristics and those of one's work environment (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). More specifically, person-job (P-

J) fit is defined as a form of complementary fit in which certain aspects of the one (i.e. person or job) make whole or complement the characteristics of the other, such as when aspects of the job meet what an individual needs, wants or desires from that job (Edwards, 2008; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). This form of P-J fit has been referred to by scholars as needs-supplies fit (Caplan, 1987) or supplies-values fit (Edwards, 1996; Shaw & Gupta, 2004). In the current model, the motivational strivings and the corresponding meaning of work goals that a person views as being the dominant pathway to meaningfulness represent the person's needs and the task or social characteristics that provide or allow for experiences to fulfill those goals represent the supplies that fulfill those needs. Thus, the very highest levels of experienced meaningfulness would occur when a person's given task or social characteristics are aligned (i.e. concordant situation) with the meaning of work goals that are most salient to that individual. In contrast, a misalignment between an individual's task and social characteristics and his or her higher-order goals (i.e. discordant situation) could actually be detrimental to perceptions of meaningfulness as the motivational strivings and meaning of work goals that are most important to the individual are not being met or fulfilled by the situational characteristics of the work environment.

The other theoretically sound possibility is that the interaction between job characteristics and personality trait classes is compensatory or substitutive rather than synergistic in nature. Briefly defined, a compensatory interaction of person and situational characteristics asserts that a "low" level on one of the factors (i.e. either the person or the situational characteristics) can be compensated for by a "high" level of the

other. The notion of a compensatory relationship between person and situational characteristics has been presented by past scholars that have focused on job crafting (i.e. Grant & Parker, 2009; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and depleted job characteristics theory (Grant, 2012). Applying this to the current model, the highest level of experienced meaningfulness would result when there is an "activation" of a particular pathway to meaningfulness. More specifically, each pathway could be activated due to either a high level of an enriched job characteristic *or* by the individual possessing a high level of the motivational striving that is most relevant to that particular pathway. In simple terms, this would mean that in order for experienced meaningfulness to be at a relatively high level, the person either needs the right "type" of personality profile or experience a high level of certain task or social characteristics, but there is little incremental gain to meaningfulness at work by having both. Thus, while the Resilient class is posited to have the highest levels of experienced meaningfulness compared to the other two classes when considering only the personality traits, the Undercontroller and Overcontroller classes would have the potential for the greatest gains in perceptions of experienced meaningfulness when presented with a higher level of meaningful job characteristics.

In this dissertation, I adopt the latter perspective and argue that the relationship between task and social characteristics and personality trait profile classes is best described as a compensatory rather than a synergistic interaction. The principal reason I propose a compensatory interaction is based upon the theoretical frameworks I have drawn upon in developing my theoretical model as described earlier. This key tenet of

both the meaning of work literature and the TPWB is that individuals desire to experience meaningfulness at work *and* that they engage in purposeful actions to achieve that desired state. Thus, consistent with these frameworks I contend that rather than being passive recipients of their work environment, individuals actually engage in purposeful actions to actively shape their environment in both tangible and psychological ways so as to increase the meaningfulness that they experience at work (Barrick et al., 2013; Rosso et al., 2010). One of the conceptual issues that exists in the person x situation interactionist perspective is the notion of situation strength. Conceptually, situation strength is defined as the degree to which situational demands constrain one's preferences for certain volitional actions or behaviors that arise from their personality traits (Meyer, Dala, & Hermida, 2010; Mischel, 1968). Thus, "strong" situations would indicate that the relevant situational or environmental characteristics are the more dominant term in the P x E equation in terms of the predictive validity on the outcomes of interest. Thus, as mentioned, this perspective largely ignores the influence that within-person attributes have on perceptions of meaningfulness when considered in combination with situational characteristics such as enriched task and social characteristics.

In this dissertation, I offer a corollary to the notion of situation strength and the potential for situational factors to override within-person factors when predicting outcomes such as meaningfulness at work. I propose that different personality types, such as those represented by the personality classes, may vary in terms of the degree to which individuals will actively engage in purposeful job-crafting or psychological-

86

crafting efforts toward obtaining the fundamental desire of meaningful work. Along these lines, I propose that there will be variance across personality types in terms of the degree to which individuals are susceptible to or dependent upon the influence of certain characteristics of their work environment in order for them to experience a high level of meaningfulness at work. Specifically, I submit that there are certain what I refer to as "desirable" personality types who tend to engage in more proactive efforts to shape their work environment, and who are also more capable of shaping their psychological perceptions of the meaningfulness of their work to be generally positive rather than negative. In contrast, I posit that certain personality types that may be considered "less desirable" will be less likely to engage in proactive efforts to shape their work environment in tangible ways, and will also tend to have more negatively-skewed psychological crafting of their perceptions of their work environment. Thus, for these desirable personality types, experienced meaningfulness is driven more strongly by their own dispositions and is less dependent upon the presence of certain situational and environmental characteristics they encounter in their work, such as those that are relatively narrowly represented by the specific task or social characteristics included here. In contrast, I propose that the reverse is true for undesirable personality types and that their perceptions of meaningfulness and the pathways that lead to it are more strongly dependent upon the situational cues arising from the work environment, such as those represented by task or social characteristics.

Applying this proposition to the current framework, I propose that the Resilient class represents a desirable personality type due to these individuals being comparatively

high on the four positive personality dimensions (i.e. extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness) and low on the fifth (i.e. neuroticism). In contrast, I suggest that Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers in particular, may be considered less desirable personality types due to negative attributes and tendencies related to their standing on the Big Five personality dimensions. Therefore, in terms of the interaction between person and task and social job characteristics, I posit that the highest overall levels of perceptions of goal fulfillment and experienced meaningfulness will be among the Resilients as compared to the Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers. In addition, the highest discrepancy in experienced meaningfulness between Resilients in comparison to Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers will be when the meaningful task or social characteristics are low. However, I also posit that as perceptions of enriched task and social characteristics increases, the gains to one's perceptions of pathway fulfillment and experienced meaningfulness will be stronger for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers as compared to Resilients. When perceptions of task or social characteristics are very high, I posit that while experienced meaningfulness will still be highest for Resilients, the difference in perceptions of meaningfulness between Resilients and Undercontrollers or Overcontrollers will be much smaller as compared to when task or social characteristics are low.

In summary, I offer the following propositions regarding the joint impact of personality classes and job characteristics on perceptions of meaningfulness and the fulfillment of the four pathways to it. These propositions will be formalized as hypotheses in the remaining section of this chapter. First, I propose that considering

personality classes and job characteristics jointly explains unique variance in perceptions of experienced meaningfulness through each of the four pathways beyond that which is explained by either personality classes or job characteristics individually. Second, I propose that the nature of the interaction between personality classes and task and social job characteristics is compensatory in nature, meaning that a relatively high level of experienced meaningfulness occurs when either the perceptions of meaningful job characteristics are high, or when individuals possess a personality type that is more strongly connected to proactive efforts to shape their environment in order to activate specific pathways to meaningful work.

Developing Role Mastery and Control. The essence of the developing role mastery and personal control pathway to meaningfulness is comprised of two key components: having greater control over one's work environment and engaging in activities that allow for personal growth and development. As described earlier, of the three personality classes, Resilients are those who have the attributes that are most strongly connected to the drive to obtain role mastery and control and thus are the ones who will most actively work to shape their work environment so as to be in alignment with this pathway. Specifically, Resilients are self-confident, self-directed, well-adjusted, driven, assertive, and open to developing new skills and learning new ways of doing things (Digman, 1990; Robins, et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Therefore, I posit that Resilients will exert the greatest effort toward crafting their job and shaping their perceptions of their work so as to provide them with greater opportunities to obtain control, growth, and development at work. Thus, Resilients are less dependent upon

89

enriched job characteristics (i.e. autonomy, task variety, task identity, and feedback from the job or others) that are aimed at providing experiences that will give them the control and mastery that they seek. This is largely because Resilients are already actively finding ways to gain control, master their tasks, and continue to develop their skills without more passively reacting to situational cues originating from the work environment that aim to achieve that end.

In contrast, Overcontrollers are much more sensitive and emotionally fragile, introverted, less ambitious or dominant, shy, and timid as compared to the other two classes, but Resilients in particular (Digman, 1990; Robins, et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). I posit that Overcontrollers are much less likely to actively engage in proactive efforts to shape their work environment so as to provide them with greater control and developmental opportunities. As a consequence, I propose that Overcontrollers will not gain a sense of mastery and control over their work environment or be able to have meaningful development opportunities without being provided with job characteristics that facilitate this objective. This is not to say that they do not desire to have greater autonomy and control at work, but rather that they are less likely to proactively take it upon themselves without it being granted to them by others, such as leaders, or the work context itself. Thus, I posit that Overcontrollers will be more strongly influenced by situational cues arising from the relevant job characteristics that lead to experienced meaningfulness through granting them greater autonomy and control at work. For example, having greater job autonomy requires these individuals to take more control over their job tasks and be more accountable for developing the skills necessary to

90

accomplish those tasks when they may otherwise be too timid to initiate such efforts on their own. The ability to work on a wide variety of tasks (i.e. task variety) and to be able to work on an identifiable portion of the completed product (i.e. task identity) will also facilitate opportunities for control and skill development that they may not initiate on their own. Receiving feedback about their performance, either from the task itself or from others within the organization provides information regarding their performance and will identify opportunities for development, which may provide emotionally sensitive individuals greater assurance that they have the ability to manage their own tasks and career direction.

In between these two extremes, Undercontrollers are relatively neutral or possess a relatively average level of the attributes I have described that are most salient in terms of driving one's actions toward developing role mastery and control. Specifically, Undercontrollers are moderately open-minded, flexible, intellectant, sociable, dominant, and ambitious. Therefore, I posit that the relationship between these job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, task variety, task identity, feedback from the job, and feedback from others) will have a moderate impact on these individuals' perceptions that they are developing greater role mastery and control in their work. While they will not actively pursue taking on greater autonomy or task variety, if such characteristics are granted to them I submit that they will react favorably in terms of perceptions of meaningfulness through role mastery and control. In addition, receiving feedback from one's job or from others will also provide valuable information regarding one's task mastery and provide direction regarding opportunities for future development.

91

Thus, for developing role mastery and control, I posit that Overcontrollers will be most strongly influenced by enriched job characteristics that provide experiences that activate this pathway to meaningfulness, followed next by the Undercontrollers. Also, I posit that the overall level of individuals' perceptions of developing role mastery and control will be highest for Resilients, lower for Undercontrollers, and the lowest for Overcontrollers. Finally, as task identity and feedback from the job are less strongly connected to the developing role mastery pathway as compared to job autonomy, task variety, and feedback from others, I propose that the hypothesized relationships will be tempered for the former two characteristics as compared to the others. Thus, I offer the following hypotheses which are also illustrated in Figure 2-7.

> *Hypothesis 12: The relationship between a) job autonomy b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job and experienced meaningfulness through developing role mastery and control will be strongly positive for Overcontrollers, moderately positive for Undercontrollers, and weakly positive for Resilients.*

> *Hypothesis 13: The overall level of perceptions of role mastery and control and experienced meaningfulness due to a) job autonomy, b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job will be highest for Resilients, somewhat lower for Undercontrollers, and lowest for Overcontrollers.*

92

Figure 2-7 Hypothesized Relationship between Job Characteristics and Meaning of Work Goal Fulfillment across Personality Profiles

Meaningfulness through Developing Role Mastery & Control

Lo   Hi

Job Autonomy, Task Variety, & Feedback from Others

— Resilients
- - - - Undercontrollers
········· Overcontrollers

Meaningfulness through Developing Role Mastery & Control

Lo   Hi

Task Identity & Feedback from the Job

— Resilients
- - - - Undercontrollers
········· Overcontrollers

Figure 2-7 (Cont.)

Meaningfulness through Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments

Resilients

Undercontrollers & Overcontrollers

Lo   Hi

Task Identity, Feedback from Job or Others

Meaningfulness through Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments

Resilients

Undercontrollers & Overcontrollers

Lo   Hi

Job Autonomy, Task Variety, Task Significance

Figure 2-7 (Cont.)

Meaningfulness through Acquiring Social Impact

— Resilients

·············· Undercontrollers & Overcontrollers

Lo   Hi

Social Support, Task Int., Task Significance, & Feedback from the Job

Meaningfulness through Attaining Power & Recognition

— Resilients

- - - - Undercontrollers

·············· Overcontrollers

Lo   Hi

Power & Influence & Feedback from Others

Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments. Conceptually, gaining clarity of accomplishments is largely defined as the ability one has to demonstrate competence in one's work and to get things done (Allport, 1955; Barrick et al., working paper;

McClelland, 1951; White, 1959). Consistent with all of the four pathways to meaningfulness, individuals in the Resilient class are those who possess the most or the highest level of the attributes that will drive them to shape their work environment so as to activate this pathway to meaningfulness. Specifically, Resilients strive for achievement, are smart, driven, orderly, deliberate, and dependable. In addition, they are very emotionally secure, verbally expressive, and mature (Digman, 1990; Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Thus, they have a strong desire to demonstrate to others and to themselves that they are competent in their work and that they are able to complete discrete tasks and accomplish objectives on their own. I posit that they will purposefully shape their environment so as to fulfill these desires, and also that they will seek positive informational cues that reinforce their perceptions that they are indeed competent and that they get things done. Therefore, the degree to which these individuals perceive that they are gaining clarity regarding their accomplishments at work is more strongly driven by their personality traits and the degree to which those traits drive these individuals to actively rather than passively interact with their work environment. Similar to developing role mastery and control, being presented with enriched job characteristics that are connected with gaining clarity of accomplishments (i.e. job autonomy, task variety, task identity, and feedback from the job) provides less of an incremental impact to experienced meaningfulness through this pathway for Resilients as compared to other personality types.

However, in contrast to the pattern for developing role mastery and control, I propose that the strength of the relationship as well as the overall level of the perceptions

of experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments due to these job characteristics is relatively comparable between Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers. The reason for this is that individuals in these two personality classes possess a relatively moderate level of some of the attributes that are connected to the proactive, job-crafting efforts that will activate this pathway, but are largely lacking in others. Specifically, Undercontrollers are moderately stable and secure emotionally, but they are not very planful, dependable, orderly, or deliberate (Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Therefore, while they may be relatively receptive to receiving information regarding their competence, they will not proactively solicit this information. Also, due to these characteristics they lack certain key attributes related to the basic ability to get things done at work. To these individuals who may not be inherently orderly or deliberate in executing their work, feedback about their performance that comes directly from the job itself or from other persons can provide valuable information regarding ways in which they can improve their job-related competence and be better at completing tasks. The ability to work on an identifiable portion of the overall product (i.e. task identity) and receiving information regarding how that work affects others (i.e. task significance) will also encourage Undercontrollers to be less impulsive and recognize the importance of staying on task and completing their objectives. However, having increased job autonomy and engaging in a variety of tasks will provide the flexibility that is desired for Undercontrollers so that they can focus on tasks that are of more interest to them at the moment and that are aligned with their own self-interests, which will appease their stubbornness and impulsivity at times.

Differing from Undercontrollers, Overcontrollers are moderately dependable, orderly, deliberate and considerate, but they also tend to be more shy, timid, introverted and emotionally insecure and fragile (Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Therefore, Overcontrollers may have a stronger desire and ability to demonstrate competence and accomplish tasks than Undercontrollers, but they may also be more averse to seeking out these opportunities as well as any information regarding their pursuit of these objectives. For these individuals, feedback from the job and other individuals is less about getting them to complete task work like it is with Undercontrollers, and more about providing Overcontrollers with the desired information reinforcing their competence in performing those tasks. Similarly, working on an identifiable piece of work and understanding how that work impacts others also provides assurance of individual's competence as well as greater information regarding the degree to which they can accomplish objectives. Finally, while having greater autonomy at work is relatively desirable to Overcontrollers, I posit that due to their shy and timid nature, they will be hesitant to proactively seek these attributes without being granted greater job autonomy and task variety more formally through the design of their job structures and task demands.

Thus, for gaining clarity of accomplishments, I posit that Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers will be more strongly influenced by being presented with enriched job characteristics that activate the pathway of gaining clarity of accomplishments. Also, I posit that the overall level of individuals' perceptions of gaining clarity of accomplishments across the range of these job characteristics will be highest for Resilients and lower and relatively similar for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.

Finally, as task identity and feedback from the job provide experiences that are more strongly connected to gaining clarity of accomplishments as compared to job autonomy and task variety, I propose that the following hypothesized relationships will be somewhat tempered for these latter two job characteristics with respect to gaining clarity of accomplishments.

> *Hypothesis 14: The relationship between a) job autonomy, b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job and experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments will be strongly positive for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers and weakly positive for Resilients.*
>
> *Hypothesis 15: The overall level of perceptions of gaining clarity of accomplishments and experienced meaningfulness due to a) job autonomy, b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job will be highest for Resilients and somewhat lower for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.*

Acquiring Social Impact. The core of the acquiring social impact pathway to meaningfulness is having experiences that allow individuals to connect with others and to form meaningful, lasting relationships in the workplace (Bakan, 1966; Barrick et al., working paper; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). Once again, Resilients possess a high level of the personal attributes that are most strongly connected to behaviors that will lead to the fulfillment of this pathway to meaningfulness. Specifically, Resilients are cooperative, self-confident, trusting and trustworthy, affable, warm, kind, emotionally secure, full of energy, dependable, and not anxious or immature (Digman, 1990; Robins, et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). As such I posit that they will

have a strong desire to develop meaningful relationships and connect with others and have the interpersonal skills so as to be very capable of accomplishing this desire. Ultimately, I propose that their purposeful actions will be successful in terms of allowing Resilients to develop these meaningful social bonds. Thus, Resilients are less dependent upon being formally presented with task or social job characteristics that are aimed at facilitating the development of meaningful relationships at work. I do posit that these types of job characteristics will serve to enhance their own proactive efforts toward acquiring social impact (i.e. social support, task interdependence, task significance, and feedback from others), but I also propose that the incremental gains due to the presence of these characteristics above and beyond that which is explained by their personality traits will be relatively modest as compared to Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.

With respect to the other two classes, Undercontrollers are somewhat near average in terms of their emotional security, but they also tend to be more stubborn, self-centered, disobedient, and confrontational. Overcontrollers are warm, cooperative, and considerate, but also tend to be more introverted, timid, and emotionally insecure (Digman, 1990; Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Therefore, I propose that individuals in these two classes will have more difficulty connecting with others and forming positive, lasting relationships at work without being provided with enriched job characteristics that facilitate the accomplishment of this objective. Thus, they will benefit more greatly from structures or situational characteristics of their work environment that aid in the development of these connections and make their work experiences more meaningful. For example, having a highly supportive work

environment (i.e. social support) will be particularly beneficial to relationship development for individuals who are more introverted, timid and insecure (i.e. Overcontrollers). A supportive environment will also help some individuals overcome their natural inclination to be stubborn or confrontational (i.e. Undercontrollers). Being interdependent upon others in order to accomplish work tasks (i.e. task interdependence) and having a greater understanding of how one's work benefits others (i.e. task significance) may also encourage relatively self-centered individuals (i.e. Undercontrollers) to think beyond themselves and be more cognizant of how their work impacts the welfare of others. Interdependent work flows also encourage more frequent interaction among coworkers which will make it easier for more introverted and timid individuals (i.e. Overcontrollers) to interact with coworkers and to develop connections with them. Finally, receiving fair, developmental feedback regarding one's performance from others within the organization, such as leaders or coworkers, may serve to strengthen interpersonal bonds among individuals, particularly for those who are more sensitive and dependent upon positive feedback (i.e. Overcontrollers) or those who might tend to be more impulsive or disobedient and in need of more specific directives (i.e. Undercontrollers) regarding their work.

> *Hypothesis 16: The relationship between a) social support, b) task interdependence, c) task significance, and d) feedback from others and experienced meaningfulness through acquiring social impact will be strongly positive for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers and weakly positive for Resilients.*

Hypothesis 17: The overall level of perceptions of acquiring social impact and experienced meaningfulness due to a) social support, b) task interdependence, c) task significance, and d) feedback from others will be highest for Resilients, and somewhat lower for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.

Attaining Power and Recognition. At its heart, the attaining power and recognition pathway is defined as having experiences that allow one to exert power or influence over others and that reinforce one's standing within the organizational hierarchy (Adler, 1939; Barrick et al., working paper; Hogan, 1996). According to the TPWB, one's desire for status and recognition is most strongly connected to one's level of extraversion (Barrick et al., 2002; Barrick et al., 2013). Resilients are relatively high on extraversion and tend to be self-confident, self-directed, driven, assertive, intelligent, and energetic (Robins et al., 1996; Specht et al., 2014). Thus, I posit that they will be more strongly driven by the desire to obtain power and recognition and will proactively engage in actions toward that end as compared to Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers. For example, I propose that Resilients will be more likely to seek after and attain positions of leadership within the organizational hierarchy and to take advantage of the increasing authority that comes with those positions. In addition, I posit that by being sociable, energetic, and assertive, Resilient individuals are also more naturally able to exert their influence on the organization in more informal ways among those who may not fall directly under their stewardship. Thus, Resilients are less dependent upon job design structures which provide experiences that allow them to have the influence over others (i.e. power characteristics) or that may reinforce their standing within the

organizational hierarchy (i.e. feedback from others) in order to perceive that their actions are meaningful in this way.

In contrast, as Overcontrollers are more introverted, timid, dependent, and emotionally sensitive, I suggest that they stand to benefit the most from these job characteristics (i.e. power and feedback from others) with respect to their perceptions of meaningfulness through the attaining power and recognition pathway. Of the three personality types, Overcontrollers exhibit the greatest lack of many of the attributes that will enable them to be able to take upon themselves opportunities to have an influence over others, either in formal or informal ways. However, if these individuals are provided with characteristics or their job structure that grant these opportunities to them, such as being in a formal position that provides leadership responsibilities (i.e. role power), the impact to their perceptions of meaningfulness through attaining power and recognition will be much more strongly impacted as a result. In addition, if these individuals possess unique knowledge or abilities that they may use to influence others (i.e. expert power), their status within the organization will be reinforced and will provide a higher perception of power and recognition that would not be experienced without those opportunities. Thus, Overcontrollers' perceptions of meaningfulness through this pathway are strongly dependent upon their situational cues arising from their work environment.

I propose that the impact of experiences that provide for power and influence and feedback from others on experienced meaningfulness through attaining power and recognition for Undercontrollers will lie in between the previous two extremes.

Undercontrollers are stubborn, disobedient, and impulsive, which I propose will limit their ability to develop the ability to exert power or influence over others through their own actions due to the effect that these attributes will have on their relationships with those who work with these individuals. However, Undercontrollers also have the tendency to be self-centered, impulsive, manipulative and even confrontational, which means that they will desire to have the ability to exert influence over others, and therefore they will engage in more proactive efforts to obtain this influence as compared to Overcontrollers. In addition, I propose that they will take advantage of the more formal opportunities to gain power over others when they are presented to them. Also, I posit that Undercontrollers will focus their evaluation of the feedback they receive from others so as to reinforce their perceptions of their standing within the organization that arise from these self-interested motives. Therefore, Undercontrollers are more dependent upon the situational cues arising from these job characteristics (i.e. power and feedback from others) in terms of their impact on perceptions of attaining power and influence as compared to Resilients, but less so as compared to Overcontrollers.

> *Hypothesis 18: The relationship between a) power and b) feedback from others*
> *and experienced meaningfulness through attaining power and recognition will be*
> *strongly positive for Overcontrollers, moderately positive for Undercontrollers,*
> *and weakly positive for Resilients.*
> *Hypothesis 19: The overall level of perceptions of attaining power and*
> *recognition and experienced meaningfulness due to a) power and influence and*

104

b) feedback from others will be highest for Resilients, somewhat lower for

Undercontrollers, and lowest for Overcontrollers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Design

Participants in this study were individuals who were at least 25 years of age or older and who were also currently employed on a full-time basis working an average of at least 40 hours per week. Participants were recruited in one of two ways. The first recruiting strategy involved inviting students enrolled in one or more Management courses to provide referrals of individuals who met the inclusion criteria, and then these referrals were invited to participate in the study via email. In addition to providing the referrals, the students were also asked to rate some of the study variables so that they could be used as a hold-out sample for use in validating the measures of the fulfillment of the meaning of work goals. Other than comprising the hold-out sample for measure validation, the students were otherwise not included in the study sample. The second recruiting strategy involved distributing an email invitation to participate in the study, along with a brief pre-screening survey to the faculty, staff, and other full-time employees of a large university in the southern United States. A total of 273 individuals initially consented to participate in the study and also met the inclusion criteria. As there were three waves of data collection, there was some attrition between each wave of data collection. The final sample resulted in a total of 184 participants for which I had complete data on all the variables necessary to test my study hypotheses. Prior to merging the participants from these two recruiting strategies into one sample, I conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) test to see if there were any significant

differences between the two groups on any of the study variables, and found no significant differences.

The study variables were rated by participants through the use of three online surveys that were each distributed to participants via email. Measures of some demographic variables (i.e. sex, age, job industry, job tenure, organizational tenure) were collected as part of the survey for their potential use in some supplementary post-hoc analyses, but these variables are not directly related to the research questions at hand and therefore had no bearing on participants' inclusion or exclusion from the study. I distributed the collection of the survey measures across three different time points, with each survey being administered to study participants approximately two to four weeks apart from one another. This was done both to reduce the effects of common-source bias as well as to reflect the causality specified in the theoretical model. At Time 1, study participants provided ratings of their job characteristics and FFM personality traits. At Time 2, measures of fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals were provided by study participants, along with measures of goal orientation (i.e. learning, avoid-performance, and prove-performance goal orientations). Finally, at Time 3, study participants provided ratings of experienced meaningfulness, along with measures of proactive personality and regulatory (i.e. promotion and prevention) focus.

Measures

Demographics. Name, age, sex, ethnicity, and job industry were reported by respondents using a single item for each variable. The average age of study participants is 40 years old (SD = 12.0), the average job tenure is 5.33 years (SD = 7.7), and the

average organizational tenure is 7.9 years (SD = 8.8). Within the study sample, 31% are male, 60% are female, and 9% declined to provide their sex; 58% identified themselves as Caucasian, 4% as Hispanic/Latino, 3% as Black or African-American, and 31% chose not to provide their race/ethnicity. Of the job industries most heavily represented in the study sample, 45% indicated they are in the education industry, 16% work in professional, scientific, or technical services, 7% work in healthcare, while 13% indicated "Other." The next largest industries represented were construction and government with each category comprising 3.9% of participants in the study sample.

Task Characteristics. All of the task characteristics were assessed using the items found in the Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ) published by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006). Respondents were asked to indicate the level to which each of the various task and social characteristics is present in their current jobs. For all the WDQ scales, ratings were collected using a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). *Job autonomy* was measured using nine items total, three for each of the three types of job autonomy (work scheduling, decision-making, work methods). Example items include: "The job allows me to plan how I do my work" (work scheduling autonomy, α = .74), "The job allows me to make a lot of decision on my own" (decision-making autonomy, α = .67), and "The job allows me to make decisions about what methods I use to complete my work" (work methods autonomy, α =.80). The coefficient alpha for the combined nine-item job autonomy scale was .89. *Task variety* was measured using two items, an example of which is "The job involves doing a number of different things" (α = .84). *Task identity* was measured using three

items, an example of which is "The job involves completing a piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end" (α = .81). *Feedback from the job* was measured using three items, an example of which is "The job itself provides feedback on my performance" (α = .75). *Task significance* was measured using three items, an example of which is "The results of my work are likely to significantly affect the lives of other people" (α = .76).

        Social Characteristics. Three of the social characteristics, social support, task interdependence, and feedback from others were also measured using 5-point Likert scale items taken from the Work Design Questionnaire (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). *Social support* was measured using five items, an example of which is "I have the opportunity to develop close friendships in my job" (α = .80). *Task interdependence* was measured using five items total. Example items are "The job requires me to accomplish my job before others complete their job" (initiated interdependence) and "The job depends upon the work of many different people for its completion" (received interdependence). The coefficient alpha for the combined task interdependence scale was .78. *Feedback from others* was measured using three items, an example of which is "I receive a great deal of information from my manager and coworkers about my job performance" (α = .90). The fourth social characteristic, *power and influence*, was measured using eight items adapted from French and Raven's (1959) power scales that have been adapted to be similar to the WDQ scale items (see Barrick et al., working paper). These items are designed to assess two forms of power, expert and formal power, and example items are "other people come to me for advice on how to do their work" (expert power, α = .76) and "I directly supervise or have a say in supervising my

coworkers" (formal power, α = .87). The coefficient alpha for the combined power

measure was .83.

   Personality Traits. The Five Factor personality traits were measured using the

50-item scale found in the most recent version of the International Personality Item

Protocol scales (IPIP; Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger, & Gough,

2006). These scales have been developed so as to measure Costa and McCrae's (1985;

1992) conceptualization of the Five Factor traits. Similar to the task and social

characteristics, participants were asked to respond to items using a 5-point Likert scale

that ranges from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Example items are: "I

often feel blue" (neuroticism, α = .85), "I feel comfortable around people" (extraversion,

α = .86), "I have a vivid imagination" (openness to experience, α = .76), "I believe that

others have good intentions" (agreeableness, α = .77), and "I pay attention to details"

(conscientiousness, α = .85).

   Meaning of Work Goals. The measures assessing the activation or fulfillment of

the four meaning of work pathways were adapted using the Basic Needs Satisfaction at

Work Scale (see Deci, Ryan, Gagne, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Greguras

and Diefendorff, 2009) as well as measures of the four cognitive motivational strivings

(i.e. autonomy, status, achievement, and communion) used in a working paper by

Barrick and colleagues (Barrick et al., working paper). The Basic Needs Satisfaction

scales measure the degree to which one's work fulfills one's desire for autonomy,

competence, and relatedness. In the Barrick et al. working paper, the items measuring

three of the four strivings (i.e. achievement, status, and communion striving) were taken

from Barrick, Stewart, and Piotrowski's (2002) motivational orientation inventory (MOI), and the items assessing status-striving were developed to measure the desire for autonomy and growth following the pattern of the MOI. The four cognitive motivational strivings are rooted in one's personality traits, and are more stable, trait-like characteristics. One's perceptions of fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals are conceptually more state-like and evaluative in nature. Therefore, the measures for this dissertation were adapted so as to more adequately capture one's evaluative judgments of the degree to which the experiences of one's job activates or is aligned with one of the four pathways to meaningfulness.

The fulfillment or activation of the four pathways was measured using five items each, and example items include "I experience a strong sense of achievement" (gaining clarity of accomplishments), "I experience a strong sense of freedom because I can decide when and how to do my job" (developing role mastery and control), "I experience a strong sense of belonging" (acquiring social impact), and "I experience a lot of recognition and status from my work" (attaining power and recognition). As these meaning of work goal fulfillment scales are adapted measures, it is necessary to provide some evidence of their validity before proceeding further.

Although each of the combined scale reliabilities was adequate when using all five items for each meaning of work goal, there were some items that exhibited poor corrected item-total scale correlations and thus raise some concern. To address these concerns, I evaluated the corrected item-to-total scale correlations as well as conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the four meaning of work goal fulfillment and the

111

meaningfulness measures using the student hold-out sample. One of the developing role mastery and control items ("I am free to express my own ideas and opinions on the job") had an item-to-total scale correlation of only .49, while the remaining four items item-total correlations ranged from .64 to .72. In terms of the exploratory factor analysis, this same item had a poor loading on its dominant factor ($\lambda = .41$), while the other four items had factor loadings ranging from .70 to .82 on this same factor. In evaluating the wording of this item more closely in comparison to the other four items, it appears that this item is more focused on employee voice rather than being focused on finding fulfillment through governing one's own actions and decisions at work. Thus, given these empirical and conceptual issues, I dropped this item and included only the remaining four items in the final developing role mastery and control scale, and this four-item scale had a coefficient alpha of .85.

The other meaning of work goal that I found to have issues with certain items was the acquiring social impact scale. Two of this scale's items (i.e. "I get to work with and support others in my work" and "In my work, I make a difference that matters to others") also exhibited poor corrected item-total scale correlations of .42 and .44, respectively, while the remaining three items exhibited item-scale correlations of .66 or higher. In addition, these same items have poor factor loadings on the dominant factor ($\lambda = .42, .20$, respectively). In looking at the wording of the items, these items seem to be more focused on the structural aspects of their social work environment rather than on how much fulfillment occurs as a result of those structural characteristics. In addition, the structural characteristics these items refer to have a high degree of conceptual

overlap with two predictors in my dissertation model, specifically social support and task significance. Thus, I dropped these two problematic items and used the three remaining items to measure the acquiring social impact meaning of work goal, and the revised scale has a coefficient alpha of .84. For the two remaining meaning of work goals (i.e. gaining clarity of accomplishments, $\alpha = .88$; attaining power and recognition, $\alpha = .90$), the results of the reliability and factor analyses were adequate and therefore all five items were retained for these two measures.

Meaningfulness. Experienced meaningfulness at work was assessed using three items first compiled in an unpublished doctoral dissertation by Tymon (1988). One of Tymon's meaningfulness items was taken directly from Hackman and Oldham's (1980) meaningfulness scale, and this item as well as two others were subsequently used by Spreitzer (1995) to measure the meaning sub-dimension of psychological empowerment. While this sub-dimension is referred to as meaning, these items more appropriate measure meaningfulness as opposed to meaning as differentiated earlier in this dissertation. This distinction is supported as Spreitzer's items were later used by May and colleagues (2004) to measure meaningfulness as being one of the three key antecedents to work engagement (the other two being psychological safety and availability; see also Kahn, 1990). The three items used to measure meaningfulness in this dissertation are: "The work I do is very important to me", "My job activities are personally meaningful to me" and "I believe that my work is very worthwhile." The coefficient alpha for the meaningfulness scale was .92.

Additional Variables. While not included in the theoretical model and hypotheses, I collected measures of some of the other personality trait frameworks so as to have the ability to conduct an empirical assessment of the relationship between these variables and those that are included in the hypothesized model. The three trait-like *goal orientations* were assessed using the 15-item measure developed by VandeWalle (1997). Example items include: "I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge" (learning goal orientation" ($\alpha = .81$), "I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work (prove performance goal orientation" ($\alpha = .60$), and "I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly (avoid performance goal orientation" ($\alpha = .78$). *Proactive personality* was measured using the 17-item measure developed by Bateman and Crant (1993), an example item being "I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life" ($\alpha = .90$). *Regulatory focus* was measured using the 11-item measure developed by Higgins, Friedman, Harlow, Idson, Ayduk, & Taylor (2001). Example items include "do you often do well at different things that you try?" (Promotion focus, $\alpha = .66$) and "How often did you obey rules and regulations that were established by your parents?" (Prevention focus, $\alpha = .80$).

Analytical Approach

In order to test the study model and the associated hypotheses that are presented in Chapter 2, I will utilize two different methodological approaches. As the individuals in the sample are not nested within groups or organizations, and I do not have repeated measures of study variables, there is no need to incorporate statistical methods that would account for such nesting effects using random coefficient modeling. To test the

hypotheses related to the effects that the task and social characteristics have on the fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals, I use multiple regression approach, the reasons for which will be outlined in greater detail in Chapter 4. To test the hypotheses related to the identification of the personality classes and the direct, indirect, and interactive effects that the personality classes have on experienced meaningfulness through each pathway (i.e. hypotheses 11 – 21), I use a form of latent mixture modeling known as latent profile analysis (LPA). Latent profile analysis falls within a family of "person-centered" analytical techniques that are distinctly different from traditional variable-centered methodological approaches, which seek to explain the variance in a given criterion variable using one or more predictors in the model (Meyer et al., 2013). One of the key assumptions of variable-centered approaches is that the study sample, and the population from which it is drawn, is homogenous and therefore that the relationships between variables apply more or less uniformly across the population of interest (Meyer et al., 2013; Morin et al., 2011; Pastor, Barron, Miller, & Davis, 2007). One of the limitations of variable-centered approaches is that they ignore the possibility that there may be subgroups of individuals within the population for which the relationships between variables are quantitatively and qualitatively different from one another (Marsh, Ludke, Trautwein, & Morin, 2009).

In contrast, person-centered approaches such as cluster analysis and latent profile analysis specifically evaluate the theoretical proposition that there are unobservable subgroups of individuals within a population that share similar patterns of relationships among variables (Block, 1971; Meyer et al., 2013; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009).

Person-centered approaches are focused on identifying these distinct groups, and these profile groups can then become an additional study variable that can be incorporated into theoretical models similar to any other categorical variable (Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009). The most commonly used person-centered methods utilized by social science researchers are median-split, cluster analysis, and mixture modeling, and each has their own unique strengths and limitations (Morin et al., 2011; Pastor et al., 2007). The median-split approach consists of classifying individuals as being either high or low on each of the variables of interest, and the total possible number of profile groups is simply two times the number of variables used to classify the individuals to account for each of the different high/low combinations. Perhaps the primary strength of a median-split approach is its simplicity and ease of use (Pastor et al., 2007), while the most critical shortcoming is that it may be overly rigid and simplistic in terms of the various possible profile groups that describe the sample (Kaplan & Midgley, 1997; Meece & Holt, 1993; Pastor et al., 2007). In addition, forcing the continuous scale scores into dichotomous high/low groups may be overly rigid in terms of capturing the actual subgroups that exist within the population. Third, the reliance on the sample median makes comparisons across studies challenging (Maxwell & Delaney, 1993).

Various forms of cluster analysis overcome many of the shortcomings of median-split analysis by identifying distinct subgroups or classes of individuals that actually exist within the sample by minimizing within-cluster variation and maximizing between-group variation on a number of given variables (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Everitt, Landau, & Leese, 2001). In addition, clustering approaches allow us to evaluate more

complex combinations of variables than can easily be done with the median-split approach. In addition, clustering methods retain more of the information embedded within each variable that is lost, such as when dichotomizing continuous variables using the median-split method.

One of the shortcomings of clustering methods is that while there are some statistics available to aid in determining the appropriate number of classes within a sample, these are not always applicable which leads to subjectivity in model selection decisions (Milligan & Cooper, 1985; Meyer et al., 2013). In addition, cluster analysis relies upon rigid assumptions related to conditional independence and class-invariant variances, which are often violated, and often is biased toward producing classes of relatively equal size (Meyer et al., 2013; Morin et al., 2011). Finally, traditional clustering methods are not model-based, and therefore combined variables, and as such much of the information embedded in the individual variable is lost when incorporating the clustered variable into a model as a predictor, moderator, etc.

To overcome many of the limitations of median-split or clustering methods in their person-centered research studies, more and more scholars have begun utilizing more sophisticated, latent variable mixture modeling methods such as latent profile analysis. Latent profile analysis, also referred to in the literature by names such as latent class cluster analysis and finite mixture modeling, is similar to cluster analysis in that the goal is to identify subgroups of individuals that have similar values on a group of variables of interest (McLachlan & Peel, 2000; Muthen & Muthen, 2000; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002). The fundamental difference between latent profile analysis and most

clustering methods is that the LPA is a model-based method while most clustering

methods (e.g. hierarchical, k-means) are not (Pastor et al., 2007; Thurgood & Barrick,

2015). In essence, this means that the identification of the latent classes as well as the

evaluation of relationships between the classes and other study variables are evaluated

simultaneously in one latent mixture model. In addition, with traditional clustering

methods each individual is wholly assigned to a cluster, and much of the information in

the original variables is lost when proceeding with the clustered variable. In contrast,

while the classes identified using LPA represent a categorical variable, membership

within each cluster for each individual is expressed in terms of a continuous probability.

This means that these cluster variables retain more information with respect to the

composition of the classes compared to traditional clustering methods.

Of the available person-centered approaches, latent profile analysis is described

as being the most powerful as well as the most complex, with several key advantages

over traditional clustering method (see Meyer et al., 2013; Thurgood & Barrick, 2015).

First, LPA is model-based and allows within and between-group variance and co-

variance parameters to be constrained or freely estimated (Pastor et al., 2007). Second,

LPA provides several rigorous statistical criteria for use in determining the appropriate

number of classes within the sample, such as a number of information criteria and

bootstrap likelihood ratio tests (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthen, 2007). Third, while not

applicable to this dissertation, variables measured using different scales (e.g. 5-point vs.

9-point) or even different scale types (e.g. continuous vs. categorical) can be used as

class or profile indicators without requiring any data transformation (Muthen, 2002;

Thurgood & Barrick, 2015). While latent profile analysis has several strengths, it is not without its limitations, as is the case with any statistical methodology (see Bauer & Curran, 2003; Nylund et al., 2007; Pastor et al., 2007). However, similar to the limitations of other methods, many of these limitations deal with the underlying data used in the methodology and can be addressed during the analysis of the data and the interpretation of the results. Therefore, latent profile analysis represents the most sophisticated and appropriate method for testing the hypotheses presented in this dissertation. I will conduct both the structural equation modeling and the latent profile analysis using the latest version of the Mplus software package (v7.3, Muthen & Muthen, 2014).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

I performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the Mplus version 7.3 (Muthen & Muthen, 2014) software package in order to establish the discriminant validity of all of the study variables. Because of the conceptual overlap between each of the four meaning of work goals themselves as well as my outcome variable (i.e. meaningfulness), I will pay particular attention on evaluating the discriminant validity of these constructs before moving on to test my hypotheses. Due to the challenges associated with having a relatively modest sample size in combination with a model with a large number of constructs, I randomly combined items into one of three indicator packets for constructs measured using more than three items. For those constructs that were measured using only three items (i.e. many of the job characteristics) I used the items themselves as the indicators of the latent construct. In addition, I focused only on those constructs that are contained in the hypothesized model and omitted the potential control variables in the CFA in order to reduce the number of parameters to be estimated and maintain a favorable sample size-to-parameter ratio. I compared the fit of the hypothesized model in which all constructs are distinct from one another as hypothesized with several alternative models that combined one or more of the meaning of work goals and/or meaningfulness into single factors.

The CFA results are shown in Table 4-1 which show each model's chi-square value, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980),

120

comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Hu & Bentler, 1999). In the alternative Model 1, gaining clarity of accomplishments and meaningfulness are combined into a single factor. In Model 2, acquiring social impact and attaining power and recognition are combined. In Model 3, gaining clarity of accomplishments and attaining power are combined. In Models 4, 5, and 6, I combined the four meaning of work goals into two pairs using the agency-communion/self-others 2 x 2 framework. Finally, Model 7 represents a higher-order latent factor structure in which the four meaning of work goals are retained as distinct, first-order factors that load onto a single, second-order "meaning of work fulfillment" factor. Results shown in Table 4-1 indicate that in general the hypothesized model (19 distinct factors) displays adequate fit (χ^2 = 2194.277, RMSEA = .057, CFI = .86, SRMR = .068) to the data, although the CFI is lower than what is generally considered for an acceptable fitting model. However, the CFI calculations pay a penalty for each parameter that is estimated and thus for a measurement model with this many latent factors relative to the sample size, lower CFI values are not surprising. It is important to note that the hypothesized model displays a better fit with the data compared to the null model or any of the alternative models. Therefore, there is sufficient evidence that shows that the measures of the study variables are capturing constructs that are distinct from one another.

Table 4-1 Comparison of Measurement Models for Study Variables

Structure	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Null model: All indicators are independent	8040.11		1540			
Hypothesized Model: 19 factors	2194.28	-	1313	0.057	0.864	0.068
Model 1: Gaining clarity/ meaningfulness combined	2280.53	86.26	1331	0.059	0.854	0.071
Model 2: Social impact/ attaining power combined	2314.33	120.06	1331	0.060	0.849	0.072
Model 3: Gaining clarity/ attaining power combined	2348.79	154.51	1331	0.061	0.843	0.071
Model 4: Self-others MOW goals combined	2523.03	328.75	1348	0.065	0.819	0.078
Model 5: Agency-communion goals combined	2553.50	359.23	1348	0.066	0.815	0.078
Model 6: Cross-quadrant MOW goals combined	2562.81	368.53	1348	0.066	0.813	0.078
Model 7: 2nd-order MOW goal fulfillment factor[a]	2364.93	170.66	1360	0.060	0.845	0.078

[a] Non-positive definite first-order derivative product matrix

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics, scale reliabilities, and zero-order correlations for all the study variables are shown in Table 4-2. This table shows that most of the task and social characteristics are significantly correlated with one another with only a few exceptions. With respect to the job characteristics and Big Five personality traits, neuroticism (average $r = -.22$) and conscientiousness (average $r = .15$), are the traits that exhibits the most significant correlations with the nine task and social characteristics, followed by extraversion (average $r = .12$) and agreeableness (average $r = .11$). On the other hand,

Table 4-2 Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations of the Study Variables

	Variable	Mean	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Job autonomy	3.97	0.69	0.89												
2	Task variety	4.30	0.73	0.84	.32**											
3	Task identity	3.81	0.84	0.81	.46**	0.08										
4	Feedback from the Job	3.52	0.84	0.75	.32**	.22**	.41**									
5	Social support	3.98	0.72	0.80	.32**	.40**	.27**	.49**								
6	Task interdependence	3.44	0.78	0.78	-0.08	.20**	0.02	.26**	.24**							
7	Task significance	4.08	0.75	0.76	0.05	.35**	.23**	.31**	.48**	.22**						
8	Power	3.07	0.70	0.79	.27**	.34**	.18*	.33**	.45**	.34**	.37**					
9	Feedback from others	3.28	0.95	0.90	.20**	.25**	.24**	.75**	.52**	.27**	.25**	.34**				
10	Neuroticism	2.22	0.62	0.85	-.32**	-0.12	-.24**	-.35**	-.31**	0.00	-0.11	-.20**	-.31**			
11	Extraversion	3.39	0.65	0.86	0.13	.21**	0.04	.17*	.21**	-0.05	.22**	0.09	0.08	-.38**		
12	Openness	3.62	0.57	0.76	-0.04	0.08	-0.11	-0.05	0.02	-0.04	-0.01	-0.10	-0.04	-0.01	.29**	
13	Agreeableness	3.97	0.47	0.77	.18*	0.07	0.09	.21**	.24**	-0.04	0.12	-0.02	.17*	-.47**	.21**	0.13
14	Conscientiousness	3.97	0.55	0.85	.20**	.20**	0.10	.22**	.19*	0.10	0.08	0.10	.19*	-.48**	.32**	-0.02
15	Learning goal orientation	4.09	0.51	0.81	.21*	0.10	0.08	0.15	0.13	0.00	0.10	0.08	0.09	-0.11	.44**	.24**
16	Prove-performance goal orientation	3.19	0.53	0.60	0.04	-.17*	0.05	-0.14	-.21*	-0.02	-.17*	0.02	-0.07	.29**	-0.05	-0.04
17	Avoid-performance goal orientation	2.30	0.64	0.78	-0.08	-0.03	-0.01	-0.10	-0.12	-0.06	-0.03	-0.08	-0.04	.29**	-.28**	-.20*
18	Proactive personality	3.74	0.49	0.90	.24**	0.02	0.09	0.09	-0.04	0.08	0.09	0.13	-0.01	-0.15	.40**	.29**
19	Promotion focus	3.80	0.54	0.66	.21*	0.11	.23**	.32**	0.08	0.02	0.09	0.08	.19*	-.47**	.36**	0.01
20	Prevention focus	3.69	0.73	0.80	0.01	-0.09	-0.02	0.12	0.07	-0.10	0.13	0.01	0.01	-0.17	0.03	-0.12
21	Gaining clarity of accomplishments	3.90	0.71	0.88	.35**	.48**	.39**	.49**	.51**	.22*	.43**	.24**	.43**	-.22**	.20*	-0.06
22	Developing role mastery	3.71	0.78	0.85	.68**	.40**	.32**	.29**	.28**	0.06	0.15	.28**	.27**	-.23**	0.15	-0.02
23	Acquiring social impact	4.05	0.60	0.84	.34**	.21*	.32**	.49**	.55**	0.16	.27**	.17*	.52**	-.43**	0.14	0.00
24	Attaining power and recognition	3.50	0.81	0.90	.33**	.32**	.33**	.48**	.43**	.19*	.31**	.32**	.55**	-.22*	0.11	0.00
25	Meaningfulness	3.97	0.66	0.92	.25**	.40**	.23**	.34**	.42**	.19*	.40**	.27**	.33**	-.30**	.23**	-0.14

[a] N = 184

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4-2 (Cont.)

Variable	Mean	SD	α	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
14 Conscientiousness	3.97	0.55	0.85	.39**											
15 Learning goal orientation	4.09	0.51	0.81	0.15	.29**										
16 Prove-performance goal orientation	3.19	0.53	0.60	-.32**	-.18*	0.13									
17 Avoid-performance goal orientation	2.30	0.64	0.78	-.22*	-.27**	-.39**	.32**								
18 Proactive personality	3.74	0.49	0.90	0.04	.19*	.47**	0.12	-.19*							
19 Promotion focus	3.80	0.54	0.66	.26**	.42**	.20*	-.28**	-.22*	.27**						
20 Prevention focus	3.69	0.73	0.80	.26**	.25**	-0.11	-0.12	-0.02	-0.11	.23**					
21 Gaining clarity of accomplishments	3.90	0.71	0.88	.28**	.36**	.31**	-0.08	-0.13	.18*	.41**	0.08				
22 Developing role mastery	3.71	0.78	0.85	.18*	.23**	.18*	0.07	-0.07	.24**	.27**	0.02	.56**			
23 Acquiring social impact	4.05	0.60	0.84	.39**	.31**	.23**	-0.08	-.22**	0.11	.28**	0.14	.62**	.44**		
24 Attaining power and recognition	3.50	0.81	0.90	0.15	.17*	.26**	0.03	-.16*	.22*	.34**	-0.02	.68**	.50**	.65**	
25 Meaningfulness	3.97	0.66	0.92	.21*	.28**	.21*	-.24**	-.18*	0.12	.34**	0.08	.64**	.30**	.43**	.51**

[a] N = 184

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

openness to experience is not significantly correlated with any of the nine job characteristics measured in this study (average $r = -.03$). With respect to the fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals and experienced meaningfulness, the majority of the task and social characteristics exhibit a low to moderate correlation with goal fulfillment and meaningfulness (gaining clarity: average $r = .39$; role mastery: average $r = .30$; social impact: average $r = .34$; attaining recognition: average $r = .36$; meaningfulness: average $r = .31$). For the personality traits, as expected neuroticism (average $r = -.28$) and conscientiousness (average $r = .27$) exhibit the strongest correlations with all four meaning of work goals and meaningfulness, followed by agreeableness (average $r = .24$), and extraversion (average $r = .17$). Similar to the pattern with the task and social characteristics, openness to experience is not significantly correlated with meaningfulness or any of the four meaning of work goals (average $r = -.04$).

Revised Analytical Approach

There are two important issues that are evident in the zero-order correlations that have implications for the results I will present and discuss in the remainder of this chapter. First, note that each of the four meaning of work goals is relatively highly correlated with one another, with correlations ranging from .44 to .68 (average $r = .58$). Second, one of the four meaning of work goals, namely gaining clarity of accomplishments, is highly correlated with the outcome variable meaningfulness ($r = .64$). The remaining three goals are all moderately correlated with meaningfulness (average $r = .41$). Having moderately high inter-correlations among the four meaning of work goals and the outcome (on the order of $r = .40$ to .50) was expected given the

125

conceptual overlap between meaning and meaningfulness, and the various mechanisms

to meaning that comprise the theoretical foundation underlying all of these constructs.

However, the high correlations between some of these variables do present some

challenges with respect to my ability to empirically test the hypotheses I have presented

in this dissertation, and these challenges apply most specifically to the mediation

hypotheses (i.e. H1-9) presented in the first portion of Chapter 2. More specifically,

these correlations limit my ability to test my mediation hypotheses using a full omnibus

model that includes all four meaning of work goals and the outcome variable in the same

model. Conceptually, the model and corresponding hypotheses I have presented in

Chapter 2 argue that fulfillment of one or more of the four meaning of work goals act as

the mediating mechanism through which each job characteristic indirectly influences

meaningfulness at work. I have also argued that for each specific job characteristic, the

influence on meaningfulness operates primarily through only one or two of these

mediating meaning of work goals. Thus, for each of my mediation hypotheses, my

intention was to test an omnibus mediation model that included the specific job

characteristic in question, the four meaning of work goals, and the outcome variable.

The conceptual representation of the omnibus model for job autonomy is shown in

Figure 4-1. Thus, conceptually, support for my hypotheses would be found if the effect

sizes associated with the paths from job autonomy to the hypothesized mediators, in this

case developing role mastery and gaining clarity of accomplishments, and then from

these mediators to meaningfulness were larger in comparison to the pathways associated

with the other two mediators.

Figure 4-1 Full Omnibus Mediation Model
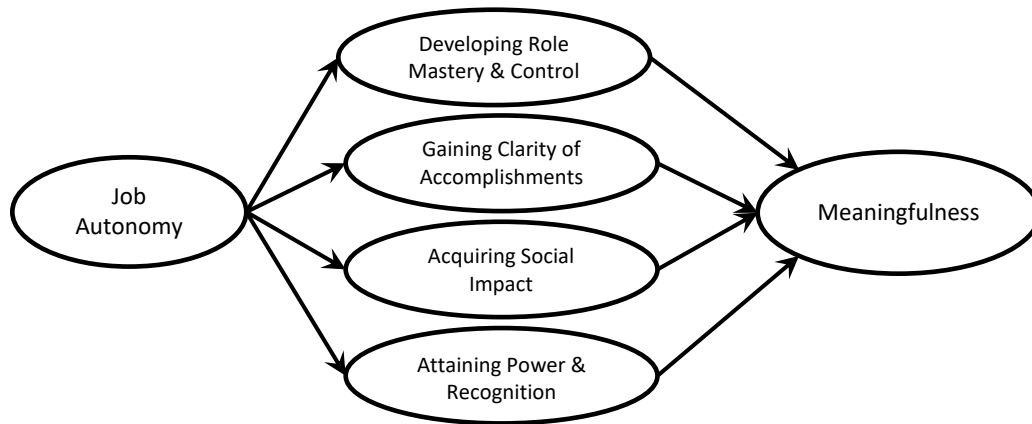
Once again, there are two key challenges that limit my ability to test this type of

omnibus model. First, the high multicollinearity that exists amongst the four mediating

variables can potentially produce unreliable parameter estimates that may vary widely in

magnitude, become non-significant, or even differ in sign due to the high amount of

shared variance among the four meaning of work goals. The multicollinearity issues

would affect the estimation of the first stage of the model (i.e. the links between job

characteristics and meaning of work goals) as well as the second stage of the model (i.e.

the links between meaning of work goals and meaningfulness), meaning the entire

omnibus model. In addition, the high correlation between one of the mediators, gaining

clarity of accomplishments and the outcome variable represents the second key

challenge to testing a more complete omnibus model. Specifically, this high correlation

means that any mediation model that includes gaining clarity of accomplishments would

result in the bulk of the variance in meaningfulness being assigned to the gaining clarity

of accomplishments pathway. Thus, the indirect effect of each job characteristic on

127

meaningfulness through any of the remaining three meaning of work goals would likely not be significant, when in reality a significant relationship is present. In addition, the indirect effect of any job characteristic on meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments would likely be overestimated due to the strong relationship between this goal and meaningfulness.

Given these two key issues, I have chosen to rely upon an alternative approach to evaluating the hypotheses I have presented in this dissertation in order to minimize these issues and still be able to draw some useful inferences from my data analyses. One option would be to include only the hypothesized mediators in any given model and focus on evaluating the parameters estimates associated with those mediators only. For example, for job autonomy this would mean testing a model that includes only developing role mastery and control and gaining clarity of accomplishments as mediators and omitting acquiring social impact and attaining power and recognition. One advantage of this approach is that it would still allow me to test the mediation component and the corresponding direct and indirect effects of job characteristics on meaningfulness, but only through the hypothesized mediators. On disadvantage is that I would not be able to compare relationships across all four meaning of work goals. Another disadvantage of this approach is that while it would reduce the issues of multi-collinearity of the mediators, it would not eliminate them altogether given in many cases there would still be two highly correlated mediators in the model. In addition, any model that includes gaining clarity of accomplishments would result in this mediating pathway

extracting the overwhelming majority of the variance in meaningfulness. An example of the conceptual model using this approach for job autonomy is shown in Figure 4-2.

A second option would be to focus on testing the first and second stages of the mediation model separately. To evaluate the first stage, I would evaluate a set of models in which a set of multiple task and social characteristics are included as predictors and each of the four meaning of work goals being the outcome for each respective model. Then to test the second stage, the four meaning of work goals would serve as the predictors and meaningfulness would serve as the outcome. One key advantage of this approach is that it allows for a direct comparison of the relative impact that each of the task and social characteristics has on each of the meaning of work goals when all task and social characteristics are included in the model. One disadvantage is that I cannot evaluate the mediation component, meaning the indirect effect that each job characteristic has on meaningfulness through the four meaning of work goals. In addition, I cannot directly compare the impact that any specific job characteristic has on the meaning of work goals across all four goals. An example of the conceptual model for this second option is shown in Figure 4-3.

Figure 4-2 Option 1: Mediation Model that Includes Only the Hypothesized Mediators

Figure 4-3 Option 2: Multiple Predictor Model that Evaluates Hypotheses in 2 Steps

Step 1: Evaluating the "left hand side" of the model
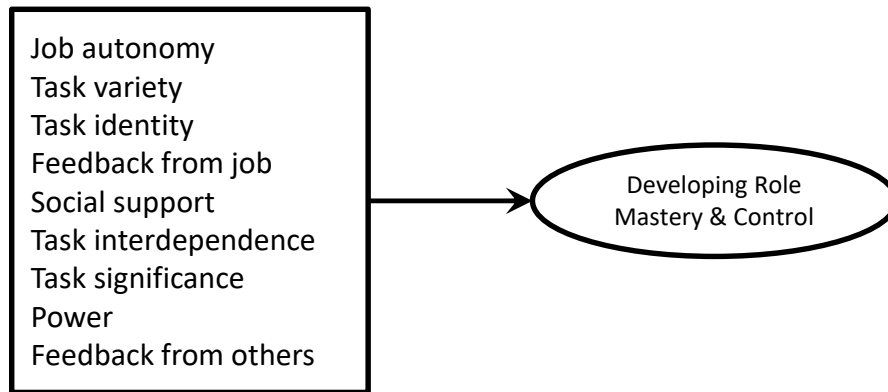
Step 2: Evaluating the "right hand side" of the model
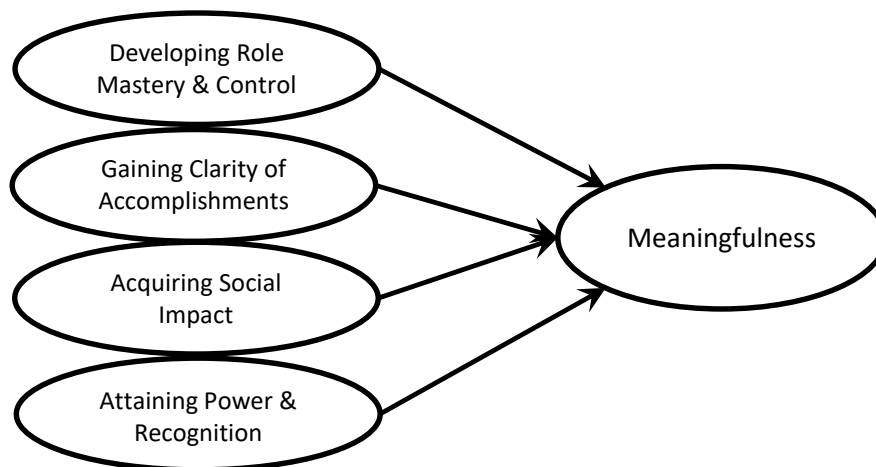
Recall that the fundamental proposition underlying my theoretical model and hypotheses is that each job characteristic primarily influences meaningfulness through the fulfillment of one or two of the meaning of work goals. Stating this proposition another way, each of the four meaning of work goals is more strongly influenced by some job characteristics as compared to others. With respect to the personality trait

profiles, the proposition is that the relationship between job characteristics and meaning of work goals differs across the personality profile classes. Thus, while not explicitly stated in this dissertation, my focus has always been on the left-hand side of the theoretical model if you will. I have largely relied on the assumption that each of the meaning of work goals would be positively related to meaningfulness, but I have not developed any theoretical arguments nor provided any hypotheses that directly addresses these second-stage relationships. For example, I have provided no arguments or hypotheses with respect to whether the fulfillment of all four meaning of work goals influences meaningfulness uniformly, or if there are significant differences among these relationships. In sum, an evaluation of the direct and indirect effect of job characteristics on meaningfulness is secondary to the interest in the differential impact of job characteristics and personality trait profiles on the fulfillment of the meaning of work goals.

Therefore, weighing the advantages and disadvantages of these two approaches in light of my overall focus, I will proceed with my analyses in a manner consistent with the latter approach using multiple regression. This methodology allows me to focus more directly on evaluating the differential patterns of relationships between all the task and social characteristics on the respective meaning of work goals. Thus, to evaluate the relationships between job characteristics and the meaning of work goals, I ran four separate regression models, one model for each of the four meaning of work goals as the dependent variable. For the independent variables, I entered the task-focused job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, task variety, task identity, feedback from the job, and

131

task significance) in the first step, and then the social characteristics (i.e. social support, task interdependence, power, feedback from other) in the second step. I then ran another set of models in which I entered the social characteristics first and the task characteristics in the second step. Recent job characteristics' research has differentiated these job characteristics into these two groupings, namely those that are largely task-focused and those that are more related to the social environment (e.g. Humphrey et al., 2007). This research has also found task and social characteristics exhibit differential relationships between a number of mediating processes and outcomes. The hypotheses I present in this dissertation in general argue that the task-focused characteristics are more strongly related to the two self-focused meaning of work goals, namely gaining clarity of accomplishments and developing role mastery and control. In contrast, the hypotheses argue that the social-focused job characteristics are more strongly related to the two others-focused meaning of work goals, namely acquiring social impact and attaining power and recognition. Therefore, I entered the task and social characteristics into the regression model in separate steps so as to be able to evaluate the incremental validity of the two groups of job characteristics when predicting each of the four meaning of work goals. A summary of the multiple regression models is shown in Tables 4-3 and 4-4.

In addition, I wish to state that even with the high correlations found among the meaning of work goals and meaningfulness, I still argue that they are distinct constructs and one is not a proxy for another. This assertion is supported by the results of my confirmatory factor analyses summarized previously. However, it is also evident from these results that more work needs to be done in order to refine the measures of the four

meaning of work goals and establish their convergent and discriminant validity. This issue will be addressed in more detail later in this chapter.

Task and Social Characteristics – Direct Effects

Hypotheses 1 and 2 state that job autonomy (H1a &1b) and task variety (H2a & 2b) are positively related to two meaning of work goals, namely developing role mastery and control and gaining clarity of accomplishments. These hypotheses also state that the relationship between these two job characteristics and developing role mastery and control will be stronger as compared to gaining clarity of accomplishments (H1c and H2c, respectively). The results in Table 4-3 show that when all job characteristics are included in the model, job autonomy is most strongly related to developing role mastery and control as hypothesized ($\beta = .58$, $p < .01$), followed by acquiring social impact ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$). Job autonomy is not significantly related to either of the other two meaning of work goals, including gaining clarity of accomplishments ($\beta = .05$, n.s.). Thus, there is support for Hypotheses 1a and 1c, while Hypothesis 1b lacks support.

Task variety, on the other hand, is positively and significantly related to the two hypothesized meaning of work goals, although the relative magnitude of the relationships is opposite to what I had predicted. Task variety is most strongly related to gaining clarity of accomplishments ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$), followed by developing role mastery and control ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$). Task variety is not significantly

133

Table 4-3 Multiple Regression Results when Predicting Meaning of Work Goal Fulfillment

		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Developing Role Mastery		Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments		Acquiring Social Impact		Attaining Power and Recognition	
		β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Step 1	Job autonomy	0.56	7.35**	0.05	0.59	0.21	2.37*	0.10	1.20
	Task variety	0.19	2.53*	0.33	4.29**	0.01	0.13	0.17	1.99*
	Task identity	0.06	0.78	0.21	2.67**	0.05	0.58	0.13	1.44
	Feedback from the job	0.05	0.67	0.27	3.65**	0.40	4.91**	0.34	4.11**
	Task significance	-0.03	-0.41	0.15	2.02*	0.08	0.93	0.08	0.97
Step 2	Job autonomy	0.58	7.14**	0.05	0.64	0.19	2.28*	0.09	1.09
	Task variety	0.17	2.18*	0.29	3.75**	-0.07	-0.91	0.10	1.21
	Task identity	0.07	0.93	0.24	3.06**	0.12	1.48	0.18	2.15*
	Feedback from the job	-0.08	-0.76	0.11	1.04	0.04	0.40	0.00	-0.04
	Task significance	0.00	0.00	0.14	1.78+	0.03	0.40	0.08	0.94
	Social support	-0.09	-0.98	0.20	2.14*	0.38	4.03**	0.02	0.21
	Task interdependence	-0.01	-0.11	0.07	0.88	0.09	1.19	-0.02	-0.31
	Power	0.03	0.42	-0.16	-2.03*	-0.20	-2.40*	0.06	0.72
	Feedback from others	0.21	2.16*	0.11	1.14	0.28	2.72**	0.44	4.19**
Step 1	F	23.7**		21.66**		12.26**		12.35**	
	R^2	0.47		0.45		0.32		0.32	
Step 2	ΔF	1.28		2.42+		8.21**		5.29**	
	Total R^2	0.49		0.49		0.46		0.42	
	ΔR^2	0.02		0.04		0.14		0.10	

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; p < .05, one-tailed

Table 4-4 Multiple Regression Results with Social Characteristics Entered in Step 1

		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
		Developing Role Mastery		Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments		Acquiring Social Impact		Attaining Power and Recognition	
		β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Step 1	Social support	0.10	0.99	0.41	4.41**	0.44	5.09**	0.13	1.43
	Task interdependence	-0.08	-0.92	0.12	1.51	0.06	0.85	-0.02	-0.24
	Power	0.21	2.13*	-0.05	-0.58	-0.15	-1.83+	0.14	1.62
	Feedback from others	0.18	1.77+	0.19	2.14*	0.31	3.73**	0.45	5.23**
Step 2	Social support	-0.09	-0.98	0.20	2.14*	0.38	4.03**	0.02	0.21
	Task interdependence	-0.01	-0.11	0.07	0.88	0.09	1.19	-0.02	-0.31
	Power	0.03	0.42	-0.16	-2.03*	-0.20	-2.40*	0.06	0.72
	Feedback from others	0.21	2.16*	0.11	1.14	0.28	2.72**	0.44	4.19**
	Job autonomy	0.58	7.14**	0.05	0.64	0.19	2.28*	0.09	1.09
	Task variety	0.17	2.18*	0.29	3.75**	-0.07	-0.91	0.10	1.21
	Task identity	0.07	0.93	0.24	3.06**	0.12	1.48	0.18	2.15*
	Feedback from the job	-0.08	-0.76	0.11	1.04	0.04	0.40	0.00	-0.04
	Task significance	0.00	0.00	0.14	1.78+	0.03	0.40	0.08	0.94
Step 1	F	4.86**		14.52**		21.25**		17.48**	
	R^2	0.13		0.30		0.39		0.34	
Step 2	ΔF	18.48**		9.29**		3.14*		3.10*	
	Total R^2	0.49		0.49		0.46		0.42	
	ΔR^2	0.37		0.19		0.07		0.07	

$** p < .01$; $* p < .05$; $p < .05$, one-tailed

related to the fulfillment of the other two goals (β = -.07 and .10, n.s. for acquiring social impact and attaining power, respectively). Thus, there is support for Hypothesis 2a and 2b, while Hypothesis 2c lacks support.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 state that task identity (H3a &3b) and feedback from the job (H4a & 4b) are also positively related to these same two meaning of work goals, although I have proposed that the pattern is reversed and that they are more strongly related to gaining clarity of accomplishments and to a lesser degree developing role mastery and control (H3c and 4c, respectively). The results in Table 4-3 show that when both task and social characteristics are included, task identity is most strongly related to gaining clarity of accomplishments (β = .24, p < .01) followed by attaining power and recognition (β = .18, p < .05), but is not significantly related to developing role mastery and control (β = .07, n.s.) or acquiring social impact (β = .12, n.s.). Thus, there is support for Hypothesis 3a and 3c, while Hypothesis 3b is not supported.

The results for Step 1 shown in Table 4-3 show that feedback from the job is most strongly related to acquiring social impact (β = .40, p < .01), followed by attaining power and recognition (β = .34, p < .01), and gaining clarity of accomplishments (β = .27, p < .01), but only when just the other task characteristics are entered into the regression (i.e. step 1). When all of the job characteristics are entered into the model (i.e. step 2), feedback from the job is not significantly related to any of the four meaning of work goals. Thus, when considering all of the task and social characteristics simultaneously, Hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c are not supported.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 state that social support and task interdependence, respectively, are positively related to experienced meaningfulness through the acquiring social impact meaning of work goal. As seen in Table 4-3, the strongest relationship between social support and goal fulfillment is with acquiring social impact (β = .38, p < .01), followed by gaining clarity of accomplishments (β = .20, p < .05). Neither developing role mastery (β = -.09, n.s.) nor attaining power and recognition (β = .02, n.s.) is significantly related to social support. For task interdependence, it is one of two (feedback from the job being the other) of the nine job characteristics that is not significantly related to any of the four meaning of work goals (developing role mastery: β = -.01, n.s.; gaining clarity: β = .07, n.s.; acquiring social impact: β = .09, n.s.; attaining power: β = -.02, n.s.) when all characteristics are included in the model. Thus, there is support for Hypothesis 5, while Hypothesis 6 is not supported.

According to Hypotheses 7a-c, task significance has its strongest impact on meaningfulness through acquiring social impact, and to a lesser degree through gaining clarity of accomplishments. The results in Table 4-3 show that task significance is positively related to gaining clarity of accomplishments (β = .14, p < .05, one-tailed), but is not significantly related to acquiring social impact (β = .03, n.s.) or the other two meaning of work goals. Thus, there is support for Hypothesis 7b but not for Hypotheses 7a or 7c.

According to Hypothesis 8, power will have its strongest impact on meaningfulness through fulfillment of the attaining power and recognition goal. As shown in Table 4-3, power is not significantly related to the fulfillment of this goal (β =

.06, n.s.) nor is it significantly related to developing role mastery ($\beta = .03$, n.s.).

However, power is negatively and significantly related to acquiring social impact ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .05$) and gaining clarity of accomplishments ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$). The negative relationship between power and acquiring social impact is not surprising given the contrast between what this goal embodies as compared to attaining power and recognition. In contrast, the negative impact power has on gaining clarity of accomplishments is surprising. Given that social support and task significance are positively related while power is negatively related the fulfillment of gaining clarity of accomplishments, it seems that some degree of fulfillment depends upon having some positive connections or relationships with others at work, and it is not solely based on information derived from the task.

Finally, I have argued that feedback from others can provide information to individuals that may provide fulfillment of any one of the meaning of work goals. The different types of fulfillment depend on the source of the feedback (i.e. the job, coworkers, supervisors), the content of the feedback (i.e. positive or negative, task or person-focused) and so forth. Thus, I have proposed that feedback from others will be positively related to all four of the meaning of work goals as stated in Hypotheses 9a-d. As seen in Table 4-3, feedback from others is most strongly (positively) related to attaining power and recognition ($\beta = .44$, $p < .01$), followed by acquiring social impact ($\beta = .28$, $p < .01$) and developing role mastery ($\beta = .21$, $p < .05$). Feedback from others is not significantly related to gaining clarity of accomplishments ($\beta = .11$, n.s.) when all task and social characteristics are included in the regression. In terms of the specific

hypotheses, there is support for Hypotheses 9a, 9c, and 9d, while Hypothesis 9b is not supported. In addition, it is important to note that of the nine job characteristics, feedback from others is the only one that is significantly related to the fulfillment of three of the four meaning of work goals. Thus, these results provide overall support for the proposition that feedback from others may provide a more complex, multi-faceted form of fulfillment as compared to the other task and social characteristics.

When entered in the first block (see Table 4-3), the task characteristics explain a significant proportion of the variance of all four meaning of work goals (developing role mastery: $R^2 = .47$, $p < .01$; gaining clarity: $R^2 = .45$, $p < .01$; acquiring social impact: $R^2 = .32$, $p < .01$; Attaining power: $R^2 = .32$, $p < .01$). However, for the two self-focused goals, entering the social characteristics in the second step does not provide a significant increase in explained variance for developing role mastery ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, n.s.), and only an additional 4% of the variance in gaining clarity of accomplishments ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .05$ one-tailed). In contrast, the social characteristics do provide a significant increase in the explained variance above and beyond the task characteristics for both acquiring social impact ($\Delta R^2 = .14$, $p < .01$) and attaining power and recognition ($\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p < .01$). When the social characteristics are entered in Step 1 as shown in Table 4-4, they explain a significant proportion of the variance of all four meaning of work goals (developing role mastery: $R^2 = .13$, $p < .01$; gaining clarity: $R^2 = .30$, $p < .01$; acquiring social impact: $R^2 = .39$, $p < .01$; Attaining power: $R^2 = .34$, $p < .01$). However, the increase in the explained variance due to adding the task characteristics to the model is much higher for the self-focused goals (developing role mastery: $\Delta R^2 = .37$, $p < .01$; gaining clarity:

139

$\Delta R^2 = .19$, $p < .01$) as compared to the others-focused goals (acquiring social impact: $\Delta R^2 = .07$, $p < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .07$, $p < .05$). Taken together, these results show there is a differential pattern in the relationships between task and social characteristics and the four meaning of work goals. When considered as a group, the two self-focused meaning of work goals are more strongly influenced by the task characteristics, while the two others-focused goals are more strongly influenced by the social characteristics. In addition, overall the task-focused characteristics have a stronger influence on the fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals than do the social characteristics as a group.

In order to evaluate the relationship between each of the four meaning of work goals and meaningfulness (i.e. Step 2 shown in Figure 4-3), I ran a multiple regression model in which I regressed meaningfulness onto the four goals, entering one goal at a time into the model. I also ran different variations of the model by changing the order I entered the predictors into the model so as to be able to assess the incremental amount of variance explained by each of the four meaning of work goals. These results are shown in Table 4-5, in which each of the four meaning of work goals are entered in the increasing order of their relative impact on experienced meaningfulness. As can be seen in this table, developing role mastery and control is the goal that has the weakest relationship with experienced meaningfulness, and is only significant in the absence of the other three meaning of work goals (Model 1: $\beta = .30$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .09$, $p < .01$). Acquiring social impact has the next highest relative impact and has a significant relationship with meaningfulness, but only when entered alone or in combination with

developing role mastery (Model 2: $\beta = .37$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .11$, $p < .01$). Once acquiring social impact (or any other meaning of work goal) is entered into the model, the relationship between developing role mastery and meaningfulness becomes non-significant. Adding attaining power and recognition to the model still provides a significant increase in the explained variance in the outcome (Model 3: $\beta = .39$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .08$, $p < .01$), and once entered the relationship for acquiring social impact becomes non-significant. Finally, gaining clarity of accomplishments has the strongest relationship with meaningfulness and provides even more explained variance when entered into the model (Model 4: $\beta = .59$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .15$, $p < .01$). Once gaining clarity of accomplishments is entered, the relationship between attaining power and recognition and meaningfulness is only marginally significant ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$, one-tailed test). This ordering of the relative impacts of the four meaning of work goals is expected given the zero-order correlations shown in Table 4.2. It is important to note that when considered individually, each of the four meaning of work goals is positively and significantly related to experienced meaningfulness, and when all four are included they explain a substantial proportion of the variance in meaningfulness ($R^2 = .43$, $p < .01$). Thus, these results when viewed in combination with those presented previously provide additional evidence in support of the mediation hypotheses given in Hypotheses 1 through 9.

Table 4-5 Multiple Regression Results when Predicting Meaningfulness

Model		β	t	ΔF	R^2	$ΔR^2$
1	Developing role mastery	0.30	3.58**	12.8**	0.09	-
2	Developing role mastery	0.13	1.45	17.25**	0.20	0.11
	Acquiring social impact	0.37	4.15**			
3	Developing role mastery	0.02	0.24	14.34**	0.28	0.08
	Acquiring social impact	0.16	1.64			
	Attaining power and recognition	0.39	3.79**			
4	Developing role mastery	-0.11	-1.29	33.91**	0.43	0.15
	Acquiring social impact	-0.02	-0.23			
	Attaining power and recognition	0.18	1.78+			
	Gaining clarity of accomplishments	0.59	5.82**			

** p < .01; * p < .05; p < .05, one-tailed

Personality Profiles – Direct Effects

To test the remaining hypotheses related to the influence that individuals'
personality trait profiles have on meaning of work goal fulfillment, I will use latent
profile analysis as described earlier. The first step in this analysis is to determine the
number of latent personality profile groups or classes that exist in this sample, and then
to evaluate the configural profile of the Big Five personality traits within each class. One
of the advantages of latent profile analysis over several other clustering methodologies is
that there are several information criteria (IC) as well as multiple log-likelihood-based
tests that help to provide a more statistically-grounded decision regarding the optimal
number of latent classes within a given sample. The information criteria include the
Akaike (AIC), Bayesian (BIC) and the sample-size adjusted Bayesian (adj. BIC)
Information Criteria, and the likelihood-based tests include the Lo-Mendell-Rubin
(LMR) and the bootstrap likelihood ratio (BLRT) tests. Nylund and colleagues (2007)

conducted a Monte Carlo simulation study that was specifically focused on examining the reliability and consistency of the various information criteria and likelihood ratio tests for use in identifying the optimal number of classes in latent profile analysis Nylund et al., 2007). The authors found strong evidence that the BIC and the BLRT, respectively, are the most robust in that they more consistently identified the correct number of latent classes across a range of sample sizes and violations regarding the assumptions underlying latent mixture modeling. Therefore, I will rely on the BIC and the BLRT to aid in determining the optimal number of latent personality profile classes to be extracted in this sample. It is important to note, however, that the determination of the number of latent classes to be extracted should not solely be empirically-driven. These statistics only aid in making the final decision regarding the optimal number of classes, and this decision should be based on both theory and data.

I ran multiple latent profile models including all Big Five personality traits in the model, in which the sample is separated into only two latent classes. Then subsequent models were run in which the number of classes extracted was increased by one, up to a total of six latent classes. I did not extract any more than six latent classes as the BIC and BLRT values had indicated I had already exceeded the optimal number of latent classes, and six classes also represented twice the number of classes compared to the hypothesized three latent personality profile classes. The BIC and BLRT values for each of these successive models are shown in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6 Latent Profile Analysis Classification Statistics

Model	BIC	BLRT
2-class	1524.54	-778.56**
3-class	1512.44	-720.55**
4-class	1513.22	-698.86**
5-class	1516.95	-685.11
6-class	1527.74	-669.82

** $p < .01$

For all the information criteria, including the BIC, the lowest values indicate the most optimal number of latent classes to be extracted from a given sample. As seen in Table 4-6, the BIC indicates that three latent classes presents the best fit with the data (BIC = 1512.44), although the four-class solution gives only a slightly higher BIC value as well (BIC = 1513.22). The BLRT reports the ratio of log likelihood values for the specified number of classes in comparison to the null model, which contains one fewer classes than the specified model. A significant BLRT value indicates that one may reject the null model in favor of the specified model (i.e. the model with one more latent class). Thus, in order to determine the optimal number of classes, one continues to progressively increase the number of extracted classes until a non-significant BLRT value is found. In this data sample, the BLRT values indicate that four is the optimal number of latent classes, and extracting an additional class does not result in a significant improvement in the log likelihood statistic (BLRT value comparing four versus five classes = -685.111, $p = .50$). Thus, the empirical results favor either a three or four class solution, and therefore consistent with the extant literature and the theory presented in Chapter 2, I will proceed with three latent personality profile classes.

The within-class means for each of the Big Five personality traits for the three

latent profile classes, given in standard deviation units, are shown in Table 4-7. Figure

4.4 shows the within-class means in graphical form, which gives a better visual

representation of each personality classes' profile across the Big Five personality traits.

The rightmost class of the three shown in Figure 4-4, representing about 38% of the

sample, is comprised of individuals who are comparatively low on neuroticism and

moderately high on extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, which closely

aligns with the predicted Resilient personality trait profile. Of the two remaining

personality trait classes, the class shown on the left in Figure 4-4, which is the smallest

class representing about 13% of the sample, is essentially the antithesis of this Resilient

group. This class is comprised of individuals who are extremely high on neuroticism,

very low on extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, and moderately low on

openness to experience. Based on the extant literature (see Specht et al., 2014) that has

focused on these personality profile types, the two traits that are most consistently

identified as indicating membership in the Overcontroller class are neuroticism and

extraversion, with Overcontrollers being high on both traits. Next comes Openness, with

about half of the existing studies describing Overcontrollers as being low in openness.

Approximately one-fourth of these studies also describe Overcontrollers as being low in

agreeableness. The one trait that seems to be consistently neutral with respect to

Overcontrollers is Conscientiousness. While there are some discrepancies in the

personality profile of this first group compared to the predicted profiles, overall it

matches the Overcontroller profile across the most dominant traits defining that

personality profile. Thus, I argue that this latent personality class found in this sample largely captures the overall Overcontroller personality profile, and therefore I will refer to this group as the Modified Overcontroller class.

With respect to the Undercontrollers, the existing literature has most consistently defined this class as being low on Conscientiousness in the large majority of studies. The one other trait that has been defined as being indicative of the Undercontroller personality profile is Agreeableness, but only in just under one-half of prior studies (Specht et al., 2014). These studies have generally described Undercontrollers as being neutral with respect to the other three personality traits. The last of the three personality profile classes found in this study (the middle class in Figure 4-4), representing about 49% of the sample, are comparatively low on Conscientiousness and Agreeableness, at least with respect to the other three traits within this specific class. However, when evaluating the profiles across all three classes, the level of Conscientiousness and Agreeableness of the personality class shown in the center of the Figure 4-4 are not as low as they are in the leftmost class, which I have now labeled the Modified Overcontroller class. This third class can generally be described as having within-class means across all five personality traits that are all near average, especially when compared to the other two personality classes. Thus, I will refer to this class as the Near Average personality profile group. Taken together, there is support for Hypotheses 10a and 10b, but less support for Hypotheses 10c and 10d.

Table 4-7 Classification Results and Within-Class Means

Latent		% of	Within-class Means[b]				
Class	Size[a]	sample	Neuro	Extra	Open	Agree	Consc
Modified Overcontrollers	23	13%	2.87	-0.97	-0.43	-1.19	-1.47
Near Average	91	49%	0.26	-0.11	0.12	-0.46	-0.35
Resilients	70	38%	-1.34	0.48	-0.02	1.04	1.04

[a] Class sizes based on most likely latent class membership
[b] Weighted by latent class probabilities and shown in standard deviation units

Figure 4-4 Profile of the Big Five Traits across the Three Personality Classes
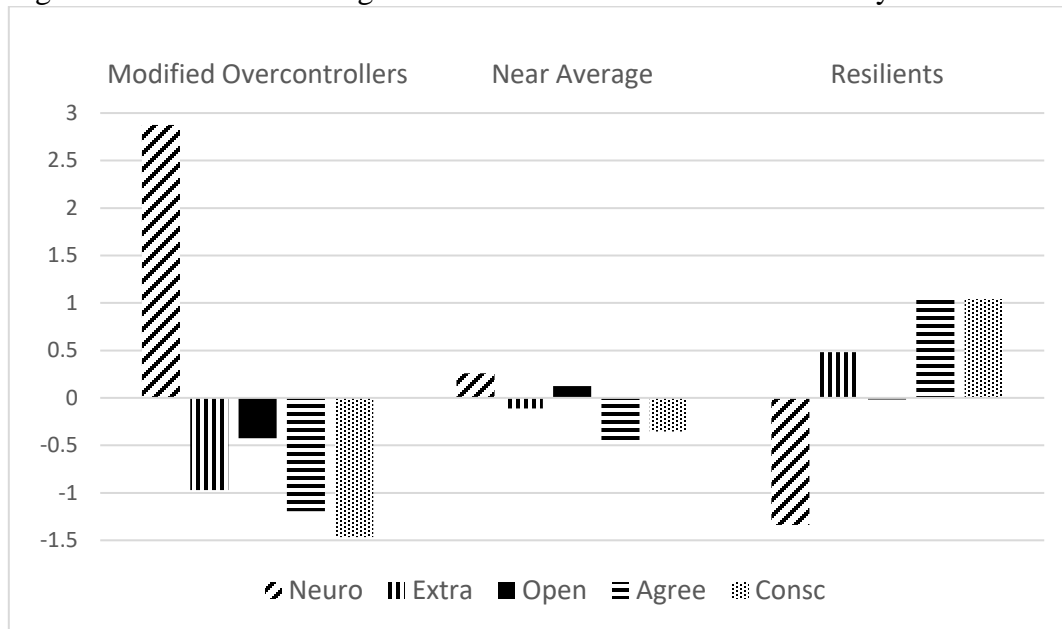
Although I do not find that the Undercontroller and Overcontroller personality profiles are cleanly represented in this sample, there are distinct differences in the three personality trait profile classes that I do find that will still allow me to proceed with my

analyses and inform my remaining hypotheses. The general proposition that underlies the hypotheses related to the personality classes as described in Chapter 2 is that the Resilient class represents a more desirable personality type, and the Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers both represented less-desirable personality types. In summary, I have argued that more desirable personality types' fulfillment of the meaning of work goals is more directly driven by their personality traits, while for less-desirable types, it is more directly driven by the job and social characteristics. Applying this proposition to the three personality classes that have emerged in the current sample, the proposition still holds, although rather than having two relatively equivalent less-desirable personality types, the three classes represent varying degrees of personality desirability. The Resilient class would be the most desirable personality type, the Near Average class would be the next most desirable, and finally the Modified Overcontrollers would represent the least-desirable personality type in this sample. Thus, I will conduct my remaining analyses and evaluate the degree to which they do or do not provide support for my underlying propositions and stated hypotheses from that theoretical basis.

Hypothesis 11 states that individuals who are categorized as having a Resilient personality profile will exhibit a higher level of fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals as compared to the other two personality classes. Following the classification process, I assigned each individual in the sample to the personality profile class for which they had the highest classification probability. I then conducted four separate one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) analyses, with each of the four meaning of work goals as the dependent variable in each model and the assigned personality class as the

grouping variable. The ANOVA results show that there are significant between-class differences for each of the four meaning of work goals (Developing role mastery: $F [2, 133] = 4.19$, $p < .05$, Gaining clarity: $F [2, 133] = 5.42$, $p < .01$; Acquiring social impact: $F [2, 133] = 12.90$, $p < .01$; Attaining power and recognition: $F [2, 133] = 3.91$, $p < .05$).

Following the results of the significant F-tests, I conducted Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post-hoc tests in order to determine which of the mean pairs were significantly different from one another, and these results are shown in Table 4-8. The results of the post-hoc tests show that for the developing role mastery and control goal, the mean level of fulfillment for the Resilient class is significantly higher than the Near Average class (mean difference = .41, $p < .05$), but not the Modified Overcontroller class (mean difference = .35, n.s.). In addition, the mean levels of fulfillment for these latter two groups are not significantly different from one another (mean difference = .06, n.s.).

For the gaining clarity of accomplishments goal, the Resilients experience a significantly higher level of fulfillment compared to the Modified Overcontroller (mean difference = .46, $p < .05$) and Near Average personality classes (mean difference = .34, $p < .05$). However, the means for these latter two personality classes are not significantly different from one another for gaining clarity of accomplishments (mean difference = .11, n.s.).

For acquiring social impact, the mean level of fulfillment for Resilients is significantly higher than the Modified Overcontrollers (mean difference = .73, $p < .05$) and the Near Average classes (mean difference = .58, $p < .05$). In contrast, the means for

149

Modified Overcontrollers and Near Average classes are not significant different from one another (mean difference = .15, n.s.).

Finally, for attaining power and recognition, the mean level of fulfillment for Resilients is significantly higher than that of the Modified Overcontrollers (mean difference = .52, $p < .05$, one-tailed), and Near Average classes (mean difference = .31, $p < .05$, one-tailed), but only for a one-tailed test. The Modified Overcontroller and Near Average means are not significantly different from one another (mean difference = .21, n.s.).

Taken together, these results show that individuals who are more representative of the Resilient personality profile experience a consistently higher level of fulfillment across the four meaning of work goals as compared to individuals who are more typified by either of the other two personality profiles. In contrast, the mean level of fulfillment for the Modified Overcontroller and the Near Average classes do not significantly differ from one another for any of the four meaning of work goals. Thus, there is partial support for Hypotheses 11a-d as one of the three classes consistently was found to have a significantly higher level of fulfillment of the four meaning of goals. In addition, although not statistically significant, the means of the Near Average class were higher than the Modified Overcontroller class for three of the four meaning of work goals (gaining clarity =.11; acquiring social impact = .15; attaining power = .21; developing role mastery being the exception). This overall pattern of means is consistent with what would be predicted based upon the relative desirability of these three personality profile classes with respect to meaningfulness at work.

Table 4-8 ANOVA Post-Hoc Contrast Tests

Dependent Variable	Assigned Class (I)	Assigned Class (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)
	1	2	.06
		3	-.35
Developing role mastery	2	1	-.06
		3	-.41*
	3	1	.35
		2	.41*
	1	2	-.11
		3	-.46*
Gaining clarity of accomplishments	2	1	.11
		3	-.34*
	3	1	.46*
		2	.34*
	1	2	-.15
		3	-.73*
Acquiring social impact	2	1	.15
		3	-.58*
	3	1	.73*
		2	.58*
	1	2	-.21
		3	-.52+
Attaining power and recognition	2	1	.21
		3	-.31+
	3	1	.52+
		2	.31+

Class 1: Modified Overcontrollers, Class 2: Near Average, Class 3: Resilients

*Mean difference significant at the 0.05 level
+Mean difference significant at the .05 level, one-tailed

Job Characteristics and Personality Profiles – Joint Effects

In this final section, I will present the results of my latent profile analyses evaluating the joint impact that job characteristics and personality trait profiles have on the fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals (i.e. Hypotheses 12 through 19). Before presenting these results, I would like to briefly summarize how the latent profile analysis methodology functions with respect to testing the hypotheses related to these joint effects. This is important as there are some fundamental differences to evaluating interactions using a person-centered approach as applied here to more traditional variable-centered approaches. In its simplest form, perhaps the most common way to evaluating a linear interaction between two continuous variables using an OLS-based variable-centered approach requires multiplying the two variables together to create a third variable (i.e. the interaction term). Then, the predictor, moderator, and interaction term are entered into a linear regression model and a significant interaction between the predictor and moderator variables is present if the relationship between the interaction term and the dependent variable is significant.

Modeling a person-centered interaction using latent profile analysis differs from an OLS regression-based approach to interactions in that there is no multiplicative interaction term used in the model. To model an interaction using the LPA methodology, the relationship between predictor(s) and dependent variable(s) is specified, and the moderating variable(s), in this case the five personality traits, are also included in the model, but without a specified relationship between any other variables. The interaction is modeled by allowing the parameter estimates (i.e. the betas and R^2 values) of the

linear relationship between predictor and outcome to vary freely across each of the latent classes. Thus, a significant interaction is present when the parameter estimates associated with each class are significantly different from one another. Using this approach to evaluate the joint impact of job characteristics and personality profile groups on experienced meaningfulness, I conducted a series of latent profile analysis models, one for each hypothesized relationship between a specific job characteristic and meaning of work goal. Within each of these models, there will be three sets of parameter estimates, one for each personality profile group.

In order to evaluate the joint impact that personality trait profiles and job characteristics have on meaningfulness at work, I have offered two different sets of hypotheses related to the fulfillment of each meaning of work goal. The first set of hypotheses (i.e. H12, 14, 16, & 18) are aimed at evaluating the differences in the strength of the relationship between job characteristics and goal fulfillment across the three personality profile types, and the second set of hypotheses are aimed at evaluating the overall level of goal fulfillment across the three personality classes. For the first set of hypotheses, empirical support will be found if the beta and R2 values are significantly higher (or lower) for one personality profile group in comparison to the others as hypothesized. A summary of the latent profile analysis results giving the beta and R2 values for the fulfillment of each of the four meaning of work goals across the three personality classes is shown in Table 4-9. I conducted Wald Chi-Square tests in order to evaluate whether pairs of parameter estimates are significantly different from one another, and a summary of these results is shown in Table 4-10.

Table 4-9 Latent Profile Analysis Results when Predicting Meaning of Work Goal Fulfillment

		Developing Role Mastery		Gaining Clarity Accmp.		Acquiring Social Impact		Attain Power & Recognition	
		β	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2
Job Autonomy	Mod. Overc.	0.75**	0.56**	0.58*	0.34				
	Near Ave.	0.74**	0.54**	0.15	0.02				
	Resilients	0.48**	0.23	0.4**	0.16				
Task Var.	Mod. Overc.	0.09	0.01	0.65**	0.42*				
	Near Ave.	0.5**	0.25+	0.52**	0.27*				
	Resilients	0.26*	0.07	0.2+	0.04				
Task Identity	Mod. Overc.	0.5*	0.25	0.67**	0.45**				
	Near Ave.	0.33*	0.11	0.34*	0.12				
	Resilients	0.1	0.01	0.28+	0.08				
Feedback from Job	Mod. Overc.	0.34+	0.11	0.71**	0.51**				
	Near Ave.	0.28+	0.08	0.39+	0.16				
	Resilients	0.14	0.02	0.38**	0.15+				
Social Support	Mod. Overc.					0.81**	0.66**		
	Near Ave.					0.49**	0.24**		
	Resilients					0.25+	0.07		
Task Inter.	Mod. Overc.					-0.81**	0.65**		
	Near Ave.					0.63	0.4		
	Resilients					0.19	0.04		
Task Sig.	Mod. Overc.					-0.13	0.02		
	Near Ave.					0.53**	0.28*		
	Resilients					-0.02	0		
Feedback from Othrs.	Mod. Overc.					0.78**	0.6**	0.66**	0.44**
	Near Ave.					0.49**	0.24+	0.48**	0.23
	Resilients					0.34**	0.11*	0.53**	0.28*
Power	Mod. Overc.							0.49*	0.24
	Near Ave.							0.27+	0.07
	Resilients							0.32*	0.1

** p < .01; * p < .05; p < .05, one-tailed
Parameter estimates are standardized

Table 4-10 Wald Chi-Square Test Statistics Comparing Parameter Estimates across Personality Classes

	Class	Developing Role Mastery			Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments		
		β	1	2	β	1	2
Job Autonomy	1	0.75			0.58		
	2	0.74	0.05		0.15	1.24	
	3	0.48	2.25	2.50	0.40	0.37	0.91
Task Variety	1	0.09			0.65		
	2	0.50	1.63		0.52	0.23	
	3	0.26	0.30	1.34	0.20	2.88+	3.79+
Task Identity	1	0.50			0.67		
	2	0.33	0.32		0.34	3.62+	
	3	0.10	2.08	0.96	0.28	7.46**	0.16
Feedback from the Job	1	0.34			0.71		
	2	0.28	0.00		0.39	0.69	
	3	0.14	0.25	0.26	0.38	2.25	0.01

Class 1: Mod. Overcontrollers, Class 2: Near Average, Class 3: Resilients

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; $p < .05$, one-tailed

Table 4-10 (Cont.)

		Acquiring Social Impact		
	Class	**β**	**1**	**2**
Social Support	1	0.81		
	2	0.49	4.43*	
	3	0.25	11.60**	4.15*
Task Interdependence	1	-0.81		
	2	0.63	3.48+	
	3	0.19	42.87**	0.40
Task Significance	1	-0.13		
	2	0.53	5.07*	
	3	-0.02	0.08	10.58**
Feedback from Others	1	0.78		
	2	0.49	0.64	
	3	0.34	4.02*	1.04

		Attaining Power and Recognition		
	Class	**β**	**1**	**2**
Power	1	0.49		
	2	0.27	0.11	
	3	0.32	0.11	0.01
Feedback from others	1	0.66		
	2	0.48	0.06	
	3	0.53	0.05	0.01

Class 1: Mod. Overcontrollers, Class 2: Near Average, Class 3: Resilients

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; $p < .05$, one-tailed

The latent profile analysis results show that for three of the four job characteristics related to developing role mastery and control (i.e. job autonomy, task identity, feedback from the job), there is a consistent pattern where strongest effects are found in the Modified Overcontroller class (job autonomy: $\beta = .75$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .56$, $p < .01$; task identity: $\beta = .50$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .25$, n.s; feedback from the job: $\beta = .34$, $p < .05$, one-tailed, $R^2 = .11$, n.s.). The next strongest effects are found in the Near Average class

for these same job characteristics (job autonomy: $\beta = .74$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .54$, $p < .01$; task identity: $\beta = .33$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .11$, n.s; feedback from the job: $\beta = .28$, $p < .05$, one-tailed, $R^2 = .08$, n.s.), although the effect of job autonomy in the Near Average class is nearly identical to the Modified Overcontroller class. Finally, the weakest effects of these three job characteristics are found in the Resilient class, with only job autonomy having significant effects on goal fulfillment (job autonomy: $\beta = .48$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .23$, n.s; task identity: $\beta = .10$, n.s., $R^2 = .01$, n.s; feedback from the job: $\beta = .14$, n.s., $R^2 = .02$, n.s.). The one exception to this pattern of diminishing effects is associated with task variety, which has the strongest effect on developing role mastery and control for the Near Average class ($\beta = .50$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .25$, $p < .05$ one-tailed), then followed by the Resilients ($\beta = .26$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .07$, n.s.) and finally the Modified Overcontroller class ($\beta = .09$, n.s., $R^2 = .01$, n.s.). Overall, these results provide some support for the pattern of relationships stated in Hypotheses 12a (job autonomy), 12c (task identity), and 12d (feedback from the job), but not for Hypothesis 12b. However, although there are some relatively dramatic differences in the magnitude of these effect sizes, as seen in Table 4-10, none of them are statistically different from one another. The lack of statistical power associated with the modest sample size is evident here, and a larger sample is needed in order to determine whether the differences found in Table 4-9 are representative of the population and not just an artifact of this specific sample.

For gaining clarity of accomplishments, there is a similar pattern of diminishing effects overall for three of the four job characteristics, namely task variety, task identity, feedback from the job. For these three job characteristics, the strongest effects are

associated with the Modified Overcontrollers (task variety: $\beta = .58$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .34$ n.s.; task identity: $\beta = .67$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .45$, $p < .01$; feedback from the job: $\beta = .71$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .51$, $p < .01$). The next strongest effects are found in the Near Average class for these same job characteristics (task variety: $\beta = .52$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .27$, $p < .05$; task identity: $\beta = .34$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .12$, n.s; feedback from the job: $\beta = .39$, $p < .05$, one-tailed, $R^2 = .16$, n.s.). Finally, the weakest effects of these three job characteristics are found in the Resilient class (task variety: $\beta = .20$, $p < .05$, one-tailed, $R^2 = .04$, n.s; task identity: $\beta = .28$, n.s., $R^2 = .05$, one-tailed; feedback from the job: $\beta = .38$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .15$, $p < .05$, one-tailed), while the effects for feedback from the job are nearly identical to those in the Near Average class. The one exception to the pattern of diminishing effects for gaining clarity of accomplishments is for job autonomy, which while the strongest effects are still associated with the Modified Overcontrollers class ($\beta = .58$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .34$, n.s.), the next strongest are with the Resilients ($\beta = .40$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .16$, n.s.) and finally the Near Average class ($\beta = .15$, n.s., $R^2 = .02$, n.s.). Overall, these results provide some support for the pattern of relationships stated in Hypotheses 14b (task variety), 12c (task identity), and 12d (feedback from the job), and some, albeit lesser support, for Hypothesis 12a (job autonomy). Again, as with developing role mastery and control, most of the effects for each personality class are not statistically different from one another, although there are some pretty substantial magnitude differences. There are two job characteristics for which there are significantly different parameter estimates. For task variety, the effects on the Modified Overcontrollers (Wald $\chi^2 = 2.88$, $p < .05$, one-tailed) and the Near Average class (Wald $\chi^2 = 3.79$, $p < .05$, one-

tailed) are significantly larger than they are for the Resilient class, but only for a one-tailed test. For task identity, the effects on the Modified Overcontroller class are significantly larger than the Near Average class (Wald χ^2 = 6.62, p < .05, one-tailed) as well as the Resilient class (Wald χ^2 = 7.46, p < .01)

For acquiring social impact, the pattern in relationships between the hypothesized job characteristics (social support, task interdependence, task significance, and feedback from others) is not as consistent as with the two task-focused goals discussed previously. In addition, contrary to the previous two meaning of work goals, several of these effects are significantly different from one another. For two of these characteristics, social support and feedback from others, the pattern is consistent where the strongest effects are found in the Modified Overcontrollers (social support: β = .81, p < .01, R^2 = .66, p < .01.; feedback from others: β = .78, p < .01, R^2 = .60, p < .01), followed by the Near Average class (social support: β = .49, p < .01, R^2 = .24, p < .01; feedback from others: β = .49, p < .01, R^2 = .24, p < .05, one-tailed), and finally the Resilient class (social support: β = .25, p < .05, one-tailed, R^2 = .07 n.s.; feedback from others: β = .34, p < .01, R^2 = .11, p < .05). In addition, for social support, each of the three effect sizes are significantly different from one another. For feedback from others, the effect on the Modified Overcontrollers is significantly larger than it is for Resilients (Wald χ^2 = 4.02, p < .05), but the other two pairwise comparisons are not statistically different from one another. For task interdependence, the relationship to acquiring social impact is strongly negative (β = -.81, p < .01, R^2 = .66, p < .01) for the Modified Overcontroller class, and this effect is significantly different from the other two classes (Near Average: Wald χ^2 =

159

3.480, p < .05, one-tailed; Resilients: Wald χ^2 = 42.87, p < .01) which matches the strongest effects found across all the job characteristics and meaning of work goals. Task interdependence is not significantly related to acquiring social impact fulfillment for either the Near Average (β = .63, n.s., R^2 = .40, n.s.) or the Resilient personality classes (β = .19, n.s., R^2 = .04, n.s.). For task significance, the only group which exhibits significant effects on acquiring social impact fulfillment is the Near Average class (β = 53, p < .01, R^2 = .28, p < .05), and this effect is significantly different than the other two classes (Mod. Overcontrollers: Wald χ^2 = 5.07, p < .05; Resilients: Wald χ^2 = 10.58, p < .01). In addition, the relationship for the other two classes is not significant (Mod. Overcontrollers: β = -.13, n.s., R^2 = .02, n.s.; Resilients: β = -.02, n.s., R^2 = .00, n.s). Overall, these results provide some support for the pattern of relationships stated in Hypotheses 16a (social support) and 12d (feedback from others), but not for 12b (task interdependence) or 12b (task significance).

Finally, for the attaining power and recognition goal, consistent with the overall pattern found in this sample, the strongest effects of the two hypothesized job characteristics are associated with the Modified Overcontrollers class (feedback from others: β = .66, p < .01, R^2 = .44, p < .01; power: β = .49, p < .05, R^2 = .24, n.s.). Contrary to what I have predicted, the next strongest effects are associated with the Resilient personality class (feedback from others: β = .53, p < .01, R^2 = .28, p < .05; power: β = .32, p < .05, R^2 = .1, n.s.). Finally the weakest effects are associated with the Near Average personality class (feedback from others: β = .48, p < .01, R^2 = .23, n.s.; power: β = .27, p < .05, one-tailed, R^2 = .07, n.s.), although these effects are not much

different in magnitude from those found in the Near Average class. In addition, none of these effects are significantly different from one another in this sample. Thus, these results provide some partial support for Hypotheses 18a and 18b in that the strongest effects of these job characteristics on attaining power and recognition are associated with the least desirable personality type.

The second set of hypotheses (i.e. H13, H15, H17 & H19) are focused on evaluating the nature of the interaction between job characteristics and personality trait profiles by focusing on the overall level of goal fulfillment across personality classes. Stated another way, these hypotheses are aimed at understanding the relative impact that these specific person and environmental characteristics have on the fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals, and how that impact differs across personality classes. The way that I will test these hypotheses using LPA bears some similarities to modeling multi-level relationships using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) methodology. In both cases, the model may be used so as to understand how parameter estimates of interest, (such as slope coefficients and intercepts when modeling a linear relationship), vary or are impacted at one level of analysis due to being nested in groups at a higher level of analysis. The fundamental difference when using LPA is that the grouping variable is not a manifest variable, such as team or organizational membership, but rather it is a latent variable that is determined using other indicator variables, in this case the personality characteristics. Thus, for each of the LPA models that are used to test the remaining hypotheses, both the model intercepts and the slope coefficients (i.e. the betas) are meaningful for use in understanding the nature of the interaction here. The

161

value of each model's intercept speaks to the level of goal fulfillment apart from the influence of the job characteristic in question for each personality class. The betas speak to the impact that each respective job characteristic has on goal fulfillment. Thus, estimating and comparing the beta and intercept values across personality classes allows for the empirical test of these remaining interaction hypotheses.

To evaluate these hypotheses, I estimated each model as described previously and then calculated the value of the dependent variable (i.e. meaning of work goal fulfillment) at the value of the mean, one standard deviation above, and one standard deviation below the mean of the predictor variable (i.e. the job characteristic). I then compared the 95% confidence intervals surrounding each of these values across the three personality classes in order to determine if there were significant differences in goal fulfillment along the range of the independent variable. The plots showing the level of goal fulfillment across the three personality classes for each job characteristic are shown in Figures 4-5 through 4-8. In all cases, the estimated intercept value was significant in the model, and thus the value of the intercept shown in the plots has a meaningful interpretation. In instances where the beta is not significant (e.g. impact of task variety on developing role mastery for the Near Average class), the slope of the line shown in the figure is fixed at zero, and thus the line only represents the mean level of fulfillment for that personality class across the range of the independent variable.

Support for these hypotheses related to the overall level of goal fulfillment will be found if there are significant differences in the level of goal fulfillment across the three personality classes consistent with the patterns stated in the respective hypotheses.

Given the relatively large standard errors of the beta and intercept estimates due to the modest sample size, the 95% confidence intervals overlap with one another in all models. Therefore, I cannot conclude that the overall levels of goal fulfillment across the personality classes are statistically different from one another. However, while lacking in statistical significance, the pattern of these relationships largely is supportive of the hypothesized relationships, and specifically of the compensatory interaction between job characteristics and personality profile types when predicting goal fulfillment.

Figure 4-5 Developing Role Mastery and Control Fulfillment across Personality Classes
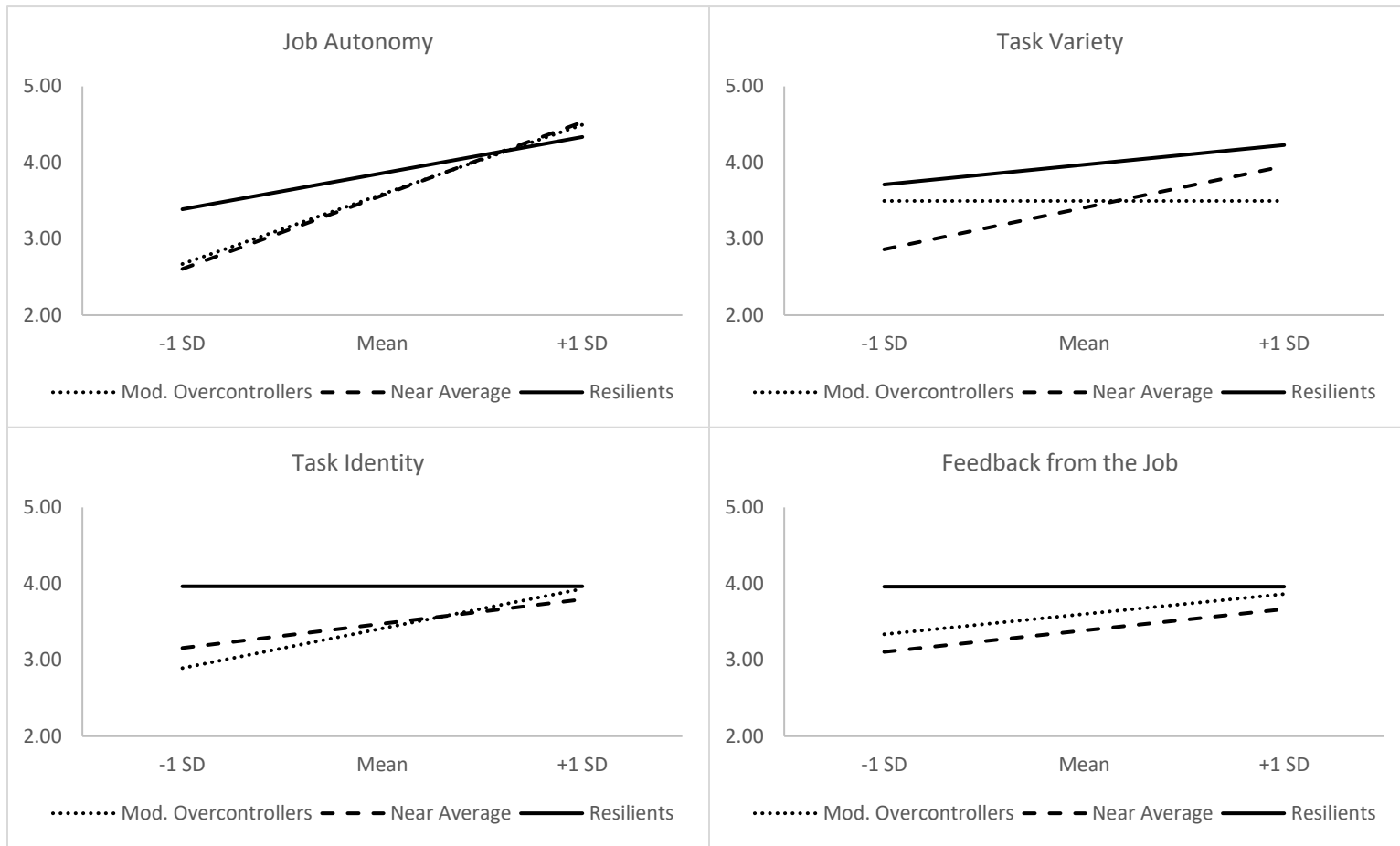
Figure 4-6 Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments Fulfillment across Personality Classes
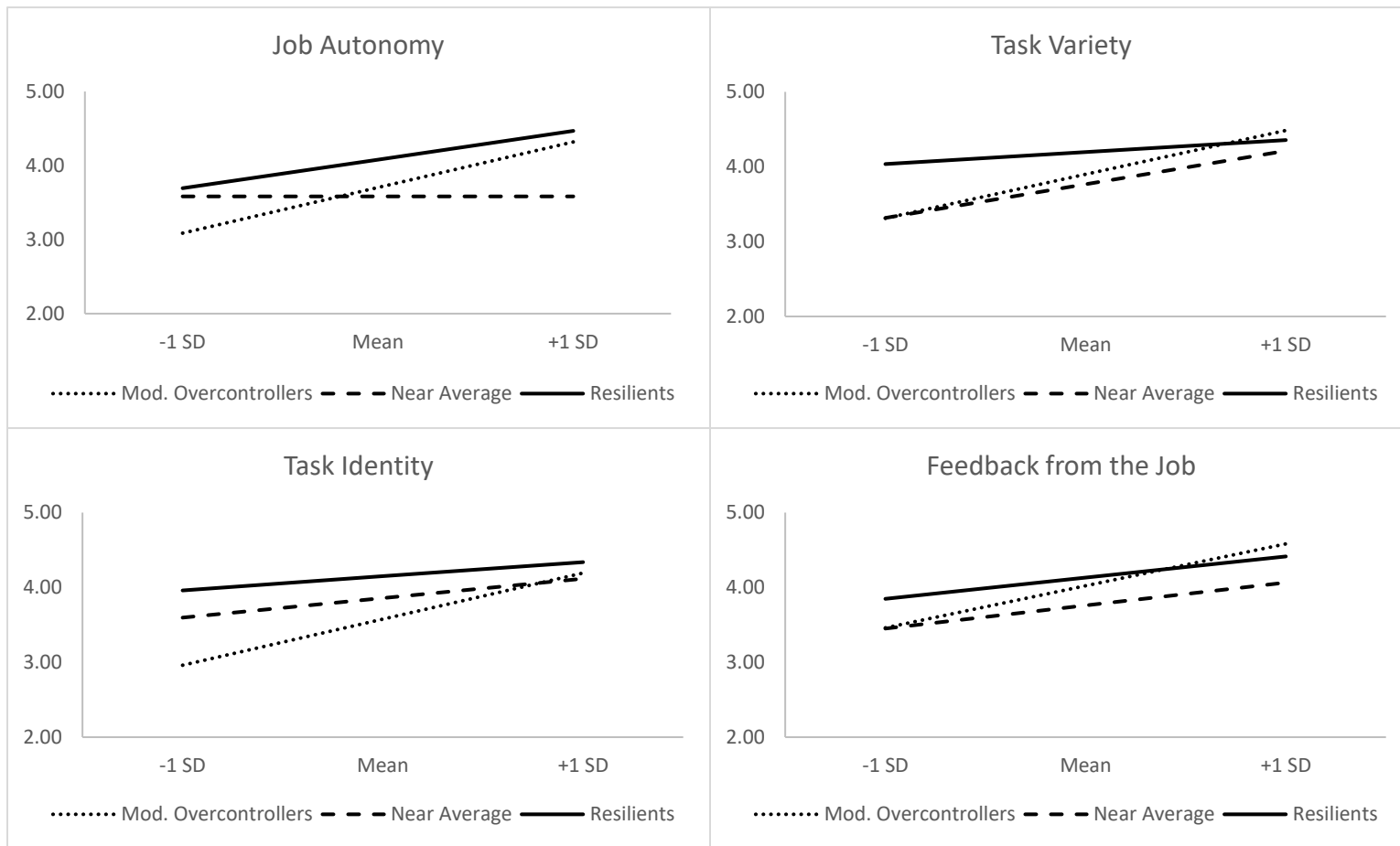
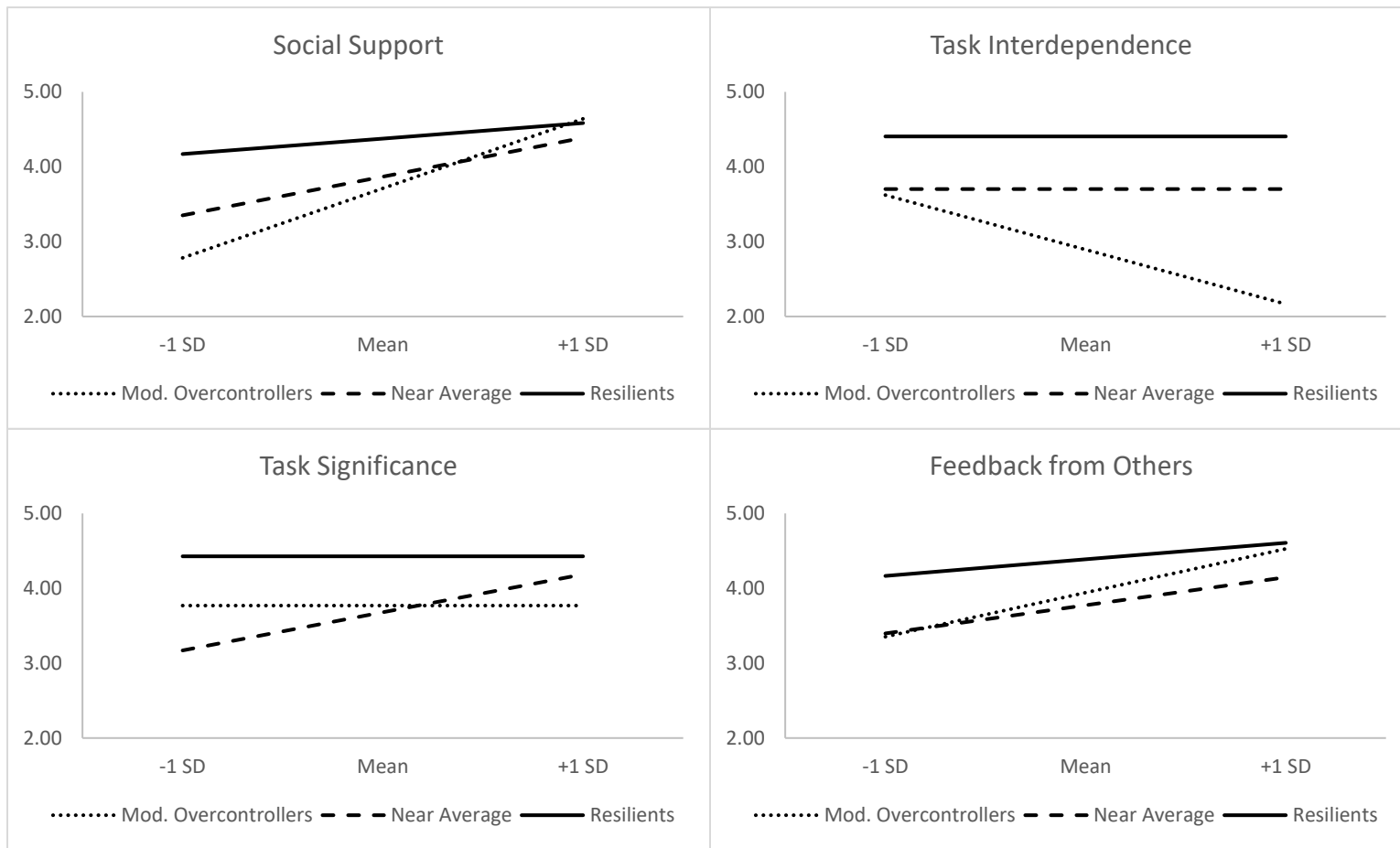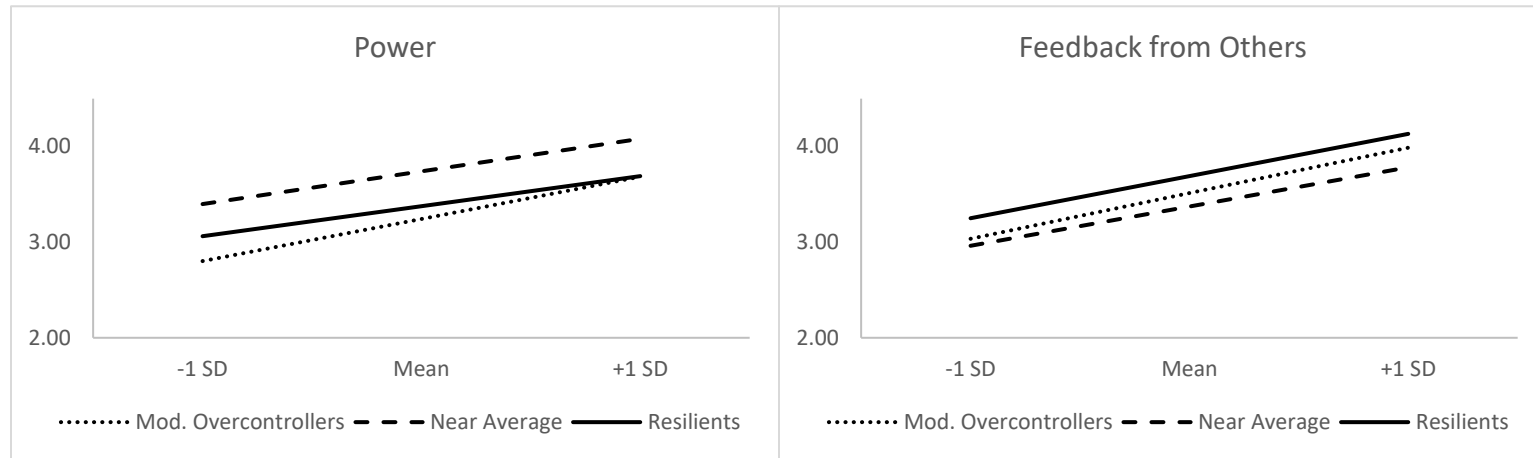Figure 4-7 Acquiring Social Impact Fulfillment across Personality Classes

Figure 4-8 Attaining Power and Recognition Fulfillment across Personality Classes

As seen in Figure 4-5, The Resilient personality class exhibits a higher overall level of fulfillment of developing role mastery and control for all four job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, task variety, task identity, and feedback from the job). For job autonomy, the impact that job autonomy has on fulfillment, as well as the overall level of fulfillment is nearly identical for the Modified Overcontrollers and the Near Average classes. For task variety, the impact of task variety on developing role mastery and control is not significant for the Modified Overcontroller class, but the overall level of fulfillment is higher for this group at lower levels of task variety. In contrast, at higher levels of task variety the overall level of fulfillment is higher for the Near Average class (of those two groups), but both classes still experience lower levels of fulfillment compared to the Resilient class. For task identity, the impact of task variety as well as the overall level of role mastery fulfillment is nearly identical in the Modified Overcontroller and Near Average classes, but again the level of fulfillment is lower for these two classes compared to the Resilient class. Finally, the pattern for feedback from the job is very similar, but the Modified Overcontrollers exhibit a slightly higher overall level (although not significantly different) of fulfillment compared to the Near Average class, but again both classes experience lower fulfillment than the Resilient class. Taken together, these results provide some evidence that partially supports of Hypotheses 13a through 13d.

For gaining clarity of accomplishments, the one consistent pattern across the four job characteristics is that once again, the Resilient personality class exhibits a higher overall level of fulfillment of the three personality classes. For job autonomy, the impact

168

on goal fulfillment is not significant for the Near Average class, but it is for the Modified Overcontroller class. Therefore, at lower levels of job autonomy, the Near Average class exhibit a higher level of fulfillment, but as job autonomy increases, the level of fulfillment becomes higher for the Modified Overcontrollers (but not higher than the Resilients). For both task variety and feedback from the job, there is a stronger relationship between the job characteristic and goal fulfillment for the Modified Overcontrollers as compared to the Near Average class. Thus, while these classes both exhibit very similar levels of fulfillment at lower levels of task variety and feedback from the job, as the level of these job characteristics increases, the Modified Overcontrollers experience an increasingly higher level of fulfillment compared to the Near Average class. Finally, the pattern shown for task identity most cleanly represents the compensatory interaction where the differences in the level of fulfillment across the personality classes are greatest at lower levels of the job characteristics. Overall, these results provide some evidence in support for Hypotheses 15c through d, and somewhat less evidence in support for Hypothesis 15a.

For the acquiring social impact goal, the one consistent pattern is once again, the highest overall levels of goal fulfillment are found in the Resilient class. For social support, the overall level of fulfillment for the three personality classes converges as the level of social support increases, with the Modified Overcontrollers experiencing the lowest overall level of fulfillment. The relationship between task interdependence and acquiring social impact is not significant for both Resilients and the Near Average class, but as seen in Figure 4-7, the overall level is highest for the Resilients. Also, this is the

one instance where there is a negative, significant relationship between job characteristic and goal fulfillment (i.e. the Modified Overcontroller class). As seen in the Figure, at low levels of task interdependence, the Modified Overcontrollers experience relatively identical levels of fulfillment to the Near Average class. However, as task interdependence increases, the level of fulfillment for the Modified Overcontroller rapidly diminishes. At lower levels of task significance, the Modified Overcontrollers experience higher levels of goal fulfillment, while at higher levels of task significance, the Near Average class experiences higher levels. Finally, at lower levels of feedback from others, the Modified Overcontrollers and Near Average classes experience very similar levels of social impact fulfillment, but as feedback increases the levels diverge with the Modified Overcontrollers experiencing the comparatively higher level of fulfillment (but again, not as high as Resilients). Overall, the strongest and most consistent evidence in support of the hypotheses is found for social support (H17a) and feedback from others (H17d), while there is still some, yet weaker evidence in support for Hypotheses 17b (task interdependence) and 17c (task significance).

For the fulfillment of attaining power and recognition goal, once again the Resilients experience the highest level of fulfillment, although the magnitude of the differences between the three personality classes is smaller than for the other three goals. The Near Average class experiences a slightly higher level of fulfillment due to having power, but these differences diminish as the level of power increases. For feedback from others, all three classes experience relatively similar levels of fulfillment, and this pattern is consistent at both lower and higher levels of feedback from others. These

170

results seem to suggest that neither the task and social characteristics considered here, nor the personality profiles based upon the Big Five traits are strongly predictive of the fulfillment of this goal, at least in comparison to the effects found on the other three meaning of work goals. Perhaps future research could expand the scope of situational and dispositional characteristics and identify those that are more strongly related to this specific pathway to meaningfulness. Still, the pattern of these effects does provide some evidence in support for Hypotheses 19a and 19b.

Taken together, these results generally provide support for two key propositions made with respect to the joint impact of job characteristics and personality trait profiles on meaning of work goal fulfillment. The first is the proposition that some individuals are more dependent upon situational characteristics (i.e. Modified Overcontrollers and Near Average classes) for fulfillment, while for others (i.e. Resilients), fulfillment is less dependent upon situational characteristics and more driven by one's own dispositional characteristics. The second proposition is that given these differences, there appears to be evidence that there is a compensatory relationship between job characteristics and personality traits when predicting fulfillment of the four meaning of work goals. Specifically, to experience a high level of fulfillment of these four goals across most job characteristics, one either needs to possess a desirable personality profile (i.e. Resilient) *or* experience a high level of the relevant job characteristic.

Additional Analyses

In addition to testing the hypotheses presented in this dissertation, I also conducted some additional analyses to evaluate the incremental validity that the

171

additional individual difference variables when predicting fulfillment above and beyond the job characteristics and personality traits. Specifically, these additional variables are the three types of goal orientation (i.e. learning, prove-performance, avoid-performance), proactive personality, and the two types of regulatory focus (i.e. promotion and prevention). I conducted four different multiple regression models, one for each meaning of work goal, in which I entered all the job characteristics in step 1, the Big Five personality traits in step 2, and then the additional individual difference variables in step 3. A summary of these results is shown in Table 4.11. When entered as a block, these additional variables explain a significant amount of additional variance in three of the four meaning of work goals, even after entering the Big Five personality traits (Gaining clarity: $\Delta F = 2.49$, $p < .05$; acquiring social impact: $\Delta F = 3.33$, $p < .01$; attaining power and recognition: $\Delta F = 3.48$, $p < .01$). It is also interesting to see that the Big Five personality traits (when considered as additional covariates with the job characteristics), only explain a significant amount of additional variance for fulfillment of the acquiring social impact goal ($\Delta F = 2.42$, $p < .05$).

For the specific goals, it is interesting to see that the two additional characteristics that are significantly related to developing role mastery and control beyond the job characteristics and Big Five traits are prove-performance goal orientation ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$) and promotion focus ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$). Contrast that with gaining clarity of accomplishments which is also significantly related to promotion focus ($\beta = .13$, $p < .05$, one-tailed), but exhibits a positive, significant relationship with learning goal orientation ($\beta = .24$, $p < .01$) while the relationship to prove-performance GO is not

significant (β = .08, n.s.). These results are somewhat surprising and counterintuitive as I would have expected the fulfillment of the desire to have control and mastery over one's work domain (i.e. developing role mastery) to be more strongly influenced by learning goal orientation, and fulfillment of the desire for achievement (i.e. gaining clarity of accomplishments) to be more strongly driven by prove-performance goal orientation.

For acquiring social impact, it is interesting that the fulfillment of this goal is positively (and significantly) related to learning goal orientation (β = .17, p < .05) and prove-performance goal orientation (β = .21, p < .05) and negatively related to avoid-performance goal orientation (β = -.19, p < .05), and none of the other variables. One possible explanation for these findings is that developing positive relationships at work, may be a type of goal that individuals consciously or subconsciously pursue in their work activities. Or, it may be that the development of relationships at work is simply a byproduct of the activities engaged in by goal-driven individuals. Finally, attaining power and recognition is positively related to prove-performance goal orientation (β = .18, p < .05) and promotion focus (β = .19, p < .05) and negatively related to avoid-performance goal orientation (β = -.25, p < .01). These results are generally intuitive, and suggest that the desire to prove one's competence to others and to strive for gains (as opposed to avoiding losses) is more consistent with the eventual attainment of power and influence over other individuals.

Lastly, it is interesting to note that neither proactive personality nor prevention focus was significantly related to any of the four meaning of work goals when all others are included in the model. This suggests that that these two specific characteristics do

not add any incremental validity beyond the Big Five personality traits combined with goal orientation and promotion focus when predicting the fulfillment of these four goals. Taken together, these results are interesting and show that there is value in considering some of these additional traits in more depth as valuable dispositional characteristics connected to the pursuit and attainment of meaningfulness at work.

Table 4-11 Additional Individual Difference Variables as Predictors of Goal Fulfillment

		Model 1		Model 2	
		Developing Role Mastery		**Gaining Clarity of Accomplishments**	
		β	**t**	**β**	**t**
Step 1					
Step 2					
Step 3	Job autonomy	0.58	6.67**	-0.03	-0.37
	Task variety	0.30	3.63**	0.34	4.26**
	Task identity	-0.02	-0.2	0.18	2.23*
	Feedback from the job	-0.14	-1.24	0.13	1.11
	Social support	-0.14	-1.35	0.14	1.44
	Task interdependence	0.04	0.51	0.09	1.12
	Task significance	0.00	0	0.13	1.59
	Power	0.03	0.31	-0.19	-2.33*
	Feedback from others	0.28	2.57*	0.15	1.36
	Neuroticism	-0.03	-0.31	0.04	0.38
	Extraversion	-0.07	-0.76	-0.13	-1.48
	Openness	0.05	0.69	-0.08	-1.07
	Agreeableness	0.13	1.51	0.15	1.7+
	Conscientiousness	-0.05	-0.5	0.05	0.54
	Learning GO	-0.04	-0.52	0.24	2.93**
	Prove-performance GO	0.16	2.07*	0.08	1.06
	Avoid-performance GO	-0.07	-0.84	-0.03	-0.4
	Proactive personality	0.02	0.19	-0.03	-0.34
	Promotion focus	0.17	2.04*	0.13	1.69+
	Prevention focus	-0.01	-0.11	-0.01	-0.07
Step 1	F	14.95**		13.32**	
	R2	0.55		0.52	
Step 2	ΔF	0.82		1.44	
	Total R2	0.57		0.55	
	ΔR2	0.02		0.03	
Step 3	ΔF	1.32		2.49*	
	Total R2	0.60		0.61	
	ΔR2	0.03		0.06	

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; p < .05, one-tailed

Table 4-11 (Cont.)

		Model 3		Model 4	
		Acquiring Social Impact		Attaining Power and Recognition	
		β	t	β	t
Step 1					
Step 2					
Step 3	Job autonomy	0.10	1.08	0.00	0.03
	Task variety	-0.04	-0.44	0.13	1.51
	Task identity	0.09	1.03	0.12	1.38
	Feedback from the job	0.02	0.21	0.06	0.49
	Social support	0.34	3.32**	0.09	0.84
	Task interdependence	0.03	0.38	-0.03	-0.35
	Task significance	0.06	0.77	0.05	0.57
	Power	-0.20	-2.34*	-0.01	-0.14
	Feedback from others	0.27	2.46*	0.44	3.7**
	Neuroticism	-0.16	-1.58	0.08	0.73
	Extraversion	-0.15	-1.64	-0.14	-1.37
	Openness	-0.07	-0.83	-0.09	-1.05
	Agreeableness	0.21	2.32*	0.12	1.27
	Conscientiousness	-0.09	-0.97	-0.13	-1.2
	Learning GO	0.17	2.07*	0.07	0.82
	Prove-performance GO	0.21	2.57*	0.18	2.01*
	Avoid-performance GO	-0.19	-2.3*	-0.25	-2.88**
	Proactive personality	-0.01	-0.06	0.11	1.21
	Promotion focus	0.09	1.07	0.19	2.15*
	Prevention focus	0.01	0.13	-0.01	-0.18
Step 1	F	9.93**		8.76**	
	R2	0.45		0.42	
Step 2	ΔF	2.42*		0.18	
	Total R2	0.51		0.43	
	ΔR2	0.06		0.01	
Step 3	ΔF	3.33**		3.48**	
	Total R2	0.59		0.53	
	ΔR2	0.08		0.10	

** p < .01; * p < .05; p < .05, one-tailed

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

When viewing the findings from this study presented in Chapter 4 in the aggregate, there is a great deal of initial support for the theoretical propositions and hypotheses presented in this study. The first of these overall propositions is that there is value in making the conceptual distinction between the type of meaning one derives from work (i.e. meaning), and the value or significance that one may attach to each of those types (i.e. meaningfulness). Extending this further, in this dissertation, I proposed and found support that there are several distinct pathways through which individuals can derive meaning and ultimately experience meaningfulness in their work. I believe that these results provide some initial support that the four meaning of work goals represent valid constructs that capture the different types of meaning, and the fulfillment of each goal represents a distinct pathway to experienced meaningfulness at work.

The second overall proposition is that there are a number of distinct characteristics of the work environment that serve as levers that can be used to influence a person's experienced meaningfulness at work in distinct ways by drawing upon one or two of these distinct types of meaning. Specifically, with the exception of task interdependence and feedback from the job, each of the task and social characteristics contained in the expanded job characteristics model (see Humphrey et al., 2007) is significantly related to fulfillment of one or more of the four meaning of work goals, even when controlling for all the other task and social characteristics. Conversely, when viewing this from the perspective of the meaning of work goals, the fulfillment of each

of the four goals is most strongly influenced by a different set of task and social characteristics for each goal.

The third overall proposition is that the degree to which individuals find fulfillment of each of the four meaning of work goals is also directly influenced by their personality trait profiles, regardless of the level of these specific environmental characteristics (i.e. the task and social characteristics). The results of this dissertation show that individuals in this sample can be separated into three broad personality types based upon their profile across the Big Five personality traits. The personality profile types found in this sample, which are moderately aligned with those found by previous personality scholars, are referred to as the Modified Overcontroller, Near Average, and Resilient personality profile classes. My results provide strong support that individuals with a Resilient personality profile experience a significantly higher level of fulfillment of all four meaning of work goals compared to the other two broad personality types.

Finally, the fourth proposition is that the relationship between task and social characteristics and meaning of work goal fulfillment differs systematically across these three personality profile groups. Specifically, I have proposed and found evidence that there is a compensatory interaction between job characteristics and personality profile types such that for some personality profiles, the degree of goal fulfillment is more strongly influenced by individuals' dispositional characteristics while for other profile types, it is more strongly influenced by the characteristics of the work environment. Overall, my results provide support for this proposition, and in so doing provide support for the notion of personality profile desirability in that those with a less-desirable

178

personality profile (e.g. Mod. Overcontrollers) are much more dependent upon the situational characteristics for them to experience meaningful work as compared to individuals with a more desirable personality type (e.g. Resilients). Now that I have briefly summarized the potential contributions of this dissertation broadly, I will now elaborate on these in more detail specifically noting how the present study contributes to the respective literatures upon which the present theoretical model is based.

Theoretical Contributions

The first broad set of potential theoretical contributions of this dissertation is rooted in establishing the conceptual distinction between meaning and meaningfulness at work, and more specifically how the four meaning of work goals help to clarify that distinction. Building upon the framework outlined by Rosso and colleagues (2010) and integrating it with the Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior (Barrick et al., 2013), one of the principal contributions of this dissertation is to strengthen the conceptual and empirical distinction between meaning and meaningfulness. At the heart of the integration of these two theoretical perspectives are the four meaning of work goals that serve to mediate the relationship between characteristics of the work environment (i.e. task and social characteristics) and the critical psychological state of experienced meaningfulness. In their integrative framework, Rosso and colleagues (2010) summarized the mechanisms to meaningfulness found across a number of literature streams, and then grouped those mechanisms into four broad pathways using the agency-communion, self-others 2x2 framework. However, they only provide a broad conceptual definition of these pathways, and each pathway is essentially defined as a collection of

mechanisms rather than as a distinct construct. By integrating their work with the TPWB, I provide a more concrete conceptual definition for each of these four constructs and begin to develop the nomological network surrounding them. In doing so, I also extend the meaning of work literature and particularly Rosso et al.'s (2010) work by providing a more direct empirical test of the distinction between meaning and meaningfulness.

Continuing this further, the four meaning of work goals contribute to the Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior in several ways. First, I have built upon the ongoing work of Barrick and colleagues (Barrick et al., working paper), who introduced these four meaning of work goals as constructs that represent the fulfillment of the four cognitive motivational strivings that drive individuals' motivated behavior at work. The theoretical arguments I have made in this dissertation help to establish the conceptual clarity of these four goals even further, as well as assist in developing the nomological network surrounding these meaning of work goals. The integrative theoretical framework I present and test in this dissertation argues that the four cognitive motivational strivings are more proximal to individuals' drive for purposefulness, and the fulfillment of those desires as captured by the meaning of work goals is more proximal to individuals' attainment of meaningfulness at work. In addition, these empirical results can aid in the ongoing validation of the measures of these constructs. Clearly my results show that there is more to be done to refine these measures and establish the discriminant and convergent validity of the four meaning of work goals, particularly with respect to one

another and experienced meaningfulness, but overall I find these initial results to be encouraging.

Another way that this dissertation extends the meaning of work literature relates specifically to the "attaining power and recognition" meaning of work goal. One of the shortcomings I see in Rosso et al.'s (2010) framework (described in detail in Chapter 2) is that their definition of what they label the "Contribution" quadrant does not adequately capture the notion that the ability to exert power and influence over others can be meaningful to some individuals. Using the two dimensions (i.e. agency-communion, self-others) they use to define their framework, seeking meaningfulness through Contribution should reflect the desire individuals have for agency, (which they define as to differentiate, separate, assert, expand, master and create) with respect to others, including other individuals (Rosso et al., 2010). However, the only mechanisms that Rosso et al. (2010), include in this quadrant are those related to either setting aside one's ego or self-interests in favor of others, or having a positive impact on other individuals, the community, or society in general. Scholars have long argued and found evidence that shows that individuals can possess a desire to exert power and influence over others, and that that pursuit can be motivating and fulfilling to those individuals (e.g. Adler, 1939; Hogan, 1996). I have proposed that this desire for status as outlined in the TPWB (Barrick et al., 2013), the fulfillment of which is defined as attaining power and recognition, provides a better conceptual definition of this quadrant. In addition, in this dissertation I have presented a measure for attaining power and recognition and provided an empirical test of the construct's relationship with job characteristics,

181

personality profile types, and experienced meaningfulness at work. My results provide some empirical support that the fulfillment of the attaining power and recognition goal is one distinct way in which individuals may derive meaning in their work, and that it is second only to gaining clarity of accomplishments in terms of the strength of the relationship each of the four meaning of work goals has on experienced meaningfulness.

In terms of its situational antecedents, similar to acquiring social impact, the fulfillment of attaining power and recognition is more strongly influenced by the social characteristics as compared to the task characteristics. However, contrary to my hypotheses, having expert or formal power in one's job role is not significantly related to attaining power and recognition fulfillment. It is also interesting that task significance is not positively related to attaining power and recognition fulfillment either, particularly given that perceiving that one's work has a positive impact on others is conceptually aligned with Rosso's (2010) definition of the Contribution quadrant. The only two job characteristics that are significantly related to attaining power and recognition when all characteristics are included in the model are task identity ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) and feedback from others ($\beta = .44$, $p < .01$). Again, due to multicollinearity I interpret these results with caution, but they do seem to indicate that having an understanding of how one's work impacts others, whether that information is obtained directly from the job itself or from other individuals, provides individuals with some level of fulfillment that they have power and influence over others.

This leads into the second broad set of potential theoretical contributions of this dissertation, which are focused on the relationship between the meaning of work goals

and their situational antecedents as represented by the characteristics of one's work environment. This extends the job characteristics literature by identifying *how* each of the most dominant task and social characteristics found in the literature are connected to the meaningfulness individuals experience at work. The extant job characteristics literature has found strong support that the strongest link between several task and social characteristics is experienced meaningfulness at work (e.g. Humphrey et al., 2007; Johns et al., 1992). However, to date, the mechanisms linking job characteristics and meaningfulness have largely been presented theoretically but not measured empirically, which has resulted in a number of different proposed mechanisms that explain those relationships. This study clarifies and extends this work by first providing a conceptual definition of four distinct constructs that encompass these mediating mechanisms. The present study also extends the job characteristics literature by providing theoretical arguments and empirical evidence that different job characteristics allow individuals to experience meaningfulness at work in distinct ways. In general, I have found that the majority of the task-focused job characteristics included in this dissertation (i.e. job autonomy, task variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback from the job) as a set are more strongly related to the fulfillment of the two self-focused meaning of work goals (i.e. developing role mastery and control and gaining clarity of accomplishments). In contrast, the social-focused job characteristics included in this dissertation (i.e. social support, task interdependence, power, and feedback from others) as a set are more strongly related to the two others-focused meaning of work goals (i.e. acquiring social impact and attaining power and recognition).

In looking at the pattern of relationships with job characteristics and meaning of work goals, the desire for mastery and control over one's work is most strongly influenced by one's level of job autonomy ($\beta = .58$, $p < .01$). Only two other job characteristics, task variety ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) and feedback from others ($\beta = .21$, $p < .05$), have a significant impact on the fulfillment of this desire. That job autonomy is the situational characteristic most strongly related to fulfillment of this goal is not surprising given that this goal is focused on the judgment that one is a master over one's own work domain. Thus, I would expect the fulfillment of this meaning of work goal as arising very much from within, and has very little dependence on any signals or information from other persons or entities. With that in mind, that feedback from others is significantly related to fulfillment of the role mastery goal is somewhat surprising. One's perception that one is receiving information regarding one's achievements at work (i.e. gaining clarity of accomplishment) is most strongly influenced by having a high level of task variety ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$) and task identity ($\beta = .24$, $p < .01$), but it also is significantly related to social support ($\beta = .20$, $p < .05$), task significance ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$, one-tailed), while in contrast it is negatively related to power ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$).

It is interesting to see that of the four meaning of work goals, gaining clarity of accomplishments is the one that displays significant relationships with the broadest set of job characteristics. When all characteristics are included in the model, gaining clarity of accomplishments is positively and significantly related to task variety ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$), task identity ($\beta = .24$, $p < .01$), task significance ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$, one-tailed), social support ($\beta = .20$, $p < .05$), and negatively related to power ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$). I submit

that this shows that this goal is somewhat broader in nature than the others, in that

information that signals that one is getting things done and achieving objectives at work

can come in a number of different ways, from a number of different sources.

Individuals' desire to bond with others and form relationships at work (i.e.

acquiring social impact) is most strongly influenced by having a supportive environment

(social support, $\beta = .28$, $p < .01$) as well as receiving feedback from other persons ($\beta =$

$.28$, $p < .01$). This latter relationship is interesting and supports the proposition that

feedback from others is inherently complex, and is expected to influence a number of

outcomes depending upon the content of the feedback, the source, etc. It is interesting

that feedback from others is positively and significantly related to acquiring social

impact, while feedback from the job is not. One possible explanation for this is that the

source of the feedback may be as important to the receiver as is the content, at least in

terms of having a perception that one is connecting with others in the workplace.

Finally, the only two job characteristics that are significantly related to fulfilling

individuals' desire to exert power and influence over others (when all characteristics are

included in the model) are task identity ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) and feedback from others ($\beta =$

$.44$, $p < .01$). It is surprising that power is not significantly related to the fulfillment of

this goal, even when only the social characteristics are included in the model. It is also

interesting to see that of the three meaning of work goals that are significantly related to

feedback from others, the strongest relationship is found with attaining power and

recognition (role mastery: $\beta = .21$, $p < .05$; acquiring social impact: $\beta = .28$, $p < .01$;

attaining power and recognition: $\beta = .44$, $p < .01$). Taken together, I may conclude that

the fulfillment of the attaining power goal may be less about actually being in a position of power or influence over others, and more about simply receiving informative feedback from other individuals.

My results also show that there is variance across the four meaning of work goals in terms of how strongly the fulfillment of each goal is related to the eventual outcome of experienced meaningfulness at work. These results show that one's ability to gain clarity of his or her accomplishments has the strongest relationship to experiencing meaningfulness at work ($r = .64$). Fulfillment of the attaining power and recognition goal is the next ($r = .51$), followed by acquiring social impact ($r = .43$) and finally developing role mastery and control ($r = .30$). I do interpret these results with extreme caution due to a high level of multi-collinearity discussed previously. However, given that previous meta-analytic findings have shown that there is variance across the many task and social job characteristics and their impact on experienced meaningfulness (see Humphrey et al., 2007), the current results may provide additional evidence that while there may be different ways in which individuals can derive meaning at work, the relative significance that individuals attach to each types of meaning may not be equivalent. Additional research is needed in order to more definitely conclude that this is indeed the case. In addition, future research might also expand the nomological network to include additional ways in which individuals find fulfillment at work beyond the four meaning of work goals described in this dissertation. I have drawn upon the rich history of motivation research in order to identify these goals, however, I do not claim that these four meaning of work goals subsume all possible ways in which individuals may

186

experience meaningfulness at work. Thus, additional research would be valuable for continuing to establish both the discriminant validity as well as the comprehensiveness of these four meaning of work goals.

The third broad set of potential theoretical contributions arises from studying personality trait profiles, and how they directly and along with the job characteristics, jointly impact perceptions of meaning and meaningfulness at work. First, the theoretical model and the empirical results of this dissertation contribute to the job characteristics literature by showing the value of considering both the situational characteristics as well as within-person characteristics when predicting experienced meaningfulness at work. As mentioned previously, much of the job characteristics literature has largely assumed that the relationship between job characteristics and perceptions of meaningfulness are more or less uniform across all individuals within the population. However, the latent profile analysis results show that contrary to this assumption, there are very dramatic differences in the relationship between job characteristics, the meaning of work goals, and meaningfulness across personality profile types. When looking at the differential relationships across the three personality profile classes for each of the four goals, there are some characteristics that are quite strongly related to goal fulfillment, while other relationships are quite low or not significant.

Taking this further, these results also show that there is value in taking a person-centered approach and considering multiple personality traits simultaneously rather than evaluating individual traits in isolation. This approach and the present results contribute to the personality literature as well as to person x situation interactionist frameworks in

general by showing that there is more to learn by adopting a person-centered approach when considering the "P" side of the equation. To this point, adding the individual personality traits into my multiple regression models did not significantly increase the amount of explained variance in any of the four meaning of work goals beyond that which was already explained by the task and social characteristics alone. If one were to rely solely upon these results obtained from a variable-centered approach, one may conclude that the addition of the personality traits does not significantly improve our ability to predict fulfillment of the meaning of work goals beyond the influence of the task and social characteristics themselves. However, as we see from the latent profile results this conclusion would be premature and short-sighted. When all of the Big Five traits are included and it is the person's profile across all the traits that is of interest, there is a great deal of utility that results. It is important to note that the value here is not necessarily that a person-centered approach will provide some additional amount of variance explained in the outcome variable beyond any variable-centered approach. Instead, the value of the person-centered approach is in identifying and understanding more about the *differences* in the amount of variance explained in an outcome of interest across different subgroups of individuals. Granted, I acknowledge that due to limited statistical power associated with the modest sample size, many of the differences in parameter estimates given in my LPA results are not significantly different from one another. However, there are differences in magnitude that largely correspond to the a priori predicted pattern of relationships, and therefore, additional data is needed so as to

188

be able to more conclusively determine whether the differential relationships found in this sample are representative of those found in the larger population.

Applying a person-centered approach also extends the TPWB by taking a more holistic view of individuals and focusing on their entire profile across the Big Five traits when evaluating the relationship between job characteristics and meaningfulness at work. The TPWB relies on a more traditional, variable-centered approach in which the interaction between job characteristics and personality traits is developed and presented in a construct-by-construct basis. It is interesting to note that even while the theory is presented in this manner, the authors argue that each of the four motivational strivings is most strongly rooted in more than one of the Big Five traits (status-striving being the exception; see Barrick et al., 2013). Thus, the seeds of a person-centered approach that considers one's profile across all the Big Five personality traits rather than a variable-centered, construct-by-construct approach is already embedded within the theory. In addition to going beyond the trait-by-trait approach, this dissertation also extends the TPWB by providing some empirical results that can speak to the validity of the propositions presented in that theory, and those have been described previously.

The fourth potential theoretical contribution of this dissertation, and perhaps one of the more impactful contributions, is the finding that the interaction between job characteristics and personality profile classes appears to be compensatory in nature. A corollary to this is the notion of personality profile desirability, in that for some individuals, finding meaningful work is more strongly driven from within, while for others it is more dependent upon the person's work environment. This contributes to the

189

TPWB by providing evidence that helps to clarify the nature of the interaction between job characteristics and personality traits. The published theory (e.g. Barrick et al., 2013) does not explicitly state what the nature of the interaction between job characteristics and personality traits is. The theory does propose that the highest levels of meaningfulness at work are obtained through the concordance between job characteristics and personality traits. The way that concordance is defined in the published paper seems to imply that the authors are arguing that the interaction is synergistic, or at least additive in nature. In contrast, the results of this dissertation consistently and clearly provide evidence in support for a compensatory interaction between job characteristics and personality traits, such that either a certain personality profile, *or* a high level of certain task and social characteristics leads to high levels of fulfillment. Referring back to the notion of personality profile desirability, this means that for individuals with a more desirable personality type (i.e.Resilients), the degree to which they experience meaning of work goal fulfillment is more strongly influenced by their own dispositional characteristics and much less so by the characteristics of their work environment. In contrast, for individuals with less-desirable personality types, (the Modified Overcontrollers especially), the degree to which they are able to experience meaningful work is much more dependent upon their perceptions of their work environment.

Practical Implications

In addition to the implications for theory and research, these findings also provide some meaningful implications related to management practices as well. The first

implication of the current findings, particularly with respect to the direct and joint effects that personality trait profiles and job characteristics have on the attainment of meaningfulness at work, is that personality matters. Given the rich extant literature that has shown the strong connection between meaningfulness at work and desirable outcomes such as increased motivation (e.g. Humphrey et al., 2007; Rosso et al., 2010), job attitudes, employee engagement and performance, enabling employees to find greater meaning in their work is certainly of interest to managers. This has implications for employee selection in terms of the need to consider dispositional characteristics along with other attributes throughout the selection process. In addition, at present when considering dispositional characteristics at selection, employers largely focus on individual traits, conscientiousness for example, that have been shown to be those that are most strongly and consistently related to key outcomes such as higher levels of work engagement and job performance. The need to consider personality traits at selection is certainly not new, but my results show that there is great utility in going beyond a focus on individual traits and instead considering a person's profile across a number of traits and seeking to separate those with a more desirable personality type from those with less-desirable types. If relying upon the Big Five framework, the Resilient personality profile would represent the "ideal" profile type that managers should seek to hire.

A second implication for managers is the understanding that while having meaningful work is fundamental to employee motivation, there is not a one-size-fits-all recipe for achieving that state. First, there are very different pathways to meaningfulness that can be derived from one's work experiences, and these pathways are enacted by

191

having experiences that fulfill one or more of the four meaning of work goals. Thus, managers can think about this in terms of having four distinct dimensions along which jobs can be designed or redesigned so as to maximize meaningfulness at work. Second, each of these four dimensions can be manipulated by a different set of levers that are represented by the task and social characteristics of one's work environment. Third, these levers differ in their strength, and thus not all job characteristics have an equivalent impact on the degree to which employees will experience their work to be meaningful and fulfilling as a result. For example, while having greater job autonomy and task variety would both positively impact a person's fulfillment of their desire to have control over their work, job autonomy would appear to have a much stronger impact than would task variety. In addition, the fulfillment of each of these four meaning of work goals differs in terms of its eventual impact on experienced meaningfulness at work. In general, my results show that the degree to which individuals perceive that they are accomplishing objectives at work and are able to exert power or influence over others seem to be more meaningful to individuals while having control over one's work environment and developing strong relational ties seem to be less important in terms of attaining meaningfulness at work. Taken together, these results could potentially help managers to focus their resources and their job design efforts on a narrower set of job characteristics than they currently do.

A third implication for managers arises from my findings that there is a compensatory interaction between job characteristics and personality traits when predicting the meaning of work goal fulfillment. This represents what I view as a

relatively sizeable shift in how managers think about job design. More specifically, it changes much of our thinking about *which* employees managers should focus their job design efforts on, and conversely where such efforts are largely unnecessary. My results suggest that in terms of having employees who are motivated as a result of them experiencing meaning and fulfillment in their jobs, managers need only focus on certain types of employees. However, the relatively sizeable shift comes from which group of employees my results indicate managers should focus their job design efforts on in terms of where the greatest gains in meaning fulfillment and meaningfulness will be found as a result of those efforts. Specifically, there is not much to be gained by focusing on job design when it comes to employees that have more desirable personality profile types (i.e. the Resilient type). It appears that Resilients will ensure that they derive meaning from their work with little dependence on these situational characteristics of their work environment, and thus the manager's job is largely done at selection. On the other hand, job design and redesign efforts can have a substantial positive impact on employees with other personality types, some of whom we may have previously thought were unmanageable, such as those represented by the Modified Overcontroller personality profile type. Taken together, these results show that while managers would certainly seek to hire the right personality profile types from the start, all is not lost if a few "less desirable" types make it through the screening process at selection. Thus, in order to reap the benefits that result from employees finding meaning in their work, employees either need to have the right personality type, or the right job design, but not necessarily both.

Limitations and Future Research

I believe this study has the potential to increase our understanding of how certain dispositional and situational characteristics combine to influence perceptions of meaningfulness at work. However, there are also some key limitations of this study that must be noted as well, along with some brief recommendations for how future research can address some of these limitations as well as continue to extend this line of inquiry going forward. One limitation of this dissertation is related to the sample I used to test the hypotheses. First, although there was a great deal of variance in terms of the job types represented in the sample, the majority of the participants were working for the same large organization. Thus, there may have been some restriction of range on the study variables due to the nature of the organization's industry, its management policies, high-level leadership influences, and so forth. In addition, I have a relatively small sample size, which limits the statistical power necessary to be able to more firmly conclude that there is statistical support for the hypotheses presented in this dissertation. Where the sample size is most evident is with respect to the latent profile analyses. With a relatively small starting sample size, even separating the sample into three latent classes has the potential to yield a class with very few individuals, and this was the case in my data set. The reduced statistical power related to having small latent classes was evident when testing my latent profile results in that while there were some very substantial differences in the effect sizes across the latent classes, many of these differences were not statistically significant. The fact that I do find a number of significant results, and that these results are largely consistent with the a priori

hypotheses given the small sample size is certainly encouraging. I am hopeful that with a larger sample size (and greater statistical power), there may be more conclusive evidence that would allow for a more definitive test of the hypotheses presented in this study.

A second limitation of this dissertation is that all of the study variables were rated by the same source. As a result of this, I do believe that the relationships found in this dataset are inflated across the board, to some degree, due to this common-source variance. However, I also argue that these inflated relationships should not be overly concerning for the following reasons. First, the overall propositions underlying my entire theoretical model and the resulting hypotheses are not centered on establishing the presence of positive (or negative) relationships between study variables. Rather, the propositions and hypotheses are focused on identifying differences in the *pattern* of relationships between variables. For example, while the presence of a positive relationship between a specific job characteristic and meaning of work goal is fundamental to my theory and hypotheses, the real focus of my theoretical arguments and hypotheses is that the relationship in question is stronger (or weaker) in comparison to the relationships with other variables in the model. Therefore, while I acknowledge that the relationships found here are inflated due to common-source variance, I believe that this inflation applies more or less uniformly across all relationships in my model. Second, I argue that there is a sound theoretical basis for measuring all of the study variables of interest here from the same source. At its heart, this dissertation is focused on identifying the factors that influence the sources and the mechanisms through which individuals derive meaning in their work. These perceptions are deeply rooted within an

individual's evaluations of their work experiences as part of their sense-making process, and as such would be extremely difficult to assess from another source. In addition, I also argue that while I have referred to one's experiences arising from the person's work environment as the situational characteristics of interest here, in reality it is the individual's *perception* of those characteristics and the experiences that arise therefrom that ultimately drive his or her attainment of meaningfulness at work. This is consistent with the notion that individuals are not passive recipients of their work environment but actively shape their work environment not only in tangible, but also in psychological ways so as to be more meaningful to them. Thus, assessing the study variables from sources other than the individuals in question would not fully capture the individual's psychological perceptions and evaluations of the meaningfulness of their work that come about from the sensemaking process. That being said, having different sources for rating some of the study variables would allow for a more robust test of the theoretical propositions contained in this dissertation.

A third limitation of the study that must be addressed going forward has to do with establishing the construct validity of the four meaning of work goals. On the positive side, the pattern of the bi-variate correlations with all of the study variables provides some encouraging support for the convergent and discriminant validity of the four meaning of work goals. Overall, the highest correlations amongst the four meaning of work goals is with themselves as well as with the outcome variable, experienced meaningfulness. Given the strong conceptual relationship between the four meaning of work goals themselves, as well as the four goals and meaningfulness, I would expect to

see correlations among these variables to be the highest among the study variables. However, establishing discriminant validity also requires that these correlations are not so high that they cannot be established as distinct constructs. Thus, correlations on the order of in the .4 to .5 range would provide evidence in support for the discriminant and convergent validity of the meaning of work goals, and there are some pairs of correlations that fall within this range. On the positive side, the correlations between the task and social characteristics and the meaning of work goals and meaningfulness are only in the moderate to high range in most instances (r values between .2 and .55). One exception is the correlation between job autonomy and developing role mastery and control ($r = .68$). The lowest correlations (and the most non-significant bi-variate pairs) are found between the individual difference variables and the meaning of work goals and meaningfulness. Among the personality traits, Neuroticism (average $r = -.28$) and Conscientiousness (average $r = .27$) are those traits that are most strongly related to the meaning of work goals and meaningfulness. However, on the negative side, the very high inter-correlations among the other pairs of meaning of work goals (Average $r = .58$) fails to provide more complete, compelling evidence of the discriminant validity of the four meaning of work goals. With respect to the correlations between the four meaning of work goals and meaningfulness, the bivariate correlations found are in the range that supports the distinction between meaning and meaningfulness, with one notable exception that being between gaining clarity of accomplishments and meaningfulness ($r = .64$). The average correlation between the other three meaning of work goals and

meaningfulness (average $r = .41$), is within the expected range and provides some support for the distinction between these constructs.

The high degree of multicollinearity among the proposed mediating and outcome variables has limited my ability to test a full mediation model that includes all four meaning of work goals (i.e. the mediators) and the focal outcome (i.e. meaningfulness) in a single omnibus model. With the high inter-correlations among the four mediators, including them all in a single model yields relatively unstable and unreliable results due to the high amount of shared variance among the four mediating variables. In addition, multicollinearity concerns are magnified when attempting to test the full mediation pathway (i.e. the indirect effect of task/social characteristics on meaningfulness), in this case due to the high correlations between gaining clarity of accomplishments and meaningfulness. Any model that includes a second-stage pathway between gaining clarity of accomplishments and meaningfulness results in this pathway being significant in all models, while none of the pathways between the remaining three meaning of work goals and meaningfulness are significant. To overcome these multicollinearity issues in this dissertation and still provide an empirical test of my hypotheses, I have tested my overall theoretical model in more of a piecemeal fashion consistent with the original hypotheses by focusing on the first and second stages of the model separately. Thus, if future research is able to differentiate these constructs empirically, there would be an opportunity to more fully test my theoretical model as originally envisioned.

A fourth limitation of this dissertation is that the three personality trait profile classes (i.e. Resilients, Undercontrollers, Overcontrollers) did not emerge with their

respective profiles across the Big Five traits as predicted in the hypotheses. Part of this issue can certainly be attributed to the small sample size, where the personality profile of each class is determined by a relatively small number of individuals. A larger sample size with correspondingly larger sub-groups of people within each class is needed so as to be able to more conclusively determine if the profiles across the five personality traits found in this sample mirror the larger population, or if they are an artifact of this specific sample. If a larger sample did indeed yield personality profile classes that more closely aligned with the Resilients, Overcontrollers, and Undercontrollers as hypothesized, a more direct and complete evaluation of the study hypotheses could be made.

A fifth limitation, related to the previous point, is centered on the dispositional characteristics' framework upon which I based my person-centered approach. In this dissertation, I focus on the Big Five personality trait framework for multiple reasons. First, there is a fairly substantial body of literature that has replicated the three personality trait profiles presented in this paper, although there has been some variance in the profile configurations across these studies. Second, as I argued in Chapter 2, the Big Five trait framework more fully captures a person's motivational strivings and the mechanisms through which the person derives meaning at work, which is outlined in one of the fundamental theoretical frameworks upon which my study model is based (i.e. the TPWB, Barrick et al., 2013). However, the Big Five traits may be too broad and too distal to the more fine-grained distinctions between the four different pathways to meaningfulness at work. It may be that narrower trait frameworks may serve as a more useful framework upon which to identify distinct configural profile groups when

studying the relationship between job characteristics and meaning of work goal fulfillment. For example, goal orientation may be more compatible and more theoretically-focused on the underlying premise embedded in the TPWB and much of the meaning of work literature in that individual's actions at work are goal-driven, and that the distal goal of meaningfulness at work is driven by the more proximal pursuit and fulfillment of a person's unique cognitive motivational strivings. In any event, the results of this dissertation show that there is utility in taking a person-centered approach to evaluating the combined impact of person and situational characteristics on meaningfulness as work, and that the Big Five traits provide a useful basis for doing this. However, future research could evaluate the utility of other trait frameworks which could serve as the basis for person-centered analyses as well and whether they provide additional utility beyond focusing on the Big Five traits alone.

Conclusion

There is a rich and growing body of literature that has shown that the pursuit and attainment of meaningfulness at work is fundamental to the employee's motivation, engagement, performance and overall well-being. In spite of this rich body of knowledge, the results presented in this dissertation provide evidence that experiencing meaningfulness at work may be even more nuanced than we previously thought. These findings illustrate that there are a number of different ways in which individuals can find meaning in their work. Much of the extant literature has focused solely on the value or significance that individuals derive from their work (i.e. meaningfulness) but have not fully accounted for the different sources and mechanisms through which that

meaningfulness is attained. In addition, these results show that finding meaning at work is influenced by one's own dispositional characteristics as well as the characteristics of one's work environment, and that the relative impact of each varies greatly across individuals. If future research continued to support these findings, the understanding that personality trait profiles and job characteristics can be thought of as substitutes for one another in terms of their impact on meaningfulness at work would have a tremendous impact on both theory and practice. Overall, these results provide some very encouraging findings and the opportunity for additional research that contributes to a number of research streams going forward. Hopefully, I am not alone and there are others who will have that same opinion as well.

REFERENCES

Adler, A. 1939. *Social interest*. New York: Putnam.

Aldenderfer, M. S. & Blashfield, R. K. 1984. *Cluster analysis*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Allport, G. W. 1955. *Becoming: Basic considerations for a psychology of personality*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Allport, G. W. 1966. Traits revisited. *American Psychologist*, 21(1): 1-10.

Amabile, T. M., Hill, K. G., Hennessey, B. A., & Tighe, E. M. 1994. The work preference inventory - assessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(5): 950-967.

Argyris, C. 1964. *Integrating the individual and the organization*. New York: Wiley.

Aristotle. 2000. *Nicomachean ethics (R. Crisp. Translation)*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Ashforth, B. E. & Kreiner, G. E. 1999. "How can you do it?": Dirty work and the challenge of constructing a positive identity. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(3): 413-434.

Ashforth, B. E. & Mael, F. 1989. Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(1): 20-39.

Austin, J. T. & Vancouver, J. B. 1996. Goal constructs in psychology: Structure, process, and content. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120(3): 338-375.

Bachrach, D. G., Powell, B. C., Collins, B. J., & Richey, R. G. 2006. Effects of task interdependence on the relationship between helping behavior and group

performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(6): 1396-1405.

Bakan, D. 1966. *The duality of human existence: An essay on psychology and religion*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Bandura, A. & Cervone, D. 1986. Differential engagement of self-reactive influences in cognitive motivation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 38(1): 92-113.

Bandura, A. 1977. *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. 1986. *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barrick, M.R., Mount, M.K., DeGeest, D.S. Working paper. Modeling the effects of the individual differences and job characteristics on purposeful work behavior.

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Li, N. 2013. The theory of purposeful work behavior: the role of personality, higher-order goals, and job characteristics. *Academy of Management Review*, 38(1): 132-153.

Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., & Piotrowski, M. 2002. Personality and job performance: Test of the mediating effects of motivation among sales representatives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1): 43-51.

Bateman, T. S. & Crant, J. M. 1993. The proactive component of organizational-behavior - A measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2): 103-118.

Bauer, D. J. & Curran, P. J. 2003. Distributional assumptions of growth mixture models: Implications for overextraction of latent trajectory classes. *Psychological*

Methods, 8(3): 338-363.

Baumeister, R. F. & Leary, M. R. 1995. The need to belong - desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human-motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(3): 497-529.

Baumeister, R. F. & Vohs, K. D. 2002. The pursuit of meaningfulness in life. In D. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *The handbook of positive psychology*: 608-618. New York: Oxford University Press.

Baumeister, R. F. 1998. The self. In D. T. Gilbert & S. T. Fiske (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Psychology*: 680-740. New York: McGraw Hill.

Bell, N. E. & Staw, B. M. 1989. People as sculptors versus sculpture: The roles of personal control in organizations. In M. B. Arthur & D. T. Hall & B. S. Lawrence (Eds.), *The handbook of career theory*: 232-251. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bentler, P. M. 1990. Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2): 238-246.

Berg, J. M., Grant, A. M., & Johnson, V. 2010. When Callings Are Calling: Crafting Work and Leisure in Pursuit of Unanswered Occupational Callings. *Organization Science*, 21(5): 973-994.

Bishop, J. W. & Scott, K. D. 2000. An examination of organizational and team commitment in a self-directed team environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(3): 439-450.

Blatt, R. & Camden, C. T. 2007. Positive relationships and cultivating community. In J.

E. Dutton & B. R. Ragins (Eds.), ***Exploring positive relationships at work: Building a theoretical and research foundation***: 243-264. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Blauner, R. 1964. ***Alienation and freedom***. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Block, J. 1971. ***Lives through time***. Berkeley, CA: Bancroft Books.

Borgatta, E. F. 1964. The structure of personality-characteristics. ***Behavioral Science***, 9(1): 8-17.

Breaugh, J. A. 1985. The measurement of work autonomy. ***Human Relations***, 38(6): 551-570.

Brief, A. P. & Nord, W. R. 1990. Work and meaning. Definitions and intrepretations. In A. P. Brief & W. R. Nord (Eds.), ***Meanings of occupational work***: 1-19. Lexington: Lexington Books.

Brockner, J. & Higgins, E. T. 2001. Regulatory focus theory: Implications for the study of emotions at work. ***Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes***, 86(1): 35-66.

Brown, S. P., Ganesan, S., & Challagalla, G. 2001. Self-efficacy as a moderator of information-seeking effectiveness. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 86(5): 1043-1051.

Bunderson, J. S. & Thompson, J. A. 2009. The Call of the Wild: Zookeepers, Callings, and the Double-edged Sword of Deeply Meaningful Work. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 54(1): 32-57.

Buss, A. H. & Finn, S. E. 1987. Classification of personality-traits. ***Journal of***

Personality and Social Psychology, 52(2): 432-444.

Cable, D. M. & Edwards, J. R. 2004. Complementary and supplementary fit: A theoretical and empirical integration. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5): 822-834.

Campion, M. A. 1988. Interdisciplinary approaches to job design - a constructive replication with extensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(3): 467-481.

Campion, M. A., Medsker, G. J., & Higgs, A. C. 1993. Relations between work group characteristics and effectiveness - implications for designing effective work groups. *Personnel Psychology*, 46(4): 823-850.

Caplan, R. D. 1987. Person-environment fit theory and organizations - commensurate dimensions, time perspectives, and mechanisms. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(3): 248-267.

Cardador, M. T. 2009. *Banking on meaningful work: How, why, and when bankers experience meaningful work through helping others*. University of Illinois.

Carver, C. S. & Scheier, M. F. 2000. Scaling back goals and recalibration of the affect system are processes in normal adaptive self-regulation: understanding 'response shift' phenomena. *Social Science & Medicine*, 50(12): 1715-1722.

Caspi, A. & Shiner, R. 2006. *Handbook of child psychology*: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Cattell, R. B. 1943. The description of personality: Basic traits resolved into clusters. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 38(4): 476-506.

Cattell, R. B. 1946. *The Description of personality: basic traits resolved into clusters*. Yonkers, NY: World Book.

Cattell, R. B. 1947. Confirmation and clarification of primary personality factors. *Psychometrika*, 12(3): 197-220.

Cattell, R. B. 1948. The primary personality factors in women compared with those in men. *British Journal of Psychology-Statistical Section*, 1: 114-130.

Cervone, D., Jiwani, N., & Wood, R. 1991. Goal-setting and the differential influence of self-regulatory processes on complex decision-making performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 61(2): 257-266.

Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. 2011. Work engagement: a quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1): 89-136.

Cooper, W. H. & Richardson, A. J. 1986. Unfair comparisons. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(2): 179-184.

Costa, P. J. J. & McCrae, R. R. 1985. *The NEO Personality Inventory*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Costa, P. T. & McCrae, R. R. 1992. *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five Factor (NEO-FFI) Inventory Professional Manual.* Odessa, FL: PAR.

Courtright, S. H., Thurgood, G. R., Stewart, G. L., & Pierotti, A. 2015. Structural interdependence in teams: An integrative framework and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(6): 1825-1846.

Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Citera, M. 1992. A goal hierarchy model of personality, motivation, and leadership. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 15: 267-322.

Davis, L. E. 1957. Job design and productivity: A new approach. *Personnel*, 33: 418-
429.

de Charms, R. 1968. *Personal causation: The internal affective determinants of behavior*. New York: Academic Press.

de Jong, S. B., Van der Vegt, G. S., & Molleman, E. 2007. The relationships among asymmetry in task dependence, perceived helping behavior, and trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6): 1625-1637.

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. 1985. The general causality orientations scale - self-determination in personality. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19(2): 109-134.

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. 2000. The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4): 227-268.

Deci, E. L. 1975. *Intrinsic Motivation*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Gagne, M., Leone, D. R., Usunov, J., & Kornazheva, B. P. 2001. Need satisfaction, motivation, and well-being in the work organizations of a former eastern bloc country: A cross-cultural study of self-determination. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(8): 930-942.

DeShon, R. P. & Gillespie, J. Z. 2005. A motivated action theory account of goal orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(6): 1096-1127.

Diefendorff, J. M. & Chandler, M. M. 2011. Motivating employees. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 3: 35-135. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Diefendorff, J. M. & Mehta, K. 2007. The relations of motivational traits with workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4): 967-977.

Digman, J. M. 1990. Personality structure - emergence of the 5-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41: 417-440.

Dutton, J. E. & Heaphy, E. 2003. The power of high quality connections. In K. Cameron & J. E. Dutton & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship*: 263-278. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Dutton, J. E., Worline, M. C., Frost, P. J., & Lilius, J. 2006. Explaining compassion organizing. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 51(1): 59-96.

Edwards, J. R. 1996. An examination of competing versions of the person-environment fit approach to stress. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(2): 292-339.

Edwards, J. R. 2008. Person-Environment Fit in Organizations: An Assessment of Theoretical Progress. *Academy of Management Annals*, 2: 167-230.

Elliot, A. J. & Church, M. A. 1997. A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(1): 218-232.

Elliot, A. J. & Thrash, T. M. 2002. Approach-avoidance motivation in personality: Approach and avoidance temperaments and goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(5): 804-818.

Elliot, A. J. 2006. The hierarchical model of approach-avoidance motivation. *Motivation and Emotion*, 30(2): 111-116.

Elsbach, K. D. 2003. Relating physical environment to self-categorizations: Identity

threat and affirmation in a non-territorial office space. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 48(4): 622-654.

Everitt, B. S., Landau, S., & Leese, M. 2001. *Cluster Analysis* (4th ed.). London: Arnold Publishers.

Ferris, D. L., Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., Djurdjevic, E., Chang, C. H., & Tan, J. A. 2013. When Is Success Not Satisfying? Integrating Regulatory Focus and Approach/Avoidance Motivation Theories to Explain the Relation Between Core Self-Evaluation and Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(2): 342-353.

Fiske, D. W. 1949. Consistency of the factorial structures of personality ratings from difference sources. *Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology*, 44: 329-344.

Frankl, V. E. 1959. *Man's search for meaning*. Boston: Beacon Press.

French, J. R. & Raven, B. 1959. The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in social power.*: 150-167. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research.

Fried, Y. & Ferris, G. R. 1987. The validity of the job characteristics model - a review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 40(2): 287-322.

Friedmann, G. 1961. *The anatomy of work*. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe.

Gagne, M. & Deci, E. L. 2005. Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(4): 331-362.

Gecas, V. 1991. The self-concept as a basis for a theory of motivation. In J. A. Howard & P. L. Callero (Eds.), *The self-society dynamic: Cognition, emotion, and action*: 171-187. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Geertz, C. 1973. *The interpretation of cultures.* New York: Basic Books.

Gersick, C. J. G., Bartunek, J. M., & Dutton, J. E. 2000. Learning from academia: The importance of relationships in professional life. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(6): 1026-1044.

Ghiselli, E. E. & Brown, C. W. 1955. *Personnel and industrial psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gilbreth, F. B. 1911. *Motion study*. London: Constable.

Gist, M. E. 1987. Self-efficacy - implications for organizational-behavior and human-resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(3): 472-485.

Goldberg, L. R. 1990. An alternative description of personality - the big-5 factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(6): 1216-1229.

Goldberg, L. R., Johnson, J. A., Eber, H. W., Hogan, R., Ashton, M. C., Cloninger, C. R., & Gough, H. G. 2006. The international personality item pool and the future of public-domain personality measures. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 40(1): 84-96.

Grant, A. M. & Parker, S. K. 2009. Redesigning Work Design Theories: The Rise of Relational and Proactive Perspectives. *Academy of Management Annals*, 3: 317-375.

Grant, A. M. 2007. Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2): 393-417.

Grant, A. M. 2008. The significance of task significance: Job performance effects, relational mechanisms, and boundary conditions. *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, 93(1): 108-124.

Grant, A. M. 2012. Giving time, time after time: work design and sustained employee
participation in corporate volunteering. *Academy of Management Review*, 37(4):
589-615.

Grant, A. M., Campbell, E. M., Chen, G., Cottone, K., Lapedis, D., & Lee, K. 2007.
Impact and the art of motivation maintenance: The effects of contact with
beneficiaries on persistence behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human
Decision Processes*, 103(1): 53-67.

Greguras, G. J. & Diefendorff, J. M. 2009. Different Fits Satisfy Different Needs:
Linking Person-Environment Fit to Employee Commitment and Performance
Using Self-Determination Theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2): 465-
477.

Guest, R. H. 1955. Men and machines: An assembly-line worker looks at his job.
Personnel, 31: 3-10.

Gully, S. M., Incalcaterra, K. A., Joshi, A., & Beaubien, J. M. 2002. A meta-analysis of
team-efficacy, potency, and performance: Interdependence and level of analysis
as moderators of observed relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5):
819-832.

Guzzo, R. A. & Shea, G. P. 1992. Group performance and intergroup relations in
organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial
and organizational psychology*, Vol. 3: 269-313. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting
Psychologists Press.

Hackman, J. R. & Lawler, E. E. 1971. Employee reactions to job characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55(3): 259-286.

Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. 1975. Development of job diagnostic survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60(2): 159-170.

Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. 1976. Motivation through design of work - test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16(2): 250-279.

Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. 1980. *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Herzberg, F. 1968. One more time - how do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business Review*, 46(1): 53-62.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. 1959. *The motivation to work*. New York: Wiley.

Higgins, E. T. 1997. Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52(12): 1280-1300.

Higgins, E. T. 1998. Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, Vol 30*, 30: 1-46.

Higgins, E. T., Friedman, R. S., Harlow, R. E., Idson, L. C., Ayduk, O. N., & Taylor, A. 2001. Achievement orientations from subjective histories of success: promotion pride versus prevention pride. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 31(1): 3-23.

Hogan, J. & Holland, B. 2003. Using theory to evaluate personality and job-performance relations: A socioanalytic perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1): 100-112.

Hogan, R. 1983. A socioanalytic theory of personality. In M. M. Page (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation*: 55-89. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Hogan, R. 1996. A socioanalytic perspective on the Five-Factor Model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The Five-Factor Model of personality: Theoretical perspectives*: 180-207. New York: Guilford Press.

Hogg, M. A. & Terry, D. J. 2000. Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1): 121-140.

Homans, G. C. 1958. Social-behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology*, 63(6): 597-606.

Hu, L. T. & Bentler, P. M. 1999. Cutoff Criteria for Fit Indexes in Covariance Structure Analysis: Conventional Criteria Versus New Alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling-a Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1): 1-55.

Humphrey, S. E., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. 2007. Integrating motivational, social, and contextual work design features: A meta-analytic of the summary and theoretical extension work design literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(5): 1332-1356.

John, O. P., Angleitner, A., & Ostendorf, F. 1988. The lexical approach to personality - a historical review of trait taxonomic research. *European Journal of Personality*, 2(3): 171-203.

Johns, G., Xie, J. L., & Fang, Y. Q. 1992. Mediating and moderating effects in job design. *Journal of Management*, 18(4): 657-676.

Judge, T. A. & Ilies, R. 2002. Relationship of personality to performance motivation: A

meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4): 797-807.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., & Durham, C. C. 1997. The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 19: 151-188.

Kahn, W. A. 1990. Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4): 692-724.

Kahn, W. A. 2007. Meaningful connections: Positive relationships and attachments at work. In J. E. Dutton & B. R. Ragins (Eds.), *Exploring positive relationships at work: Building a theoretical research foundation*: 189-206. Mahway, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kaplan, A. & Midgley, C. 1997. The effect of achievement goals: Does level of perceived academic competence make a difference? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 22(4): 415-435.

Karasek, R. A. 1979. Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain - implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(2): 285-308.

Karasek, R. A., Brisson, C., Kawakami, N., Houtman, I., Bongers, P., & Amick, B. 1998. The job content questionnaire (JCQ): An instrument for internationally comparative assessments of psychosocial job characteristics. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 3: 322-355.

Karau, S. J. & Williams, K. D. 1993. Social loafing - a meta-analytic review and theoretical integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(4): 681-706.

Kark, R. & Van Dijk, D. 2007. Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: The role of the self-regulatory focus in leadership processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2): 500-528.

Kiggundu, M. N. 1983. Task interdependence and job design - test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 31(2): 145-172.

Kluckhohn, C. & Strodtbeck, F. L. 1961. *Variations in value orientations.* Evanston, IL: Row Peterson & Co.

Kluckhohn, C. 1951. Values and value-orientations in the theory of action: An exploration in definition and classification. In T. Parsons & E. Shils (Eds.), *Toward a general theory of action.*: 388-433. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kluger, A. N. & DeNisi, A. 1996. The effects of feedback interventions on performance: A historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, 119(2): 254-284.

Kreiner, G. E., Hollensbe, E. C., & Sheep, M. L. 2006. Where is the "me" among the "we". Identity work and the search for optimal balance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(5): 1031-1057.

Kristof, A. L. 1996. Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49(1): 1-49.

Kristof-Brown, A. & Guay, R. P. 2011. Person-environment fit. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 3. Washington,

D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. 2005. Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2): 281-342.

Langfred, C. W. 2005. Autonomy and performance in teams: The multilevel moderating effect of task interdependence. *Journal of Management*, 31(4): 513-529.

Lawler, E. E. 1969. Job design and employee motivation. *Personnel Psychology*, 22(4): 426-&.

Leary, M. R. & Baumeister, R. F. 2000. The nature and function of self-esteem: Sociometer theory. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 32: 1-62.

Lewin, K., Dembo, T., Festinger, L., & Sears, P. 1944. Level of aspiration. In J. M. Hunt (Ed.), *Employee reactions to job characteristics*. New York: Ronald Press.

Lips-Wiersma, M. 2002. The influence of spiritual "meaning-making" on career behavior. *The Journal of Management Development*, 21(7/8): 497-519.

Locke, E. 1976. The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*: 1297-1350. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Locke, E. A. & Latham, G. P. 2002. Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation - A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist*, 57(9): 705-717.

Lytle, C. W. 1946. *Job evaluation methods*. New York: Ronald Press.

Magnusson, D. 1999. On the Individual: A Person-Oriented Approach to Developmental

217

Research. *European Psychologist*, 4(4): 205-218.

Markus, H. 1977. Self-schemata and processing information about self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 35(2): 63-78.

Marsh, H. W., Ludtke, O., Trautwein, U., & Morin, A. J. S. 2009. Classical Latent Profile Analysis of Academic Self-Concept Dimensions: Synergy of Person- and Variable-Centered Approaches to Theoretical Models of Self-Concept. *Structural Equation Modeling-a Multidisciplinary Journal*, 16(2): 191-225.

Maslow, A. H. 1971. *The farther reaches of human nature*. New York: Viking Press.

Masten, A. S. & Reed, M. J. 2002. *Resilience in development*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Maxwell, S. E. & Delaney, H. D. 1993. Bivariate median splits and spurious statistical significance. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(1): 181-190.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. 2004. The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77: 11-37.

McClelland, D. C. 1951. *Personality*. Oxford: William Sloane.

McCrae, R. R. & Costa, P. T. 1987. Validation of the 5-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1): 81-90.

McCrae, R. R. 1996. Social consequences of experiential openness. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120(3): 323-337.

McDougall, W. 1932. Of the words character and personality. *Character and*

Personality, 1: 3-16.

McLachlan, G. & Peel, D. 2000. *Finite Mixture Models*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Mead, G. H. 1934. *Mind, self, and society: From the standpoint of a social behaviorist.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Meece, J. L. & Holt, K. 1993. A pattern-analysis of students achievement goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85(4): 582-590.

Meehl, P. E. 1992. Factors and taxa, traits and types, differences of degree and differences in kind. *Journal of Personality*, 60(1): 117-174.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, L. J., & Vandenberg, R. J. 2013. A person-centered approach to the study of commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23: 190-202.

Meyer, R. D., Dalal, R. S., & Hermida, R. 2010. A Review and Synthesis of Situational Strength in the Organizational Sciences. *Journal of Management*, 36(1): 121-140.

Milligan, G. W. & Cooper, M. C. 1985. An examination of procedures for determining the number of clusters in a data set. *Psychometrika*, 50(2): 159-179.

Mischel, W. 1968. *Personality and assessment*. New York: Wiley.

Morgeson, F. P. & Humphrey, S. E. 2006. The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ): Developing and validating a comprehensive measure for assessing job design and the nature of work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(6): 1321-1339.

Morin, A. J. S., Morizot, J., Boudrias, J. S., & Madore, I. 2011. A Multifoci Person-Centered Perspective on Workplace Affective Commitment: A Latent

Profile/Factor Mixture Analysis. *Organizational Research Methods*, 14(1): 58-90.

Muchinsky, P. M. & Monohan, C. J. 1987. What is person environment congruence - supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(3): 268-277.

Mudrack, P. E. 1989. Group cohesiveness and productivity - a closer look. *Human Relations*, 42(9): 771-785.

Murnighan, J. K. & Conlon, D. E. 1991. The dynamics of intense work groups - a study of british string-quartets. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36(2): 165-186.

Murray, H. 1938. *Explorations in personality*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Muthen, B. & Muthen, L. K. 2000. Integrating person-centered and variable-centered analyses: Growth mixture modeling with latent trajectory classes. *Alcoholism-Clinical and Experimental Research*, 24(6): 882-891.

Muthen, B. O. 2002. Beyond SEM: General latent variable modeling. *Behaviormetrika*, 29(1): 81-117.

Muthen, L. K. & Muthen, B. O. 2014. *Mplus user's guide.* (7th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Muthen & Muthen.

Myers, D. G. 1999. Close relationships and quality of life. In D. Kahneman & E. Diener & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology*: 374-391. New York: Sage Foundation.

Norman, W. T. 1963. Toward an adequate taxonomy of personality attributes - replicated factor structure in peer nomination personality ratings. *Journal of*

Abnormal Psychology, 66(6): 574-&.

Norman, W. T. 1967. 2,800 personality trait descriptors: Normative operating characteristics for a university population, *Research Report 08310-1-T*. Ann Arbor, MI.

Nylund, K. L., Asparouhov, T., & Muthen, B. O. 2007. Deciding on the number of classes in latent class analysis and growth mixture modeling: A Monte Carlo simulation study (vol 14, pg 535, 2007). *Structural Equation Modeling-a Multidisciplinary Journal*, 15(1): 182-182.

Oldham, G. R. 1996. Job design. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 11: 33-60.

Parker, S. K., Wall, T. D., & Cordery, J. L. 2001. Future work design research and practice: Towards an elaborated model of work design. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74: 413-440.

Pastor, D. A., Barron, K. E., Miller, B. J., & Davis, S. L. 2007. A latent profile analysis of college students' achievement goal orientation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 32(1): 8-47.

Payne, S. C., Youngcourt, S. S., & Beaubien, J. M. 2007. A meta-analytic examination of the goal orientation nomological net. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1): 128-150.

Pearce, J. L. & Gregersen, H. B. 1991. Task interdependence and extrarole behavior - a test of the mediating effects of felt responsibility. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6): 838-844.

Pratt, M. G. & Ashforth, B. E. 2003. Fostering meaningfulness in working and at work. In K. S. Cameron & J. E. Dutton & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship*: 309-327. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Rhoades, L. & Eisenberger, R. 2002. Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4): 698-714.

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. 2010. Job engagement: antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3): 617-635.

Roberson, L., Deitch, E. A., Brief, A. P., & Block, C. J. 2003. Stereotype threat and feedback seeking in the workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62(1): 176-188.

Robins, R. W., John, O. P., Caspi, A., Moffitt, T. E., & StouthamerLoeber, M. 1996. Resilient, overcontrolled, and undercontrolled boys: Three replicable personality types. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(1): 157-171.

Rosso, B. D., Dekas, K. H., & Wrzesniewski, A. 2011. On the meaning of work: A theoretical integration and review (vol 30, pg 91, 2010). *Research in Organizational Behavior: an Annual Series of Analytical Essays and Critical Reviews*, 31: 277-277.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. 1998. Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3): 393-404.

Ryan, R. M. & Deci, E. L. 2000. Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American*

Psychologist, 55(1): 68-78.

Ryan, R. M. & Deci, E. L. 2001. On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52: 141-166.

Ryan, R. M., Deci, E. L., & Grolnick, W. S. 1995. Autonomy, relatedness, and the self: Their relation to development and psychopathology. In D. Cicchetti & C. Cohen (Eds.), *Development Psychopathology: Theory and methods*, Vol. 1: 618-655. New York: Wiley.

Ryff, C. D. 1989. Happiness is everything, or is it - explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6): 1069-1081.

Saavedra, R., Earley, P. C., & Vandyne, L. 1993. Complex interdependence in task-performing groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1): 61-72.

Salancik, G. R. & Pfeffer, J. 1978. Social information-processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23(2): 224-253.

Schmidt, A. M. & DeShon, R. P. 2010. The moderating effects of performance ambiguity on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3): 572-581.

Schneider, B. 1987. The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40(3): 437-453.

Shamir, B. 1991. Meaning, self and motivation in organizations. *Organization Studies*, 12(3): 405-424.

Shaw, J. D. & Gupta, N. 2004. Job complexity, performance, and well-being: When does

supplies-values fit matter? *Personnel Psychology*, 57(4): 847-879.

Shea, G. P. & Guzzo, R. A. 1987. Group effectiveness - what really matters. *Sloan Management Review*, 28(3): 25-31.

Sheldon, K. M. & Elliot, A. J. 1999. Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(3): 482-497.

Sheldon, K. M., Ryan, R. M., Rawsthorne, L. J., & Ilardi, B. 1997. Trait self and true self: Cross-role variation in the big-five personality traits and its relations with psychological authenticity and subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(6): 1380-1393.

Sims, H. P., Szilagyi, A. D., & Keller, R. T. 1976. Measurement of job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 19(2): 195-212.

Small, D. A. & Loewenstein, G. 2003. Helping a victim or helping the victim: Altruism and identifiability. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*, 26(1): 5-16.

Smith, G. M. 1967. Usefulness of peer ratings of personality in educational research. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 27(4P2): 967-&.

Specht, J., Luhmann, M., & Geiser, C. 2014. On the Consistency of Personality Types Across Adulthood: Latent Profile Analyses in Two Large-Scale Panel Studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 107(3): 540-556.

Spreitzer, G. M. 1995. Psychological empowerment in the workplace - dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5): 1442-1465.

Spreitzer, G. M. 1996. Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(2): 483-504.

Spreitzer, G., Sutcliffe, K., Dutton, J., Sonenshein, S., & Grant, A. M. 2005. A socially embedded model of thriving at work. *Organization Science*, 16(5): 537-549.

Steers, R. M. & Braunstein, D. N. 1976. Behaviorally-based measure of manifest needs in work settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 9(2): 251-266.

Steiger, J. H. & Lind, J. C. 1980. Statistically based tests for the number of common factors., *Annual meeting of the Psychometric Society.*, vol. 758: 424-453. Iowa City, IA.

Stewart, G. L. 2006. A meta-analytic review of relationships between team design features and team performance. *Journal of Management*, 32(1): 29-55.

Stigers, M. F. & Reed, E. G. 1944. *The theory and practice of job rating*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Super, D. E. & Sverko, B. 1995. *Life roles, values, and careers.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Swann, W. B., Johnson, R. E., & Bosson, J. 2009. Identity negotiation at work. In B. Staw & A. Brief (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 29: 81-109. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J. C. 1979. An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations*, Vol. 29: 81-109. Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.

Taylor, F. W. 1911. *The principles of scientific management*. New York: Norton.

Tett, R. P., Simonet, D. V., Walser, B., & Brown, C. 2013. Trait activation theory: Applications, developments, and implications for person-workplace fit. In N. Christiansen & R. P. Tett (Eds.), *Applied Psychology Series: Handbook of Personality at Work*. London: Routledge.

Thompson, J. D. 1967. *Organizations in action: Social science bases of administrative theory.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Thurgood, G.R., & Barrick, M.R. 2015. Individual differences and the differential impact of strategic HRM practices on engagement. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Vancouver, BC.

Tolli, A. P. & Schmidt, A. M. 2008. The role of feedback, causal attributions, and self-efficacy in goal revision. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(3): 692-701.

Trist, E. L. & Bamforth, K. W. 1951. Some social and psychological consequences of the Longwall method of coal-getting. *Human Relations*, 4(1): 3-38.

Tupes, E. C. & Christal, R. E. 1961. Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings: 61-97: USAF ASD Technical Report.

Tupes, E. C. 1957. Personality traits related to effectiveness of junior and senior Air Force Officers: USAF Personnel Training Res. Cent. Res. Rep.

Turner, A. N. & Lawrence, P. R. 1965. *Industrial jobs and the worker*. Harvard University, Boston.

Vandenberg, R. J. & Stanley, L. J. 2009. Statistical and methodological challenges for commitment researchers: Issues of invariance, change across time, and profile differences. In H. J. Klein & T. E. Becker (Eds.), *Commitment in organizations:*

Accumulated wisdom and new directions.: 383-416. Florence, KY: Routledge/Taylor and Francis Group.

VandeWalle, D. 1997. Development and validation of a work domain goal orientation instrument. ***Educational and Psychological Measurement***, 57(6): 995-1015.

VanEerde, W. & Thierry, H. 1996. Vroom's expectancy models and work-related criteria: A meta-analysis. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 81(5): 575-586.

Vermunt, J. K. & Magidson, J. 2002. Latent class cluster analysis. In J. A. Hagenaars & A. McCutcheon (Eds.), ***Applied latent class analysis***: 89-106. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Vroom, V. H. 1964. ***Work and motivation***. New York: Wiley.

Wageman, R. 1995. Interdependence and group effectiveness. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 40(1): 145-180.

Wageman, R. 1999. The meaning of interdependence. In M. Turner (Ed.), ***Groups at work: Advances in theory and research.*** Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.

Wall, T. D., Jackson, P. R., & Davids, K. 1992. Operator work design and robotics system performance - a serendipitous field-study. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 77(3): 353-362.

Wall, T. D., Jackson, P. R., & Mullarkey, S. 1995. Further evidence on some new measures of job control, cognitive demand and production responsibility. ***Journal of Organizational Behavior***, 16(5): 431-455.

Watson, D. & Clark, L. A. 1997. Measurement and mismeasurement of mood: Recurrent

and emergent issues. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 68(2): 267-296.

Weick, K. E. 1995. *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weiss, J. W., Skelley, M. F., Haughey, J. C., & Hall, D. T. 2004. Calling, new careers
and spirituality: A reflective perspective for organizational leaders and
professionals. In M. L. Pava & P. Primeaux (Eds.), *Spiritual intelligence at
work: Meaning, metaphor, and morals*: 175-201. Amsterdam: Elsevier, Ltd.

White, R. W. 1959. Motivation reconsidered - the concept of competence. *Psychological
Review*, 66(5): 297-333.

Wiener, Y. 1988. Forms of value systems: A focus of organizational effectiveness and
cultural change and maintenance. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(4): 534-
545.

Wiggins, J. S. & Trapnell, P. D. 1996. A dyadic-interactional perspective on the Five-
Factor Model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The Five-Factor Model of personality:
Theoretical perspectives*: 88-162. New York: Guilford Press.

Wrzesniewski, A. & Dutton, J. E. 2001. Crafting a job: Revisioning employees as active
grafters of their work. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(2): 179-201.

Wrzesniewski, A. 2003. Finding positive meaning in work. In K. S. Cameron & J. E.
Dutton & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship*. San
Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Wrzesniewski, A. C., Dutton, J. E., & Debebe, G. 2003. Interpersonal sensemaking and
the meaning of work. *Research in Organizational Behavior, Vol 25*, 25: 93-135.

Zyphur, M. J. 2009. When mindsets collide: switching analytical mindsets to advance

organization science. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(4): 677-688.

APPENDIX

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

Task and Social Characteristics – Direct Effects

Hypothesis 1a: Job Autonomy will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.

Hypothesis 1b: Job Autonomy will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 1c: The relationship between job autonomy and developing role mastery and personal control will be more strongly positive than that between job autonomy and gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 2a: Task variety will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.

Hypothesis 2b: Task variety will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 2c: The relationship between task variety and developing role mastery and personal control will be more strongly positive than that between task variety and gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 3a: Task identity will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 3b: Task identity will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.

Hypothesis 3c: The relationship between task identity and gaining clarity of accomplishments will be more strongly positive than that between task identity and developing role mastery and personal control.

Hypothesis 4a: Feedback from the job will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 4b: Feedback from the job will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through developing role mastery and personal control.

Hypothesis 4c: The relationship between feedback from the job and gaining clarity of accomplishments will be more strongly positive than that between feedback from the job and developing role mastery and personal control.

Hypothesis 5: Social support will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through acquiring social impact.

Hypothesis 6: Task interdependence will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through acquiring social impact.

Hypothesis 7a: Task significance will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through acquiring social impact.

Hypothesis 7b: Task significance will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 7c: The relationship between task significance and acquiring social impact will be more strongly positive than that between task significance and gaining clarity of accomplishments.

Hypothesis 8: Power and influence will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through attaining power and recognition.

Hypothesis 9: Feedback from others will be positively related to experienced meaningfulness through a) developing role mastery and personal control, b) gaining clarity of accomplishments, c) acquiring social impact, and d) attaining power and recognition.

Personality Profiles – Direct Effects:

Hypothesis 10a: The individuals in the study sample can be separated into three distinct profile groups (i.e. Resilients, Undercontrollers, Overcontrollers) based upon their standing on the Five Factor Model personality traits.

Hypothesis 10b: The Resilient class will be comprised of individuals who are comparatively high on extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and comparatively low on neuroticism.

Hypothesis 10c: The Undercontroller class will be comprised of individuals who are comparatively low on conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Hypothesis 10d: The Overcontroller class will be comprised of individuals who are comparatively low on extraversion and openness, and high on neuroticism.

Hypothesis 11a: Perceptions of fulfillment of the developing role mastery and personal control meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients, moderate for Undercontrollers, and very low for Overcontrollers.

Hypothesis 11b: Perceptions of fulfillment of the clarity of accomplishments meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients and low for both Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.

Hypothesis 11c: Perceptions of fulfillment of the acquiring social impact meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients and low for both Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.

Hypothesis 11d: Perceptions of fulfillment of the attaining recognition and influence meaning of work goal will be highest for Resilients, moderate for Undercontrollers, and very low for Overcontrollers.

Job Characteristics and Personality Profiles – Joint Effects:

Hypothesis 12: The relationship between a) job autonomy b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job and experienced meaningfulness through developing role mastery and control will be strongly positive for Overcontrollers, moderately positive for Undercontrollers, and weakly positive for Resilients.

Hypothesis 13: The overall level of perceptions of role mastery and control and experienced meaningfulness due to a) job autonomy, b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job will be highest for Resilients, somewhat lower for Undercontrollers, and lowest for Overcontrollers.

Hypothesis 14: The relationship between a) job autonomy, b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job and experienced meaningfulness through gaining clarity of accomplishments will be strongly positive for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers and weakly positive for Resilients.

Hypothesis 15: The overall level of perceptions of gaining clarity of accomplishments and experienced meaningfulness due to a) job autonomy, b) task variety, c) task identity, and d) feedback from the job will be highest for Resilients and somewhat lower for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.

Hypothesis 16: The relationship between a) social support, b) task interdependence, c) task significance, and d) feedback from others and experienced meaningfulness through acquiring social impact will be strongly positive for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers and weakly positive for Resilients.

Hypothesis 17: The overall level of perceptions of acquiring social impact and experienced meaningfulness due to a) social support, b) task interdependence, c) task significance, and d) feedback from others will be highest for Resilients, and somewhat lower for Undercontrollers and Overcontrollers.

Hypothesis 18: The relationship between a) power and b) feedback from others and experienced meaningfulness through attaining power and recognition will be strongly positive for Overcontrollers, moderately positive for Undercontrollers, and weakly positive for Resilients.

Hypothesis 19: The overall level of perceptions of attaining power and recognition and experienced meaningfulness due to a) power and influence and b) feedback from others will be highest for Resilients, somewhat lower for Undercontrollers, and lowest for Overcontrollers.

Meaning of Work Goal Fulfillment Measures

Gaining clarity of accomplishments

1. I experience a strong sense of achievement at work.
2. I get to accomplish things in my work.
3. I get to complete work that is very important to me.
4. I feel a sense of accomplishment in doing my job.
5. I am extremely pleased that I accomplish all I want to at work.

Developing role mastery and control
1. I experience a strong sense of freedom because I can decide when and how to do my work.
2. I have a lot of autonomy and discretion at work.
3. I get to decide what to do at work.
4. I am free to express my own ideas on the job.
5. I couldn't be happier about work because I decide what to do and when to do it.

Acquiring social impact
1. I experience a strong sense of belonging at my workplace.
2. I get to work with and support others in my work.
3. In my work, I make a difference that matters to others
4. I really connect with the people I work with.
5. I am very pleased with my relationships with my coworkers.

Attaining power and recognition
1. I experience a lot of recognition and status from my work
2. I get a lot of respect and praise from others at work.
3. I have been able to gain a lot of status and respect from others I work with.
4. I feel the people I work with recognize and respect the potential I exhibit at work.
5. I am pleased with the status and prestige that I have at work.

Table A-1 The Five Robust Dimensions of Personality (Summary Presented in Digman, 1990)

Author	I	II	III	IV	V
Fiske, 1949	Social adaptability	Conformity	Will to achieve[a]	Emotional control	Inquiring intellect
Eysenck, 1970	Extraversion	Psychoticism		Neuroticism	
Tupes & Christal, 1961	Surgency	Agreeableness	Dependability	Emotionality	Culture
Norman, 1963	Surgency	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Emotional	Culture
Borgatta, 1964	Assertiveness	Likeability	Task interest	Emotionality	Intelligence
Cattell, 1957	Exvia	Cortertia	Superego strength	Anxiety	Intelligence
Guilford, 1975	Social activity	Paranoid disposition	Thinking introversion	Emotional stability	
Digman, 1988	Extraversion	Friendly compliance	Will to achieve	Neuroticism	Intellect
Hogan, 1986	Sociability & ambition	Likeability	Prudence	Adjustment	Intellectance
Costa & McCrae, 1985	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism	Openness
Peabody & Goldberg, 1989	Power	Love	Work	Affect	Intellect
Buss & Plomin, 1984	Activity	Sociability	Impulsivity	Emotionality	
Tellegen, 1985	Positive emotionality		Constraint	Negative emotionality	
Lorr, 1986	Interpersonal involvement	Level of socialization	Self-control	Emotional stability	Independent

[a]Not in the original analysis but noted in a re-analysis by Digman & Takemoto-Chock (1981).

Table A-2 Summary of Person-Centered Analyses Using the Big Five Personality Domains (from Specht et al., 2014)

Authors	Year	N	Sample	Analytic Strategy
Akse, Hale, Engels, Raaijmakers, & Meeus	2004	1142	Dutch adolescents (53% female)	Cluster analysis
Akse, Hale, Engels, Raaijmakers, & Meeus	2007	338	Dutch adolescents (55% female)	Cluster analysis
Asendorpf, Bokenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken (study 1)	2001	730	18-24 years	Cluster analysis
Asendorpf, Bokenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken (study 2)	2001	568	18-24 years	Cluster analysis
Asendorpf, Bokenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken (study 3)	2001	312	18-22 years	Cluster analysis
Avdeyeva & Church	2005	398	Filipino college students (66% female)	Cluster analysis
Barbaranelli	2002	421	20-30 years, Italian (61% female)	Cluster analysis
Boehm, Asenforpf, & Avia	2002	1218	20-30 years, Spanish (50% female)	Cluster analysis
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 1)	2002	486	All English-speaking adults (50% female)	Cluster analysis
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 2)	2002	1856	All English-speaking adults (50% female)	Cluster analysis
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 3)	2002	274	All English-speaking adults (50% female)	Cluster analysis
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 4)	2002	242	All English-speaking adults (50% female)	Cluster analysis
De Fruyt, Mervielde, & Van Leeuwen	2002	464	12-15 years, Dutch (51% female)	Cluster analysis
Dubas, Gerris, Janssens & Vermulst	2002	305	14-19 years, Dutch (55% female)	Cluster analysis
Grumm, & von Collani	2009	141	18-55 years, (84% between 18-25 years) (82% female)	Cluster analysis
Klimastra, Hale, Raaijmakers, Branje, & Meus	2010	923	Dutch adolescents (49% female)	Latent class analysis
Klimstra, Luyckx, Teppers, Goossens, & de Fruyt	2011	250	15-19 years, Dutch (63% female)	Cluster analysis
McCrae, Terracciano, Costa, & Ozer	2006	1540	17-93 years, English (46% female)	Inverse factor analysis
Meeus, van de Schoot, Klimstra, & Branje	2011	1313	12-20 years, Dutch (51% female)	Latent class analysis
Rammstedt, Riemann, Angleitner, & Borkenau	2004	600	18-70 years, German (78% female)	Cluster analysis
Schnabel, Asendorpf, & Ostendorpf (study 1)	2002	786	20-30 years (50 % female) German	Cluster analysis
Schnabel, Asendorpf, & Ostendorpf (study 2)	2002	730	18-24 years (50% female) German	Cluster analysis
Scholte, van Lieshout, de Wit, & van Aken	2005	3284	12-18 years, Dutch (43% female)	Cluster analysis
Steca, Alessandri, & Caprara	2010	735	65-95 years, Italian (56% female)	Cluster analysis
van Leeuwen, de Fruyt, & Mervielde	2004	491	10-18 years, Dutch (52% female)	Cluster analysis

Authors	Questionnaire	Resilients					Undercontrollers					Overcontrollers				
		E	O	C	A	ES	E	O	C	A	ES	E	O	C	A	ES
Akse, Hale, Engels, Raaijmakers, & Meeus	Adj. chklst.	Hi			Hi	Hi		Lo	Lo	Lo		Lo		Hi		Lo
Akse, Hale, Engels, Raaijmakers, & Meeus	Adj. chklst.	Hi			Hi	Hi		Lo	Lo	Lo		Lo				Lo
Asendorpf, Bokenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken (study 1)	NEO-FFI			Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo				Lo
Asendorpf, Bokenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken (study 2)	Adj. chklst.			Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo				Lo
Asendorpf, Bokenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken (study 3)	NEO-FFI			Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo				Lo
Avdeyeva & Church	NEO-PI-R	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Barbaranelli	NEO-PI			Hi		Hi		Hi		Hi		Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo
Boehm, Asenforpf, & Avia	NEO-PI	Hi		Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 1)	NEO-PI-R	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 2)	NEO-PI-R	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 3)	NEO-PI-R	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo
Costa, Herbst, McCrae, Samuels, & Ozer (study 4)	NEO-PI-R	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo
De Fruyt, Mervielde, & Van Leeuwen	NEO-PI-R & HiPIC	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo			
Dubas, Gerris, Janssens & Vermulst	Adj. chklst.	Hi			Hi	Hi		Lo	Lo	Lo		avg	avg	avg	avg	avg
Grumm, & von Collani	NEO-FFI	Hi				Hi	Hi	Lo	Lo	Lo			Lo	Hi	Hi	
Klimastra, Hale, Raaijmakers, Branje, & Meus	Adj. chklst.	Hi			Hi			Lo	Lo	Lo		Lo				Lo
Klimstra, Luyckx, Teppers, Goossens, & de Fruyt	NEO-PI-3	Hi		Hi		Hi		Lo	Lo	Lo		Lo				Lo
McCrae, Terracciano, Costa, & Ozer	CA Adult Q-set	Hi	Hi			Hi	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Meeus, van de Schoot, Klimstra, & Branje	Adj. chklst.	Hi	Hi		Hi			Lo	Lo	Lo	Hi	Lo				Lo
Rammstedt, Riemann, Angleitner, & Borkenau	NEO-PI-R			Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Lo	Lo	Lo	Lo	Lo			
Schnabel, Asendorpf, & Ostendorpf (study 1)	NEO-PI-R			Hi		Hi		Hi	Lo			Lo				Lo
Schnabel, Asendorpf, & Ostendorpf (study 2)	NEO-FFI			Hi		Hi		Hi	Lo			Lo				Lo
Scholte, van Lieshout, de Wit, & van Aken	Bipolar items q.	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo			Lo
Steca, Alessandri, & Caprara	Big-5 Quest.		Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo			Lo	Lo		Lo	Lo
van Leeuwen, de Fruyt, & Mervielde	Adj. chklst.	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi	Hi			Lo	Lo		Lo				Lo
Hi		16	10	17	18	22	1	5	0	1	1	0	0	2	1	0
Lo		0	0	0	0	0	0	6	22	11	2	21	11	0	7	19
Neither		8	14	7	6	2	22	12	1	11	20	1	11	20	14	3