

"Reality Shock": Understanding the
Work Values of Young People Entering
the Workplace

Lucy Elisabeth Bolton

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Leeds
Leeds University Business School

August 2022

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

This copy has been supplied on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

The right of Lucy Elisabeth Bolton to be identified as Author of this work has been asserted by her in accordance with the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988.

© 2022 The University of Leeds and Lucy Elisabeth Bolton

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to express my wholehearted thanks and gratitude to my supervisors, Professor Kerrie Unsworth and Dr Militza Callinan, for their constant support, guidance, insight and patience during this journey – I could not have got to this point without you both! I would also like to thank Dr Gail Clarkson for embarking on this journey with me and supporting me through my first few years of the PhD.

Someone who I cannot forget is Professor Chris Clegg, who we all miss very dearly, yet who is the person who discussed my initial research ideas with me seven years ago, and who gave me the confidence and had the faith in me to start this PhD. I will never forget your encouragement and inspiring words.

I would also like to thank my husband, Oleg, and my parents for their endless support, encouragement, love and patience, and for putting up with me juggling this PhD and work over the last few years!

I would also like to thank my friends and colleagues (from around the world!) for their never-ending care, kind words and messages, motivating me to keep going.

Finally, I could not have done this research without all the participants who volunteered to take part in my studies, as well as the organisations who were willing to partner with me on the project – Thank you!

Abstract

The stage at which young people transition into the workplace is a crucial yet turbulent time, often creating feelings of flux and chaos, as work values and career expectations can become less stable during socialisation processes. This thesis contributes to knowledge about work values, adopting a mixed methods approach to understanding of the stability of these guiding principles during an uncertain time. Thirty-eight semi-structured interviews were conducted with young people working in organisations on a training scheme (e.g., placement, internship), and data were thematically analysed to add insight around work value preferences, career expectations and the identities of these individuals. Following this, a longitudinal survey was designed, gathering data at three time points: pre-entry (n=454), one to two months into employment (n=229) and three to six months into employment (n=171). Moderated mediation models were run to test the stability of work values and moderating effects from perceived organisational values, job satisfaction, organisational investiture, self-efficacy and age.

Drawing on the findings from both studies, it is clear that entering an organisation can be challenging, as it does not often match the high expectations held by young individuals, resulting in 'reality shock'. There were high preferences found across all four work values dimensions: extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige, with a particular focus on progression and efficiency, resulting in impatience when these values were not felt to be met by the organisation. Higher work value stability was found during the first month upon entry to the organisation for all values except extrinsic, with these becoming less stable thereafter up to six months. Interestingly, social work values were more susceptible to perceived organisational work values (intrinsic and extrinsic), suggesting more social authenticity when these desired work values were being met by the organisation. This research adds insight to work values theory, particularly through the eyes of young people, questioning the hierarchical structure and meaning of their work values.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	x
List of Figures.....	xii
Chapter 1 - Introduction	1
1.1 Introduction to the Context of the Research	1
1.2 Research Motivation	2
1.3 Research Aims and Approach.....	4
1.4 Thesis Outline	6
Chapter 2 - Literature Review	7
2.1 Introduction	7
2.2 Young People in the Workplace	9
2.2.1 The Context of Young People and Work.....	9
2.2.2 Defining Young People in the Literature	12
2.3 Work Values.....	17
2.3.1 Personal Values.....	17
2.3.2 Values within the Workplace	20
2.3.3 Work Values Conceptual Models	23
2.3.4 Young People and Work Values	27
2.3.5 Work Values and Careers	29
2.4 Careers of Young People	32
2.4.1 Evolving Careers.....	32
2.4.2 Young People and Career Expectations.....	35
2.5 Young People’s Transition to the Workplace	37
2.5.1 Stability of Work Values, Expectations and Preferences.....	37
2.5.2 Self-Concept and Identity of Young People	40
2.6 Theoretical Framework and Research Questions.....	47
2.6.1 Defining Theoretical Framework and Concepts	47
2.6.2 Research Questions	51

2.6.3 Literature Review Conclusions	53
Chapter 3 - Mixed Methods Approach	55
3.1 Epistemological and Ontological Position	55
3.2 Critical Realism.....	57
3.3 Practical Rationale for a Mixed Methods Approach.....	58
3.4 The Study of Work Values.....	61
Chapter 4 - Qualitative Study One	63
4.1 Introduction	63
4.2 Qualitative Research Design	64
4.3 Qualitative Methodology	66
4.3.1 Participants and Sampling.....	66
4.3.2 Materials.....	73
4.3.3 Procedure.....	74
4.3.4 Data Analysis	76
4.3.5 Trustworthiness	81
4.4 Qualitative Interview Findings.....	87
4.4.1 Background/Context	87
4.4.2 <i>Keeping me motivated...</i> – Working Style and Expectations	87
4.4.3 <i>Trust me</i> – Autonomy, Freedom and Ownership.....	92
4.4.4 <i>Up!</i> – Progression.....	97
4.4.5 <i>Now!</i> – Mobility and Speed.....	101
4.4.6 <i>Aligning</i> - Organisational Values.....	106
4.4.7 <i>It's all about who you know...</i> – Relationships at Work.....	109
4.4.8 Company Differences.....	113
4.4.8.1 Retail Company.....	114
4.4.8.2 Financial Company	115
4.4.8.3 Engineering Company.....	115
4.4.9 Gender Differences	116
4.5 Qualitative Study Discussion	117
4.5.1 Subjective Perceptions of Work Values of Young People.....	117
4.5.2 Preferences for Working and Career Requirements: Career Shifts to Individualistic Approaches	120

4.5.3 How are Work Values, Preferences and Career Expectations Formed and Changed during the Transition to Work? The ‘Reality Shock’ of Work and Personal Control	122
4.5.4 How are Work Values, Preferences and Career Expectations Formed and Changed during the Transition to Work? Aligning the ‘Self’ and Organisational Values	127
4.5.5 Contributions to Theory	129
4.6 Study Limitations	132
4.7 Chapter Summary	135
Chapter 5 - Quantitative Longitudinal Survey	138
5.1 Introduction	138
5.2 Revisiting the Literature: Newcomer Adjustment, Socialisation and Fit	141
5.3 Study Hypotheses	151
5.3.1 Stability of Work Values over Time	152
5.3.2 The Influence of Organisational Work Values	154
5.3.3 Organisational Investiture	159
5.3.4 Job Satisfaction	162
5.3.5 Self-Efficacy	164
5.3.6 Age of Young People and Work Value Stability	166
5.3.7 Theoretical Framework	169
5.4 Quantitative Methodology	170
5.4.1 Research Design	170
5.4.2 Sampling	173
5.4.3 Participants	176
5.4.4 Survey Measures	179
5.4.4.1 Demographic Measures	179
5.4.4.2 Work Values	180
5.4.4.3 Organisational Investiture	184
5.4.4.4 Job Satisfaction	185
5.4.4.5 Self-Efficacy	185
5.4.4.6 Reliability Alphas of Measures	186
5.4.5 Procedure	187
5.4.6 Ethical Considerations	188
5.4.7 Pilot Study/Survey Amendments	188

5.4.8 Statistical Data Analysis	189
5.5 Results	190
5.5.1 Missing Data Analyses.....	190
5.5.2 Data Screening, Descriptive Statistics and Correlations.....	192
5.5.3 Measurement Model Validation – Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)	198
5.5.3.1 Whole Model Time 1	198
5.5.3.2 Whole Model Time 2	204
5.5.3.3 Whole Model Time 3	209
5.5.3.4 CFA Models Summary	213
5.5.4 Regression Analyses for Personal Work Values across Time Points.....	214
5.5.5 Moderated Mediation Models	217
5.5.5.1 Organisational Work Values Moderated Mediation Models.....	219
5.5.5.2 Organisational Investiture and Job Satisfaction Moderated Mediation Models	223
5.5.5.3 Self-Efficacy and Age Moderated Mediation Models	227
5.5.5.4 Summary of Moderated Mediation Models	233
5.6 Quantitative Study Discussion	234
5.6.1 The Stability of Personal Work Values.....	234
5.6.2 Perceived Organisational Values Effects	237
5.6.3 The Working Environment: Organisational Investiture and Job Satisfaction.....	239
5.6.4 Internal Drivers of Work Value Stability: Self-Efficacy and Age.....	242
5.6.5 Differentiating between Work Values	244
5.7 Study Limitations	246
5.8 Chapter Summary.....	250
Chapter 6 - General Discussion	253
6.1 Introduction	253
6.2 Theoretical Implications.....	256
6.2.1 Making Sense of a New World: The Psychological Transition of Young People into the Workplace	256
6.2.2 Taking Control Back: A Shift to Adaptability	259

6.2.3 Authentic Identities at Work: Connecting with the Self	261
6.2.4 Understanding Work Values from the Perspective of Young People	264
6.2.5 New Paradigms for Organisations	266
6.3 Limitations and Future Directions	269
6.4 Practical Implications	272
6.5 Conclusion	275
List of References	278
Appendix A: Non-Disclosure Agreement (NDA) Template	354
Appendix B: Interview Schedule	356
Appendix C: Information Sheet for Interviewees	359
Appendix D: Consent Form for Interviewees	360
Appendix E: Thematic Analysis Codebook (Generated by NVivo)	362
Appendix F: Frequency Distribution Histograms of Age at Three Time Points	366
Appendix G: Work Values Survey	368
Appendix H: Non-Significant Outputs from PROCESS Mediated Moderation Models	377
H.1 Organisational Work Values (Extrinsic and Intrinsic) Models	377
H.2 Organisational Investiture Models	379
H.3 Job Satisfaction Models	381
H.4 Self-Efficacy Models	382
H.5 Age Models	384
Appendix I: Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA)	385
I.1 CFA Time 1 (version 1) Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts	385
I.2 CFA Time 1 (version 2) Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts	387
I.3 CFA Time 2 Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts	388
I.4 CFA Time 3 Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts	393
Appendix J: Conference Poster Presentations	396

List of Tables

Table 2.1: Overview of Key Age Stage and Generational Categories Used in the Literature Focusing on ‘Young People’	13
Table 2.2: Alignment of Work Values and Personal Values Based on Schwartz’s (1992) Theoretical Model	22
Table 2.3: Work Values Categories and Descriptions	26
Table 4.1: Demographics of the Study Sample (in Chronological Order of Interview)	69
Table 4.2: Overview of Training Programmes of Study Participants	71
Table 4.3: Thematic Analysis Phases (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.87)	78
Table 4.4: Final Six Themes from Thematic Analysis Process	80
Table 4.5: Criteria for Judging Quantitative and Qualitative Research	82
Table 4.6: Working Style and Expectations Quotes	89
Table 4.7: Autonomy, Freedom and Ownership Quotes	94
Table 4.8: Progression Quotes	99
Table 4.9: Mobility and Speed Quotes	104
Table 4.10: Organisational Values Quotes	108
Table 4.11: Relationships at Work Quotes	111
Table 5.1: Demographic Variables Summary for Full Sample as Gathered at Time Point 1	174
Table 5.2: Survey Respondents across Three Survey Time Points	176
Table 5.3: Study Variables Measured at Three Time Points	179
Table 5.4: Descriptive Statistics for Variables Measured at Time 1	192
Table 5.5: Descriptive Statistics for Variables Representing Measures at Time 2	194
Table 5.6: Descriptive Statistics for Variables Representing Measures at Time 3	195
Table 5.7: Descriptive Statistics for Variables Representing Measures across the Three Times	196
Table 5.8: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 1 Four Factor Model (n=350)	198

Table 5.9: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 1 Two Factor Model (n=350)	202
Table 5.10: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators and Chi-Squared Difference Test for the Time 1 Four-Factor and Two-Factor Measurement Models	204
Table 5.11: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 2 Model (n=229)	205
Table 5.12: Standardised Coefficients for Eleven Factor CFA Model for Time 2	205
Table 5.13: Correlations for Eleven Factor CFA Model for Time 2	207
Table 5.14: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 3 Model (n=350)	210
Table 5.15: Standardised Coefficients for Four Factor CFA Model for Time 3 for Personal Work Values	212
Table 5.16: Correlations for Four Factor CFA Model for Time 3 for Personal Work Values	212

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: Schwartz’s Theory of Basic Values (1992, 2012)	19
Figure 2.2: Super’s Lifespan Theory Model (1957, 1980)	42
Figure 5.1: Theoretical Model for Longitudinal Study	169
Figure 5.2: Four Factor CFA Model for Time 1 for Personal Work Values	200
Figure 5.3: Two Factor CFA Model for Time 1 for Personal Work Values (version 2)	203
Figure 5.4: Four Factor CFA Model for Time 3 for Personal Work Values	211
Figure 5.5: PROCESS Model 16 (Hayes, 2017) with Extrinsic Organisational Work Values and Intrinsic Organisational Work Values as Moderators	219
Figure 5.6: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Social Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Social Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean, the Mean, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Extrinsic Organisational Work Values	221
Figure 5.7: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Social Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Social Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean, the Mean, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Intrinsic Organisational Work Values	222
Figure 5.8: PROCESS Model 16 (Hayes, 2017) with Organisational Investiture and Job Satisfaction as Moderators	223
Figure 5.9: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Extrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Extrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean Of Job Satisfaction, the Mean of Job Satisfaction, and 1 SD Above the Mean Of Job Satisfaction	225
Figure 5.10: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Intrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Intrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean of Job Satisfaction, the Mean of Job Satisfaction, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Job Satisfaction	226
Figure 5.11: PROCESS Model 64 with Age and Self-Efficacy as Moderators	227
Figure 5.12: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Extrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Extrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean of Age, the Mean of Age, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Age	229

- Figure 5.13: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Intrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Intrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean of Age, the Mean of Age, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Age 231
- Figure 5.14: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Prestige Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Prestige Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean of Age, the Mean of Age, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Age 232

Chapter 1 - Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the Context of the Research

The aim of this thesis is to examine and investigate, through a mixed methods approach, young people's work values as they transition into organisations, and the psychological factors affecting those values. The transition of young people from full-time education to the workplace is a challenging period, often stressful and uncertain, as young adults take the first steps into their new working lives within a new environment (Lyons et al., 2015; Polach, 2004; Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021; Wray-Lake et al., 2011). Over the years, it has been recognised that this is a critical transitional stage for young people, deserving particular attention in both academia and practice (Busque-Carrier et al., 2021; Graham & McKenzie, 1995; Johnson & Mortimer, 2011). It is therefore important not to overlook these key socialisation experiences as young individuals move into new working environments and organisations, and this sets the context for the current research.

Young employees have much to offer organisations, and the 'onboarding' or 'socialisation' stages can be crucial for settling into a new role, and identifying performance potential within this group of people (Wanberg, 2012). Despite their often negative media reputation, which is susceptible to exaggeration and reductionism, in the research literature, young employees have been found to be highly motivated, creative and ambitious (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). As the context of work and careers rapidly evolves with globalisation, technology developments, wider work opportunities and more flexible careers, the motivational needs and values of young people entering the world of work also appear to be changing (Sullivan, 1999; Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021). It is evident that young people are experiencing more diverse career mobility patterns (Dries et al., 2008b) and a 'new careers' literature has emerged around this, showing an increase in job and role changes as well as changes and movement across organisations (Dries & Verbruggen, 2012; Inkson et al., 2012; Lyons et al., 2015). A greater understanding of changing work values and career expectations within this group of people is useful to individuals, employers, policy-makers and theorists in order to help position modern careers within

the wider evolution of career patterns over time and to contribute to, and update, values and careers theory. Understanding such differences in the psychological attributes of younger employees in these early stages of transition to the workplace can help to ensure that both the individual and organisation are benefitting from positive outcomes (Ng & Feldman, 2010).

1.2 Research Motivation

Work values are highly important and have been found to be significant predictors of human behaviour in the workplace (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010), being defined as the generalised beliefs about the relative desirability of various aspects of work and related outcomes (Lyons et al., 2010). Work values form a major part of this study as they “*act as the criteria that an individual uses in selecting appropriate work related behaviours and goals*” (Lyons et al., 2006, p.607). Thus, the primary focus of this research on work values is important, as these beliefs are what guide us in our working day-to-day lives, being linked to work commitment and job performance, and used to generally predict behaviour (e.g., Judge & Bretz, 1992).

Moreover, workforce demographics have changed radically from when the first values and careers theories were developed from the early to mid-1900s, and there is a need to understand the work values of young people and the way in which these change (or not) as they are transitioning into work (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Grant & Parker, 2009; Grant et al., 2010). Exploring these values from a personal and organisational viewpoint, over such a crucial time, can therefore also provide understanding around the person-organisation (P-O) fit of young people into organisations.

The transitional socialisation process that takes place when young people enter an organisation can play a part in this period of time, and theoretical insight into newcomer adjustment and P-O fit is continuing to grow (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2005; Sutton, 2018). By measuring the stability of the work values of young people as they enter their new working environments, as well as key moderating variables, I will be able to identify influences on the psychological mechanisms occurring during socialisation and potential values adjustment. For the reasons above, the life stage of ‘young adulthood’ is

when work and career values, expectations and preferences are believed to be less stable (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Kuron et al., 2015), therefore making it a significant time to study the nature of these psychological views and their stability (Mortimer, 2012; Wray-Lake et al., 2011).

There are currently contradictory research findings around the work values and career expectations of young people, with their specific values and experiences not being supported by the large body of empirical research on those of previous generations (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). However, in my research, I consider this inconsistency to be an interesting pointer towards the need to investigate these values at work rather than a starting point for a cohort study. In other words, although much research focuses on the differences between age cohorts (e.g. Joshi et al., 2011), the current research is not focused on such categorisations; rather, the focus is on exploring the work and career values young people experience as they *enter* the workplace, considering other individual factors and the experience of moving into working life. Therefore, this research will make a thorough study, providing an understanding of work value concepts and models and their stability from young people's perspectives, in order to identify psychological changes and organisational factors taking place within this demographic group. This research will therefore contribute to understanding around the structure and hierarchy of work values (e.g., four-dimensional structure of work values; Jin & Rounds, 2012; hierarchical values models; Rokeach, 1973), career theory and models (e.g., Super's lifespan theory; Super, 1980; Kaleidoscope Career Model; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), adjustment and P-O fit theory (e.g., Attraction-Selection-Attrition theory; Schneider, 1987; newcomer adjustment; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). In particular, the study findings contribute to organisational socialisation theory (e.g., socialisation process; Bauer et al., 1998), specifically around understanding the approach to the socialisation process and work value stability, as young people enter organisations for the first time.

This study also makes a practical contribution by enabling organisations to determine if their company values and cultures are outdated for the young people they wish to attract and recruit. Young employees are now viewed as a social force rather than merely a demographic variable within organisations, therefore managing employees with

a 'one size fits all' approach to management and career development is likely to fail. The fit, or congruence, of values between an employee and employer has been found to affect attraction to and retention in organisations (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Schneider, 1987; Van Vianen, 2000). From a practical perspective, understanding the work values of young early career employees will shape various aspects of Human Resource Management including attraction, selection, recruitment, training, development, promotion, rewards and management style (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Johnson, 2002; Schneider, 1978).

1.3 Research Aims and Approach

Therefore, in this research I will examine young people's work values during their transition to work. As will be discussed in more detail below, neither the literature on young people's values nor the literature on the work values of the general population is in a position to answer this overriding aim. The former has tended to focus on generational differences (e.g., Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Parry & Urwin, 2011) or different requirements across the career span (e.g., Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011), and thus takes a more static approach that does not take into account the organisational socialisation context (e.g., Super, 1957, 1980). Like the latter, such a static approach has tended to assume that all employees react the same, regardless of age (e.g., Joshi et al., 2011; Pritchard & Whiting, 2014). However, we know that a young person's transition to work is a seminal turning point in their life and thus the stability of these values during socialisation may be different for young people compared to other employees. As such, we cannot simply extrapolate findings from either literature to address the aim of understanding young people's work values as they are socialised into organisations and the psychological factors affecting them.

To achieve this research aim, I designed this study with a mixed methods approach, adopting a critical realism research perspective, in order to explore and investigate the work values, career expectations and socialisation processes young people go through as they enter organisations. In general, I had three research questions: 1) what are young people's work values?; 2) how stable are young people's work values as they

transition into the workplace?; and 3) why do young people's work values change as they transition into the workplace? Given that these questions are broad, I began with a general, background literature review and inductive study. This first study employed a qualitative approach to collect and analyse subjective interview data on the self-reported perceptions of young people's work values, career orientations and job preferences in their early careers. It has been argued that there is a need for further qualitative studies in the field to discuss the work identity of young people and work-related decisions, attitudes and behaviours (Lyons & Kuron, 2014).

Based on the factors identified in this study, I conducted a second, more focused, literature review and developed hypotheses for a deductive study. The second study subsequently employed an online survey, adopting a longitudinal approach to assess work values over three time points (pre-entry; one-two months in; three-six months in), to investigate not only stability in young people's personal work values, but also to consider the moderating effects of perceived organisational work values, organisational investiture, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and specific age. These selected moderator variables were identified as potential influences in the first study and the subsequent literature review (see Chapter 5 for full justification). There is currently little research on work values looking specifically at young people entering the workplace from a mixed methods viewpoint, taking into account perceived organisational work values, organisational investiture, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy. Considering these concepts and variables allows for more understanding around the psychological factors that can influence the stability of young people's work values as they enter the workplace, as per the research aims. Much of the existing research on work values stability related to age is cross-sectional; however, as I am interested in studying the transition to work, this research includes a longitudinal perspective in order to analyse these variables over time.

This study, combining both qualitative and quantitative research approaches, responds to Lyons and Kuron's (2014) call for a "*more nuanced and theoretical research agenda that views generations as a social force in organisations rather than as merely a demographic variable*" (p.S139). Despite the recent explosion of research, there is still no consensus on any socialisation changes to young people in general, on a number of

work-related variables such as work values and career orientations (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). The study ties together three key areas of research to add insight and understanding to existing theory around the work values, careers and socialisation processes of young people entering the workplace. The overall research objectives are to explore the work values and career expectations that young people have a preference for, and are motivated by, as they embark on their careers and transition into the workplace. Detailed research questions and hypotheses, as well as theoretical frameworks, are provided in the relevant study chapters.

1.4 Thesis Outline

The format of this thesis is as follows: Chapter 1 provides the introduction to the topic and outlines the structure of the research study. Chapter 2 provides a detailed literature review on the context of young people at work, as well as work values, career expectations and transitions into the workplace, before presenting the study research questions. The literature review provides an overview of the current research exploring the transition into the workplace of young people, reflecting on their work values and career orientations, as well as the challenges of measuring attributes of ‘young people’ in the research. Chapter 3 discusses the mixed methods research approach and practicalities around how this is suitable for the current study. Chapter 4 presents the qualitative interview study, including the methodology and findings from the thematic analysis and interpretation of these. Chapter 5 develops the hypotheses based on the qualitative study, with further literature support, and presents the methods and findings of the quantitative survey study. Lastly, Chapter 6 presents the final discussion reflecting on the insights from the two studies and bringing these together for the concluding research understanding and recommendations, as well as considerations for practice and future investigations. Study constraints are discussed in their specific chapter, yet overall limitations are presented in this final section.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this body of research was to examine the transition and socialisation into the workplace of young people, and this is the focus of the literature review presented in this chapter. In particular, the research is interested in work values, their stability, and their associations with career expectations, self-concept and identity during these early career stages. It is these early career years that can involve modifications and developments in an individual's work values, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and behaviours as young people experience exposure to new working roles. The transition from education to the workplace is a challenging time and young people are often hit with the realisation that the workplace is highly different to previous social situations they have experienced (e.g., school, college) (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). When reviewing the literature in these areas, existing gaps were identified on the psychological effects and stability of work values and career expectations through this transitional, socialisation phase; in particular, limited clarity on the definition of 'young people' and 'work values', and limited focus on the stage of entering an organisation. The aim of this literature review was to present existing understanding, theoretical frameworks, concepts and debates around the topic of young people entering the workplace and their work values, careers, self-concepts and identities to shape the research questions and following methodologies outlined in subsequent chapters.

The literature review begins by providing an overview of the context of the research, young people in the workplace, and will discuss current research detailing the turbulent and unpredictable job market young people find themselves entering (e.g., Johnson et al., 2012). The review will then discuss definitions of 'young people' that have been used over decades of research, considering both an age and a generational perspective for critique. The study of young people in the workplace has been mixed and contradictory, with varied measurement approaches and definitions around age and generational categories. With increasing flaws found in the generational cohort approach to defining 'young people' in the literature, a life stage approach will be outlined defining

‘adolescence’ (15 to 19 years) and ‘young adulthood’ (20 to 24 years) categories that will be adopted for the current body of research.

Personal value models will be discussed to consider the origins of work values and the nature of these constructs. Work values have been found to predict work outcomes such as career choice, commitment, job satisfaction, work effort, performance and work rewards in later life (Billings & Cornelius, 1980; Chow et al., 2017; Johnson & Monserud, 2010; Johnson & Mortimer, 2011; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Rani & Samuel, 2016; Super, 1980), and their conceptual models will be discussed to understand the different facets of this phenomenon. It is clear there is a great deal of literature around work values and their predicted work-related outcomes, yet research on the work values of young people upon *entering* an organisation is limited and shows contradictory evidence (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Johnson, 2001a; Kuron et al, 2015). Research on young people and work values will be reviewed to focus on the current context and population sample of this research.

With careers evolving and a more individual and self-directed focus on the responsibility to choose and manage a career, work values are now more important than ever for young people as they begin to navigate and enter organisations and the world of work. The associations between work values and career concepts such as career expectations, career values and career success measures will be presented, with further consideration of ever-changing career approaches and shifts, particularly experienced by young people.

Once formed, work values are often assumed to be stable over the life course; however, early research suggests that new experiences, such as beginning a new role in an organisation, can change work values during this transition to work (Rokeach, 1973). Research evidence and theoretical ideas are presented to discuss changing structures of work values (e.g., hierarchical versus normative) and their stability upon entering the workplace. More longitudinal research is presented here to discuss work value changes in young people as they start their careers upon organisational entry. Thinking about the timing of career transition, career stage models are also considered, and associations between work values and the development of an individual’s self-concept and identity discussed based on the literature.

As young people enter the workplace in vast numbers, today's organisations must understand how best to manage and recognise the expectations and motivations of this unique and diverse group of employees (Caraher, 2015). Businesses need to not only be aware of the changes that young employees bring into organisations, but also the ones that they are going through individually and experiencing themselves in terms of values, expectations, self-concept development and identity formation. Organisations cannot assume that the values of employees entering their workplaces are the same as those of past employees, with changing employment landscapes continuing to evolve. It is there vital to review the existing research literature on young people entering the workplace, work values and the associated concepts in order to present a well-designed research project that aims to address the theoretical, methodological and practical gaps.

This literature review forms the basis for the theoretical frameworks underpinning the thesis, the research questions and the two subsequent studies designed within this research programme. Understanding what is meant by 'young people', conceptual models of work values, new careers theory phenomenon and career stage models around changing careers and transitioning into the workplace will be outlined to form the theoretical foundation for the research. The literature review concludes with an overview of the theoretical framework and positioning of the current study and the research questions. The socialisation of young people as they transition into the workplace is discussed in terms of work value and career preference stability; however, there is further emphasis on the socialisation literature when presenting the sequential link between study one and study two in Chapter 5, where the theoretical framework is developed further based on the outputs of study one.

2.2 Young People in the Workplace

2.2.1 The Context of Young People and Work

With the workplace becoming increasingly diverse in terms of labour demographics, organisations are now having to manage workforces with varied ages, genders, nationalities, and ethnicities, with vastly different interests and life experiences. With an influx of young people entering organisations and embarking on their careers, a

key diversity characteristic that has been discussed within academic research particularly over the last two decades has been that of age.

In every generation, starting with the prehistoric invention of tools, the younger population have been more in touch with technology since birth (Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Twenge, 2006). Recently, young people have grown up with globalisation and international networking, and with such collaboration different knowledge, experiences and preferences come to the workplace. Research has found younger people are more technologically savvy, creative and adept at multi-tasking, as well as being more highly connected socially (Ferri-Reed, 2010; Connor et al., 2008). However, the global economic crisis has provided a major challenge for young people in establishing their careers (Arnett, 2000; Johnson et al., 2012), linking to job insecurity and rising unemployment (Lippmann, 2008). Not only is the unemployment rate higher for newcomers to the workplace as compared to regular job seekers (ILO, 2011), newcomers graduating from school, college and/or university in challenging economic times are increasingly likely to experience underemployment, and higher levels of job incompatibility (Kahn, 2010; Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021). A delayed transition from school to working has been recognised over the past few years, with young adults remaining in education for longer (Arnett, 2000; Arnett et al., 2014; UN, 2019). Economic recessions and unstable work conditions can all play a part in shaping a young person's transition to their career or work roles (Krahn & Galambos, 2014). It has been found that unemployment during the early years of one's career can influence developing work values and expectations (Johnson et al., 2012; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009). There is, therefore, a high level of attention, from both academia and industry, on these young individuals who are embarking on their careers due to their large numbers and high contribution to the workplace and economy.

From a psychological perspective, the transition from adolescence to young adulthood is a critical and unpredictable time (Fouad & Bynner, 2008; Polach, 2004; Wray-Lake et al., 2011), and is typically characterised by the movement into working life. This transition has been described as an abrupt change, moving from what is familiar, to entering new roles, social contexts and environments (Schulenberg et al., 2004). In

particular, entering an organisation to start one's career and taking that step from education to a working life is a significant and dynamic point in an individual's life. During this time, exposure to new experiences in their world (e.g., organisational structures, working commitments), adjustment and socialisation allow young people to start to shape their future work and career values and preferences (Johnson & Mortimer, 2011).

As young people leave their educational institutions, their future career goals become more important as they begin to develop their working preferences, aspirations and expectations, which are often based on their underlying work values (Johnson, 2001b). It is at this point that young people begin to engage in career planning, only now considering the realities of their working life (Johnson, 2001a). At this point, they are starting to reflect on their working aspirations, developing work values in line with these motivations and goals. Preparing for a career is viewed as a significant developmental task in the transition from full-time education to a new working role within an organisation, often aligning with the movement from adolescence to young adulthood.

Research has found that young people develop work values and aspirations that are unrealistically high in comparison to what is available in the labour market (Jacobs et al., 1991; Marini et al., 1996; Shu & Marini, 1997). In the Western world, young people are encouraged to be ambitious (Johnson, 2001b) and tend to hold high expectations of their future attainment (McClelland, 1990). More specifically, it has been found that graduates moving from university into the workplace often hold high expectations as well as feelings of optimism around their life change and potential employment (Graham & McKenzie, 1995; Donald et al., 2018). Often, the literature does not indicate whether the young people in a sample are university graduates or non-university attendees. Nevertheless, there is often a realisation stage where individuals find that the workplace environment they enter is very different from their previous educational environment (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). Due to being underinformed about working life, adjustment then may need to take place (Perrone & Vickers, 2003; Ng et al., 2010; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). This psychological adjustment and learning, or

socialisation, allows young people to transition into and adapt to their professional career and job roles by adapting their preferences (Gottfredson, 2002).

Experiences can vary greatly within individuals; Arnett (2000) calls this ‘Emerging Adulthood’, a period of much flux and change (approximately 18 to 25 years). There are many major life events taking place, so the study of it and understanding the psychological changes are crucial as young people transition and establish themselves in adult work roles. This brings us to consider how to define this transitional and socialisation period in a young person as they progress to their working life, and, with many different categorisations in the literature, this can also introduce complexities when studying young people and the changes they experience. These definitions are discussed in the next section.

2.2.2 Defining Young People in the Literature

When studying young people in the workplace, researchers tend to use broadly defined age, or birth year, groups across an interval of time. Most literature uses such age categories and compares younger people with older people (i.e., cross-generational research). Researchers examining generational differences at work have almost exclusively adopted this cohort perspective in their studies (Foster, 2013), with much debate about the changes in and conflict of work values, beliefs, traits and expectations as each new generation emerges (e.g., Generation Y, Generation Z).

There are often contradictions, overlaps and ambiguity about how ‘young people’ are defined in the literature, whether focusing on age stage or generational cohort. For the purposes of this current research, it is important to recognise and consider the primary frameworks proposed in the literature to clarify what we mean by ‘young people’. These are presented in Table 2.1 below and discussed in more detail in the below sections. The generational groups are also included here, showing how ‘young people’ within Generation Z and Generation Y are distinguished from older generations such as Generation X, Baby Boomers and Veterans, the most commonly used categorical labels.

Table 2.1: *Overview of Key Age Stage and Generational Categories Used in the Literature Focusing on ‘Young People’*

Framework	Categories (age in years or birth year range)
‘Emerging Adulthood’ (Arnett, 2000)	Emerging Adulthood (18-25)
Life Stage Model (Strauss & Howe, 1991)	Youth (0-21)
	Rising Adulthood (22-43)
	Midlife (44-65)
Generational Groups (Goh & Lee, 2018; Parry & Urwin., 2011)	Veterans (born 1925-1942)
	Baby Boomers (1943-1960)
	Generation X (1961-1981)
	Generation Y (1982-1994)
	Generation Z (1995-2009)

Identifying and summarising such key frameworks helps to confirm the population targeted by the research aims and objectives (i.e., young people), as well as outline the rationale for the samples adopted in the empirical chapters of this thesis. Furthermore, it allows us to identify and understand the often varying contexts in which the existing research is situated. Early developmental models that would be more situated in the Developmental Psychology field have not been included here, but are touched on later when discussing career stage models; these would include Erikson’s (1950, 1959) and Levinson’s (1978) early theoretical contributions on psychosocial human development.

The frameworks summarised in Table 2.1 were selected as the most cited and commonly used models for categorisation and/or classification of young people in the literature. Although different terms and frameworks can be adopted to form a basis for research studies, there are some similarities identified in the generational cohorts (Goh & Lee, 2018; Parry & Urwin, 2011), and the life stage models (Arnett, 2000; Strauss & Howe, 1991), and, particularly for the focus of this research, parallels can be made between the categories of emerging adulthood and rising adulthood in terms of the age

definitions and descriptions. The current research aligned with these age stages models due to flaws and limitations identified in the generational/cohort approach leading to categorisation restrictions and little consideration of ageing and maturation effects (see 2.2.2.1). A critical challenge when investigating age is the confounding effects of age itself (i.e., maturation, changes taking place), period of study, and generational cohort (Lyons et al., 2015; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Rhodes, 1983; Twenge, 2010). These factors are closely interrelated and it can be challenging to distinguish when investigating age-related changes or shifts (Mason & Wolfinger, 2002; Parry & Urwin, 2011). For example, are new career expectations due to age (i.e., maturing through career stages), changing environmental and societal effects (e.g., technology, globalisation), or generational effects (e.g., new values, attitudes)? Untangling these aspects can be tricky, yet researchers attempt to address this through different types of studies (e.g., cross-sectional, time lag, panel etc.).

There are clear methodological and conceptual flaws with generational research in organisations, leading to overgeneralisation and stereotyping within generational literature, which can be harmful and misleading for organisations and decision-makers. Costanza et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis of generational differences on work-related outcomes concluded that generational differences “*probably do not exist*” (p.375). In line with Pritchard and Whiting (2014), the current research avoids assuming that individuals hold the same work values based on the generational categorisation of their birth years. Instead, although there is strong evidence that age, rather than cohort, is important; nevertheless, exploring the psychological aspects behind any such change is a vital part of social science research (Cadiz et al., 2015; Caspi, 1998).

The complex nature of defining ‘ageing’ itself needed to be recognised within the current study. Existing research explores the topic of age in the workplace through various lenses, and many of these definitions are actually based on original generational work by Mannheim (1952), which demonstrates that critical events play a significant part in forming identities that accompany one’s transition to adulthood. Distinctions are clearly evident between younger and older individuals in the research (Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015).

The term ‘young people’ has been used slightly differently in the literature; for example, Loughlin and Barling (2001) broadly state that these individuals are between 15 and 24 years old, and are attempting to establish themselves within their careers and organisations. Arnett (2000) also broadly uses the term ‘Emerging Adulthood’ for young people aged between 18 and 25 years, stating that this is distinguishable from adolescence and young adulthood. Further, Arnett (2000) recognises the subjective nature of such age group labelling, arguing that the upper limit of ‘Emerging Adulthood’ can be up to age 29 years, demonstrating some flexibility. Other researchers have classified people into the younger and older years, typically adolescence and young adulthood. Strauss and Howe’s life stage model (1991) proposes that workplace behaviour, in the context of work values, is influenced by the following three stages over the lifespan:

1. Acquiring values, e.g., learning, growing (‘Youth’ 0-21 years)
2. Testing values, e.g., starting families, testing careers (‘Rising Adulthood’ 22-43 years)
3. Using values, e.g., teaching, parenting (‘Midlife’ 44-65 years)

This current study focused on the transition of young people into the workplace so will distinguish between adolescence (early acquiring values stage), and adulthood (testing values stage) based on the key model by Strauss and Howes, (1991), yet taking into account other, broader categories (Arnett, 2000; Loughlin & Barling, 2001). It is important to differentiate between these two groups as they will be experiencing more turbulent transitions and demands between these life stages (Loughlin & Barling, 2001).

Adolescence (approximately ages 15 to 19 years): Adolescence typically refers to the teenage years from ages 10 to 18 (Arnett, 2000), when individuals are usually living in a stable environment, experiencing normative events with their parents and attending full-time education. Within the research, adolescents tend to be high school students with some undertaking part-time work. During this time, normative developmental changes have been found, particularly in personality traits, based on both longitudinal and cross-sectional research (e.g., McCrae et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2003b). Research suggests that there are significant psychological and social changes occurring in the transition from adolescence to adulthood, yet individual differences influence the direction and

magnitude of this change. The adolescence years can be in a state of flux and identity crises appear to be more apparent in the school years (up to 18 years) (Munley, 1977). It is through the resolution of such crises that adolescents to attain an increase in career maturity (Munley 1977; Savickas, 1985, 2005, 2013). Career development has a central role during adolescence as individuals are encouraged to bring this to the forefront as discussions start around planning for the future. In particular, career exploration and decision-making are of importance during adolescence, also linking to the development of an individual's self-concept and identity formation (Erikson, 1959; Super, 1957, 1980).

Young Adulthood (approximately ages 20 to 24 years): Researchers (e.g., Hogan & Astone, 1986; Rindfuss, 1991) have studied the late teens and early twenties as being part of the transition to adulthood. During this stage, individuals will make more transitions and decisions than ever before (Elder, 1985), often becoming more psychologically mature. Unlike biological maturity, it is recognised that emotional and psychological maturity effects are not solely a natural consequence of ageing, often being learnt rather than acquired, e.g., making rational decisions (Apter, 2001). These effects suggest that younger adults become more like older adults, following a similar process, as they age or mature (Rhodes, 1983). By their late 20s, most young people believe they have independence through their residential and financial situations (Salmela-Aro et al., 2007), and Arnett (2000) proposes that young people feel they have transitioned to a more mature stage by gaining financial security and independence. Young adults are likely to be engaging in their first full-time job role, having left full-time education, and, in some cases, marriage/long-term relationship and a family, and typically leading a fully independent life (Roberts et al., 2003a). Three key criteria have been proposed by researchers for the transition to young adulthood (Arnett, 1997, 1998, 2000; Greene et al., 1992; Scheer et al., 1996):

1. Accepting responsibility for oneself
2. Making independent decisions
3. Becoming financially independent

Traditional indicators of adulthood are often associated with independent decision-making, accepting responsibility for an individual's self and self-exploration (Mortimer, 2012; Super, 1957, 1980). This period of young adulthood is viewed as a time of transition for the formation of work values (Chow et al., 2014). Literature suggests that the transition to young adulthood has slowed down over recent decades (Arnett, 2000, Arnett et al., 2014), which likely reflects the challenging economic situations young people currently find themselves in.

The current study examined the socialisation process of young adults as they shift from full-time education to employment. Although not the main focus of this thesis, this life transition often aligns with the psychological transition from adolescence to young adulthood, hence why it is key to consider the context of these individuals and the categorisations given to them in the academic literature. It is recognised, however, that not *every* new starter within an organisation is between the ages 20 and 24 and there is, of course, flexibility around this. The aim was to outline these classifications for guidance. The section above has provided some background on the labelling and stages, in terms of age and birth years, associated with this transition to working life and an individual's career.

In the next sections of the literature review, work values and career expectations will be discussed generally in terms of their definitions and concepts and then in relation to young people. A more in-depth exploration of existing research on the transition of young people into the workplace and the change over time in terms of stability of values, expectations and self-concept will then be presented.

2.3 Work Values

2.3.1 Personal Values

The notion of work values stems from the concept of 'values', which lead people to reasoning and motivation around their individual decisions and actions (Schwartz, 1992, 2012). Rokeach (1973) conducted early seminal work in the area of values, defining a value as an "*enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is*

personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence” (p.5). This emphasises that values can link to underlying needs that are compatible, or in conflict, with other values, as well as being long-lasting and permanent i.e., ‘enduring’ (Rokeach, 1973). Generally, values are thought of as being stable according to age stability theory (Glenn, 1980; Suar & Khuntia, 2010); however, Rokeach (1973) does state that they can, and do, change (stability of work values is discussed further in Chapter 5 – 5.2.1).

Personal values have been described as the “*guiding principles in people’s lives*” (p.51) by Ros et al. (1999), suggesting that they are fundamental to individuals’ future decisions and behaviour. A large amount of literature argues that values influence behaviour (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Marini et al., 1996; Roccas & Sagiv, 2010), therefore human experiences are shaped by an individual’s personal values, highlighting both cognitive and affective dimensions. Values are applied in many aspects of individuals’ lives, e.g., religion, politics, society and the workplace (Sagie & Elizur, 1996), implying they are primarily acquired through the socialisation of individuals into families, groups and society (Cieciuch et al., 2015). This also supports the view of values as internal social representations being developed through interactions with others, and also further shaping these interactions once formed (Kuhnen & Oysterman, 2002). Early research by Locke (1976) described values as the cognitive manifestation of needs.

Rokeach’s seminal work on the values concept (1973, 1979) influenced many subsequent theoretical models of values (e.g., Feather, 1975, 1995; Mayton et al., 1994). This work suggests that personal values are hierarchical with an order of importance or preference to individuals, thus helping them in situations of conflict (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Rokeach (1973) suggested 36 values within two higher-level classifications: terminal values (end states, i.e., the goals that an individual would like to achieve) and instrumental values (behavioural states, i.e., the means of achieving the terminal values), demonstrating some interplay between values.

Schwartz (1992, 2012; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987) advanced theory and understanding of personal values by creating a circumflex model of basic human values; with 10 values structured in a circular continuum. Each value is distinct, yet related, and

states a different motivational perspective that underlies them (see Figure 2.1): universalism, benevolence, conformity, tradition, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation and self-direction. The 10 basic values are categorised into four key areas: openness to change, conservation, self-transcendence and self-enhancement.

The circular structure of the model presents the 10 values and the four key areas within which they are categorised. Conflicting values are presented opposite from each other, with matching values being next to one another. The split of the values within the four areas is shown by the emboldened lines and, in some cases, values themselves are split, sharing elements of both, e.g., Hedonism which is part Self-Enhancement and part Openness to Change. Schwartz (1992, 2012) claims that this values structure does not exclude any meaningful values across societies, with the model being validated in over 70 cultural groups (Davidov et al., 2008; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012).

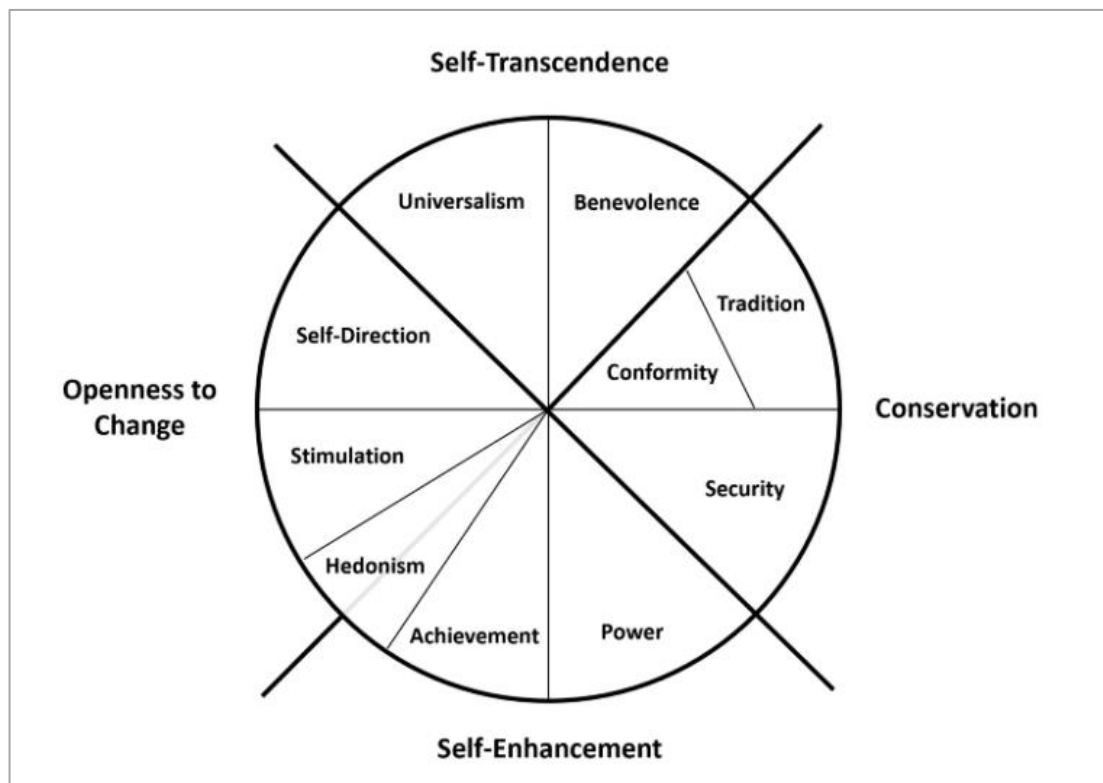


Figure 2.1: *Schwartz's Theory of Basic Values (1992, 2012)*

More recently, further values models have been developed with an increased breadth of focus on cultural values, moral values, prosocial values and micro-level individual values, e.g., Hofstede (2001), Hitlin and Vaisey (2013), Horn (2012), Inglehart (1977). This aligns with the development that human values are often defined as ‘trans-situational’, varying in significance across situations, allowing people to express behaviours, thoughts and feelings based on their values in many ways across different contexts (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012). This suggests that the context of values, i.e., personal or work domain, is of importance when understanding the uniqueness of an individual’s values.

De Clercq and colleagues (2008) argue that Schwartz’s (1992) personal values model can be applied to the workplace. Consiglio et al. (2017) studied how Schwartz’s values model can be measured in personal *and* work settings, stating that “*the aim of a work values scale is to capture the goals people seek to attain in their work life, in the work or organisational setting*” (p.407). Consiglio et al. (2017) found that the work setting creates a more hierarchical structure for values; however, they argue there is the same four-factor structure in both personal values and work values, based on Schwartz’s values model (1992). Within the research, positioning personal values in a workplace focuses on guiding principles and desirable aspects within a work setting, still viewing values as standards or criteria for guiding employee behaviour (Dose, 1997; Illies & Reiter-Palmon, 2008; Rokeach, 1968, 1973; Ros et al., 1999).

2.3.2 Values within the Workplace

Within the organisational psychology literature, values have been associated with many work-related constructs such as job satisfaction (Kashefi, 2005; Locke, 1976), motivation (Locke, 1991; Frieze et al., 2004), team-working (Dose & Klimoski, 1999; Knezevic & Ovsenik, 2001), overall work performance (Parsons et al., 1999) and decision-making (Sharfman et al., 2000). Values can therefore be studied in the workplace to understand organisational behaviour, as well as preferences, decision-making, goals and expectations by individuals when entering the workplace.

Work values can be defined as “*a person’s generalised beliefs about the relative desirability of various aspects of work (e.g., pay, autonomy, and working conditions), and work-related outcomes (e.g., prestige, accomplishment and fulfilment)*” (Lyons et al., 2010, p.972). They indicate what a person considers important in their job (Jin & Rounds, 2012), and link to an individual’s needs, expectations and goals within their work life. Work values have been argued to map onto desirable work behaviour and decisions, and evaluate work outcomes, through cognitive reasoning, being the perceived importance of job characteristics (Consiglio et al., 2017; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). This links work values to different expectations, e.g., pay, autonomy, recognition, achievement, helping to shape actions in order to achieve those expectations (Dose, 1997). Work values, therefore, have a strong influence on an individual’s orientation towards work, predicting job satisfaction (Locke, 1976), organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour (Feather & Rauter, 2004) and person-organisation fit (Froese & Xiao, 2012; Howell et al., 2012; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Papavasileiou & Lyons, 2015). Work values can be seen as important domain-specific values being “*specific expressions of basic values in the work setting*” (Ros et al., 1999, p.54). Overall, work values have been found to have a stronger effect in the workplace than personal values (Roe & Ester, 1999; Ros et al., 1999).

Super (1970, 1980) claimed that work value are goals or conditions that individuals pursue within their job role or working life; they are the end goals individuals seek from their work, e.g., satisfaction, quality or reward. Work values therefore affect an individual’s choices at work, linking to their goals, and often shaping their attitudes and preferences (Connor & Becker, 1975; Roe & Ester, 1999). Work values have been the foundation of many assessments of career preferences for decades (Hitlin, 2006; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Ros et al., 1999; Super, 1970). The motivational aspect of work values has been greatly discussed in the research body, with it being argued that individual work values are central in managing and shaping motivation and commitment to work and career goals (Sagie et al., 1996). Nevertheless, some researchers claim that other aspects are at play, stating that work values are “*secondary drivers of action that are determined by needs as well as socialisation, cognition and experience*” (Kooij et al., 2011, p.199).

These work-related choices, decisions and behaviours are all imperative for an individual's psychological well-being in the workplace (Gill, 1999).

Ros et al. (1999) identified four types of work values: intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige; and these are generally the key types that have been identified within the work values literature. More recent empirical evidence researching work values states the importance of four higher-order values (e.g., Abessolo et al., 2017; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010). Table 2.2 presents these four types of work values aligned with Schwarz's (1992) earlier values model.

Table 2.2: *Alignment of Work Values and Personal Values Based on Schwartz's (1992) Theoretical Model*

<u>Work Values</u>	<u>Personal Values</u>
Intrinsic	Openness to change
Extrinsic	Conservation
Social	Self-transcendence
Prestige	Self-enhancement

Intrinsic work values relate to the internal psychological rewards one gets from working (e.g., challenge, variety); extrinsic work values relate to more tangible or transactional aspects of work (e.g., pay, benefits); social work values relate to relationship with co-workers, supervisors etc.; and prestige work values relate to status, influence and power (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al, 2010; Ros et al., 1999).

In addition, research by De Vos et al. (2005) discussed how work values affect the way in which individuals relate to their organisations. The predictive effect of work values on work-related behaviour has been evident in theoretical models such as the person-organisational fit model (Chatman, 1989) (see Chapter 5 for more on this theoretical framework in line with study two rationale and hypotheses). Individuals select their working environment based on their work values, as well as attitudes, personality, preferences and other job-related factors. It is important to recognise this complex interplay as work values direct, and can be considered an inference of, an individual's

behaviour (Herbst & Houmanfar, 2009; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Latham & Pinder, 2005). Congruence between an employee's work values and the organisational values is related to positive outcomes in the workplace (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), demonstrating the importance of recognising the working context when understanding the work values of employees.

Despite the universal acceptance of personal values models, this is not the case for work values. Cemalcilar et al. (2018) suggest that this is due to the study of work values stretching over a number of diverse domains, e.g., psychology, sociology, business, economics, etc., as well as different terms being used, e.g., work values, work ethics, work orientations, work attitudes, work goals, etc. (Sparrow et al., 2010). There are diverse views on the definition and conceptualisation of work values in the literature. It is clear that seminal work by Rokeach (1973), Ros et al. (1999) and Schwartz (2012) has led the way for the application of personal value models into workplace settings, yet there are still differing views on how these should be understood and theorised.

2.3.3 Work Values Conceptual Models

Rounds and Armstrong (2005) posed two significant questions to consider when researching work values, '*what types of work values exist?*', and '*how are these types of values related to one another?*', and these are two critical questions needed for this study. Previous research demonstrates the numerous categorisations of work values which have been developed through different approaches (Pryor, 1982).

Due to the huge body of research (past and present) on work values, it is fundamental to have a clear conceptualisation when researching these psychological constructs, and, currently, no exclusive typology exists (Batra et al., 2001). Personal values literature tends to present personal values theoretical models and frameworks as being more universal, integrated and accepted than work values (Consiglio et al., 2017).

One of the earliest classifications of work values was developed by Ginzberg et al. (1951), who proposed three types based on the reward generated for the individual:

1. *Intrinsic Rewards*: Achieved by doing the job itself, e.g., enjoyment, creativity, autonomy, variety, challenge, achievement, intellectual stimulation (Super, 1970). These are intangible rewards that reflect the more internal development and learning opportunities for an individual.
2. *Extrinsic Rewards*: An outcome or result of doing the work itself; something of value, e.g., financial reward, job security and work environment (Super, 1970). These are tangible rewards external to the individual.
3. *Concomitant Rewards*: Social aspects of a job, e.g., social relations with co-workers/team members, interactions, contribution to society (Super, 1970).

In 1970, Zytowski questioned the number of work values and their dimensions, relating them to the number of identifiable aspects of work (Zytowski, 2006). Generally, a classic distinction in work values categorisation is between intrinsic (cognitive) and extrinsic (instrumental) work values (Elizur, 1984; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Sortheix et al., 2015).

Over the last five decades, in order to define work value dimensions, researchers have developed work value inventories, such as the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds et al., 1981), Schwartz's Values Survey (Schwartz, 1992), Super's Work Value's Inventory (SWVI) (Super 1957, 1970; Super & Šverko, 1995), 12 Work Values Inventory (Berings, 2002), Values Scale (Nevill & Super, 1986), Work Aspects Preferences (Pryor, 1981), Manhardt's Work Values Inventory (1972), Work Values Questionnaire (Avallone et al., 2010), Munster Work Value Measure (Krumm et al., 2013), as well as Hofstede's (Hofstede & Bond, 1984) cultural work values measure. Based on these, the primary work values domains included the following (Berings et al., 2004; Leuty & Hansen, 2011; Macnab & Fitzsimmons, 1987; Rounds & Armstrong, 2005):

1. Achievement/Self-actualisation
2. Autonomy/Independence

3. Creativity
4. Competence
5. Power/Status/Authority/Prestige
6. Social Relationships/Altruism
7. Work Environment/Conditions
8. Pay
9. Security
10. Organisational Culture

As well as the traditional intrinsic and extrinsic work values, conceptual models added other dimensions such as autonomy in decision-making, job security (stability and advancement), leisure time, social and interpersonal relationships at work, altruism, and prestige (Ros et al., 1999). Many frameworks of work values account for between 10 and 20 dimensions.

Lyons et al. (2010) examined six work value types (extrinsic, intrinsic, securing, prestige, social, altruistic) and, by gathering data from 119 organisations in Canada, they found a three-dimensional structure for work value constructs:

1. Modality of the work characteristics (e.g., cognitive, social/altruistic)
2. Growth orientation (i.e., opportunity for growth in roles)
3. Level of focus of the work attributes (i.e., degree to which the values benefit the individual)

This is useful and provides an alternative perspective when understanding work values, their theoretical concepts and measurements. As this structure was not tested outside of Canada, however, it was not used in the current study.

The most credible and broad studies show that there are four broad domains when it comes to work values classification. Jin and Rounds (2012) conducted a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies on work values from 1965 to 2009 and recognised four primary domains of intrinsic, extrinsic, social and status work values, in line with early values frameworks. Most studies on work values involve ranking or rating lists of work characteristics and outcomes across the four broad work values categories shown in Table 2.3 (Harding & Hikspoors, 1995; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010; Papavasileiou & Lyons, 2015).

Table 2.3: *Work Values Categories and Descriptions*

Work Value	Description
<i>Intrinsic</i> <i>(or Cognitive)</i>	Relate to inherent psychological satisfaction of working, personal meaning, self-development, and actualisation E.g., interesting work, variety, intellectual stimulation, personal development, autonomy, creativity
<i>Extrinsic</i> <i>(or Instrumental)</i>	Relate to material aspects of work and the exchange between employer and employee E.g., pay, benefits, job security, compensation, work environment
<i>Social</i> <i>(or Relationship)</i>	Relate to relations with colleagues, supervisors, etc. E.g., social experiences and roles, interpersonal relationships, social contribution, altruism
<i>Prestige</i> <i>(or Status)</i>	Relate to status and influence E.g., prestige, power, authority, recognition, management

This was a prominent piece of work and empirical research continues to support these four higher-order values e.g., Abessolo et al. (2017). This study will therefore adopt this four-dimensional structure of work values as defined by Jin and Rounds (2012) when exploring work values in young people as they transition into the workplace. It should be noted that, in the current study, work values are distinguished from expectations, which are focused on an individual's belief about the future; yet what is expected may not align with what is desired and vice versa (Kalleberg, 1977).

2.3.4 Young People and Work Values

There is a large amount of research focusing on differences in work values, with findings that values can be distinctive of young adults as discussed further below. In this section, I will only focus on findings that touch on young people's values in terms of 'young adulthood' (ages 20 to 24 years), or generational research, 'Generation Y' (born 1982 to 1994). This ensures that the literature review discussions will be kept in line with the 'young people' focus of this research (see Section 2.2.2). As critiqued before, this generational cohort approach can cause problems with understanding and findings due to a lack of definition and standardisation, as well as over-generalisation, around the categories. Like the definitions, empirical research into the work values of young people is generally contradictory and inconsistent (Dencker et al., 2009; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Sullivan et al., 2009). Nevertheless, to provide a complete overview, literature findings around young people and work values are summarised below.

Parry and Urwin (2011) conducted a review of the work values literature and found younger people aligned to status and freedom work values (Lyons et al., 2007), affiliation and power (Wong et al., 2008), as well as a need for self-approval (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Some of these findings suggest a higher preference for prestige work values in younger people and it has been found that these individuals 'crave' status (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2008; Ng et al., 2010; Wong et al. 2008).

A further consistent finding in the literature is that young people tend to place more importance on intrinsic values, autonomy, freedom and learning opportunities (Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008; Hansen & Leuty 2012; Johnson, 2001a; Lyons et al., 2007; Smola & Sutton 2002; Real et al., 2010). The desire for detailed and immediate feedback from supervisors, as well as having a sense of significance and enthusiasm in a fulfilled working life, were preferred (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Glass, 2007; Menci & Lester, 2014). Interestingly, Krahn & Galambos (2014) found intrinsic rewards to be positively associated with age rather than generational cohort.

A longitudinal sequential study by Krahn and Galambos (2014) found extrinsic rewards to be important for younger people and this increased with age, and this was also found by Chen and Choi (2008), where security and economic return (i.e., extrinsic values) were more important for successive generations. Young people have a high expectation of promotion and pay rises (Hill, 2002), which could link to the desire for prestige. Generally, money is not a strong motivator for young employees (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Johnson, 2001a). A further longitudinal sequential study by Hansen and Leuty (2012) found that comfort (e.g., compensation, security and working conditions) was more important than prestige work values.

Social work values were not rated particularly high for young people; however, leisure values were noticeably significant (Kerslake, 2005; Lamm & Meeks, 2009; Morton, 2002; Real et al. 2010; Schullery, 2013; Wong et al., 2008). This desire for leisure at work has also been linked to 'fun' at work, which is important for younger employees (Schullery, 2013; Twenge et al., 2010). Cennamo and Gardner (2008) found no preference for extrinsic or social work values in younger people. In particular, two time-lag studies by Twenge et al. (2010) and Wray-Lake et al. (2011) found that leisure values increased with successive generations, whereas work centrality, work ethic, and the importance of job security and social interactions declined.

A more recent qualitative study by Kultalahti and Viitala (2015) found a number of factors that young people saw as particularly motivating and desirable in working life. These include constant learning and development, interesting, challenging, and varied tasks, social relations and the supervisor's behaviour, reciprocal flexibility, and a good work-life balance.

Twenge and colleagues have conducted a great deal of research into younger people, finding a sense of entitlement and individualism being reported highly (Twenge et al., 2008). Greenberger et al. (2008) found that young people show this sense of entitlement when receiving academic grades, and furthermore found that this is actually unrelated to their own perceived academic ability. Ng et al. (2010) found that young people had unrealistic career expectations of themselves, with a disconnect between reward, effort and performance. This job entitlement can then decrease as young people

enter work and experience the realities of working roles (Chow et al., 2014). Laird et al. (2015) found that entitled young employees responded to accountability favourability. It should also be noted that, in the literature, entitlement to work has been described as a ‘universal concern’ (Harpaz & Fu, 2002), being considered increasingly within the changing economy with increased unemployment and recession environments (Lippmann, 2008; Pritchard & Whiting, 2014). Overall, it has been suggested that younger employees entered the workplace without expectations of long-term tenure or job security (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Lyons et al., 2012a), therefore they seek autonomy, independence and flexibility with organisations as they enter the career development stages.

2.3.5 Work Values and Careers

Work values have been found to play a key role in the motivation and guidance of young people’s career development (Ashby & Schoon, 2010; Sortheix et al., 2015), career choice (Judge & Bretz, 1992), as well as career expectations (Dose, 1997; Jambrak et al., 2014; Wohrmann et al., 2016), all being important during the transitional movement into working life.

Individuals have their own core standards when it comes to their careers (Rodrigues et al., 2013), hence why work and career values are highly embedded in one’s organisational life (Derr & Briscoe 2007; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Some researchers suggest that values frameworks are flexible in the context of career development; for example, someone may have an adaptable career approach based on any type of value, e.g., money or status, as long as there is congruence with their current situation (e.g., Arnold & Cohen, 2008). Early work by Sullivan et al. (1998) highlighted the links between career type and work values (intrinsic vs. extrinsic), producing a framework with two continuums: transferability of competencies (i.e., organisational specific skills vs. transferable skills) and intrinsic vs. extrinsic work values (i.e., desire for self-fulfilment in work vs. monetary rewards). Those with low intrinsic work values would have more traditional or provisional (i.e., temporary) career types, whereas those with high intrinsic work values would have a self-directed or self-designing career type. Discussing age,

Sullivan et al. (1998) proposed that younger workers would be less likely to follow traditional careers. Although a fairly dated theoretical paper, these academics nevertheless identified some early key trends for the directions of careers based on an individual's work values.

Reflecting on flexibility in career management, the majority of research in the field can lead us to adopt the premise that internal core work values focused on personal growth and freedom, are more highly intercorrelated with a protean career. A protean career is defined as that where an individual's values drive their career path (Hall, 1996) (see more in the next section) and links have been found with a desire for autonomy, freedom and work-life balance (Sargent & Domberger, 2007). Briscoe and Hall (2006) proposed that individuals with protean careers will focus on their personal values to direct their career as opposed to organisational values. Alternatively it has been suggested by researchers that all types of work values can drive a protean career (e.g., Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Gubler et al., 2014), such as money, power, affiliations, stimulating work, being dependent on the individual values held by the person in question.

Work values can determine a person's expectations of the ideal career, i.e., the reasons that motivate us to work, based on the internalised work standards or criteria we have (Dose, 1997; Jambrak et al., 2014; Wohrmann et al., 2016). There are contradictory findings in the literature on how work values and career expectations may align (Abessolo et al., 2017; Briscoe et al., 2006), particularly around extrinsic work values and career mobility (Segers et al., 2008), with status values usually being linked to traditional careers (Baruch, 2006). The literature appears to describe career expectations like it does values, and there is a great deal of literature discussing and linking work values and career expectations. Career values, i.e., the preference or desirability for certain job attributes (Johnson & Monserud, 2010), have also been discussed in line with career expectations, playing a role in the exploration stage of a person's career, typically aligning with the adolescence and early adulthood life stages (Super, 1980). Career values, like work values, have been identified as being linked to career outcomes, decision-making behaviour and work engagement (Johnson & Monserud, 2010; Johnson & Mortimer, 2011; Schwartz, 1992; Sortheix et al., 2013).

Career success factors are defined as the perceived positive outcomes from an individual's work experiences (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001), and also can be linked to work values and mindsets (Heslin et al., 2019), particularly based on their theoretical conception in terms of extrinsic versus intrinsic measures. Career success measures are separated into objective indicators (e.g., salary attainment, promotion), aligning with extrinsic work values, and subjective indicators (e.g., job and career satisfaction), aligning with intrinsic work values (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005). Objective career success measures are defined as being directly observable by others and can be measured in a standardised manner, similar to the outcomes of extrinsic work values, e.g., compensation and benefits (Arthur et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2005; Spurk et al., 2019). Subjective career measures are defined based on the individual's personal evaluation and experience of attaining meaningful career outcomes, of the same kind as intrinsic work value outcomes, e.g., interesting work, autonomy and variety (Ng et al., 2005; Spurk et al., 2019). It is therefore likely that an individual who holds higher objective career success measures has increased extrinsic work value preferences, and vice versa, in that those who hold higher subjective career success measures are likely to have increased intrinsic work value preferences (Heslin, 2005). As both work values and perceived career success measures are focused on desired outcomes, such alignment would be rational.

There are discussions in the career success literature around the facets of objective and subjective measures, with a shift towards 'new careers' research suggesting that subjective career success now directs many self-directed and flexible careers, and does not overlap with objective career success (Agrawal & Chourasiya, 2015; Hall & Chandler, 2005). This could suggest that intrinsic work values have become more prominent in working individuals as careers have evolved. On the other hand, however, some argue that objectively successful, secure organisational careers, which are aligned with extrinsic work values, are still important today and may be highly predictive of subjective career success (Dries & Verbruggen, 2012). Moreover, some studies have found differences in career success based on the career stage of individuals, such as the importance of promotions for younger employees, suggesting that objective career success measures and extrinsic work values may be more prominent in early career roles (e.g., Van der Heijden et al., 2009).

Considering the perceived importance of an individual's career success measures, in line with work values, can be useful in recognising congruence, or incongruence, between these two phenomena, being useful for both individuals and organisations (Arthur et al., 2005; Hall & Chandler, 2005). There are clearly alignments in the way in which work values and career values and success are assessed and measured, with similar classifications distinguishing intrinsic and extrinsic aspects (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Johnson, 2001b; Ng et al., 2005; Ros et al., 1999; Spurk et al., 2019). It is therefore likely that work values and career values, as well expectations and success measures, will be closely associated as young people develop and identify their preferences as they transition into working life, hence why these career concepts are reviewed and considered within study one. Due to economical and societal changes, individuals are changing their career attitudes, values and behaviours; with increasing lifespans and therefore working life, there are now increasing dual-career couples, single working parents, and more individuals seeking to fulfil their need for career development and growth (Hall, 2004). Individuals are becoming more self-directed in their careers and being more driven by their *own* desires and values rather than organisational career management practices (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). With careers changing and the focus on individuals to direct their own careers, being advised to follow their own values and placing more responsibility on career decisions (Gubler et al., 2014; Sullivan, 1999), the importance of work values in this evolving context is more significant than ever.

2.4 Careers of Young People

2.4.1 Evolving Careers

Young people are entering into new career environments within organisations, therefore understanding this context, and potential alignment, with work values is important. The term 'career' refers to the unfolding, evolving sequence of a person's work or employment experience through the course of their life (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), with much change emerging in career concepts in the 21st century. Traditional careers are viewed as upward, linear progression within one single organisation, moving from job to job, with increasing responsibility, status and pay (Baruch, 2004; Hall & Mirvis, 1996;

Super, 1980). This view has dominated career development theory and research over the last 100 years (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011; Osipow, 1968), with the employer being viewed as the entity providing job security and opportunities in exchange for the employee's effort and commitment (Capelli, 1999). Traditional career paths and processes were designed to reward employee loyalty and upward mobility with status and income (Chudzikowski, 2012), with a strong focus on the relationship between employer and employing organisation (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). These linear careers took place within the context of stable organisational structures (e.g., Levinson, 1978; Super, 1957), with individuals progressing through hierarchies to gain greater extrinsic rewards or to meet objective measures of career success, e.g., pay, promotion.

Careers can change over time, being susceptible to shifting social, economic and occupational environments (Dries et al., 2008a), and many career scholars agree that environmental disruptions such as globalisation, technology, cultural values and organisational structures have resulted in career trends shifting, making them more complex (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Such changes have altered the traditional psychological contract (Rousseau et al., 2018), with organisations no longer guaranteeing long-term employment, limited internal advancement opportunities due to downsizing, and individuals becoming increasingly responsible for their own professional development (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011). This has led to an increase in career mobility, yet not always upwards; lateral and downward transitions are also becoming more common within and outside of organisations (Sirén et al., 2021; Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021).

It has been argued that, as well as environmental influences, young people are transitioning into more non-traditional careers, for example, with an increase in temporary and part-time work, or taking on multiple jobs and changing career paths (Moses, 1997). Whereas employees would have previously experienced long-term employment in exchange for their loyalty and commitment, they are now expected to develop competencies and gain experience to improve their own employability in exchange for short-term commitment of effort (Arthur, 1994; Baruch, 2004; Capelli, 1999; Moses, 1997). It has been suggested that this has created a change, particularly

evident in younger people, towards more dynamic and portfolio careers, termed in the literature, the ‘new career’ (Dries & Verbruggen, 2012; Inkson et al., 2012). These new career patterns have replaced the traditional, stable, linear career approach, comprised of various movements across organisation, job and occupation (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Baruch, 2004). Careers have become increasingly “boundaryless”, a term coined by Arthur and Rousseau (1996; 2001), both physically and psychologically across jobs, organisations and occupations (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). The boundaryless career is not a single career form; rather, it demonstrates a transition towards independence from traditional organisational career arrangements with a single employer, moving the careers spotlight *outside* of organisations (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 2001). However, some researchers argue that boundaries still exist in careers with regard to competencies and networks (e.g., Bagdadli et al., 2003; Dany, 2003). Nevertheless, ‘Boundaryless’ refers to a career not being bound by an organisation, putting a renewed focus on individual networking, learning and enterprise (Arthur & Rousseau, 2001), in line with the shift towards a knowledge society and viewed as “*something to be crossed in career behaviour, or in taking on complexity*” (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, p.29).

Research has also considered that competency accumulation at the individual level is better fulfilled by a boundaryless career (DeFillippi & Arthur 1994), supporting flexible and self-directed career approaches. This can help people to cope with the complexities of the ever-changing career market, with DeFillippi and Arthur (1994) proposing that individuals need to acquire three ways of knowing: 1) knowing why, 2) knowing how, and 3) knowing who. This collation of individual information, knowledge and relationships (i.e., a career competency approach) could then help young people transitioning to organisations to navigate boundaryless careers effectively in the context of increasingly unpredictable job markets.

Additionally, Hall (1996) developed the concept of the ‘protean career’, where an individual remains employable by presenting their knowledge, skills and abilities to fit with changing work environments in a self-directed way. An individual manages their own values-driven career, having the motivation to adapt to accomplish this (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Gubler et al., 2014; Hall, 2004). Protean careerists are increasingly flexible,

striving for development and learning, valuing freedom and personal growth (Hall, 1996, 2004).

Sullivan and Baruch (2009) detailed the next generation of career concepts, including the Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM) based on work by Mainiero and Sullivan (2006). As a kaleidoscope produces changing patterns when the tube is rotated, with various new arrangements, the KCM describes how individuals change their career patterns by rotating varied aspects of their lives, e.g., relationships, roles. This model illustrates that individuals evaluate the choices and options available to determine the best fit with their work values as well as relationships and life stage. As one decision is made, it affects another in the overall kaleidoscope career pattern. Such changes may occur due to environmental changes or maturation and career stage changes. However, the KCM has been also used to show the changing work-life balance desires of younger people (Darcy et al., 2012; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

There has been a call for further research to understand these new career concepts, with concerns that the focus on the individual can overlook the social structures within organisations that are fundamental to careers (Dany et al., 2003). Careers are now defined much more broadly, relating to “*work-related and other relevant experiences, both inside and outside of organisations that form a unique pattern over the individual’s lifespan*” (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009, p.1543). Iellatchitch et al. (2003) state that there is now a more ‘cross-sectional’ view of careers, with less reliance on the organisation, profession or job itself; rather, careers unfold as a sequence of positions based on individual work-related efforts. Therefore, new career orientations, expectations and preferences held by younger people suggest that traditional models (e.g., Super, 1957) are outdated and need to be updated to reflect such dynamic movements through career paths.

2.4.2 Young People and Career Expectations

The ‘new career’ literature would suggest that young people today are showing increasing evidence of ever-evolving career patterns, yet there is still limited research investigating the demise of traditional careers (Lyons et al., 2015). Career expectations have been defined as the actual, achievable career targets that an individual wishes to

attain (Armstrong & Crombie, 2000; Metz et al., 2009; Rojewski, 2005). They have predominantly been studied with a focus on the influencing factors from an individual perspective, with research suggesting they are influenced by personal interests, family background (Schoon & Parsons, 2002), educational level, race/ethnicity (Cook et al., 1995) and gender (Metz et al., 2009). Research has found that career expectations can determine the persistence of individuals towards their career goals (Suutari & Mäkelä, 2007), and higher career expectations have been found to lead to higher-status job roles (Schoon & Parsons, 2002). When there is consistency between career expectations and work values, high work engagement emerges (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Regarding career expectations it has been found that young people desire ‘fast track’ careers, with opportunities for career development, as well as taking individual responsibility for their careers (Broadbridge et al., 2007; Kerslake, 2005), as in line with the protean career approach (Hall, 1996). Younger people have been found to place more importance on promotions for career success (Dries et al., 2008b), and to have a strong desire for career advancement opportunities, training and development, and involvement in decision-making processes that affect their work (Menci & Lester, 2014). Although young people have been described as impatient and desiring ‘instant gratification’ (Menci & Lester, 2014), this need for fast advancement in their careers has been related to them growing up in a technologically advanced environment where access to information and data is immediate. Career moves may be more concentrated in an individual’s earlier career stage, with Lyons et al. (2015) finding a longer stage of job mobility earlier for younger people. The fact that Lyons et al. (2015) found increased mobility, yet not a move towards multi-directional careers, suggests that young people are still wanting to progress rather than just expand their skills; reflecting a move towards an individualistic focus in career expectations.

Career orientations can represent an individual’s self-concept indicating what drives and gives direction to their career, i.e., their career orientation (Schein, 1978, 1993; Super, 1957). The career orientations, expectations and values of an individual are accumulated over their life and career experiences, guiding their career choice and decision-making, and being of central importance during work transitions (Johnson,

2002; Kuron et al., 2015). Work values would be expected to be conceptualised within this, as well as a person's perceived talents and abilities, motives and career-related needs (Lyons et al., 2012b). Such a perspective would therefore expect there to be a close link between work values and career orientations, expectations and patterns. Research studies have reported links between values and career behaviour choices (e.g., Greenhaus & Simon, 1977; Sosik, 2005), suggesting that values will play a part in an individual's career expectation. As of yet, there is no significant research investigating the direct relationship between career orientations and work values of young people as they transition into the workplace. It may be the case that, until young people find workplaces that satisfy their career orientations and work values, they will continue to be more physically mobile across their jobs, organisations and occupations (Lyons et al., 2012b). It has been suggested that changing labour market conditions may have led to a more reactive, 'free agent' approach to careers, where young people adopt a more self-directed, values-driven approach to their careers (Hall & Mirvis, 1996) that is more in line with their self-concept and personal career expectations. The next section of the literature review considers work values and career expectations in the context of the current study: during the transition of young people into the workplace.

2.5 Young People's Transition to the Workplace

2.5.1 Stability of Work Values, Expectations and Preferences

Work values are considered fairly stable in the majority of the research literature (Jin & Rounds, 2012), yet, it has been indicated that, although remaining fairly stable throughout young adulthood (Schwartz, 1992), work values are *not absolute* throughout the life course (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Johnson, 2001a; Lyons et al., 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Work values have a long-lasting effect and are durable; however, understanding of the life stages and age transitions of these phenomena is still unclear, and identifying the true change as young individuals enter organisations requires further longitudinal research. Research into the stability of work values can measure the rank-order stability (i.e., hierarchical feature of work values) or the mean-level change (i.e., normative change) over an individual's lifespan (Jin & Rounds, 2012). This needs to be taken into

account when assessing the findings of the few longitudinal studies on the stability of work values.

Lyons et al. (2010) propose that work values are stable over time, with a hierarchy as Rokeach (1973) originally suggested, yet the mechanisms behind work values development add insight to the stability of these and naturally align with understanding ageing processes. Value acquisition (Kandler et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2016) has been studied in order to understand the differences in how individuals develop, and live by, their values. Most researchers view values as internalised standards, yet there is still no definitive answer on this (Cemalcilar et al., 2018), with a genetic explanation in some studies (e.g., Kandler et al., 2016) and environmental explanations in others (e.g., Hitlin, 2006), which influences our understanding of the stability of work values over time. According to career development theory, work values arise during early adolescence (15 to 19 years) as expressions of general human values (Super, 1957), being tested and refined throughout this stage and early adulthood (20 to 24 years) (Porfeli, 2007), before becoming unified and relatively fixed during later adulthood as careers become more established (Jin & Rounds, 2012).

Longitudinal research allows the examination of rank-order stability of work values over life periods and generally suggests that work values are stable over time, with some fluctuation amongst adolescent years. Krahn and Galambos (2014) conducted a longitudinal study investigating the transition from education to work in people aged 18 to 25 years at two time points, finding work values to be fairly stable during this period. Work values become more stable as individuals become established in their life roles, and also their social networks are likely to consist of like-minded people who support, reinforce and sustain similar work values (Caspi & Herbener, 1990). A more recent longitudinal study by Lechner et al. (2017) over four years also found work values to also be fairly stable during this early career transition. However, Kuron et al. (2015) compared work values in pre-career and working young people. Their findings contradict those of Krahn and Galambos (2014) and Jin and Rounds (2012), suggesting that young people may be showing more relative stability in work values as they move from education to work.

Interestingly, Rokeach's (1973) early work on values suggests that values change in order to establish a positive self-concept; therefore, what you achieve in terms of work rewards will shape your values, allowing you to hold a positive viewpoint of yourself. On the other hand, if you value what you cannot achieve, you will lower your self-esteem, creating a negative self-concept or sense of identity (Erikson, 1959). From the existing research, it can be surmised that work values during full-time education influence career outcomes during and after the transition to the workplace. Chow et al. (2017) argue that there are cumulative effects in terms of this transition of work values from education years (i.e., adolescence) to working life (i.e., adulthood); this has been termed 'developmental cascades' by Masten et al. (2005). The concept of developmental cascades also implies that the development of work values has an effect not only on career outcomes, but also on non-career outcomes too, affecting wider self-concept and identity areas of one's life. Overall, Chow et al. (2017) found in their study that intrinsic work values play a significant part across life periods. They found that, from the age of 18, work values impact age 25 work values, which predict age 32 work values, suggesting that an individual follows their work values and eventually the rewards and satisfaction pay off through these adaptive outcomes (Chow et al. 2017). Bardi and Schwartz (2003) suggested that people would increase the importance of values they are able to attain and reduce the importance of those they cannot attain. This can also link back to career success measures, as discussed in Section 2.3.5., whereby assessing career outcomes based on objective or extrinsic measures would naturally align with higher extrinsic work values (e.g., salary, promotion), and vice versa for subjective or intrinsic career success measures and work values (e.g., interesting work, job/career satisfaction).

Rhodes (1983) found that work values, attitudes and satisfaction change as workers pass through their career stages, and Super's theory (1957) states that people will be more established and stable in later years, whereas earlier years are for discovering what they wish to do and proving themselves. With regard to these career stage models, it is possible that the rate of career change and mobility may not be constant over the career life, with young people in the earlier exploration stage likely to experience more fluctuations and more focus on career advancement (Super, 1957), hence why some studies suggest lower work value stability during individuals' early careers. In addition,

the time when an individual begins to take on family roles is likely to change their values, with a greater emphasis on extrinsic rewards such as pay, benefits and job stability to support their family, and with less concern over intrinsic rewards such as having interesting and challenging work (Jin & Rounds, 2012). It is important to consider these career stages and the associated self-concept and identity changes of young people, as well as age stability theory (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980), when exploring the stability and development of young people's work values.

2.5.2 Self-Concept and Identity of Young People

Individual values, beliefs and motivations are intrinsically linked to, and seen as a source of, one's meaning of work and their self-concept (Bono & Judge, 2003; Rosso et al., 2010). The self-concept is an important part of the psychological development and transition of individuals from adolescence to young adulthood, and can align with a person's work values and roles as they begin, and progress through, their career stages. Gaining employment has been found to be a positive step forward for one's self-concept, allowing it to develop and mature once leaving full-time education (Patton & Patricia, 1990). Definitions of the self-concept are often self-descriptive or self-evaluative (Wallace-Broschius et al., 1994), based on an individual's image of themselves, their abilities, values, aspirations, needs, interest, as well as their past history (Hall, 1996; Russo et al., 2021; Super, 1980). Feelings of authenticity are connected with the association between an individual's actual and ideal self in situations (Gan & Chen, 2017), and, when aligned, enhancing one's wellbeing (Sutton, 2020; Van den Bosch et al., 2019). Authenticity at work is defined as *"a subjectively experienced phenomenon that emerges when there is a strong congruence (or "fit") between a person and his/her work environment"* (Van den Bosch et al., 2019, p.247). Authenticity has been found to be fairly stable over time and situations (Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Wood et al., 2008), emerging from the congruence between an individual and their environment (Barrett-Lennard, 1998; Van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). Our actual self is being who we are, and our ideal self is the one that is based on our hopes and aspirations (Barrett-Lennard, 1998), suggesting that, similar to work values, the self-concept can adjust and change. Discrepancies between one's selves are linked to negative outcomes such as

dissatisfaction, low self-esteem and authenticity, leading to cognitive dissonance and psychological discomfort (Festinger, 1957; Gan & Chen, 2017; Higgins, 1987).

Traditional career stage models were originally developed to demonstrate maturation through employment and the development of the self-concept, and they demonstrate career transitions as fairly predictable events. Within these models, a career transition is defined as, “*the period during which an individual is either changing roles (taking on a different objective role) or changing orientation to a role already held (altering subjective state)*” (Louis, 1980a, p.330). Career stages are linked to an individual’s job, and their job-related attitude, which is often determined by the meeting of one’s needs and values. Developmental career theories, or career stage theories, provide a framework for the development and progression of a person’s career over their individual lifespan, being popular through the 1950s and 1960s and outlining the movement from one stage of development to another across one’s career (Sullivan & Crocitto, 2007). Key theorists in this area include Donald Super (1957, 1980), who made basic assumptions that career development is life long, continuous, and occurs through life stages and recognises the transitions people experience. In particular, Super’s lifespan theory (1957; 1980) emerged as a popular career development framework for an individual’s progression through their career, and is considered to be the most influential, with the self-concept at its core. The main premise is that humans are anything but static, and personal change is continuous. Super posited that every individual has potential (e.g. skills, talents) that they develop through different life roles, making them capable of a variety of tasks and numerous occupations. Super (1980) also states that work values are part of an individual’s self-concept and therefore individuals will select a career that is in line with their self-concept through their vocational choices.

Such theories are typically characterised by age or tenure-related stages towards establishing a stable self-concept: growth, exploration, establishment, through to maintenance and, finally, disengagement. However, there is often ambiguity in terms of career stages, their definitions and age boundaries for each stage. For the purpose of the current body of research, the focus is on the transition from adolescence to young adulthood, which is seen as a key developmental stage where work values, beliefs and

career expectations are formed as an individual moves to increased independence and employment. The transition from adolescence to adulthood is considered in Super's theory (1957, 1980), with the five major life stages summarised below in Figure 2.2.

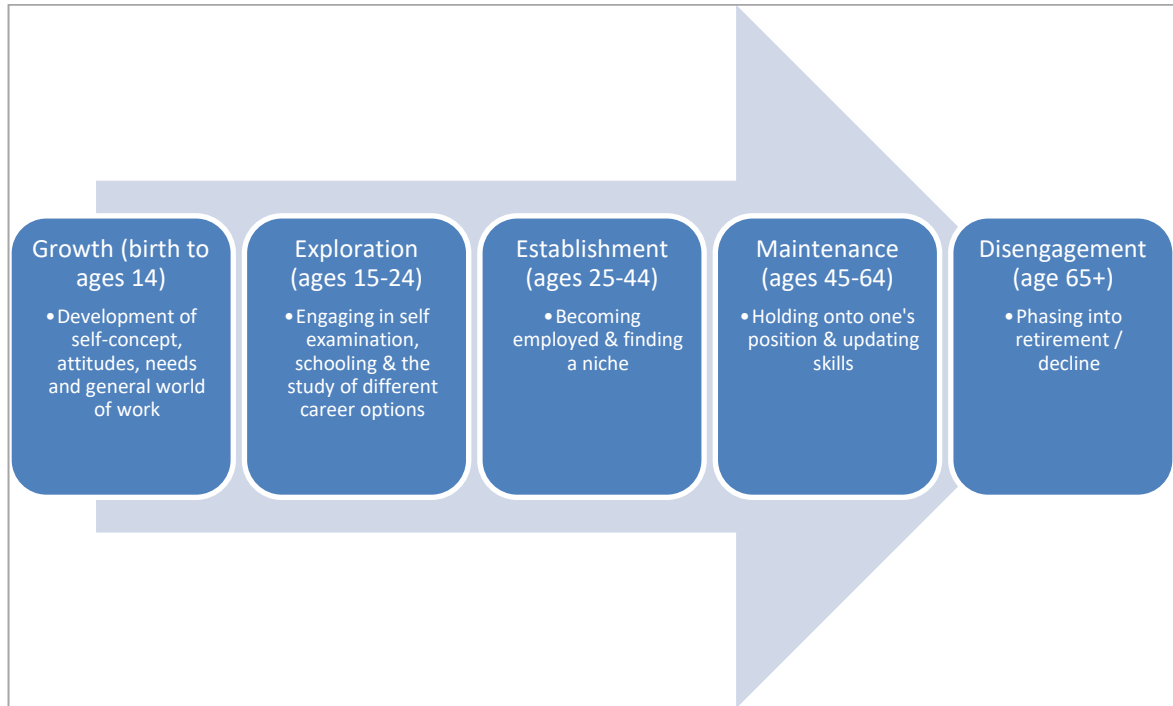


Figure 2.2: *Super's Lifespan Theory Model (1957, 1980)*

Super's theory supports the idea of implementing the self-concept through an individual's career as well as varying attitudes and behaviours across the career stages (e.g., Lynn et al., 1996; Ornstein et al., 1989). Super (1957) states that, in particular, the exploration and establishment stages are key for the development of an individual's self-concept, as they typically seek to transition upwards in their careers. This suggests that individuals transition through these career stages as they enter an organisation, experiencing new roles and developing their self-concept. Super's model (1957, 1980) suggests that the self-concept becomes more stable over time, yet this has been challenged and in particular it has been suggested that, as an individual's role continues to change, so does their self-concept (Ashforth, 2001).

The exploration stage is primarily the focus of this study: the transition of young individuals into the workplace and working life. Rhodes (1983) concluded that work values were generally consistent with a career stage view (e.g., Super, 1957), suggesting that career needs, work values and one's self-concept change with age and development, yet it is also recognised that the majority of studies reviewed used cross-sectional data, making it hard to identify true transitional effects (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Hackett et al., 1991). Nevertheless, in line with Super's (1957, 1980) career theory, the exploration and establishment stages are highly significant for developing and understanding one's self-concept. Cairns et al. (1990) not only found that self-concept became more positive during late adolescence, around ages 17 to 19 years, but also that the stability of situations did not have a significant effect, comparing staying within a stable education environment to transitioning from education to the workplace. The term 'recycling' has been used by Super to recognise when an individual's linear progression through the career stages can be interrupted, for example, when someone goes back to an earlier career stage (Super et al., 1988). This demonstrates recognition by Super (and other career stage theorists) that individuals will not always progress through these models in a linear manner. Reasons for 'recycling' through the career stages have been found to be due to organisational change, mergers, a personal crisis or one becoming plateaued from burnout or missing out on promotions (e.g., Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021; Sullivan et al., 2003). A review by Sullivan and Al Ariss (2021) identified a trend in the literature focusing on the career transitions occurring in later life (a period of 'career renewal'); however, the current study would argue that, with an influx of young people entering organisations, the younger years and earlier stages of such career stage models should not be neglected. A criticism of career stage models by Tomlinson et al. (2018) has stated they over-emphasise the individual agency of the person engaging in the career transitions, with little consideration of structural, societal and organisational factors, e.g., company policies and practices, legislation, labour markets, etc.).

It has been stated that self-concept is a form of self-expression, hence why work and social roles begin to align with this (Wallace-Broschius et al., 1994). As mentioned previously, a higher sense of entitlement has been identified within young people (e.g., Greenberger et al., 2008), and it appears that self-confidence is growing in the younger

generation. Psychologically entitled individuals have been found to hold more positive self-concepts, self-views and higher self-esteem (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). This in turn can create problems in having unrealistic expectations in work values; and these values can then lower over time to help protect one's self-concept, and with it, self-esteem (Johnson, 2001b). Entitled employees may feel confident, showing higher self-esteem, yet, if the skills and knowledge are not living up to their work role, this causes tension around this façade as those with high self-esteem see little room for improvement (Brouer et al., 2011; Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Laird et al., 2015). Although there is less empirical research exploring the transition to the workplace, compared to transitions through high-school to college (primarily US-based studies), overall young people's career expectations have been found to be increasingly unrealistic when reflecting on their self-views and future expectations (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Nevertheless, it must be considered that research around self-esteem is contradictory, with no significant increase found in younger people when a meta-analysis was conducted (e.g., Twenge & Campbell, 2001), and any differences found were typically amongst high school students (i.e., during adolescent years).

Identity formation has also been discussed in the context of the development of self-concept through further career stage models (e.g., Erikson, 1950, 1959; Levinson, 1978), and, with work being an important source of identity, work values will also link to the development of these concepts. An individual can hold many different types of workplace identities (Ashforth et al., 2008), including professional identities, career identities, team-worker identities, etc., linked to different motivations (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). An individual's identity represents their perception of who they are, at the individual level (Pratt & Foreman, 2000), and intra-unit identity conflict can occur when tension in one's values, beliefs, norms and expectations is identified (Horton et al., 2014). From an identity perspective, Levinson's career stage model (1978) provides a useful framework. This model focuses on the Early Adult Transition stage (18-22 years), when an individual moves from their comfort zone, and the Movement stage (23-28 years), when an individual starts to examine themselves and their self, whilst still having some dependency on superiors. In reality, based on the delayed entry to the workplace for young people (Arnett, 2000; Arnett et al., 2014; UN, 2019), this early transition stage

proposed by Levinson (1978) may be pushed back. Super's career stage model (1957, 1980) stage of exploration, when an individual is making job choices, exploring available options and searching for their identity, can be associated with early transition in Levinson's (1978) model and adolescence in Erikson's model (1950) (16-24 years). The establishment stage in Super's model (1957, 1980) can also align with Erikson's young adulthood stage (25-39 years), where an individual is focused on commitment and purpose in life (Chourasiya & Agrawal, 2019). Drawing on identity research, early studies found that addressing an identity crisis or conflict more successfully was linked to higher levels of career maturity (Munley, 1977; Savickas, 1985). Therefore, work experience and encountering work roles can allow unrealistic expectations to be understood, and adjustments can therefore be made, allowing a smoother transition to a more congruent self-concept and identity. Although the terms self-identity and self-concept have been used interchangeably, it seems that these distinct notions contribute uniquely to career development of adolescents and young adults transitioning to the workplace (Hidayat et al., 2020). Identity seems to be linked more to career maturity, and self-concept linked more to career exploration and planning (Wallace-Broschious et al., 1994).

Young people shape their self-perceptions and perceived self-concept through the basis of feedback from peers in their social roles and interactions (Stryker & Statham, 1985). Erikson's theory (1950) places much importance on the adolescent stages of life when individuals develop a secure self-identity, as well as the formation of social identity roles. Inter-unit identity involves values, beliefs, norms and expectations held by different individuals within a group identity (Horton et al., 2014), aligning with joining an organisational team.

Identity formation involves trying out different roles moving towards long-lasting decisions (Arnett, 2000); therefore, job satisfaction increases when a person's self-concept includes a view of the working self as being integrated with their other life roles, yet identity conflict can still take place at this group level. In making a vocational choice, an individual is expressing their understanding of their self-concept, with people playing different roles throughout their lives, including the role of the 'worker'. 'Possible selves' have been defined as the image of the future in terms of what is hoped for or feared (Cross

& Markus, 1991). Cross and Markus (1991) found that young people tend to recognise a larger number of possible selves, which may reflect their desire to try out their potential in different roles and/or domains. This supports the idea of the malleability of self-concepts and the adaptation and adjustment of self-concepts as young employees enter the workplace and are exposed to new situations. Extrinsic rewards or motivators typically presented by organisations, e.g., bonuses, benefits, may not be aligned with the internal values, needs and intrinsic motivators of the individual (Gagné & Deci, 2005). This mismatch will likely determine the change in decisions made by individuals with relation to their careers, with individuals striving to develop a coherent sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Importantly, Sullivan and Al Ariss' (2021) literature review on career stage models, from an identity perspective, found that career transitions can trigger identity changes and vice versa. One study in particular, by Pratt et al. (2006), found that, through an identity customisation process, employees shaped their identity to fit their work when there was a mismatch between who they were and what they did in their job.

Thus, just as work values stability has been questioned by research, so has the stability of self-concept and identity as an individual progresses through their career, and this is viewed as a significant aspect of self-development (Dalton, 1989). The self-concept has evolved in the literature as researchers describe it as "*a dynamic, multifaceted, and active structure*" (Baltes & Carstensen, 1991, p.256). In addition, understanding the complexities of work values and preferences in line with the self-concept can also be explored further at this transitional point. As the focus of the current research is on young people transitioning into the workplace, there will not be a major focus on the psychological development models of individuals, yet this understanding allows us to recognise the mechanisms behind socialisation processes in this context. Young people entering uncertain working environments face more instability in their values and needs as they are still developing their insights into their own personal beliefs, self-concept and qualities (Bosma & Kunnen, 2001), as well as their job role (Ng & Feldman, 2010).

From a practical point of view, understanding career stages can help organisations to develop career development and socialisation activities, in order to ensure an

individual's career aspirations are fulfilled and to avoid turnover (Agrawal & Chourasiya, 2015). Socialisation is the process of individuals adapting to their environment, be it the workplace and/or society (Polach, 2004; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous, 1992), encouraging the internalisation of appropriate values, expectations and norms of the cultural and social world. Socialisation into societies is believed to reach its influential peak during adolescence (Ballantine & Roberts, 2009); however, entering organisations and experiencing workplace socialisation is likely to follow and align itself within that transition to young adulthood, with some of the seminal career stage models supporting this. As discussed, entering an organisation can be experienced as stressful for young individuals, as there is novelty and uncertainty around the situation, as well as the workload and new application of skills and knowledge to a job role (Joshi et al., 2011). Interestingly, Arthur and Rousseau (1996) consider the meaning of 'transition' when discussing careers that is highly relevant for this current research; they state that 'transition' now means, "*the now prevailing cycles of change and adaptation, including stages of preparation, encounter, adjustment, stabilisation, and renewed preparation*" (p.33). This complex series of cycles requires the social psychological adjustment of young people as they transition into the workplace in order to learn to behave effectively in their surroundings; therefore, socialisation into an organisation is not just about adjusting an individual's personal self-concept, values and identity, it is also about adjusting their social identity. Socialisation into organisations is a longitudinal process examined over time, and, in the context of the current research, this is discussed further in the quantitative study (Chapter 5).

2.6 Theoretical Framework and Research Questions

2.6.1 Defining Theoretical Framework and Concepts

The background literature review outlined above examined the existing research and theories around the topics of this thesis: young people shifting from education to employment within organisations, and the effect of this on their work values, career expectations, self-concept and identity. The aim was to detail key theoretical concepts that are used in the research and, for clarity, these are summarised in this section.

Definition of Young People. This current study is limited to researching young people using the adolescence (15 to 19 years) and young adulthood (20 to 24 years) boundaries (Cadiz et al., 2015; Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015; Joshi et al., 2010, 2011; Pritchard & Whiting, 2014), with no generational categorisations or comparisons. These definitions are not overly limited or restrictive in the birth years range and give an indication of clear years in age when discussing young people (i.e., adolescence vs young adulthood). Although previous research has at times used slightly different age boundaries, the two groupings used in the current research – adolescence, young adulthood – can also map onto existing age boundary frameworks, showing parallels. This is useful to ensure the current study remains embedded in and relatable to existing research findings and studies.

Definition of Work Values Framework. Despite there being substantial work exploring and classifying the dimensions of work values for over 60 years, it is clear from the literature that there is still no universal acceptance or consensus on work values conceptualisation and measurement. Having such diverse views can be a limitation, and, as outlined in this chapter, there have been many different frameworks of both values and work values over the decades. Nevertheless, a majority use the four key dimensions framework (e.g., Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010; Schwartz, 1992) – intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige work values – and, given its robustness amidst this widespread use, I chose to use it for the current research. This perspective defines work values as underlying psychological criteria that guide personal preferences for certain outcomes and actions related to work, instead of a more abstract decision about the meaning of manifest behaviours (Dawis, 1991; Dose, 1997).

This theoretical framework of work values is adopted throughout the wider body of research for both the qualitative and quantitative studies, being considered for data collection (interviews and surveys), analysis (thematic and statistical) and discussion of findings. The specifics of how the four-factor work values framework directed data collection in each study are outlined in the specific empirical chapters.

Stability of Work Values. The literature on the stability of work values is particularly inconsistent, not only with different theoretical models being used to frame

the research and work values themselves, but also varying findings emerge around the fluctuations of work values during the education to work transition for young people. The age stability hypothesis (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980) perspective is adopted for the research, using this seminal theory to propose that young people encounter less stability in their work values as they transition into organisations and go through change. It is recognised that this is a dated theory; however, it is believed that it is still a strong and relevant one. Updated research on the stability of work values, socialisation and adjustment aspects is discussed and explored further later in this thesis, where there is an extension to the literature review discussing research on stability, adjustment and work values fit (see Chapter 5). In particular, the later quantitative study focuses specifically on gathering data from young people *prior to entry* and *after entry* into organisations, to help overcome the cross-sectional research limitations existing in the current research body, where few studies really pinpoint this specific transitional period. The review of the existing body of research helped to propose the longitudinal survey design with three data collection points. Although the qualitative study discusses this entry point retrospectively, the quantitative study spotlights this significant transitional time point that is of interest to the current research.

During adolescent years, as individuals become exposed to new experiences and/or information, often moving away from full-time education to employment, different patterns of change may emerge for different types of work values, expectations and preferences. Drawing on the age stability hypothesis (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980), change is more likely in younger people as they have more capacity for change and are increasingly malleable. Once individuals have established their work values, preferences and beliefs, they are much more likely to resist change based on exposure to new experiences (Glenn, 1980). It has also been suggested that value change is effortful and automatic (Bardi & Goodwin, 2011). This suggests that work values, career expectations and working preferences are likely to fluctuate whilst that individual is experiencing new encounters and new roles, in particular as they enter the workplace from high school or higher education (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Krahn & Galambos, 2014). Jin and Rounds (2012) conducted a meta-analysis of longitudinal work value studies, concluding that work values are fairly stable *except* during the education to work transition (18 to 22 years).

This further suggests a more dynamic transition from adolescence (15 to 19 years) to young adulthood (20 to 24 years) in terms of work value stability. Johnson (2001b) conducted a longitudinal panel study and found that there is instability in work values during the transition from education to entering work roles in organisations, with evidence of a socialisation process being linked to job rewards, work experience and educational attainment. Johnson (2002) suggests some growing realism with age, whereby work values adjust as young people come to terms with their situation and often unmet career expectations and work values.

Changing Careers. The current research and data collection is all taking place against the backdrop of an ever-changing career context for these young adults, who are leaving the familiar settings of full-time education and beginning their careers. This life period is defined as a turbulent time which takes place whilst the values and self-concepts of young people are developing and evolving (Arnett, 2000; Johnson et al., 2012; McMullin & Marshall, 2010). It is clear that times are changing, and traditional, linear careers based on an organisational system of clear, hierarchical structures are reducing as young people experience increasingly dynamic careers (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011).

New forms of career models are emerging, as discussed within the literature review (e.g., the boundaryless career, the protean career, kaleidoscope career model) that are being adopted by young adults entering organisations (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, 2001; Hall, 1996; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Career stages and models have been highly influential, yet there has been a great deal of change to career approaches (e.g., fewer 'job for life', protean and boundaryless careers), as well as the functioning of organisations (globalisation, technology and virtual working), leaving these models to be viewed as outdated. These new career approaches create a shift away from vertical progression within organisations characterising traditional stable careers, and give precedence to individualistic, self-directed, flexible and fluid styles of career management. This literature review has identified and discussed the different career patterns that young adults are undertaking due to various societal, economic and technological changes. The study explored aspects around young people's views of career expectations in relation to their early careers, as well as their work values. Although limited, there is some research

evidence suggesting direct associations between work values and career concepts (e.g., Abessolo et al., 2017; Wohrmann et al., 2016), and this is explored more initially in the qualitative study.

Career Stage Models. Career stage models have been reviewed in the literature review, which identified the importance of self-concept and identity when young adults are establishing their work values as they enter organisational roles. Early career researchers have even argued that work values are a part of one's self-concept (e.g., Super, 1980), so therefore such changes will also be considered when analysing data, particularly from the qualitative study, to explore the complexities of associations between work values, self-concept and identity during the career exploration and planning stages of young people entering the workplace (Super, 1957, 1980). Reflecting on the timings of transition to the workplace, the research does not generally distinguish between level of educational attainment prior to entering the workplace, e.g., school leavers or university graduates. There is limited research exploring this in the literature, yet it is suggested that higher importance placed on intrinsic and social values and job rewards increases educational attainment (Johnson, 2001b), thereby delaying the transition to a later stage of an individual's life. The current research therefore accepts that young people, whether school leavers (typically aged 18 years) or university graduates (typically 21+ years), will all transition into the workplace from education at some point, thus there is no distinction made here in the scope of the research.

The literature review helped to detect key variables considered in the first stage of the research and data collection when exploring and understanding work values of young people as they enter the workplace. The theoretical frameworks, and the scope of the study in terms of definitions and concepts (e.g., 'young people', work values) have been clarified to develop study research questions, which are presented in the next section.

2.6.2 Research Questions

The above section outlines how the literature review has established the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for this body of research, leading to the development of the following research questions. It is clear from the literature review

that, although the topics of young people entering the workplace, work values and careers are all highly researched areas, there are still not only contradictory findings but also gaps around the entry to work stage of the transition.

Overall, therefore, this research examined young people's work values as they are socialised into organisations and the psychological factors affecting them. To effectively answer this question, I broke it down into three smaller research questions.

RQ1. *What* are the work values, work preferences and career expectations of young people?

RQ2. *How* are work values developed as a young person enters the workplace and how are they affected by the transition to work?

RQ3. *Why* do young people's work values change (or not) as they are socialised into an organisation?

To address these research questions, I conducted two complementary studies which address different, but overlapping, objectives. The first was a qualitative interview study which adopted an exploratory approach to understanding young people's work values and their approach to work and working as they underwent the transition into work. The specific objectives for this study were to:

1. Identify the subjective perceptions of work values of young people during the transition to work (in terms of conceptual structure) (RQ1);
2. Identify the preferences for working and career requirements more broadly of young people during the transition to work (RQ2); and
3. Explore how these are formed and changed during the transition to work (RQ2, RQ3).

In discussing these issues retrospectively (that is, with participants who are at the end of their transition), the research provides insight not only into the sensemaking of young people after they have gone through this experience, but also into the rich data around how they believe their work values are formed and changed during this period.

Furthermore, by understanding the perceptions and career expectations of young people, I am able to contribute practical knowledge to employers who wish to support their young employees. Finally, the qualitative study allowed me to identify the key issues around which I developed hypotheses for the second study.

The second study was quantitative and aimed at understanding the factors affecting the stability (or lack thereof) of young people's work values as they are socialised into organisations. To capture this, I conducted a longitudinal study across three different stages of entry – prior to starting work but after obtaining the job, during the first few weeks of induction, and approximately six months after starting. This design allowed me to address the following objectives:

1. How stable are a young person's work values as they enter the organisation and transition to work (RQ2);
2. What factors (i.e., moderators) disrupt this stability and change a young person's work values (RQ3).

This second study allowed me to test hypotheses (developed from the key issues identified in study one) regarding the stability of young people's work values. The longitudinal nature of this study allowed me to hone in and focus on the transition to work without the influence of prospective or retrospective biases. Such an understanding of changes over time complemented the results of the sensemaking uncovered in the qualitative study. This mixed methods approach allowed more understanding on work values, their stability during the socialisation process, changing careers, and associated concepts and theories, all from the viewpoint of young people.

2.6.3 Literature Review Conclusions

To summarise, the way we define 'young people' has been considered and generational perspectives found to be flawed. It is clear from the literature review that work values shape an individual's priorities and desires for aspects of work, thereby enhancing effort in a certain direction and influencing behaviour choice (e.g., Judge & Bretz, 1992; Sosik, 2005). Although the research thus far appears to indicate that young

people value flexibility, leisure time, extrinsic aspects of work (e.g., pay), and prestige, there is contradictory evidence across contexts and research methods. Moreover, the transition to work is a time of flux and transformation for these individuals, potentially changing their work values and self-concepts. Thus, we need to explore these changes, especially through the lens of the transition of individuals as they move into organisations, job roles and their working life.

Chapter 3 - Mixed Methods Approach

3.1 Epistemological and Ontological Position

As noted earlier, the overall aim of this research was to examine young people's work values as they are socialised into organisations and the psychological factors affecting them. A mixed methods research design was therefore used, integrating qualitative (Chapter 4) and quantitative (Chapter 5) approaches to gathering and analysing data on the topic of young people socialising as they transition into the workplace. Such an approach was adopted in order to address the aims and research questions that have both a subjective and objective focus (Creswell, 2003; Gibson, 2017), i.e., the perceptions and opinions of young people on their transition exploring work values and career expectations, as well as the measures of their work values at three distinct time points when entering a working role. Considering the ontology and epistemology behind this mixed methods design, a critical realism philosophical perspective was adopted when undertaking the research and this is explained in this section.

Traditionally, positivism underlies quantitative research, whilst a constructivist approach underlies qualitative research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998); however, the current studies combined both approaches in order to ensure a full perspective of young people as they transition into the workplace. A qualitative interview-based study allowed insight into the perceptions, opinions and thoughts of young people entering workplaces, whilst the quantitative longitudinal survey study allowed for the collection and analysis of more objective data to assess the study variables (i.e., work values) in more detail over time. Although 'purist' researchers, i.e., those who restrict themselves exclusively to research methods focused on either quantitative or qualitative techniques, believe such approaches to be incompatible (Onwuegbuzie 2002; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), it would be counterproductive to neglect the benefits of combining both approaches; therefore, it is essential for researchers in the field of social sciences to recognise that epistemology and method are *not* synonymous (Howe, 1988, 1992).

Although the '*incompatibility thesis*' has been proposed by researchers, it has also been stated that quantitative and qualitative approaches to research are *not* mutually exclusive; rather, a shared philosophy and method can occur, allowing each perspective to inform the other (Howe, 1988, 1992). The current research stance believes there is a need to avoid mono-methods and a purist approach when exploring experiential and objective perspectives on psychological concepts such as work values and career-related concepts during a unique transitional stage in an individual's life, which would not only threaten the advancement of such vital work by social scientists, but also inhibit interdisciplinary research (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Exploring the transition to the workplace, including the subjective understanding of young people's working preferences, work values and career expectations, through interviews alone could be viewed as incomplete, whereas adopting a solely objective survey approach to understanding such personal concepts could be viewed as weak and indefensible (Howe, 1988).

Objectivity and truth can be achieved in social science, as compared to natural science, and the critical realism view can help to determine proper methods of investigation of such social processes, appreciating the flux and transformation associated with the transition to the workplace, with an objective knowledge of society, in terms of examining the stability of key study variables. This is achieved through the recognition of the importance of both the external world (e.g., use of psychometrics to measure work values at three different time points) and the independent knowledge that we can gain from it (e.g., retrospective conversations around entering the workplace), supporting both the scientific experiment and the social and conceptual aspects of science (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). This critical realism perspective allows the current study to overcome the problem of objectively measuring the external world and identifying individual agency (social ontology) when exploring the transition and socialisation of young people into the workplace. Adopting a critical realism approach, the compatibility of the epistemological approach to this study not only shapes the research methods, it also allows compatibility in how work values and career concepts are examined, interpreted and understood from both qualitative and quantitative evaluations during the transition young people experience as they enter the workplace (Howe, 1988, 1992).

3.2 Critical Realism

The current research adopted a critical realism approach to understanding the transitional stage of young people into the workplace, in particular, work values, their stability on entry into an organisation, as well as moderating variables (see Chapter 5); this allows a ‘*conscious compromise*’ between the competing views of purist positivism and interpretivism (Burke Johnson et al., 2007; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Critical realism has been termed the ‘third way’ (Brown & Roberts, 2014) in addressing ontological and epistemological issues and recognises the concepts, discourses and events of the social realm, as well as the reality of existence of the natural world (Sayer, 1992, 2000; Wikgren, 2005). Its fundamental notion is ‘mind independence’, i.e., there is an external reality independent of, and resistant to, human activity; yet this is a ‘thing in itself’ which remains unknowable (Gill & Johnson, 2010). This allows the recognition of the experience young people go through as they transition from full-time education into a working role and organisations, whilst appreciating the objective nature of measuring psychological concepts at play here such as work values. This position is labelled by Bhaskar (1975, 1979) as *transcendental realism*, assuming that “*the ultimate objects of scientific inquiry exist and act (for the most part) quite independently of scientists and their activity*” (1989, p.12).

Critical realism aims to use a changing transitive dimension, in this case the movement to a new life context or stage, to understand the intransitive unchanging world, e.g. psychological variables measured quantitatively. The key problem here with positivism is that people evolve and change through their lives and careers, e.g., career stage models (Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Levinson, 1978; Super, 1957, 1980); therefore, the future will be different from the past as young people transition to the workplace (Benton & Craib, 2011). Critical realism and interpretivist perspectives reject the view that individuals will stay the same and remain stable, which inevitably creates a challenge for the positivist view in that the empirical observation of concepts such as working preferences, work values and career expectations is not stable and cannot be generalised. There are phenomena in the workplace that positivism would state were ‘meaningless’ as they could not be empirically observed, e.g., self-efficacy, job satisfaction etc., as these

concepts are viewed as very individualistic activities. In the discipline of psychology, the use of psychometrics has been influenced by positivism and can be seen as a method of ‘coding’ individual abilities, preferences and personalities using objective ratings and scales. Although this is seen as an example of a positivist approach in the field, it has been suggested that subjective decisions are made during the instrument development when selecting items, thereby questioning its overall objectivity (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002). The current study included the use of psychometric measures for the longitudinal survey presented in study two (Chapter 5) and recognises the beneficial use of these to understand these variables in the context of a transitional life stage, i.e., the movement to the workplace.

From an interpretivist perspective, in comparison to relativist and idealist theories, critical realism enables a ‘fallibilist’ stance in the distinction between thoughts, words and reality, and the use of experiments, to judge between competing theories (Benton & Craib, 2011). Social structures tend to be more interdependent than natural structures within critical realism. For example, in the employment system, there is the concept of the psychological contract and socialisation; without this, such a system would not exist. Social structures cannot be isolated from one another; they come together in a system and this is recognised in the current study, particularly when analysing and interpreting the rich and descriptive qualitative interview findings to identify patterns and emerging themes.

3.3 Practical Rationale for a Mixed Methods Approach

Methodological pluralism, through the adoption of critical realism, enabled the current research programme to use different techniques, encompassing quantitative and qualitative approaches to access different facets of the same social phenomenon (Brown & Roberts, 2014; Carter & New, 2003; Danermark, 2002; Sayer, 2000). Greene et al. (1989; Greene, 2008) identified five justifications in support of a mixed methods approach, as outlined below and taken into account when designing the current research:

1. Triangulation – Using different methods (i.e., qualitative and quantitative), researchers can corroborate data on the same phenomena, improving

validity of, and confidence in, the findings. This approach can help to overcome any weaknesses and limitations of different methods (Molina-Azorin et al., 2017).

2. Complementary – Again, improving the validity of findings, using complementary research methods can help to develop and illustrate the importance and understanding of phenomena, yet approaching the topic from different contexts and viewpoints (e.g., experiential view of transitioning to the workplace, as well as the work values stability perspective).
3. Development – Adopting a sequential approach in mixed methods studies, as in the current study, aligns the findings and understanding from one method to the next method. In the case of the current study, a qualitative approach gathered insight into the transitional experience of young people, as well as their work value perceptions, in order to develop the quantitative study, which focused more specifically on the stability of work values at three time points around entry to organisations.
4. Initiation – A mixed methods research approach allows the emergence of new paradigms and perspectives that can reframe research questions and/or findings from the study by taking on the different viewpoints to the issue being explored, e.g., conceptual models of work values.
5. Expansion – Researchers can utilise a method for obtaining particular types of data, allowing both flexibility and growth in the breadth of enquiry relating to different elements of the research aims and questions, i.e., subjective *and* objective perspectives of research concepts, variables and phenomena.

These justifications for combining qualitative and quantitative research approaches have been influential in the literature, helping to guide and shape mixed methods studies (Bryman, 2006; Niglas, 2009). Gibson (2017) analysed 69 mixed

methods articles and identified primary approaches to mixed methods research, supporting the strengths identified by Greene et al. (1989; Greene, 2008) for mixed methods research (i.e., enhanced capacity for elaboration, generalisation, triangulation, and interpretation). The current study adopted a qualitative analysis of experience followed by quantitative modelling of relationships approach (Gibson, 2017), emphasising the sequencing of methods. The benefits of using this approach in mixed methods research allow researchers to “*check their interpretation of qualitative data, and to strengthen their confidence in qualitatively based conclusions when the two types of data converge*” (Edmondson & McManus, 2007, p.1166). The variables being measured throughout the current study focused on the work values of young people, ensuring consistency amongst the elements of the two pieces of research (i.e., study one and study two); ensuring this ‘fit’ enables improved rigour and impact of the research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Gibson, 2017; Molina-Azorin et al., 2017). The current research design was also based on a mixed methods/single source project, with quantitative and qualitative methods utilised, yet with data from one source, i.e., a sample of young people, only.

Using a qualitative approach allowed for the collection of meaningful data around the study topic, and researchers have proposed that a qualitative method of analysis *is compatible* with a realist epistemology (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012). This critical realism stance allows methods of investigation of social processes to be integrated with an objective knowledge of society (Brown & Roberts, 2014; Bryman, 2006), enhancing openness to the unanticipated, as well as openness to the perspectives during interpretation of the findings (Gibson et al., 2012). This is particularly important for this research, exploring a transitional experience of a group of individuals who are likely to have unique encounters, feelings and perceptions, whilst also recognising the importance of defined conceptual frameworks (e.g., work values) and psychometrics to allow comparisons and generalisations. With an ontological and epistemological basis in critical realism, a combination of qualitative methods (interviews) and quantitative methods (survey) have been employed in order to identify patterns in work values and related variables as young people enter organisations.

3.4 The Study of Work Values

The specific study of work values of young people transitioning into the workplace can benefit from the application of non-positivist ontological paradigms (Foster, 2013; Urick, 2012). Although work values are objectively measured through the survey, qualitative aspects of the research help to provide a richer picture and understand the true relationships between work values and career expectations and add understanding to the self-concept. This addresses the challenges faced by measuring values and attitudes with psychometric instruments (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002).

The approach adopted in this body of research implemented a sequential design (Creswell, 2003), with the initial qualitative study conducted to gather rich and meaningful data on the experiences of young people entering the workplace; this is then used to inform the next stage of the research programme, a longitudinal quantitative survey study. This qualitative perspective from young people added understanding about the work environment and introduced the inclusion and consideration of organisational work values in the process of being socialised and adjusting to new organisations (see Chapter 5 for more on the developing theoretical framework based on study one). Quantitative study two provided objective numerical survey data to examine the stability and mediation effects of the work values of young people across three key time points upon entry to organisations. Furthermore, this statistical approach helped to investigate the moderating effects of key individual and environment variables identified through study one. It should also be noted that this current programme of research adopted two perspectives on the study topic around work values: intra-individual change (i.e., unique experiences through the qualitative interview study data) and normative change (i.e., group trends through the quantitative survey study data).

Together, these two studies are complementary, allowing triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative methods, as well as the development and expansion of understanding about the concepts being investigated, and, finally, the initiation and application of new paradigms in understanding the dynamic psychological processes and mechanisms at play during this transitional period for young people (Gibson et al., 2012;

Greene et al., 1989; Greene, 2008). Adopting an ontological and epistemological basis in critical realism, with a combination of qualitative-quantitative methods employed, recognises the existence of an independent world and social realm and the subsequent interacting relationship between individuals and their organisational environment during this crucial period of change and transition.

Chapter 4 - Qualitative Study One

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the qualitative component of the wider mixed methods research programme is presented. This chapter details the qualitative methodology and data that examined the work and career values and expectations of young trainees (i.e., interns, apprentices, graduates) entering the workplace. Such information allows greater understanding about the apparent contradictions within the current literature around the work values and career expectations of young individuals, specifically those entering multinational companies in the UK. Understanding the subjective experience young people go through when entering the workplace, can explain and understand perceptions of work and careers, as well the implications for other work-related outcomes, e.g., organisational commitment, job satisfaction.

The current study aimed to gather data on meaning, views and experiences of young people during the transition from full-time education, to the world of work. Sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2 detail the full rationale for the research questions based on the literature review; however, in summary the ones covered in this study are: 1) *What* are the work values, work preferences and career expectations of young people?; and 2) *How* are work values developed as a young person enters the workplace and how are they affected by socialisation processes? The more specific objectives of the research are to: 1) Identify the subjective perceptions of work values of young people during the transition to work (in terms of conceptual structure); 2) Identify the preferences for working and career requirements more broadly of young people during the transition to work; and 3) Explore how work values, preferences and career expectations are formed and changed during the transition to work. Thirty-eight semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were conducted face-to-face or via the telephone with young people on training programmes who had recently entered the workplace (i.e., interns, apprentices, graduates). A number of themes and sub-themes on the perceptions, opinions and attitudes around work and careers of individuals interviewed are outlined and discussed

in light of theory and research. Limitations of the study and justifications for the next stage of the research (i.e., quantitative study) are discussed.

4.2 Qualitative Research Design

In this current study, an inductive qualitative methodology was employed in order to identify and explore perceptions, attitudes and opinions of young individuals entering the workplace on professional training programmes. Inductive research begins with specific observations and measures to detect patterns and formulate hypotheses that can be explored, as well as generate conclusions in the area (Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Gioia et al., 2013). The current inductive qualitative inquiry allowed understanding around human and social problems (Creswell, 1998; Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018), observing and interpreting data to build up theory; therefore, an inductive qualitative approach was the most appropriate method for exploring the transition of young people into the workplace.

Qualitative research is the *“development of concepts which help us to understand social phenomena in natural (rather than experimental) settings, giving due emphasis to the meanings, experiences and views of the participants”* (Pope & Mays, 1995, p.43). The central focus of much, but not all, qualitative research is to generate meaning and make sense of the world from the participant’s perspective, understanding their experiences. Qualitative research is appropriate when the research questions are exploratory (Creswell, 2014), providing an understanding of different individuals’ beliefs and the realities as perceived by each individual. The main aim of the current study was to understand ‘what it is like’ to experience a particular event, i.e., the transition into the world of work. The current qualitative research, therefore, is not concerned with cause-effect variables but with a person’s experiences of transitioning into organisations (Smith, 2003); being about interpreting what a piece of text (i.e., interview wording/transcripts) means rather than finding its numerical properties. So, rather than trying to test pre-conceived hypotheses on a large sample, this qualitative research understands a relatively small number of participants’ own frames of reference or view of the world. As in line with the critical realism mixed methods approach outlined in the previous chapter, a

quantitative piece of work is adopted and presented later to complement this current research.

For the current topic on work values and career expectations during the transition to the world of work, this is important in order to take full account of the complexity of attitudes and behaviours. This qualitative approach helps to explore contradictory, and limited, findings in the field focusing on those individuals categorised as ‘young people’ as they enter the workplace (Costanza et al., 2012; Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Twenge, 2010), in order to develop hypotheses from the data for further investigation. The idiosyncratic data collection in this study could not be approached effectively through a quantitative design due to the in-depth nature of these experiences of entering the workplace.

Data were gathered from individuals who were between 19 and 24 years in age and a further five participants who were aged between 25 and 31. The definitions and classifications of young people in the literature are discussed in more detail to set the context for the programme of research in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.2). The literature broadly defines age groups or ranges of ‘young people’, with most using approximate age categories. With limitations identified around the use of generational categories in research (see Chapter 2), approximate age ranges for young adulthood have been used to provide some guidance around the definitions of ‘young people’ in the current study. The ages from approximately 20 to 24 years have been provided as guidance for the young adulthood stage (e.g., Loughlin & Barling, 2001; Rindfuss, 1991), with the current study focused on transitions taking place around this stage as young people move from education to employment. This provided some guidance for sampling the targeted population in the study when there is a great deal of ambiguity in the research literature. The sampling process and recruitment of participants, as well as sample demographics, are outlined below in the next section.

Semi-structured interviews are an effective, efficient and practical method to extract rich, meaningful data about individuals’ thoughts, feelings, opinions and experiences, fitting well with discussing personal views such as work values and career expectations and preferences in the workplace (Coolican, 2017; Creswell, 2014).

Qualitative interviews within organisational research have been described as highly reliable in researching organisations (Alvesson & Ashcraft, 2009). Meanings behind actions can be discussed with the individual and the semi-structured nature of the interview, e.g., perceptions, opinions, enables flexibility in the discussion. This also allows high authenticity as respondents are given the opportunity to talk in depth and in detail genuinely about topics, i.e., in a truthful way (Caelli et al., 2003).

The intent of this chapter is to detail the qualitative study methodology and analysis, and explain and discuss findings to address the research questions that have guided this study (see Chapter 2).

4.3 Qualitative Methodology

The below section outlines the research methodology and procedure for this qualitative study. Participants, sampling, interview procedure, measures, ethical considerations, reliability and validity, and data analysis process are all detailed below.

4.3.1 Participants and Sampling

The participants in this study consisted of 38 young trainees of three different multinational organisations with offices based in the UK. Participants were recruited based on recently entering the workplace on a professional training course, prior to being in a permanent role within the organisation, e.g., internship, placement, apprenticeship, or graduate scheme.

Snowball sampling, a non-random form of purposive sampling (Coolican, 2017), was utilised in the current study where a small number of members of an organisation were selected who met the criteria for inclusion in the study. Such purposive sampling techniques are primarily used in qualitative studies and may be defined as “*selecting units (e.g., individuals, groups of individuals, institutions) based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study’s questions*” (Teddlie & Yu, 2007, p.77). Snowball sampling was applied as those who volunteered for interviews were then asked to provide names of further individuals known to them who might also meet the criteria. Although snowball sampling has been viewed as haphazard and unsystematic (Reed et

al., 1996), sampling is typically much more selective, flexible and purposive within qualitative research, as opposed to the random sampling common in quantitative research (Coolican, 2017; Teddlie & Yu, 2007), thereby serving its purpose. Furthermore, it is recognised that the three multinational organisations involved in this study do not fully represent the labour market. An element of convenience sampling was adopted to enable access to organisations with recently recruited ‘young people’ in training roles. Thus, the sampling was not meant to be representative of all young trainees, with the qualitative exploratory study more concerned with depth of knowledge (Coyne, 1997). This is recognised as a limitation of the qualitative study.

Participants were recruited through engagement with three large multinational organisations via existing research networks. These three organisations were interested in understanding the needs and requirements of their younger trainees, in order to retain them. Once all the research details (i.e., purpose, data collection) were confirmed, approval was granted by each of the three organisations and non-disclosure agreements (NDAs) were put in place and signed by the company and the researcher. These NDAs confirmed that the confidential information collected would solely be used for the purpose of conducting the research project and not for any other purpose or for further research without further consent of the organisation, and all information would be treated in the strictest confidence by the researcher (see Appendix A). Key contacts in the organisation were identified and it was these individuals who requested volunteers for the interviews and provided contact details of willing interviewees. All organisations and participants were given coded identifications throughout data collection and analysis to ensure confidentiality.

The researcher attended research meetings and seminars around the topic of retaining and understanding young people in the workplace, as well as welcome events for new trainees (across different intern, apprentice and graduate roles) in order to promote the study. In situations where the researcher could not attend events, information was presented by the employer to the trainees (e.g., slides, video). This allowed potential participants to hear about the aims and data collection of the research study, as well as what would be required of participants (i.e., to take part in a semi-structured interview).

Individuals could then decide if they wished to volunteer for participation in the study. Once willing participants' email addresses were gathered, they were contacted individually by the researcher to arrange a suitable interview date and time.

A total of 38 participants took part in the semi-structured interviews. Assuming it is an homogenous sample, this number of interviewees allows a saturation point to be reached to allow interpretation and understanding of young people entering the workplace, i.e., where no more value can be added past a given point in terms of sample size (Fusch & Ness, 2015; O'Reilly & Parker, 2013; Saunders et al, 2018). The participants chosen for interview fit the inclusion criteria of young trainees who had recently entered the organisation, enabling the research purposes to be met by exploring their perspectives, viewpoints and opinions on such transitions into an organisation. From this perspective, therefore, although the sample includes apprentices, interns and graduates, it is viewed as homogenous because all participants are transitioning to work. Guest et al. (2006) suggest that data saturation usually occurs within the first six to 12 interviews in research; however Saunders and Townsend (2016), when reviewing interview participant numbers in organisational research, found a norm of between approximately 15 and 60 participants. Data saturation is therefore discussed further below when considering sub-groups based on interviewee demographics.

The sample was split across the three organisations, with the number of interviewees all being close to 12 or above, allowing information to be gathered from major industries in the UK: retail (n=13), finance (n=11) and engineering (n=14). All three of these organisations contribute to the UK economy and have trainee intakes of between 30 and 80 per year (i.e., interns, placement students, apprentices, graduates), meaning an estimated sampling rate of between 15% and 40% within the organisations. The organisations are all medium to large with varying sizes in terms of number of employees: retail (80,787), financial (235,217), engineering (3,600).

Table 4.1 displays the sample demographics. Participant age ranges from 19 to 31, including a mix of both school leavers and university leavers who have all transitioned to work roles. Of the 38 interviewees, 33 were aged between 19 and 24 years old, and five were aged 25 to 31 years old, with four of these being aged 29 to 31. Although this

study is focused on the transition of young people into the workplace between adolescence (15-19 years) and young adulthood (20-24 years) (Loughlin & Barling, 2001; Strauss & Howes, 1991), these few slightly older interviewees were still experiencing the transition to the workplace that young people experience, through either taking a number of years as a career break following university, and/or they had very recently completed their graduate programme, moving into a more permanent role (i.e., they were in full-time education longer). These individuals would still be experiencing turbulent transitions and demands in their careers, typical of the period between these life stages and moving towards increased independence in their lives (Roberts et al., 2003a). The majority of the sample fell within the young adulthood range (20 to 24 years); however, it was felt that incorporating the slightly older participants would provide an interesting comparison on the transition into working life and job roles.

Table 4.1: *Demographics of the Study Sample (in Chronological Order of Interview)*

	<u>Age</u>	<u>Organisation</u>	<u>Training Programme</u>	<u>Gender</u>
1	30	Retail	Employed	Male
2	24	Retail	Graduate Programme	Female
3	24	Retail	Graduate Programme	Female
4	31	Retail	Graduate Programme	Male
5	23	Retail	Graduate Programme	Female
6	19	Retail	Apprenticeship	Female
7	24	Retail	Graduate Programme	Male
8	20	Retail	Apprenticeship	Female
9	24	Retail	Graduate Programme	Male
10	24	Retail	Graduate Programme	Female
11	19	Retail	Apprenticeship	Female
12	29	Retail	Employed	Female
13	19	Engineering	Apprenticeship	Female
14	30	Retail	Employed	Female
15	23	Engineering	Graduate Programme	Male
16	22	Finance	Graduate Programme	Male

17	25	Finance	Graduate Programme	Female
18	22	Finance	Graduate Programme	Male
19	24	Finance	Graduate Programme	Male
20	22	Finance	Graduate Programme	Male
21	24	Finance	Graduate Programme	Male
22	23	Finance	Graduate Programme	Male
23	23	Engineering	Graduate Programme	Male
24	20	Engineering	Apprenticeship	Male
25	22	Engineering	Placement Student	Male
26	20	Engineering	Placement Student	Female
27	21	Engineering	Placement Student	Female
28	23	Engineering	Graduate Programme	Male
29	20	Engineering	Placement Student	Male
30	20	Engineering	Apprenticeship	Male
31	22	Engineering	Graduate Programme	Male
32	21	Engineering	Apprenticeship	Male
33	19	Engineering	Apprenticeship	Male
34	24	Finance	Graduate Programme	Female
35	22	Finance	Graduate Programme	Female
36	24	Finance	Graduate Programme	Female
37	22	Finance	Graduate Programme	Male
38	24	Engineering	Placement Student	Male

Most of the sample were on professional training programmes; however, three had recently moved into full employment from their graduate training programme. Participants were split across departments, with the following represented: Marketing (n=7), Engineering (n=7), Human Resources (n=6), Retail/Corporate Banking (n=6), Sales (n=5), Commercial Finance (n=4), Management (n=3), and Quality (n=1). The tenure of participants was typically less than two years with the majority in their first year in the organisation. There were more males (n=22) in the sample than females (n=16) but this varied across industries, with more females in the retail organisation and more males

in the engineering and financial organisations. The majority of the sample were British (n=35), with three participants being from other countries in Europe. Nationality and place of education were not taken into account in the research questions and no significant differences were found in the data.

A majority of the sample were undertaking a graduate scheme training programme (n=22), whilst fewer were undertaking apprenticeships (n=8), placements (n=5), or had gone into full employment either shortly after their graduate scheme or if it had been completed early (n=3). All of these training programmes were taking place within one of the three multinational organisations involved in the study, across three sectors: retail, finance and engineering. Further details on the context of these training programmes of interviewees are summarised in Table 4.2. Although there were such differences in the interviewees' training programmes and types of entry into an organisation, overall the sample is relatively homogenous. Nevertheless, it must be recognised that the differences in interviewees' training programme experiences may play a role in their work values and career expectations, and could risk affecting the representativeness of the qualitative study sample. Guest et al. (2006) state that, for relatively homogenous populations, the number of interviews acceptable to reach data saturation can be between six and 12, so these smaller demographic groupings of participants can still be adequate, particularly for graduates and apprentices. It should be noted that the employed individuals had recently completed their graduate programme so would have gone through the same career and training route experience as the 22 interviewees currently on their graduate scheme.

Table 4.2: *Overview of the Study Participants' Training Programmes*

Training Programme:	Details:
Graduate Scheme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Degree-level educated (approximately half of the graduate trainees interviewed also have a Masters-level degree). • The graduate schemes range from 18 to 24 months, involving some placement rotations within the organisation before specialising in a pre-appointment role.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is usually a permanent role available at the end of the scheme. • <i>NB. Participants were at a mix of stages on the graduate schemes, with those interviewed in the financial industry being just a few months in.</i>
Apprenticeship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School leavers (non-higher education). • The apprenticeships typically lasted from 18 months to four years (they can complete early). • Apprentices work at assistant level and spend approximately one day a week at college studying for a qualification (e.g., NVQ, CIPD). • There are few permanent roles available at the end of the apprenticeship programme. • <i>NB. There were no apprenticeship schemes in the financial organisation.</i>
Placement (or Internship)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Typically, one-year placement undertaken after three years at university, before a final integrated Masters year, or undertaken as a ‘sandwich year’ prior to completion of final year. • These are advertised by universities to potential placement students. • <i>NB. There were only placement students in the engineering organisation.</i>
Employed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These individuals had undertaken a graduate scheme and changed to a permanent role early, or were on temporary contracts with the organisation before moving to a permanent role. • <i>NB. These participants were only in the retail organisation.</i>

Specific findings around industry and gender differences are discussed in the findings. There were no differences found across other demographics (e.g., training programme, department, nationality, tenure) that were analysed.

4.3.2 Materials

The materials for this study included a prepared list of interview questions that were used for the semi-structured interviews and a Dictaphone, paper and pen for recordings and notes. The Dictaphone was only used to record interviews when agreed by the interviewee.

There were six sections to the semi-structured interview schedule: background, working preferences, work values, career expectations, working with others in the organisation, and the final summary questions. Opening background questions asked interviewees about their current job, tenure, previous experience, education and nationality. Date of birth or year of birth was acquired when recruiting for the study, yet was not asked directly during the interviews. High-level exploratory questions around working preferences and values included, *“Please tell me more about your job role and the characteristics that you prefer/do not prefer and why?”* and *“What would you say are your work values?”* Questions were open-ended and non-directive, with prompts/probing questions used where necessary to draw out more information from interviewees. When discussing work values, the framework by Jin and Rounds (2002) was referred to where necessary (i.e., Intrinsic, Extrinsic, Social, and Status). Career expectations and accountabilities were explored with open questions, as well as perspectives on different age groups working together in organisations. For example, *“Please describe what you expect from your career, both now and in the future”* and *“What are your perceptions of generational differences in the workplace?”* The interview questions were discussed in the context of the interviewee’s current employer. Final questions offering the participant the opportunity to add anything else they may feel is relevant were included at the end of the interview schedule. The use of the semi-structured interview schedule ensured a consistent interview session was conducted with each interviewee. See Appendix B for the full interview schedule.

The first four interviewees were asked pilot questions to assess the face validity of interview questions, including phrasing and sequencing. This was to ensure clear and understandable questions discussing relevant concepts were being used in line with the

study aims and research questions, i.e., the interview questions explore what they aim to measure:

- *Did you feel this interview was too long/short?*
- *Did you feel that the questions were clear and made sense?*
- *Have you found this interview experience useful?*
- *Are there any changes you would recommend to be made to the questions asked?*

The pilot respondents stated that they felt the research interview went well, with all questions being clear and concise, with further clarity from the researcher required if needed. There were no changes recommended to the interview questions. Pilot studies in qualitative research are often overlooked due to their reflexive nature, yet can contribute to the assessment of validity in these approaches (Sampson, 2004); in this case, ensuring that the interview questions were relevant, clear and purposeful for the study.

4.3.3 Procedure

Ethics approval was granted by the University of Leeds Ethics Committee, prior to data collection – reference number: LTLUBS-081. A risk assessment form for conducting fieldwork was submitted and signed off by the Graduate School prior to data collection. Potential participants were contacted by key contacts in the organisation, who emailed recently recruited apprentices, interns and graduates. It was made clear that participation was completely voluntary and respondents could withdraw their data at any point up to the analysis stage. No participants were forced or coerced to take part in the study. Once a participant agreed to take part in a semi-structured interview, the timing and location were agreed and scheduled. The interview typically took place in a meeting room or company café (in a quiet area). In some situations, a telephone interview took place with participants (11 out of 38; approximately one third). Whether conducted face-to-face or by telephone, the interview structure was conducted with the same semi-

structured process and interview questions used. Each interview typically lasted between 45 minutes to 1 hour 30 minutes.

At the start of the interview, each participant was provided with an information sheet and asked to provide written consent (see appendices C and D), or this was emailed through beforehand if a telephone interview was being conducted. The research aims and ethical aspects were verbally summarised to the interviewee by the researcher at the start of the interview and the opportunity for the interviewee to ask any questions was provided. With the consent of the interviewee, the interview was audio recorded with a Dictaphone. Interviewees were asked to respond to interview questions honestly and thoroughly, and no psychological or physical harm was caused to participants, nor was there any deception throughout the study.

During the interview, the researcher used their interview skills to allow each participant the time to fully respond to each interview question asked. Clarification of the questions was provided if required by the participant. The interviewee was allowed to discuss what was important to them, yet the researcher would bring them back to the interview questions if the discussion was moving off the topic. The semi-structured interview approach provides flexibility to explore study variables further, allowing retrospective reflection on interviewee experiences (Coolican, 2017). Prompts and probing questions were used where necessary to help the interviewee reflect on the topics being discussed.

Interview questions were based on the existing credible literature on work values, career orientations and job design. No judgements were made or opinions shared during the interviews by the interviewer, i.e., the primary researcher. The role of the researcher and the context of the research were made clear to the participant at the start of each interview.

At the close of the interview, the participant was thanked and provided with further information about the study and researcher contact details. During the interview, notes were taken by the researcher to ensure that all information exchanged was taken into account; this would also support the Dictaphone recordings. All 38 interviewees

allowed an audio recording to be taken of their interview. It was confirmed to interviewees that all data would be dealt with confidentiality and presented back in aggregate form using general statements (i.e., no individual data would be identifiable). All data were securely stored in password protected folders and encrypted USBs.

The semi-structured interviews were transcribed, with the researcher transcribing nine interview recordings, whilst 29 anonymised interview recordings were transcribed by a reputable transcription company. A confidentiality agreement was finalised with the transcription company used, to ensure anonymity of files. Files were sent through securely and labelled with a code and number to comply with the study's confidential nature. In order to overcome any issues with a lack of familiarisation with the interviews, the researcher also listened to the externally transcribed recordings and filled in identified omissions in those transcripts to ensure validity, allowing extra checking of the transcripts' accuracy. All interview transcripts (MS Word documents) were then imported to QSR NVivo Pro 11, a data analysis software tool, to aid with coding, sorting and arranging for qualitative analysis. NVivo is commonly used for qualitative studies and has been effective in analysing and understanding phenomena in often unstructured and vague data (Hilal & Alabri, 2013).

4.3.4 Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was conducted in this study in order to make sense of the data gathered and to identify patterns and relationships in the content. Thematic analysis is widely used in qualitative research (Boyatzis, 1998; Roulston, 2001) and is defined as a *“method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data”* (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.79). The data gathered in this study required interpretative analysis, examining the meaningful content in relation to the phenomena being studied, e.g., work values, career perceptions. In addition, this analytical approach is flexible, providing a detailed account and psychological interpretation of the dataset. Through coding of concepts in the data, the emergence of six key themes developed, allowing insight and understanding around the study variables.

The whole dataset was analysed in an inductive manner, as opposed to conducting focused analysis on one theme; therefore, all six themes are considered in the Findings section in a balanced way. Prominent and emerging themes around the research topic were allowed to emerge from the interview data, rather than being dependent on prior conceptions (Boyatzis, 1998). This aligns with the mixed methods ontological stance of critical realism, arguing that there is an underlying reality that can be explored (Mays & Pope, 2000). Adopting a mixed methods approach, the researcher remained open to insights, in line with a proximal approach to theory building (Gibson et al., 2012), allowing openness to data that may prove valuable later in the research process. The ‘analytic lens’ is about how the researcher engages with their data (Caelli et al., 2003, p.8), with the current thematic analysis process aimed to interpret:

1. Participants’ interpretations of their job, work values, career expectations and the relationships in which they find themselves at any given moment.
2. How they come to have that point of view of their values, opinions, situation or the environment in which they find themselves.
3. Participants’ own view of their experiences and how their values and preferences have come to develop.
4. How they relate to others within their world and how they identify and see themselves and others who share their own experiences and situations.

The qualitative thematic analysis process structure is outlined below in Table 4.3 (Braun & Clarke, 2006), with details of its application to the current study following.

Table 4.3: *Thematic Analysis Phases (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.87)*

Phase	Description of the Process
1. Familiarising yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire dataset, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire dataset (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

1. **Familiarisation with the data** – Transcripts were read one-by-one by the researcher to gain understanding of data, with some initial note taking, whilst allowing concepts to slowly emerge. This first stage of familiarisation was done by hand with printouts of the transcripts and highlighters to identify key words, themes, etc., as well as unique figures of speech to understand phenomena (e.g., metaphors). All transcripts were then entered into QSR NVivo Pro 11 as sources for the second stage of the process. All demographic data were entered using the case classification tool to identify gender, training programme, company, nationality, tenure, department, education level and location (NB. Age was not added in here as a classification as, at this point, all

interviewees were considered to be ‘young people’; age was considered as a key variable in the quantitative stage of the study). At this stage, the researcher also checked that transcripts and data were now completely anonymous, with no individual or organisational names revealed.

2. **Generating initial codes** – First cycle coding (level 1) – Transcripts were reviewed and read again in NVivo by the researcher, who then began coding using this programme. Line-by-line coding was used where possible to ensure no key information was missed and to avoid coding at too high a level (Creswell, 2014). Every two or three lines of text was typically highlighted and coded with labels or code names that identified key words, concepts and reflections. An iterative and inductive approach to coding was adopted to develop themes using nodes, being directed by the content of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Smith, 2003). A total of 2949 extracts were generated in the first cycle of the coding process (21 early initial themes were also identified). A codebook exported to MS Excel was created with a summary of codes and themes to show the breakdown.

3. **Searching for themes** – Transcripts, now coded, were read again by the researcher and repeated patterns of meaning in the conversation topics and vocabulary identified. Key higher-level themes were recognised and codes began to be grouped within these, using the frequency and similarity of specific words, terms and topics. It should also be noted here that any disconfirming instances were also considered in the findings and explored to consolidate meaning, where relevant examples are presented. Some themes were already identified so the specific definitions were considered and defined to ensure clarification and discrepancy between codes, e.g., distinguishing between flexibility at work and work-life balance. NVivo nodes allowed a hierarchy to be created so this was how themes and codes were organised.

4. **Reviewing themes** – Second cycle coding (level 2) – All transcripts were read again by the researcher to check the coding and also to refine the codes and higher-level themes, with each reading bringing out further insight. This recoding and recategorising was inherent to allow refinement. The process has been compared to decorating a room by Abbott (2004, p.215), “*you try it, step back, move a few things, step back again, try a serious reorganisation, and so on*”. Further interpretation took place

summarising the interview discourse and ensuring clarity of boundaries between themes, refining definitions throughout the process (with reference to literature where necessary for scoping purposes), e.g., distinguishing independence and autonomy. A total of 2774 references and 29 themes were generated in the second cycle of the coding process.

5. **Defining and naming themes** – Labels and descriptions were provided for final themes and a hierarchical classification system developed to show links and relationships between themes. Final refinements of themes took place during this stage. Data were re-inspected with unnecessary or ‘weak’ themes (i.e., where there were not many frequencies), were made redundant and extracts were placed in relevant theme categories. At this point, seven major themes were identified, yet one around ‘age differences and stereotypes’ was weak and not a core topic of this research, so, for brevity and consistency, it has not been reported in the thesis. Six higher-level final themes were now refined and are summarised in Table 4.4. Although at the upper end of Braun and Clarke’s (2012) guidance for having two to six themes within a qualitative study, this was a large study with a high number of interviews and in-depth data analysis; therefore, it is expected that a high number of themes will be generated (Nowell et al., 2017). The inductive approach also allows for the balanced representation of the narrative without placing priority on one theme over the others, in order to address the research questions outlined; and, as this study was designed to complement the quantitative study, study two, breadth of analysis was sought to ensure that all relevant aspects were covered.

Table 4.4: *Final Six Themes from Thematic Analysis Process*

1.	Working Style & Expectations
2.	Autonomy, Freedom & Ownership
3.	Progression
4.	Mobility & Speed
5.	Organisational Values
6.	Relationships at Work

6. **Producing the report** – Key extracts were selected from the analysis for the Findings write up and supported with key quotations. Using a balanced inductive approach, the six major themes were all written up with equal focus to ensure sufficient depth and detail to exhibit the richness, as well as the complexity, of the interview data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Demographics of the participants were explored using NVivo matrix queries and case classifications and word frequencies were explored to confirm key themes. Differences were only identified across industry and gender so were included in the findings. The slightly older age of five of the interviewees (being aged 25 to 31) did not show any differences in the responses, demonstrating that the minor age difference did not have an effect on these people (as mentioned above in Section 4.3.1, these individuals had delayed their entry to the workplace through full time education and/or travel).

Appendix E presents the extracted codebook from NVivo with a summary of the final themes and sub-themes.

4.3.5 Trustworthiness

There are many challenges around judging the reliability and validity of qualitative research (Elliott et al., 1999); however, the criteria discussed in this section allow reflection on the trustworthiness of a research approach without formalised sampling methods or any mechanism to estimate absolute scores as in quantitative research. Qualitative research will inherently have some assumptions due to the nature of the reality being observed and increased subjectivity. However, by considering the below criteria when designing and conducting qualitative research, this can help to enhance its rigour and trustworthiness.

‘Trustworthiness’ of a qualitative study is important in order to value its worth and contribution (Cassell & Symon, 2011) and there are many different standards for judging the quality of qualitative research. It does not make sense to be concerned with the ‘truth’ or ‘falsity’ of an observation with respect to an external reality, which is a primary concern of quantitative validity. Lincoln and Guba (1986) proposed four criteria

for judging the soundness of qualitative research, in comparison to traditional criteria for quantitative research, as shown in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: *Criteria for Judging Quantitative and Qualitative Research (Lincoln & Guba, 1986)*

Traditional Criteria for Judging Quantitative Research	Alternative Criteria for Judging Qualitative Research
internal validity	credibility
external validity	transferability
reliability	dependability
objectivity	confirmability

As outlined above, ‘trustworthiness’ of qualitative research involves establishing (Lincoln & Guba, 1986):

1. **Credibility** – *Confidence in the 'truth' of the findings.*

The current study ensured clear sampling inclusion criteria and designed interview questions based on credible research and theory on the study variables. Pilot questions allowed the participants to communicate any uncertainty, and interview sections were summarised to clarify data and ensure the correct variables were being asked about. Through this, we can have confidence in the credibility of the findings.

In order to enhance authenticity and reduce bias and socially desirable answering during the qualitative interviews, participants were assured of confidentiality. For example, social desirability bias has been found in self-reported values, where those values that have more importance to the participant, and therefore more social implications, lead to a higher motivation to make bias responses (Fisher & Katz, 2000). It was emphasised to all interviewees that no information they provided would be

communicated back to their managers or peers, and anonymity in the final write up was confirmed.

2. **Transferability** – *Showing that the findings have applicability in other contexts.*

By having a large qualitative sample size and considering individuals on different types of training programmes and across three major industries and different genders, the current study allowed for some transferability of findings to other groups of young trainees starting their careers. Nevertheless, it is important to recognise that this sample was not fully representative of all young adult employees within an organisation; nor does the study aim to generalise or extrapolate findings. The researcher contextualised the findings being sensitive to the specific setting and participants included in this study, i.e., graduates, apprentices and interns entering multinational organisations based in the UK. Demographical aspects including higher education/non-higher education, training programme, industry, department, nationality, education and gender were all considered in the analysis process. Limited previous studies focusing on young people entering the workplace have shown mixed findings.

The significance and usefulness of the current study allowed interpretation and understanding around changing work values and careers in young employees. Through the development of rich, thick descriptions of the data through high-level themes, readers can determine the comprehensive detail of the context of the study and therefore transferability.

3. **Dependability** – *Showing that the findings are consistent and could be repeated.*

All semi-structured interviews were standardised in terms of interview process and schedule. In addition, consistent standardised prompts and definitions were provided to interviewees where useful; for example, outlining key work value types (Jin & Rounds, 2012), ensuring clarity on what each interviewee was referring to. The current research accounted for the evolving and changing context in which the research occurs with a

future focus and interviewees questioned on their future careers and recognition of the career context, which is rapidly evolving. It is recognised that there is a time-frame on these responses as participants are on time-defined training programmes, so, if asked the same questions in a few years' time, responses may be different due to different situations in terms of employment.

Beyond the within-person consistency, the saturation point was reached across interviews as themes emerged demonstrating adequate and quality data to support the research, i.e., on the basis of the data collected and analysed, no further data collection or analysis was required (Saunders et al., 2018). This was based on the researcher's sense of what they were hearing in interviews prior to data analysis. Due to standardisation in the process of data collection, analysis, and researcher thinking style, as well as robust sampling and the data saturation point being reached, it would be expected to generate a broadly consistent range of responses from an alternative group of early professional career trainees. During analysis, the researcher considered any alternative interpretations across different participants, e.g., males/females, graduates/interns/apprentices (see Section 2.4 Qualitative Interview Findings).

4. **Confirmability** - *A degree of neutrality or the extent to which the findings of a study are shaped by the respondents and not researcher bias, motivation, or interest.*

Being aware of reflexivity in qualitative research is fundamental for qualitative research quality control. Reflexivity, i.e., the attitude and sensitivity of attending to knowledge construction (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003; Mays & Pope, 2000), was considered at the analysis stage as well as data collection to examine data in an unbiased manner and allow genuine results to emerge. The researcher was aware not to share their own experiences, pre-suppositions or personal history when discussing topics, nor allow this to influence the data collection or analysis process through bias, self-motivation or interest (Caelli et al., 2003). Throughout the thematic analysis process, there was a focus on the aim to understand key concepts and ideas to ensure accuracy in relation to (Smith, 2003):

1. The primary message *content* (with awareness of the question being asked to the interviewee);
2. The degree to which the speaker is representing *actual vs. hypothetical* experience (i.e., some latent coding considering assumptions underpinning the data);
3. Whether the content represents *individual or shared* ideas;
4. The context the interviewee is referring to, *e.g., common vs. one-off* (not just seeing data as frequencies during the coding process).

The researcher must trust the statements and textual/verbal information provided by participants about their views and attitudes. The researcher therefore had to make inferences, and it is important to aim to overcome assumptions, subjectivity and bias around the topics discussed in order to ensure reliability and validity (Creswell, 2014). Whilst undertaking qualitative data analysis, the researcher was aware of the subjective nature and bias around qualitative data, thereby analysing text to identify themes in a structured and objective manner. The structured thematic analysis approach helped to address this (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Relating back to the research questions, objectives and defining themes based on the literature review allowed objectivity around the analysis process. The perspective of the researcher was aligned with the existing body of research and selected frameworks, yet remained open to exploring the dataset for emerging insights. The inductive approach did not disregard existing theories; rather, it aimed to generate meanings from the data, identifying patterns and trends for future theory development.

Fieldnotes were kept by the researcher during the data collection of this qualitative study to keep track of understanding and research process, methodological decisions and findings. This ensured accurate records of the process of both data collection and data analysis, addressing any distortion unwittingly introduced by the researcher as data collection progressed (Creswell, 2014). By making notes throughout, the researcher could see the data develop (and saturate), ensuring findings were emerging clearly and not being

influenced by the researcher along the way without realising it (Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018). In addition to researcher fieldnotes, audio recordings were made, helping to control for bias and produce reliable data for analysis rather than relying solely on notes or researcher memory.

Introspective reflexivity, along with academic peer debriefing and researcher triangulation (Denzin, 1978), add considerably to the credibility and usefulness of the current qualitative research (Flick, 2018). Triangulation aims to discover and reveal understanding of the topic under investigation from different perspectives (Denzin, 1978). Triangulation was adopted through checking of themes and sub-themes throughout the process with academic supervisors in order to verify analysis. By discussing the data collection and analysis process with academic peers, any hidden beliefs or values of the researcher had the opportunity to emerge. In this case, the researcher had not considered the difference in training programmes across organisations; for example, there were no apprentices or interns in the financial organisation, giving this a more corporate, progression-focused feel for graduate trainees. Following such conversations, the researcher was more aware of this and went on to analyse further any differences in data across industry and training scheme. Nevertheless, there are controversies around triangulation as a 'true' validity test, with Mays and Pope (2000) claiming that it should be seen as a useful technique to check comprehensiveness whilst encouraging reflexivity.

In addition, findings were corroborated by the organisations themselves when a feedback report was circulated to the three organisations involved. A high-level report with anonymised initial findings was sent, and the responses of the company contacts confirmed that there were no issues with the data collected. The initial data analysis allowed a deeper understanding around issues of work preferences, values and careers. No individual responses were identified here and no data were altered following viewing by the organisations.

4.4 Qualitative Interview Findings

4.4.1 Background/Context

Six key themes, and sub-themes (indicated in bold text), have been identified through thematic analysis of the interview data. Each theme is discussed individually and findings are illustrated by supporting quotes (indicated in italics) and a table provides further quotes from the interview transcripts at the end of each section. The organisation, role and gender are indicated with each quote (NB. Employee = not on a specific training programme in the company, e.g., transferred to a different role following their Graduate scheme).

4.4.2 *Keeping me motivated...* – Working Style and Expectations

The interviewees in this study appeared to have some common expectations and motivators around their work, with many reporting both ‘intrinsic’ work values around internal meaning and ‘extrinsic’ work values around the outputs of tasks being desired. Personal growth was an emerging dimension that was valued by interviewees, with a prominent focus on continuing to grow and learn, and not “*staying still*”.

Personal recognition was a common factor for young people’s motivation to work, with them wanting to be acknowledged and appreciated for their input, contribution and ideas. Visibility linked to this, with many wanting to be observed and identified by their management (and some stating it is dependent on this). **Adding value** was also discussed in terms of “*feeling proud*”, “*making a difference*”, and contributing to the “*bigger picture*”, suggesting that a sense of purpose is important.

“I think in terms of other things, personal recognition...yeah...that’s always nice to know that people appreciate the work you do and if someone comes and says to you, ‘Well done on that’, like my boss said to me a couple of times, that’s something that sort of gives you a little bit of a buzz and then it encourages you to sort of carry on and perhaps try and do more as well.” [Financial Graduate; Male]

Being given **challenging work** was reported to be important to keep work interesting and ensure “*constant stimulation*” at work. Once an individual becomes

bored, they underperform as they no longer feel motivated in their role. Undertaking **enjoyable** work and being passionate and excited about the day-to-day work one is doing was reported to be a further motivating factor, generating job satisfaction and happiness in their role.

“I kind of just want to feel fulfilled...that is my only kind of main goal...just to feel like...to enjoy going to work. I do not want a job where I am just hating every morning.” [Financial Graduate; Female]

Having **variety** in job roles was found to be important to ensure challenge, engagement and enjoyable work. Having different tasks as opposed to repetitive or “*mundane*” tasks was reported to maintain stimulation and interest in young people.

Money/pay was also linked to expectations of work and a number of interviewees reported that, although they were motivated by money, personal growth and delivering in their role were more important to them than monetary gain. Some individuals, particularly apprentices, reported that they felt financial pressures due to being on minimum wage, yet all types of interviewees reported experiencing challenges around purchasing their first home due to rising house prices.

When discussing entering the workplace, a number of interviewees explained that they had not appreciated the **reality of work** or the concept of what it is like to go to work every day. Many expected to be in a higher-level job role or have more status when they started their new job roles. Generally, interviewees did not always feel that their initial work expectations were met as they started their first job roles and entered an organisation for the first time. However, it was reported that the training programmes. e.g., placement year, apprenticeship, provide a steep learning curve, allowing these expectations to evolve, yet the desire for high levels of skill development and training remained. Many individuals have experienced previous work or part-time jobs whilst at school or university, although this still did not always prepare individuals for entering the workplace in their first professional job role. Nevertheless, interviewees showed an open attitude when discussing their expectations of work not being met, as they still expected career change and progression to allow them to experience the aspects of work they desired, e.g., autonomy, challenging and stimulating work, growth, recognition, clear

career progression. They continued to look to the future and not see themselves as settling or remaining in this role for a long time. This view saw themselves as being in the ‘driving seat’ of their career and job paths, and being open to change.

“I think as you get older, you realise that you can’t...you have to...kind of...take what’s on offer at the moment. You have to...not settle...but you have to get a good knowledge before you can walk into your dream job, which I think is achievable.”
[Financial Graduate; Male]

When discussing work values specifically, it was clear that a majority of interviewees felt that these have been shaped by their **upbringing** with their family. Most had hard-working and/or financially stable families, with a strong work ethic being instilled within them from a young age. Some mentioned role models, typically family members, who inspired them to work hard in their job roles and careers to enable a comfortable life. Both of these aspects, regarding work ethic and aspirations for a comfortable life, shaped the work values of the interviewees, and also motivated them in their careers. It was reported that young people now have a higher baseline on which to base their working expectations, as a majority have been to university and have successful parents who were able to spoil them and build up these expectations that they could be anything they wanted in their careers.

Table 4.6 summarises the key quotes from this theme.

Table 4.6: *Working Style and Expectations Quotes*

Theme:	Sub-Theme:	Quotes:
Working Style and Expectations	Personal Recognition	<i>“It is a definite driver to me. You always want to make sure your line manager knows what you are doing.”</i> [Retail Graduate; Female]
	Adding Value/Purpose	<i>“I don’t want to just be a cog in the machine. That might be something to do with the</i>

	<p><i>slightly over-inflated expectation of our generation, maybe.” [Retail Employee; Male]</i></p> <p><i>“I want to feel like I’m contributing to the bigger picture and the bigger scheme of things.” [Financial Graduate; Female]</i></p>
Challenge	<p><i>“I would say you want a job that challenges you every day. Basically, the greater the challenge, you get more reward out of it when you do succeed.” [Engineering Graduate; Male]</i></p>
Enjoyable Work	<p><i>“Umm...so obviously being excited by the work that I do and the job that I’m in. That’s very important, so obviously working on exciting projects. Doing things that I enjoy doing. There is a saying, ‘If you do something you enjoy doing, you don’t have to work a day in your life.’” [Retail Graduate; Male]</i></p>
Variety in Role	<p><i>“I don’t like to do things more than once. When I know it, I know it. I would rather do learning on the job. Variety is key.” [Retail Employee; Male]</i></p>
Money/Pay	<p><i>“Whereas now I’m still focused on making money because I want to buy a house and the</i></p>

		<p><i>normal life aspirations...but at the same time, I'm prepared to not push for the maximum money as long as I get the best experience."</i></p> <p>[Engineering Graduate; Male]</p>
	Reality of Work	<p><i>"I didn't appreciate how many roles there were in a company...I thought there were six of you in HR!"</i> [Retail Graduate; Female]</p> <p><i>"So, I mean, I've always had sort of ambition, but I would've never have known...I don't know...there's certain things when you get into the working world that are much different. I mean, it's hard to explain when you're in it, but you just...things are so different to how you think they are when you've not actually worked before."</i></p> <p>[Engineering Apprentice; Male]</p>
	Upbringing	<p><i>"I think it's definitely from upbringing...100%! My relationship with my parents, I would say, just because they've always worked really hard and...umm...I think I've probably respected that, so, to gain their recognition, I've always wanted to get a job that would do well and be recognised amongst their friends as well as other adults in the family."</i> [Retail Graduate; Female]</p>

4.4.3 *Trust me* – Autonomy, Freedom and Ownership

Work flexibility, referring to employees having the power to modify how long, where and when they work, was reported to be of key significance. Few interviewees reported having the opportunity to work from home; usually being dependent on their role/job level and line manager, with lower-level roles having less flexibility. Some said that they would not feel comfortable working from home as a new starter if people felt they were not being productive, suggesting concern about their identity as a “*newbie*”. There were also negative aspects associated with home working such as laziness and low productivity. It was felt by many that they would expect flexible working in a modern workplace, particularly due to advancements in technology, digitalisation and remote access. Regardless, most were willing to stay late if they needed to get their work done, i.e., if work is outstanding or they were extra busy, although some recognised that this was acceptable as they did not yet have serious family commitments. Generally individuals like to be in control of their time and do not like simply “*clocking in*” at work.

Work-life balance (WLB), representing the division of time between working and family or leisure activities, was also stated as being important to interviewees and related to work flexibility. Many felt that “*switching off*” is vital for their well-being, relaxation and personal life, whether that is seeing friends or taking part in leisure activities. Nonetheless, some individuals felt expectations from the company, or under pressure, to stay at work, relating to a culture of presenteeism.

“...On a day-to-day basis, yeah, you kind of decide yourself whether you should be staying or whether you shouldn’t and then you kind of dictate your own work-life balance. But sometimes there is the feeling that you sometimes feel like people expect you to stay or do things a bit later, which I don’t think should be the case.”
[Engineering Apprentice; Female]

A number of interviewees believed that they are managing their WLB successfully and have boundaries between home and work life, yet a few individuals stated that they are often “*workaholics*” and will stay late and/or check emails regularly when out of work. Family commitments were again discussed, with a majority of participants emphasising that WLB will become more important to them when they begin

to have a family.

Interviewees reported that **trust** was essential at work, influencing their job satisfaction and motivation. Every interviewee reported that being given responsibility, accountability and ownership is important for them, affecting development, engagement and motivation. As well as feeling trusted by their managers and the organisation, trust was also discussed in terms of the trainee trusting the company to support them in their development and career progression.

“I think that there’s...it’s sort of a trusting, letting people get on with their work...overall seeing the operation.” [Engineering Apprentice; Male]

When discussing **delegation** in relation to management style, there was a strong dislike for micro-management, where managers constantly follow up, check work and generally “*police*” employees. The term “*helicopter boss*” was used by one interviewee. This gives the impression of low trust in the manager-employee relationship and demotivates trainees. A majority of interviewees stated that they worked well with their current manager, primarily due to open communication, encouragement and regular feedback sessions. This allows the manager to recognise their working style, and enables them to work well together, understanding each other’s expectations.

“I really don't like to be micro-managed. I'd rather come to you when I have a question. I find that what works best for me is to be given independence but encouragement at the same time. I don't like to...yeah I don't wanna feel like I'm being 'babyed'.” [Retail Apprentice; Female]

The majority of those interviewed enjoyed taking control of their work and having the **freedom** to approach projects in their own way, allowing their personalities to shine through in their work. Authenticity was reported to be important to interviewees in terms of being themselves in the workplace, and bringing their own unique approach (or ‘personal branding’) to their working style and job roles. Many interviewees reported preferring a balance in the structure and direction of their work. Having less rigid work tasks allows a sense of pride in the work actually carried out. However, many recognised that in day-to-day work there will always be rigid administrative or “*fire-fighting*” tasks that need to be conducted, as well as less structured tasks. Together, this was reported to

provide stability in the working day. Furthermore, it was reported having some structure to work can help in planning and prioritising and many interviewees preferred this to having vague direction and/or guidance in their work.

“A double-edged sword. It’s good to have all that free rein, but sometimes you do need more direction.” [Retail Graduate; Male]

Interviewees were asked about their views on **career responsibility** and a majority felt it was down to the individual as opposed to the organisation, with personal drive, self-awareness, ambition and career focus playing a part. In fact, no interviewee believed that career responsibility lay solely with the organisation. It was felt by many that opportunities still need to be provided by the organisation, even if the individual is taking responsibility for their career; so many reported a combination in responsibility. Responsibility, as stated by interviewees, would initially lie with the individual, who must be proactive, and the organisation was reported as providing ‘stepping stones’ to allow development and progression. Overall, there was definitely a focus on the self-management of careers and taking control by the individual as these may move across organisations, industries and countries.

Generally, the interviewees are striving for **independence**, which for some began from a very early age, whilst others say this emerged during university years. There is a belief to “*seek things*” and “*pursue things*” in order to continually develop. It is felt that being independent can help individuals adjust into their roles and address the realities of work by looking for developmental opportunities within and outside of their organisations.

Table 4.7 summarises the key quotes from this theme.

Table 4.7: *Autonomy, Freedom and Ownership Quotes*

Theme:	Sub-Theme:	Quotes:
Freedom, Autonomy	Work Flexibility	<i>“It’s great to have that flexibility...I value that and it’s the first time I’ve been given that opportunity. It helps job satisfaction; it’s nice</i>

and Ownership		<i>to be given that trust.” [Retail Graduate; Female]</i>
	Work-Life Balance	<i>“I can see how in the future work-life balance would become more of an issue, I would guess, but to me that’s not that important.” [Financial Graduate; Female]</i>
	Trust	<p><i>“People need to have a sense of trust and belief that the right things are happening in the right ways.” [Retail Graduate; Female]</i></p> <p><i>“Obviously flexibility and trust in your employers, which again, I guess, comes back to that, when you said that contract between you and the organisation is that if you’ve employed me to do a job, trust me to do it and whether it’s here, whether it’s at home, whether it’s on the train, as long as I’m doing it and I’m going to it and I deliver it as I promised, as my, you know, critical part, as I will, then what – there’s nothing you need to worry about, so.” [Retail Apprentice; Female]</i></p>
	Delegation	<i>“Yeah...it’s counter-intuitive – like you’ve hired me to do this job so just let me do it. I like feeling that I can go to that person at any point</i>

		<i>in time and present questions and not feel like an idiot.” [Financial Graduate; Female]</i>
	Freedom	<p><i>“I think I have always liked a sense of freedom and that sense of choice; choice has always been very important to me.” [Financial Employee; Female]</i></p> <p><i>“I like the freedom to be actually, that’s okay that’s my end goal but how I go about getting that end goal is entirely up to me. So I like to be quite free.” [Financial Employee; Female]</i></p>
	Career Responsibility	<i>“It’s your career, it’s not the organisation’s career. You can shape, but it’s your role; you should be there to drive your future and if your company you are with doesn’t support this, then you should find a new company to work for.” [Financial Graduate; Male]</i>
	Independence	<i>“I prefer independence; I like to be able to create my own work and decide what I need to do next to be able to be successful.” [Engineering Placement Student; Male]</i>

4.4.4 *Up!* – Progression

When discussing **career progression**, an upwards perspective was commonly taken by interviewees, whether they were referring to themselves “*progressing up*”, “*going up*”, “*working their way up*”, or reaching “*the top*”, this kind of language was frequent. Generally moving “*up*” in an organisation was more important than developing a breadth of experience; however, overall there was a sense of movement and progression, with individuals stating they did not want to stay still or become “*stagnant*” in their career. Career progression is a clear driver for many, reflecting their goals, aims, hard work and ambitious nature. Interviewees were confident in their abilities to progress vertically in their future careers.

“I think there’s no point being in a job if you don’t want to get to the top.”
[Engineering Placement Student; Male]

Having a **transparent career path** and being able to “*visibly track progression*” was also highlighted as being important to individuals, allowing them to know where they are going and enabling a balance between structure and flexibility. It was recognised by interviewees that this path could be uncertain and change with different opportunities, and there therefore needs to be fluidity in allowing people to “*find their own way*”. A number of individuals were already undertaking qualifications as part of their training scheme, with many also planning to undertake industry-specific courses and/or Chartership training. Interviewees indicated that they were putting a great deal of effort into the planning of their future career paths in order to add more certainty to their working lives.

Skill development was reported to be important to individuals and support learning and career direction. Building a skill base and getting qualified is seen as a key starting point for career progression. **Feedback** was identified as a key motivator and aid for progression, with constructive and timely feedback from supportive managers helping to confirm that individuals are “*doing the right work*” and helping them know what they can do better next time. This need for feedback was reported to be linked to high expectations and goals of young people, as well as their need for skill development. Skill development and feedback requirements were focused on at the individual level, with an

emphasis on their own personal career track, progression and development (again emphasising self-management of careers).

Status was discussed, although many stated that this was not linked to the financial reward (even though a few individuals mentioned the status of having “*nice cars*”). Prestige and status were seen to align with being higher up in the organisation. Individuals reported that they wanted to be visible in their profile to the right people – both their managers and the community.

Ambition, i.e., having the strong desire, drive and determination to be successful, was reported to be high in interviewees and motivate career progression. Many stated that they have high expectations for themselves and this was discussed in the context of younger people, in particular, feeling that this was common. Self-efficacy, i.e., someone’s belief in their capabilities to succeed based on their skills and circumstances, was reported to be high and is also reflected in the optimism around career progression reported. Entrepreneurial skills were desired, with a number of individuals planning to set up their own business and become self-employed in the future. This ambitious approach was also reported to be linked to feelings of impatience around wanting to develop oneself quickly. Overall, **confidence** was discussed as being higher in young people in the workplace, with them being much more vocal, open and opinionated about where they want to be, their expectations and how they expect to get there. There is intrinsically a level of **competitiveness** between young people early in their careers as they are compared in terms of progression throughout training programmes, also being linked to high expectations, ambition, risk-taking and drive. Some stated that this competitive nature developed from their education and time at university where they learnt that job roles were becoming more competitive. They need to “*stand out*” and show they are “*credible to develop*”. This competitiveness was reported to be higher in younger employees, with them being seen as “*ruthless*” in competing for opportunities and job roles; this was not always reported to be the case, however. Generally, the organisations, their industries and the nature of training schemes were described as “*hyper-competitive*”. The risk-taking element of this competitive drive reportedly showed that young employees are not afraid to speak up and challenge the status quo in some circumstances.

“We’re very competitive and we’re very honest about our competitiveness because we know that helps us. So, when someone does well we are absolutely happy to say, ‘That was awesome; I wish I’d done it!’, because we know that we’re all going for the same roles eventually and it’s going to get less and less as we go up, so we’ve got to keep fighting. But we do it in a positive way, I think.” [Retail Employee; Female]

Table 4.8 summarises the key quotes from this theme.

Table 4.8: *Progression Quotes*

Theme:	Sub-Theme:	Quotes:
Progression	Career progression	<p><i>“It’s very important to me that I progress and get to where I...kind of fulfil my potential and, at the moment, I really would like to kind of work up through the business.” [Engineering Placement Student; Male]</i></p> <p><i>“I don’t want a job where it doesn’t lead anywhere.” [Financial Graduate; Male]</i></p>
	Transparent Career Path	<p><i>“Companies need to have a really robust, transparent and clear way of explaining to people, this is what a career path looks like in HR and this is how you get to it. You need to be clear [about] the expectation of how long you will be there when you go into roles, what success looks like, where you will go next and what the role will lead onto. It’s the ambiguity and non-transparency of what happens next – this is the frustration. This can then lead to</i></p>

		<i>disengagement as you are at a point where it is very ambiguous.</i> ” [Retail Graduate; Female]
	Skill Development	<i>“I would say the main thing for me is developing my skill base and building new skills in my professional skills set. I can’t think of a better word for that. I think that’s my main thing and that’s the main reason why I applied for this job, cos I found that it would give me a really good starting point for my career.”</i> [Retail Apprentice; Female]
	Feedback	<i>“I really thrive from being told when I’ve done something well and if I’m criticised, kind of, not constructively, then it will really damage my confidence.”</i> [Retail Apprentice; Female]
	Status	<i>“People see this as prestigious, the higher up you are.”</i> [Retail Graduate; Female]
	Ambition	<i>“In my team there is definitely a lot of younger ones of us and we are very open and ambitious and driven about what we expect to achieve and we tell people all the time.”</i> [Retail Employee; Female]
	Confidence	<i>“I’m unafraid of saying to my...a colleague in my team, ‘I want to achieve this for my</i>

		<p><i>personal development’ ...and they will be...they will see it as either that I’m challenging them or that I’m being a bit bossy or a bit sort of self...almost a bit arrogant to assume that I get to make those decisions.” [Retail Employee; Female]</i></p>
	<p>Competitiveness</p>	<p><i>“We feel like we are falling behind – you feel like you need to get in line with everyone else or get there before everyone else.” [Retail Graduate; Female]</i></p> <p><i>“But even within the Graduate community, I think there is a lot of competition as well. Don’t get me wrong, healthy competition is great but I think because it’s such a competitive thing people are always kind of in a way trying to stab people in the back, because we are competing for different placements, but yet we’re not helping each other out, if that makes sense.” [Financial Graduate; Female]</i></p>

4.4.5 Now! – Mobility and Speed

A large number of interviewees reported that they were open to **changing career paths**, in terms of moving organisations and also moving industries and/or functions. Most were keen to not “*box themselves in*” and wanted to experience different organisations and roles, keeping themselves current, flexible and open to change.

Uncertainty around future careers was reported to be common, especially as work expectations at the job level were not always being met, and some individuals simply did not know where they would be, or how they would be feeling in the future so were happy to keep their career paths and choices open. This uncertainty was reported to encourage individuals to take control of their own careers. The sub-themes mentioned in the previous section, around ambition, confidence, self-efficacy, competitiveness and independence, all linked to this risk-taking and open approach to changing career paths. Impatience around career progression was also reported, with young people not being as willing to wait for opportunities to come to them and being keen to ensure their careers kept moving forwards. Such attitudes were found to be more common in graduate trainees than in apprentices or interns.

“I don’t think it’s really the norm to stay in one place anymore.” [Financial Graduate; Female]

The importance of **job security** for interviewees was fairly mixed within the sample; a majority of individuals reported that job security was not of high importance to them at the moment. Many felt their view was associated with their current life stage, and perhaps when they had a family they would prefer more job stability. Those who reported job security to be of low importance, felt that gaining experience elsewhere and having variety in their career was more important to them.

“I think it’s the status it has to go with because of the fact that at my age and the motivation that I want....I don’t want job security. Because if I....you know, I’m still young, I’m still moving, if this job goes I’ll find another one....and that’s when I can take a step back and relax, after I have achieved something.” [Financial Graduate; Male]

A majority of interviewees reported that they are open and flexible about **geographical location** of work and many would love to work abroad and be happy to relocate (in some cases, this attracted them to their organisation). It was accepted that relocation comes with the job; particularly for graduate schemes, where there are regular rotations/placements. University was also mentioned as encouraging younger people to be more independent in terms of geographical relocation as this breaks the bond to home. The fluidity and globalisation of the job market and opportunities were reported to

enhance receptiveness to mobility. Family responsibilities were seen to limit willingness to relocate.

Interviewees did not want to feel “*tied down*” to one organisation, reporting that the traditional career and ‘**job for life**’ philosophy was “*diminishing*”, with individuals really taking responsibility for their own progression. Nevertheless, there were some interviewees who felt that they would stay in the same organisation only if the career progression and opportunities were there for them. This two-way relationship between the employee and the organisation was described as generating “*relative loyalty*” where the company will take their input, and the individual will take their development opportunities. There was a short-term focus reported by interviewees when discussing their tenure with their current organisation.

“No one is really a lifer anymore. You have to do things for yourself...not being blindly optimistic that things are always going to be the same.” [Retail Employee; Male]

Efficiency at work in terms of productivity, learning and effort was reported to be important to the interviewees. Some reported themselves to be “*workaholics*”, wanting to work to the best of their ability, being resourceful, capable and professional. Some were surprised and frustrated at how slow it could be in organisations to make decisions, with high expectations to make things happen quickly. Individuals tended to become impatient with processes and, if their work and/or progression becomes “*stagnant*”, this is also a reason to change career paths. Impatience was reported to be high in young people regarding efficiency around development, career progression and general organisational processes. In particular, fast progression was referred to by interviewees who were keen to develop and progress in their job roles as quickly as possible.

“I think it’s always important before you go somewhere to [determine] how you would move up the ranks as quickly as possible.” [Retail Graduate; Male]

The term “*stagnant*” has also been referred to in the previous theme, Progression (4.4.4), and this focus on speed and efficiency by the young people interviewed is relevant to career progression as well as day-to-day working processes, learning and performance.

Table 4.9 summarises the key quotes from this theme.

Table 4.9: *Mobility and Speed Quotes*

Theme:	Sub-Theme:	Quotes:
Mobility and Speed	Changing Career Paths	<i>“I think I’d get itchy feet. I know there’s a lot of people in the company who have worked for [the organisation] for a really long time, but I like having that option to go elsewhere, I like the variety, I like kind of experiencing different places, different work environments... Whereas if you then go to a different company that works a different way, you can become more flexible, more versatile.” [Retail Apprentice; Female]</i>
	Job Security	<i>“I think people don’t care as much about job security these days. I’m speaking as...I mean this doesn’t apply to everyone...just certain people. They are more willing to take risks...you know, maybe switch jobs or look for other opportunities, whereas before, maybe there was a tendency of sticking with the same company for your whole career or life.” [Retail Graduate; Male]</i>
	Geographical Location	<i>“I mean, you have to be mobile to work nowadays anyway. Whereas I don’t think it was such a big problem a couple of decades ago. I think it was, like, you get a job and there you are set for life. Whereas now you do have to be</i>

		<p><i>largely mobile. Which is one of the things in the contract for us, we have to be mobile across the whole country.</i>” [Financial Graduate; Male]</p>
	<p>‘Job for Life’ Attitude</p>	<p><i>“Because a career isn’t a job, it’s not like a place; I see it as more like a kind of a long-term sort of...not aspiration but like a journey. So it could, like, span across a number of companies, a number of industries...I think it’s more about self-fulfilment, being able to, like...yeah, just be yourself.”</i> [Financial Graduate; Female]</p> <p><i>“I don’t think it is that we are not being loyal...I think that we are much more aware of the business benefit that we bring and therefore, rather than seeing ourselves just as a cog of a large organisation, we’re aware that actually we’re bringing skills that are...that should be respected and appreciated and, if they’re not, then we’re prepared to take them somewhere else....so, but I don’t think that means we’re not loyal.”</i> [Retail Employee; Female]</p>
	<p>Efficiency at Work</p>	<p><i>“I’m the kind of person that I realise I might not be the smartest person in the room, but I’ll be damned if I’m the person that doesn’t work the hardest!”</i> [Financial Graduate; Female]</p>

4.4.6 *Aligning* - Organisational Values

Organisational values were reported to be important to the interviewees in terms of them feeling like they align or ‘fit in’, and these were perceived through the **brand/reputation** of the company, which was of key importance to these individuals. It was felt that the perceived values of their employer were not only important in attracting them to the company initially, they also played a role in how well they would feel they fit in once they joined. If their internal and personal values were in line with those of the organisation, then interviewees felt more content and satisfied in their role working for the organisation. They stated that this alignment allowed the organisation’s values to fit with their own values and identity, linking to authenticity and the freedom to be oneself in the workplace. Overall, individuals were positive about their company brands/reputations, with many feeling passionate about the work they do for them. There were many dimensions that were reported to contribute to the brand, including identification with the brand, training and development opportunities, reward, quality standards and recognition. Prestige in particular was discussed, with individuals being attracted to working for a well-known multinational organisation that gives the “*Wow Factor*”. In these cases, many interviewees were proud to have the company name on their CV and reported that this enhanced their self-confidence in their career.

“It was quite nice to see someone get really excited about the fact that you work in XXX. It’s great and it gives you a lot of self-confidence in that sense as well, but it’s very good to say that you work at XXX.” [Engineering Apprentice; Male]

Company ethics were reported to be highly important to those interviewed, with some stating that this is what attracted them to the organisation, and a desire for their personal ethical values to be aligned with their employer’s. They want to feel proud to work for the organisation they are a part of, and many of the companies currently consider and display ethical values and Corporate Social Responsibility through volunteering, charity events and initiatives. Some interviewees felt this was not an issue right now but could be if their values change in the future, suggesting a view that values can evolve (for both individual and organisation).

“You don’t just want to be part of some big corporation that destroys people’s lives...I’d find it hard to work for a tobacco or gambling company” [Retail Employee; Male]

The values of the organisation, in particular its **investment in people**, were important to interviewees, e.g., skills and knowledge training, new responsibilities, shadowing different teams, progression. It was found that all of the participants’ organisations appeared to offer opportunities for personal development; however, some individuals felt that you need to ask for, and find, these yourself by *“putting yourself out there”*, again, linking back to the adoption of increased self-management approaches to careers. Generally, without forthcoming opportunities from their employer, individuals would be willing to look for different jobs in order to increase their experience. Typically, graduate schemes would automatically allow more opportunities through rotations; however, apprentices, with less likelihood of a permanent job at the end of their training, reported that they aimed to get as much out of their role as possible regarding skill development and work experience.

However, some individuals believed that there were not enough opportunities for everyone, and this is where **fairness** became an issue. Such fairness issues were reported to typically be around promotions, status, *“perks and pay”*, with a desire for development opportunities from the organisation, which would make individuals more loyal and committed to stay in a role with the employer. If someone misses out unfairly on a promotion or developmental opportunities, it reduces motivation and trust with the organisation, with many stating that they would leave the organisation in such situations. *“Empty values”* were discussed, where employees are promised progression and advancement, yet this does not happen in reality. Interestingly, apprentices felt that graduates received more opportunities than they did, as graduates are seen as more capable, which the apprentices felt was unfair.

“I mean the scheme says that in five years we are looking at making you managers. When I look around the office, you don’t see people who are 27 as managers. So I don’t know if that’s slightly false advertising or it’s a bit hopeful, maybe.” [Engineering Graduate; Male]

Related to work values, interviewees reported a preference for **diversity** at work; stating that organisations have to embrace the diversity of the workforce in order to keep it fresh and avoid the “*edges getting rubbed off*” existing employees (i.e., if they are all too similar). Diversity was discussed across many dimensions including age, gender, nationality, ethnicity and socio-economic class; particularly when referring to age, interviewees felt that there could often be judgements made about them for being younger in terms of assumed knowledge or experience opportunities.

Table 4.10 summarises the key quotes from this theme.

Table 4.10: *Organisational Values Quotes*

Theme:	Sub-Theme:	Quotes:
Organisational Values	Brand	<p><i>“I don’t want to work for an organisation I wouldn’t want to tell somebody I worked for.” [Financial Graduate; Male]</i></p> <p><i>“Believing in what you are doing in terms of the company you are working for; the sense of being part of something greater, I guess.” [Retail Graduate; Male]</i></p>
	Company Ethics	<p><i>“Just even looking at the website when you apply for things, it’s quite easy to use and see their corporate values are very much in tune with my own and they really do instil those and kind of focus on them when you are training and even when you are just around, so I think that was good, I liked that.” [Financial Graduate; Female]</i></p>

	Investment in People	<i>“They definitely make you feel like your development is at the forefront of their mind, which I think is always really good.”</i> [Retail Graduate; Female]
	Fairness	<i>“I think maybe there might be people that are forgotten about or not necessarily seen or given the right opportunity to advance.”</i> [Engineering Apprentice; Female]
	Diversity	<i>“I like looking at the global picture, so seeing all of these different opinions and how we can come to one general consensus that everyone is happy with.”</i> [Financial Graduate; Female]

4.4.7 It's all about who you know... – Relationships at Work

Social networks in the workplace were reported to be highly important for career progression, particularly in certain professions, e.g., Marketing, Merchandising. As well as networking being important for development and progression, many interviewees reported that they really enjoy interaction with others in the office and getting along with their team is valued. Being a trainee in an organisation automatically enters you into a community where there are social events being organised so social bonds are usually formed, e.g., nights out, flat sharing.

There were a number of comments by interviewees about **formal versus informal relationships** in a work setting. Many felt that they do not need to be “*best friends*” with their colleagues but do want to get on with them to make work easier and also to be able to ask for support at work when they need it. Age came in as an issue here, with some interviewees stating that they feel relaxed in the workplace and are able to be themselves when comparing themselves to older workers, with less inconsistency between their ‘work selves’ and ‘home selves’. Nevertheless, it was reported that, being young, they felt the need to take more care in what they say about going out at the weekend and socialising for fear of judgement from older colleagues. This suggests a tension here around the desired authenticity of young people in the workplace.

“We’re just not as strict, still professional, don’t get me wrong, but we can have a good time at work as well and we can socialise outside of work a bit more openly, I would have said.” [Financial Graduate; Male]

A key relationship of importance at work was reported to be with **line managers**. A majority of interviewees reported that they have a positive relationship with their line manager, and felt it is important to be able to have open and honest conversations where you can ask questions and request opportunities. Enablers to an effective relationship with managers included openness, respect, support, recognition and approachability of the manager, allowing expectations to be transparent and managed on both sides. Hierarchy was reported to block accessibility to line managers.

Role models were discussed, with a number of interviewees stating that they looked up to family members for being hard working, and many also described some key people in the workplace that they looked up to. These individuals who were role models were typically open to new ideas and appreciated fresh and innovative thoughts and learning. This is what appeared to be valued by interviewees when being inspired by others.

Team working was seen positively by all interviewees, with many enjoying feeling part of a team and appreciating the affiliation. Benefits of team working were reported to include feeling integrated in the group, valued, in touch with people, and having companionship and camaraderie when undergoing tasks. Brainstorming,

collective knowledge and support were also appreciated when getting the job done. The communication and flow of information was recognised in helping complete tasks quicker. Diverse teams were also appreciated in terms of age and seniority, with interviewees keen to learn from others.

“I prefer working in that open environment with lots of discussion going on. There is never a time when someone isn’t talking.” [Retail Graduate; Female]

Nevertheless, it was recognised by some interviewees that lone working is also important in combination with team working, allowing more responsibility and ownership, especially if their name is put to a task. Effectiveness of teams and/or lone working was reported to be task-dependent.

Table 4.11 summarises the key quotes from this theme.

Table 4.11: *Relationships at Work Quotes*

Theme:	Sub-Theme:	Quotes:
Relationships at Work	Social Networks	<i>“I think it definitely helps you being a social person because you can...I think most successful people are approachable and sociable people who talk not just about work. You know, you don’t want to sit in an office getting bored, you want to get to some network events and things like that.”</i> [Financial Graduate; Male]
	Formal vs. Informal	<i>“So you don’t want to be the one person who is just constantly working the whole time and they are so serious... That’s the one thing I like about the office, every now and then people just start cracking up and someone has made a joke and everybody just ..I like a</i>

		<p><i>lively office, not a dead one with everyone just sitting just being robots at their desk. That's what I value, I suppose.</i>" [Financial Graduate; Male]</p> <p><i>"I think sometimes you have to be careful being young like myself...I have to be careful about what certain things I start talking about like, "Oh, we went out at the weekend!"", and I think, 'Um, is this appropriate for me to tell the Director of Retail Development that this happened?' Sometimes it's a bit like I'll start telling a story and think I've got to finish it now!"</i> [Engineering Apprentice; Male]</p>
	Line Manager Communication	<p><i>"I think it's nice to have a good relationship with them and feel comfortable to talk to them. But at the same time, they are your manager so...you definitely need to have respect for them and look up to them because they are of higher authority than you."</i> [Engineering Placement Student; Male]</p>
	Role Models	<p><i>"Yeah, I like someone that I can sort of look up to and think, 'I would like to be in their shoes at some point,' so I can sort of learn how they have got to their position, what they have done on the way, who they have</i></p>

		<i>met, and if there's any knowledge they can pass onto me.</i> [Financial Graduate; Male]
	Team Working	<i>"I am more of a team player, to be fair. I definitely value individual success, if you know what I mean – within the team, I like my own contribution to be noted but then I think you get more enjoyment because you can share the job."</i> [Financial Graduate; Male]

4.4.8 Company Differences

Although there were a few differences between interviewees from the different organisations, there were many general comments made about the importance of the **organisational culture** and **organisational size**. It was reported that the three organisations are aiming to adapt and evolve to be more “*young*” and “*fresh*”, which was seen as a positive thing.

Although not primary points of focus by the study research questions, to provide further context, below are some key comparative differences found across the three organisations whilst analysing the data from interviewees' reports. It is important to bear in mind that the demographics were different across organisations, with the retail company having more experienced graduates and apprentices, as well as some employed past graduates who were interviewed; the financial company interviewees were only new graduates; and there were graduates, apprentices and placement students interviewed within the engineering organisation all at different stages. Considering these differences allows us to understand the context and setting of the individuals interviewed for the study, and, although there were not large differences across organisations, there were different points of focus of the above themes on work and career values and preferences.

4.4.8.1 Retail Company

The retail organisation was reported to have a relaxed environment and was clearly less corporate than the financial industry in terms of size and the nature of business. This company has existed in the UK for a very long time, with many “*job for life*” employees who have remained in the organisation. However it is changing, or attempting to, for younger people who are entering the workplace, although there are still feelings of the company resisting change and doing things the way it has for over 120 years. Organisational values were discussed more with retail company interviewees; however, this is to be expected, with them having recently launched their new company values framework.

“Everyone said, ‘Oh there will be people there who’ve been there forever; it’s like a big old clunky machine, like it’s very ancient in its way of working’. I haven’t found that, so I think it must have changed a lot; having a wider mix of generations and ages, it’s probably better.” [Retail Graduate; Female]

There was a clear difference across the three organisations regarding interviewees’ preference for structure, direction and controlling their own workload and day-to-day tasks. Those interviewees working in the retail organisation preferred less structure, enjoying flexibility and autonomy to plan their own day; this would also reflect why trust was valued more in this company. This was related to the need for creative work in their industry, however, with fast-paced and varied projects. Many of these interviewees also strongly valued flexibility in the workplace and had higher preferences for working from home regularly.

“Sometimes I prefer a bit of structure. It depends on the project you are working on, because marketing means a very creative function and I think for certain projects it is good to have a good plan and have everything laid out, but sometimes obviously you can go through phases of serendipity and discover things as you go along and nothing is certain – I mean, we work in Retail. Everything changes from one day to another. It’s quite fast paced sometimes, so you have to be able to adapt and... get rid of the structure.” [Retail Graduate; Male]

4.4.8.2 Financial Company

The financial organisation was described as a traditional, well-developed company. It was reported that there were difficulties around change in such an international and large organisation, with the company being described as a “*massive beast*” and a “*dinosaur*”. However, it was reported that the company was catching up slowly, particularly in terms of updating technology. Taking into account how the financial crisis affected the banking industry, this organisation was reported to still be well respected in the industry.

“I think they have done quite well to sort of adjust to changing needs of the environment and they take on a lot of youngsters now, like there is a variety of different graduate schemes, etc.” [Financial Graduate; Male]

Interestingly, individuals from the financial organisation were more likely to place career responsibility on both the individual and the organisation, as opposed to solely on the individual, the latter being more prevalent in the retail and engineering organisations. This may reflect different training programmes and progression routes within the organisations, potentially with a more transparent development plan and path in the financial company. Considering themes identified across organisations, it is suggested that the financial organisation has more highly structured training programmes, with less flexibility in terms of moving around, which would likely be in line with the corporate banking industry.

4.4.8.3 Engineering Company

The automotive engineering organisation was reported to be “*old-fashioned*” and dated in its ways of working. Many of the interviewees working here were passionate about cars and/or were from the local district, as this company is based in a town in the North of England.

“I think it can be a bit more flexible and a bit more modern in that way.” [Engineering Graduate; Male]

Within the engineering organisation, there was more of a preference for a ‘job for life’ compared to the other organisations. In addition, job security was more important to

those working in this company, which was reported to be linked to local unemployment. This is the only organisation involved in the study that was not based in a large capital city and is the primary employer for people living in this more rural area.

“So, job security is quite a big one. The fact it’s a big company, it’s owned by an even bigger company. It is a secure job, and it’s nice just living down the road, yes. The job security and the fact that it was quite a quick way into being paid a proper wage....that was the massive thing for me at the beginning.” [Engineering Apprentice; Male]

The majority of those interviewees who reported being satisfied with their working hours were employed by the engineering organisation, which operates a different structure to the retail and financial organisations, giving employees Friday afternoons off work (Mon-Thurs 8am-5pm; Fri 8am-12pm); this was clearly having a positive effect on individuals’ happiness around flexibility. Those in the engineering organisation reported finding it easy to switch off after work, which could also reflect the clearly defined working hours, as well as the extra time off on a Friday afternoon.

4.4.9 Gender Differences

Gender differences were analysed when drawing out the codes and themes from the transcripts, and using case classification in NVivo. When discussing working preferences, males tied much higher importance to challenge, status and pay, with independence and having work delegated to them (i.e., responsibility) being of preference. Interestingly, females discussed financial pressures more than salary itself, and valued loyalty and trust in the workplace more than male colleagues. Reflecting this, communication with line managers was discussed more by females.

Overall, males had a higher tendency to place career responsibility on both the individual and the organisation, whereas females put more responsibility with the individual. However, due to the sample distribution across organisations, this predominant male view would also be associated with the engineering organisation, in comparison with the retail organisation where more female interviewees were working. Therefore, it is not clear whether this is gender or industry related. Nonetheless, as diversity at work was also discussed more by females, this suggests they may not feel as

supported in their career progression opportunities, so feel that they must take responsibility themselves and be more proactive in their development and advancement. This also links to a higher concern for line manager relationships.

4.5 Qualitative Study Discussion

The purpose of this qualitative interview study was to provide insight into the working preferences, work values, career expectations and perceptions of young people, classed within the ‘young adulthood’ age boundary, who are entering organisations and their working life. The 38 individuals interviewed provided understanding of their experiences, attitudes and opinions around their working lives which have been analysed and categorised into themes and sub-themes. Insights and interpretation from these findings are discussed below. As noted in Chapter 2, the objectives for this study, and their association to the overall research questions, were to:

1. Identify the subjective perceptions of work values of young people during the transition to work in terms of conceptual structure (RQ1);
2. Identify the preferences for working and career requirements more broadly of young people during the transition to work (RQ1); and
3. Explore how these are formed and changed during the transition to work (RQ2, RQ3).

Thus, I will now discuss the findings as they relate to these objectives.

4.5.1 Subjective Perceptions of Work Values of Young People

From the interview data, particularly around the ‘Working Styles and Expectations’ theme, it was clear that expectations of work were high for young people entering the workplace, with them valuing a variety of different aspects. Primarily, *both* intrinsic (e.g., enjoyment, interesting and challenging work) and extrinsic (e.g., reward, recognition and status) work values were preferred by interviewees. It can therefore be argued that these two types of values are not mutually exclusive for these participants.

This finding is particularly interesting as it contradicts previous research suggesting either intrinsic *or* extrinsic work values are more favoured by individuals, and this has been reflected in work values models which show a discrepancy between these two types of values (e.g., Bristow et al., 2011; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2013; Hansen & Leuty, 2012; Krahn & Galambos, 2014; Kultalahti & Viitala, 2015; Lyons et al., 2007; Real et al., 2010; Sullivan et al., 1998). Work values are commonly differentiated by intrinsic and extrinsic work values in their categorisation models (Elizur, 1984; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Sortheix et al., 2015; Taris & Feij, 2001). However, this study found that young people tend to value some level of both extrinsic and intrinsic work values, rather than being high on one or the other.

With interview findings showing that young people have expectations of both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of work, this highlights the need for highly dynamic job roles which include variety, experience, challenge, personal growth and continued learning. This finding suggests a focus on *breadth* of experience over depth of experience for these young individuals starting their careers; however, it generally seems idealistic to expect to walk into a job that can provide all of these aspects. This lack of appreciation of the reality of work is discussed further in the next section (4.5.3). Striving for breadth of experience and opportunities reflected the feeling of “*not standing still*” that emerged from the participants; particularly with regard to progression, mobility (within and across organisations and countries), speed or ‘instant-ness’, and impatience. This limitless, mobile and dynamic perspective adopted by young people further supports the notion of the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; 2001), and movement, in terms of career behaviour (as opposed to rigid career boundaries), is talked about a lot in the interview data as the norm in career expectations (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Young people reported having a wide scope when thinking about their future careers and viewed many opportunities for movement across roles, organisations and industries, including global mobility. The desire for skills development identified in the interviews, which is a large part of many training programmes in organisations, also supports this, in that it can promote young people in their career progression. Interviewees viewed skills as essential to remain mobile and flexible, supporting a competency approach and individualistic boundaryless careers (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). Further, recent literature also discusses

the association between boundaryless and global careers, reflecting this expectation for international working conveyed by interviewees, with evidence of young people being increasingly willing to move globally for job opportunities and careers (Baruch et al., 2016; Baruch & Reis, 2016), as reflected in the study findings (mentioned in the previous section).

The origin of work values and motivators has been explored for decades (e.g., Kandler et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2016; Roe, 1956; Šverko, 1989) and this qualitative study found that work values were perceived to be shaped by an individual's family and upbringing, in particular the value of work ethic. Elements of ambition, competitiveness and confidence that emerged from the interview data can link into these high expectations of work, careers and organisations reported by young people. Younger employees have been referred to as the 'Spoilt Generation' with high entitlement belief (e.g., Leung & Busiol, 2016), suggesting that this group of people have a higher baseline of work expectations to start with, being described as unrealistic whilst they envision 'having it all' (Ladge et al., 2012; Perrone & Vickers, 2003; Twenge, 2008). As previously mentioned in the literature review, young people have been found to hold unrealistic career expectations due to being uninformed about their upcoming working life (Ng et al., 2010), and this was also reflected in the interview findings around the reality of work as one enters the workplace. It has been suggested by researchers that inflated self-views and future work/career expectations are developed during the school years, with an increasing emphasis on self-esteem and high grades (Baumeister et al., 2003), as well parents driving 'expected' success behind their children (Alsop, 2008). This no doubt inflates expectations in young people ready to enter the workplace, with little consideration for the limitations of recessions and pressures on organisations in terms of job opportunities. Twenge and Campbell (2008) found that younger people receiving constant praise from parents and teachers, explains higher expectations in terms of optimism, as well as feedback and recognition when entering the workplace (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). This could help to explain the desire for many working preferences (e.g., variety, recognition, pay, progression, development, autonomy etc.), as well as the high levels of ambition, confidence and impatience identified in the young people interviewed for this study (despite preferences not always being met by employers).

Those who have been to university recognised their increased workplace expectations and values, suggesting a link to educational attainment; this adds further understanding to the perceptions of students as they enter the workplace (e.g., Donald et al., 2018).

Such elevated workplace and career expectations mean that individuals are not always prepared for entering the workplace. With work values being significant motivational indicators (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992, 2012), enduring and relatively resistant to change (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998), there can be incompatibility between an individual's preferences and their situation as they enter the workplace. Therefore, if such values are not being met, decisions and behaviours will be affected, as well as the importance, and meaning, of work to that individual (Šverko, 1989). The current study findings support the literature on workplace incongruity, as interview findings show high preferences across work values for young people, with these not always being met by their employer.

4.5.2 Preferences for Working and Career Requirements: Career Shifts to Individualistic Approaches

The qualitative interviews findings demonstrated clear themes around career progression, in particular flexibility, openness to change, confidence, independence and ambition regarding future career paths and mobility. These findings reveal that careers are changing, with a shift towards an individualistic approach, as young people take increased responsibility for their own career paths and are motivated to progress through job roles and organisations. As previously discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2), careers are changing, with a substantial movement towards unpredictability, and young individuals are taking responsibility for their careers as opposed to the organisation doing so (Bauman, 2007). Research confirms this, with non-traditional terms emerging in the careers literature such as the 'new career' (Dries & Verbruggen, 2012), 'boundaryless career' (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, 2001), 'kaleidoscope careers' (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, 2006) and 'protean career' (Hall, 2004).

Interview findings from this study showed that, on a day-to-day level, young people enjoy taking control of their work and having freedom granted to them by the

organisation. The same was felt when it came to career responsibility, and, although the interviewees were typically on a training programme with a clear progression route, they still strove for independence, especially with regard to career responsibility. Traditional definitions of careers link to sequential and linear paths over an individual's work-life cycle (Arthur et al., 1989; Levinson, 1978; Super, 1980), whereas these new views being displayed by the interviewees are much more dynamic and flexible. The young people interviewed in this study confirmed that they possess the personal drive, competitiveness and ambition to take risk-taking steps in their career progression, particularly when it comes to mobility and changing career paths across roles, organisations and geographical locations. This finding is in line with the literature, as, for example, "*job hopping*" is now viewed as a strategy for these young people to stay competitive in their careers, allowing them to develop a breadth of skills (Hall, 1996). Furthermore, research suggests that achievement striving can improve performance behaviours in relation to ambition, competitiveness and time urgency (Spence et al., 1987).

Interviewees placed high value on job variety and the opportunity to develop a range of skills to set them up for their careers, with a need for development and training from the organisation, as well as feedback from line managers. This still demonstrates some expectations of development from the organisation by young people, even though they accept responsibility for their career. Young people interviewed for this study reported a focus on gathering skills for the future, and recognised that workplaces and labour markets are changing, resulting in the need for individual proactivity and independence to navigate these. This desire for breadth in their individual skill development has been found to be of importance in the literature and, in particular, Hall's (1984) career stage model. Hall (1984) states that, during the early stages of their career, an individual aims to develop skills through experience, training, feedback, coaching and mentoring, and starts self-directed career planning. The findings in this study around self-directed career planning support this early career stage model. A focus on individual competencies and developing portable, transferable skill sets in the context of organisations and careers has become more highly recognised. In particular, these findings align with arguments in the careers literature for a career competency approach (e.g., DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994), promoting a focus on individuals learning and

networking to manage their own careers in unpredictable job markets. The findings from this study would support these career types by confirming the focus of young people on the attainment of a breadth of transferable, flexible and non-organisational specific skills.

The findings in this study reflect this change happening in how young people view their progression through their own careers, as well as how they are managing themselves with a much more proactive, open and individual focus. Interviewees discussed moving around in their future careers across jobs, organisations and industries, both nationally and internationally. The ‘new careers’ literature (Dries & Verbruggen, 2012; Inkson et al., 2012) recognises the globalisation of the labour market (Baruch et al., 2016; Baruch & Reis, 2016) and these young people are aware of the global opportunities available to them. The openness and flexible attitudes towards relocation, nationally and internationally, for one’s career was evident from the interviews. These interview findings support discussions in the literature around the increase in expatriate working by young people, aligning with boundaryless theory, career self-management and a shift to individualisation (Baruch et al., 2016; Guo & Al Ariss, 2015). Boundaries are broken down due to globalisation and discussions were had with interviewees about international working and a breadth of opportunities in different teams and departments. Less importance on job security, a reduction in the ‘job for life’ philosophy, and life stage (i.e., few family commitments) were found to enhance the adoption of a boundaryless career mindset in young people. This current study therefore supports the notion of a ‘boundaryless’ career, which involves the willingness to pursue and navigate opportunities across organisational boundaries (Briscoe et al., 2006; Arthur & Rousseau, 2001).

4.5.3 How are Work Values, Preferences and Career Expectations Formed and Changed during the Transition to Work? The ‘Reality Shock’ of Work and Personal Control

The interview findings showed that there is a discrepancy between expectations and reality in terms of expected job characteristics for young people entering the workplace. It was reported that there is a feel of ‘reality kicking in’ when young people

enter the workplace with elevated work and job expectations that are not always met by the organisation and/or working environment, particularly around development and career progression. Interviewees demonstrated a great desire for skill and career opportunities, training and development which are not always available to everyone due to various organisational restrictions such as competition, budgets, etc. Speed was again emphasised, with young individuals stating that they struggled with the reality of a lack of efficiency and 'slowness' in their organisations, with delays and challenges around hierarchies and decision-making in large organisations causing frustration. In the literature, this has been termed 'reality shock' or 'transition shock, or the 'expectations gap' (Dean, 1983; Porter & Steers, 1973). Work by Dracup and Morris (2008) proposed that all career transitions mean that individuals are faced with change between old and new roles in which they have to cope with various new pressures and priorities after years in education. Characteristics of 'role confusion' and 'adjustment' characterise early career stage models during the early exploration stages (e.g., Erikson, 1950; Levinson, 1978; Super, 1957, 1980), yet there is little discussed in these models about needs and desires not being met in terms of expectations. It has been found that organisational commitment decreases when expectations and experiences differ significantly when entering an organisation (Wanous et al., 1992), which would link to the openness by interviewees to change organisations and be highly mobile in their careers.

The findings about this 'reality shock' and work expectations not being met leading to openness in one's career can be explained in light of existing research on such issues. Sensemaking, the process whereby individuals aim to understand events or issues that violate, or are different from, their expectations (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014; Weick, 1995; Weick et al., 2005), can add insight about how young people address this incongruity between entering the workplace and not having their work expectations met (Cristofaro, 2021). This experience becomes more significant when there is a substantial difference between new and old environments (Louis, 1980a, 1980b; Polach, 2004). Louis (1980b) describes this transition into organisations for young people as being "*characterized by disorientation, foreignness, and a kind of sensory overload*" (p.230). Sensemaking processes are believed to be retrospective (Louis, 1980a; Weick, 1995), making the past clearer; however, more recent studies suggest that this is also prospective

(Gephart et al., 2010). Adopting this prospective sensemaking viewpoint explains why these young people are looking forward, or upwards in many cases, regarding their careers when making sense of the unexpected reality of their work. With an eye continually on their progression (Hirschi et al., 2013; Hershatter & Epstein, 2010), sensemaking allows young people to address reality and work values that may not be fulfilled (Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2020; Schildt et al., 2019).

Interview findings demonstrated that young people, on entering organisations, are desiring high levels of feedback and recognition regarding their performance and development. Indeed, all newcomers in organisations have been found to require this in order to reduce uncertainty (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Uncertainty in future career paths was reported to be common by young people who are experiencing this lack of congruence with their work expectations. Drawing on prior research for insight into the study findings, I suggest that, through this sensemaking process, young people attempt to take control back of the work situation when their unique work values, preferences and expectations are not being fulfilled (Wall & Olofsson, 2008; Schildt et al., 2019). This is evident in the study findings, where career planning and self-management are common, often with little responsibility on the organisation, for young people entering the workplace. A benefit of this discrepancy is reported in the research as, although young people's work and career aspirations and expectations can be unrealistically high compared to what they attain, they actually go on to develop themselves in response to such situations (Shu & Marini, 1997), and this is evident in their desire for training and skill growth.

Regardless of this discrepancy found between expectations and the realities of work in terms of progression, development and opportunities, these young people remain confident, optimistic and ambitious, often in the face of uncertainty about their future job roles and career progression. The study's findings indicate that individuals are confident that they will perform well and still reach the career stage or job role they wish to without much discussion or consideration of *how* to get there. This optimism and self-belief support the 'upwards' focus identified in the current study around progression, with young people 'having their eye on the prize' at all times. Findings show that self-efficacy

in these young people remains high with regard to future careers, despite reports of them having low controllability about securing a permanent (after their training programme). Self-efficacy, the belief in one's own ability to achieve a challenge or task (Bandura, 1986, 2006), has been found to remain strong throughout early career stages (Maurer, 2001). Reflecting on the body of literature, self-efficacy is a cognitive appraisal of judgement of future performance capabilities (Betz & Hackett, 2006), so, through prospective sensemaking, it can be suggested that young people also deal with the reality of work by holding onto high levels of self-belief when thinking about their future careers. This understanding further supports the idea that, through high levels of career self-management and planning, young people may be protecting themselves and their perceived abilities from the realities and uncertainties of work that are not meeting their initial values and expectations.

The high self-efficacy and self-belief around future work expectations and career paths were also highlighted in the study, as individuals stated that they would leave their organisation if their work needs were not met. Findings showed that career responsibility clearly lies with the individuals. Drawing on the research literature, this demonstrates the importance of the young individual's expectations in the psychological contract, the perceived mutual obligation between two parties (Rousseau, 1989). The evaluation of the employment relationship is highly complex in terms of personal and social constructions of reality, particularly when they do not match up (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995), as found in the current study findings. As reported, young people reflect on the discrepancy and 'reality shock' around work expectations; they take their careers into their own hands, with their own motivation, ambition and self-planning. This aligns with findings where perceptions of psychological contract fulfilment have been found to influence job attitudes and behaviours (Zhao et al., 2007). Breaches of, or discrepancies around, the psychological contract have been also been found to threaten an individual's self-concept (Bal & Vink, 2011), whilst also being found to trigger sensemaking in order to make sense and respond to such a situation (Bankins, 2015). Taking back control in terms of individual career and progression planning was found to be a strategy reported by interviewees to address the uncertainty and misalignment in expectations and realities of work on entry to the job and organisation.

Individuals interviewed showed high career mobility and low job security needs, with little concern about leaving an organisation and the relationships created there if they felt they were not progressing as they expected to. Social exchanges have been found to play a role in the evaluation of a work relationship and contribute to potentially perceived psychological contract breaches (Blau, 1964). Regarding social exchanges and interactions, findings showed that, although interaction is enjoyed, social relationships with colleagues were mainly reported to be focused around networking and gathering information primarily for one's own career development. If an exchange relationship is perceived as inferior, individuals will reciprocate with actions in order to aim to reduce the discrepancy (Festinger, 1957), in this case, moving to another job, organisation or industry.

This study found that individuals are taking personal control over their careers, which may reduce the 'job for life' philosophy within organisations and create lower levels of organisational commitment. This suggests that the phenomenon of the psychological contract is evolving and becoming less resilient in the sense that younger individuals are shifting more focus to themselves and their needs, rather than what the organisation needs or is *able* to offer. This study shows that individual career responsibility is highly prominent as young people enter the workplace, and more generally idiosyncratic deals are becoming more common as individual career responsibility increases (Blyler & Coff, 2003; Rousseau, 2001). A mismatch appears to be happening with regard to the reality of work perceived by young people as they enter organisations, and the question is whether organisations are keeping up with evolving psychological contracts and recognising that changes are happening in terms of expectations and commitment within the new influx of young employees. As young people enter the workplace with changing expectations, which may or may not be met, the outcomes of such realisation should be considered by organisations to aim to retain their new trainees whom they are investing in (i.e., through training, development).

4.5.4 How are Work Values, Preferences and Career Expectations Formed and Changed during the Transition to Work? Aligning the ‘Self’ and Organisational Values

In this study, there was a requirement reported by interviewees for organisations that are autonomous, fresh and that have a culture of openness, providing development opportunities, choice and autonomy. Contentment within a company, as well as initial attraction, was found to be linked to the organisational values, ethical stance, reputation and branding by the young individuals interviewed. Prestige around the organisation’s branding and public perception, fairness and investment in employees were also considered to be important to individuals. This links in with the notion of young people having elevated expectations (see Section 4.5.2), as the organisational setting is significant, and can be seen to align with *intrinsic* work values of individuals, i.e., what the organisation believes in should support the individual’s values around achievement, recognition, challenge, etc. In particular, the young people in this study felt that how they are perceived by others for working in their organisation was very important to them and they showed a desire for this to fit with their portrayed self-identity. These findings align with research studies showing that, when entering a new company, individuals have expectations about how they will fit, match or align, often viewing this process positively (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Wanous, 1992). Again, this positive view of matching or fitting with an individual’s company is in line with interview findings of optimism and high expectations in terms of what a job and organisation will offer a newly employed individual (which are not always met).

Findings showed that individuals want to have the freedom to bring their own personal working style, identity and individual contribution to their job roles, allowing them to be authentic in the workplace. Personal values and individualistic styles are clearly important for young people, with findings showing a preference to have less discrepancy or fewer boundaries between their ‘work selves’ and ‘home selves’. Many interviewees reported that they are sociable and relaxed in the workplace when they can authentically be themselves. Findings showed that current ‘work selves’ self-representations are changing for young employees, with their identities being highly

similar in and out of the workplace. As with authentic leadership, it is suggested in the literature that younger individuals have a more authentic self-identity inside and outside the workplace, with more consistency and coherence in their behaviours and actions across situations and contexts aligning with their ‘true’ self (Markus, 1977; Ryan et al., 1995). Research supports the idea that young people are increasingly open-minded and less formal in the workplace (Taylor & Keeter, 2010), which is in line with the interview findings in the current study. With young individuals having an authentic identity in the workplace, i.e., one persona, this can increase self-connection and thereby meaning in work. In addition, this authenticity can help to provide a sense of meaning and order in one’s life (Gecas, 1991).

Existing research states that authenticity at work emerges when there is a match between an individual and their work environment (Van den Bosch & Taris, 2014), with one research study showing that authenticity mediates the relationship between P-O fit and positive work outcomes (e.g., engagement, work meaning) (Kuntz & Abbott, 2017). P-O fit is the fit, or match, between an individual’s personal values and the organisational values (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Holland and Gottfredson, 1976; Schneider, 1978), with value congruence being found to enhance work engagement (Sortheix et al., 2013). It is evident from the current interview study that P-O fit is important for young people as they enter their new organisations and aspire for their values to fit with their employers, particularly around values relating to working preferences (e.g., autonomy) and development opportunities. If an organisation’s values are consistent with a person’s authentic self and values, this would have increasingly positive outcomes, e.g., work engagement, job satisfaction, commitment, wellbeing, etc. (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Van den Bosch et al., 2019).

It is clear from the current study that the values of an organisation, and thereby P-O fit, are important, yet there are still many ‘wants’, ‘expectations’ and ‘demands’ from the employee around their work. Overall, understanding around work has experienced a shift in perspective back to the ‘self’, with individuals focusing considerably on what *they* want from an organisation and their work, rather than what they *can offer* to the organisation. Self-fulfilment through achieving a sense of purpose in work and adding

value, was reported to be important as a strong internal motivator for individuals. However, there was little recognition of organisational strategies or vision reported during the interviews; rather, such intrinsic motivation and values were discussed at the individual ‘self’ level in terms of their own contentment at work; this demonstrates a strong focus on individual agency in terms of career and work decisions and behaviours. Although the ‘greater good’ of the organisation was discussed by interviewees in terms of wider corporate social responsibility, ethics and reputation, there is an element of disregard for the company needs in terms of productivity, and this reflects changing careers and an evolving psychological contract. Organisations thus have the challenge of managing the psychological contract with high and individualistic employee expectations, in the context of changing careers.

4.5.5 Contributions to Theory

It is clear from these qualitative study findings that the work values of young individuals are extremely important to them in constructing their expectations of the workplace, driving their careers, and determining their satisfaction working within a particular organisation. Contributions to research are discussed below with reference also to the research questions outlined earlier in Chapter 2, and at the start of this chapter.

Research question one (RQ1) asked, “What are the working values and preferences of young people and how do these affect their perceptions of their new workplace?” Looking at this transitional period of entering the workplace, there are clearly high expectations in terms of values and working preferences demonstrated by young people and this becomes a key characteristic of this transitional stage. Working preferences, and in particular work values, have been found to be broad and dynamic in young individuals, suggesting they are not mutually exclusive by type (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, status and social). These work values drive, and are highly intertwined with, careers and work expectations.

The study findings also address the first part of research question two (RQ2), “How do the work values of young people change and develop as they enter the workplace?” This research challenges existing work value models that are used to

understand young people's working preferences as they enter organisations. Typically, in the literature, extrinsic and intrinsic work values are structured in conceptual models as being opposing (Elizur, 1984; Ginzberg et al., 1951; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Sortheix et al., 2015; Sullivan et al., 1998). This study challenges such theoretical models and suggests that intrinsic and extrinsic work values (as well as social and prestige) are not mutually exclusive, with young people having high desires for different types of work values concurrently. Findings around work values dimensions are reflected on and reviewed in light of the research findings later in the final Discussion section (Chapter 6), integrating the quantitative study findings.

The third research question, regarding the changes that occur during transition to an individual's new workplace, is addressed as the current study shows experiences of 'reality shock' (Dean, 1983; Dracup & Morris, 2008; Kim & Kim, 2021; Sezen-Gultekin & Nartgun, 2018) and an 'expectations gap' (Porter & Steers, 1973) that young people are facing as employers are not always able to meet their breadth of work values and desires. This study contributes to the research by supporting and updating the 'reality shock' perspective as much of the research published on this dates back to the 1970s and 80s. Despite some awareness of this phenomenon, 'reality shock' and expectations not being met has not been integrated into seminal career stage models (e.g., Erikson, 1950; Levinson, 1978; Super, 1957, 1980). The study also enhances existing theory, highlighting the need for further publications around this topic, particularly in the demographic group of young people entering the workplace. There is also support here for understanding how work values are instilled in young people, with a focus on their upbringing and education.

Supporting the new careers theory (e.g., Dries & Verbruggen, 2012; Inkson et al., 2012), the study found that a short-term, open and flexible view was being adopted by young people in terms of their future careers and organisational tenure. The theoretical area is enhanced because, although young people accepted that they will move jobs and/or leave their organisation in the near future, there was little long-term planning. Young people appear to be focusing on the short-term prospects due to the reality of work not being quite as they had expected, and their needs and values not being met. This study

linked together these shifting career ideas, with young people experiencing a mismatch in expectations on entering organisations, or ‘reality shock’, supporting the contribution of sensemaking theory to this topic (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014; Weick et al., 2005). An individual’s identity is intertwined with the idea of ‘having it all’ in terms of career success (Ladge et al., 2012), and such identity threat due to a mismatch in expectations and experience can lead to sensemaking (Louis, 1980a), in order to protect one’s self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-concept (Dahm et al., 2019; Rothausen et al., 2017). Based on the study findings, consideration of how sensemaking may be used to cope with career transitions, and unmet expectations, may be insightful for this group of young individuals. Previous research has found that career transitions where there is a mismatch between one’s self and job requirements/values, can affect an individual’s identity (e.g. Pratt et al., 2006; Santuzzi & Waltz, 2016).

Overall, the existing research evidence around young people moving towards increased self-managed careers and individual career planning is supported by this study (e.g., Gubler et al., 2014). This is also in line with adopting a short-term, dynamic and flexible approach to their careers, supporting theory around boundaryless and protean careers, as well as increased mobility and openness to job transitions (e.g., Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, 2001; Baruch et al., 2016). However, not all of the training programmes that interviewees were undertaking offered a permanent job at the end. It may therefore seem logical for individuals to view the future in the short term as it would currently be uncertain, ambiguous and changeable for them. This should be taken into account when interpreting findings for the current study. Research into ‘new careers’ continues to change, adapt and evolve, shifting more towards this short-term, individual approach (e.g., Twenge et al., 2010; Wray-Lake et al., 2011), and the current study strengthens these ideas. The findings of this study further enhance theory and suggest that young people remain optimistic and show high self-efficacy around their future work and career throughout the transition into the workplace, even as their expectations are not being met.

A further perspective has been highlighted by the participants in this study: with evolving psychological contracts occurring in the workplace, discrepancies between individual and organisational values change the working relationship between employee

and employer. This has become imbalanced, with younger people concerned about organisational values, yet allowing their own work and career values to direct their decisions and behaviours. This aligns with a great deal of research demonstrating changes around the psychological contract and suggesting it is a “*living process*” (Persson & Wasieleski, 2015, p.378), reflecting individualistic or ‘new’ forms of careers (Inkson & King, 2011). The study demonstrated the significance and meaning of individualism and authenticity to young people who wish to be themselves inside and outside of the workplace, expanding existing theory on work identities and authenticity in terms of new employees ‘matching’ with their organisation (e.g., Van den Bosch & Taris, 2014), and applying this specifically to young people who are entering their careers. This transitional stage has not been considered in this context of authenticity before and contributes to research by emphasising the importance of an authentic identity to young employees entering organisations. When considering how young people feel they match an organisation in terms of values and being themselves, there is also some regard for the organisational values and how they see themselves ‘fitting in’. There was little mentioned in the current study about the stability of work values, yet these ideas are explored further in study two (Chapter 5) to recognise theory around P-O fit and socialisation into organisations, as well as the stability of work values.

This qualitative study makes a valuable contribution to existing research and theory through further understanding of psychological concepts around work values, career orientations, authenticity, work identities and expectations, enhancing and highlighting new avenues for exploration in the research. The strengthening of the new careers literature is an important contribution by this study. There are clearly strong links between work values and the ‘self’, with young people showing a desire to be themselves inside and outside of work, and the alignment of this within the organisational context is also important to these individuals.

4.6 Study Limitations

The present study is not without limitations. Firstly, as with all qualitative interview research, there is subjectivity and self-report involved (Mann, 2016; Mays &

Pope, 2000). Reports on working behaviours and expectations will be influenced by individual backgrounds and unique experiences of entering the company, e.g., relationships with co-workers, ability, chance of a permanent job. In addition, participants were at different stages of their training programmes, with some just beginning and others nearing the end. There could have been changes in the training programmes which could affect the work and career values and expectations, rather than the general transition to work, and these were not considered in the interviews.

Although gender, training programme and industry type were analysed, there was variety found around these demographics, resulting in a slightly uneven sample. As gender differences have been found previously in work values research (e.g., Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Sortheix et al., 2015), this may have influenced the primary themes emerging from the data during the analysis process, limiting the transferability of the findings. The study was restricted to the UK, with three large multinational organisations, where it is common to hire a large number of young trainees once or twice a year. This means that the context of the study is based on the economic and societal trends in this region, which could affect the opinions, viewpoints and attitudes of the interviewees, again possibly restricting transferability of findings. Context is key in research, and the reader can determine the applicability of this based on the clear sampling and procedure outlined in the chapter. Furthermore, the multinational nature of the organisations used in the sample may restrict the findings, which may not be as applicable to smaller, local or national organisations. It is recognised that this does not fully represent the labour market, with more of a focus on the experiences of young people entering large international organisations only. As previously mentioned, the study does not aim to generalise findings to all young adults entering the workplace globally. The overall sampling technique, i.e., convenience and snowball sampling, could have been more rigorous in ensuring that all interviewees were close to the age of ‘young people’ as defined by the literature (i.e., transitioning into young adulthood at approximately 20 to 24 years), to remove the four older (29 to 30 years) interviewees in the sample. Recruiting within organisations can lead to over-reliance on participants who the researcher, or the ‘gatekeeper’, has ready access to (Saunders & Townsend, 2016). Nevertheless, as mentioned, specific age-related maturity experiences were not the focus of the study and

it was felt that some flexibility with the definition of “young people” was possible given the focus on the transition into the workplace.

Different types of interviews were also conducted, with both face-to-face and telephone mediums being used across participants, which could have affected the medium of the interview and standardisation of semi-structured questioning, as well as engagement with the interviewer, potentially introducing bias (Mays & Pope, 2000). Mixed evidence has been found in previous research, with suggestions that more socially acceptable responses are given in face-to-face interviews compared to telephone interviews due to the ‘social component’ being involved, and that telephone interviewees are more relaxed and honest in their responses (Colombotos, 1969; Novick, 2008). However, standardisation was ensured throughout the interview process in the current study to reduce any interview differences or bias, and interview questions did not aim to elicit socially acceptable responses, i.e., questions were posed to generate genuine responses and no judgement was shown by the interviewer. No major differences were identified in the data from those who undertook a face-to-face interview compared to those who undertook a telephone interview.

Finally, the reliability of the coding could have been strengthened with a second formal coder. The lack of inter-rater reviewing of the themes could suggest that caution needs to be taken with the final themes; however, Braun and Clarke (2006) advocate the use of reason and extracts to support an argument made. This means that bias could have affected the data analysis process with having just one researcher gathering, coding and interpreting the interview data, allowing their viewpoints to determine or influence the emerging themes based on their knowledge of the research area. The researcher was aware of this risk and aimed to hold a degree of neutrality, with no pre-suppositions, when analysing the data. As discussed previously, triangulation was also considered with the reviewing of themes by academic supervisors to strengthen the reliability and validity of findings.

Despite these limitations, the findings from this current study have important implications for research into work and career values, as well as the transition, of young people entering organisations, demonstrating contributions to developing work values

and career theory and research, as well as allowing insight by organisations into retaining and engaging young people in changing working environments.

4.7 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the working preferences, work and career values and orientations, experiences and opinions of young people who are entering the workplace as early-career trainees. It was important to collect qualitative data from these individuals in order to understand their viewpoint, perceptions and expectations. This chapter presented the study procedures, data analysis and the six themes that emerged from the collected data. These identified themes highlighted the key psychological aspects around work values and expectations, as well as approaches to career and relationships with the organisational environment, during the transition into the workplace for young people. These findings have clearly demonstrated insight into the work and career values, preferences and expectations of young people entering the workplace in their first job role. The study has contributed to the field of research by challenging the conceptual models of work values, particularly from the viewpoint of young people with a breadth of value preferences. This links to value expectations not being met by employers and the experience of a realisation on entry to organisations, identifying a need for this body of research to be updated for young people. The study supports the new careers literature emphasising a short-term, open and flexible approach to careers by young people, also recognising a focus on individual career planning and self-management in order to manage unmet expectations by employers. There are high levels of confidence and self-efficacy identified from the perspective of young people regarding their transition to work and their future careers. Finally, the study opened up insights regarding young people's desire to be themselves and behave authentically in the workplace, supporting research around the importance of organisational values and 'fitting in'.

This study addressed the key research questions and adds understanding to the research base on the topics discussed, particularly from the viewpoint of young people transitioning to working life. Although work preferences, values and careers have been

explored, the identification of some further concepts is suggested for further investigation in the subsequent quantitative study (Chapter 5). This study has enabled the gathering, analysis and interpretation of rich, subjective retrospective accounts of young people entering the workplace and insight has been gained into their work values, expectations and perspectives as they experience this transition. There are three main ways in which the qualitative study findings and discussion generate a rationale to conduct Phase two, or study two, of the wider mixed methods initiative.

First, the second study needs to explore further, over time, the development and changes in work values of young people entering the workplace. In particular, the four-factor model used in the current research (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010) can be explored quantitatively to understand the relationships between these through statistical factor analysis. Furthermore, it would be useful to look in more detail at the three transitional, or socialisation, points around entry into organisations to understand the stability of personal work values (which was not discussed much in this interview study), i.e., pre-entry, shortly after entry, and later after entry. A longitudinal survey approach, as adopted in the quantitative study allows for this.

Second, as this qualitative study has identified the importance of work values and expectations not always being met as young people enter the workplace, as well as the consideration of organisational values and settings, there is more focus on the organisational environment, newcomer adjustment, P-O fit and values fit in the next study to understand this alignment, or misalignment, further to investigate the behavioural outcomes. Perceived organisational values, organisational investiture and job satisfaction are examined in more detail to understand the influence of these factors on personal work value stability.

Finally, as self-efficacy remained high in the face of an expectations gap on entry to the workplace, this is further explored in relation to work value stability in the next study, as well as placing more focus on the influence of age to identify any effects of older or younger people as they transition to the workplace. A further literature review was conducted to introduce the focus on newcomer adjustment, socialisation, P-O and values fits and to justify the inclusion of, and appreciate the existing research on,

psychological concepts and theory to be investigated in the ensuing study. From a practical perspective, with an influx of young people into workplaces (Burke et al., 2013; Fishman, 2016), recognising the requirements of these individuals is vital for businesses to ensure retention and avoid high turnover rates that are evident (e.g., Ertas, 2015; Lyons et al., 2015).

The wider research project aims to overcome the issue of descriptive research into young people and their work expectations, careers, etc. (Joshi et al., 2011), by complementing this initial qualitative study with a follow-on quantitative survey study, adding further explanation and theoretical developments to the field. The quantitative study allowed deeper understanding objectively through exploring the variables at specific time points. Chapter 5 presents quantitative study two, utilising a longitudinal survey research design to further investigate and understand the findings that have emerged from this study.

Chapter 5 - Quantitative Longitudinal Survey

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the second study in this body of research; a longitudinal quantitative investigation into the stability of personal work values at three time points over approximately four to six months, as individuals enter an organisation, as well as the moderating psychological factors influencing that stability. The constructs, theoretical models and stability of work values have initially been discussed in the first literature review (Chapter 2), and, in the current chapter, relevant literature is re-visited in the context of the findings of the qualitative study (Chapter 4). Thus, work values in the context of newcomer adjustment and socialisation, as well as P-O and work values fit, are discussed to set the general perspective and foundation for this quantitative study. This stage of the research (i.e., development of the quantitative study) draws on theory from adjustment and socialisation processes, from a fit perspective, and investigates the stability of the personal work values of newcomers during this transitional period, as well as key psychological moderators influencing potential changes. As identified in the qualitative study, it is clear there is a turbulent transitional period, with work values being broad, and often unmet by the employer, so the focus now shifts to the *stability* of personal work values over specific time points in this transitional process. The rationale for this study and the introduction of these key moderators are based on the qualitative study findings outlined in the previous chapter and existing research.

Overall, previous research on newcomer adjustment and organisational socialisation has found many positive effects for both the employee and the organisation in terms of improved P-O fit, increased feelings of acceptance, organisational commitment and productivity (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Saks et al., 2007) (as outlined below in this chapter). Focusing in on work values fit and stability, the qualitative findings from the wider research project suggested that, as well as young people having elevated and broader work values, there is less distinction between work values from a conceptual point of view in particular extrinsic and intrinsic work values, implying that these may not be mutually exclusive, as

previously thought by researchers (Bristow et al., 2011; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2013; Hansen & Leuty, 2012; Krahn & Galambos, 2014; Kultalahti & Viitala, 2015; Lyons et al., 2007; Real et al., 2010; Sullivan et al., 1998). Participants discussed their strong desire for authenticity and ensuring that their work values were aligned with the organisation's values, which raises questions of young people's stability in values during their transition to work. If it is assumed that organisations cannot align with every newcomer's values, to what extent will young people's work values stay stable and generate a sense of authenticity over time, or will they be less stable, unable to generate a sense of authenticity between in-work and outside-work? Due to the unrealistic expectations of work that young people hold as they enter organisations, as identified in the qualitative findings, adjustments to work values may take place as suggested in the academic literature (e.g., Louis, 1980b; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008), thereby questioning their stability. The stability of these work values as young people enter the workplace is revisited in the literature before being examined in more depth in this quantitative study, to identify any key trends or changes upon entry to organisations and shortly after. The same four-factor model of work values was adopted in this study as in the qualitative study (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010).

The qualitative study also provided indications of constructs that might influence the stability of personal work values as a newcomer enters an organisation. In this chapter, these ideas are developed based on a literature review and theoretical grounding, and argue a rationale to investigate organisational values, organisational investiture, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and age as moderators of this relationship. More specifically, the existing body of research reflects on the role that organisational values play in the stability of work values of newcomers, and the importance of the organisational context as well as values were highlighted by interview participants in the qualitative study. Socialisation into organisations is dependent on both individual and contextual factors, including organisational investiture by the company and job satisfaction, which are both recognised as important in this stage of the research (e.g., Busque-Carrier et al., 2021; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Rani & Samuel, 2016; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b; Saks et al., 2007; Sousa & Porto, 2016; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). Additionally, P-O fit has been found to influence a range of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes such as job satisfaction

(Verquer et al., 2003), while age has been noted as an important covariate for studies of young people. As well as highlighting the importance of the organisational context for the transition to organisations, study one also showed higher levels of self-efficacy in young people regarding their new, and future, careers. Self-efficacy was found to be important as newcomers enter the workplace, being linked to newcomer adjustment and work values (e.g., Barni et al., 2019; Saks, 1995), yet the influencing role of self-efficacy on the stability of work values upon entry to a new organisation has not been explored to date. Finally, as age forms a key foundation for the scope of this overall body of research, the inclusion of this as a moderator variable adds a novel perspective. There are many seminal and influential theories that focus on age as an important covariate in studies of work values, attitudes and motivations, e.g., Age stability hypothesis (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980), socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1995), selection-optimization-compensation (soc) theory (Baltes et al., 1999). Yet, there has been little focus specifically on the moderating effect of age on the stability of work values of young people transitioning to work. The justifications for the inclusion of the study variables are discussed in further detail in this chapter, with further literature review findings presented.

The objectives of this study therefore are as follows (with more specific hypothesis development presented later in the chapter) (N.B. RQ1 was the focus of the qualitative study):

1. Test the stability of a young person's work values as they enter the organisation and transition to work (RQ2); and
2. Identify the factors (i.e., moderators) that disrupt this stability and change a young person's work values (RQ3).

To achieve these, I will:

- Examine the relationships of personal work values (extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige) across three time points as individuals enter an organisation; that is, testing the stability of work values;

- Examine the moderating effects of organisational work values, organisational investiture, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and age across all three time points on personal work values.

The following chapter will outline the literature background on work values fit in the context of newcomer adjustment and socialisation, study hypotheses, methodology, results and discussion for the longitudinal quantitative survey study. In this current study, personal work values have been captured at three time points to analyse their stability: one to six weeks prior to entry, one to two months after entry, and three to six months after entry (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). Moderator variables were measured after entry (except age, which was also measured prior to entry) in order to identify the effects on the direction and/or strength of personal values. Confirmatory factor analyses are presented in this chapter to ensure the accuracy of constructs being measured and the validation of the measures themselves. The validity of the measures used was supported in the whole measurement model form. The statistical analyses and results are presented in line with the hypotheses and then discussed in light of existing research to summarise the key findings and contributions from this study.

5.2 Revisiting the Literature: Newcomer Adjustment, Socialisation and Fit

The following sections present a follow-up literature review as the researcher revisited the literature to present this quantitative study two. The sections below serve the purpose of providing a general perspective on newcomer adjustment and socialisation from a work values fit perspective, drawing on key literature and research. The inclusion of this section also helps to explain key concepts and background, leading to the development of the quantitative study hypotheses in the next section.

As individuals enter the workplace, there are research findings to support the notion of adjustment for these newcomers as they transition and progress into their new roles and working environments. The concept of newcomer adjustment focuses on an individual's knowledge, confidence and motivation to perform a work role, and their commitment to the organisation and its goals (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

Bringing the focus to the population of the current research, Wendlandt and Rochlen (2008) propose that, during this transition that people make from full-time education (i.e., adolescence) to the workplace (i.e., young adulthood), they have to experience three stages, incorporating aspects from existing career development theories. The three stages are:

1. *Anticipation* – collecting and evaluating information to form their employment expectations. An exploratory stage that occurs pre-entry to the organisation.
2. *Adjustment* – entering the new working environment and becoming familiar with it. This stage is focused on organisational entry and newcomers are establishing themselves in their organisation.
3. *Achievement* – recognising their role within the organisation and making a decision on whether they will stay or not. At this stage, employees determine if they wish to stay or not and may socialise themselves into the organisation by adopting new values or modifying existing ones.

This model proposes that work values are *not* stable as newcomers enter organisations, particularly during the adjustment stage, placing dependency on the context, or work environment, in which they are entering. Stage two focuses on workplace entry – *Adjustment* – which is a crucial stage, and the basis and focal time point of this quantitative study. This stage is where young people evaluate the workplace they have just entered and assess the match, or mismatch, between their values and expectations and the reality (Louis, 1980b). This is a critical time discussed in the qualitative study when findings supported the ‘reality shock’ and ‘expectations gap’ (Dean, 1983; Dracup & Morris, 2008; Kim & Kim, 2021; Porter & Steers, 1973). Newcomers who then adjust their work expectations to fit with the organisation have been found to experience many struggles in transitioning (Holton & Russell, 1997; Louis, 1980b), which can result in work withdrawal (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Hulin, 1991) or complete withdrawal through employee turnover (Polach, 2004; Saks et al., 2007; Sturges & Guest, 2001; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). This research suggests that adjusting their

work expectations to meet their new organisational environment can be detrimental for individuals.

Some researchers have argued that stage models, such as the one detailed here by Wendlandt and Rochlen (2008), do not truly represent the newcomer adjustment, or organisational socialisation, process as individuals pass through it, limiting the theoretical understanding and psychological insight (Fisher, 1986; Morrison, 1993a; Schneider, 1978; Weiss, 1990). Stage models propose that an individual must pass through one stage before the next, in a linear, rigid fashion, without actually considering the influence of psychological variables between the stages (Bauer & Green, 1994; Feldman, 1976). Thus, Bauer and Green (1994) argue for more of a cumulative process of adjustment and socialisation whereby young people entering the workplace as newcomers continue to learn, adjust and be accommodated into organisations. They also state that stage theories can be useful to understand psychological variables emerging within a more general time frame, i.e., newcomers not being restricted to a set path (Bauer & Green, 1994; Weiss, 1990), which would overlook factors such as the 'reality shocks' noted by participants in the qualitative study. Therefore, as newcomer adjustment focuses on the knowledge, motivation and commitment of individuals entering organisations, as they adjust to their environment, socialisation processes play a role as these individuals start to obtain new information and adapt. Socialisation processes can help with this adjustment to overcome and address issues such as withdrawal around expectations not being met on entry to organisations.

The current research takes this cumulative approach by following the process of newcomer adjustment outlined through this model by Wendlandt and Rochlen (2008), in particular focusing on the adjustment stage upon organisational entry. Although stage theories have been critiqued for being too linear, recognising key transitional points for young people entering organisations is of importance for this research. By pinpointing this key time period through the quantitative study design, the levels of stability in work values as young people enter and adjust to their new working environment can be examined in more detail, addressing the aims of the research.

Such accumulations occur as young people learn about their organisation and become socialised into it (Bauer & Green, 1994); thus, organisational socialisation is seen as an alignment process, where individuals adjust their views to appreciate the values, needs, expectations and social norms and behaviours of their employer (Louis, 1980b; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Organisational socialisation is defined as the process through which newcomers obtain relevant knowledge and skills, and adapt to the norms and values of their working environment (Fisher, 1986; Polach, 2004; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanberg, 2012). It guides individuals as they enter an organisation for the first time, teaching them how to become a proficient and effective member of the organisation (Ashforth et al., 2007).

In contrast to stage models around adjustment and socialisation, Louis (1980b) presented a process model that considers the sensemaking process (introduced in the previous chapter) as well as the ‘surprise’ elements that emerge when entering the workplace as a young person. Louis (1980b) states that newcomers become socialised as they demonstrate their ability to *explain* surprising events and *predict* future occurrences. Sensemaking is a thinking process, and, in this case, newcomers in organisations would interpret and attribute new meaning and cognitive understanding to the uncertainty that they are experiencing as they transition into the workplace (Louis, 1980b; Reichers, 1987). Uncertainty and ambiguity are, of course, common during the transition into the workplace, being recognised by both Wendlandt and Rochlen (2008) and Louis (1980b), as young people face unfamiliar responsibilities, increasing independence and the development of new personal and social identities. Following on from the findings around expectations and work values not being met as young people enter the workplace, the current quantitative study aimed to test the stability of work values in young people entering organisations over three time periods around the entry and the adjustment period (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008).

Socialisation is central to P-O fit as this involves change, and the congruence of work values of newcomers is central to its goals, promoting coordination between the individual and their working environment (Jones, 1986; Kim et al., 2005; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Empirical studies have found that socialisation enhances the fit between

newcomers and organisations (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim et al., 2005). Socialisation has been linked to *perceived* P-O fit, as opposed to *actual* P-O fit, and perceptions of self-value change, as well as changing perceptions of organisational values (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004). Young adults are transitioning from adolescence and educational years, where there was a large focus on individual growth and development, and moving into a world where the focus is on wider and collective team and organisational goals (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). With a great deal of change going on through newcomer adjustment, socialisation and fit, these surprising events are therefore crucial to my study. Thus, I will now turn to literature on P-O fit.

Person-organisation (P-O) fit has been defined as the “*compatibility between people and organisations*” (Kristof, 1996, p.4), when individuals and organisations share similar characteristics, meeting each other’s needs (Bowen et al., 1991; Sekiguchi, 2004). P-O fit focuses on the relationship between an individual and their organisational environment, having an effect on their attitudes and behaviour, relating to many outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Westerman & Cyr, 2004; Westerman & Vanka, 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). The achievement of P-O fit is therefore seen as desirable, by both the organisation and the newcomer, particularly during a transitional period of socialisation as young people are adjusting into their new roles.

Typically, P-O fit is distinguished from person-job (P-J) fit, which is more focused on the role and tasks at hand within the employee’s job role, whereas P-O fit focuses on commitment to the wider organisation (Kristof, 1996; Vogel & Feldman, 2009). The majority of research exploring both P-O fit and P-J fit is focused on the outcomes (e.g., Johnson et al., 2012; Sirén et al., 2021; Verquer et al., 2003), as opposed to how they emerge over time. Arthur et al. (2006), in their meta-analysis, found that P-O fit is actually limited in predicting true job performance; therefore, rather than measuring criterion-related fit, attitudinal-related fit is the focus of much of the existing research.

The theory of work adjustment (TWA) by Lofquist and Dawis (1969) is a seminal theory underpinning the matching perspective of individuals in the workplace. The TWA proposes that a match between an individual's job rewards preference (i.e., their needs) and their perceptions of available job rewards will result in improved employment stability and increased job satisfaction (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969; Swanson & Schneider, 2013; Weiss et al., 1967). It is therefore clear to see how the TWA suggests that P-O fit is a significant process within organisational life, and in particular entering an organisation. As in any relationship, it will be maintained as long as the two parties are mutually attracted to each other. If there is a mismatch, or a discrepancy starts to appear, then dissonance is introduced, with negative impacts on both parties, e.g., lower job satisfaction and higher levels of turnover intention (Schneider, 1987, 2001; Schneider et al., 1995).

From early studies into P-O fit, work values have been viewed as an important category in the field of research (Locke, 1976). Research has found that newcomers into an organisation assess how well they fit into their new environment with regard to their work values, which becomes a defining measurement of P-O fit (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Finegan, 2000; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, 1997c). Cennamo and Gardner (2008) propose 'person-organisation values fit'; this concept is in line with earlier work on values fit in organisations. P-O values fit explains the congruence in cognitive schemas, particularly in terms of what is perceived as effective, between the employee and the organisation (often displayed through managers) (Rousseau, 2001). Work value congruence has been found to be the strongest predictor of behavioural and attitudinal outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover, more so than P-J fit outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Chatman, 1991; de Lara, 2008; Kristof, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Ostroff et al., 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b; Werbel & DeMarie, 2005).

The view of the majority of the research is that organisations have values that provide the context in which the individual enters, either satisfying or aligning with the individual's values or not, affecting their P-O fit (Kristof, 1996; Rani & Samuel, 2016). This view adopts a 'fit' perspective, yet it is important not to over-emphasise the matching

process, with recognition of the dynamic interactions taking place during the socialisation and adjustment of newcomers (De Cooman et al., 2009). A number of researchers adopt an interactionist approach to examining the interaction between individual work values and the organisational environment in determining work outcomes (e.g., George & Zhou, 2001). According to Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004), three processes can occur during the transitional period of newcomers into an organisation, with each resulting in increased congruence of work values for these newcomers:

1. Employees *change their work values* to align with the organisation's work values (i.e., low personal work value stability);
2. Employees *change their perceptions* of organisational work values (i.e., high personal work value stability);
3. Employees *change their organisation* (i.e., keep original personal work values).

This identifies two theoretical perspectives regarding work values, the 'matching' approach, aligning with attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory¹ (Schneider, 1987), whereby if a newcomer does not 'fit' they will leave an organisation; and the 'adjustment' approach, aligning with socialisation theory (Bauer et al., 1998), whereby a newcomer will change their work values in the direction of organisational work values (Chao et al., 1994). Importantly, in view of the focus of the current study, an ASA theoretical approach would propose higher stability in young people entering the organisation, and, on the other hand, a socialisation theoretical approach would propose lower stability in young people in the workplace. Based on longitudinal research by De Cooman et al. (2009), these two theoretical approaches are *not* mutually exclusive, as both processes were found to be present and integrated at the same time when investigating young people entering their first job. Nevertheless, researchers have identified the need to conduct further

¹ ASA framework proposes that individuals will be attracted to organisations whose goals and values match their own; an organisation will select employees who match their organisational values; and, based on incongruence, attrition will be determined (Schneider et al., 1995; Schneider, 1987).

research into understanding the relationships around values congruence and the issue of person-organisational matching (i.e., high stability) vs. mutual adjustment (i.e., low stability) (De Cooman et al., 2009; Edwards & Cable, 2009).

Newcomers will typically be interested in understanding how well they fit with their organisational environment and how they should behave, often more so than actually appraising the new environment (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). Bauer et al., (1998) stated that, *“It is surprising that only a few studies have focused on how newcomers learn about and internalise cultural norms and values, particularly since socialisation has been conceptualised as one of the primary ways in which organisational culture is transmitted and maintained”* (p.162).

As outlined, incongruence in personal and organisational work values show negative outcomes, for example, lowered job satisfaction, and increased turnover intention, as well as an increase in aspects such as anxiety and work-related stress (Festinger, 1957; Kristof -Brown et al., 2005; Westerman & Yamamura, 2007). Value-goal congruence is when the values of individuals match the organisation’s work values, through interaction, determining socialisation outcomes of the individual aligning with the company goals and values (Chatman, 1991; Kraimer, 1997). An individual’s work values shape their initial expectations of the organisation in which they work, in terms of reward, compensation and incentives, e.g., promotions, bonuses (Kristof, 1996). Furthermore, with increased career mobility found in younger people, a mismatch in personal-organisational work values can have stronger implications for turnover of such employees within a company, with higher expectations, higher individualism, and lower organisational commitment and loyalty also contributing to the likelihood of turnover in such situations (Deal, 2007; Lyons, 2012a; Twenge, 2006; Twenge et al., 2010). Therefore, it seems that incongruence in work values of the individual and the organisation, can affect expectations of younger people in terms of effort and motivation that emerge from values (Frieze et al., 2004; Parsons et al., 1999). In their study, based on a sample within India, Rani and Samuel (2016) found younger people to not only have high work value expectations, but also to show discrepancies between their personal and

organisational work values, i.e., low P-O fit in younger people, with increased turnover intention linked to this gap.

In particular, research has linked work values with fit during the early attraction stage of selection, where *extrinsic* work values can drive people to seek out jobs based on salary and working conditions rather than interest and ability, reducing fit, and leading to evidence for higher anxiety, lower well-being, lower job satisfaction and higher burnout (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998; Sortheix et al., 2015; van Beek et al., 2012; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). *Intrinsic* work values have been found to be concurrently positively related to fit and can lead people to experience more enjoyable work (Sortheix et al., 2015). This goes further than work environment mismatch in terms of the job design itself and/or working environment; it can also occur due to limited career and development opportunities (Wong et al., 2008). This process of work values incongruence has been described as a ‘shock effect’ by Kjeldsen and Jacobsen (2013), where individuals experience dissonance in terms of mismatch in their expectations of, and the realities of, their early job experiences. Again, as mentioned above, the stability of work values will affect how the individual approaches the situation, for example, through adjustment of their values i.e., (socialisation) or through maintaining their values and leaving the organisation (i.e., attrition) (De Cooman et al., 2009).

As previously highlighted, work values can guide employee behaviour, decision-making and problem-solving (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Parsons et al., 1999; Schwartz, 2007; Suar & Khuntia, 2010). As work values have been defined as ‘trans-situational’ (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012) (see Literature Review in Chapter 2), the organisational environment in which individuals are entering is of significance to the shift or modification of these values (Illies & Reiter-Palmon, 2008). Understanding this adjustment period is therefore important for organisations and theorists in order to support this crucial transition in young people’s lives, and recognise the complex interplay occurring around their, often inflated, work expectations. It has been suggested that socialisation of work values is most intense when a newcomer first enters the organisation (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

In Chapter 2 it was discussed that work values research has shown them to not be totally stable throughout the life course (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Johnson, 2001a; Lyons et al., 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Age and career stage have been presented as a key theoretical argument for *why* work values change and value acquisition (Kandler et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2016) is considered when aiming to understand these mechanisms for change. Work value development occurs over the life stages, arising during early adolescence (15 to 19 years) (Super, 1957), before being further developed during early adulthood (20 to 24 years) (Porfeli, 2007). Later in an individual's career, work values have been found to become more established and fixed (Jin & Rounds, 2012). With age stability theory arguing that young people have more capacity for change, they can then make dynamic transitions through their work values and preferences as they enter the workplace and new roles (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980). This decrease in work value stability as people age has been explained by a growing sense of realism being experienced, introducing increased steadiness and permanency (Johnson, 2002). There are, of course, individual factors that play a role in shaping one's personal values (e.g., Elizur & Sagie, 1999), yet the work context and experiences will influence stability and change in work values. In line with the age stability hypothesis (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980), the younger a person is, the more capacity for change they have, and this will be relevant for work values, career expectations and working preferences as a person has new work experiences.

Longitudinal studies exploring work values and work rewards have found that rewards can *reinforce* work values (Johnson, 2001a, 2001b). This reinforcement hypothesis proposes that work values are shaped, and reinforced, by the attainment, or not, of work rewards, which have been grouped in similar ways to work values, i.e., extrinsic, intrinsic, altruistic and social (Johnson, 2001b). This again can align with propositions of adjustment to work values to better match the situation (Nicholson, 1984), and career expectations, which may be unrealistically high on entry to the workplace. As mentioned previously, early research shows that work values have been suggested to change in order to protect one's self-concept and self-esteem (Erikson, 1959; Rokeach, 1973), therefore supporting the reinforcement hypothesis that work rewards can shape a person's work values throughout their career.

When exploring the literature on work values change and the mechanisms for change, these theoretical arguments around age, career stage, work rewards and self-esteem are the most prominent. A great deal of recent literature focuses on changing work values in the context of changing work environments (e.g., Gallie, 2019; Långstedt, 2021) rather than understanding *how* or *why*. Nevertheless, it is evident from the discussion around work value change in the context of entering a new organisation that the newcomer's values, career stage, age and perceptions of the organisational values will inevitably interact with each other as they go through the process of entering the organisation as they assess their experience based on their needs.

5.3 Study Hypotheses

The hypotheses for this quantitative study are developed below based on a combination of insight from the qualitative study findings, as well as the two literature reviews in the thesis (the initial literature review in Chapter 2 and the revisiting of the literature discussion above in this current chapter). Given this, the four values that will be discussed are those previously identified, namely extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige. Furthermore, given the findings and discussion in Chapter 4, these hypotheses will examine the role of the organisational context (specifically, the organisation's values and socialisation practices), job satisfaction, self-efficacy and age. Following the presentation of the study hypotheses, the theoretical framework and research design and methodology are described, where the time points for the study are explained in more detail. In order to understand the time points referred to in the hypotheses, these are also summarised here:

- Time point 1 – 1-6 weeks pre-entry into organisation
- Time point 2 – 2-6 weeks after entry into organisation
- Time point 3 – 3-4 months after entry into organisation

5.3.1 Stability of Work Values over Time

As work values have been argued to determine a sense of direction and guidance in terms of decision-making and behaviours for the individual holding them (Breuer & Lüdeke-Freund, 2017), it can be proposed that, if work values and expectations are not being met as one enters an organisation, there may be some initial adjustment and/or modification. As discussed in the previous section, research exploring the stability and change of work values is generally limited, yet studies have found that work values do alter in line with new encounters and other psychological aspects that shift during newcomer adjustment throughout the transition from education to the workplace (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Krahn & Galambos, 2014). There can be some adjustment that takes place here in terms of adaptations of work values, self-concept and behaviours to match and/or fit into the organisation (Wanous et al., 1992), with the type of situation someone finds themselves in either affirming or disaffirming their identity (Holmes, 2001). As outlined in the previous literature reviews, this change and/or adjustment takes place based on internal mechanisms to protect one's identity, self-concept and self-esteem (Erikson, 1959; Rokeach, 1973), aligning with career stage models and the age stability hypothesis (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980). More recently, Choi and Chung (2017) conducted a longitudinal project with panel data exploring the socialisation of work values, comparing the public and private sectors, finding that work values can change after entering initial employment (in both sectors). The study produced findings in line with that of De Cooman et al. (2009) who stated that, "*Work values become somewhat less ideological and more self-oriented*" (p.106) through socialisation into organisations. This reflects the qualitative study's findings around the reality of work that is faced by young people entering organisations, in that they hold almost optimistic and 'ideal' perceptions of work through their values, yet they then adjust these to protect themselves. Additionally, work values can be influenced by structures and processes put forward by organisations and senior management (Breuer & Lüdeke-Freund, 2017), affecting the stability of work values as newcomers socialise, and potentially align, with the organisation (Auh & Mengue, 2007). The stability of work values as young people enter the workplace has been discussed in the literature reviews, yet generally, when considering work values in the context of early socialisation into an organisation, studies have found that an

individual begins to place more importance on extrinsic work values and rewards, such as pay and job security, as opposed to intrinsic work values and rewards, such as stimulating work tasks (De Cooman et al., 2009; Johnson & Elder, 2002; Loscocco & Kalleberg, 1988). A shift in work values can start to align with the organisation's work values, becoming increasingly congruent as an employee experiences socialisation into their new working environment (De Cooman et al., 2009). This socialisation of work values goes hand-in-hand with the identification of 'reality shock' as discussed in the qualitative study chapter, when it is realised that the elevated work values of young people are not all being met (Louis, 1980b). The findings from study one, as well as the existing literature, demonstrate that this newcomer adjustment period (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008) is clearly a turbulent time of transition and alteration.

As with stability effects, direction and value type are not always consistent in the research, with Johnson and colleagues (Johnson, 2001b; Johnson & Elder, 2002; Johnson et al., 2012), as well as Van der Velde et al. (1998), finding a decline in extrinsic work values as individuals progress through their careers. Both Krahn and Galambos (2014) and Jin and Rounds (2012) found an increase in intrinsic work values during the transition from full-time education to employment. Furthermore Chow et al. (2014) found a decrease in intrinsic and extrinsic work values from ages 18 to 20, then an increase from ages 20 to 25, suggesting a rebound potentially after becoming socialised into organisations. These findings by Chow et al. (2014) in particular suggest immediate decreased stability in specific work values as young people enter the workplace. Rather than focus specifically on the direction of each of the four work values in terms of extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige, the amount of stability at the time points is considered in the hypotheses below; and the suggestion based on this literature and previous findings is that there are adjustments happening on entry to an organisation. Drawing on the processes outlined by Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004) that occur as newcomers enter organisations, one assumption of this research is that employees can, and will, change their work values initially to align with their new environment. However, this change occurs around an otherwise stable set of values. It is therefore predicted that, although there will be some adjustment taking place in newcomers' work values as they become accustomed to their working environment, there will be stability in each of their

personal work values across the three time points (i.e., assessing stability of work values during the transition), showing dependency across the time points.

Hypothesis 1 *Personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.*

1a *Extrinsic personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 extrinsic personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.*

1b *Intrinsic personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 intrinsic personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.*

1c *Social personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 social personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.*

1d *Prestige personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 prestige personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.*

5.3.2 The Influence of Organisational Work Values

The literature reviews in this thesis have discussed personal work values that individuals hold, and, just as individuals can have such values, organisations can also possess and communicate values (Miller & Yu, 2003). Work values have been found to exist at two levels (Sagiv et al., 2011): the collective level (i.e., the organisational level) and the individual level (i.e., personal motivational goals/needs) (Schwartz, 1992). The existing research and theory on newcomer adjustment and socialisation, as well as the qualitative study findings in this body of research, have recognised the importance of the *organisational context* in which young people are entering as they start their careers (Rani & Samuel, 2016). The organisational environment can interact with these individuals, and

Edwards and Cable (2009) stated that organisational work values provide employees with norms that influence and guide their actions, behaviour and decisions in the workplace, suggesting interplay between organisational and personal work values. Furthermore, organisational work values are viewed as a significant part of an organisation's culture, relating to aspects around structures, processes and reward systems (Gagliardi, 1986; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996; Schein, 1985). Rokeach (1979) defined organisational values as "...the most distinctive property or defining characteristic of a social institution" (p.51) and, from the qualitative finding, it was clear that the values of the organisation where they are starting their career are important to young people.

In their study, Howell et al. (2012) distinguish between two types of organisational values, espoused (i.e., stated by the organisation) and enacted (i.e., driving the day-to-day operations of the organisation), and studies have found that enacted organisational values (i.e., 'walking the talk') perceived by the employee enhance organisational commitment, job satisfaction, social integration and organisational performance (Demirtas, 2018; Grøgaard & Colman, 2016; Jonsen et al., 2015; Howell et al., 2012). De Cooman et al. (2009) found that an organisation's dominant values can be perceived in two ways by employees: through the organisational leaders' values, or through the values shared by organisational members. However, interestingly, newcomers did not differentiate between these two types of perceived organisational values when entering the organisation (De Cooman et al., 2019). It has been suggested that an employee perceives higher values congruence with an organisation when they receive a positive common message about the organisational values (Kim et al., 2005; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Some researchers argue that we act in line with our perceptions, rather than reality, meaning that the importance of *perceived* organisational values is of fundamental significance when predicting individual outcomes (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Cable & Judge, 1997); this also highlights the subjective nature of interpreting organisational work values.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, there is a great deal of research around the compatibility of individual values and organisational values (see P-O fit), yet there is limited research focusing on the nature of the association of these concepts (Sousa &

Porto, 2016). Much research focuses on organisational values by comparing and contrasting the values of employees to understand the concept of P-O fit (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Making organisational values explicit, allows individuals, as well as customers and stakeholders to self-select an organisation based on their perceived congruence of values (Grøgaard & Colman, 2016; Jonsen et al., 2015). There is still little understanding about the role that *perceived* organisational work values play in understanding or influencing the personal values, attitudes and behaviours of individuals entering the workplace (Howell et al. 2012), yet Sousa and Porto (2016) found that individual work values can predict preferences for organisational values. Some researchers have defined organisational values as being shared amongst employees in the company (Bourne & Jenkins, 2013), suggesting the opposite interaction in that an individual's work values are shaped by the organisational environment. Although there are some contradictory findings here about the directional relationship between personal and perceived organisational work values, the more something is important to an individual, the more they will be affected by its presence, or absence (Warr, 2001).

Typically, research has considered personal work values as moderators of the environment and outcome variables (e.g., satisfaction, motivation), yet this current study takes a different perspective and focuses on organisational values as a moderator in personal work value stability. There are dynamic interplays at work here between perceived organisational and individual work values, in line with ASA theory (Schneider et al., 1995). The ASA framework proposes that, over time, influences in an organisation can attract, select and retain an increasingly homogenous group of people, as these individuals are attracted to organisations they perceive to have similar values as their own, and organisations select those people that they believe 'fit' (Dickson et al., 2008; Cable & Judge, 1997; Schneider, 1987; Van Vianen, 2000). Those who do not 'fit' will leave the organisation, whether voluntarily or through redundancy, often shortly after their entry to the company (Ostroff & Rothausen, 1997). More recent literature, as outlined in the previous section, provides further support for newcomer adjustment and socialisation theories to support change in work values and alignment between personal and perceived organisational work values (e.g., Rani & Samuel, 2016; Wanberg, 2012; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). Research by De Vos et al. (2005) discusses how work values affect the

way in which individuals *relate* to their organisations. As with personal work values, which guide our behaviour, organisational values become criteria when an individual thinks about where they want to work and the organisation they want to enter. This was emphasised and found to be important by interviewees in the qualitative study: young people were attracted to organisations by their brand, reputation and values. When an employee perceives their own personal work values to be shared by their organisation, a mutual sense of values is fostered, strengthening organisational commitment (Finegan, 2000; Howell et al., 2012). Over time, employees, in particular newcomers, may shift their individual values in the direction of the organisational values (Cable & Parsons, 2001), similar to the socialisation process where they acquire attitudes and behaviours to develop an identity as a member of the company (Bauer et al., 1998; Chao et al., 1994). This shift in work values (personal or perceived organisational values) is argued to take place during the adjustment period as young people enter organisations (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008), thereby placing dependency on the organisational environment when it comes to personal work value stability.

When measuring organisational work values, studies have assumed that respondents are reporting *perceptions* of their organisation's current values, with Gill and Finegan (2000) using the term 'current' to reflect the values employees recognise to be held by their organisation. This survey study focuses on the organisational work values, as subjectively perceived by newcomers to the organisation, to identify the influence of these on work value stability. It is predicted that, when organisational work values are perceived strongly, there will be a decrease in the stability in an individual's work values (i.e., show a weaker relationship), as the individual adjusts to fit in with their environment. Higher levels of organisational work values demonstrate a 'stronger' environment and can induce a newcomer to 'take on' those values.

Moreover, this finding is hypothesised to occur whether the organisational work values are in line with, or different from, the personal work values, in line with reinforcement theory (Johnson, 2001b) for the former and the theory of work adjustment (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969) for the latter. For example, if an organisation values extrinsic aspects of work and delivers more extrinsic rewards, e.g., monetary bonuses, this will

increase an individual's extrinsic personal work values compared to when they initially entered the organisation². Thus, at higher levels of perceived extrinsic organisational work values, the relationship of extrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be increasingly weaker, showing less stability (i.e., more change).

As the qualitative study highlighted that young people's perceptions of the extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values are more prominent, compared to social and prestige work values, these two work values were particularly focused on and considered within the same moderated mediation model. A focus on extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values is common in the research literature, particularly due to the links with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (e.g., Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009), as these are viewed to be the two higher work values constructs most highly perceived and accounted for by employees. Extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values are especially important to HRM functions, particularly within multinational organisations (Bu & McKeen, 2001; Lester et al., 2001). The hypotheses are presented in line with this to demonstrate the model used, and any specific differences between extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values will be discussed in the results section. As it is predicted that more highly perceived, or 'stronger', organisational work values will reduce personal work value stability, this suggests some adjustment and/or internalisation of the organisational work values the individual is experiencing in their new work situation.

Hypothesis 2 – *At the higher levels of extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values, the relationship between personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

2a *At the higher level of extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values, the relationship between extrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

² Note that perceived organisational work values were only measured at time point 2, so the moderation effect on personal work value stability is focused on the time period between time point 2 and 3.

2b *At the higher level of extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values, the relationship between intrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

2c *At the higher level of extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values, the relationship between social personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

2d *At the higher level of extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values, the relationship between prestige personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

5.3.3 Organisational Investiture

The previous literature review section set the scene generally around newcomer adjustment and socialisation processes; however, during this process, individuals can be influenced by socialisation tactics provided by the organisation (Fang et al., 2011; Peltokorpi et al., 2021). Many organisations provide some socialisation orientations for new employees as they enter the company in order to assist in the adjustment of newcomers to the organisation (e.g., training, mentoring schemes), as well as to increase retention of employees and reduce turnover (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; de Janasz & Godshalk, 2013). Socialisation tactics have been discussed in the literature for decades, being defined as “*the ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organisation*” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p.230). Newcomer involvement in socialisation activities has found that these individuals become more accommodated into the organisation, showing enhanced productivity and commitment, social embeddedness and lower turnover intentions (Bauer & Green, 1994; Peltokorpi, 2021). The aim of organisational investiture tactics is to enhance the values fit or congruence between newcomers and organisations, enhancing and supporting the newcomer adjustment and socialisation process (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim et al., 2005).

Socialisation tactics have been found to predict perceptions of P-O fit, positively enhancing 'fit' perceptions (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Riordan et al., 2001), and, furthermore, P-O fit has been found to partially mediate the relationship between organisational socialisation tactics and newcomer adjustment (Saks et al., 2007). Interestingly, institutionalised socialisation tactics, which deliver formal organisational orientation and training programmes to explain how an organisation works, have been positively related to perceptions of fit of an individual and their organisation (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim et al., 2005; Riordan et al., 2001). This aligns with newcomers seeking order to overcome the uncertainty and ambiguity they are facing (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Less institutionalised organisational socialisation tactics will not help to reduce ambiguity as much (Bauer et al., 1998; Jones, 1986).

Eva and colleagues (2017) explored the moderating effect of organisational formalisation on the socialisation of work values, with a particular focus on compliance and innovation behaviours. Formalisation would link to a more institutionalised approach to organisational investiture and socialisation tactics put forward by the organisation, as it focuses more on formal rules and procedures (Damanpour, 1996). Over time, institutionalised approaches to organisational socialisation can become quite restricting and overbearing (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). According to cognitive evaluation theory (Zhou & Shalley, 2003), organisational investiture initiatives would potentially control and/or inform the intrinsic motivation and work values of new employees. As per Eva et al.'s (2017) study, it was found that organisation formalisation has more of a *controlling* role in terms of influencing an individual's personal values, especially for those employees who value self-direction.

It is important to note that organisational socialisation tactics are not typically one or the other; it is not that black and white; and such tactics are often more complex (Kim et al., 2005). In reality, some organisations do not implement organisational investiture initiatives to help newcomers to adjust; rather, they leave them to adapt and learn on their own (Ashforth et al., 2007). Most of the research exploring organisational tactics during socialisation is focused on recent graduates entering the workplace, who would have little, if any, experience of the realities of workplaces (Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas &

Anderson, 2002). Saks et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of existing research exploring the effects of socialisation tactics on newcomer adjustment, also examining the differences between recent graduates and other newcomers. They found in their review that the effects of socialisation tactics by organisations were stronger for *recent graduates* as opposed to other newcomers. This was suggested to be due to university graduates being more sensitive to these initiatives, in particular, institutionalised organisational training, as they hold a higher desire for structure, information and guidance (Ashforth, 2001; Saks et al., 2007).

It is evident that the organisational context and organisational investiture can influence the socialisation of work values as young people enter organisations. Organisational investiture can also indicate that an organisation cares about the entry of the new individual(s) to the workplace (Tannenbaum et al., 1991), which can provide assurance during what is a turbulent time of uncertainty. This is particularly relevant because, as I found in the qualitative study, young people are entering the workplace with high expectations about work, progression and development, and have overlapping values that are motivating them (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic), resulting in a mismatch between young people's work values and expectations and 'reality shock'. It is therefore predicted that increased organisational investiture by the company will reduce the stability of work values as young people adjust to their working environments. Such initiatives will shape and adjust the work values of young people as they settle in, and acclimatise, to their new organisation, providing newcomers with more information about its values. The same moderating effect is expected for all four work value factors as outlined in the sub-hypotheses below; there is no specific research evidence to suggest differences in the moderating impact of organisational investiture on extrinsic, intrinsic, social or prestige personal work values.

Hypothesis 3 – *At higher levels of organisational investiture, the relationship between personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

3a *At the higher levels of organisational investiture, the relationship between extrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

3b *At the higher levels of organisational investiture, the relationship between intrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

3c *At the higher levels of organisational investiture, the relationship between social personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

3d *At the higher levels of organisational investiture, the relationship between prestige personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

5.3.4 Job Satisfaction

Understanding work values and job satisfaction is important to recognise what can make individuals fulfilled in the workplace (Kashefi, 2005; Locke, 1976; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as the positive emotional response to an individual's work experience and/or job, and it has also been described as the extent to which someone enjoys their work. Much of the research has considered job satisfaction as an outcome variable. Indeed, the inflated expectations that young people are holding about the workplace, as found in the qualitative study, may lead to disappointment, and ultimately job dissatisfaction, being linked to lower levels of productivity, motivation, commitment and well-being (Bowling et al., 2010; Graham & MacKenzie, 1995; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Perrone & Vickers, 2003; Saks & Ashforth, 2000). Job satisfaction can emerge when an individual's desired work values are being met (Kalleberg, 1977), indicating a general attitude towards their job (Brooke et al., 1988). Recent research has reported a 'hangover effect', showing high job satisfaction initially on starting a new work role when experiencing novel experiences, followed by a decline in job satisfaction as the individual familiarises themselves with the role (Boswell et al., 2005, 2009; Wang et al., 2017). There can be feelings of disappointment when values and needs are not being met in the job role, as found in the qualitative study, and resulting in low job satisfaction (Louis, 1980b; Wilson & Gilbert, 2005). This drop in job satisfaction due to unmet expectations can result in 'reality shock' (again as found in the qualitative study), and feelings of psychological contract violation (Zhu et al., 2015). Young people may then either leave the organisation or adjust their values to 'fit' in and make themselves more satisfied in their job (Chen et al., 2011).

While this approach that views job satisfaction as an outcome is important, the current study is including job satisfaction as a moderator variable. The qualitative study, as well as some prior research, suggests it plays a role during the socialisation process, particularly during times of uncertainty and unmet expectations for young people. The aim is to investigate the effect of job satisfaction on the stability of personal work values following entry into the organisation. Based on the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, 1991), it is proposed that job satisfaction is linked to the congruence between an individual's personal work values and the organisational work values. It is predicted that increased job satisfaction (which would be expected during the initial stage of entry, see, e.g., Wang et al., 2017) will reduce the stability of work values in young newcomers to organisations (i.e., higher work value change upon entry), as individuals are more likely to adjust and/or 'fit' their work values to the job role if they are satisfied and happier in it. This is expected across all four work value dimensions as these will be personal work values that are unique to the individual and the hypotheses are focusing on stability, as opposed to the specific preference. In other words, job satisfaction should moderate each personal work value as it is dependent on how the individual perceives the congruence with the organisational work values.

Hypothesis 4 – *At the higher levels of job satisfaction, the relationship between personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

4a *At the higher levels of job satisfaction, the relationship between extrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

4b *At the higher levels of job satisfaction, the relationship between intrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

4c *At the higher levels of job satisfaction, the relationship between social personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

4d *At the higher levels of job satisfaction, the relationship between prestige personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be weaker than at lower levels.*

5.3.5 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy has already been discussed in the previous chapter as the qualitative interviews reported self-efficacy to generally be high within young people when discussing their work values, careers, progression and openness to move around organisations/job roles. Based on this, as well as some links to socialisation and newcomer adjustment in the literature, self-efficacy is included as a moderator variable in the current study to assess the influence on the stability of personal work values upon entry to a new organisation. Perceived self-efficacy has been defined as a person's judgement and belief of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action in order to produce given attainments for goals and performance (Bandura, 1986, 2006). It should be noted that there is a difference between possessing skills and being able to use them well and consistently under difficult circumstances, with self-efficacy focusing on an individual's beliefs, and conviction, in their own capabilities towards undertaking a task (Wood & Bandura, 1989), in this case settling into a new role and navigating their own career. Self-efficacy is therefore very much about possessing a resilient self-belief in one's own capabilities to achieve desired goals or tasks, and will determine levels of motivation reflected in how much effort an individual will exert and how long they will persevere with tasks and goals (Klassen et al., 2010; Akram & Ghazanfar, 2014). This is aligned with the interview findings (see Chapter 4) which found that the young participants had high self-efficacy and were confident, optimistic and ambitious when it comes to getting where they want to be, being risk-taking, and open to changing their job and/or career path if things did not work out in their current company.

Generalised self-efficacy (GSE) is a general set of expectations that individuals use in new situations, being linked to mastery expectations and past experiences (i.e., successes and failures) (Sherer et al., 1982). GSE is proposed to be relatively stable, based on experiences across life, and predicts attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Eden & Aviram, 1993; Eden & Zuk, 1995). Task-specific efficacy, which is situation-specific and predicts affective, cognitive and behavioural work outcomes, is less stable than GSE and can be manipulated and changed more easily (Bandura, 2006; Eden & Kinnar, 1991). This current study is focusing on GSE, with Tipton and Worthington (1984) proposing

that GSE is a better predictor of performance in unfamiliar situations than task-specific SE, which is a better predictor of performance in less ambiguous situations. Therefore, GSE is applied to, or found to be a stronger predictor of, a newcomer's adjustment to work during the transition to the workplace during a time of uncertainty and unfamiliar situations (Tipton & Worthington, 1984), with cognitive appraisal of the situation found to take place (Betz & Hackett, 2006). Those with low GSE have been suggested to accept the predefined definitions of roles and the situation that is typically being offered by the organisation (Saks, 1995), thereby being less open to socialisation and adjustment. These new situations will encompass the work values held by the company also.

As newcomers in the workplace, those with high GSE are expected to be more confident about the transition into their new role, helping with 'settling in' without feeling the need to change themselves (i.e., showing less value change and adjustment). Due to the uncertain and turbulent transitional period, where expectations are not always met, it has been stated that holding high self-efficacy helps individuals with managing identity threat when experiencing ambiguity (e.g., Dahm et al., 2019; Rothausen et al., 2017), and remaining optimistic and confident in their job roles and wider career progression. Self-efficacy has been used as a moderator variable in many newcomer socialisation studies, with mixed findings emerging. Whilst some studies find no effects, self-efficacy has also been found to moderate the relationships between the amount of training and newcomer adjustment, being stronger in those with low self-efficacy (e.g., Saks, 1995), therefore assisting socialisation.

Unfortunately, in most studies, self-efficacy is typically a dependent variable and research is conducted within an academic and/or education environment with teacher and student samples (e.g., Barni et al., 2019; Green et al., 2018). To date, there are no studies that apply self-efficacy as a moderator variable to investigate the stability of personal work values upon entry to the organisation and within the first few weeks within a role, and this study will begin to explore this to develop self-efficacy theory further. Specific sub-hypotheses are developed below for the four work value types, yet the moderating effect of self-efficacy is expected to have the same effect on each, as no evidence exists to suggest different effects would ensue for different work values. Based on the research

literature and findings from study one, self-efficacy is expected to have a positive influence on the stability of work values. Higher levels of self-efficacy will increase the stability of newcomers' personal work values on their transition into their new organisation as these individuals have a higher belief in themselves, holding their personal values as a priority (i.e., less work values change).

Hypothesis 5 – *At the higher levels of self-efficacy, the relationship between personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be stronger than at lower levels.*

5a *At the higher levels of self-efficacy, the relationship between extrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be stronger than at lower levels.*

5b *At the higher levels of self-efficacy, the relationship between intrinsic personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be stronger than at lower levels.*

5c *At the higher levels of self-efficacy, the relationship between social personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be stronger than at lower levels.*

5d *At the higher levels of self-efficacy, the relationship between prestige personal work values at time 2 and time 3 will be stronger than at lower levels.*

5.3.6 Age of Young People and Work Value Stability

It has been stated in the academic literature that work values are not absolute through the life course (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Johnson, 2001a; Krahn & Galambos, 2014; Lyons et al., 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002). The stability of work values as young people enter the workplace has been discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2) and the earlier sections in this chapter, bringing the focus to age differences during the transition into the workplace. The focus of this current quantitative survey study is to investigate the stability of work values as *young* people enter the workplace; however, linking back to the age stability hypothesis, less work value stability is found in younger individuals compared to older individuals, as they have more capacity for change, being more flexible and malleable (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980). Although a dated theory, more recent research has continued to support this as individuals' values are less likely to change as they age,

showing an increase in value stability through adulthood (McAdams & Olsen, 2010). As previously discussed, as young people enter and transition into the workplace and new organisations, this is a time of change, flux and uncertainty (as supported by the qualitative interview findings), and existing career and lifespan stage models (e.g., Super, 1957) suggest age plays a role in this. Using the age stability hypothesis as a framework (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980), work values have been found to be more consistent over time, in terms of age, than compared to other factors such as work attitudes (Jin, 2010; Konty & Dunham, 1997; Stockard et al., 2014). Considering that this age perspective is key for the current body of research as it provides the rationale for exploring work values in young people, it is logical to examine the specific effects of being somewhat younger or older on the transitional stability of work values. Although the range is limited, from a practical viewpoint, understanding the influence of age amongst young people can help with more effective organisational career support and planning (Ornstein et al., 1989).

Overall, this study is focusing on a highly transitional period and age can often determine how far along someone is in their transition, being found to be an effective indicator of work-related outcomes (e.g., Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Warr, 2001). Career stage models are discussed in Chapter 2; however, these have been linked to lifespan and age, mapping out the stages of an individual's job, and meeting their needs and values (e.g., Sullivan & Crocitto, 2007). Such continuous personal change as people progress within a work context is typically linked to age through stages such as growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement (e.g., Super, 1957, 1980). Often, career and lifespan stage models demonstrate some ambiguity in their age boundaries; hence, within this sample it is useful to see if 'age' therefore becomes a marker within the 'exploration' (15-24 years) and early part of the 'establishment' (25-44 years) stages.

Research has explored the influence of young adult development and work experiences across the lifespan with relation to work values and primary motives. Kooij et al. (2011) found a significant negative effect of age and extrinsic motives, and Van der Velde et al. (1998) also found a decline in extrinsic work values as individuals age. Kooij et al. (2011) found a significant positive effect between age and intrinsic motives, yet no

effect with social motives; whereas, contradicting this, Rhodes (1983) found that needs around self-actualisation (i.e., intrinsic values) declined with age, and affiliation needs (i.e., social values) increased with age. Although these studies do not focus specifically on the stability of work values, as is the case in the current study, they add useful insight into understanding age effects on specific work value constructs. There are many theories that can be linked to understanding why certain work value constructs may change as people age, e.g., socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1995), selection-optimization-compensation (SOC) theory (Baltes et al., 1999), lifespan theory of control (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995), which can all add insight across the lifespan; however, to best of the researcher's knowledge, there are limited, if any, studies that focus on the effect of age within a younger cohort on the *stability*, as opposed to the direction, of work values during the transition of newcomers into new roles and/or organisations.

Based on this literature, it is expected that, within a cohort of young people, those who are younger would be likely to show less stability, and those who are older would show more stability, in their personal work values during the transitional period into an organisation, showing support for the hypothesis of age stability.

Hypothesis 6 – *At the higher levels of age (i.e., for older participants within the cohort), the relationship between personal work values across the three time points will be stronger than at lower levels (i.e., for younger participants).*

6a *At the higher levels of age (i.e., for older participants), the relationship of extrinsic personal work values across the three time points will be stronger than at lower levels (i.e., for younger participants).*

6b *At the higher levels of age (i.e., for older participants), the relationship of intrinsic personal work values across the three time points will be stronger than at lower levels (i.e., for younger participants).*

6c *At the higher levels of age (i.e., for older participants), the relationship of social personal work values across the three time points will be stronger than at lower levels (i.e., for younger participants).*

6d *At the higher levels of age (i.e., for older participants), the relationship of prestige personal work values across the three time points will be stronger than at lower levels (i.e., for younger participants).*

5.3.7 Theoretical Framework

As outlined in the previous sections, the rationale for the inclusion of key study variables and hypotheses has been presented. To summarise, the current study uses the theoretical model in Figure 5.1 to provide insight into the stability, and moderators, of work values of young people entering an organisation.

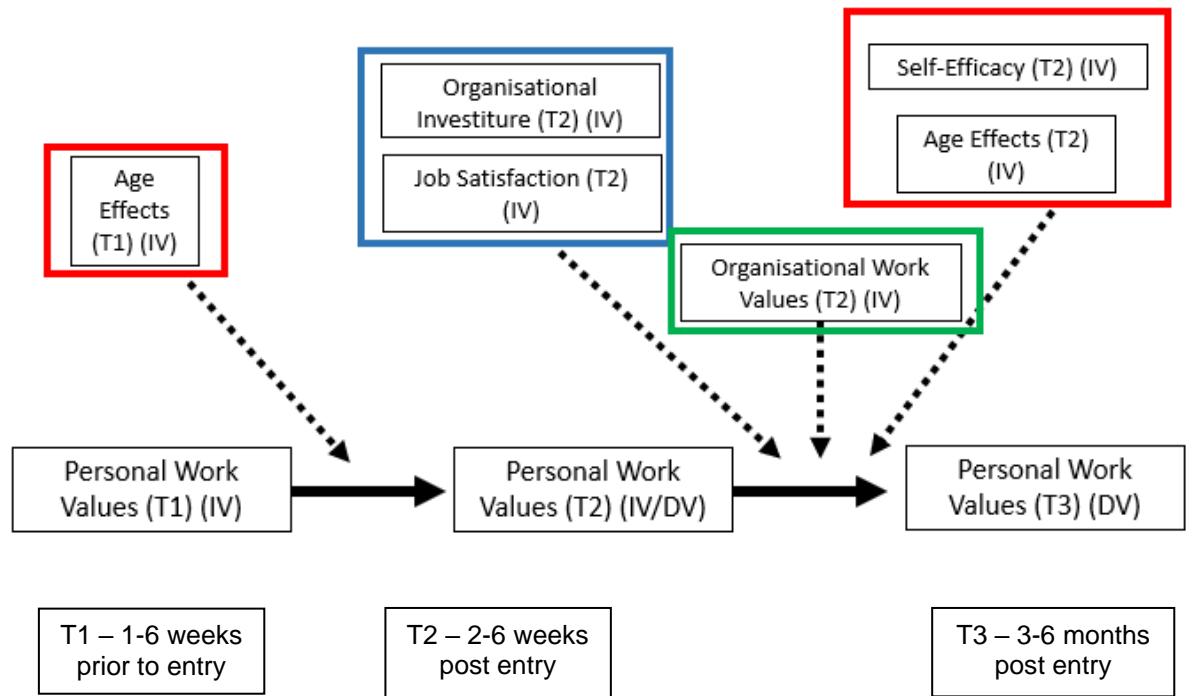


Figure 5.1: *Theoretical Model for Longitudinal Study*

In Figure 5.1, the three stages of data collection are summarised and show personal work values prior to entry, upon entry and shortly after entry (in line with existing research on socialisation processes outlined in this section). The moderating variables are highlighted in coloured boxes as follows:

- Age and Self-Efficacy (red) – individual-related variables
- Organisational Investiture and Job Satisfaction (blue) – job/role-related variables
- Organisational Work Values (green) – organisational perspective-related variables

Although work value variables were measured across three time points, moderating variables were measured at time point 2. The moderators are analysed to examine their effect on the transition and stability of work values (i.e., the pathway from time two to time three). Organisational work values (extrinsic and intrinsic), organisational investiture, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy were measured from time two only to examine the moderating effects on the personal work values stability from time two to time three (i.e., Path B). Before entry, individuals could not provide accurate information on these variables, as they were not yet familiar with the organisation. Age is the only moderator variable assessed at each time point, and the moderating effects are investigated on personal work values from time one to time two (Path A), and from time two to time three (Path B). The measurement tools and design are discussed further in the next section on the study methodology.

5.4 Quantitative Methodology

This section of the report outlines the research methodology adopted in order to address the specific research aims and hypotheses outlined above.

5.4.1 Research Design

A longitudinal survey design was implemented for the study to investigate the stability and relationships between personal work values (extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige) over three time points based around entering and socialising into an organisation. The stability over time of these personal work values could then be examined at the different time points, i.e., how does time one relate to time two, and how does this in turn relate to time three. In particular, the moderating effects of variables such as perceived organisational work values, organisational investiture, job satisfaction self-

efficacy and age are explored. In line with the critical realism approach (outlined in Chapter 3), this study builds on the rich, subjective data gathered in study one (see Chapter 4). The current quantitative study employs psychometric measures to gather objective, empirical data on the work values of young people, investigating significant mediation and moderation relationships between study variables, as outlined in the previous section.

The study design aimed to look at differences within individual participants based on the ‘individual differences’ hypothesis (Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Twenge & Campbell, 2001; 2008; Twenge et al., 2010; Twenge et al., 2012). For these reasons, the younger age group was selected as the key focus as they are currently entering the workplace and there is the need for further research into their work-related attitudes and behaviours. The current research took into account pre- and post-entry points of socialisation in order to ensure understanding around the stability of work values and the moderating variables across different time periods. The following work-related variables were measured in the study:

1. Personal Work Values (extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige) – Time one, time two and time three
2. Age – Time one and time two
3. Organisational Work Values (extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige) – Time two only
4. Self-Efficacy – Time two only
5. Organisational Investiture – Time two only
6. Job Satisfaction – Time two only

Pre-entry experiences and early encounters may strongly affect newcomer responses such that adjustment occurs much more rapidly than anticipated by various socialisation models (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Major et al. (1995) found newcomer experiences to be associated with socialisation outcomes after four weeks of

entry. Bauer and Green (1994) found that the adjustment perceptions of doctoral students assessed three weeks after entry into their doctoral programmes were the best predictors of those perceptions when measured after nine months. This suggested that socialisation variables need to be measured from very early in the process, ideally prior to entry into an organisation. Although this is rapid, it then stabilises, at least for the first six to 10 months (Ashforth et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002).

When studying socialisation, there are stability assumptions in that such pre-measures of work values provide some sort of criterion validity to understand the behaviours of newcomers in the workplace (Deal et al., 2010). There are, of course, flaws with this as pre-employment expectations and beliefs may not always align with employment behaviours, attitudes and experiences as individual adjustment of priorities and values takes place (Winter & Jackson, 2016). This links back to the higher expectations of younger people demonstrating a higher desire for the four primary work values (Jin & Rounds, 2012) as they enter the workplace. Generally, studies have often relied on work values, and job or career expectations, of university graduates as substitutes for motivation to work in organisations in pre-employment measures. When inferring behaviours from pre-employment measures of work values, it is important to think about the criterion validity and the impact of this (Papavasileiou & Lyons, 2015; Terjesen et al., 2007). With previous research demonstrating that work values guide our decision-making and therefore actions and behaviours (Consiglio et al., 2017; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), there can be some use in pre-employment measures, yet stability and adjustment of these values must be taken into account.

There have been suggestions for more research on the socialisation process of younger employees entering organisations to understand how they react to organisational work values, considering how they align with an individual's own personal work values (Winter & Jackson, 2016). Bauer et al. (1998) called for more research to study the actual timings of socialisation and the importance of longitudinal studies, utilising pre-employment and post-employment measures. To investigate work value stability, as well as the moderators affecting them, using such measures can help understand the mechanisms behind any work value change over time.

Three time points were selected for the research based on socialisation literature and theory (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008):

1. 1-6 weeks before entry into the organisation – ‘*Anticipation*’
2. 1-2 months working in the organisation – ‘*Adjustment*’
3. 3-4 months working in the organisation – ‘*Adjustment/Achievement*’

Little has been found in terms of socialisation six months after entry, hence why this study will focus on socialisation within six months (Ashforth et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to psychometrically evaluate the measurement tools used in the questionnaire for construct validation (Kyriazos, 2018).

5.4.2 Sampling

Non-probability convenience and snowballing sampling techniques were adopted for this study (Coolican, 2017; Noy, 2008) in order to access participants. The inclusion criteria outlined that participants were to be due to begin a job within approximately one month, in order to allow them to complete the survey based on the three outlined time points, including a pre-entry survey (time one). Demographic data was collected, with age being of particular importance to assess this variable’s moderating influence on personal work values as individuals enter an organisation. See Appendix F for histograms displaying sample age frequency across the three time points, and the age ranges can be viewed in Table 5.1 below. There were no restriction on age or type of company (e.g., national, multinational) or industry for survey respondents.

A total of 466 participants responded to the time one survey. Those with full missing datasets for all scales were excluded from the study (i.e., dropped off after not completing the first measure in the survey), leaving 454 respondents. Of these, 229 participated at time two, and 171 participated at time three. Table 5.1 shows the demographic information of the samples over the three time points (full sample prior to drop-off participants).

Table 5.1: Demographic Variables Summary for Full Sample as Gathered at Time Point 1

Variables		Time 1 (n=454)		Time 2 (n=229)		Time 3 (n=171)	
		Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	196	48.3	102	47.2	71	43.6
	Female	210	51.7	114	52.8	92	56.4
Mean Age		23.2 years		23.7 years		24.3 years	
Nationalities							
Predominant Nationalities:							
	British	186	45.8	91	42.7	82	50.6
	American	89	21.9	67	31.5	40	24.8
	German	13	3.2	6	2.8	7	4.3
	Polish	12	2.9	5	2.4	7	4.3
	Portuguese	12	2.9	4	1.9	2	1.2
	Canadian	9	2.2	5	2.4	4	2.5
	Nigerian	8	2	4	1.9	2	1.2
	Other nationalities	77	19	31	14.5	18	11.1
Ethnicities							
	White	325	79.9	165	76.7	126	78.8
	Asian	29	7.1	19	8.8	13	8.1
	Black or African American	24	5.9	14	6.5	7	4.4
	Mixed	18	4.4	12	5.6	9	5.6
	Other	11	2.7	5	2.3	5	3.1
Industries							
Predominant Industries:							
	Engineering	75	21.6	30	14.5	24	15.8
	Education	36	10.4	27	13.0	22	14.5

	Healthcare	35	10.1	27	13.0	20	13.2
	Retail	35	10.1	17	8.2	24	15.8
	Technology	30	8.6	22	10.6	18	11.8
	Other industries	137	39.4	84	40.6	44	28.9
<i>Job Level</i>							
	Entry Level	116	28.6	85	39.4	62	38.5
	Intern / Placement Student	90	22.2	41	18.9	19	11.8
	Graduate	74	18.3	29	13.4	29	18
	Apprentice	63	15.6	20	9.3	17	10.6
	Manager	21	5.2	17	7.9	15	9.3
	Other	41	10.1	24	11.1	19	11.8
<i>Education Level</i>							
	Bachelor's Degree	171	42.3	87	40.3	68	42.5
	A-Levels, BTEC, OCR Nationals, NVQs, HNCs, HND, Foundation Degree	111	27.5	53	24.5	44	27.5
	Master's Degree	62	15.4	32	14.8	25	15.6
	GCSE or equivalent	36	8.9	28	12.9	12	7.5
	Doctoral Degree	5	1.2	4	1.9	3	1.9
	Not Stated	19	4.7	12	5.6	8	5

As can be seen in this table, some demographic data is missing from respondents across the three time points.

There was a balanced split between male (48.3%) and female (51.7%) respondents in the sample at time one, with this shifting to a slightly higher female sample (56.4%) compared to males (43.6%) for time three. The mean age at time one was 23.2 years, time two, 23.7 years, and time three was 24.3 years. Regarding age range, histograms (see Appendix F) showed a slight right skew in respondents' ages, particularly at time point 1. The skew was not severe enough, however, to greatly affect the mean age ranges and the ages of participants were primarily around 23-24 years old for all three time points. A large majority of the final sample were British (50.6%) and White (78.2%). Many survey respondents indicated that they worked in the engineering industry (15.8%), which would be logical as many respondents were gained through an automobile engineering organisation. Most of the respondents were entry level, interns/placement students, graduates, or apprentices within their organisation (78.9%), as opposed to management level. Just under half of the time three respondents had a Bachelor's Degree (42.5%).

5.4.3 Participants

Sampling for this research used a stage sampling strategy and the response numbers are summarised below in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: *Survey Respondents Across Three Survey Time Points*

	Survey One	Survey Two	Survey Three
Organisation 1	n=60	n=21 <i>(65% dropout rate)</i>	n=16 <i>(73% dropout rate)</i>
Organisation 2	n=66	n=15 <i>(77% dropout rate)</i>	n=20 <i>(70% dropout rate)</i>
Researcher's Network	n=82	n=27 <i>(67% dropout rate)</i>	n=18 <i>(78% dropout rate)</i>

Prolific Academic	n=258	n=166 <i>(36% dropout rate)</i>	n=117 <i>(55% dropout rate)</i>
--------------------------	-------	------------------------------------	------------------------------------

The first stage was based on the organisations who were involved in qualitative study one. One hundred and eighty-six respondents were recruited through access within the organisations. Discussions with key stakeholders led to an agreement to these companies being involved in this next stage study. The key contact (typically within a HR team) emailed out the Qualtrics questionnaire link to incoming graduates, placement students, apprentices and interns one month prior to them starting their new role within the company. They then followed up with the second and third surveys at the relevant time points. Participants were sent the survey one month prior to joining the company. They were then sent the second survey three to four weeks after they had started their new job role, with the third and final survey being sent out six to 12 weeks after they had started their job role. There were high drop-out rates for the second and third surveys. The low response rate was likely due to the long survey, especially with some individuals having a short-term contract/leaving their role, and a lack of compensation or motivation to complete the surveys.

Stage two was through the researcher's network, identifying individuals who were due to start a new job and who were recruited for the study via Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn and through contact with the primary researcher. Twenty-seven respondents were recruited. Snowball sampling was used here where respondents were asked to recommend other individuals for participation in the study; ensuring they met the inclusion criterion of starting a new job within one month. These individuals were sent each survey manually by the researcher at the adequate time point and were offered compensation for taking part in the form of a donation to a charity of their choice (£5.00). A receipt of compensation to the charity was sent to the respondent once they had completed all three surveys.

Stage three involved the recruitment of 258 respondents through Prolific Academic (<https://www.prolific.co/>), an online platform that allows researchers to gather data through an international online participant pool. The given population for this quantitative survey study was young people transitioning to a new job within an organisation. Prolific Academic allows researchers to set criteria and, through liaising with the platform, a unique criterion for this study was set up requesting survey participation from individuals within six weeks prior to entry to a new job role. This opened up access to a number of individuals meeting this criterion through the platform's database, helping to improve the representativeness and size of the sample, as well as wider international access and speed in responses. Although Prolific Academic provides more of an international sample, the researcher was also sharing the survey links with contacts and networks so not to restrict or limit the representativeness and therefore generalisability of the sample population. Prolific Academic has increased access to UK and USA samples, which can explain why these two nationalities showed to be higher in the final sample of respondents. Overall, the use of Prolific Academic allowed the researcher to reach respondents that were outside of their networks and allowed increased international respondents, enhancing representativeness of the sample. Nevertheless, there are drawbacks to using a survey compensation platform in terms of bias, and restrictions around the use of this platform for representativeness are discussed in the study limitations section of this chapter (see 5.6).

A project was set up and compensation was given to participants for completing each of the three surveys (£1.75 per survey), with bonus compensation for those participants who completed all three surveys (£1.00). This option was considered due to the high drop-out rates from the previous sample and recruitment methods. Through Prolific Academic, the initial survey was created, targeting individuals who were due to start a new job within one month (this was set as a prerequisite for being allowed access to survey one). The researcher could then identify individuals who had completed survey one and invite them to take part in survey two, allowing continuation of participants over the longitudinal survey design of the study. Drop-out rates were much lower than the organisational and researcher network data.

5.4.4 Survey Measures

The full survey questionnaire used in this study can be found Appendix G. A questionnaire was created and designed to capture the personal and organisational work values, self-efficacy, organisational investiture and job satisfaction of respondents. Participants were asked to indicate their self-reported preferences and ratings across the following variables, using the detailed scales. The measures are outlined in detail below, and Table 5.3 identifies which of the three surveys the measures were included in.

Table 5.3: *Study Variables Measured at Three Time Points*

SURVEY ONE <i>(One to six weeks before starting)</i>	SURVEY TWO <i>(One to two months in new role)</i>	SURVEY THREE <i>(Three to six months in new role)</i>
Personal Work Values: Extrinsic Intrinsic Social Prestige	Personal Work Values: Extrinsic Intrinsic Social Prestige	Personal Work Values: Extrinsic Intrinsic Social Prestige
	Self-Efficacy	
	Organisational Work Values: Extrinsic Intrinsic Social Prestige	
	Organisational Investiture	
	Job Satisfaction	
Demographics	Demographics	Demographics

5.4.4.1 Demographic Measures

Demographic information was gathered through the survey including the following variables. Age was a forced response question and was asked for at the start of

the survey as this was hypothesised as part of the study, being a moderator variable for the stability of work values (*see theoretical justification above*). The other demographic information was requested at the end of the survey after the main variable measures. Gender, nationality, ethnicity, education level, industry and job level were all controlled for through the survey. Previous research has demonstrated clear gender differences in work values (e.g., Konrad et al., 2000), with males placing higher importance on extrinsic and prestige-related values (Lechner et al., 2017; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Sortheix et al., 2015). Females have been found to place higher importance on intrinsic, social and work-life balance-related work values (Konrad et al., 2000; Lechner et al., 2017; Sortheix et al., 2015). Although research has often failed to find trends in work values unique to nationality and ethnicity, this could be due to methodological and sampling issues (Parry & Urwin, 2011); however, some studies on general values have identified differences based on this demographic (e.g., Gaines et al., 1997). Educational and job-level status has been measured in work values research, with significant differences being found, such as those with a higher socio-demographic status holding higher values for job involvement (e.g., Ho et al., 2012; Mundia et al., 2017). Finally, empirical studies investigating work values of employees working across different disciplines and sectors have shown significant differences in the work values individuals hold (e.g., Arieli et al., 2020; 2016; Gandal et al., 2005; Knafo & Sagiv, 2004), hence why industry was also controlled for in the demographic measures.

5.4.4.2 Work Values

Work values were measured using the Work Values Survey (WVS) developed by Lyons (2003; Lyons et al., 2010), which represents a wide variety of work aspects selected through a review of established measures (Lyons et al., 2012b). The 25-item scale represents the four work values categories adopted in this work (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010), with items indicated below:

- **Instrumental (9 items) i.e., Extrinsic**
 1. Having benefits (e.g., vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan, etc.) that meet your personal needs.

2. Having management that provides timely and constructive feedback about your performance.
 3. Having the assurance of job security.
 4. Having hours of work that are convenient to your life.
 5. Working in an environment that allows you to balance your work life with your private life and family responsibilities.
 6. Having access to the information you need to do your job.
 7. Doing work that affords you a good salary.
 8. Working where recognition is given for a job well done.
 9. Working for a supervisor who is considerate and supportive.
- **Cognitive (8 items) i.e., Intrinsic**
 1. Working on tasks and projects that challenge your abilities.
 2. Having the opportunity to continuously learn and develop new knowledge.
 3. Having the freedom to make decisions about how you do your work and spend your time.
 4. Doing work that provides change and variety in work activities.
 5. Doing work that allows you to use the abilities you have developed through your education and experience.
 6. Having the opportunity for advancement in your career.
 7. Doing work that provides you with a personal sense of achievement in your accomplishments.
 8. Doing work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging.
 - **Social (4 items) i.e., Altruistic**
 - 1) Working with agreeable and friendly co-workers with whom you could form friendships.
 - 2) Working in an environment that is lively and fun.
 - 3) Doing work that allows for a lot of social interaction.
 - 4) Doing work that allows you to help people.

- **Prestige (4 items) i.e., Status**

- 1) Doing work that makes a significant impact on the organisation.
- 2) Having the authority to organise and direct the work of others.
- 3) Doing work that is prestigious and regarded highly by others.
- 4) Having the ability to influence organisational outcomes.

Respondents were asked to indicate how important each item (e.g., “*Doing work that is interesting, exciting and engaging*”) is on a 5-point Likert scale of 1=Not at all important to 5=Absolutely essential. According to the results of Lyons et al. (2010), using a large sample, the 25 items in the measure are grouped for the purpose of presentation into four broader work value factors: extrinsic (nine items, $\alpha=0.83$), intrinsic (eight items, $\alpha=0.86$), social/altruistic (four items, $\alpha=0.74$) and prestige (four items, $\alpha=0.79$). Aggregate scores on each of these four factors are calculated by averaging the scores on all of their respective items. There are many debates around normative versus ipsative measures (e.g., Meglino & Ravlin, 1998), yet this study adopted a normative approach where respondents were required to rate the extent to which they agreed with value statements, whereas an ipsative technique would ask respondents to rank order their values. There is no consensus over the most effective way to measure values in the literature; however, when rated independently, absolute differences are identified (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Furthermore, some studies have found little difference between the two types of measures (e.g., Rankin & Grube, 1980).

Although there are a number of work values measures available, this survey has three main advantages:

1. This measure incorporates a broader range of work aspects than previous ones, offering a more detailed picture, and capturing the full domain of the overall structure (Leuty & Hansen, 2011). The measure takes into account previous theory as well as more up-to-date developments in the field of work values.

2. Most instruments/surveys were designed between the 1960s and 1980s so are therefore not reflective of the changes in the nature of work, e.g., technology, boundaryless careers. The WVS includes items that were designed to capture modern work values (e.g., Harding & Hikspoors, 1995). In addition, as items were identified in qualitative research with younger workers and students, work aspects are relevant and familiar for successive generations (Lyons, 2003).
3. The survey asks respondents to rate the degree to which each work aspect would be a ‘top priority’ in selecting a job or choosing to remain in a job on the 5-point scale, thereby encouraging the respondent to apply work aspect priorities and consider items in comparison to other items. Other measures do not do this and, rather, gain abstract ratings of their importance that are not consistent with the hierarchical nature of values proposed in the literature (i.e., individuals weigh some values more heavily than others in making decisions and selecting courses of action) (Lyons et al., 2010).

For the purpose of this study, the 25-item Lyons WVS (2003; Lyons et al., 2010) was used in the final questionnaire version. This was then adapted by asking respondents to apply this firstly to their personal work values, and then secondly to their organisational work values. Respondents were asked to consider each item and rate the extent to which it is a high priority for them, and then the extent to which it is a high priority for their organisation. Responses for both personal and organisational work values were on the same 5-point Likert scale only for surveys two and three, as respondents had not yet entered the organisation when completing survey one. Although the key work values theory by Schwartz (1992) has been found to be applicable across a large number of cultures (Davidov et al., 2008; Schwartz, 1992, 2007; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012), the *importance* that individuals place on their work values, in terms of the hierarchical order, varies, with little consensus found globally. When investigating work value stability, this study focuses on the work value profile of individuals, rather than hierarchical order (see measures above – no ranking was conducted).

5.4.4.3 Organisational Investiture

This study used a measure of organisational investiture based on research by Ashforth and Saks (1996), who utilised this 5-item measure specifically to examine and extend seminal research by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) on socialisation tactics as newcomers enter organisations. There has been very little attempt to refine organisational investiture scales, with the exception of Ashforth and Saks (1996). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) focused on a newcomer's incoming identity and personal attributes, considering social support in how an individual is challenged or accepted by an organisation. The final five items used in the current study were adapted by Ashforth et al. (2007) to further study socialisation tactics, proactive behaviour and newcomer learning. The five items used are summarised below:

1. My organisation accepts newcomers for who they are.
2. The organisation does not try to change the values and beliefs of newcomers.
3. The following statement describes the attitude of my organisation toward newcomers: 'We like you as you are; don't change'.
4. My organisation tries to transform newcomers into a different kind of person.
5. In this organisation, you must 'pay your dues' before you are fully accepted.

Responses were provided through a 5-point Likert response scale ranging from 1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree. Items 4 and 5 were reverse coded so a high score on this measure indicates higher investiture and acceptance of the newcomer by the organisation. The reliability coefficient alpha for this measure is .79 (Ashforth et al., 2007).

5.4.4.4 Job Satisfaction

Overall job satisfaction was measured through three questions from the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (Seashore, 1964) used by Zalesny and Farace (1987). These three questions were: ‘I am satisfied with my job’, ‘I really don’t like my job’ and ‘I like working here’. The second item was reverse coded, meaning a high score indicates a higher level of job satisfaction being reported by the respondent. Responses were provided through a 5-point Likert response scale ranging from 1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree. The reliability coefficient alpha for this measure is .88 (Seashore, 1964). Although a dated scale, this short measure has been used in a great deal of research over the years (e.g., McElroy & Morrow, 2010).

5.4.4.5 Self-Efficacy

For the purpose of the current study a generalised measure of self-efficacy (GSE) was used in order to identify the respondent’s belief in their ability to achieve a task or challenge (Bandura, 1986, 2006; Chen et al., 2001). As self-efficacy is being considered as a moderator to the relationship between personal work values at three time points around entry to an organisation, it therefore suffices to use a generalised measure. GSE is seen as more stable than task-specific SE – therefore this was included in the study as a moderator – which has been recommended by researchers (e.g., Eden & Kinnar, 1991).

Chen et al.’s (2001) New Generation Self-Efficacy Scale was used in the current study as it is one of the most recent measures of GSE with positive psychometric evidence, e.g., internal consistency of the responses to items ranges from .85 to .90 (Chen et al., 2004; Scherbaum et al., 2006). The scale consists of eight items listed below that are rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly disagree; 5=Strongly agree).

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind.

5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

5.4.4.6 Reliability Alphas of Measures

Published reliability alphas for measures are outlined above, yet the Cronbach's Alphas for the survey measures that were generated following analysis are presented below across the three time points. Alphas for all measures were found to be above 0.6, showing acceptable reliability (Cortina, 1993).

At time point 1, the reliability analyses showed the following Cronbach's Alphas for the survey measures:

- Personal extrinsic values (T1) – $\alpha = 0.674$
- Personal intrinsic values (T1) – $\alpha = 0.775$
- Personal social values (T1) – $\alpha = 0.614$
- Personal prestige values (T1) – $\alpha = 0.743$

At time point 2, the reliability analyses showed the following Cronbach's Alphas for the survey measures:

- Self-efficacy (T2) – $\alpha = 0.875$
- Personal extrinsic values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.690$
- Personal intrinsic values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.842$
- Personal social values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.672$
- Personal prestige values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.789$
- Organisational extrinsic values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.871$
- Organisational intrinsic values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.881$
- Organisational social values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.668$

- Organisational prestige values (T2) – $\alpha = 0.707$
- Organisational investiture (T2) – $\alpha = 0.851$
- Job satisfaction (T2) – $\alpha = 0.907$

At time point 3, the reliability analyses showed the following Cronbach's Alphas for the survey measures:

- Personal extrinsic value (T3) – $\alpha = 0.730$
- Personal intrinsic value (T3) – $\alpha = 0.820$
- Personal social value (T3) – $\alpha = 0.718$
- Personal prestige value (T3) – $\alpha = 0.767$

5.4.5 Procedure

The survey was designed and circulated via the Qualtrics online platform. The survey was estimated to take approximately 10 to 15 minutes for respondents to complete. The Qualtrics link was sent to participants through their organisations, researcher networks or through Prolific Academic (sampling detailed in Section 4.3.2 above).

On the opening page of the survey, participants were provided with a briefing page. This provided participants with information about the background to the study and what was expected of them by participating in the research. In addition, this opening page also presented ethical considerations to the participants such as confirming the voluntary nature of the study and their right to withdraw, as well as emphasising the anonymity and the secure storage of the data collected. Consent was required before the participants could start the survey. Each participant was provided with the option to click an 'I agree' option on the page before they progressed to the survey questions. If a participant did not agree to give their consent and take part, they were taken straight to the debrief page and no data was collected.

Participants were then asked to create a personal code which would help to match responses over the time points without knowing an individual's identity. The code was created through the participant taking the first two letters of their mother's first name, the

first two letters of their father's first name and the first two digits of their date of birth. Respondents then progressed to the survey questions, having the opportunity to leave at any time; they were only forced to enter a value for age at the start as this was a key variable for analysis.

When the survey was completed by the participant, they were taken to a debrief page. This page provided them with a summary of the research and also gave them contact details of the researcher should they wish to receive further information about the study. All participants were thanked for their time and the confidential nature of the research was emphasised again. Participants were also made aware from the start about the longitudinal nature of the study and were aware that two further surveys would be sent to them. In some cases, compensation was provided for completing the survey and this was also made clear.

5.4.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was granted by the University of Leeds Ethical Committee (Ref: LTLUBS-081). The study has been carried out in accordance with good ethical practice as outlined by the university's ethical guidelines as well as those of the British Psychological Society (BPS, 2018). The researcher ensured that they worked ethically and with integrity in their professional and academic capacity. Key points about briefing/debriefing, consent, voluntary participation, anonymity, confidentiality and secure storage of data have all been outlined above. Raw data was viewed by only the researcher/supervisors and not participating organisations. Study findings are all reported back at the group level in order to ensure individual anonymity.

In addition, to ensure safe working, a risk assessment form for conducting fieldwork was submitted to and signed off by the Graduate School prior to data collection.

5.4.7 Pilot Study/Survey Amendments

An early pilot study (n=16) was conducted to examine the face validity and clarity of the overall survey and individual measures used. The questionnaire was administered online and piloted with a small sample of Master's students. Questionnaire responses

were anonymous and voluntary. Feedback was provided and no major revisions were made. All pilot surveys were conducted online in the same way that the future surveys were to be administered. The pilot study provided an opportunity to test the survey prior to larger-scale administration to the wider sample.

Following feedback from the first rounds of survey distribution within one of the organisations, reflecting concerns by some respondents, some changes were made. The researcher dropped the high/low work values and just focused on high values for individual and organisation.

5.4.8 Statistical Data Analysis

The research hypotheses and longitudinal nature of this study dictated the use of a quantitative research methodology and the use of statistical analysis. Questionnaire data was uploaded to IBM SPSS Version 26. Before conducting the analyses, variables were labelled using numerical indicators from the questionnaire and datasets were created for time one, time two and time three. Using SPSS and the individual personal codes provided by respondents, the cases for each respondent were aligned across the three time points. In some cases, particularly from the surveys from the organisations and through the researcher's networks, there were some full surveys missing from a time point. Missing data analyses were run, and descriptive statistics were generated for the variables to test for means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations amongst the variables (non-significant and significant findings were reported). All key study variables were treated as continuous.

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were created in IBM SPSS AMOS Version 25 to assess the psychometric properties and internal reliability of the items and measures. Being theory-driven and a confirmatory technique, this was an appropriate approach to use for the published measures used in the study (Schreiber et al., 2006). The CFA whole models across the three time points included the relevant variables, i.e., personal work values, organisational work values, organisational investiture, job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Using CFA allowed exploration of the measurement model and the covariance structure (McDonald, 1978).

Simple linear regressions were conducted to examine stability in personal work values across the three time points. To test moderated mediation regression analysis, Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro with 5000 bootstrap resamples process were used in SPSS. Direct and indirect effects were generated at 95% confidence interval to examine mediation effects and stability of work values as well as moderation effects. Mean scores of key variables were centred to avoid multicollinearity effects based on +1 SD, mean and -1 SD (Kraemer & Blasey, 2004). The use of PROCESS (Hayes, 2017) allows Bootstrapping, which makes no normality assumptions, and homoscedasticity can also be checked for. Simple slopes were developed based on the output for significant interactions results to examine moderation effects. All non-significant findings are reported in Appendix H.

5.5 Results

5.5.1 Missing Data Analyses

As the quantitative study was longitudinal, it is common to have system missing values absent from the dataset, i.e., where a participant skips a question in one section of the survey. In addition, in longitudinal research there can be a section of a wave, or a time point's, survey missing, or a whole wave survey not completed. Due to using Prolific to access samples, respondents were paid to complete the surveys, including a bonus payment for completing all surveys. This reduced the drop-off, or attrition rate, for later surveys collected via this method, as opposed to surveys that were sent to organisations and networks early on in the research process, with no monetary incentive.

Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) test (1988) was run on the datasets (three time points separately) to explore whether data was missing at random or in a non-random way. When exploring missing data and Little's MCAR (1988), it is widely considered that, if the test has a significance level of $p > 0.05$, the null hypothesis can be accepted, and data can be considered as MCAR. For time point 1 ($n=466$), the range of percentage of missing data ranged from 2.6% to 13.5% for the personal work values measures. Conducting Little's MCAR test (1988) showed that data is not missing at random; $\chi^2 = 1139.987$, $p < 0.000$. As the chi-squared value is statistically significant

here, the null hypothesis that data is missing completely at random is rejected, suggesting that the pattern of missing values depends on the actual data values. It is clear from the percentage of missing values that there is a higher percentage missing within the personal work values data than the self-efficacy data (which opened the survey). Data at time two (n=229) was missing across measures from 0% to 9.2% (which is noticeably less than at time point 1). Little's MCAR test (1988) found that data is not missing completely at random; $\chi^2 = 1920.436$, $p < 0.000$. Conducting the MCAR test (Little, 1988) at time point 3 (n=171) also found that the data is not missing at random; however, this was slightly less statistically significant than time 1 and time2; $\chi^2 = 1352.568$, $p < 0.05$. Data was missing across measures from 0% to 6.4%.

Based on this analysis, as the probability of data being missing was consistent across all cases, we considered Missing at Random assumption (MAR), where the causes of the missing points than MCAR, and allows missingness of data to be accounted for by other variables, therefore not disrupting analysis processes (Little & Rubin, 2002). At this point, because the data were not missing completely at random, and the sample sizes across time points were not too large, it was not appropriate to listwise delete cases with missing values or impute missing values (Kang, 2013). With many missing data points, pairwise deletion analysis will also be deficient (Kang, 2013), and can result in a non-positive covariance matrix and heteroscedastic error when conducting CFAs (Schumaker & Lomax, 1996). Finally, the missing data maximum percentage is halved from time point 1 to time point 3, showing that the levels reduced over the longitudinal study design. Although time point 1 missing data were larger, it did not make sense to impute only one time point in the survey. Therefore, no techniques for dealing with the missing data points were applied to the dataset. Full missing datasets from participants were removed from the sample.

It must be recognised that the data analysis would have been affected if a great deal of data were missing from respondents' time points two and three, and understandably would provide lower sample sizes at the later time points. So, in conclusion, taking into account the missing data analyses and the MAR assumption, there still remained a substantial number of data points to compute estimates for the CFA and

moderated mediation models without imputing data or removing major variables. Therefore, missing data points were left untouched, apart from the obvious loss of data, and this was not expected to affect the analyses and results of the survey study.

5.5.2 Data Screening, Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Prior to the CFA and moderated mediation analysis, data was evaluated for univariate outliers through the generation of boxplots in SPSS, identifying outliers for each participant. Patterns for unengaged participants were checked for in the data through the data screening and visually. No issues were found overall. Univariate normality assumptions were tested with skewness and kurtosis coefficients with histograms generated to assess normality distribution across the variables. Visual checks for skewness were reviewed to identify leniency or severity of scores in addition to the outlier analysis. The data across all three time points did not severely violate the normality assumption. The use of bootstrapping in the CFA applies a non-parametric test that works independently of any distribution assumption, providing reliable estimates for confidence levels and intervals. Descriptive data are unrelated to the data itself. MAR provides a broader, more realistic explanation for the data's statistical analysis was performed across all three time points, on all measures, as outlined and presented below.

Time Point 1- Across the total sample at time 1 (n=466), the mean scores, standard deviations and Pearson's bivariate correlations for age and personal work values are presented below in Table 5.4. A two-tailed Pearson's correlation was performed on the data to examine the relationships between the study variables. Reverse-coded items were adjusted in SPSS.

Table 5.4: *Descriptive Statistics for Variables Measured at Time 1*

	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Age (T1)	456	23.21	4.02					
2. Extrinsic - PWV	392	3.50	0.35	.067				
3. Intrinsic - PWV	392	3.48	0.40	.047	.466**			

4. Prestige – PWV	400	2.95	0.51	-.064	.352**	.560**		
5. Social - PWV	400	3.34	0.65	.043	.494**	.546**	.446**	

Note. PWV = Personal Work Values. ** $p < 0.01$ (2 tailed).

All variables showed statistically significant weak to strong positive correlations amongst each other based on the r value (Evans, 1996). Intrinsic and prestige personal work values (0.56; $p < 0.01$) were reported to have the strongest significant correlation, with intrinsic and social personal work values (0.55; $p < 0.01$) also reporting a strong correlation. Extrinsic and prestige personal work values (0.35; $p < 0.01$) reported the weakest significant correlational relationship.

Time Point 2 - Across the total sample at time 2 ($n=229$), the mean scores and standard deviations for age, self-efficacy, personal and organisational work values, organisational investiture and job satisfaction are presented below in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: *Descriptive Statistics for Variables Representing Measures at Time 2*

	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age (T2)	228	23.71	4.17												
2. Self-efficacy	229	4.07	.62	-.029											
3. Extrinsic - PWV	212	3.46	.35	.055	.117										
4. Intrinsic - PWV	208	3.35	.50	.138*	.261**	.550**									
5. Prestige – PWV	216	2.75	.70	.037	.259**	.253**	.602**								
6. Social – PWV	216	3.27	.55	.086	.200**	.495**	.600**	.474**							
7. Extrinsic - OWV	203	3.09	.61	.019	.236**	.438**	.359**	.338**	.413**						
8. Intrinsic - OWV	206	2.99	.67	.056	.244**	.314**	.434**	.528**	.461**	.808**					
9. Prestige – OWV	209	2.88	.68	.003	.217**	.295**	.412**	.560**	.437**	.544**	.690**				
10. Social – OWV	207	3.04	.65	-.074	.188**	.340**	.313**	.390**	.439**	.638**	.650**	.503**			
11. Organisational investiture	216	3.27	.48	-.085	.169*	.109	.101	.157*	.091	.177*	.149*	.153*	.161*		
12. Job satisfaction	215	3.34	.40	-.024	.214**	.103	.245**	.235**	.158**	.306**	.312**	.226**	.242**	.301**	

Note. PWV = Personal Work Values. OWV = Organisational Work Values. * $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed). ** $p < 0.01$ (2 tailed).

Extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values (0.81; $p < 0.01$) were reported to have the strongest significant correlation, with intrinsic and prestige organisational work values (0.69; $p < 0.01$) also reporting a strong correlation. Intrinsic personal work values and age (0.14; $p < 0.05$) reported the weakest significant correlational relationship.

Time Point 3 - Across the total sample at time 3 ($n=171$), the mean scores and standard deviations for personal work values are presented below in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: *Descriptive Statistics for Variables Representing Measures at Time 3*

	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Extrinsic - PWV	161	0.37	0.35				
2. Intrinsic - PWV	164	0.45	0.40	.539**			
3. Prestige - PWV	165	0.71	0.51	.281**	.584**		
4. Social - PWV	165	0.61	0.65	.458**	.627**	.449**	

Note. PWV = Personal Work Values. * $p < 0.05$ (2 tailed). ** $p < 0.01$ (2 tailed).

Intrinsic and social personal work values (0.63; $p < 0.01$) were reported to have the strongest significant correlation. Extrinsic and prestige personal work values (0.28; $p < 0.01$) reported the weakest significant correlational relationship.

Across Three Time Points

Across the total sample across the three time points, the mean scores and standard deviations for all variables are presented below in Table 5.7.

As would be expected, age correlated the most strongly and significantly across time points one and two. Excluding these, extrinsic organisational work values (T2) and intrinsic organisational work values (T2) were reported to have the strongest significant correlation (0.808; $p < 0.01$). Age (T2) and intrinsic personal work values were reported to have the weakest significant correlational relationship (.138; $p < 0.05$).

5.5.3 Measurement Model Validation – Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFAs were conducted in IBM SPSS AMOS Version 25 to test the factor structure of the measures in the study (*cf.* Mulaik et al., 1989). Based on the theoretical framework for this research, three models were tested for goodness of fit using CFA. Model 1 was the Time 1 (1-6 weeks prior to organisational entry) measurement data, Model 2 was the Time 2 (2-6 weeks after entry) measurement data, and Model 3 was the Time 3 (3-4 months after entry) measurement data. CFAs are summarised below across these three time points. No cross-loadings were estimated and all error terms were modelled independently. Means and intercepts were estimated in AMOS to account for missing data and use the full information maximum likelihood estimation (Collins et al., 2001). RMSEA³, CFI⁴ and TLI⁵ were reported, which are commonly used indexes for evaluating model fit, particularly when missing data were present, as in the case of the current dataset (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tucker & Lewis, 1973; Zhang & Savalei, 2020).

5.5.3.1 Whole Model Time 1

Time 1 four factor model: The four-factor model fit the data, showing a mediocre yet acceptable fit. Table 5.8 reports the CFA results for time 1, providing an overview of the fit indices for the solutions within the CFA.

Table 5.8: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 1 Four-Factor Model ($n=350$)

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2 / df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Time 1	1078.971***	269	4.0111	0.080	0.705	0.644

*** $p < .001$

³ Root mean square error of approximation

⁴ Bentler's comparative fit index

⁵ Tucker-Lewis index

The model at time 1 included personal work values (extrinsic 9-items, intrinsic 8-items, social 4-items and prestige 4-items). The model parameters and goodness-of-fit of the CFA model were examined with: $RMSEA \leq 0.080$ (90% $CI \leq 0.086$) (Brown, 2015). Additionally, the chi-squared/df ratio ≤ 3 rule was also used (Kline, 2016). CFI and TLI outputs show a fairly low fit with 0.705 and 0.644 respectively; with cut-off values being typically set at 0.90 (Marsh, 1995) or 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The RMSEA is the most effective measure of fit in this case as it is used to assess the models as it overcomes the issues of sample size sensitivity with χ^2 (Brown, 2006; Steiger & Lind, 1980). These model values indicate a mediocre, yet acceptable, fit between the time 1 model and the observed data. MacCallum et al. (1996) have used 0.01, 0.05 and 0.08 to indicate excellent, good and mediocre fit, respectively, and this perspective has been adopted in the current study to assess measurement model fit. Figure 5.2 displays the full time 1 four-factor measurement model with standardised parameter estimates and factor correlations (all being significant at $p < .001$). No post hoc modifications were indicated from the analysis due to the acceptable fit indexes.

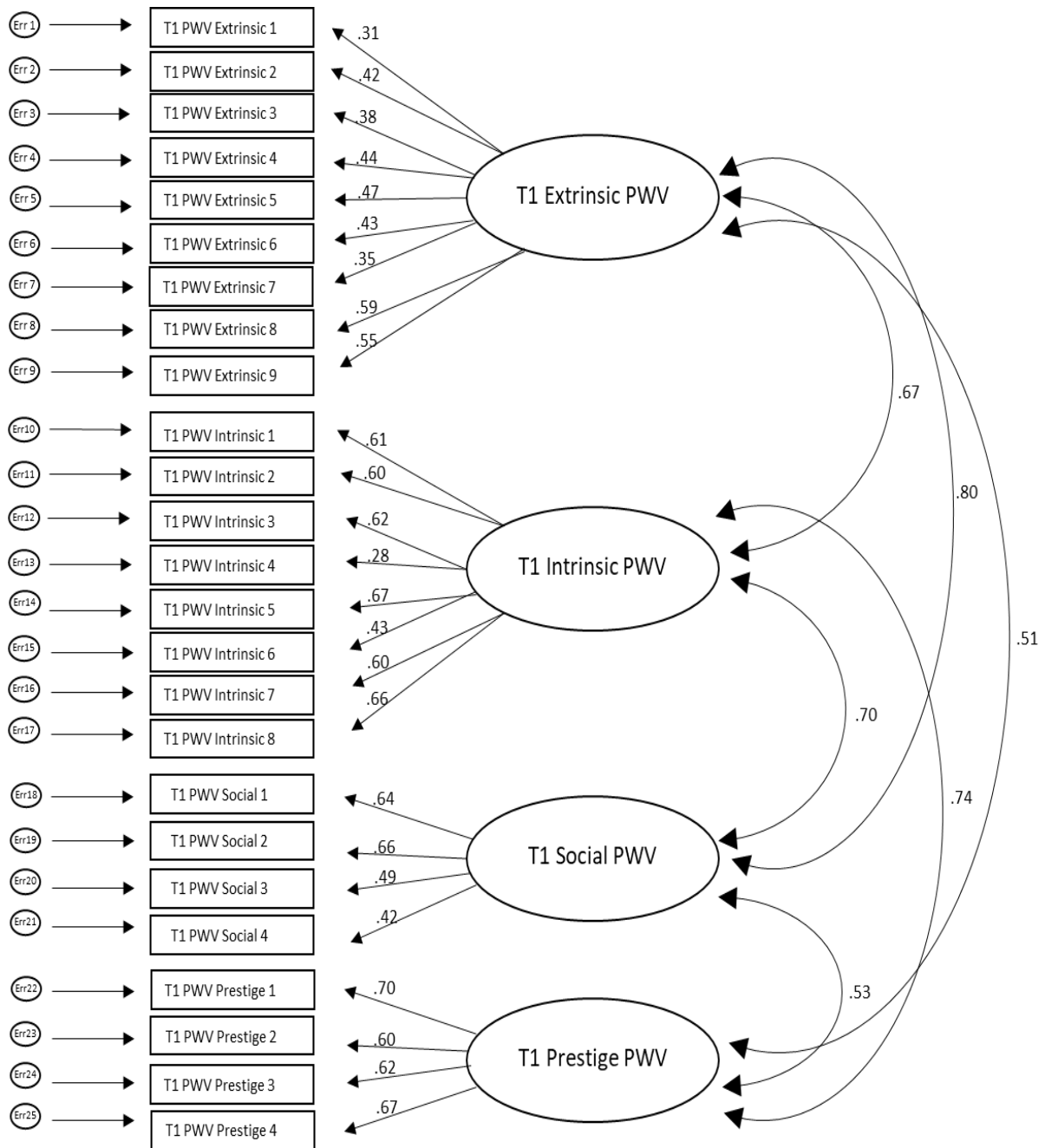


Figure 5.2: *Four Factor CFA Model for Time 1 for Personal Work Values*

Unstandardised coefficients for time 1 CFA, as well as full covariance values and intercepts, are summarised in Appendix I. As can be seen in Figure 5.2, standardised loadings ranged from .695 to .277 ($p < .001$) for extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige work values.

Within the four-factor model the correlations between work values were evaluated within the total sample (n=350) to explore interrelationships and covariances, with measures separated into four groups: extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige. Correlations between the constructs ranged from 0.511 (Extrinsic-Prestige) to 0.796 (Extrinsic-Social). The second largest correlation was 0.737 (Intrinsic-Prestige) and the second lowest was 0.534 (Social-Prestige). All significance levels were at $p < 0.001$.

Time 1 model iterations: Item 4 from the intrinsic personal work values measure 'Having the freedom to make decisions about how you do your work and spend your time', showed the lowest factor loading of .277; however, removing this did not greatly improve the model fit (RMSEA \leq 0.079; 90% CI \leq 0.085; CFI = 0.727; TLI = 0.667).

Similarly, removing item 1 from the extrinsic personal work values measure 'Having benefits (e.g., holiday pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan etc.) that meet your personal needs', with a low factor loading of .306, did not improve the model fit (RMSEA \leq 0.082; 90% CI \leq 0.087; CFI = 0.713; TLI = 0.650).

In addition, the researcher did not want to restrict the range of the concepts captured in the scale and, since removing these items did not improve the model fit, the full measurements with all items were left complete for the CFA. Removal of these items did not affect conceptual representativeness; therefore, these constructs were retained as complete scales for the whole model CFAs. These were also checked across all three time points and did not greatly improve the model.

Time 1 two factor model: Based on the highly significant correlational results, a further two-factor measurement model was tested where extrinsic and social personal work values load onto one factor, and intrinsic and prestige personal work values load onto one factor. Table 5.9 presents the model outputs.

Table 5.9: *Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 1 Two Factor Model (n=350)*

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2 / df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Time 1	1178.978***	274	4.3028	0.084	0.671	0.609

***p<.001

The model parameters and goodness-of-fit of the CFA model were examined with: $RMSEA \leq 0.084$ (90% $CI \leq 0.089$). This demonstrates a mediocre fit between the model and the observed data (MacCallum et al., 1996). CFI and TLI outputs showed 0.671 and 0.609 respectively, showing low model fit. The two-factor measurement model is presented in Figure 5.3 with standardised estimates visible. Unstandardised coefficients for time 1 CFA (version 2), as well as full covariance values and model intercepts, are summarised in Appendix I.

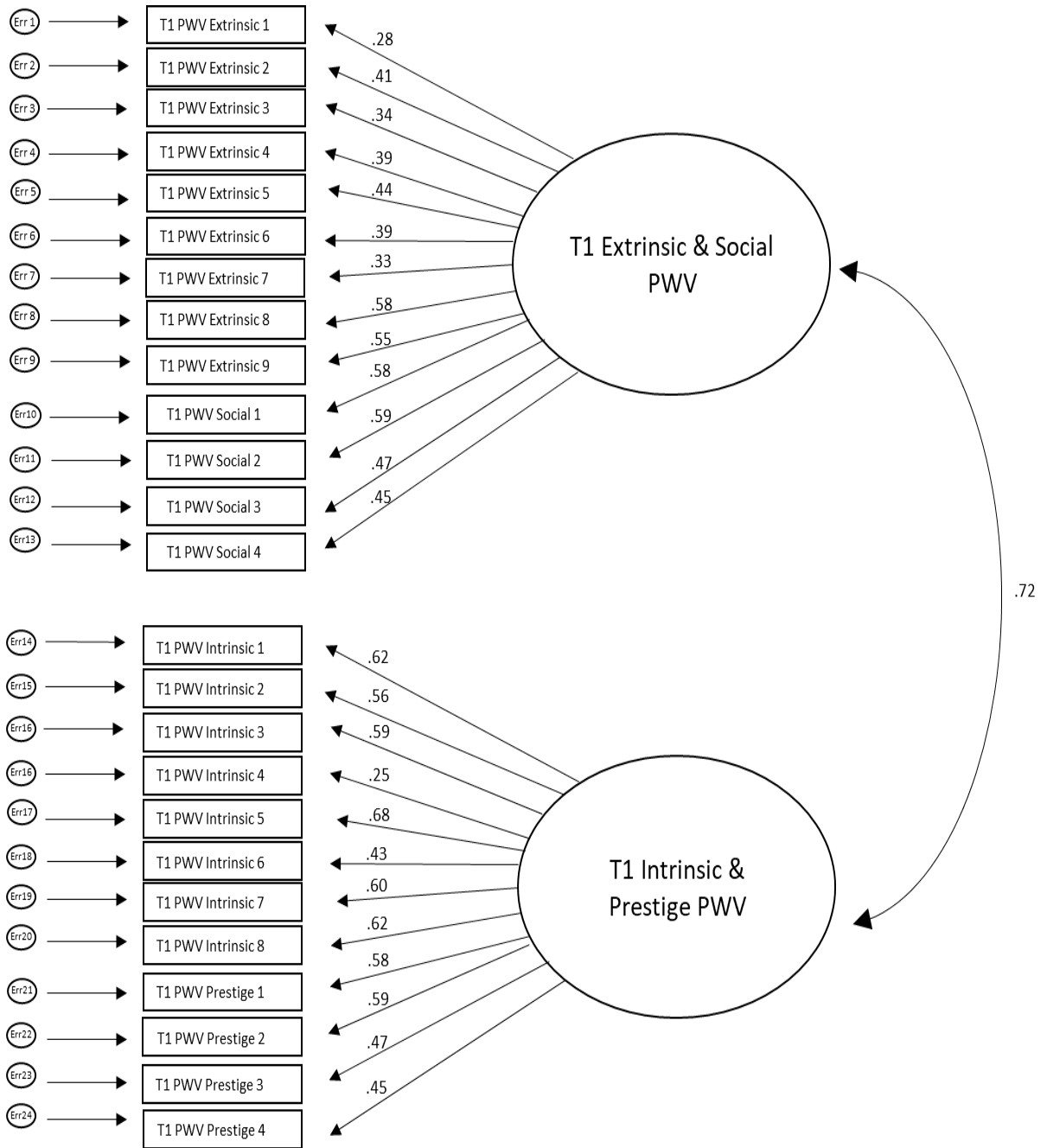


Figure 5.3: Two-Factor CFA Model for Time 1 for Personal Work Values (Version 2)

Standardised loadings ranged from .251 to .676 ($p < .001$) for extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige personal work values. The correlation between Extrinsic/Social and Intrinsic/Prestige is 0.724 ($p < .001$), showing a strong relationship between the two factors.

A chi-squared difference test can be used to evaluate the relative fit of two nested models such as these (four-factor vs two-factor measurement models) (Netemeyer et al., 1990; Pavlov et al., 2020). The difference of the χ^2 values as well as the difference of the degrees of freedom were taken and are presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: *Goodness-of-Fit indicators and Chi-Squared Difference Test for the Time 1 Four-Factor and Two-Factor Measurement Models*

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2 / df	χ^2 <i>diff</i>	<i>df</i> <i>diff</i>	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Two-Factor	1178.978***	274	4.3028			0.084	0.671	0.609
Four-Factor	1078.971***	269	4.0111	100.007**	5	0.080	0.705	0.644

** $p < .005$

*** $p < .001$

As the chi-squared difference test is significant, this means that the four-factor model (i.e., the larger model in terms of parameters) can be accepted as a better fit for explaining the data than the two-factor model (i.e., the smaller model in terms of parameters) (Kumar & Sharma, 1999). Theoretical frameworks, distinguishing between extrinsic and social, and intrinsic and prestige work values, support keeping the four work values together in one model (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010).

5.5.3.2 Whole Model Time 2

Time 2 11-factor model: The 11-factor model fit the data well, showing an excellent fit. Table 5.11 reports the CFA results for time 2, providing an overview of the fit indices for the solutions within the CFA.

Table 5.11: *Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 2 Model (n=229)*

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2 / df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Time 2	3528.927***	2024	1.7435	0.040	0.776	0.755

***p<.001

The time 2 model included the four factors from time 1 as well as organisational work values (extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige), self-efficacy, organisational investiture and job satisfaction. The model parameters and goodness-of-fit of the CFA model were examined with: RMSEA \leq 0.040 (90% CI \leq 0.042), indicating an excellent model fit with the observed data (MacCallum et al., 1996). Additionally, the chi-squared/df ratio \leq 3 rule was also used (Kline, 2016). CFI and TLI outputs show low fit with 0.776 and 0.755 respectively. It should be recognised here that, overall, the sample size is small for the number of parameters in this model, which is a limiting factor here when evaluating the model.

Due to the large number of parameters, presenting a figure would be overly complex, yet standardised coefficients and correlations are discussed below. Table 5.12 presents the standardised regression weights and Table 5.13 presents the correlations between factors. Unstandardised coefficients for time 2 CFA, as well as full intercepts and covariance values, are summarised in Appendix I.

Table 5.12: *Standardised Coefficients for 11-Factor CFA Model for Time 2 (p < 0.001)*

	Estimate
T2OHExtrinsic9 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.784
T2OHExtrinsic8 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.652
T2OHExtrinsic7 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.636
T2OHExtrinsic6 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.619
T2OHExtrinsic5 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.695
T2OHExtrinsic4 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.621
T2OHExtrinsic3 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.630
T2OHExtrinsic2 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.617
T2OHExtrinsic1 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.545

T2OHPrestige4	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	.683
T2OHPrestige3	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	.586
T2OHPrestige2	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	.483
T2OHPrestige1	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	.713
T2OHIntrinsic8	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.812
T2OHIntrinsic7	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.696
T2OHIntrinsic6	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.678
T2OHIntrinsic5	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.751
T2OHIntrinsic4	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.586
T2OHIntrinsic3	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.706
T2OHIntrinsic2	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.661
T2OHIntrinsic1	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.632
T2OHSocial4	<---	T2_OrgSocial	.315
T2OHSocial3	<---	T2_OrgSocial	.537
T2OHSocial2	<---	T2_OrgSocial	.760
T2OHSocial1	<---	T2_OrgSocial	.791
T2PHExtrinsic9	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.719
T2PHExtrinsic8	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.588
T2PHExtrinsic7	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.215
T2PHExtrinsic6	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.405
T2PHExtrinsic5	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.540
T2PHExtrinsic4	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.411
T2PHExtrinsic3	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.295
T2PHExtrinsic2	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.443
T2PHExtrinsic1	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.246
T2PHPrestige4	<---	T2_Prestige	.834
T2PHPrestige3	<---	T2_Prestige	.579
T2PHPrestige2	<---	T2_Prestige	.670
T2PHPrestige1	<---	T2_Prestige	.726
T2PHIntrinsic8	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.706
T2PHIntrinsic7	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.635
T2PHIntrinsic6	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.586
T2PHIntrinsic5	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.736
T2PHIntrinsic4	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.403
T2PHIntrinsic3	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.660
T2PHIntrinsic2	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.601
T2PHIntrinsic1	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.689
T2PHSocial4	<---	T2_Social	.602
T2PHSocial3	<---	T2_Social	.604
T2PHSocial2	<---	T2_Social	.558
T2PHSocial1	<---	T2_Social	.587
T2SelfEff2	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.738

T2SelfEff3	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.701
T2SelfEff4	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.681
T2SelfEff5	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.686
T2SelfEff6	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.769
T2SelfEff7	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.542
T2SelfEff8	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.632
T2OrgInvest1	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	.778
T2OrgInvest2	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	.860
T2OrgInvest3	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	.821
T2OrgInvest4	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.626
T2JobSat1	<---	T2_Job_Sat	.896
T2JobSat2NEG	<---	T2_Job_Sat	-.869
T2JobSat3	<---	T2_Job_Sat	.864
T2SelfEff1	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.717
T2OrgInvest5	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.596

Table 5.13: Correlations for the 11-Factor CFA Model for Time 2 ($p < 0.001$)

		Estimate	
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgPrestige	.715
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.753
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.917
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.778
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.866
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.519
T2_Intrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.785
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.750
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_Social	.629
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_Prestige	.408
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.739
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.835
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.517
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Prestige	.391
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.444
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.529
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.458
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Prestige	.674
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.511
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Social	.490
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.424
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Prestige	.589

T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.563
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.394
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Prestige	.416
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.319
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.552
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Social	.607
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.293
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.304
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.286
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.230
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.170
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.298
T2_Intrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.325
T2_Social	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.258
T2_SelfEfficacy	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.240
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.333
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.267
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.234
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.380
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.065
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.011
T2_Intrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.075
T2_Social	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.039
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.331
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.494
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgExtrinsic	.436
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgPrestige	.403
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.426
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.366
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.099
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Prestige	.306
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.311
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Social	.215

Standardised loadings ranged from $-.869$ to $.896$ ($p < .001$) for personal and organisational work values (extrinsic, intrinsic, social, prestige work values), self-efficacy, organisational investiture and job satisfaction. Within the 11-factor model, the correlations between latent variables were evaluated within the total sample ($n=229$) to explore interrelationships and covariances, with measures separated. Correlations between the constructs were wide-ranging, with the highest correlations being 0.917

(Organisational Extrinsic-Organisational Intrinsic) and the lowest was 0.866 (Organisational Intrinsic-Organisational Prestige). These significance levels were at $p < 0.001$. The lowest correlation was -0.039 (Social-Organisational Investiture) and the second lowest was -0.011 (Prestige-Organisational Investiture); however, these lower negative correlations were not statistically significant or theoretically implied. Overall, all personal work values showed non-significant covariances with organisational investiture, with the majority of other relationships between variables being significant.

Time 2 model iterations: Item 5 did not load well onto the organisational investiture measure *'In this organisation, you must 'pay your dues' before you are fully accepted'*, with a loading of -.596. Removing item 5 from the organisational investiture measure (across both time points 2 and 3) did not alter the model fit (RMSEA \leq 0.040; 90% CI \leq 0.042; CFI = 0.776; TLI = 0.755). The same model fit outcome was found when modifying the time 2 measurement model by removing item 7 from the extrinsic personal work value measure *'Doing work that affords you a good salary'*, which was showing a low loading of .215. Another low loading identified was for the social organisational work values measure, item 4 *'Doing work that allows you to help people'* (.315); however, as there are only four items for this, removing one does not allow enough parameters for the model. There were similar issues with the items discussed in the time 1 model iterations, yet the full measurements for all items were left complete for the CFA as alterations did not improve the model and full measurements were left in for completeness.

5.5.3.3 Whole Model Time 3

Time 3 four factor model: The four-factor model fit the data well, showing a good fit. Table 5.14 reports the CFA results for time 3, providing an overview of the fit indices for the solutions within the CFA.

Table 5.14: *Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Model for Time 3 Model (n=350)*

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2 / df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
Time 3	739.459***	269	2.7489	0.061	0.678	0.611

***p<.001

The model at time 3 included personal work values (extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige); the model parameters and goodness-of-fit of the CFA model were examined with: $RMSEA \leq 0.061$ (90% $CI \leq 0.067$). Additionally, the chi-squared/df ratio ≤ 3 rule was also used (Kline, 2016). These values indicate a good fit between the model and observed data (MacCallum et al., 1996). However, considering the CFI and TLI outputs, 0.678 and 0.611 respectively, the model shows a low fit. The whole time 3 four-factor model is displayed in Figure 5.4 with standardised coefficients and correlations.

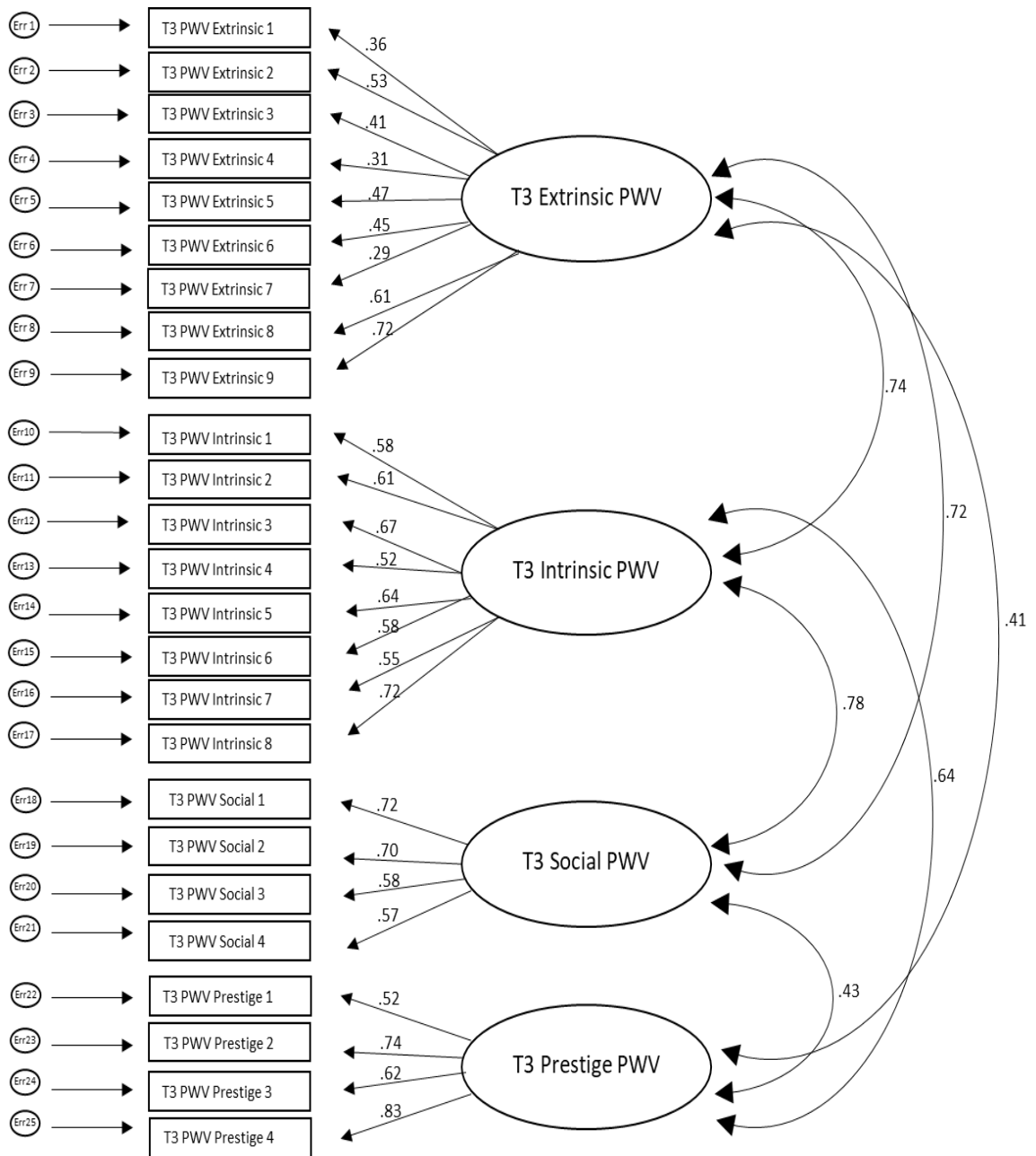


Figure 5.4: Four Factor CFA Model for Time 3 for Personal Work Values

Table 5.15 presents the standardised regression weights and Table 5.16 presents the correlations between factors. Unstandardised coefficients for time 3 CFA, as well as full covariance values and intercepts, are summarised in Appendix I.

Table 5.15: *Standardised Coefficients for Four-Factor CFA Model for Time 3 for Personal Work Values ($p < 0.001$)*

		Estimate
T3PHExtrinsic9	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.720
T3PHExtrinsic8	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.606
T3PHExtrinsic7	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.290
T3PHExtrinsic6	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.448
T3PHExtrinsic5	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.473
T3PHExtrinsic4	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.308
T3PHExtrinsic3	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.410
T3PHExtrinsic2	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.532
T3PHExtrinsic1	<--- T3_Extrinsic	.360
T3PHPrestige4	<--- T3_Prestige	.825
T3PHPrestige3	<--- T3_Prestige	.623
T3PHPrestige2	<--- T3_Prestige	.739
T3PHPrestige1	<--- T3_Prestige	.523
T3PHIntrinsic8	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.724
T3PHIntrinsic7	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.551
T3PHIntrinsic6	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.584
T3PHIntrinsic5	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.638
T3PHIntrinsic4	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.518
T3PHIntrinsic3	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.670
T3PHIntrinsic2	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.610
T3PHIntrinsic1	<--- T3_Intrinsic	.581
T3PHSocial4	<--- T3_Social	.573
T3PHSocial3	<--- T3_Social	.579
T3PHSocial2	<--- T3_Social	.702
T3PHSocial1	<--- T3_Social	.724

Table 5.16: *Correlations for Four-Factor CFA Model for Time 3 for Personal Work Values ($p < 0.001$)*

		Estimate
T3_Social	<--> T3_Intrinsic	.782
T3_Prestige	<--> T3_Intrinsic	.641
T3_Social	<--> T3_Prestige	.430
T3_Extrinsic	<--> T3_Prestige	.412
T3_Extrinsic	<--> T3_Intrinsic	.736
T3_Social	<--> T3_Extrinsic	.717

Standardised loadings ranged from .290 to .825 ($p < .001$) for personal work values. The correlations between the constructs were evaluated within the total sample ($n=350$) to explore interrelationships and covariances. Correlations between the constructs ranged from 0.412 (Extrinsic-Prestige) to 0.782 (Intrinsic-Social). The second largest correlation was 0.736 (Extrinsic-Intrinsic) and the second lowest was 0.430 (Social-Prestige). All significance levels were at $p < 0.001$.

Time 3 model iterations: Similar issues were found with factor loadings for the same items outlined in time 1 model sections: intrinsic item 4 and extrinsic item 1. After model modifications, there were no great improvements to the overall model, so again full measurement constructs were kept complete for the final CFA models.

5.5.3.4 CFA Models Summary

The time 1 CFA model demonstrated a mediocre fit in terms of the measurement variables and the data. Time 2 and time 3 CFA models showed an excellent and good fit with the data respectively. Furthermore, at these time points, the organisational work values show higher significant correlational relationships with each other (slightly less so for organisational prestige and social). In particular, organisational extrinsic and intrinsic were highly correlated at time two. Overall, the CFA models across the three time points show some problems with highly correlated work values, for both personal and organisational values. In particular, at time 1, extrinsic and social personal work values, and intrinsic and prestige personal work values are closely linked, with statistically significant correlations. Such high correlations amongst the work value scales in the measurement model could suggest an underlying general factor. A two-factor model was generated at time 1 and the nested models were analysed; however, the original four-factor model demonstrated a better fit with the observed data and so was retained despite some high intercorrelations. Iterative processes modifying the parameters within the models did not improve the overall fit of the models. The acceptable fit of the models demonstrate that the latent variables are factors from the CFA of the measured variables. Therefore, all constructs were retained as whole single scales for the whole model CFAs across the three time points.

5.5.4 Regression Analyses for Personal Work Values across Time Points

To test for stability and dependency in personal work values across the three different time points, simple linear regressions, from time 1 to time 2, and time 2 to time 3, were conducted as preliminary analyses for hypothesis 1: *The stability of personal work values will be lower between time 1 and time 2, as compared to time 2 and time 3.* These were examined by specific work value construct below. The mediation outputs follow in the next section to add more detailed insight for hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c and 1d.

5.5.4.1 Extrinsic Personal Work Values

1a *Extrinsic personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 extrinsic personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.*

To investigate hypothesis 1a, two simple linear regressions were conducted. First, I regressed time 1 extrinsic personal work values on to the outcome of time 2 extrinsic personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.454$, 95% C.I. (.328, .581), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 20.3% of the variability, $F(1, 194) = 50.568$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .207$, $R^2 \text{ Adjusted} = .203$.

For the second linear regression, the predictor was time 2 extrinsic personal work values and the outcome was time 3 extrinsic personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.610$, 95% C.I. (.454, .765), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 30.2% of the variability, $F(1, 136) = 60.234$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .307$, $R^2 \text{ Adjusted} = .302$.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was retained in that time 1 extrinsic personal work values are positively associated with time 2 extrinsic personal work values, and time 2 are positively associated with time 3.

5.5.4.2 Intrinsic Personal Work Values

1b Intrinsic personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 intrinsic personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.

To investigate hypothesis 1b, two simple linear regressions were conducted. The predictor was time 1 intrinsic personal work values and the outcome was time 2 intrinsic personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.762$, 95% C.I. (.639, .884), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 43.3% of the variability, $F(1, 195) = 150.965$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .436$, R^2 Adjusted = .433.

For the second linear regression, the predictor was time 2 intrinsic personal work values and the outcome was time 3 intrinsic personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.637$, 95% C.I. (.515, .759), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 44.2% of the variability, $F(1, 133) = 106.953$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .446$, R^2 Adjusted = .442.

Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was retained in that time 1 intrinsic personal work values are positively associated with time 2 intrinsic personal work values, and time 2 are positively associated with time 3.

5.5.4.3 Social Personal Work Values

1c Social personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 social personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.

To investigate hypothesis 1c, two simple linear regressions were conducted. The predictor was time 1 social personal work values and the outcome was time 2 social personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.739$, 95% C.I. (.633, .845), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 47.9% of the variability, $F(1, 203) = 188.642$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .482$, R^2 Adjusted = .479.

For the second linear regression, the predictor was time 2 social personal work values and the outcome was time 3 social personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.700$, 95% C.I. (.563, .838), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 42% of the variability, $F(1, 138) = 101.824$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .425$, R^2 Adjusted = .420.

Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was retained in that time 1 social personal work values are positively associated with time 2 social personal work values, and time 2 are positively associated with time 3.

5.5.4.4 Prestige Personal Work Values

1d Prestige personal work values will be stable across time points such that time point 1 prestige personal work values will be positively associated with time point 2, and time point 2 positively associated with time point 3.

To investigate hypothesis 1d, two simple linear regressions were conducted. The predictor was time 1 prestige personal work values and the outcome was time 2 prestige personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.786$, 95% C.I. (.683, .890), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 52.4% of the variability, $F(1, 201) = 223.298$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .526$, R^2 Adjusted = .524.

For the second linear regression, the predictor was time 2 prestige personal work values and the outcome was time 3 prestige personal work values. The predictor variable was found to be statistically significant ($B = 0.715$, 95% C.I. (.593, .837), $p < .001$). The model explained approximately 48.9% of the variability, $F(1, 139) = 134.787$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .492$, R^2 Adjusted = .489.

Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was retained in that time 1 prestige personal work values are positively associated with time 2 prestige personal work values, and time 2 are positively associated with time 3.

5.5.4.5 Summary of Regression Analyses

The linear regression analyses presented above show the positive association in personal work values from time 1 and time 2, as well as time 2 and time 3. These preliminary analyses support hypothesis 1 (including 1a, 1b, 1c and 1d) demonstrating positive associations between these personal work values both prior to organisational entry and after entry. Overall, prestige personal work values show the strongest associations (time 1 to time 2 explaining 52.4% of variability and time 2 to time 3 explaining 48.9% of variability); and extrinsic personal work values show the weakest associations (time 1 to time 2 explaining 20.3% of variability and time 2 to time 3 explaining 30.2% of variability).

There was no clear consensus on the differences in association across the work values for Path A (time point 1 to 2) or Path B (time point 2 to 3), as social and prestige personal work values showed higher associations for Path A, and extrinsic and intrinsic personal work values showed higher associations for Path B. This was examined further for the personal work values across the three time points, being analysed and discussed in the mediation models outlined below, controlling for moderator variables. These more in-depth analyses helped to identify the effects of time 2 on the transition from time 1 to time 3 and added further insight into support for hypothesis 1.

5.5.5 Moderated Mediation Models

While this study does not focus on a mediation process but the stability of work values over time, the proposed model in Figure 5.1, statistically, can be examined in a moderated mediation model. This is the case because the proposed model specifies that there is a relationship between the time points and it is useful to identify when the relationships between these are stronger or weaker to understand the stability mechanisms. A moderated mediation regression modelling approach was used to test the relationship between, and effects of, moderator variables on, each of the four personal work value types from time one to time two to time three. This modelling approach was used to test the formal hypotheses of this study to allow conceptually indirect effects to be analysed for moderation effects (Hayes, 2017).

Mean scores of key variables were centred to avoid multicollinearity effects based on +1 SD, mean and -1 SD (Aiken & West, 1991). Within SPSS, the Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro with 5000 bootstrap resamples process was used to generate the moderated mediation models, using model templates 64 and 16 in the application (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). PROCESS computes direct and indirect mediation paths using OLS⁶ regression. Direct and indirect mediation effects were generated at 95% confidence interval. Bootstrapping is a useful non-parametric technique to use to estimate the sampling distribution of parameter estimates, and therefore significance of mediation effects (Efron, 1982; Mooney et al., 1993), making no normality assumptions within the data (Preacher & Hayes, 2004), and hence making it useful for smaller sample sizes. Standard errors, probability values and confidence intervals will therefore be calculated for the indirect effects. Mediation effects for each model below are outlined below to explore hypothesis 1 on the stability of personal work values across the three time points. Overall, it was found that time 2 personal work values partially mediated⁷, and therefore play a role in, the stability of personal work values from time 1 to time 3. Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c and 1d were all therefore partially supported and all mediation outputs are discussed below and in Appendix H for non-significant models. Overall, weaker coefficients were found on Path B in the models, between time points 2 and 3, showing less stability and suggesting more change at this later stage. The weaker link found in the mediation analyses between time points 2 and 3 also supported the justification for the further examination of the moderator variables.

The moderator effects⁸ (model templates 16 and 64) were identified by the significance of the cross-product score and additional variance in the outcome, indicated by the R-square change (ΔR^2) (Hayes, 2017). When interaction terms were found to be significant, simple slopes were generated for visualising interactions (Bauer & Curran,

⁶ Ordinary least squares (type of linear least squares method for estimating the unknown parameters in a linear regression model).

⁷ Partial mediation implies there is not only a significant relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable, but also some direct relationship between the independent and dependent variable.

⁸ Organisational work values (intrinsic and extrinsic), organisational investiture, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and age.

2005). As moderators, as well as independent variables, dependent variables and interaction terms, were all continuous variables, three subgroups were created to represent individuals with low, moderate and high moderator scores by setting the values of the moderator to one standard deviation below the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean, respectively (Cohen et al., 2013). This is in line with the mean-centring approach. Below, the moderated mediation outputs are summarised for each of the four personal work values showing significant interactions across Path B (second stage of the model), except for age, which was examined across both Paths A and B.

5.5.5.1 Organisational Work Values Moderated Mediation Models

Using PROCESS Model 16 (Hayes, 2017), organisational work values of intrinsic and extrinsic were tested as moderators on Path B only (time 2 to time 3), for all four personal work value mediation models (see Figure 5.5). Using this moderated mediation model with PROCESS allowed for mediation effects to be accounted for when analysing moderation on the indirect effects. Moderation of organisational intrinsic and extrinsic work values were explored together in this model, as previous findings from qualitative study one (Chapter 4) suggested the importance of these values (and see hypothesis justification above).

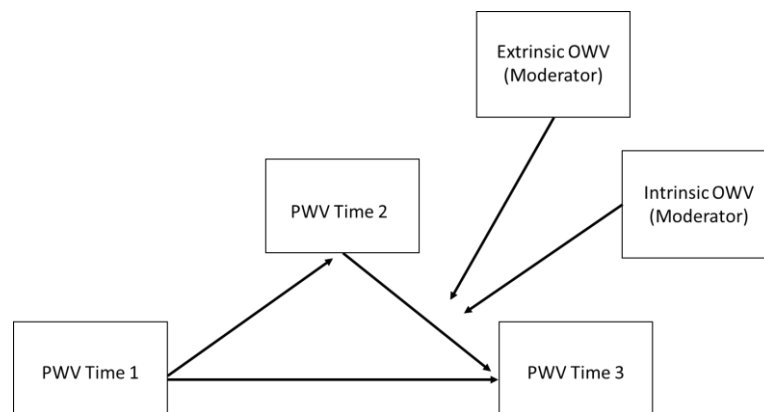


Figure 5.5: *PROCESS Model 16 (Hayes, 2017) with Extrinsic Organisational Work Values and Intrinsic Organisational Work Values as Moderators*⁹

⁹ OWVs = organisational work values

Both extrinsic and intrinsic organisational work values¹⁰ were found to have significant moderating effects from time 2 to time 3 (Path B) for social personal work values only. There were no significant moderation effects on extrinsic, intrinsic or prestige personal work values (see Appendix H), so there was no support for hypotheses 2a, 2b or 2d.

Extrinsic Organisational Work Values-Social Personal Work Values

Considering the mediation effects for the social personal work values over the three time points, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.82), time 2 and time 3 (.48) were found to be statistically significant with $p < 0.001$. The unstandardised regression coefficient between time 1 and time 3 (.30) was less significant, with $p < 0.01$. The unstandardised indirect mediation effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.82)(.48) = .39$. The mediated indirect effect was not significant for when organisational extrinsic values were perceived to be high and organisational intrinsic values perceived to be low and medium, or when organisational extrinsic values were medium and organisational intrinsic values were low.

Extrinsic organisational work values were examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal social work values and time 3 personal social work values. The interaction term between organisational extrinsic values and time 2 personal social work values explained a significant decrease in the time 3 personal social work values, $b = -.4610$, $t(118) = -2.586$, $p = .02$ (i.e., less stable social work values). Thus, extrinsic organisational work values were found to be a significant moderator of the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal social work values.

Simple slopes were plotted to view the interactions (see Figure 5.6). The tests of the conditional effects show that the effect of time 2 social work values on time 3 social work values decreases in magnitude as extrinsic organisational work values increases. Tests of the simple slopes suggest that the slope is not significant for those respondents 1 SD above the mean (CI estimates: -0.1175 to 0.5333) as the 95% confidence interval

¹⁰ Organisational work values were measured at time point 2 for the models.

includes zero. However, simple slopes show as significant for those 1 SD below the mean (CI estimates: 0.4944 to 1.0267) and at the mean (CI estimates: 0.2755 to 0.6929). Therefore, hypothesis 2c, was supported, with extrinsic organisational work values negatively moderating social personal work values.

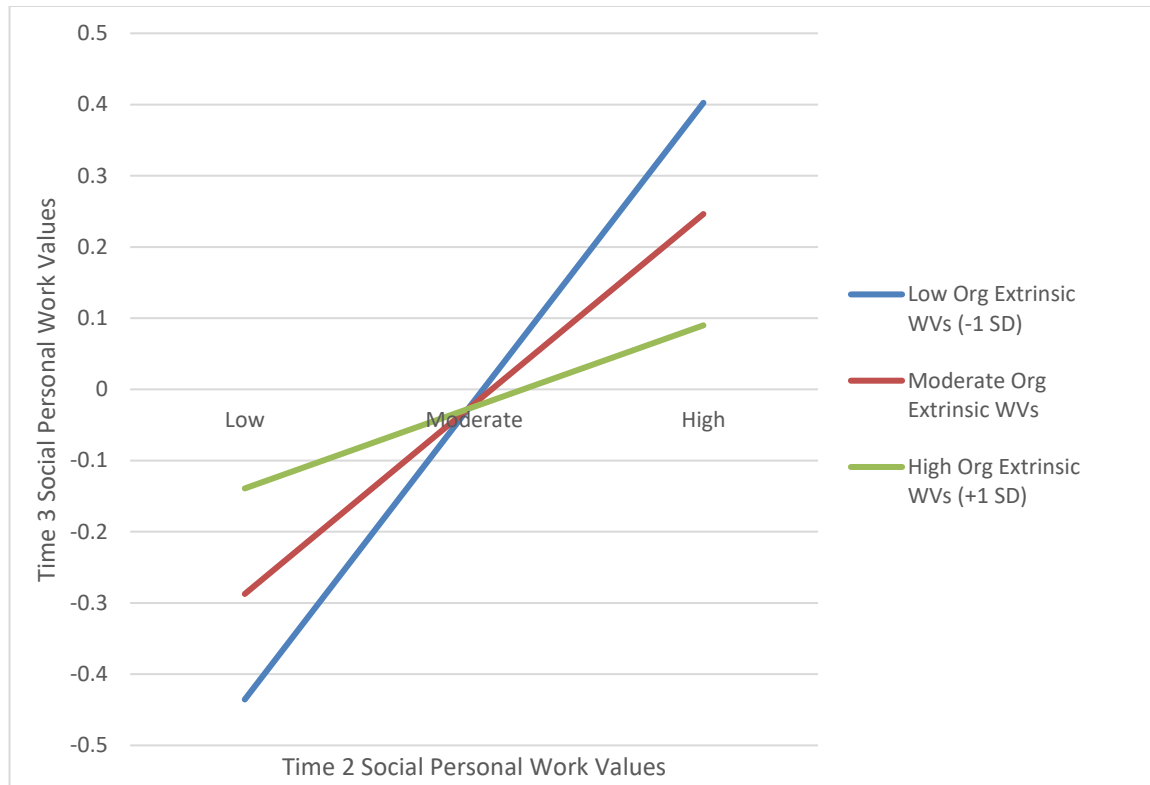


Figure 5.6: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Social Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Social Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean, the Mean, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Extrinsic Organisational Work Values

Intrinsic Organisational Work Values-Social Personal Work Values

The mediation outputs are summarised above as the variables were all entered into the same model (PROCESS 16). Intrinsic organisational work values were examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal social work values and time 3 personal social work values. The interaction term between organisational intrinsic values and time 2 personal social work values explained a significant increase in the time 3 personal social work values, $b = .4190$, $t(118) = 2.529$, $p = .02$ (i.e., more stable social

work values). Thus, organisational work values were found to be a significant moderator of the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal social work values.

Simple slopes were plotted to view the interactions (see Figure 5.7). The tests of the conditional effects show that the effect of time 2 social work values on time 3 social work values increases in magnitude as intrinsic organisational work values increases. Tests of the simple slopes suggest that the slope is not significant for those respondents 1 SD below the mean (CI estimates: -0.1310 to 0.5434), but is significant at the mean (CI estimates: 0.2755 to 0.6929) and 1 SD above the mean (CI estimates: 0.5011 to 1.0233). Therefore, hypothesis 2c, was not supported from an intrinsic organisational work values perspective, with a positive moderation effect being found for social personal work values (whereas negative moderation effect was predicted).

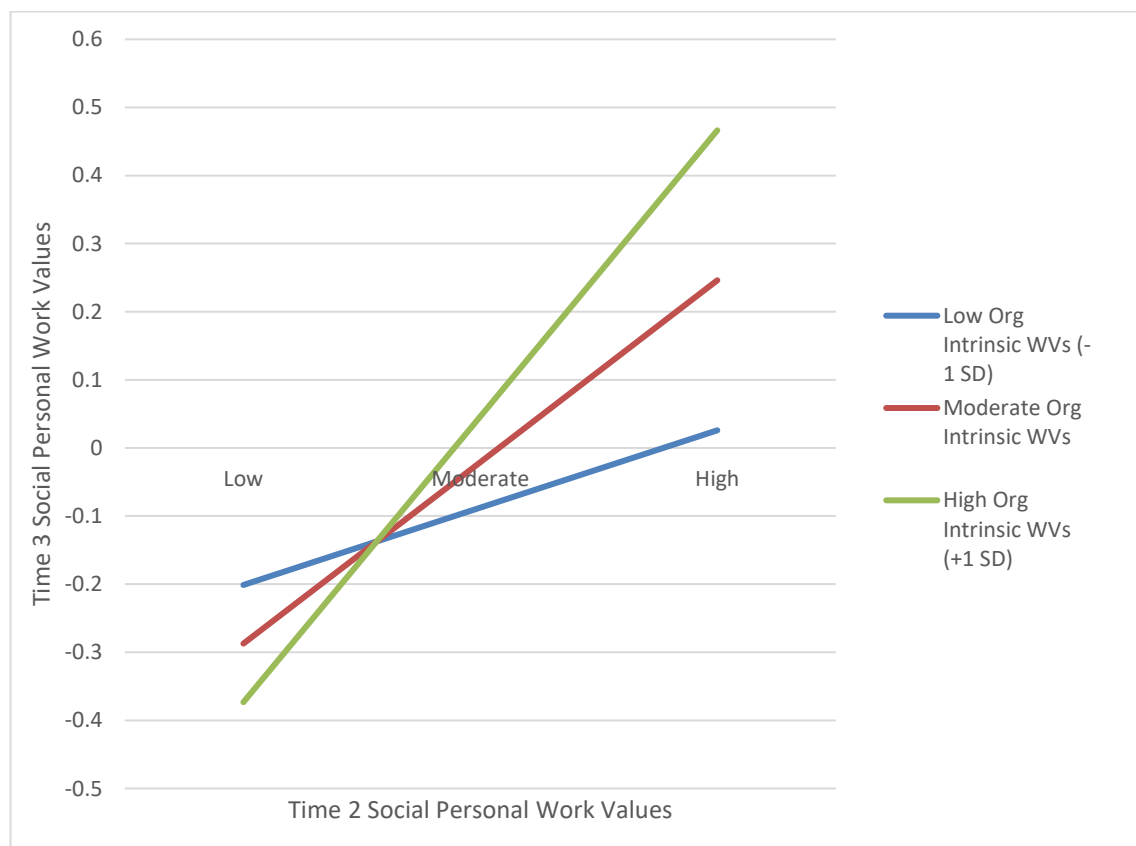


Figure 5.7: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Social Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Social Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean, the Mean, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Intrinsic Organisational Work Values

Overall, hypothesis 2c was partially supported as extrinsic organisational work values significantly negatively moderate social personal work values from time 2 to time 3.

5.5.5.2 Organisational Investiture and Job Satisfaction Moderated Mediation Models

Using PROCESS Model 16 (Hayes, 2017), organisational investiture and job satisfaction were tested as moderators on Path B only (time 2 to time 3), for all four personal work value mediation models (see Figure 5.8). Using this moderated mediation model with PROCESS allowed for mediation effects to be accounted for.

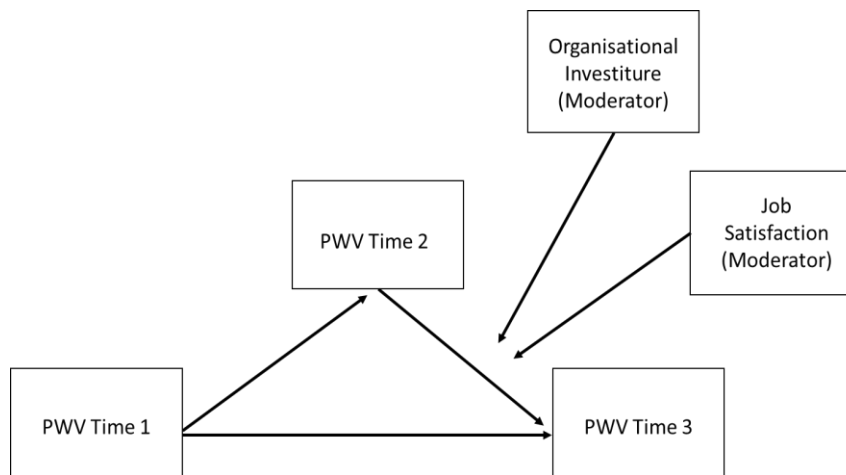


Figure 5.8: *PROCESS Model 16 (Hayes, 2017) with Organisational Investiture and Job Satisfaction as Moderators*

There were no significant moderating effects found from time 2 to time 3 (Path B) for organisational investiture for any of the four personal work values (see Appendix H), so hypotheses 3a to 3d were not supported. Job satisfaction showed to be a significant moderator for the extrinsic and intrinsic personal work value mediation models (see Appendix H for social and prestige personal work values models), partially supporting hypothesis 4.

Job Satisfaction-Extrinsic Personal Work Values

For the extrinsic personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.45), time 2 and time 3 (.51) and between time 1 and time 3 (.26) were found to be statistically significant; however, the time 1 to time 3 direct relationship was slightly less significant ($p < 0.005$) than time 1 to 2, and time 2 to 3 ($p < 0.001$). The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.45)(.51) = .23$. All the indirect mediation effects, across all levels of age and self-efficacy, were found to be significant, except when there was both high organisational investiture and high job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal extrinsic work values and time 3 personal extrinsic work values. The interaction term between job satisfaction and time 2 personal extrinsic work values explained a significant decrease in the time 3 personal extrinsic work values, $b = -.4028$, $t(118) = 1.916$, $p = .006$. Although not greatly significant, job satisfaction was found to be a significant moderator of the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal extrinsic work values.

To examine the interaction relationship further, the interaction slopes were plotted (see Figure 5.9). The tests of the conditional effects showed that the effect of time 2 extrinsic work values on time 3 extrinsic work values decreases in magnitude as job satisfaction increases (i.e., less stable work values). Tests of the simple slopes suggest that the slope is significant for the respondents 1 SD before the mean (CI estimates: 0.4058 to 0.8641), at the mean (CI estimates: 0.3114 to 0.6760) and 1 SD after the mean (CI estimates: 0.1147 to 0.5903). Thus, hypothesis 4a is supported in that job satisfaction negatively moderates extrinsic personal work values.

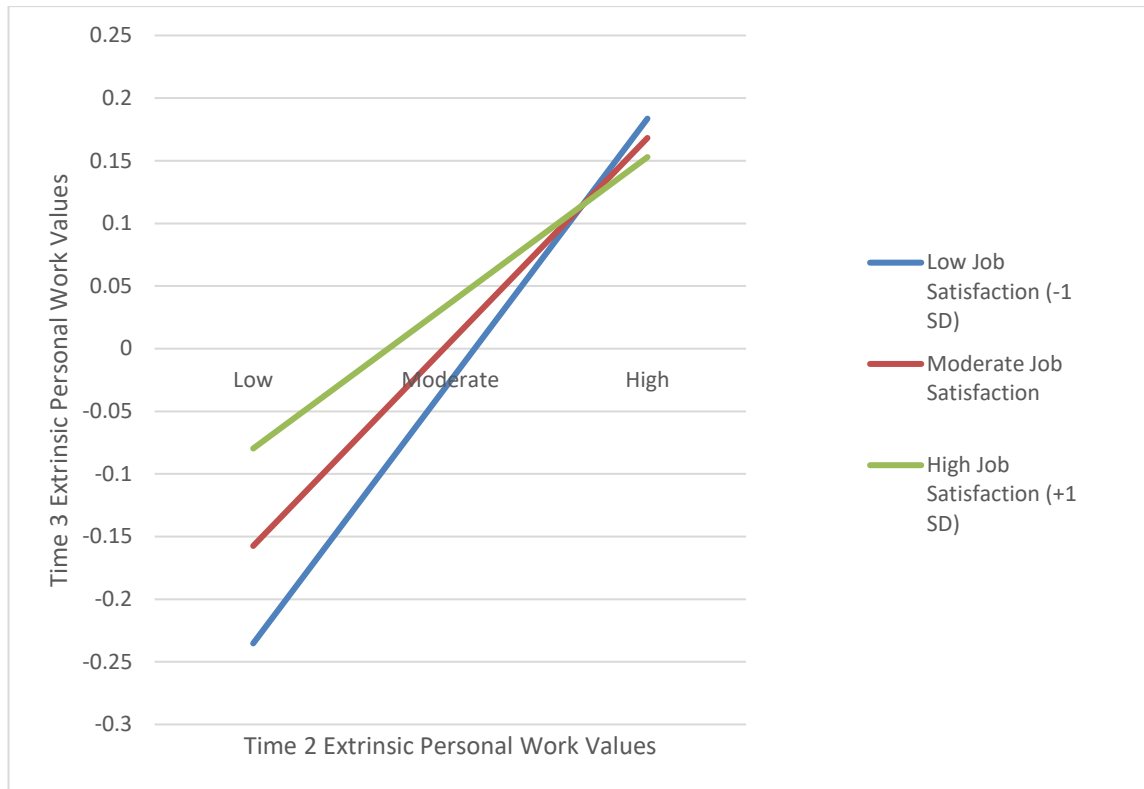


Figure 5.9: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Extrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Extrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean of Job Satisfaction, the Mean of Job Satisfaction, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction-Intrinsic Personal Work Values

The unstandardised regression coefficients for the intrinsic personal work values between time 1 and time 2 (.82), time 2 and time 3 (.47), and time 1 and time 3 (.23) were all found to be statistically significant, with $p < 0.001$ for times 1 to 2 and 2 to 3; yet $p < 0.05$ from time 1 to 3. The unstandardised indirect mediation effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.82)(.47) = .39$. The mediated indirect effect was not significant when there was low organisational investiture and high job satisfaction, yet was significant for all the other relationships.

Job satisfaction was found to be a statistically significant moderator for the relationship between time 2 personal intrinsic work values and time 3 personal intrinsic work values. The interaction term between job satisfaction and time 2 personal intrinsic

work values explained a significant decrease in the time 3 personal intrinsic work values, $b = -.5172$, $t(121) = -3.123$, $p = .003$. Thus, job satisfaction was found to be a significant moderator of the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal intrinsic work values.

Following this discovery of a significant interaction, the interaction slopes were plotted (see Figure 5.10). The tests of the conditional effects showed that, as job satisfaction increases, the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal intrinsic work values decreases (i.e., less stable work values). Tests of the simple slopes suggest that the slope is significant for the respondents 1 SD below the mean (CI estimates: 0.4074 to 0.8443), at the mean (CI estimates: 0.2692 to 0.6283) and 1 SD above the mean (CI estimates: 0.0669 to 0.4765). Thus, hypothesis 4b is supported in that job satisfaction negatively moderates intrinsic personal work values.

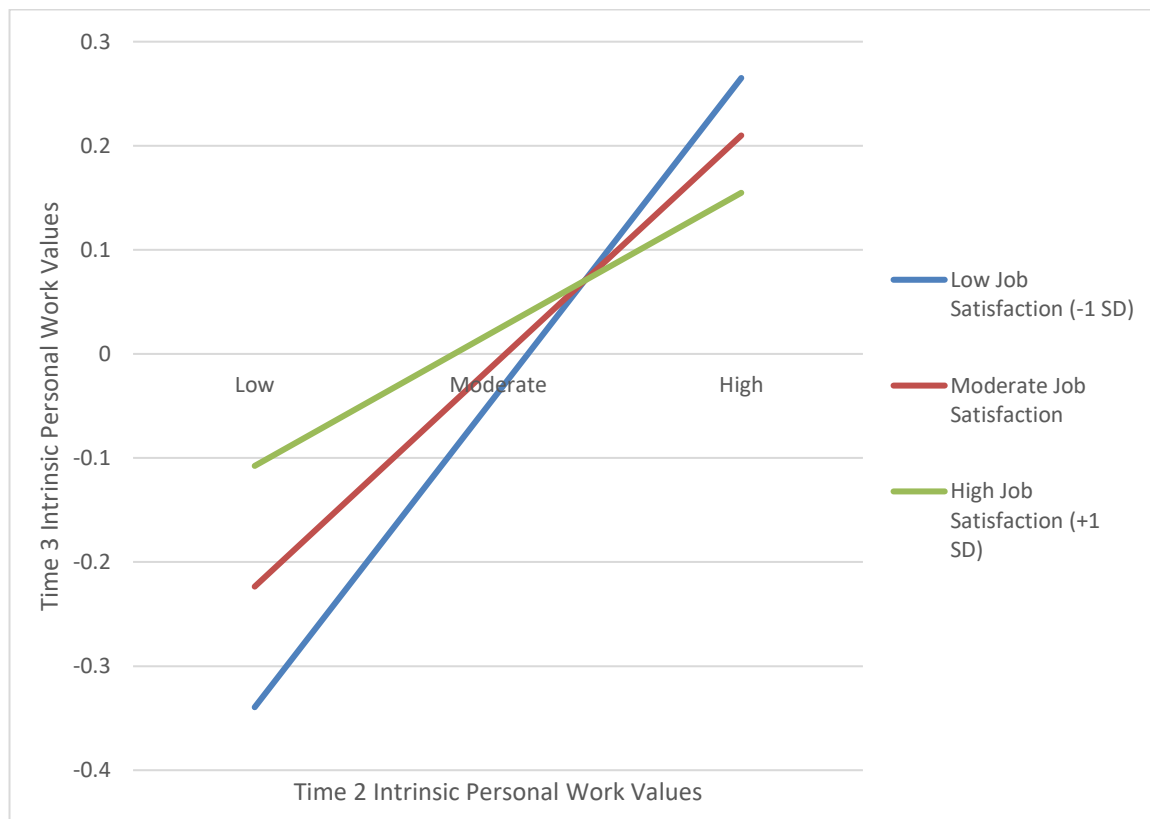


Figure 5.10: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Intrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Intrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean of Job Satisfaction, the Mean of Job Satisfaction, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Job Satisfaction

Overall, hypothesis 3 was not supported as no moderating organisational investiture effects were found. Hypothesis 4 was partially met with job satisfaction negatively moderating effects from time 2 to time 3 for extrinsic and intrinsic personal work values, thereby supporting hypotheses 4a and 4b.

5.5.5.3 Self-Efficacy and Age Moderated Mediation Models

Using PROCESS Model 64 (Hayes, 2017), age¹¹ was tested as a moderator on the indirect effect across Path A (i.e., time 1 to time 2) and Path B (time 2 to time 3), and self-efficacy¹² on Path B only, for all four personal work value mediation models (see Figure 5.11). Using this moderated mediation model with PROCESS allowed for mediation effects to be accounted for.

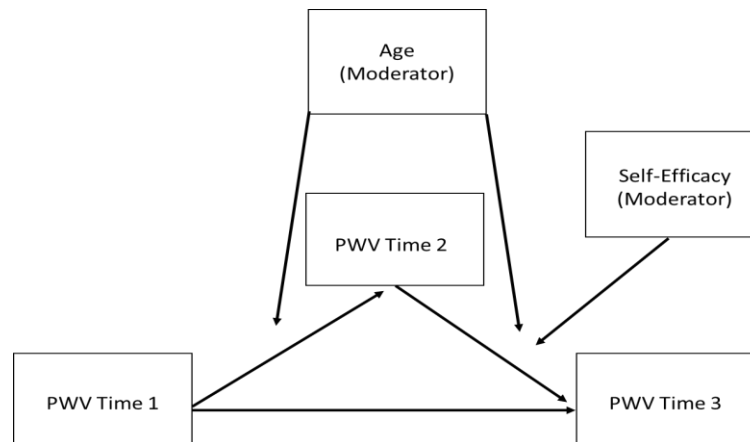


Figure 5.11: *PROCESS Model 64 (Hayes, 2017) with Age and Self-Efficacy as Moderators*¹³

There were no significant moderating effects found from time 1 to time 2 (Path A) for age or for self-efficacy moderating time 2 to time 3 (Path B), for any of the four personal work values (see Appendix H). Therefore, there was no support for hypotheses 5a to 5d. From time 2 to time 3, i.e., Path B of the mediation model, age was found to be

¹¹ Age was measured at time point 1 for the models.

¹² Self-efficacy was measured at time point 2 for the models.

¹³ PWV = personal work values

a significant moderator for extrinsic, intrinsic and prestige personal work values, demonstrating partial support for hypotheses 6.

Age-Extrinsic Personal Work Values

For extrinsic personal work values, the direct unstandardised regression coefficients¹⁴ between time 1 and time 2 (.43) and time 2 and time 3 (.43) were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), as was the direct unstandardised regression coefficient between time 1 and time 3 for personal extrinsic work values (.28). The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.43)(.43) = .19$. The mediated indirect effect was not significant for very young people with low self-efficacy, yet was significant for all other indirect effects in the model.

Age was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 1 personal extrinsic work values and time 2 personal extrinsic work values (Path A). The interaction term between age and time 1 personal extrinsic work values did not explain a significant increase in the time 2 personal extrinsic work values, $b = .0176$, $t(121) = .9023$, $p = .37$.

Age was identified as a significant moderator of the relationship between time 2 personal extrinsic work values and time 3 personal extrinsic work values (Path B). The interaction term between age and time 2 personal extrinsic work values explained a significant increase in variance in the time 3 personal extrinsic work values, $b = .0362$, $t(118) = 1.797$, $p = .08$. Thus, age was a significant positive moderator of the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal extrinsic work values.

To examine the interaction relationship further, the interaction slopes were plotted where the interaction plot shows interaction between the lines of the variables (see Figure 5.12). The tests of the conditional effects showed that the effect of time 2 extrinsic work values on time 3 extrinsic work values increases in magnitude as age increases. Tests of the simple slopes suggest that the slope is significant for the respondents 1 SD below the mean (CI estimates: 0.0862 to 0.5823), at the mean (CI estimates: 0.3063 to 0.6622), and

¹⁴ Standardised coefficients are not available for mediation models with moderators. It is not recommended to report standardised coefficients in such models.

1 SD above the mean (CI estimates: 0.3967 to 0.8719). Therefore, hypothesis 6a is partially supported, with age positively moderating extrinsic personal work values from time point 2 to time point 3.

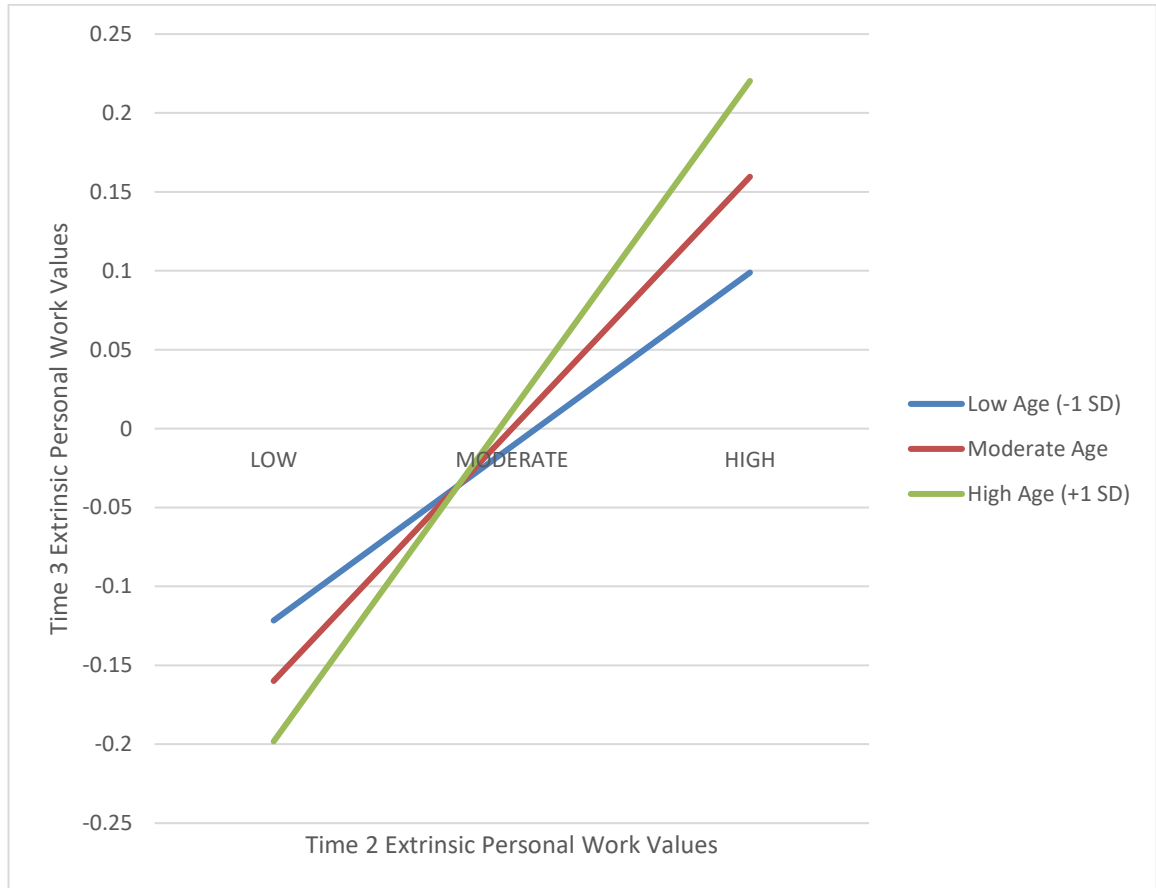


Figure 5.12: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Extrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Extrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean Of Age, the Mean of Age, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Age

Age-Intrinsic Personal Work Values

The unstandardised regression coefficients for the intrinsic personal work values between time 1 and time 2 (.84), time 2 and time 3 (.39), and time 1 and time 3 (.35) were all found to be statistically significant with $p < 0.001$. The unstandardised indirect mediation effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.84)(.39) = .33$. Similar to extrinsic, the mediated indirect effect was not significant for very young people with low self-efficacy, yet was significant for all other indirect effects in the model.

Age was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 1 personal intrinsic work values and time 2 personal intrinsic work values (Path A). The interaction term between age and time 1 personal intrinsic work values did not explain a significant decrease in the time 2 personal intrinsic work values, $b = -.0244$, $t(124) = -1.2553$, $p = .21$.

The output shows that the Age x Time 2 intrinsic personal work values is a statistically significant moderator when predicting time 3 intrinsic personal work values (Path B). The interaction term between age and time 2 personal intrinsic work values explained a significant increase in variance in the time 3 personal intrinsic work values, $b = .0485$, $t(121) = 2.581$, $p = .02$. Thus, age was a significant moderator of the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal intrinsic work values; when age is high, the effect of time 2 extrinsic work values is stronger; this is in line with supporting hypothesis 6b for intrinsic personal work values (Path B).

Interaction slopes were plotted to explore the interaction (see Figure 5.13). The tests of the conditional effects show that as age increased, the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal intrinsic work values became stronger. Tests of the simple slopes suggest that the slope is significant for the respondents 1 SD below the mean (CI estimates: 0.0427 to 0.4662), at the mean (CI estimates: 0.2666 to 0.6381) and 1 SD above the mean (CI estimates: 0.3852 to 0.9154), showing partial support for hypothesis 6b (time point 2 to 3 only).

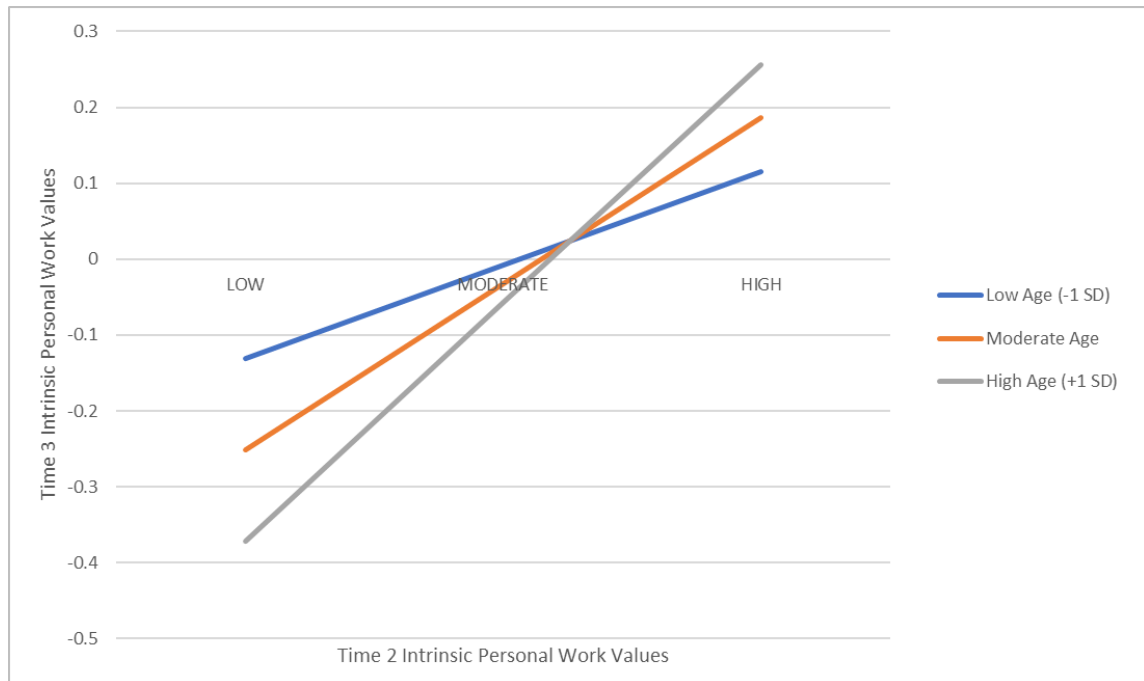


Figure 5.13: *Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Intrinsic Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Intrinsic Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean of Age, the Mean of Age, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Age*

Age-Prestige Personal Work Values

For the prestige model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.81), time 2 and time 3 (.46) and between time 1 and time 3 for personal prestige work values (.29) were found to be statistically significant; however the time 1 to time 3 direct relationship was slightly less significant ($p < 0.005$) than time 1 to 2, and time 2 to 3 ($p < 0.001$). The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.81)(.46) = .37$. All the indirect mediation effects, across all levels of age and self-efficacy, were found to be significant for prestige personal work values.

Age was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 1 personal prestige work values and time 2 personal prestige work values (Path A). The interaction term between age and time 1 personal prestige work values did not explain a significant decrease in the time 2 personal prestige work values, $b = -.0134$, $t(130) = -.6975$, $p = .49$.

The model outputs show that the time 2 personal prestige work values with age interaction is statistically significant in predicting time 3 personal prestige work values (Path B). The interaction term between age and time 2 prestige work values explained a significant increase in variance in the time 3 prestige work values, $b = .0416$, $t(127) = 2.717$, $p = .008$. Thus, age was a significant moderator of the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal prestige work values.

To examine the interaction relationship further, the interaction slopes were plotted (see Figure 5.14). The tests of the conditional effects show that the effect of time 2 prestige work values on time 3 prestige work values increases in magnitude as age increases. Tests of the simple slopes suggest that the slope is significant for the respondents 1 SD below the mean (CI estimates: 0.1280 to 0.5598), at the mean (CI estimates: 0.3436 to 0.6848), and 1 SD above the mean (CI estimates: 0.4788 to 0.8904). As before, this partially supports hypothesis 6d for prestige work values (Path B).

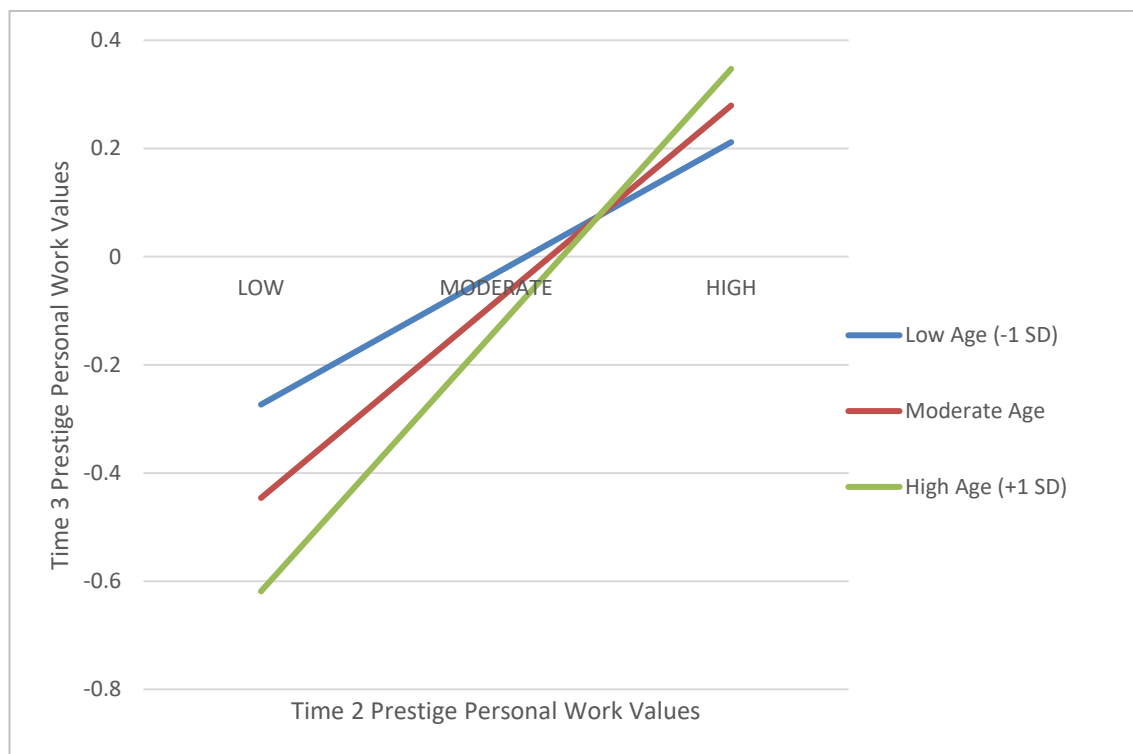


Figure 5.14: Simple Slopes of Time 2 Personal Prestige Work Values Predicting Time 3 Personal Prestige Work Values for 1 SD Below the Mean Of Age, the Mean of Age, and 1 SD Above the Mean of Age

Hypothesis 6 was therefore partially met, with age positively moderating effects from time 2 to time 3 for extrinsic, intrinsic and prestige personal work values (hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6d). Hypothesis 5 was not supported as no moderating self-efficacy effects were found.

5.5.5.4 Summary of Moderated Mediation Models

The moderated mediation analyses run through PROCESS are extremely useful as they allow the exploration and identification of moderation across indirect effects. As discussed at the start of the section, partial mediation effects were found to be significant across all of the personal work values: extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige, with indirect effects being dependent on levels of the specific moderators within the model. This adds further understanding for hypothesis 1, whereby time 2 has an effect on the change in personal work values from time 1 to time 3 for all four personal work values (see Appendix H for further mediation outputs of non-significant moderation models).

Moderation analyses were conducted in the same models as the mediation ones to ensure these mediation effects were controlled for, and vice versa, with moderators being controlled for when considering mediation analysis. To summarise supported hypotheses, significant moderators were found on Path B of the mediation models for the following variables:

- Perceived extrinsic (negative) and intrinsic (positive) organisational work values partially supporting hypothesis 2c for social personal work values.
- Job satisfaction (negative) supporting hypotheses 4a and 4b for extrinsic and intrinsic personal work values respectively.
- Age (positive), supporting hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6c, for extrinsic, intrinsic and social personal work values respectively.

To summarise, there was no support for hypotheses 3 (including 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d) or 5 (5a, 5b, 5c and 5d) predicting organisational investiture and self-efficacy as moderators of personal work values across the time points. Social personal work values

from time 2 to time 3 were significantly moderated by a decrease in extrinsic and an increase in intrinsic organisational work values, partially supporting hypothesis 2c, yet with an opposing effect found for intrinsic organisational work values. As job satisfaction increases, the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal work values becomes weaker (i.e., less stability) for extrinsic and intrinsic values, supporting hypotheses 4a and 4b. Finally, as age increases, the relationship between time 2 and time 3 personal work values becomes stronger (i.e., more stability) for extrinsic, intrinsic and prestige, supporting hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6d. See Appendix H for non-significant outputs from the moderation analyses.

5.6 Quantitative Study Discussion

The primary aim of this study was to examine longitudinally the stability of young people's personal work values at three time points: pre-entry, approximately one month into employment, and three to six months into employment. Moderator variables were included in the study based on the existing literature and prior qualitative study findings: perceived organisational work values (extrinsic and intrinsic), organisational investiture, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and age.

5.6.1 The Stability of Personal Work Values

The regression analyses examining dependency and stability in personal work values across the three time points of the study found significant positive associations from time 1 (one to six weeks prior to entry) to time 2 (one to two months into work), and from time 2 to time 3 (three to six months into work), showing, as expected, strong links between personal work values upon entry, and after entry, to the workplace. The moderated mediation models showed, however, that the association between time 2 (one to two months into work) and time 3 (three to six months into work) appears to be weaker than that from time 1 (pre-entry) to time 2, for all personal work values *except* extrinsic. This weaker connection suggests more change in the work values (i.e., less stability) after the first month in employment, implying that it is at this later stage when values may adjust in young people. This is in line with research by Bauer et al. (1998), who found stronger associations later on as opposed to soon after entry, and further research has

found that work values change after the first three to six months following entry into the organisation (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer & Green, 1994). Less stability suggests higher socialisation, and, in line with Wendlandt and Rochlen's (2008) model, high adjustment, with the adjustment stage being of crucial importance to newcomers. This goes against early work values research, claiming that these values are stable and enduring (e.g., Rokeach, 1973). However, organisational socialisation is unlikely to modify the basic value structure that young people hold when they *first* enter the organisation, i.e., during the first month (Dose, 1997). It is therefore suggested, based on the current findings, that socialisation changes in work values take place after approximately one to two months of employment for young newcomers entering the workplace.

Thus, because there was adjustment taking place post-entry, it may be thought that the findings of the current study reject ASA theory which, as noted during the theoretical development, would predict attrition rather than adjustment (Schneider, 1987). However, the high level of stability found in young people's work values during the early stage of transition in this study *is* in line with ASA theory (Schneider, 1987), whereby newcomers are sustaining their personal work values rather than changing them to adjust to the organisation, possibly being attracted to, or selected for, the organisation due to their existing values. The study therefore supports De Cooman et al. (2009) in their proposition that the matching (i.e., ASA) and the adjustment (i.e., socialisation) approaches are not mutually exclusive. Moreover, this study adds a further contribution by suggesting a more sequential approach as opposed to them operating in parallel. This recognises that adjustment to a career is not a discrete event; rather, it involves phases over time. The ordering of these processes can be determined based on the findings in this study, with a matching approach during pre-entry and upon entry (with higher emphasis placed on extrinsic personal work values when being attracted to an organisation and making decisions about employers); followed by a socialisation approach, with work values adjusting in line with the organisational environment.

It is interesting that this finding of sequential phases was not consistent for extrinsic personal work values. This suggests that these extrinsic values may be less

susceptible to change during this period than intrinsic, social and prestige work values. This would support research showing that a newcomer places increasing importance on extrinsic work values and rewards, e.g., pay, job security, as opposed to intrinsic work values and rewards, e.g., stimulating and meaningful work (De Cooman et al., 2009; Johnson & Elder, 2002; Loscocco & Kalleberg, 1988). My study therefore extends these existing studies, which were not solely focused on young people entering the workplace, but on newcomers in general.

The adjustment period (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008), after one to two months especially, is an important point as work values strengthen for young newcomers in organisations. Often a time of confusion and uncertainty, it is suggested young people are motivated to take control back, hence why their work values are stabilising. Young people are facing new situations that can pose a threat to their existing identities and values, with this conflict, often accompanied by anxiety and stress, as well as a lack of control, leading to the adoption of new behaviour patterns to address these issues (Polach, 2004). Adopting this view as young people take control of their careers (Leiter et al., 2009), and, at a more proximal level, their job roles, we can draw on insights and understanding from self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985). SDT explains the types of motivations that can underlie values (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic), and therefore determine an individual's behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sortheix et al., 2013). Autonomy, identified as a work value of importance in study one, is proposed to be the need to be the source of an individual's own behaviour (Sortheix et al., 2013). Having autonomous, as opposed to controlled, regulation over one's own behaviour is linked to choice, and behaviour in accordance with one's values (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). With autonomous motivation, after entering the organisation, individuals pursue behaviours consistent with their underlying self (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Judge et al, 2005; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999) and their work values, hence the lower stability, suggesting adjustment of these between the final two time points in this study (up to approximately six months of employment). The research often views newcomers into organisations as recipients of socialisation, rather than active participants in the process (Bauer & Green, 1994; Schneider, 1987), yet a young person's work values clearly play a role. This links back to the proposed sensemaking process (Louis, 1980b) discussed in

the previous chapter, viewing newcomers in an organisation as active participants making sense of their new working environment. This also aligns with the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, 2001), with young individual being more self-directed (Hall, 1996, 2004), and being viewed as the main ‘actor’ when entering organisations (Baruch & Rosenstein, 1992), and taking control of their adjustment and socialisation transition. The insights provided by this study into the stability of personal work values upon entry to the workplace allow us to understand more around the timing of adjustment during this process.

5.6.2 Perceived Organisational Values Effects

An interesting finding from the study was that only social personal work values were significantly influenced by perceived organisational work values. Personal social work values were more stable in a context of high intrinsic organisational work values and low extrinsic organisational work values, with them becoming less stable when the organisation had low intrinsic and high extrinsic work values. It is suggested that, when young newcomers perceive the organisation to value intrinsic aspects of work (i.e., purpose, meaning, variety), they are less likely to adjust or change their social personal work values. On the other hand, when young people perceive the organisation to value extrinsic aspects (i.e., monetary benefits, security), they are more likely to adjust or change their social personal work values. It is important to observe that social personal work values have *not* been affected by any of the other moderator variables in the study, only organisational work values.

Interestingly, previous research has found intrinsic and extrinsic work values to overlap with social work values, suggesting some connection (Johnson, 2001a, 2001b). However, a study by Rani and Samuel, (2016) identified lower turnover intention with the aligning personal and organisational work values in young people for all values *except* social (i.e., extrinsic, intrinsic, prestige). When organisational social values increased to exceed personal work values, turnover intentions increased, suggesting ‘interference’ in an individual’s social values, affecting their privacy (Harrison, 1978; Rani & Samuel, 2016). The findings from this study also suggest that social work values are particularly

susceptible to change depending on the perceived organisational values, particularly intrinsic and extrinsic.

Social work values are concerned with being in touch with the job, the organisation, the surroundings, and the culture, meaning an individual feels more part of the team and the organisation (Ros et al., 1999). This would involve remaining more *authentic* in how they interact with co-workers in the organisation, and the extent to which they value affiliation into the company. Existing literature found that, although social work values are not rated especially high for young people, significant increases have been found with leisure values linking to 'fun' in the workplace, as well as work-life balance (Kerslake, 2005; Lamm & Meeks, 2009; Morton, 2002; Real et al., 2010; Schullery, 2013; Wong et al., 2008). The perceptions of the respondent could be having an influence here, with Hatch and Schultz (2002) proposing that, when an individual perceives an organisation's values as being based on the shared values of its members, interpersonal relationships are cognitively combined to create an individual-organisational connection, thereby strengthening social personal work values.

Moreover, social work values were found to be less stable when perceived extrinsic organisational work values were high, suggesting that individuals may feel they have to adjust socially when more tangible aspects of work are viewed as highly important to the organisation, e.g., pay, security, benefits. As extrinsic work values are not viewed as being connected to the way in which a person does their job (Kaasa, 2011), social behaviours relating to these 'by-product' rewards may therefore be less authentic, especially if competition for resources is present, which has been linked to basic values theory (i.e., cooperation-competition attitudes and behaviours) (Ros et al., 1999). Socialisation resources theory (SRT) has been linked to newcomer adjustment whereby resources, including social relationships and support, are required for an individual to successfully transition into a new organisation and role (Saks & Gruman, 2018). Adopting this theoretical perspective, it is suggested that, when a newcomer perceives their employer's extrinsic organisational values to be high (e.g., monetary values) by their employer, their personal social values and behaviours adapt in order to gather more information and support socially to adjust to new and, typically, uncertain and ambiguous

environments. High extrinsic work values are more transactional and objective; therefore, an individual may wish to gather more information and clarity about these and the organisational expectations, thereby opening up and increasingly valuing their social communication channels with peers, co-workers and managers.

5.6.3 The Working Environment: Organisational Investiture and Job Satisfaction

The working environment (i.e., encompassing organisational investiture and job satisfaction) is seen as providing external drivers that affect the stability of work values over time. No significant moderation effects were found with organisational investiture on the work values stability in this study, contradicting the majority of research (e.g., Fang et al., 2011; Peltokorpi et al., 2021). Both the earlier literature reviews and qualitative findings in this thesis indicated that organisational commitment has become less relevant for young people as protean careers and increased global mobility shift the form of the psychological contract (Baruch et al., 2016). Careers and the psychological contract continue to become more complex and evolve (Baruch & Rousseau, 2019; Rousseau et al., 2018; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), with individuals taking more self-directed responsibility for their careers in an individualistic manner (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011; Inkson & King, 2011). This need for independence neutralises leadership efforts (Kerr & Jermier, 1978), and in a similar way may be neutralising the influence from investiture initiatives by organisations to socialise new employees into the workplace. This also aligns with the qualitative findings (Chapter 4), suggesting that there is support in this body of research for a shift to individuals taking increased responsibility for their careers, placing less importance on the actions of the employer in affecting their work values.

On the other hand, it could be that no significant findings emerged due to various other factors at play here that were not measured, such as compliance (e.g., Eva et al., 2017) or intentions of the investiture (e.g., to socialise or to allow learning). More recent research into the effects of organisational socialisation tactics places increased importance on the role of the supervisor and their motives as well as social resources in

general, such as co-worker relations (e.g., Fang et al., 2011; Takeuchi et al., 2021), which were not measured in the current study, yet could be playing a role here. Thus, future research could investigate whether these nuances in investiture alter the stability in young people's work values.

Although the results showed no organisational investiture effects, significant moderating effects were found from job satisfaction, as predicted. As job satisfaction increases, there is a significant decrease in time 2 to time 3 personal work values for extrinsic and intrinsic (i.e., less stability), yet not for social nor prestige personal values. Based on these findings, it is suggested that, the more an employee likes their job, the more they will identify with it, thus taking on the organisational values and being less likely to keep their own values (Stumpf & Hartman, 1984). On the other hand, as job satisfaction decreases, individuals maintain their own work values as they are not enjoying the work, therefore being less willing to adapt to their organisational environment and values (e.g., Young et al., 2013).

It is important to bear in mind that job satisfaction typically refers to the general affective orientation towards one's job, rather than specific dimensions (i.e., a person can be satisfied with one aspect of their job, and dissatisfied with another). During these early 'settling-in' stages of employment, young people assess their situation and this can determine positive or negative responses to their work experience, which determine their job satisfaction (Knoop, 1994; Locke, 1976). Linking back to the qualitative findings, aspects of 'reality shock' are likely to play a role in an individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their new job role and this appears to emerge within the first month of employment. Although the *causes* of job satisfaction have not been measured in this study, it is recognised as a multidimensional concept (Kalleberg, 1977), and, during these early adjustment stages, job satisfaction has been found to have more of an effect on preferences around extrinsic and intrinsic personal work values. Intrinsic work values are naturally aligned with enjoyable work (e.g., Sortheix et al., 2015), and extrinsic work values have been found to be of particular importance during the early stages, as newcomers seek out jobs based on salary and development opportunities etc. (e.g., van Beek et al., 2012); both therefore being important for job satisfaction. Due to the non-

significant moderating effects of job satisfaction on social and prestige personal work values, it is suggested that these are not as influenced by such affective positive or negative responses to work in the early stages. As previously mentioned when outlining the job satisfaction moderation hypotheses, there were few clear findings linking the four work value factors to job satisfaction.

Nevertheless, it is clear that job satisfaction is a significant element in the work adjustment process, being associated with work values congruence within organisations (Wanous, 1980; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990), and with work values stability in this study, particularly extrinsic and intrinsic work values. The theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969) supports this as adjustment is indicated by the individual's satisfaction with their work environment. As value congruence and adjustment have been linked to higher work engagement and involvement (Sortheix et al., 2013), when an individual is happier and more engaged in their role, they will allow their values to be shaped to the environment. With higher job satisfaction leading to more change in people's personal work values, this suggests that their values are adjusting when they are feeling happier in their job role. Young et al. (2013), who conducted a cross-sectional survey study into job satisfaction differences across age, propose that younger employees showing lower levels of job satisfaction are expressing their impatience with the slow advancement in their careers. They argue that young people are often over-ambitious and unrealistic in their views of career progression (Young et al., 2013); therefore, those individuals with lower job satisfaction (i.e., who are unhappy) show less change in their work values. When combined with my research, therefore, it appears as though there may be circular causality: newcomers who are unsatisfied maintain their own work values, but then experience further unhappiness in their job as they are not *willing* to adapt. This argument is also supported by findings from the qualitative study, where impatience was found to emerge in young people in early careers who desired faster advancement.

5.6.4 Internal Drivers of Work Value Stability: Self-Efficacy and Age

Considering the internal drivers that were examined as moderators, there were no effects found for generalised self-efficacy influencing stability across any of the four work values. This goes against previous studies that have found self-efficacy to have a significant association with socialisation and newcomer adjustment (Jones, 1986; Saks, 1995; Tipton & Worthington, 1984). However, it does align with findings by Laker and Steffy (1995) and Saks and Ashforth (2000), who did not find that self-efficacy affected the socialisation of newcomers into organisations.

It was expected that young people who had higher self-efficacy as they transitioned to the workplace would have more stable work values than those who had lower self-efficacy, but that was not supported in this study. There could be some more complex interactions taking place here as individuals enter the workplace, with the self-concept being highly associated with self-efficacy (e.g., Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Marsh, 1997), suggesting that it is not actually work values stability being affected here. Furthermore, prior work experience has also been found to determine self-efficacy in newcomers entering the workplace (Gong et al., 2009) and may also potentially affect stability due to a lessening of the “reality shock”, yet this variable was not measured in the current study. Finally, those individuals with high self-efficacy may hold their personal work values more strongly, and, if they experience a mismatch in their new working environment, may leave the organisation; hence, their data may not have been included in the sample. This could explain why self-efficacy was not found to have any significant moderating effects in this study, with self-efficacy being positively linked to turnover intention (e.g., Gupta et al., 2017).

Age, however, was found to be a significant moderator on the stability of work values for extrinsic, intrinsic and prestige values: findings shows that, as age increases, there is more stability in these personal work values, as hypothesised. In other words, within this age-restricted cohort, those participants who are older are less likely to change their work values as they enter a new organisation. This suggests that, at the lower end of the age-range, younger employees may be more susceptible to work values change and

instability during their transition into an organisation. Generally, this would be in line with the original work on careers and self-concept by Super (1957) showing greater stability in older people's work lives as they progress through the 'exploration' stage to 'establishment', becoming more aware of their status in the organisation. It is proposed that as people age they are more 'in tune' with what they desire through their more recognised self-concept and values at work (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Johnson (2001a) found that older people retain the capacity for change, even as environments become more stable, supporting the age stability hypothesis (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980).

Regarding specific work value constructs, selection-optimisation-compensation (SOC) theory (Baltes et al., 1999) would support the increase in stability of work values as age increases, as individuals focus on compensating resources and maintaining their new role. The age range of the sample must be considered here; however, the qualitative study gave insights into older participants (i.e., 'older young people') having more financial commitments in terms of mortgages and family (or they were conscious of these), so they will remain focused on such extrinsic values around monetary and security benefits in a new job role. Intrinsic work values were also found to be more stable during transition to the workplace as age increases, and SOC theory predicts that growth-related work values (e.g., enjoyment, fulfilling work etc.) become more settled and there is less focus on changing to match an environment, risking resource loss (Baltes et al., 1999; Ebner et al., 2006). Finally, a similar explanation for the stability of prestige work values as age increases is proposed in that as people age they become more settled in their status, linked to their established self-concept, identity and values (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004).

Interestingly, the stability of social personal work values was not influenced by age, which could link to earlier discussions around these work values being more susceptible to perceived organisational work values. The study results suggest that age does not affect social values stability, perhaps as social work environments and teams are increasingly changing with more career mobility and movement of co-workers and peers (Farivar et al., 2019).

Cherrington et al. (1979) explored age and work values, stating three reasons for differences in values across older and younger individuals: 1) individual maturation; 2)

differences in historical and contextual events experienced; and 3) differences in the socialisation received by an organisation. This suggests that differences in the young people entering the workplace could be down to biological maturation, in line with Super's lifespan theory (1957, 1980), contextual influences, and/or socialisation processes as an individual enters an organisation. The findings from this study show that work values become more stable both with age and the length of time in the organisation, with no influencing effects from organisational investiture, indicating that the organisation places more importance on individual maturation and experience rather than socialisation initiatives by the organisation. As age moderation was examined prior to, and after, organisational entry, with no significant findings found for the latter path, the study can contribute to the socialisation process by highlighting key stages in the transitional process where age has a stronger influencing effect (i.e., after one to two months of organisational entry).

5.6.5 Differentiating between Work Values

An interesting outcome of this study was found when exploring the conceptual models using Confirmatory Factor Analysis to understand the measures and model fit at the three time points. As discussed in the results section, high correlations, covariances and factor loadings were found between a majority of the work values, both personal and organisational, reported. It appears that it is difficult to distinguish between work values, in the personal and organisational sense, using the current measure for young people entering organisations (Lyons, 2003; Lyons et al., 2010).

Research by Chow et al. (2014), who examined work values in the transition to adulthood via a longitudinal study, found more of a homogenous change in work values from the ages 18 to 20, and then proposed increased *diversification* of work values in the first half of an individual's 20s. They found that this was linked to previous work and unemployment experience. A great deal of research has discussed the direction of extrinsic and intrinsic work values during the transition to adulthood, yet, with little consensus around this, it is clear there are various factors at play here (Jin & Rounds,

2012; Johnson, 2001b; Johnson & Elder, 2002; Johnson et al., 2012; Krahn & Galambos, 2014; Van der Velde et al., 1998).

With differing work value directions around the ages of 20 upwards during young adulthood, it is suggested that, during this time, perceptions of work values may become merged for the individual. Heckhausen and Tomasik (2002) found that, as young people approach their mid-20s, the responsibilities of becoming an adult are realised and become more visible; this being the time when careers start and energy is put into this career development process. This could therefore explain why young people (in their early 20s) attach more value to a number of work values that represent employment success, as they start to reflect on what is important to them (Chow et al., 2014; Heckhausen, 2011). These findings are in line with the qualitative study findings showing high preferences across all work values. This period of time is viewed as a key stage in career development, and also a time when young people could be ‘testing out’ different values, so more than one becomes prominent and the boundaries between them become blurred. This is in line with Super’s lifespan theory, aligning with the ‘exploration’ phase where someone is developing their self-concept (Super, 1957).

Looking at this from an organisational point of view, we can consider whether young people are showing a more merged idea of what they expect from work in terms of their values (as also identified in the qualitative study). Overall, correlations were very high between the organisational work values; in particular, perceived organisational intrinsic and extrinsic work values were highly significantly associated. This suggests that participants found it challenging to distinguish between what the organisation values using these four categorisations (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010). As this has been found to be a time of uncertainty (Joshi et al., 2011), young people entering the workplace may perceive that the organisation adopts many different values, and the individual’s ability to work out what is going on could be questioned. As it has been found that an organisation’s values allow an employee to relate to the company (De Vos et al., 2005), during the entry period, it may take time for a newcomer to identify and perceive the organisational values.

Extrinsic and intrinsic work values are commonly differentiated between, or presented as opposing, in the literature and in a number of conceptual models (e.g., Lyons et al., 2010; Ros et al., 1999; Sullivan et al., 1998). It would appear strange to have high similarities between extrinsic and intrinsic work values measurement concepts as they are very different, and have been conceptualised differently, as almost opposing values, in the work values frameworks (Elizur, 1984; Ginzberg et al., 1951; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Sortheix et al., 2015). Personal intrinsic work values are about the meaning of work, the stimulation, and variety behind the work (Ginzberg et al., 1951; Super, 1970); we could therefore view these as values more *transformational*. Extrinsic work values are seen as more about the *transactional* aspects of work, for example, compensation pay benefits (Ginzberg et al., 1951; Super, 1970). This transformational versus transactional approach to values aligns with the view that the psychological contract is evolving in terms of employees' expectations (e.g., Baruch & Rousseau, 2019); as younger employees enter the organisation, they are expecting more from their working relationship to meet their values and expectations. Younger people have a preference to take charge of their careers, yet also expect organisations to accommodate this (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Furthermore, younger workers may be less concerned with ending their employment contract if they do not feel that their needs are being met, since, being at the start of their career, they would have alternative job opportunities (Hedge et al., 2006). However, to conclude, it must be taken into account that the analysis found opposite effects in terms of how young people perceived intrinsic and extrinsic organisational work values, and the effect on the stability of their social work values (high intrinsic and low extrinsic organisational work values increased social values stability).

5.7 Study Limitations

This quantitative study is not without its limitations, and one of its main drawbacks relates to sampling issues. Although the sample represented different demographics, a majority of the sample were White British with a university degree, which could bias the data as differences have been found in work values across these demographics. Although both university graduates and non-university graduates will all transition to the workplace from education, there can be some slight differences in

expectations, values and behaviours. Research has found that completing university-level education can lead to increased expectations about one's employment status and experience (Donald et al., 2018; Graham & McKenzie, 1995; Holme, 2001), potentially influenced data on perceived work values, as well as self-efficacy. Further, recent graduates have been found to be more sensitive during the socialisation process when entering a new organisation (Ashforth, 2001; Bauer et al., 2007), which could distort the significant effects found in the study around work value stability, and limit generalisation to this population. Work experience, or having a previous job role, was not measured in this study, and research has suggested that those newcomers with more work experience are less willing to be socialised into an organisation (Beyer & Hannah, 2002); again, this could bias findings on work values stability. Nevertheless, it is likely that the results from this study will generalise at least to other similar societies. Furthermore, the similarities in the results and previous work values stability studies suggest that these findings can be generalised further.

The use of Prolific Academic could also have created bias in the sample, with representativeness being threatened. For example, many participants in the sample will be members of Prolific, which is obviously not the case for every person in the wider population. Due to the nature of the study, and the challenges around finding individuals prior to starting a job role, the inclusion criteria were left open regarding age and nationality (the qualitative study was focused on a UK sample and this study sample moved to international), which could bias and affect sample representativeness. The researcher aimed to time the survey release at the time when graduates and trainees would be starting new training programmes, in order to target young people entering new jobs (i.e., September 2018/19 and April 2018/19). Age was also measured as a moderating factor to understand the influence of this on work value stability, yet, as emphasis was placed on young people entering a new job, it was assumed that the majority of the sample fell within the 'young people' classification; which was fairly accurate and evident by the mean ages across the three time points. However, the age of the sample was also slightly skewed, particularly at time point 1, with some older participants responding to the survey. Although the skew reduced for time points two and three, increased restrictions with a clear inclusion criterion around age for respondents to align specifically with

definitions of ‘young people’ (20 to 24 years) (Arnett, 2000; Strauss & Howe, 1991) could have been improved to avoid such outliers. Quality of responses could also be questioned when using a paid survey platform such as Prolific Academic if respondents are motivated by the payment more than the survey responses. To manage this, payment is only made if full surveys are complete and Prolific Academic has in-monitors for checking false responses and/or socially desirable responses, as well as timers for overly fast responding. These are highlighted to the researcher so payment can be denied for the respondent and data removed to avoid bias.

Although the research was designed around the key adjustment stages of organisational newcomers (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008), with significant findings identified for this stage, further empirical findings indicate that newcomers *learn* about the organisational values during their first year in employment (Chao et al., 1994; Chatman, 1991). This suggests that this current study may be missing out on some further important transitional points for work values during the first year of employment. From this perspective, the timeframe of the current study being restricted to approximately five to six months in duration, could be seen as a limitation. Lengthening the data collection period to beyond six months might have strengthened the insight into later change in work values as newcomers become increasingly tenured in an organisation.

As is common with quantitative survey research, data were self-reported, opening up responses to bias and social desirability in responses, potentially compromising the reliability and validity of findings. Anonymity of survey responses should help to reduce this, yet self-reported data can always be questioned in terms of bias. Nevertheless, most of the constructs being measured require the viewpoint of the individual employee, being psychological variables best answered by the individual undertaking the process (Morrison, 1993a; Sackett & Larson, 1990). Such variables are best reported and assessed by the young person entering the workplace as no other individual can more accurately detail how they rate their own, and perceived, work values. Despite potential bias risk, such self-report measures can be seen as a valid and practical source of data for such research (Glick et al., 1986).

Furthermore, the study could be criticised for employing the Work Values Survey (WVS) (Lyons, 2003; Lyons et al., 2010) when measuring perceived organisational work values, as this survey was developed based on individual-level work value theoretical frameworks. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) state that organisations can have ‘competing values’ that coexist; which is opposed to early individual values models where a preference for one value over another is typically proposed (e.g., Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). This could create inaccuracies when respondents are rating their perceived organisational work values as the structural frameworks have been found to differ (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996; Schein, 1985). Some caution should also be taken in the measures around perceptions of organisational work values and also organisational investiture as reported *by* the participants. Being new to an organisation, particularly at time two, being only one to two months into their employment, the extent to which newcomers have fully formed their perceptions, understanding and awareness of the organisational values and investiture initiatives (available to them) can be questioned. This could result in misleading data if newcomers are making assumptions in their responses when asked to provide their opinion on the organisation. By time point 3, they should have experienced, or had the opportunity to undertake training, socialisation activities, etc. It has been found that newcomers’ perceptions of organisational work values develop to become more accurate and realistic (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004).

Unfortunately, some of the CFAs of the measurement models for the study variables were not showing a good model fit with the data. In particular, issues around the self-efficacy measure were particularly weak, and the organisational investiture measure at time two. The low sample size was also problematic for the CFA models, yet using the RMSEA index helps to overcome this, hence why dependence was placed on this criterion in particular when evaluating the CFA models for the three time points (Brown, 2006; Steiger & Lind, 1980). This was particularly the case for the time 2 CFA model where there were increased parameters, with many variables being measured, yet a fairly low sample size. Missing data was also an issue for the CFA models and, due to this restricted use of criterion indexes for model evaluation, RMSEA, CFI and TLI outputs were used to assess fit, yet other criteria such as SRMR are not suitable when there is missing data (Zhang & Savalei, 2020).

Moreover, the study measures did not differentiate between individualised and formal organisational investiture, which have been found to differ in their effect on the socialisation of young people (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Eva et al., 2017). This may have led to inaccurate measures, hence no significance was found for this moderator. This could indicate some methodological flaws in the measurement model for these moderating variables, and, furthermore, could explain why no significant effects were found.

Finally, increasingly sophisticated data modelling techniques could have been implemented to provide more insights into the data (e.g., path analysis) and to determine the cross-level effects of stability over time, identifying whether work values are viewed similarly at each time point, and to examine any different trajectories of work values. The current modelling techniques are limited in demonstrating changes over time; rather, they focus on the relationships between work values across the three time points. Despite these limitations, the current quantitative study allows the examination of work value stability across three times during entry and adjustment periods when entering an organisation, with consideration of key moderating effects.

5.8 Chapter Summary

The aim of this quantitative longitudinal survey study was to examine in more detail the work values of young people as they enter organisations as newcomers. The mixed methods approach supported the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data and, where relevant, insight from study one was highlighted to show linkages and progression in the research. This survey data complemented the previous study and provided data on the relationships between work values during the organisational entry period time at three time points (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008), allowing further understanding of the stability of work values of newcomers to an organisation. This chapter presented the study's rationale for hypotheses, theoretical framework, as well as the study design, sampling techniques, procedure and measures. The Lyons WVS (Lyons, 2003; Lyons et al., 2010) was utilised to measure personal and organisational work values across three time points to identify stability, and the influence of moderator variables

including organisational investiture, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and age. The four broad work value categories adopted by Lyons (2003), formed the basis of this survey, being in line with what was used in the qualitative study, specifically extrinsic, intrinsic, prestige and social work values (Harding & Hikspoors, 1995; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons et al., 2010; Papavasileiou & Lyons, 2015). The statistical analyses were outlined and results presented, with interpretation in the discussion section.

The hypotheses were partially supported, and the findings clearly demonstrate complex interplays and associations between personal work values upon entry into an organisation and three to six months into employment for young newcomers. The significant findings predominantly showed a decrease in stability of work values after one to two months of entry, suggesting that, after a turbulent first month settling into their new environment, and realising the actuality of work (discussed in Chapter 4 based on qualitative findings), young people adjust their work values. A key contribution that can be concluded from this study, is that work values stay fairly stable in young people entering the workplace initially, with adjustments taking place after one month of employment. This quantitative research therefore adds new insight to the literature on the specific strength of stability of personal work values of young people during specific time points prior to and when entering an organisation.

Based on the moderation effects found in the study, findings and discussions suggest that social personal work value stability is particularly influenced by perceptions of intrinsic and extrinsic values held by the organisation, determining individual social authenticity in the workplace. Job satisfaction was found to have an influence on intrinsic and extrinsic personal work values stability; so, the more satisfied someone is at work, the more likely they are to adjust these values. Finally, age was found to affect the extent of stability, particularly on extrinsic, intrinsic and prestige personal work values, in line with theoretical ideas around increased stability in values and self-concept as people age. The investigation of these moderator variables contributes to understanding the stability of personal work values as young people enter new organisations following the entry period. By focusing on different personal work values, this study has contributed new

insights around factors influencing extrinsic, intrinsic, social and prestige work values of individuals.

The study has added further understanding of and support for some key theories on work value stability, P-O fit (Kristof, 1996), organisational socialisation (Wanberg, 2012), and newcomer adjustment (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008), as well as age stability (Alwin, 1994; Glenn, 1980). The values literature states that work values are fundamental and moderately enduring for both employees and organisations (Chatman, 1989, 1991), yet research, such as the current study, has identified some changes in work values, particularly during entry, and *after* approximately one to two months, to the workplace (e.g., Chao et al., 1994). This goes against much of the socialisation literature which proposes initial early adjustment to newcomers' work values (Fisher, 1986; Polach, 2004; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanberg, 2012). Two primary theoretical approaches from the literature have been considered in the research, and also have been shown to be integrated during the time when young people enter into their first job (De Cooman et al., 2009): the 'matching' approach and the 'adjustment' approach. The study strongly supports the adjustment approach and socialisation theory (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994; Louis, 1980b; Wanberg, 2012; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008), particularly after a 'settling-in' period of time for newcomers, showing less stability in personal work values after one to two months of entry. The study supports De Cooman et al. (2009), in that the matching and the adjustment approach are mutually exclusive; however, it adds a further contribution by suggesting a more sequential approach as opposed to them operating in parallel. Such contributions are discussed further in the final Discussion section (Chapter 6). This current chapter has also included a discussion on the structure of work values from the perspective of young newcomers in organisations based on the CFA models, questioning the hierarchical structure of previous work values conceptual models.

Chapter 6 includes a discussion of the significant findings from both the qualitative and quantitative studies that emerged through the analysis and interpretation to this point. Findings are integrated and summarised in the context of relevant theory and literature. Theoretical and practical implications, as well as conclusions, limitations and future directions of the research will be discussed.

Chapter 6 - General Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter discusses the research findings presented in this thesis, firstly drawing back on the purpose of the study and the research questions, which aimed to explore young people's work values and their approach to work as they transition into work, as well as investigate the psychological factors affecting the stability of these work values during socialisation. This thesis was motivated by recognising that entry into an organisation for the first time is a difficult and critical period in a young person's career life (Bauer et al., 2007; Polach, 2004). Career patterns and context have shifted (e.g., Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021), with young people no longer entering organisations and progressing through their careers in a predictable and linear manner, making this a crucial stage to study. Uncertainty and fast-moving opportunities are creating a context of transitions, mobility and adaptation to careers in the 21st century workplace (Lyons et al., 2015; Savickas, 2005, 2013). 'New careers' are defined by an increase in self-directedness of individuals, with them being more open to flexibility and adaptability throughout their own careers (Sullivan, 1999), with this being found to play an important role in career success (Morrison & Hall, 2002).

Work values are at the centre of this transition, with these guiding principles being central to an individual's decision-making, actions and behaviours (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Marini et al., 1996; Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). The literature review conducted in Chapter 2 identified contradictory findings about work values in young people, from their preferences to their stability, as well as the role that they play as these individuals transition into organisations. The literature on work values is vast and there is still no consensus on a theoretical or structural framework for work values research. Nevertheless, it is clear that work values play a critical role in the way that young people are attracted to organisations (Choi & Chung, 2017; De Cooman et al, 2009; De Cooman & Dries, 2012), how successful they are in the selection process (Adkins et al., 1994; De Cooman et al., 2009; Morley & Billsberry, 2007), how they adjust to the work environment (Arieli et al., 2020; Lofquist & Dawis, 1978; Super, 1962), and, ultimately,

their turnover intentions and attrition rates (De Cooman et al., 2009). With current literature not in a position to address the aims of the research, the literature review led to the development of the following research questions.

RQ1. *What* are the work values, work preferences and career expectations of young people?

RQ2. *How* are work values developed as a young person enters the workplace and how are they affected by the transition to work?

RQ3. *Why* do young people's work values change (or not) as they are socialised into an organisation?

This body of research employed a mixed methods approach that initially included a qualitative interview study followed by a quantitative longitudinal survey study. In both of these studies, the same underpinning theoretical framework of work values was used to structure the interview and the questionnaire over the time points (Busque-Carrier et al., 2021; Jin & Rounds, 2012). Few studies have explored this topic from a mixed methods perspective.

The qualitative study as part of this research was focused on the subjective examination of young people's work and career values as well as understanding their expectations when they entered the workplace. This study consisted of data from 38 semi-structured interviews conducted with young trainees who recently entered the workplace, including apprentices, placement students, interns and graduate trainees. Following thematic analysis, a number of themes and sub-themes on the perceptions, opinions and attitudes of these individuals in terms of work and career values were found. These were focused on drawing out subjective insight on the working preferences, work values, and career expectations of young people as they entered the workplace, with consideration of their perceptions and developments of these concepts.

In line with the mixed methods approach adopted for this research project, a longitudinal quantitative survey study was designed to follow the qualitative study in order to gather more precise, objective data on the stability of work values during young

people's transition into the workplace. A survey was administered to assess personal and organisational work values, using the Lyons Work Values Survey (Lyons, 2003; Lyons et al., 2010) at three time points: prior to employment (one to six weeks), one to two months into employment, and three to six months into employment. These timings were based on socialisation and adjustments stage models (e.g., Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008) as outlined in Chapter 5. Work values can be held individually or socially, contributing to building a person's self-concept (Johnson, 2001b; Rokeach, 1973; Wallace-Brosious et al., 1994); hence the importance to study both individual *and* organisational values. The socialisation body of literature has been criticised for lacking empirical testing and being theoretically fragmented, and, although further work has addressed these criticisms, there are still aspects of socialisation and newcomer adjustment that are not understood or contradictory (Feldman, 1976; Fisher, 1986; Rogers, 2020; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Given scarce research actually investigating and examining the interactions and associations between work values at different time points during entry to the workplace, this quantitative study adopted a moderated mediation approach to researching the stability of work values. With a majority of work value studies focused on correlation (Arieli et al., 2020), this research provides more understanding over time on the stability of work values.

Overall, this programme of research contributes to the knowledge on young people's transition to work and the people management practices needed to support them during this process. In particular, and as I will discuss in more depth throughout this chapter, key study contributions include understanding young people's work value preferences, recognising experiences of 'reality shock' on entry to organisations, socialisation timings and work value adjustments taking place after 1-2 months of employment, and the influence of perceived organisational values, job satisfaction and age on their work values as they enter the workplace. These contributions will now be discussed in more detail.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

6.2.1 Making Sense of a New World: The Psychological Transition of Young People into the Workplace

When considering *what* the work values, work preferences and career expectations of young people are (RQ1), the qualitative research study confirmed that young people are not accurately anticipating what working life entails, and how it may, or may not, meet their work values and expectations. Expectations of work were found to be both elevated and broad in terms of desired values, leading to ‘reality shock’ and individuals not being prepared for the change during their transition to the workplace. The quantitative findings showed that work values become more unstable one to two months after entry into the organisation, suggesting a sequential approach in terms of matching with an organisation and then adjusting to the new environment. One of the biggest issues when entering a new workplace, is that young people ‘do not know what they do not know’. Holton (1995) suggested that young people are being naïve when entering an organisation, hence why work values are then adjusted during this time, as found in this research. Sims and Sauser (2012) found that young people’s biggest fears in the first six months after graduating from university involved not being prepared or being ‘stuck’ in the wrong job. However, this research suggests that, if the reality of working is different to what young people expect, with higher expectations in university graduates compared to non-university graduates (Donald et al., 2018; Graham & McKenzie, 1995), any preparations or planning is unlikely to make a difference. Research has found that a change in culture is experienced by young people entering the workplace for the first time from education, with little or no awareness of work culture prior to entry acknowledged (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Perrone & Vickers, 2003; Sleaf & Reed, 2006). The stage of ‘emerging adulthood’ (ages 18 to 25; Arnett, 2000) allows for an intense time of exploration and ‘reality testing’ (Becht et al., 2021; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990; Voss & Kunter, 2020); however, there is rejection and failure through the realisation that work is not always entirely fulfilling and meeting expectations (Arnett, 2000). This aligns with the current study’s findings around young people having to

comprehend the reality of work and work values, and career expectations not being met, particularly in terms of progression.

Furthermore, findings from the qualitative study support the blurred boundaries between exploration and establishment in Super's career stage model (1957, 1980), as young people appear to be experiencing characteristics of establishment earlier, during the 'exploration' stage (15-24 years). In particular, young people are focusing on upwards transition upon entry into organisations, suggesting they 'fast forward' the exploration stage; this perspective is typical of the establishment phase (25-34 years) (Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021). Rather than having set criteria for life stages (e.g., Super, 1957, 1980), the focus of 'emerging adulthood' is on becoming a self-sufficient person, which can link to accepting responsibility for oneself including the attainment of one's values. Arnett (2000) proposes that this is a time when many different directions remain possible to individuals, reflecting the time of uncertainty and ambiguity during the transition to one's first job role. He states that individuals in 'emerging adulthood' do not identify with the adolescent stage or the young adult stage; this notion, or period, can therefore reflect the previously 'grey area' encompassing a changing self-concept. Adopting this approach to the transition of work values adds insight and understanding to the psychological adjustment of young people, strengthening the already proposed association between work values and self-concept (e.g., Oh & Roh, 2019; Russo et al., 2021; Wallace-Broschious et al., 1994), and questioning the often fixed outlook of existing stage models when interpreting the career stages of young people as they enter organisations. Organisations can support young newcomers during this time of uncertainty and change, allowing them to adjust to their new environment, particularly one to two months after entry.

Considering *how* work values are developed as a young person enters the workplace (RQ2), the changes taking place in the current study, one to two months after entry to an organisation, show an alteration or transformation in young people, whether conscious or unconscious. Either way, these are psychological adjustments suggesting some *self-management* during an unstable period in an individual's life and can question the influence of the organisation. The quantitative study did not find any moderating

effects on the stability of work values from organisational investiture and it is interesting that, in the literature, much focus is put on organisational strategies and tactics for socialisation, with less focus on the individual (Ahmad et al., 2019; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Ashforth et al., 2007; Jones, 1986). Kim et al. (2005) found that employees play an *active* role in their own organisational socialisation, which can depend on how they frame the socialisation initiative being delivered to them, either positively or negatively, which may or may not align well with their individual work values. The interview findings confirmed that young people also take into account the culture and values of the organisation with which they are starting employment, aiming to align with these to allow authenticity. These ideas support the interactionist approach to understanding the changes and/or transitions that young people go through, considering the dynamic interactions between the individual and their environment (De Cooman et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2011; Roberts et al., 2003a). The interaction between an individual's psychological characteristics, such as personality and values, and their work experience and environment (including organisational investiture) has been studied for decades (e.g., Inkeles & Levinson, 1963, Kowtha, 2018), with almost circular models emerging proposing that people select environments associated with their psychological characteristics, and these then shape who they are going forward (e.g., Johnson & Elder, 2002; Memon et al., 2018; Roberts & Caspi, 2003; Schneider, 1987).

Nevertheless, the current study's findings demonstrate more force behind the individual in terms of socialisation and being the central 'actor' in this process, with a self-directed career approach evident from the interviews. As drawn on in the previous chapter's discussion when considering the findings around time points of personal work value stability, a 'matching' approach, as aligned with attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory (e.g., Schneider, 1987), is suggested for the early entry stage to an organisation, as both the employer and employee have selected each other based on values, rewards and their expectations. However, findings support newcomer adjustment (e.g., Bauer et al., 1998; Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008) in work value stability post-entry (approximately one to two months), suggesting a sequential approach and building on work by De Cooman et al. (2009), who state that the 'matching' and 'adjustment' approaches are not mutually exclusive. The ordering of these processes can be determined

based on the findings in this study, with a matching approach during pre-entry and upon entry, followed by a socialisation approach, with work values adjusting in line with the workplace once 'settled in'. This contribution also aligns with the changing psychological contract, as individuals take increasing personal control of their careers, with less dependency on their employers and increasing dependency on social networks (e.g., Baruch & Rousseau, 2019; Blyler & Coff, 2003; Rousseau, 2001). In line with recent research (Sirén et al., 2021), this research has found that many individuals are open to being more mobile in their careers.

These analyses into the stability time points of personal work values add understanding on when such values adjust and are suggested to be based on the unmet expectations of job roles, workplaces and/or perceived employer values. The notion of self-sufficiency, individualism, a desire for autonomy and freedom, and authenticity, during a transitional phase of change and uncertainty, suggests that young people are committed to taking control of this period in their life in terms of how they modify their work and career values and beliefs.

6.2.2 Taking Control Back: A Shift to Adaptability

Looking further at *why* young people's work values are changing as they are socialised into an organisation (RQ3), the current study found that work values were less stable one to two months after entering an organisation; still, the interview findings showed that young people continue to display attitudes around taking control of their careers, with a desire for autonomy and individualism. Although work values stability is reduced approximately one to two months after entry, qualitative findings showed that young people are showing intentions and motivations of self-awareness and self-monitoring with regard to their values, careers and progression. From the qualitative study, it was found that young people are cognitively assessing and appraising the situation as they transition into new organisational roles, in terms of their work values and career progression, and the quantitative study showed that adjustment of work values takes place. Both past and recent research has proposed that individuals are adjusting in order to manage such potentially stressful conditions, allowing them to cope, make sense

of the situation and take back some control (e.g., Ellis et al., 2015; Latack, 1984). This research, particularly the moderation analyses in the quantitative study, has highlighted influencing factors from the organisational environment, e.g., perceived organisational work values and job satisfaction, that can affect the stability of an individual's work values. As the link between work values and career values, e.g., type (Sullivan et al., 1998) and success factors (Heslin et al., 2019), has been discussed (see Chapter 2), such values will guide how an individual navigates their career in terms of being self-directed, taking control and adapting (Sirén et al., 2021).

In their definition, Savickas (1997) adds emphasis on career adaptability being important when facing “*unpredictable adjustments prompted by the changes in work and work conditions*” (p.254). We can therefore relate career adaptability to the transition experienced by young people as they enter the workplace and face the realisations of the work environment, as discussed in the current research findings. Koen et al. (2012) found career adaptability has positive effects on future employment quality of university students, supporting career adaptability as a learnable construct. It should be noted that much research on career adaptability focuses on university graduates in particular. The current research suggests that adjustments in work values are taking place one to two months after entry to an organisation, and young people may be using career adaptability to cope with the transition, in line with Via Vianen et al.'s (2009) proposal that career adaptability can be fostered more effectively during the very early stages of a young person's career. With elevated work values found in this study, as well as high authenticity, young people are clearly motivated to regain control of their future career, helping them feel comfortable in their organisation. These findings demonstrate the importance of people management to organisations during the socialisation process, particularly with insights from career adaptability theory (Johnston, 2018). By understanding that young people take personal control of their careers, organisations can adopt a more individualistic viewpoint towards managing young newcomers and encourage openness and authenticity through initiatives such as personal development/career planning and one-on-one coaching. Furthermore, organisations can ensure they are transparent in how they communicate their work values and culture in an

attempt to reduce any ‘reality shock’ and encourage positive value fit and any subsequent adjustment.

The findings from this research showing that young people desire not only high intrinsic values but also high extrinsic values, as well as a desire for a breadth of skills to help them be increasingly mobile in their future careers, argue for a different definition of the ‘self-directed’ career. Early research by Sullivan et al. (1998) has characterised self-directed careers with a focus on intrinsic work values and self-fulfilment, as well as having organisational-specific skills, allowing the individual to form a strong professional identity in their company. This suggests that the definition of a ‘self-directed career’ has evolved in the literature, being defined as where an individual has autonomy over their career decisions and behaviours, and is able to be adaptive within their career development (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Sirén et al., 2021), as reflected in the current qualitative findings.

6.2.3 Authentic Identities at Work: Connecting with the Self

This research has explored the psychological transition into the workplace of young people, with authenticity consistently showing to be an emergent factor in how work values are developed as a young person enters the workplace (RQ2). With qualitative findings showing that the work identities of young people are highly similar with their out of work identities, authenticity is prominent for these individuals, increasing their self-connection and meaning in work. With the resurgence of research interest in authenticity in the workplace (e.g., Van den Bosch et al., 2019), there are many benefits identified of being highly transparent at work, with authentic expression described as ‘the good life’ (Sutton, 2020). Van den Bosch and Taris (2014) conceptualise authenticity at work as including authentic living, which is concerned with the degree to which individuals are behaving in line with their inner work values. The findings of this study support this, with interviewees discussing the need to live authentically, and the survey showing stable work values on the initial entry into the workplace. Authenticity, as desired by young people, clearly plays a role in *how* and *why* their work values develop and change during socialisation into an organisation (RQ2; RQ3).

Rather than adopting a trait approach to authenticity, which has been criticised for being highly rigid and unrepresentative of behaviours across contexts and roles (Sutton, 2018), a congruence approach is more appropriate for socialisation processes. This congruence, state-based approach to authenticity accepts that content can be changed in that individuals feel they are truly representing themselves in, and across, situations, independent of personality (Robinson et al., 2014; Sutton, 2018). Such change in stability was found, particularly in social work values. Social personal work values were found to be influenced by the individual's perception of the organisation's intrinsic and extrinsic work values, highlighting the importance of a person's own social networks and exchanges during their career, i.e., them being the driving force (e.g., Baruch & Rousseau, 2019). Stability in social work values is enhanced by highly perceived organisational intrinsic values, suggesting young people are not feeling pressure to modify their social values and interactions with others in the workplace. High social work values stability, and thereby authenticity, could be a response to work value threat as new work situations are confronted (Polach, 2004). Newcomers can use social acceptance as a suggestion that they are fitting into their new working environment, thereby developing a situational identity in the workplace that is in line with their personal identity (Moreland & Levine, 2002). Again, in line with the study findings, with increased self-direction in an individual's career decisions, as well a desire for freedom and autonomy, initial feelings of a loss of control can lead to the adoption of new behaviour patterns in the form of adaptability, which, if effective, can result in higher authenticity.

Authenticity is associated with feelings of being in touch with oneself, therefore linking to values that contribute to one's self-concept (Marsh et al., 2019; Wallace-Broschious et al., 1994). A subjective cognitive assessment is taking place as young people judge themselves through their self-concept and their working environment, which is based on their perceptions of the organisation's values. This will determine how authentic they perceive themselves to be in the workplace (Van den Bosch et al., 2019). With values and self-concepts still developing during young adulthood (Mortimer, 2012; Super, 1957, 1980), authenticity at work is expected to be affected, at least in part, by the way individuals behave in line with these concepts. Considering the timings of organisational entry, the current research findings show that high authenticity is existing in young people

when they first enter the workplace, supported by high initial stability in their values during a time of socialisation. Conversely, it can be also be considered that the higher instability in work values one to two months after entering an organisation, can demonstrate that young people are modifying their values in response to their surroundings in order to become *more* authentic. State authenticity can vary dependent on the situation (Lenton et al., 2016; Robinson et al., 2014), and will be tied in with an individual's standards, values and goals (Leak & Cooney, 2001), suggesting that authenticity could be more dependent on situation and an individual's interaction with this through their early career stages.

With the motivation to achieve more authenticity and balance in their lives, as found in the research interviews and existing findings (e.g., O'Neill & Jepsen, 2019; Sullivan et al., 2009), this will naturally impact young people's approach to their careers. Ideas around the Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM) can be connected here (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, 2006; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Often used to show the changing work-life balance preferences of young people (Darcy et al., 2012; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), the KCM gives more responsibility to the individual as they evaluate the choices and options in front of them, in order to enable the best value fit, and thereby enhancing authenticity. Relationships and life stages will also play a role (e.g., Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006), so this flexible career model allows young people to stay true to their work values in and out of the workplace. As found in the interview study, young people are desiring personal control over their careers, as well as being content working in organisations that fit with their values.

The findings of this study also suggest implications for organisational leaders who are aiming to achieve effective people management and socialisation strategies to attract and retain young employees. By taking on board a KCM approach, organisations can encourage flexibility in an employee's early career patterns to reflect changing life roles and relationships, aligning internal values and external behaviours with the values of the organisation. Managers should consider how to enhance company socialisation initiatives to allow an effective fit between an employee's values and the organisation's values, e.g., through realistic job previews (Sullivan et al., 2009).

6.2.4 Understanding Work Values from the Perspective of Young People

Work values dimensions, such as the categories used in this research, are supported by decades of research on their conceptual models, yet there is still no single classification of work values. From a theoretical perspective, two important questions posed by Rounds and Armstrong (2005) state: “*What types of work values exist?*” and “*How are these types of values related to one another?*” These two key questions were mentioned in the literature review at the start of this research and they are considered in light of the findings and in the context of young people transitioning to the workplace.

This study contributes a mixed methods approach to understanding the structure and concept of work values from the viewpoint of young adults entering the workplace. There is little existing research on work values profiles, particularly from the perspective of young people; nevertheless, a shift towards profiles over dimensions has been suggested (Arieli et al., 2020). It is evident that there is a need to update such work value theory from the perspective of young people. The integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches allows a more comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the work values of these individuals at both an intra-unit level (i.e., profiles) and the inter-unit level (i.e., trends).

These research findings, from both studies, demonstrate the focus on breadth over depth of work values expected by young people entering organisations. The interview findings showed that young people desire high levels across all four work value types: intrinsic, extrinsic, prestige and social. With young people being found to be more accustomed to multi-tasking (Crews & Russ, 2020; GURSOY et al., 2008), this can explain why they seem to want ‘it all’, in terms of their work values *prior* to entering the workplace. Furthermore, when work value models were tested for fit in the quantitative study, factor loadings showed high associations between personal and organisational work values. In particular, much overlap was found in the organisational work values, especially for extrinsic and intrinsic value dimensions. This suggests that young people

may not be distinguishing between different work values, particularly intrinsic and extrinsic values, as clearly as previously thought.

The research findings therefore question the hierarchical structuring and ranking perspectives of work values (e.g., Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987), as well as the meaning of work values for young people, in terms of the order and relative importance of an individual's work value preference (Choi & Chung, 2017). Researchers tend to think of work values as one or the other, especially when theorists propose a hierarchical order in their structure (Arieli et al., 2020; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987), yet the current research findings propose that the four work value types can all be held highly simultaneously. Typically, values are seen as presenting a mutually exclusive dilemma about actions an individual is to take in a conflicting situation, with alternative options being compared (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989). More specifically, in the literature, extrinsic and intrinsic work values have been presented as being opposing, being that each excludes the other in terms of being more dominant, i.e., someone cannot hold high intrinsic and extrinsic work values simultaneously; one would supersede the other. This links back to traditional values models, being structured with opposite values mirrored across from each other (Elizur, 1984; Ginzberg et al., 1951; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Sortheix et al., 2015). However, there is an opposing view that values can be held independently of each other (e.g., Kluckhohn, 1951), and this would support the current findings that various dimensions of work values can be held highly, even though these often appear to be somewhat opposing each other, especially in the context of work values, e.g., transactional values (i.e., monetary) vs. transformational values (i.e., purpose). Furthermore, Meglino and Ravlin (1998) support this by proposing that values can then be "*equal in their intensity*" (p.358). Adopting this perspective around values, as based on the current study findings, suggests that an individual can hold a uniformly high value and a uniformly low value, rather than holding them in a hierarchy, thereby differing from existing research.

There have been a number of studies focusing on value conflict and pluralism models (e.g., Tetlock, 1986), where conflicting values lead people to compare alternatives and make a decision around their actions. Values conflict, therefore, requires trade-offs

which typically align with traditionally hierarchically structured work values (Roskos-Ewoldsen & Fazio, 1992); however, this does not seem to be the case with young people entering the workplace. It could be suggested that value conflict is dissolving as young people hold high career expectations and work values, whilst demonstrating more authenticity at work. It therefore seems that there are fewer trade-offs being made and a number of work values are being prioritised. These study findings suggest that we need to think about work values differently for young people, particularly as they enter the workplace.

6.2.5 New Paradigms for Organisations

The findings from this body of research clearly pose a challenge for modern organisations in how they recruit, socialise, manage, develop and retain young people. With elevated expectations and higher desires for various different work values, the demands of young people appear to ask a lot of their employers. As found in the qualitative study, with emotional states such as impatience being more apparent with regard to career development, status and progression, there is a higher likelihood of unhappiness and disengagement if these individuals' work values are not being fulfilled. As previously discussed, the dynamics of the psychological contract are evolving (e.g., Baruch & Rousseau, 2019, Robinson et al., 1994), with organisations now being required to focus more on aligning interests with employees through their employment relationship (Audenaert et al., 2019; Inkson & King, 2011). There is increasing complexity and fragmentation in psychological contracts with disconnect being found between an individual's perspectives and those of their employer, as well as enhanced self-regulatory mechanisms (Baruch et al., 2015; Rousseau et al., 2018). The importance of work values to young people entering workplaces, and who are establishing a psychological contract, is evident from this research. It has been argued that the promises linked with the old career need to be replaced by a 'new deal' which align with the forms of new careers (Baruch & Rousseau, 2019; Herriot & Pemberton, 1997; Rousseau, 1995, 2001). In line with the study findings, as employment contracts are evolving, and becoming increasingly global, flexible and open (Baruch & Rousseau, 2019; Baruch et al., 2016; Kalleberg, 2000), there is more mobility in an individual's career, both horizontally and

vertically (Arnold & Cohen, 2008). Adopting a career ecosystem perspective can be beneficial for both young people and organisations in order to recognise the wider social networks and labour market influences on the psychological contract (Baruch & Rousseau, 2019). Young people are therefore *required* to encompass more self-regulation in their careers, acquiring new skills and displaying new behaviours in line with their values, as well as taking on greater risk and personal responsibility (Pulakos et al., 2000), and organisations and managers can support this.

Findings showed that individualism was central to the careers approach adopted by young people as they entered organisations for the first time, leading to higher dependency on their own values (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Twenge et al., 2008). In addition to the current research, Lyons and Kuron (2014) found that there is convincing evidence that younger people regard themselves in an increasingly positive manner and they interpreted this as a clear increase in individualism. With the current research demonstrating uncertainty and instability during the transition to the workplace, adopting a newcomer-centric approach to supporting this process is logical, aligning with recent studies challenging a generalised approach to socialisation (e.g., Peltokorpi et al., 2021). This research suggests organisations should adopt a personalised, idiosyncratic approach to managing young people's development and progression through the company (Inkson & King, 2011; Rousseau, 2001). With younger people reporting higher ambition and proactivity in their careers in the interviews, they often act more independently, prioritising themselves and their thoughts (De Hauw & De Vos, 2010; Henderson & Robertson, 2000).

The themes of individualism and self-directness in careers were evident throughout the interview findings. Briscoe and Hall (2006) propose that there is a values-driven component that is underpinning those with self-directed careers, stating that these individuals will focus on their personal values to direct their careers, as opposed to the perceived organisational values. Organisations should acknowledge the higher desire for autonomy, as found through the interview study, as this greater sense of autonomy comes from individualism (Kanungo & Jaeger, 1990). With findings of higher instability in certain work values (i.e., extrinsic, intrinsic and prestige) after one to two months of

employment, it is argued that organisational situational factors are influencing this change in work values and young people are *motivated* to adjust themselves to adapt to their new surroundings. On one hand, individualism, self-directed careers, and a desire for autonomy and authenticity in the workplace suggest that young people will stick to their work values no matter what the circumstances; however, the instability found in work values suggests there are some conscious adaptations and adjustments taking place during socialisation. This is a new contribution to the research, which has currently suggested that less individualistic people are likely to feel more comfortable accepting the values of their organisation (Froese & Xiao, 2012).

If organisations can focus on meeting the desires and needs of young people entering the workplace, they can enhance the likelihood of the stability of future work values. Considering congruence in an employee's values and the organisation's values can help to manifest and strengthen the individual's identity towards their role and the organisation, improving loyalty and satisfaction, lowering turnover, etc. (Lu & Gursoy, 2016). However, organisations should *not* be focusing on a 'fit' approach in the traditional sense (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006), as complementary 'fit' can exist as a distinct resolution. The term 'complementary fit' (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) is when the individual complements the environment and its characteristics. This goes beyond the 'matching' approach when considering socialisation; rather, a person can fill a gap in the organisation in terms of skills, knowledge and other attributes, or both the employer and employee can fulfil each other's needs (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Van Vianen, 2000; Verquer et al., 2003). The complementary fit approach allows acceptance of the unique contributions that young newcomers can make to an organisation in terms of their work values and expectations, and allows integration of theories around P-O fit, socialisation and newcomer adjustment, as well as the notion of individualism, self-sufficiency and authenticity. From a career stage perspective, with increased research focusing on the later period of 'career renewal' of individuals (Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021), it is important to understand these former stages that can create the basis for later career transitions being driven by work values and desires (e.g., progression, freedom, authenticity). This newcomer-centric view of the socialisation and transitional process as young people enter organisations, allows for the introduction of

new streams of research that integrated from socialisation, newcomer adjustment, work values and careers, that can address both theoretical and practical concerns.

6.3 Limitations and Future Directions

Limitations specific to the qualitative and quantitative study are discussed in the relevant sections of this thesis (chapters 4 and 5 respectively). Although the mixed methods approach utilised in this current study is complementary, some compromise is always necessary when integrating the strengths of the qualitative and quantitative studies. Measurements of work values were kept standardised; however, the timings of the data collection across the two studies could be challenging as they provide insights into young people at different stages of entry into organisations, allowing bias and conflicting perspectives. When understanding the transition process of young people into the workplace, the timings of data collection must be carefully considered. The current research focused on collecting data qualitatively, when individuals were already employed in their organisation, and quantitatively, on pre entry, one month into employment, and up to six months in employment. These data collection points could be limiting the quality of information on the transition including the adjustment and socialisation processes that take place before entry (qualitatively) and over the period of a year or two years following entry (qualitatively and quantitatively). Despite much interest in the topic of socialisation and work values in the research, there still needs to be further clarity around the process at key time points, exploring the stability and moderation effects around an individual's personal work values. It should be noted that P-O fit is not being measured here in terms of congruence; rather, the understanding around the stability of the work values and any socialisation value change that takes place as individuals enter an organisation is being examined.

A wider data collection period would capture further data, unpacking the complex interactions affecting the stability of personal work values and identifying influencing factors. Therefore, it would be useful to expand the data collection time points, both qualitatively and quantitatively, in order to gather further data on the wider process transitional process and levels of stability of work values in newcomers in organisations.

Much of the socialisation literature focuses on adjustment and satisfaction of newcomers to organisations. Nevertheless, some researchers claim that the entire organisational career of an individual has been “*characterised as a socialisation process*” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p.211), suggesting that this time of adjustment and ambiguity is not only in the early years of an individual’s career stages (Hall, 1996). Research has found that work experiences during the period of young adulthood can have a different influence on psychological characteristics, when compared to later life work experiences (e.g., Roberts et al., 2003b). Therefore, these future work stages must not be overlooked in the research, even if they may appear less interesting, chaotic and/or important to an individual’s self-development and definition.

As found in the research findings, work values are conceptualised differently by young people, which questions the methods used to measure work values. The work values measure utilised in this study was used to understand the underlying psychological criteria which can determine an individual’s preference for various work aspects (Lyons, 2003; Lyons et al., 2010). However, this study suggests that young individuals can hold a number of work values highly, with some overlap and similarity in their perception of work values. Assuming work values are being measured for the study population, could be problematic. In order to address issues around the subjective meaning of work values to young people, further measures could be explored to understand this from an idiosyncratic, qualitative approach. For example, the Repertory Grid Technique (Kelly, 1955) could be utilised to gather insight, as it has recently been used to explore work values in the literature (Song & Gale, 2008). This technique could explore the true value of what ‘work values’ mean to this population, and, furthermore, how they actually view the transition into work themselves. This suggests that work value frameworks, as well as career and socialisation stage models, could be revised in order to acknowledge evolving perceptions of, and meaning around, work values for young adults entering organisations for the first time.

As well as understanding the concept of work values further, there were other key factors that emerged from the research that could be explored in this context. It would be useful to compare the stability of work values with the stability of authenticity during

young adults' transition into the workplace. Further statistical analyses could be explored around these topics investigating three-way interactions of age, work values and authenticity. The blurring between work and personal life in terms of identities could be researched further, to understand interactions with personal and organisational work values. Although self-efficacy generated mixed findings in the past, there were no significant findings in the current study, even though this was identified in interviews as being related to the individualistic focus on the careers of young people. It is suggested that self-efficacy contributes to the make-up of one's self-concept so it would be interesting to explore this further and identify any interrelations between these two psychological phenomena. Finally, there is little if any research on impatience with regard to young people and their work values and career expectations. In the current study, this is proposed to be an output of the sensemaking process when facing the realities of work, so it would also be useful to research this factor and identify any determining factors.

As previously discussed within the quantitative study limitations, there are also wider sampling issues with this body of research as a majority of participants, both interviewed and surveyed, were White British and university educated. This creates limitations in generalising the research to a non-higher education population, and the scope of this research body recognises that all young people typically transition from education to employment, whether from school, college or university. This is something that can be identified further within future studies, to explore any differences in the effect of educational attainment on work value stability across school, college and university graduates as they transition into organisations and job roles. Currently, the research into work values and their stability does not greatly distinguish between the different educational levels of young people. With regard to new career forms such as the boundaryless career, it has been suggested that these are not as appropriate or relevant for disadvantaged individuals, being limited to privileged groups (Pringle & Mallon, 2003). Sullivan and Al Ariss (2021) propose a call to broaden the scope of research on career transitions to examine different demographic groups, and this current research supports this with the suggestion to explore further the role educational attainment plays in work values and career expectation stability across career transitions.

Furthermore, when considering the sample organisations of the two studies, qualitative study one only drew data from large, multinational organisations, whereas there were no limitations around this in quantitative study two. Although study one was more exploratory, this could have restricted the views of work values to those working in a global organisational context, as compared to study two where survey respondents did not indicate whether their organisation was local or international. This can be seen as a limitation in the mixed methods design and parallels between the samples of studies could be aligned better in future research.

6.4 Practical Implications

Organisations and managers can benefit from insight generated by this research in order to more effectively manage these young individuals, recognising their progression needs and expectations, opening up discussions, as well as understanding their preferred working preferences. In addition, business managers and leaders will need to be able to relate to younger workers in order to recognise their requirements to ensure organisational commitment and retention, as well as job satisfaction, engagement and wellbeing. Managers' values will not only affect their own behaviours and decisions, but also those of their subordinates (Arieli et al., 2020), and this is something that should be considered by such individuals, particularly as this study has highlighted the importance of work values to young people in terms of fit, authenticity and adjustment. These organisations could be developed to become workplaces with increased focus on authenticity, personalisation and social connection, creating a trusting environment that allows individuals to be themselves (Sutton, 2018). Managers have to recognise that simply increasing some of the organisational values to suit young people, is *not* the way forward and is not always effective. A surplus of organisational rewards in response to an individual's work values can have negative outputs, particularly for social work values, compromising a person's privacy (Porfeli & Mortimer, 2010; Rani & Samuel, 2016). Thereby, rather than focusing on encouraging fit and the adjustment of work values to match the organisation in terms of socialisation, organisations could focus on the *mis-fit* of young people entering the workplace (Van den Bosch et al., 2019).

Wendlandt and Rochlen (2008) emphasise the importance of the stage prior to entry into an organisation – *Anticipation* – when understanding socialisation. During this time, if accurate expectations of an individual’s career and work role are developed, then this would lead better preparations for, and selection of, work, resulting in more positive experiences when entering the workplace (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Through gaining information via communication channels, individuals can reduce their uncertainty, become more effective in their roles, and increase their job satisfaction, whilst decreasing their turnover intention (Morrison, 1993b). It is therefore crucial for organisations, as well as education-providers, to support young people in the transition, as typically support is dropped once full-time education is completed (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). These institutions can help to manage the disappointment that develops around unrealistic expectations of the workplace for young people, allowing them to understand the experience of the transition into the workplace that they are facing. However, Kitchener and Brenner (1990) state that individuals require a level of maturity that those in the higher education age bracket (i.e., 18-22 years) may not hold, requiring a deeper level of reflection at this stage in their lives. From an identity and authenticity perspective, organisations can also help young people shape their identity to fit their work (e.g., Pratt et al., 2006). For example, Ibarra (2004) found that employees transitioned more effectively in their careers when using trial and error, as well as input from others, to test out different “alternative selves” in their work roles. Having open conversations about an individual’s values, self and identity, and how these align with their job requirements, can help to overcome any tensions or detrimental effects from a mismatch or a clash.

As discussed above, career adaptability has been found to be a learnable construct (Koen et al., 2012), which is encouraging for the implementation of such theory-driven training for those preparing for work. Research found that career adaptability training increases career adaptability competencies in concern (planning ahead), control (taking responsibility) and curiosity (exploring suitable opportunities) (Savickas, 2005; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), going beyond the implementation of traditional career development programmes or performance management. With many unpredictable changes taking place during this transitional period, effective career preparation can help to develop coping

strategies for young people moving from education to work (Koen et al., 2012). Providing career adaptability training around career planning, decision-making and exploration can facilitate the congruence of the working self and environment, resulting in improved employment quality (Morrison & Hall, 2002; Savickas, 2005; Zikic & Klehe, 2006). In addition, research has found positive effects of past career exploration on engagement in *future* career exploration going forward (Millar & Shevlin, 2003). Furthermore, Stringer et al. (2011) found that young adults taking part in career exploration initiatives, before career establishment, increase their career confidence as they develop adaptability skills which can help them be more effective in their working environments. Even though young people have been found to be fearful of entering an organisation unprepared (Sims & Sauser, 2012), there remains little action on effective preparation (Holton, 1995). Partnerships between education institutions and future employers would provide young people with knowledge about their future preferences, occupational choices and career aspirations, with considerations and awareness of their own work values alignment.

A great deal of research has found that realistic job previews (RJPs), with accuracy of job information, can enhance expectation formation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, motivation and employment stability (by measuring not just turnover, but also actions to secure an alternative job) in newcomers to an organisation (e.g., Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Shibly, 2019; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). Then again, RJPs provided from the organisations, are often projecting unrealistic pictures of working there (Phillips 1998), so organisations should be aware of the negative effects of an unrealistic job preview. Phillips (1998) conducted a quantitative meta-analysis of RJPs, finding that they enhance performance and lower attrition rates. In particular Phillips (1998) discusses the “*vaccination effect*” (p.684) of RJPs in that they provide a slight ‘taster’ of the reality of working in the organisation before the individual has started and/or accepted a role. This resulted in fewer withdrawals during selection processes and also lower attrition rates, as the organisation can manage a newcomer’s expectations through the RJP, thereby reducing disappointment if the reality does not meet an individual’s expectations (Phillips, 1998).

On entry into an organisation, mentoring, particularly during the first month, as highlighted in this research, can help to manage the transition when newcomers hold high expectations (Lipkin & Perrymore, 2009), and, furthermore, newcomers can practise behavioural self-management, which has been found to be effect in lowering stress and anxiety during this time (Eby & Robertson, 2020; Ashforth & Saks, 1996). Engaging in role rehearsal, through work experience and job shadowing, can significantly improve the adjustment process when starting one's first job (Schlossberg et al., 1995), as well as skills training in those transferrable skills that are key to entering one's first job role (Bear, 2018; Sleaf & Reed, 2006).

This research will be of use to those managing the transition of young people into their organisation, typically Human Resources teams, who focus on talent management and career development of newcomers. The provision of career coaching and career counselling can allow individuals to examine their own work values, understanding their own choices and behaviours to help them understand the process and their own career path. As outlined above, personalisation in career management is becoming increasingly important in the workplace, and initiatives such as socialisation needs analysis (Saks & Ashforth, 2000) can help to guide organisations in supporting unmet needs and expectations. With employers being educated on the importance of the dynamics of individual careers, and the associations with underlying work values, newcomers to the company will feel more supported, yet they should also be taking an active interest in their employer's values and career opportunities (De Janasz et al., 2003; Parker et al., 2004).

6.5 Conclusion

Utilising a mixed methods approach, this thesis has offered novel contributions to the examination of the work values of young people as they enter the workplace. The adoption of a critical realism perspective as the foundation of the mixed methods approach, enabled the use of different research methods to gather both rich *and* generalisable data, with studies that complemented each other, and directed the wider research project. Organisational entry is one of the key periods of organisational life,

particularly for young people who are entering organisations to undertake their first job roles; it is therefore clear that the experience of newcomers cannot be underestimated in the research. Despite a great deal of research literature in the field of work values, there exist contradictory findings around the work values of young people experiencing organisational entry. Not only are work value conceptual models and measurements tools vast and ranging, there are few studies that have explored the stability of these values specifically in young people entering the workplace. Furthermore, a large amount of research adopts a generational cohort perspective, which can lead to flaws and assumptions in the interpretation of data, whereas this study was focused on younger employees, with age considered as a moderating variable.

Findings showed that, with a desire for a range of work values (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige), young people do not always anticipate the realities of their new job role, feeling a loss of control, impatience and experiencing ‘reality shock’. The longitudinal nature of the survey study allowed data to be collected pre- and post-entry into the organisation, and gathered insight into the stability of young people’s work values, finding lower stability one to two months after entry. In particular, perceived organisational work values, job satisfaction and age were all found to have significant moderating effects on the stability of work values. With a self-directed approach to their careers, and an individualistic outlook reported by interview participants, this adds insight to lower stability in their work values found one to two months after entry.

Overall, what is clearly important is that the process of young adults transitioning to the workplace is an important period for effective psychological and social-adjustment during the continued development of their work values, expectations, self-concepts and identities. Questions have been raised around the notion of ‘matching’ and the study suggests that work values can be adjusted to represent authenticity in the workplace, allowing a more ‘complementary’ fit between the individual and the organisation, reflecting changing career trends and evolving psychological contracts. Furthermore, the research challenges existing work value conceptual models, proposing a different perspective from the eyes of young people entering the workplace in the current career climate and labour market.

This mixed methods study, thereby, contributes to the theoretical area by questioning work values frameworks for young people, not necessarily in terms of the categorisation, which is based on well supported seminal work, but in terms of how these individuals hold their values and the stability of them in the context of internal and external factors. As young individuals enter an organisation, it is revealed that they undergo a transformational process, going from being ‘outsiders’ to becoming active, authentic and self-sufficient ‘insiders’ through complex organisational socialisation and interactions that affect the stability of their work values, career expectations and self-concept in the workplace. The research concluded with important implications for practice in how young people are understood in terms of their perspectives towards work and their careers, as well as their perceptions of organisational work values, as they experience and make sense of a new world.

List of References

Abbott, A. (2004). *Methods of discovery: Heuristics for the social sciences*. W. W. Norton.

Abessolo, M., Hirschi, A., & Rossier, J. (2017). Work values underlying protean and boundaryless career orientations. *Career Development International*, 22(3), 241-259.

Adkins, C. L., Russell, C. J., & Werbel, J. D. (1994). Judgments of fit in the selection process: The role of work value congruence. *Personnel Psychology*, 47(3), 605-623.

Agrawal, V., & Chourasiya, M. A. (2015). Managing career needs through identifying correct career stage: A theoretical exposition for empirical research. *Journal of Management*, 2(1), 47-56.

Ahmad, S., Nisar, Q. A., Aziz, K., & Younus, S. (2019). The role of organisational socialisation tactics and task characteristics toward turnover intentions: mediating role of job embeddedness. *Middle East Journal of Management*, 6(1), 75-94.

Aiken, L. S., West, S. G., & Reno, R. R. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Sage.

Akram, B., & Ghazanfar, L. (2014). Self efficacy and academic performance of the students of Gujrat University, Pakistan. *Academic Research International*, 5(1), 283-290.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). Organizational socialization tactics: A longitudinal analysis of links to newcomers' commitment and role orientation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 847-858.

Alsop, R. (2008). *The trophy kids grow up: How the millennial generation is shaking up the workplace*. John Wiley & Sons.

Alvesson, M., & Ashcraft, K. L. (2009). Critical methodology in management and organization research. In D. Buchanan & A. Bryman (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational research methods* (pp. 61-77). Sage.

Alwin, D. F. (1994). Aging, personality, and social change: The stability of individual differences over the adult life span. In D. L. Featherman, R. M. Lerner, & M. Perlmutter (Eds.), *Life-span development and behavior Vol. 12* (pp. 135-185). Erlbaum.

Amato, A., & Herzfeldt, R. (2008). Learning orientation, organizational commitment and talent retention across generations: A study of European managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23(8), 929-953.

Apter, T. (2001). *The myth of maturity: What teenagers need from parents to become adults*. Norton & Company Inc.

Arieli, S., Sagiv, L., & Cohen-Shalem, E. (2016). Values in business schools: The role of self-selection and socialization. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 15(3), 493-507.

Arieli, S., Sagiv, L., & Roccas, S. (2020). Values at work: The impact of personal values in organisations. *Applied Psychology*, 69(2), 230-275.

Armstrong, P. I., & Crombie, G. (2000). Compromises in adolescents' occupational aspirations and expectations from grades 8 to 10. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(1), 82-98.

Arnett, J. J. (1997). Young people's conceptions of the transition to adulthood. *Youth & Society*, 29(1), 3-23.

Arnett, J. J. (1998). Learning to stand alone: The contemporary American transition to adulthood in cultural and historical context. *Human Development*, 41(5-6), 295-315.

Arnett, J. J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist*, 55(5), 469-480.

Arnett, J. J. (2014). *Emerging adulthood: The winding road from the late teens through the twenties*. Oxford University Press.

Arnett, J. J., Žukauskienė, R., & Sugimura, K. (2014). The new life stage of emerging adulthood at ages 18–29 years: Implications for mental health. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, *1*(7), 569-576.

Arnold, J., & Cohen, L. (2008). The psychology of careers in industrial and organizational settings: A critical but appreciative analysis. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *23*(1), 1-44.

Arthur, M. B. (1994). The boundaryless career: A new perspective for organizational inquiry. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *15*, 295-306.

Arthur, W. Jr., Bell, S. T., Villado, A. J., & Doverspike, D. (2006). The use of person-organization fit in employment decision making: An assessment of its criterion-related validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(4), 786–801.

Arthur, M. B., Hall, D. T., & Lawrence, B. S. (1989). Generating new directions in career theory: The case for a transdisciplinary approach. In M. B. Arthur, D. T. Hall, & B. S. Lawrence (Eds.), *Handbook of career theory* (pp. 7-25). Cambridge University Press.

Arthur, M. B., Khapova, S. N., & Wilderom, C. P. (2005). Career success in a boundaryless career world. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(2), 177-202.

Arthur, M. B., & Rousseau, D. M. (1996). A career lexicon for the 21st century. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *10*(4), 28-39.

Arthur, M. B., & Rousseau, D. M. (Eds.), (2001). *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era*. Oxford University Press.

Ashby, J. S., & Schoon, I. (2010). Career success: The role of teenage career aspirations, ambition value and gender in predicting adult social status and earnings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *77*(3), 350-360.

Ashford, S. J., & Taylor, M. S. (1990). Adaptation to work transitions: An integrative approach. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 8, 1-39.

Ashforth, B. E. (2001). The handbook of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace. *Personnel Psychology*, 54(3), 721-724.

Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of Management*, 34(3), 325-374.

Ashforth, B. K., & Saks, A. M. (1996). Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(1), 149-178.

Ashforth, B. E., Sluss, D. M., & Saks, A. M. (2007). Socialization tactics, proactive behavior, and newcomer learning: Integrating socialization models. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70(3), 447-462.

Audenaert, M., George, B., & Decramer, A. (2019). How a demanding employment relationship relates to affective commitment in public organizations: A multilevel analysis. *Public Administration*, 97(1), 11-27.

Auh, S., & Mengue, B. (2007). Performance implications of the direct and moderating effects of centralization and formalization on customer orientation. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 36(8), 1022-1034.

Avallone, F., Farnese, M. L., Pepe, S., & Vecchione, M. (2010). The Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ): Revisiting Schwartz's Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) for work contexts. *BPA-Applied Psychology Bulletin (Bollettino di Psicologia Applicata)*, 261/262, 59-76.

Bagdadli, S., Solari, L., Usai, A., & Grandori, A. (2003). The emergence of career boundaries in unbounded industries: career odysseys in the Italian New Economy. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(5), 788-808.

Bal, P. M., & Vink, R. (2011). Ideological currency in psychological contracts: The role of team relationships in a reciprocity perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(13), 2794-2817.

Ballantine, J. H., & Roberts, K. A. (2009). *Our social world: Condensed version*. Pine Forge Press.

Baltes, M. M., & Carstensen, L. L. (1991). "Possible selves across the life span": Comment. *Human Development*, 34(4), 256–260.

Baltes, P. B., Staudinger, U. M., & Lindenberger, U. (1999). Lifespan psychology: Theory and application to intellectual functioning. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50(1), 471-507.

Bandura, A. (1986). Fearful expectations and avoidant actions as coefficients of perceived self-efficacy. *American Psychologist*, 41(12), 1389–1391.

Bandura, A., (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares, & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 307-337). Information Age Publishing.

Bankins, S. (2015). A process perspective on psychological contract change: Making sense of, and repairing, psychological contract breach and violation through employee coping actions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(8), 1071-1095.

Bardi, A., & Goodwin, R. (2011). The dual route to value change: Individual processes and cultural moderators. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 42(2), 271-287.

Bardi, A., & Schwartz, S. H. (2003). Values and behavior: Strength and structure of relations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(10), 1207-1220.

Barni, D., Danioni, F., & Benevene, P. (2019). Teachers' self-efficacy: The role of personal values and motivations for teaching. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1-7.

Barrett-Lennard, G. T. (1998). *Carl Rogers' helping system: Journey and substance*. Sage

Baruch, Y. (2004). Transforming careers: from linear to multidirectional career paths. *Career development international*, 9(1), 58-73.

Baruch, Y. (2006). Career development in organizations and beyond: Balancing traditional and contemporary viewpoints. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 125-138.

Baruch, Y., Altman, Y., & Tung, R. L. (2016). Career mobility in a global era: Advances in managing expatriation and repatriation. *Academy of Management Annals*, 10(1), 841-889.

Baruch, Y., & Bozionelos, N. (2011). *Career issues*. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 2. Selecting and developing members for the organization* (pp.67–113). American Psychological Association.

Baruch, Y., & Reis, C. (2016). How global are boundaryless careers and how boundaryless are global careers? Challenges and a theoretical perspective. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 58(1), 13-27.

Baruch, Y., & Rosenstein, E. (1992). Human resource management in Israeli firms: Planning and managing careers in high technology organizations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3(3), 477-495.

Baruch, Y., & Rousseau, D. M. (2019). Integrating psychological contracts and ecosystems in career studies and management. *Academy of Management Annals*, 13(1), 84-111.

Baruch, Y., Szűcs, N., & Gunz, H. (2015). Career studies in search of theory: The rise and rise of concepts. *Career Development International*, 20(1), 3-20.

Batra, R., Homer, P. M., & Kahle, L. R. (2001). Values, susceptibility to normative influence, and attribute importance weights: A nomological analysis. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 11*(2), 115-128.

Bauer, T. N., Bodner, T., Erdogan, B., Truxillo, D. M., & Tucker, J. S. (2007). Newcomer adjustment during organizational socialization: A meta-analytic review of antecedents, outcomes, and methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(3), 707–721.

Bauer, D. J., & Curran, P. J. (2005). Probing interactions in fixed and multilevel regression: Inferential and graphical techniques. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 40*(3), 373-400.

Bauer, T. N., & Erdogan, B. (2012). *Organizational socialization outcomes: Now and into the future*. In C. R. Wanberg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational socialization* (pp. 97–112). Oxford University Press.

Bauer, T. N., & Green, S. G. (1994). Effect of newcomer involvement in work-related activities: a longitudinal study of socialization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(2), 211-223.

Bauer, T. N., Maertz, C. P., Jr., Dolen, M. R., & Campion, M. A. (1998). Longitudinal assessment of applicant reactions to employment testing and test outcome feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(6), 892–903.

Bauer, T. N., Morrison, E. W., Callister, R. R., & Ferris, G. (1998). Research in personnel and human resource management. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management, 16*, 149-214.

Bauman, Z. (2007), *Liquid times: Living in an age of uncertainty*. Polity Press.

Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles?. *Psychological Science In The Public Interest, 4*(1), 1-44.

Bear, S. (2018). Enhancing learning for participants in workplace mentoring programmes. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, *16*(1), 35-46.

Becht, A. I., Nelemans, S. A., Branje, S. J., Vollebergh, W. A., & Meeus, W. H. (2021). Daily identity dynamics in adolescence shaping identity in emerging adulthood: An 11-year longitudinal study on continuity in development. *Journal of Youth And Adolescence*, *50*(8), 1616-1633.

Benton, T., & Craib, I. (2011). *Philosophy of Social Science: The Philosophical Foundations of Social Thought* (2nd Ed.). Palgrave Macmillan.

Berings, D. (2002). *The Twelve Work Value Inventory*. EHSAL.

Berings, D., De Fruyt, F., & Bouwen, R. (2004). Work values and personality traits as predictors of enterprising and social vocational interests. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *36*(2), 349-364.

Betz, N. E., & Hackett, G. (2006). Career self-efficacy theory: Back to the future. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *14*(1), 3-11.

Beyer, J. M., & Hannah, D. R. (2002). Building on the past: Enacting established personal identities in a new work setting. *Organization Science*, *13*(6), 636-652.

Bhaskar, R. (1975). *A Realist Theory of Science*. Verso.

Bhaskar, R. (1979). *The Possibility of Naturalism*. Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Billings, R. S., & Cornelius III, E. T. (1980). Dimensions of work outcomes: A multidimensional scaling approach. *Personnel Psychology*, *33*(1), 151-162.

Blau, P. M. (1964). Justice in social exchange. *Sociological Inquiry*, *34*(2), 193-206.

Blyler, M., & Coff, R. W. (2003). Dynamic capabilities, social capital, and rent appropriation: Ties that split pies. *Strategic Management Journal*, *24*(7), 677-686.

Bong, M., & Skaalvik, E. M. (2003). Academic self-concept and self-efficacy: How different are they really?. *Educational Psychology Review, 15*(1), 1-40.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Self-concordance at work: Toward understanding the motivational effects of transformational leaders. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*(5), 554-571.

Bosma, H. A., & Kunnen, E. S. (2001). Determinants and mechanisms in ego identity development: A review and synthesis. *Developmental Review, 21*(1), 39-66.

Boswell, W. R., Boudreau, J. W., & Tichy, J. (2005). The relationship between employee job change and job satisfaction: The honeymoon-hangover effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 882-892.

Boswell, W. R., Shipp, A. J., Payne, S. C., & Culbertson, S. S. (2009). Changes in newcomer job satisfaction over time: Examining the pattern of honeymoons and hangovers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 844-858.

Bourne, H., & Jenkins, M. (2013). Organizational values: A dynamic perspective. *Organization Studies, 34*(4), 495-514.

Bowen, D. E., Ledford Jr, G. E., & Nathan, B. R. (1991). Hiring for the organization, not the job. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 5*(4), 35-51.

Bowling, N. A., Eschleman, K. J., & Wang, Q. (2010). A meta-analytic examination of the relationship between job satisfaction and subjective well-being. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83*(4), 915-934.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Sage.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77-101.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis. In H. Cooper (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Research Methods in Psychology: Vol 2 Research Designs* (pp. 57-71). American Psychological Association.

Bretz Jr, R. D., & Judge, T. A. (1994). The role of human resource systems in job applicant decision processes. *Journal of Management*, *20*(3), 531-551.

Breuer, H., & Lüdeke-Freund, F. (2017). Values-based network and business model innovation. *International Journal of Innovation Management*, *21*(03), 1750028.

Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this "We"? Levels of collective identity and self representations. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology*, *71*(1), 83-93.

Briscoe, J. P., & Hall, D. T. (2006). The interplay of boundaryless and protean careers: Combinations and implications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *69*(1), 4-18.

Briscoe, J. P., Hall, D. T., & DeMuth, R. L. F. (2006). Protean and boundaryless careers: An empirical exploration. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *69*(1), 30-47.

Bristow, D., Amyx, D., Castleberry, S. B., & Cochran, J. J. (2011). A cross-generational comparison of motivational factors in a sales career among Gen-X and Gen-Y college students. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, *31*(1), 77-85.

Broadbridge, A. M., Maxwell, G. A., & Ogden, S. M. (2007). Experiences, perceptions and expectations of retail employment for Generation Y. *Career Development International*, *12*(6), 523-544.

Brooke, P. P., Russell, D. W., & Price, J. L. (1988). Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(2), 139-145.

Brouer, R. L., Wallace, A. S., & Harvey, P. (2011). When good resources go bad: The applicability of conservation of resource theory to psychologically entitled

employees. In P. Perrewé & D. Ganster (Eds.), *Research in occupational stress and well being, Vol. 4* (pp. 109-150). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Brown, T. (2006). CFA with equality constraints, multiple groups, and mean structures. *Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Applied Research, 1*(1) 236-319.

Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*. Guilford Publications.

Brown, A., & Roberts, J. M. (2014). An Appraisal of the Contribution of Critical Realism to Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methodology: Is Dialectics the Way Forward?. In P. K. Edwards, J. O'Mahoney, & S. Vincent (Eds.). *Studying organizations using critical realism* (pp. 300-317). Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (Ed.). (2006). *Mixed methods*. Sage.

Bu, N., & McKeen, C. A. (2001). Work goals among male and female business students in Canada and China: The effects of culture and gender. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 12*(2), 166-183.

Burke, R. J., Cooper, C. L., & Field, J. (2013). The aging workforce: Individual, organizational and societal opportunities and challenges. In J. Field, R. J. Burke, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Aging, Work and Society*, (pp. 1-20). Sage.

Burke Johnson, R., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(2): 112-133.

Busque-Carrier, M., Ratelle, C. F., & Le Corff, Y. (2021). Work values and job satisfaction: The mediating role of basic psychological needs at work. *Journal of Career Development, 0*(0), 1-16.

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

Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1996). Person–organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior And Human Decision Processes*, 67(3), 294-311.

Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1997). Interviewers' perceptions of person–organization fit and organizational selection decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(4), 546-568.

Cable, D. M., & Parsons, C. K. (2001). Socialization tactics and person–organization fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 54(1), 1-23.

Cadiz, D. M., Truxillo, D. M., & Fraccaroli, F. (2015). What are the benefits of focusing on generation-based differences and at what cost?. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 8(3), 356-362.

Caelli, K., Ray, L., & Mill, J. (2003). ‘Clear as mud’: toward greater clarity in generic qualitative research. *International Journal Of Qualitative Methods*, 2(2), 1-13.

Cairns, E., McWhirter, L., Duffy, U., & Barry, R. (1990). The stability of self-concept in late adolescence: Gender and situational effects. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 11(9), 937-944.

Capelli, P. (1999) *The new deal at work: Managing the market-driven workforce*. Harvard Business School Press.

Caraher, L. (2015). *Millennials & management: The essential guide to making it work at work*. Bibliomotion.

Carstensen, L. L. (1995). Evidence for a life-span theory of socioemotional selectivity. *Current Directions In Psychological Science*, 4(5), 151-156.

Carter, B., & New, C. (2003). *Realism and empirical research*. Routledge.

Caspi, A. (1998). *Personality development across the life course*. In W. Damon & N. Eisenberg (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Social, emotional, and personality development* (pp. 311–388). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Caspi, A., & Herbener, E. S. (1990). Continuity and change: Assortative marriage and the consistency of personality in adulthood. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology*, 58(2), 250-258.

Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (2011). Assessing ‘good’ qualitative research in the work psychology field: A narrative analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(4), 633-650.

Cemalcilar, Z., Secinti, E., & Sumer, N. (2018). Intergenerational transmission of work values: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 47(8), 1559-1579.

Cennamo, L., & Gardner, D. (2008). Generational differences in work values, outcomes and person-organisation values fit. *Journal of Management Psychology*, 23(8), 891-906.

Chao, G. T., O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Wolf, S., Klein, H. J., & Gardner, P. D. (1994). Organizational socialization: Its content and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(5), 730–743.

Chatman, J. A. (1989). Improving interactional organizational research: A model of person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(3), 333-349.

Chatman, J. (1991). Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administration Science Quarterly*, 36(3), 459-484.

Chatman, J. A., & Jehn, K. A. (1994). Assessing the relationship between industry characteristics and organizational culture: how different can you be?. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 522-553.

Chatterjee, A., & Hambrick, D. C. (2007). It's all about me: Narcissistic chief executive officers and their effects on company strategy and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 52(3), 351-386.

Chen, P. J., & Choi, Y. (2008). Generational differences in work values: a study of hospitality management. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(6), 5595-615.

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(1), 62-83.

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2004). General self-efficacy and self-esteem: Toward theoretical and empirical distinction between correlated self-evaluations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3), 375-395.

Chen, G., Ployhart, R. E., Thomas, H. C., Anderson, N., & Bliese, P. D. (2011). The power of momentum: A new model of dynamic relationships between job satisfaction change and turnover intentions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54, 159–181.

Cherrington, D. J., Condie, S. J., & England, J. L. (1979). Age work values. *Academy of Management Journal*, 22(3), 617-623.

Choi, Y., & Chung, I. H. (2017). Attraction-selection and socialization of work values: Evidence from longitudinal survey. *Public Personnel Management*, 46(1), 66-88.

Chourasiya, A., & Agrawal, V. A (2019). A comparative analysis of age based career stage models needs and characteristics at various career stages. *International Journal of Research and Analytical Reviews*, 6(2), 87i-91i.

Chow, A., Galambos, N. L., & Krahn, H. J. (2017). Work values during the transition to adulthood and mid-life satisfaction: Cascading effects across 25 years. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 41(1), 105-114.

Chow, A., Krahn, H. J., & Galambos, N. L. (2014). Developmental trajectories of work values and job entitlement beliefs in the transition to adulthood. *Developmental Psychology, 50*(4), 1102-1115.

Chudzikowski, K. (2012). Career transitions and career success in the 'new' career era. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 81*(2), 298-306.

Cieciuch, J., Schwartz, S. H., & Davidov, E. (2015). Values. In J. D. Wright (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*, (pp. 41-46). Elsevier.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2013). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Routledge.

Collins, L. M., Schafer, J. L., & Kam, C. M. (2001). A comparison of inclusive and restrictive strategies in modern missing data procedures. *Psychological Methods 6*(4), 330-351.

Colombotos, J. (1969). Personal versus telephone interviews: effect on responses. *Public Health Reports, 84*(9), 773-782.

Connor, P. E., & Becker, B. W. (1975). Values and the organization: Suggestions for research. *Academy of Management Journal, 18*(3), 550-561.

Connor, H., Shaw, S., & Fairhurst, D. (2008). Engaging a new generation of graduates. *Education+ Training, 50*(5), 366-378.

Consiglio, C., Cenciotti, R., Borgogni, L., Alessandri, G., & Schwartz, S. H. (2017). The WVal: A new measure of work values. *Journal of Career Assessment, 25*(3), 405-422.

Cook, K. S., Fine, G. A., & House, J. S. (1995). *Sociological Perspectives on Social Psychology*. Allyn and Bacon.

Coolican, H. (2017). *Research methods and statistics in psychology*. Psychology Press.

Cooper-Thomas, H., & Anderson, N. (2002). Newcomer adjustment: The relationship between organizational socialization tactics, information acquisition and attitudes. *Journal of Occupational And Organizational Psychology*, 75(4), 423-437.

Cooper-Thomas, H. D., Van Vianen, A., & Anderson, N. (2004). Changes in person–organization fit: The impact of socialization tactics on perceived and actual P–O fit. *European Journal of Work And Organizational Psychology*, 13(1), 52-78.

Cortina, J. M. (1993). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1), 98–104.

Costanza, D. P., Badger, J. M., Fraser, R. L., Severt, J. B., & Gade, P. A. (2012). Generational differences in work-related attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 27, 375-394.

Costanza, D. P., & Finkelstein, L. M. (2015). Generationally based differences in the workplace: Is there a there there?. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 8(3), 308-323.

Coyne, I. T. (1997). Sampling in qualitative research. Purposeful and theoretical sampling; merging or clear boundaries?. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 26(3), 623-630.

Creswell, J. A. (1998). Five qualitative traditions of inquiry. In J. A. Creswell, *Qualitative inquiry and research design. Choosing among five traditions* (pp. 47–72). Sage.

Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (2nd Ed.) Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Sage

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). Choosing a mixed methods design. *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*, 2, 53-106.

Crews, D. E., & Russ, M. J. (2020). The impact of individual differences on multitasking ability. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 69(6), 1301-1319.

Cristofaro, M. (2021). Organizational sensemaking: A systematic review and a co-evolutionary model. *European Management Journal*, 40, 393-405.

Cross, S., & Markus, H. (1991). Possible selves across the life span. *Human Development*, 34(4), 230-255.

Crumpacker, M., & Crumpacker, J. M. (2007). Succession planning and generational stereotypes: should HR consider age-based values and attitudes a relevant factor or a passing fad?. *Public Personnel Management*, 36(4), 349-369.

Dahm, P. C., Kim, Y., Glomb, T. M., & Harrison, S. H. (2019). Identity affirmation as threat? Time-bending sensemaking and the career and family identity patterns of early achievers. *Academy of Management Journal*, 62(4), 1194-1225.

Dalton, G. W. (1989). Developmental views of careers in organizations. In M. B. Arthur, D. T. Hall, & B. S. Lawrence (Eds.), *Handbook of career theory*, (pp.89-109). Cambridge University Press.

Damanpour, F. (1996). Organizational complexity and innovation: developing and testing multiple contingency models. *Management Science*, 42(5), 693-716.

Danermark, B. (2002). *Explaining society: Critical realism in the social sciences*. New Routledge.

Dany, F. (2003). 'Free actors' and organizations: critical remarks about the new career literature, based on French insights. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(5), 821-838.

Dany, F., Mallon, M., & Arthur, M. (2003). The odyssey of career and the opportunity for international comparison. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(5), 705-712.

Darcy, C., McCarthy, A., Hill, J., & Grady, G. (2012). Work–life balance: One size fits all? An exploratory analysis of the differential effects of career stage. *European Management Journal*, 30(2), 111-120.

Davidov, E., Meuleman, B., Billiet, J., & Schmidt, P. (2008). Values and support for immigration: A cross-country comparison. *European Sociological Review*, 24(5), 583-599.

Dawis, R. V. (1991). *Vocational interests, values, and preferences*. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 833–871). Consulting Psychologists Press.

Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1984). *A psychological theory of work adjustment: An individual-differences model and its applications*. University of Minnesota Press.

De Clercq, S., Fontaine, J. R., & Anseel, F. (2008). In search of a comprehensive value model for assessing supplementary person—organization fit. *The Journal of Psychology*, 142(3), 277-302.

De Cooman, R., De Gieter, S., Pepermans, R., Hermans, S., Du Bois, C., Caers, R., & Jegers, M. (2009). Person–organization fit: Testing socialization and attraction–selection–attrition hypotheses. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74(1), 102-107.

De Cooman, R., & Dries, N. (2012). Attracting Generation Y: How work values predict organizational attraction in graduating students in Belgium. In E. S., Ng, S. T., Lyons, & L. Schweitzer (Eds.), *Managing the new workforce*, (pp.42-63). Edward Elgar Publishing.

De Cooman, R., Mol, S. T., Billsberry, J., Boon, C., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2019). Epilogue: Frontiers in person–environment fit research. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 28(5), 646-652.

De Hauw, S., & De Vos, A. (2010). Millennials' career perspective and psychological contract expectations: does the recession lead to lowered expectations?. *Journal of Business And Psychology*, 25(2), 293-302.

de Janasz, S. C., & Godshalk, V. M. (2013). The role of e-mentoring in protégés' learning and satisfaction. *Group & Organization Management*, 38(6), 743-774.

de Janasz, S. C., Sullivan, S. E., & Whiting, V. (2003). Mentor networks and career success: Lessons for turbulent times. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 17(4), 78-91.

de Lara, P. Z. M. (2008). Should faith and hope be included in the employees' agenda?. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23(1), 73-88.

De Vos, A., Buyens, D., & Schalk, R. (2005). Making sense of a new employment relationship: psychological contract-related information seeking and the role of work values and locus of control. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 13(1), 41-52.

Deal, J. J. (2007). *Retiring the generation gap: How employees young and old can find common ground (Vol. 35)*. John Wiley & Sons.

Deal, J. J., Altman, D. G., & Rogelberg, S. G. (2010). Millennials at work: What we know and what we need to do (if anything). *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(2), 191-199.

Dean, R. A. (1983). Reality shock: The link between socialisation and organisational commitment. *Journal of Management Development*, 2(3), 55-65.

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., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). The paradox of achievement: The harder you push, the worse it gets. In J. Aronson (Ed.), *Improving academic achievement* (pp. 59-85). Academic Press.

DeFillippi, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1994). The boundaryless career: A competency-based perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(4), 307-324.

Demirtas, Z. (2018). The Relationships between Organizational Values, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Silence and Affective Commitment. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 4(11), 108-125.

Dencker, J. C., Gruber, M., & Shah, S. K. (2009). Individual and opportunity factors influencing job creation in new firms. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(6), 1125-1147.

Denzin, N. K. (1978). *Sociological methods: A sourcebook*. McGraw-Hill.

Derr, C. B., & Briscoe, J. P. (2007). The catalytic 1970s: Lessons for the 2000s. In H. Gunz & M. Peiperl (Eds.), *Handbook of career studies* (pp. 528-541). Sage.

Dickson, M. W., Resick, C. J., & Goldstein, H. W. (2008). *Seeking explanations in people, not in the results of their behavior: Twenty-plus years of the attraction-selection-attrition model*. In D. B. Smith (Ed.), *LEA's organization and management series. The people make the place: Dynamic linkages between individuals and organizations*, (pp. 5-36). Taylor & Francis Group/Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Donald, W. E., Ashleigh, M. J., & Baruch, Y. (2018). Students' perceptions of education and employability: Facilitating career transition from higher education into the labor market. *Career Development International*, 23(5), 513-540.

Dose, J. J. (1997). Work values: An integrative framework and illustrative application to organizational socialization. *Journal of Occupational And Organizational Psychology*, 70(3), 219-240.

Dose, J. J., & Klimoski, R. J. (1999). The diversity of diversity: Work values effects on formative team processes. *Human Resource Management Review*, 9(1), 83-108.

Dracup, K., & Morris, P. E. (2008). How will they learn?. *American Journal of Critical Care*, 17(4), 306-309.

Dries, N., Pepermans, R., & Carlier, O. (2008a). Career success: Constructing a multidimensional model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(2), 254-267.

Dries, N., Pepermans, R., & Kerpel, E. D. (2008b). Exploring four generations' beliefs about career: Is. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23(8), 907-928.

Dries, N., & Verbruggen, M. (2012). Fresh perspectives on the 'new' career. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82(2), 269-270.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Jackson, P. R. (2008). *Management research* (3rd Ed.). Sage.

Ebner, N. C., Freund, A. M., & Baltes, P. B. (2006). Developmental changes in personal goal orientation from young to late adulthood: From striving for gains to maintenance and prevention of losses. *Psychology and Aging*, 21(4), 664-678.

Eby, L. T., & Robertson, M. M. (2020). The psychology of workplace mentoring relationships. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 7, 75-100.

Eden, D., & Aviram, A. (1993). Self-efficacy training to speed reemployment: helping people to help themselves. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(3), 352-360.

Eden, D., & Kinnar, J. (1991). Modeling Galatea: Boosting self-efficacy to increase volunteering. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6), 770-780.

Eden, D., & Zuk, Y. (1995). Seasickness as a self-fulfilling prophecy: Raising self-efficacy to boost performance at sea. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(5), 628-635.

Edmondson, A. C., & McManus, S. E. (2007). Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(4), 1155-1179.

Edwards, J. R., & Cable, D. M. (2009). The value of value congruence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(3), 654-677.

Efron, B. (1982). *The jackknife, the bootstrap and other resampling plans*. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics (SIAM).

Elder, G. H. (Ed.) (1985). *Life course dynamics: Trajectories and transitions, 1968-1980*. Cornell University Press.

Elizur, D. (1984). Facets of work values: A structural analysis of work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(3), 379-389.

Elizur, D., & Sagie, A. (1999). Facets of personal values: A structural analysis of life and work values. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48(1), 73-87.

Elliott, R., Fischer, C. T., & Rennie, D. L. (1999). Evolving guidelines for publication of qualitative research studies in psychology and related fields. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 38(3), 215-229.

Ellis, A. M., Bauer, T. N., Mansfield, L. R., Erdogan, B., Truxillo, D. M., & Simon, L. S. (2015). Navigating uncharted waters: Newcomer socialization through the lens of stress theory. *Journal of Management*, 41(1), 203-235.

Erikson, E. H. (1950). Growth and crises of the "healthy personality". In M. J. E. Senn (Ed.), *Symposium on the healthy personality* (pp. 91-146). Josiah Macy Jr. Foundation.

Erikson, E. H. (1959). Identity and the life cycle: Selected papers. *Psychological Issues*, 1, 1-171.

Ertas, N. (2015). Turnover intentions and work motivations of millennial employees in federal service. *Public Personnel Management*, 44(3), 401-423.

Eva, N., Prajogo, D., & Cooper, B. (2017). The relationship between personal values, organizational formalization and employee work outcomes of compliance and innovation. *International Journal of Manpower*, 38(2), 274-287.

Evans, J. D. (1996). *Straightforward statistics for the behavioral sciences*. Thomson Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.

Fang, R., Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2011). The organizational socialization process: Review and development of a social capital model. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 127-152.

Farivar, F., Coffey, J. & Cameron, R. (2019). International graduates and the change of initial career mobility intentions. *Personnel Review*, 48(4), 1061-1078.

Feather, N. T. (1975). *Values in education and society*. Free Press.

Feather, N. T. (1995). Values, valences, and choice: The influences of values on the perceived attractiveness and choice of alternatives. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology*, 68(6), 1135-1151.

Feather, N. T., & Rauter, K. A. (2004). Organizational citizenship behaviours in relation to job status, job insecurity, organizational commitment and identification, job satisfaction and work values. *Journal of Occupational And Organizational Psychology*, 77(1), 81-94.

Feldman, D. C. (1976). A contingency theory of socialization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21(3), 433-452.

Ferri-Reed, J. (2010). The keys to engaging millennials. *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, 33(1), 31-33.

Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance (Vol. 2)*. Stanford University Press.

Finegan, J. E. (2000). The impact of person and organizational values on organizational commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73(2), 149-169.

Fisher, C. D. (1986). Organizational socialization: An integrative review. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 4, 101-145.

Fisher, R. J., & Katz, J. E. (2000). Social-desirability bias and the validity of self-reported values. *Psychology & Marketing*, 17(2), 105-120.

Fishman, A. A. (2016). How generational differences will impact America's aging workforce: strategies for dealing with aging Millennials, Generation X, and Baby Boomers., *Strategic HR Review*, 15(6), 250-257.

Flick, U. (2018). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage.

Foster, K. (2013). Generation and discourse in working life stories. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 64(2), 195-215.

Fouad, N. A., & Bynner, J. (2008). Work transitions. *American Psychologist*, 63(4), 241-251.

Frieze, I. H., Boneva, B. S., Šarlija, N., Horvat, J., Ferligoj, A., Kogovšek, T., Miluska, J., Popova, L., Korobanova, J., Sukhareva, N., Erokhina, L., & Jarošová, E. (2004). Psychological differences in stayers and leavers: Emigration desires in Central and Eastern European university students. *European Psychologist*, 9(1), 15-23.

Froese, F. J., & Xiao, S. (2012). Work values, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(10), 2144-2162.

Fusch, P. I., & Ness, L. R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(9), 1408-1416.

Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(4), 331-362.

Gahan, P., & Abeysekera, L. (2009). What shapes an individual's work values? An integrated model of the relationship between work values, national culture and self-construal. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(1), 126-147.

Gagliardi, P. (1986). The creation and change of organizational cultures: A conceptual framework. *Organization studies*, 7(2), 117-134.

Gaines, S. O., Jr., Marelich, W. D., Bledsoe, K. L., Steers, W. N., Henderson, M. C., Granrose, C. S., Barájas, L., Hicks, D., Lyde, M., Takahashi, Y., Yum, N., Ríos, D. I., García, B. F., Farris, K. R., & Page, M. S. (1997). Links between race/ethnicity and cultural values as mediated by racial/ethnic identity and moderated by gender. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(6), 1460–1476.

Gallie, D. (2019). Research on work values in a changing economic and social context. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 682(1), 26-42.

Gan, M., & Chen, S. (2017). Being your actual or ideal self? What it means to feel authentic in a relationship. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 43(4), 465-478.

Gandal, N., Roccas, S., Sagiv, L., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2005). Personal value priorities of economists. *Human Relations*, 58(10), 1227-1252.

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* (pp. 171–187). University Press.

George, J. M., & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: An interactional approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 513–524.

Gephart, R. P., Topal, C., & Zhang, Z. (2010). Future-oriented sensemaking: Temporalities and institutional legitimation. In T. Hernes & S. Maitlis (Eds.), *Process, sensemaking, and organizing* (pp. 275–312). Oxford University Press

Gibson, C. B. (2017). Elaboration, generalization, triangulation, and interpretation: On enhancing the value of mixed method research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 20(2), 193-223.

Gibson, C.B., McDaniel, D., & Szkudlarek, B. (2012). Tales from the (multicultural) field: Toward developing research conducive to proximal theory building. In A. M. Ryan, F. L. Oswald, & F. T. L. Leong, (Eds.), *Conducting multinational research projects in organizational psychology: challenges and opportunities*. Michigan State University.

Gill, F. (1999). The meaning of work: Lessons from sociology, psychology, and political theory. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 28(6), 725-743.

Gill, H., & Finegan, J. E. (2000). *The relation between person–organization fit and organizational commitment* [Paper presentation]. 15th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, USA.

Gill, J. & Johnson, P. (2010). *Research Methods for Managers* (4th Ed.). Sage.

Ginzberg, E., Ginsburg, S. W., Axelrad, S., & Herma, J. L. (1951). *Occupational choice*. Columbia University Press.

Gioia, D. A., Corley, K. G., & Hamilton, A. L. (2013). Seeking qualitative rigor in inductive research: Notes on the Gioia methodology. *Organizational Research Methods*, 16(1), 15-31.

Gioia, D. A., & Pitre, E. (1990). Multiparadigm perspectives on theory building. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(4), 584-602.

Glass, A. (2007). Understanding generational differences for competitive success. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 39(2), 98-103.

Glenn, N. D. (1980). Values, attitudes, and beliefs. In O. G. Brim, Jr., & J. Kagan (Eds.), *Constancy and change in human development* (pp. 596-640). Harvard University Press.

Glick, W. H., Jenkins Jr, G. D., & Gupta, N. (1986). Method versus substance: How strong are underlying relationships between job characteristics and attitudinal outcomes?. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(3), 441-464.

Goh, E., & Lee, C. (2018). A workforce to be reckoned with: The emerging pivotal Generation Z hospitality workforce. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 73, 20-28.

Gong, Y., Huang, J. C., & Farh, J. L. (2009). Employee learning orientation, transformational leadership, and employee creativity: The mediating role of employee creative self-efficacy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 765-778.

Gottfredson, L. S. (2002). Gottfredson's theory of circumscription, compromise, and self-creation. *Career Choice and Development*, 4, 85-148.

Graham, C., & McKenzie, A. (1995). Delivering the promise: The transition from higher education to work. *Education+ Training*, 37(1), 4-11.

Grant, A. M., Fried, Y., Parker, S. K., & Frese, M. (2010). Putting job design in context: Introduction to the special issue. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(2-3), 145-157.

Grant, A. M., & Parker, S. K. (2009). 7 redesigning work design theories: the rise of relational and proactive perspectives. *Academy of Management Annals*, 3(1), 317-375.

Green, R. A., Morrissey, S. A., & Conlon, E. G. (2018). The values and self-efficacy beliefs of postgraduate psychology students. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 70(2), 139-148.

Greenberger, E., Lessard, J., Chen, C., & Farruggia, S. P. (2008). Self-entitled college students: Contributions of personality, parenting, and motivational factors. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *37*(10), 1193-1204.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Parasuraman, S. (1986). Vocational and organizational behavior, 1985: A review. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *29*(2), 115-176.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Simon, W. E. (1977). Career salience, work values, and vocational indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *10*(1), 104-110.

Greene, J. C. (2008). Is mixed methods social inquiry a distinctive methodology?. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *2*(1), 7-22.

Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, *11*(3), 255-274.

Greene, A. L., Wheatley, S. M., & Aldava IV, J. F. (1992). Stages on life's way: Adolescents' implicit theories of the life course. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *7*(3), 364-381.

Grøgaard, B., & Colman, H. L. (2016). Interpretive frames as the organization's "mirror": From espoused values to social integration in MNEs. *Management International Review*, *56*(2), 171-194.

Gubler, M., Arnold, J., & Coombs, C. (2014). Reassessing the protean career concept: Empirical findings, conceptual components, and measurement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(S1), S23-S40.

Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, *18*(1), 59-82.

Guo, C., & Al Ariss, A. (2015). Human resource management of international migrants: Current theories and future research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *26*(10), 1287-1297.

Gupta, P. D., Bhattacharya, S., Sheorey, P., & Coelho, P. (2017). Relationship between onboarding experience and turnover intention: intervening role of locus of control and self-efficacy. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 50*(2), 61-80.

Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G. Q., & Karadag, E. (2013). Generational differences in work values and attitudes among frontline and service contact employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32*, 40-48.

Gursoy, D., Maier, T. A., & Chi, C. G. (2008). Generational differences: An examination of work values and generational gaps in the hospitality workforce. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*(3), 448-458.

Hackett, G., Lent, R. W., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1991). Advances in vocational theory and research: A 20-year retrospective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 38*(1), 3-38.

Hall, D. T. (1984). Human resource development and organizational effectiveness. In D. Fombrun, M. A. Tichy, & M. A. Devanna (Eds.), *Strategic Human Resource Management* (pp. 159-182). John Wiley & Sons.

Hall, D. T. (1996). Protean careers of the 21st century. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 10*(4), 8-16.

Hall, D. T. (2004). The protean career: A quarter-century journey. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*(1), 1-13.

Hall, D. T., & Chandler, D. E. (2005). Psychological success: When the career is a calling. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(2), 155-176.

Hall, D. T., & Mirvis, P. H. (1996). The new protean career: Psychological success and the path with a heart. *The career is dead: Long live the career, 23*, 15-45.

Hall, D. T., & Nougaim, K. (1968). An examination of Maslow's need hierarchy in an organizational setting. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 3*, 12-35.

Hansen, J. I. C., & Leuty, M. E. (2012). Work values across generations. *Journal of Career Assessment, 20*(1), 34-52.

Harding, S. & Hikspoors, F. (1995). New work values: in theory and in practice. *International Social Science Journal, 47*, 441–455.

Harpaz, I., & Fu, X. (2002). The structure of the meaning of work: A relative stability amidst change. *Human Relations, 55*(6), 639-667.

Harrison, R. V. (1978). Person-environment fit and job stress. In C. L. Cooper, & R. Payne (Eds.), *Stress at work*, (pp. 175-205). Wiley.

Hatch, M. J., & Schultz, M. (2002). The dynamics of organizational identity. *Human Relations, 55*(8), 989-1018.

Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. Guilford Publications.

Heckhausen, J. (2011). *Agency and control striving across the life span*. In K. L. Fingerman, C. A. Berg, J. Smith, & T. C. Antonucci (Eds.), *Handbook of life-span development* (pp. 183–212). Springer Publishing Company.

Heckhausen, J., & Schulz, R. (1995). A life-span theory of control. *Psychological Review, 102*(2), 284-304.

Heckhausen, J., & Tomasik, M. J. (2002). Get an apprenticeship before school is out: How German adolescents adjust vocational aspirations when getting close to a developmental deadline. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 60*(2), 199-219.

Hedge, J. W., Borman, W. C., & Lammlein, S. E. (2006). *The aging workforce: Realities, myths, and implications for organizations*. American Psychological Association.

Henderson, R., & Robertson, M. (2000). Who wants to be an entrepreneur? Young adult attitudes to entrepreneurship as a career. *Career Development International*, 5(6), 279-287.

Herbst, S. A., & Houmanfar, R. (2009). Psychological approaches to values in organizations and organizational behavior management. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 29(1), 47-68.

Herriot, P., & Pemberton, C. (1997). Facilitating new deals. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 7(1), 45-56.

Hershatter, A., & Epstein, M. (2010). Millennials and the world of work: An organization and management perspective. *Journal of Business And Psychology*, 25(2), 211-223.

Heslin, P. A. (2005). Conceptualizing and evaluating career success. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(2), 113-136.

Heslin, P. A., Keating, L. A., & Minbashian, A. (2019). How situational cues and mindset dynamics shape personality effects on career outcomes. *Journal of Management*, 45(5), 2101-2131.

Hidayat, H., Tamin, B. Y., Herawati, S., Ardi, Z., & Muji, A. P. (2020). The Contribution of Internal Locus of Control and Self-Concept to Career Maturity in Engineering Education. *International Journal on Advanced Science, Engineering and Information Technology*, 10(6), 2282-2289.

Hilal, A. H., & Alabri, S. S. (2013). Using Nvivo for data analysis in qualitative research. *International Interdisciplinary Journal of Education*, 2(2), 181-186.

Hill, R. P. (2002). Managing across generations in the 21st century: Important lessons from the ivory trenches. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 11(1), 60-66.

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94(3), 319-340.

Hirschi, A., Lee, B., Porfeli, E. J., & Vondracek, F. W. (2013). Proactive motivation and engagement in career behaviors: Investigating direct, mediated, and moderated effects. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(1), 31-40.

Hitlin, S. (2006). Parental influences on children's values and aspirations: Bridging two theories of social class and socialization. *Sociological Perspectives*, 49(1), 25-46.

Hitlin, S., & Piliavin, J. A. (2004). Values: Reviving a dormant concept. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 30, 359-393.

Hitlin, S., & Vaisey, S. (2013). The new sociology of morality. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 39, 51-68.

Ho, C. C., Oldenburg, B., Day, G., & Sun, J. (2012). Work values, job involvement, and organizational commitment in Taiwanese nurses. *International Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(3), 64-70.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Sage.

Hofstede, G., & Bond, M. H. (1984). Hofstede's culture dimensions: An independent validation using Rokeach's value survey. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 15(4), 417-433.

Hoffman, B. J., & Woehr, D. J. (2006). A quantitative review of the relationship between person-organization fit and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(3), 389-399.

Hogan, D. P., & Astone, N. M. (1986). The transition to adulthood. *Annual Review Of Sociology*, 12(1), 109-130.

Holland, J. L., & Gottfredson, G. D. (1976). Using a typology of persons and environments to explain careers: Some extensions and clarifications. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 6(3), 20-29.

Holmes, L. (2001). Reconsidering Graduate Employability: the 'graduate identity' approach. *Quality in Higher Education*, 7(2), 111-119.

Holton III, E. F. (1995). College graduates' experiences and attitudes during organizational entry. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 6(1), 59-78.

Holton, E. & Russell, C. (1997). The relationship of anticipation to newcomer socialization processes and outcomes: a pilot study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70, 163-172.

Horn, A. S. (2012). The cultivation of a prosocial value orientation through community service: An examination of organizational context, social facilitation, and duration. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 41(7), 948-968.

Horton, K. E., Bayerl, P. S., & Jacobs, G. (2014). Identity conflicts at work: An integrative framework. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(S1), S6-22.

Howe, K. R. (1988). Against the quantitative-qualitative incompatibility thesis or dogmas die hard. *Educational Researcher*, 17, 10-16.

Howe, K. R. (1992). Getting over the quantitative-qualitative debate. *American Journal of Education*, 100, 236-256.

Howell, A., Kirk-Brown, A., & Cooper, B. K. (2012). Does congruence between espoused and enacted organizational values predict affective commitment in Australian organizations?. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(4), 731-747.

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.

Hulin, C. (1991). Adaptation, persistence, and commitment in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 445-505). Consulting Psychologists Press.

Ibarra, H. (2004). Career transition and change. INSEAD: working paper series 2004/97/OB.

Iellatchitch, A., Mayrhofer, W., & Meyer, M. (2003). Career fields: a small step towards a grand career theory?. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(5), 728-750.

Inglehart, R. (1977). Values, objective needs, and subjective satisfaction among western publics. *Comparative Political Studies*, 9(4), 429-458.

Inkeles, A., & Levinson, D. J. (1963). The personal system and the sociocultural system in large-scale organizations. *Sociometry*, 26(2) 217-229.

Inkson, K., Gunz, H., Ganesh, S., & Roper, J. (2012). Boundaryless careers: Bringing back boundaries. *Organization Studies*, 33(3), 323-340.

Inkson, K., & King, Z. (2011). Contested terrain in careers: A psychological contract model. *Human Relations*, 64(1), 37-57.

Illies, J. J., & Reiter-Palmon, R. (2008). Responding destructively in leadership situations: The role of personal values and problem construction. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82(1), 251-272.

International Labour Organization (ILO) (2011). *Global unemployment trends for youth: 2011 update*. ILO.

Jacobs, J. A., Karen, D., & McClelland, K. (1991). The dynamics of young men's career aspirations. *Sociological Forum*, 6(4), 609-639.

Jambrak, J., Deane, F. P., & Williams, V. (2014). Value motivations predict burnout and intentions to leave among mental health professionals. *Journal of Mental Health*, 23(3), 120-124.

Jin, K. (2010). Modern biological theories of aging. *Aging and disease*, 1(2), 72-74.

Jin, J., & Rounds, J. (2012). Stability and change in work values: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(2), 326-339.

Johnson, M. K. (2001a). Job values in the young adult transition: Change and stability with age. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *64*(4), 297-317.

Johnson, M. K. (2001b). Change in job values during the transition to adulthood. *Work and Occupations*, *28*(3), 315-345.

Johnson, M. K. (2002). Social origins, adolescent experiences, and work value trajectories during the transition to adulthood. *Social Forces*, *80*(4), 1307-1340.

Johnson, M. K., & Elder Jr, G. H. (2002). Educational pathways and work value trajectories. *Sociological Perspectives*, *45*(2), 113-138.

Johnson, M. K., & Monserud, M. A. (2010). Judgments about work and the features of young adults' jobs. *Work and Occupations*, *37*(2), 194-224.

Johnson, M. K., & Mortimer, J. T. (2011). Origins and outcomes of judgments about work. *Social Forces*, *89*(4), 1239-1260.

Johnson, M. K., Sage, R. A., & Mortimer, J. T. (2012). Work values, early career difficulties, and the US economic recession. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *75*(3), 242-267.

Johnston, C. S. (2018). A systematic review of the career adaptability literature and future outlook. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *26*(1), 3-30.

Jokisaari, M., & Nurmi, J. E. (2009). Change in newcomers' supervisor support and socialization outcomes after organizational entry. *Academy of Management Journal*, *52*(3), 527-544.

Jones, G. R. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustments to organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(2), 262-279.

Jonsen, K., Galunic, C., Weeks, J., & Braga, T. (2015). Evaluating espoused values: does articulating values pay off?. *European Management Journal*, *33*(5), 332-340.

Joshi, A., Dencker, J. C., & Franz, G. (2011). Generations in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *31*, 177-205.

Joshi, A., Dencker, J. C., Franz, G., & Martocchio, J. J. (2010). Unpacking generational identities in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *35*(3), 392-414.

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Erez, A., & Locke, E. A. (2005). Core self-evaluations and job and life satisfaction: the role of self-concordance and goal attainment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(2), 257-268.

Judge, T. A., & Bretz, R. D. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *77*(3), 261-271.

Judge, T. A., Cable, D. M., Boudreau, J. W., & Bretz Jr, R. D. (1995). An empirical investigation of the predictors of executive career success. *Personnel Psychology*, *48*(3), 485-519.

Kaasa, A. (2011). Work values in European countries: Empirical evidence and explanations. *Revista de Management Comparat Internațional*, *12*(5), 852-862.

Kahn, L. B. (2010). The long-term labor market consequences of graduating from college in a bad economy. *Labour Economics*, *17*(2), 303-316.

Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., & Wanberg, C. R. (2003). Unwrapping the organizational entry process: disentangling multiple antecedents and their pathways to adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 779-794.

Kandler, C., Gottschling, J., & Spinath, F. M. (2016). Genetic and environmental parent-child transmission of value orientations: An extended twin family study. *Child Development*, *87*(1), 270-284.

Kanfer, R., & Ackerman, P. L. (2004). Aging, adult development, and work motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 29(3), 440-458.

Kang, H. (2013). The prevention and handling of the missing data. *Korean Journal of Anesthesiology*, 64(5), 402-406.

Kanungo, R.N., & Jaeger, A.M. (1990). Introduction: The Need for Indigenous Management in Developing Countries. In A. M. Jaeger & R. N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Management in developing countries* (pp. 1-23). Routledge.

Kalleberg, A. L. (1977). Work values and job rewards: A theory of job satisfaction. *American Sociological Review*, 42(1), 124-143.

Kalleberg, A. L. (2000). Nonstandard employment relations: Part-time, temporary and contract work. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 26, 341-365.

Kashefi, M. (2005). The relationship between work values and job rewards: Is satisfaction of extrinsic job rewards a pre-condition for the salience of intrinsic rewards?. *International Review of Modern Sociology*, 31(2), 233-250.

Kelly, G. (1955). *Personal construct psychology*. Norton.

Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2006). A multicomponent conceptualization of authenticity: Theory and research. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 38, 283-357.

Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22(3), 375-403.

Kerslake, P. (2005) Words From the Ys. *New Zealand Management*, 52(4), 44-46.

Kim, T.-Y., Cable, D. M., & Kim, S.-P. (2005). Socialization Tactics, Employee Proactivity, and Person-Organization Fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2), 232–241.

Kim, S. O., & Kim, J. S. (2021). Association of work environment and resilience with transition shock in newly licensed nurses: A cross-sectional study. *Journal of Clinical Nursing, 30*(7-8), 1037-1045.

Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (2001). The impact of cultural values on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in self-managing work teams: The mediating role of employee resistance. *Academy of Management Journal, 44*(3), 557-569.

Kitchener, K. S., & Brenner, H. G. (1990). Wisdom and reflective judgement: Knowing in the face of uncertainty. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Wisdom: Its nature, origins, and development* (pp. 212-229). Cambridge University Press.

Kjeldsen, A. M., & Jacobsen, C. B. (2013). Public service motivation and employment sector: Attraction or socialization?. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 23*(4), 899-926.

Klassen, R. M., Usher, E. L., & Bong, M. (2010). Teachers' collective efficacy, job satisfaction, and job stress in cross-cultural context. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 78*(4), 464-486.

Kline, R. B. (2016). *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling* (4th Ed.). The Guilford Press.

Kluckhohn, F. R. (1951). Cultural factors in social work practice and education. *Social Service Review, 25*(1), 38-47.

Knafo, A., & Sagiv, L. (2004). Values and work environment: Mapping 32 occupations. *European Journal of Psychology of Education, 19*(3), 255-273.

Knezevic, M., & Ovsenik, M. (2001). Work values of students and their success in studying at the study centre for social work in Zagreb, Croatia. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare, 28*(2), 37-51.

Knoop, R. (1994). Work values and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Psychology, 128*(6), 683-690.

Koen, J., Klehe, U. C., & Van Vianen, A. E. (2012). Training career adaptability to facilitate a successful school-to-work transition. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 81*(3), 395-408.

Kooij, D. T., De Lange, A. H., Jansen, P. G., Kanfer, R., & Dikkers, J. S. (2011). Age and work-related motives: Results of a meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 32*(2), 197-225.

Konrad, A. M., Ritchie, J. E., Jr., Lieb, P., & Corrigan, E. (2000). Sex differences and similarities in job attribute preferences: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 126*(4), 593–641.

Konty, M. A., & Dunham, C. C. (1997). Differences in value and attitude change over the life course. *Sociological Spectrum, 17*(2), 177-197.

Kowtha, N. R. (2018). Organizational socialization of newcomers: the role of professional socialization. *International Journal of Training and Development, 22*(2), 87-106.

Kraemer, H. C., & Blasey, C. M. (2004). Centring in regression analyses: a strategy to prevent errors in statistical inference. *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research, 13*(3), 141-151.

Krahn, H. J., & Galambos, N. L. (2014). Work values and beliefs of ‘Generation X’ and ‘Generation Y’. *Journal of Youth Studies, 17*(1), 92-112.

Kraimer, M. L. (1997). Organizational goals and values: A socialization model. *Human Resource Management Review, 7*(4), 425-447.

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. 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.

Krumm, S., Grube, A., & Hertel, G. (2013). The Munster work value measure. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(5), 532-560.

Kuhnen, U. & Oysterman, D. (2002). Thinking about the self influences thinking in general: Cognitive consequences of salient self-concept. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 38(5), 492-499.

Kultalahti, S., & Viitala, R. (2015). Generation Y—challenging clients for HRM?. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(1), 101-114.

Kumar, A., & Sharma, S. (1999). A metric measure for direct comparison of competing models in covariance structure analysis. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 169-197.

Kuntz, J. R., & Abbott, M. (2017). Authenticity at work: A moderated mediation analysis. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 25(5), 789-803.

Kuron, L. K., Lyons, S. T., Schweitzer, L., & Ng, E. S. (2015). Millennials' work values: differences across the school to work transition. *Personnel Review*, 44(6), 991-1009.

Kyriazos, T. A. (2018). Applied psychometrics: sample size and sample power considerations in factor analysis (EFA, CFA) and SEM in general. *Psychology*, 9(08), 2207-2230.

Ladge, J. J., Clair, J. A., & Greenberg, D. (2012). Cross-domain identity transition during liminal periods: Constructing multiple selves as professional and mother during pregnancy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(6), 1449-1471.

Laird, M. D., Harvey, P., & Lancaster, J. (2015). Accountability, entitlement, tenure, and satisfaction in Generation Y. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(1)n 87-100.

Laker, D. R., & Steffy, B. D. (1995). The impact of alternative socialization tactics on self-managing behavior and organizational commitment. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 10*(3), 645-660.

Lamm, E., & Meeks, M. D. (2009). Workplace fun: the moderating effects of generational differences. *Employee Relations, 31*(6), 613-631.

Långstedt, J. (2021). How will our Values Fit Future Work? An Empirical Exploration of Basic Values and Susceptibility to Automation. *Labour & Industry: A Journal of The Social and Economic Relations Of Work, 31*(2), 129-152.

Latack, J. C. (1984). Career transitions within organizations: An exploratory study of work, nonwork, and coping strategies. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 34*(3), 296-322.

Latham, G. P., & Pinder, C. C. (2005). Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annual Review of Psychology, 56*, 485-516.

Leak, G. K., & Cooney, R. R. (2001). Self-determination, attachment styles, and well-being in adult romantic relationships. *Representative Research in Social Psychology, 25*, 55-62.

Lechner, C. M., Sortheix, F. M., Göllner, R., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2017). The development of work values during the transition to adulthood: A two-country study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 99*, 52-65.

Lee, B., Padilla, J., & McHale, S. M. (2016). Transmission of work ethic in African-American families and its links with adolescent adjustment. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 45*(11), 2278-2291.

Leiter, M. P., Frank, E., & Matheson, T. J. (2009). Demands, values, and burnout: relevance for physicians. *Canadian Family Physician, 55*(12), 1224-1225.

Lenton, A. P., Slabu, L., & Sedikides, C. (2016). State authenticity in everyday life. *European Journal of Personality, 30*(1), 64-82.

Lester, S. W., Claire, F., & Kickul, J. (2001). Psychological Contract in the 21st Century. What Employee Value Most and How Well Organizations are Responding to the Expectations. *Human Resource Planning*, 24 (1), 10-21.

Leung, J. T. Y., & Busiol, D. (2016). Adolescents growing up in a “Greenhouse:” A literature review. *International Journal of Child and Adolescent Health*, 9(4), 413–422.

Leuty, M. E., & Hansen, J. I. C. (2011). Evidence of construct validity for work values. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(2), 379-390.

Levinson, D. J. (1978). *The seasons of a man's life*. Random House Digital, Inc.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1986). But is it rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. In D. Willimas (Ed.), *Naturalistic Evaluation* (pp. 73-84). Jossey Bass.

Lipkin, N. A., & Perrymore, A. J. (2009). *Y in the workplace: Managing the me first generation*. Red Wheel/Weiser.

Lippmann, S. (2008). Rethinking risk in the new economy: Age and cohort effects on unemployment and re-employment. *Human Relations*, 61(9), 1259-1292.

Little, R. J. (1988). A test of missing completely at random for multivariate data with missing values. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 83(404), 1198-1202.

Little, R. J., & Rubin, D. B. (2002). *Statistical analysis with missing data*. John Wiley & Sons.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and consequences of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297-1349). Rand-McNally.

Locke, E. A. (1991). The motivation sequence, the motivation hub, and the motivation core. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 288–299.

Lofquist, L. H., & Dawis, R. V. (1969). *Adjustment to work: A psychological view of man's problems in a work-oriented society*. Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Lofquist, L. H., & Dawis, R. (1978). Values as second-order needs in the theory of work adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 12(1), 12-19.

Loscocco, K. A., & Kalleberg, A. L. (1988). Age and the meaning of work in the United States and Japan. *Social Forces*, 67(2), 337-356.

Loughlin, C., & Barling, J. (2001). Young workers' work values, attitudes, and behaviours. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(4), 543-558.

Louis, M. R. (1980a). Career transitions: Varieties and commonalities. *Academy of Management Review*, 5(3), 329-340.

Louis, M. R. (1980b). Surprise and sensemaking: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar thinking. *Human Relations*, 44, 55-76.

Lu, A. C. C., & Gursoy, D. (2016). Impact of job burnout on satisfaction and turnover intention: do generational differences matter?. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 40(2), 210-235.

Lynn, S. A., Cao, L. T., & Horn, B. C. (1996). The influence of career stage on the work attitudes of male and female accounting professionals. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17(2), 135-149.

Lyons, S. (2003). *An exploration of generational values in life and at work*. Carleton University.

Lyons, S. T., Duxbury, L. E., & Higgins, C. A. (2006). A comparison of the values and commitment of private sector, public sector, and parapublic sector employees. *Public Administration Review*, 66(4), 605-618.

Lyons, S. T., Duxbury, L., & Higgins, C. (2007). An empirical assessment of generational differences in basic human values. *Psychological Reports*, 101(2), 339-352.

Lyons, S. T., Higgins, C. A., & Duxbury, L. (2010). Work values: Development of a new three-dimensional structure based on confirmatory smallest space analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(7), 969-1002.

Lyons, S., & Kuron, L. (2014). Generational differences in the workplace: A review of the evidence and directions for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(S1), S139-S157.

Lyons, S. T., Ng, E. S. & Schweitzer, L. (2012a), Generational career shift: millennials and the changing nature of careers in Canada. In S. T. Lyons, & L. Schweitzer (Eds.), *Managing the New Workforce: International Perspectives in the Millennial Generation*, (pp. 64-85). Edward Elgar.

Lyons, S. T., Schweitzer, L., Ng, E. S., & Kuron, L. K. J. (2012b). Comparing apples to apples: A qualitative investigation of career mobility patterns across four generations. *Career Development International*, 17(4), 333-357.

Lyons, S., Urick, M., Kuron, L., & Schweitzer, L. (2015). Generational differences in the workplace: There is complexity beyond the stereotypes. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 8(3), 346-356.

MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods*, 1(2), 130-149.

Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1(1), 3-30.

Macnab, D., & Fitzsimmons, G. W. (1987). A multitrait-multimethod study of work-related needs, values, and preferences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 30*(1), 1-15.

Mainiero, L. A., & Sullivan, S. E. (2005). Kaleidoscope careers: An alternate explanation for the “opt-out “revolution. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 19*(1), 106-123.

Mainiero, L. A., & Sullivan, S. E. (2006). *The opt out revolt: Why people are leaving companies to create kaleidoscope careers*. Davies-Black Publishing.

Maitlis, S., & Christianson, M. (2014). Sensemaking in organizations: Taking stock and moving forward. *Academy of Management Annals, 8*(1), 57-125.

Major, D. A., Kozlowski, S. W. J., Chao, G. T., & Gardner, P. D. (1995). A longitudinal investigation of newcomer expectations, early socialization outcomes, and the moderating effects of role development factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(3), 418–431.

Manhardt, P. J. (1972). Job orientation of male and female college graduates in business. *Personnel Psychology, 25*(2), 361-368.

Mann, S. (2016). *The research interview: Reflective practice and reflexivity in research processes*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Mannheim, K. (1952). *Essays on the sociology of knowledge*. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Marini, M. M., Fan, P. L., Finley, E., & Beutel, A. M. (1996). Gender and job values. *Sociology of Education, 69*(1), 49-65.

Markus, H. (1977). Self-schemata and processing information about the self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35*(2), 63-78.

Marsh, H. W. (1995). Δ^2 and χ^2 I2 fit indices for structural equation models: A brief note of clarification. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 2, 246-254.

Marsh, H. W. (1997). *The measurement of physical self-concept: A construct validation approach*. In K. R. Fox (Ed.), *The physical self: From motivation to well-being* (pp. 27–58). Human Kinetics.

Marsh, H. W., Pekrun, R., Parker, P. D., Murayama, K., Guo, J., Dicke, T., & Arens, A. K. (2019). The murky distinction between self-concept and self-efficacy: Beware of lurking jingle-jangle fallacies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 111(2), 331-353.

Marsh, H., Seaton, M., Dicke, T., Parker, P., & Horwood, M. (2019). The centrality of academic self-concept to motivation and learning. In K. Renninger & S. Hidi (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Motivation and Learning*, (pp. 36-62). Cambridge University Press.

Mason, W. M., & Wolfinger, N. H. (2002). Cohort analysis. In N. J. Smelser & P. B. Baltes (Eds.), *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences* (pp. 2189-2194). Elsevier.

Masten, A. S., Roisman, G. I., Long, J. D., Burt, K. B., Obradović, J., Riley, J. R., Boelcke-Stennes, K., & Tellegen, A. (2005). Developmental Cascades: Linking Academic Achievement and Externalizing and Internalizing Symptoms Over 20 Years. *Developmental Psychology*, 41(5), 733–746.

Maurer, T. J. (2001). Career-relevant learning and development, worker age, and beliefs about self-efficacy for development. *Journal of Management*, 27(2), 123-140.

Mauthner, N. S., & Doucet, A. (2003). Reflexive accounts and accounts of reflexivity in qualitative data analysis. *Sociology*, 37(3), 413-431.

Mays, N., & Pope, C. (2000). Assessing quality in qualitative research. *British Medical Journal*, 320(7226), 50-52.

Mayton, D. M., Ball-Rokeach, S. J., & Loges, W. E. (1994). Human values and social issues: An introduction. *Journal of Social Issues, 50*(4), 1-8.

McCrae, R. R., Costa, P. T., de Lima, M. P., Simões, A., Ostendorf, F., Angleitner, A., Marušić, I., Bratko, D., Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Chae, J.-H., & Piedmont, R. L. (1999). Age differences in personality across the adult life span: Parallels in five cultures. *Developmental Psychology, 35*(2), 466–477.

McDonald, R. P. (1978). A simple comprehensive model for the analysis of covariance structures. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology, 31*(1), 59-72.

McElroy, J. C., & Morrow, P. C. (2010). Employee reactions to office redesign: A naturally occurring quasi-field experiment in a multi-generational setting. *Human Relations, 63*(5), 609-636.

McMullin, J. A., & Marshall, V. W. (Eds.). (2010). *Aging and working in the new economy: Changing career structures in small IT firms*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Meglino, B. M., & Ravlin, E. C. (1998). Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies, and research. *Journal of Management, 24*(3), 351-389.

Meister, J. C., & Willyerd, K. (2010). *The 2020 workplace*. Harper Collins Publishers.

Memon, M. A., Salleh, R., Nordin, S. M., Cheah, J. H., Ting, H., & Chuah, F. (2018). Person-organisation fit and turnover intention: The mediating role of work engagement. *Journal of Management Development*.

Menci, J., & Lester, S. W. (2014). More alike than different: What generations value and how the values affect employee workplace perceptions. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 21*(3), 257-272.

Metz, A. J., Fouad, N., & Ihle-Helledy, K. (2009). Career aspirations and expectations of college students: Demographic and labor market comparisons. *Journal of Career Assessment, 17*(2), 155-171.

McAdams, D. P., & Olson, B. D. (2010). Personality development: Continuity and change over the life course. *Annual Review of Psychology, 61*, 517-542.

McClelland, K. (1990). Cumulative disadvantage among the highly ambitious. *Sociology of Education, 63*(2) 102-121.

Millar, R., & Shevlin, M. (2003). Predicting career information-seeking behavior of school pupils using the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62*(1), 26-42.

Miller, P., & Yu, H. (2003). Organisational values and generational values: a cross cultural study. *Australasian Journal of Business and Social Enquiry, 1*(3), 138-153.

Molina-Azorin, J. F., Bergh, D. D., Corley, K. G., & Ketchen, D. J. (2017). Mixed Methods in the Organizational Sciences: Taking Stock and Moving Forward. *Organizational Research Methods, 20*(2), 179-192.

Mooney, C. F., Mooney, C. L., Mooney, C. Z., Duval, R. D., & Duvall, R. (1993). *Bootstrapping: A nonparametric approach to statistical inference* (No. 95). Sage.

Moreland, R. L. & Levine, J. M. (2002). Socialization and trust in work groups. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 5*, 185-201.

Morley, M., & Billsberry, J. (2007). Attracting for values: an empirical study of ASA's attraction proposition. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*(2), 132-149..

Morrison, E. W. (1993a). Longitudinal study of the effects of information seeking on newcomer socialization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(2), 173-183.

Morrison, E. W. (1993b). Newcomer information seeking: Exploring types, modes, sources, and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(3), 557-589.

Morrison, R., & Hall, D. (2002). Career adaptability. In D. T. Hall (Ed.), *Careers in and out of organizations* (pp. 205-234). Sage.

Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(1), 226-256.

Mortimer, J. T. (2012). Transition to adulthood, parental support, and early adult well-being: Recent findings from the youth development study. In A. Booth, S. Brown, N. Lansdale, W. Manning, & S. McHale (Eds.), *Early adulthood in a family context* (pp. 27-34). Springer..

Morton, L. P. (2002). Targeting generation Y. *Public Relations Quarterly*, 47(2), 46-48.

Moses, B. (1997). *Career intelligence: Mastering the new work and personal realities*. Stoddart.

Muchinsky, P. M., & Monahan, C. J. (1987). What is person-environment congruence? Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(3), 268-277.

Mulaik, S. A., James, L. R., Van Alstine, J., Bennett, N., Lind, S., & Stilwell, C. D. (1989). Evaluation of goodness-of-fit indices for structural equation models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 105(3), 430-445.

Mundia, L., Mahalle, S., Matzin, R., Zakaria, G. A. N., Abdullah, N. Z. M., & Latif, S. N. A. (2017). Prediction of employer–employee relationships from sociodemographic variables and social values in Brunei public and private sector workers. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 10, 257-269.

Munley, P. H. (1977). Erikson's theory of psychosocial development and career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 10(3), 261-269.

Myers, K. K., & Sadaghiani, K. (2010). Millennials in the workplace: A communication perspective on millennials' organizational relationships and performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(2), 225-238.

Netemeyer, R. G., Johnston, M. W., & Burton, S. (1990). Analysis of role conflict and role ambiguity in a structural equations framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(2), 148-157.

Nevill, D. D., & Super, D. E. (1986). *The Values Scale: Theory, Application and Research: Manual*. Consulting Psychologists Press.

Ng, T. W., Eby, L. T., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. (2005). Predictors of objective and subjective career success: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 58*(2), 367-408.

Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). The relationships of age with job attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 63*(3), 677-718.

Ng, E. S., Schweitzer, L., & Lyons, S. T. (2010). New generation, great expectations: A field study of the millennial generation. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(2), 281-292.

Nicholson, N. (1984). A theory of work role transitions. *Administrative Science Quarterly, (29)*2 172-191.

Niglas, K. (2009). How the novice researcher can make sense of mixed methods designs. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 3*(1), 34-46.

Novick, G. (2008). Is there a bias against telephone interviews in qualitative research?. *Research in Nursing and Health, 31*(4), 391-398.

Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustworthiness criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 16*(1), 1-13.

Noy, C. (2008). Sampling knowledge: The hermeneutics of snowball sampling in qualitative research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, *11*(4), 327-344.

O'Neill, M. S., & Jepsen, D. (2019). Women's desire for the kaleidoscope of authenticity, balance and challenge: A multi-method study of female health workers' careers. *Gender, Work & Organization*, *26*(7), 962-982.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. A. (1996). *Culture as social control: Corporations, cults, and commitment*. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews*, Vol. 18 (pp. 157–200). Elsevier Science/JAI Press.

O'Reilly III, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, *34*(3), 487-516.

O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2013). 'Unsatisfactory Saturation': a critical exploration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, *13*(2), 190-197.

Oh, S., & Roh, S. C. (2019). A moderated mediation model of self-concept clarity, transformational leadership, perceived work meaningfulness, and work motivation. *Frontiers in Psychology*, Article 1756.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2002). Positivists, post-positivism, post-structuralists, and post-modernists: Why can't we all get along? Towards a framework for unifying research paradigms. *Education*, *122*, 518-530.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. & Daniel, L. G. (2002). A framework for reporting and interpreting internal consistency reliability estimates. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, *35*, 89-103.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. & Leech, N. L. (2005). On becoming a pragmatic researcher: The importance of combining quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(5), 375-387.

Ornstein, S., Cron, W. L., & Slocum Jr, J. W. (1989). Life stage versus career stage: A comparative test of the theories of Levinson and Super. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 10(2), 117-133.

Osipow, S. H. (1968). *Theories of Career Development. A Comparison of the Theories* (2nd Ed.). Prentice Hall.

Ostroff, C., & Kozlowski, S. W. (1992). Organizational socialization as a learning process: The role of information acquisition. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(4), 849-874.

Ostroff, C., & Rothausen, T. J. (1997). The moderating effect of tenure in person—environment fit: a field study in educational organizations. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70(2), 173-188.

Ostroff, C., Shin, Y., & Kinicki, A. J. (2005). Multiple perspectives of congruence: Relationships between value congruence and employee attitudes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(6), 591-623.

Papavasileiou, E. F., & Lyons, S. T. (2015). A comparative analysis of the work values of Greece's 'Millennial' generation. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(17), 2166-2186.

Parker, P., Arthur, M. B., & Inkson, K. (2004). Career communities: A preliminary exploration of member-defined career support structures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(4), 489-514.

Parry, E., & Urwin, P. (2011). Generational differences in work values: A review of theory and evidence. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(1), 79-96.

Parsons, C. K., Cable, D., & Wilkerson, J. M. (1999). Assessment of applicant work values through interviews: The impact of focus and functional relevance. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72(4), 561-566.

Patton, W., & Patricia. (1990). Adolescent self-concept: Effects of being employed, unemployed or returning to school. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 42(3), 247-259.

Pavlov, G., Shi, D., & Maydeu-Olivares, A. (2020). Chi-square Difference Tests for Comparing Nested Models: An Evaluation with Non-normal Data. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 27(6), 908-917.

Peltokorpi, V., Feng, J., Pustovit, S., Allen, D. G., & Rubenstein, A. L. (2021). The interactive effects of socialization tactics and work locus of control on newcomer work adjustment, job embeddedness, and voluntary turnover. *Human Relations*, 75(1), 177-202.

Perrone, L., & Vickers, M. H. (2003). Life after graduation as a “very uncomfortable world”: An Australian case study. *Education+ Training*. 45(2), 69-78.

Persson, S., & Wasieleski, D. (2015). The seasons of the psychological contract: Overcoming the silent transformations of the employer–employee relationship. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(4), 368-383.

Phillippi, J., & Lauderdale, J. (2018). A guide to field notes for qualitative research: Context and conversation. *Qualitative Health Research*, 28(3), 381-388.

Phillips, J. M. (1998). Effects of realistic job previews on multiple organizational outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(6), 673-690.

Piasentin, K. A., & Chapman, D. S. (2006). Subjective person–organization fit: Bridging the gap between conceptualization and measurement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(2), 202-221.

Polach, J. L. (2004). Understanding the experience of college graduates during their first year of employment. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *15*(1), 5-23.

Pope, C., & Mays, N. (1995). Qualitative research: reaching the parts other methods cannot reach: an introduction to qualitative methods in health and health services research. *British Medical Journal*, *311*, 42-45.

Porfeli, E. J. (2007). Work values system development during adolescence. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *70*(1), 42-60.

Porfeli, E. J., & Mortimer, J. T. (2010). Intrinsic work value–reward dissonance and work satisfaction during young adulthood. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *76*(3), 507-519.

Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1973). Organizational, work, and personal factors in employee turnover and absenteeism. *Psychological Bulletin*, *80*(2), 151–176.

Pratt, M. G., & Foreman, P. O. (2000). The beauty of and barriers to organizational theories of identity. *Academy of Management Review*, *25*(1), 141-143.

Pratt, M. G., Rockmann, K. W., & Kaufmann, J. B. (2006). Constructing professional identity: The role of work and identity learning cycles in the customization of identity among medical residents. *Academy Of Management Journal*, *49*(2), 235-262.

Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *36*(4), 717-731.

Pringle, J., & Mallon, M. (2003). Challenges for the boundaryless career odyssey. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *14*(5), 839-853.

Pritchard, K., & Whiting, R. (2014). Baby boomers and the lost generation: On the discursive construction of generations at work. *Organization Studies*, *35*(11), 1605-1626.

Pryor, R. G. (1981). Interests and values as preferences: A validation of the Work Aspect Preference Scale. *Australian Psychologist, 16*(2), 258-272.

Pryor, R. (1982). Values, preferences, needs, work ethics, and orientations to work: Toward a conceptual and empirical integration. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 20*(1), 40-52.

Pulakos, E. D., Arad, S., Donovan, M. A., & Plamondon, K. E. (2000). Adaptability in the workplace: Development of a taxonomy of adaptive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(4), 612-624.

Quinn, R. E., & Rohrbaugh, J. (1983). A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis. *Management Science, 29*(3), 363-377.

Rani, N., & Samuel, A. (2016). A study on generational differences in work values and person-organization fit and its effect on turnover intention of Generation Y in India. *Management Research Review, 39*(12), 1695-1719.

Rankin, W. L., & Grube, J. W. (1980). A comparison of ranking and rating procedures for value system measurement. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 10*(3), 233-246.

Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1987). Effect of values on perception and decision making: A study of alternative work values measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(4), 666-673.

Real, K., Mitnick, A. D., & Maloney, W. F. (2010). More similar than different: Millennials in the US building trades. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(2), 303-313.

Reed J., Procter, S., & Murray, S. (1996). A sampling strategy for qualitative research. *Nurse Researcher, 3*(4), 52-68.

Reichers, A. E. (1987). An interactionist perspective on newcomer socialization rates. *Academy of Management Review*, *12*(2), 278-287.

Rhodes, S. R. (1983). Age-related differences in work attitudes and behavior: A review and conceptual analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *93*(2), 328-367.

Riordan, C. M., Weatherly, E. W., Vandenberg, R. J., & Self, R. M. (2001). The effects of pre-entry experiences and socialization tactics on newcomer attitudes and turnover. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, *13*(2)159-176.

Rindfuss, R. R. (1991). The young adult years: Diversity, structural change, and fertility. *Demography*, *28*(4), 493-512.

Roberts, B. W., Caspi, A., & Moffitt, T. E. (2003a). Work experiences and personality development in young adulthood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(3), 582-593.

Roberts, B. W., Robins, R. W., Trzesniewski, K. H., & Caspi, A. (2003b). Personality trait development in adulthood. In J. L. Mortimer, & M. Shanahan (Eds.), *Handbook of the life course* (pp. 579-595). Plenum Press

Roberts, B. W., & Caspi, A. (2003). The cumulative continuity model of personality development: Striking a balance between continuity and change in personality traits across the life course. In U. M. Staudinger, & U. Lindenberger (Eds.). *Understanding human development* (pp. 183-214). Springer.

Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, M. S., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Changing obligations and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*(1), 137-152.

Robinson, O. C., Lopez, F. G., & Ramos, K. (2014). Parental antipathy and neglect: Relations with Big Five personality traits, cross-context trait variability and authenticity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *56*, 180-185.

Roccas, S., & Sagiv, L. (2010). Personal values and behavior: Taking the cultural context into account. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 4(1), 30-41.

Rodrigues, R., Guest, D., & Budjanovcanin, A. (2013). From anchors to orientations: Towards a contemporary theory of career preferences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(2), 142-152.

Roe, A. (1956). *The psychology of occupations*. John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Roe, R. A., & Ester, P. (1999). Values and work: Empirical findings and theoretical perspective. *Applied Psychology*, 48(1), 1-21.

Rogers, A. M. (2020). Avoiding the issue: A critique of organizational socialization research from feminist and minority perspectives. *Organization Development Journal*, 38(1), 75-88.

Rokeach, M. (1968). The role of values in public opinion research. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 32(4), 547-559.

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. Free Press.

Rokeach, M. (1979). Value theory and communication research: Review and commentary. *Annals of the International Communication Association*, 3(1), 7-28.

Rokeach, M., & Ball-Rokeach, S. J. (1989). Stability and change in American value priorities, 1968–1981. *American Psychologist*, 44(5), 775-784.

Ros, M., Schwartz, S. H., & Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic individual values, work values, and the meaning of work. *Applied Psychology*, 48(1), 49-71.

Roskos-Ewoldsen, D. R., & R. H. Fazio. (1992). On the orienting value of attitudes: Attitude accessibility as a determinant of an object's attraction of visual attention. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(2), 198-211.

Rosso, B. D., Dekas, K. H., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2010). On the meaning of work: A theoretical integration and review. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 30, 91-127.

Rothausen, T. J., Henderson, K. E., Arnold, J. K., & Malshe, A. (2017). Should I stay or should I go? Identity and well-being in sensemaking about retention and turnover. *Journal of Management*, 43(7), 2357-2385.

Roulston, K. (2001). Data analysis and 'theorizing as ideology'. *Qualitative Research*, 1(3), 279-302.

Rounds, J. B., & Armstrong, P. I. (2005). Assessment of needs and values. In S. D. Brown, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and modelling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 305-329). Wiley.

Rounds, J. B., Henley, G. A., Dawis, R. V., Lofquist, L. H., & Weiss, D. J. (1981). *Manual for the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire: A measure of vocational needs and values*. University of Minnesota.

Rousseau, D. M. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee Responsibilities And Rights Journal*, 2(2), 121-139.

Rousseau, D. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Sage Publications.

Rousseau, D. M. (2001). Schema, promise and mutuality: The building blocks of the psychological contract. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(4), 511-541.

Rousseau, D. M., Hansen, S. D., & Tomprou, M. (2018). A dynamic phase model of psychological contract processes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(9), 1081-1098.

Rojewski, J. W. (2005). Occupational aspirations: Constructs, meanings, and application. In S. D. Brown, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and modelling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 131-154). Wiley.

Russo, C., Barni, D., Zagrean, I., & Danioni, F. (2021). Value consistency across relational roles and basic psychological needs satisfaction: The mediating role of self-concept clarity. *Social Sciences, 10*(8), 291-307.

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., & Grolnick, W. S. (1995). *Autonomy, relatedness, and the self: Their relation to development and psychopathology*. In D. Cicchetti & D. J. Cohen (Eds.), *Wiley series on personality processes. Developmental psychopathology, Vol. 1. Theory and methods* (pp. 618–655). John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Sackett, P. R. (2002). The structure of counterproductive work behaviors: Dimensionality and relationships with facets of job performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1-2), 5-11.

Sackett, P. R., & Larson, J. R., Jr. (1990). *Research strategies and tactics in industrial and organizational psychology*. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 419–489). Consulting Psychologists Press.

Sagie, A., Elizur, D., & Koslowsky, M. (1996). Work values: A theoretical overview and a model of their effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17*(S1), 503-514.

Sagie, A., & Elizur, D. (1996). The structure of personal values: A conical representation of multiple life areas. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17*(S1), 573-586.

Sagiv, L., Sverdlik, N., & Schwarz, N. (2011). To compete or to cooperate? Values' impact on perception and action in social dilemma games. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 41*(1), 64-77.

Saks, A. M. (1995). Longitudinal field investigation of the moderating and mediating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between training and newcomer adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(2), 211-225.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1997a). Organizational socialization: Making sense of the past and present as a prologue for the future. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51*(2), 234-279.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1997b). Socialization tactics and newcomer information acquisition. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 5*(1), 48-61.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1997c). Socialization tactics and newcomer information acquisition. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 5*(1), 48-61.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (2000). The role of dispositions, entry stressors, and behavioral plasticity theory in predicting newcomers' adjustment to work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(1), 43-62.

Saks, A. M., & Gruman, J. A. (2018). Socialization resources theory and newcomers' work engagement: A new pathway to newcomer socialization. *Career Development International, 23*(1), 12-32.

Saks, A. M., Uggerslev, K. L., & Fassina, N. E. (2007). Socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment: A meta-analytic review and test of a model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 70*(3), 413-446.

Salmela-Aro, K., Aunola, K., & Nurmi, J. E. (2007). Personal goals during emerging adulthood: A 10-year follow up. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 22*(6), 690-715.

Sampson, H. (2004) Navigating the Waves: The Usefulness of a Pilot in Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Research, 4*(3), 383-402.

Sandberg, J., & Tsoukas, H. (2020). Sensemaking reconsidered: Towards a broader understanding through phenomenology. *Organization Theory, 1*(1), 1-34.

Santuzzi, A. M., & Waltz, P. R. (2016). Disability in the workplace: A unique and variable identity. *Journal of Management*, 42(5), 1111-1135.

Sargent, L. D., & Domberger, S. R. (2007). Exploring the development of a protean career orientation: values and image violations. *Career Development International*, 12(6), 545-564.

Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, N, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., Burroughs, H., & Jinks, C. (2018). Saturation in qualitative research: exploring its conceptualization and operationalization. *Quality & Quantity*, 52(4), 1893-1907.

Saunders, M. N., & Townsend, K. (2016). Reporting and justifying the number of interview participants in organization and workplace research. *British Journal of Management*, 27(4), 836-852.

Savickas, M. L. (1985). Identity in vocational development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 27(3), 329-337.

Savickas, M. L. (1997). Career adaptability: An integrative construct for life-span, life-space theory. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 45(3), 247-259.

Savickas, M. L. (2005). The theory and practice of career construction. *Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work*, 1, 42-70.

Savickas, M. L. (2013). Career construction theory and practice. *Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work*, 2, 147-180.

Savickas, M. L., & Porfeli, E. J. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(3), 661-673.

Sayer, A. (1992). *Method in social science: A realist approach*. Routledge.

Sayer, A. (2000). *Realism and social science*. Sage.

Scheer, S. D., Unger, D. G., & Brown, M. B. (1996). Adolescents becoming adults: Attributes for adulthood. *Adolescence*, *31*(121), 127-132.

Schein, E. H. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs* (Vol. 6834). Addison Wesley Publishing Company.

Schein, E. H. (1985). Defining organizational culture. *Classics of Organization Theory*, *3*(1), 490-502.

Schein, E. H. (1993). Career anchors, discovering your real values. Revised Edition. *Pfeffer & Co.*

Scherbaum, Charles A., Yochi Cohen-Charash, & Michael J. Kern. Measuring general self-efficacy: A comparison of three measures using item response theory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *66*(6), 1047-1063.

Schildt, H., Mantere, S., & Cornelissen, J. (2019). Power in sensemaking processes. *Organization Studies*, *41*(2), 241-265.

Schlossberg, N.K., Waters, E.B., & Goodman, J. (1995). *Counseling adults in transition: Linking practice with theory* (2nd Ed.). Springer Publishing Company.

Schoon, I., & Parsons, S. (2002). Teenage aspirations for future careers and occupational outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *60*(2), 262-288.

Schneider, B. (1978). Person-situation selection: A review of some ability-situation interaction research. *Personnel Psychology*, *31*, 281- 297.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(3), 437-453.

Schneider, S. L. (2001). In search of realistic optimism: Meaning, knowledge, and warm fuzziness. *American Psychologist*, *56*(3), 250-263.

Schneider, B., Goldstein, H. W., & Smith, D. B. (1995). The ASA framework: An update. *Personnel Psychology*, *48*(4), 747-773.

Schreiber, J. B., Nora, A., Stage, F. K., Barlow, E. A., & King, J. (2006). Reporting structural equation modelling and confirmatory factor analysis results: A review. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 99(6), 323-338.

Schulenberg, J. E., Bryant, A. L., & O'Malley, P. M. (2004). Taking hold of some kind of life: How developmental tasks relate to trajectories of well-being during the transition to adulthood. *Development and Psychopathology*, 16(4), 1119-1140.

Schullery, N. M. (2013). Workplace engagement and generational differences in values. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 76(2), 252-265.

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (1996). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. Psychology Press.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25(1), 1-65.

Schwartz, S. H. (2007). Value orientations: Measurement, antecedents and consequences across nations. In R. Jowell, C. Roberts, R. Fitzgerald, & G. Eva (Eds.) *Measuring attitudes cross-nationally – lessons from the European Social Survey* (pp.169-203). Sage.

Schwartz, S. H. (2012). An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1), 2307-0919.

Schwartz, S. H., & Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53(3), 550-562.

Schwartz, S. H., & Boehnke, K. (2004). Evaluating the structure of human values with confirmatory factor analysis. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 38(3), 230-255.

Schwartz, S. H., Cieciuch, J., Vecchione, M., Davidov, E., Fischer, R., Beierlein, C., Ramos, A., Verkasalo, M., Lönnqvist, J.-E., Demirutku, K., Dirilen-Gumus, O., &

Konty, M. (2012). Refining the theory of basic individual values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 103*(4), 663–688.

Schwartz, S. H., & Rubel, T. (2005). Sex differences in value priorities: Cross-cultural and multimethod studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 89*(6), 1010-1028.

Seashore, S. E. (1964). *Assessing organization performance with behavioral measurements*. Foundation for Research on Human Behavior.

Segers, J., Inceoglu, I., Vloeberghs, D., Bartram, D., & Henderickx, E. (2008). Protean and boundaryless careers: A study on potential motivators. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73*(2), 212-230.

Seibert, S. E., & Kraimer, M. L. (2001). The five-factor model of personality and career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58*(1), 1-21.

Sekiguchi, T. (2004). Person-organization fit and person-job fit in employee selection: A review of the literature. *Osaka keidai ronshu, 54*(6), 179-196.

Sezen-Gultekin, G., & Nartgun, S. S. (2018). The Examination of the Possible Relationship between Reality Shock Expectations and Teacher Self-Efficacy Levels of the Prospective Teachers Attending Pedagogical Formation Certificate Program. *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 6*, 13-25.

Sharfman, M. P., Pinkston, T. S., & Sigerstad, T. D. (2000). The effects of managerial values on social issues evaluation: An empirical examination. *Business & Society, 39*(2), 144-182.

Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1998). Not all personal goals are personal: Comparing autonomous and controlled reasons for goals as predictors of effort and attainment. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 24*(5), 546-557.

Sherer, M., Maddux, J. E., Mercandante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B., & Rogers, R. W. (1982). The self-efficacy scale: Construction and validation. *Psychological Reports, 51*(2), 663-671.

Shibly, S. A. (2019). Mapping the Holistic Impact of Realistic Job Preview-Pre-recruitment Phase, Post-recruitment Phase and Marketing Spillover Effect. *Journal of Organizational Psychology, 19*(1), 70-78.

Shu, X., & Marini, M. M. (1997, August). *Occupational aspirations and opportunities: Coming to terms with life's limitations* [Paper presentation]. Annual meeting of the American Sociological Association, Toronto, Canada.

Sims, R. R., & Sauser, W. I. (2012). Who are the millennials and how are they challenging modern human resources management?. In W. I. Jr Sauser & R. R. Sims (Eds.), *Managing human resources for the millennial generation. USA: Information age* (pp. 1-20). Publishing, Inc.

Sirén, C., Thorgren, S., & Järlström, M. (2021). Self-directed career management and mobility: the risk of lock-in effects from person–job fit. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 32*(6), 1368-1389.

Sleap, M., & Reed, H. (2006). Views of sport science graduates regarding work skills developed at university. *Teaching in Higher Education, 11*(1), 47-61.

Smith, J. A. (2003). *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Smola, K., & Sutton, C. D. (2002). Generational differences: Revisiting generational work values for the new millennium. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(4), 363-382.

Song, S. & Gale, A. (2008). Investigating project managers' work values by repertory grids interviews. *Journal of Management Development, 27*(6), 541-553.

Sortheix, F. M., Chow, A., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2015). Work values and the transition to work life: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 89*, 162-171.

Sortheix, F. M., Dietrich, J., Chow, A., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2013). The role of career values for work engagement during the transition to working life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83*(3), 466-475.

Sosik, J. J. (2005). The role of personal values in the charismatic leadership of corporate managers: A model and preliminary field study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(2), 221-244.

Sousa, J. M. D., & Porto, J. B. (2016). Do work values predict preference for organizational values?. *Psico-USF, 21*(1), 135-145.

Sparrow, P. R., Chadrakumara, A., & Perera, N. (2010, June). *Impact of work values and ethics on citizenship and task performance in local and foreign invested firms: A test in a developing country context* [Paper presentation]. 11th International Human Resources Management Conference, Birmingham, UK.

Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R. L., & Pred, R. S. (1987). Impatience versus achievement strivings in the type A pattern: differential effects on students' health and academic achievement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(4), 522-528.

Spurk, D., Hirschi, A., & Dries, N. (2019). Antecedents and outcomes of objective versus subjective career success: Competing perspectives and future directions. *Journal of Management, 45*(1), 35-69.

Steiger, J. H., & Lind, J. M. (1980). *Statistically based tests for the number of common factors*. Psychometric Society.

Stockard, J., Carpenter, G., & Kahle, L. R. (2014). Continuity and change in values in midlife: Testing the age stability hypothesis. *Experimental Aging Research, 40*(2), 224-244.

Strauss, W., & Howe, N. (1991). *Generations: The history of America's future, 1584 to 2069*. Quill.

Stringer, K., Kerpelman, J., & Skorikov, V. (2011). Career preparation: A longitudinal, process-oriented examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(1), 158-169.

Stryker, S., & Statham, A. (1985). Symbolic interaction and role theory. *Handbook of Social Psychology*, 1, 311-378.

Stumpf, S. A., & Hartman, K. (1984). Individual exploration to organizational commitment or withdrawal. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27(2), 308-329.

Sturges, J., & Guest, D. (2001). Don't leave me this way! A qualitative study of influences on the organisational commitment and turnover intentions of graduates early in their career. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 29(4), 447-462.

Suar, D., & Khuntia, R. (2010). Influence of personal values and value congruence on unethical practices and work behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 97(3), 443-460.

Sullivan, S. E. (1999). The changing nature of careers: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 25(3), 457-484.

Sullivan, S. E., & Al Ariss, A. (2021). Making sense of different perspectives on career transitions: A review and agenda for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 31(1), 1-17.

Sullivan, S. E., & Arthur, M. B. (2006). The evolution of the boundaryless career concept: Examining physical and psychological mobility. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(1), 19-29.

Sullivan, S. E., & Baruch, Y. (2009). Advances in career theory and research: A critical review and agenda for future exploration. *Journal of Management*, 35(6), 1542-1571.

Sullivan, S. E., Carden, W. A., & Martin, D. F. (1998). Careers in the next millennium: Directions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 8(2), 165-185.

Sullivan, S. E., & Crocitto, M. (2007). Developmental Career Theories. In M. Peiperl, & H. Gunz (Eds.), *Handbook of Career Studies*, (pp.283-309). Sage.

Sullivan, S. E., Forret, M. L., Carraher, S. M., & Mainiero, L. A. (2009). Using the kaleidoscope career model to examine generational differences in work attitudes. *Career Development International*, 14(3), 284-302.

Sullivan, S. E., Martin, D. F., Carden, W. A., & Mainiero, L. A. (2003). The road less traveled: How to manage the recycling career stage. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 10(2), 34-42.

Super, D. E. (1957). *The psychology of careers*. Harper.

Super, D. E. (1962). The structure of work values in relation to status, achievement, interests, and adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 46(4), 231-239.

Super, D. E. (1970). *Work values inventory manual*. Houghton Mifflin.

Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 16(3), 282-298.

Super, D. E., & Šverko, B. E. (1995). *Life roles, values, and careers: International findings of the Work Importance Study*. Jossey-Bass.

Super, D., Thompson, A., & Lindeman, R. (1988). *Adult career concerns inventory: Manual for research and exploratory use in counseling*. Consulting Psychologists Press.

Sutton, A. (2020). Living the good life: A meta-analysis of authenticity, well-being and engagement. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 153, 1-14.

Sutton, A. (2018). Distinguishing between authenticity and personality consistency in predicting well-being: A mixed method approach. *European Review of Applied Psychology*, 68(3), 117-130.

Suutari, V. & Mäkelä, K. (2007). The career capital of managers with global careers *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(7), 628-648.

Šverko, B. (1989). Origin of individual differences in importance attached to work: A model and a contribution to its evaluation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 34(1), 28-39.

Swanson, J. L., & Schneider, M. (2013). Minnesota theory of work adjustment. In S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work* (2nd Ed.), (pp. 29–53). Wiley.

Takeuchi, T., Takeuchi, N., & Jung, Y. (2021). Toward a process model of newcomer socialization: Integrating pre-and post-entry factors for newcomer adjustment. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 32(3), 391-418.

Tannenbaum, S. I., Mathieu, J. E., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (1991). Meeting trainees' expectations: The influence of training fulfillment on the development of commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6), 759–769.

Taris, R., & Feij, J. (2001). Longitudinal examination of the relationship between supplies–values fit and work outcomes. *Applied Psychology*, 50(1), 52-80.

Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. (Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol. 46). Sage.

Taylor P., & Keeter S. (2010). *Millennials: Portraits of Generation Next – Confident, Connected, Open to Change*. PEW Research Center.

Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling: A typology with examples. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 77-100.

Terjesen, S., Vinnicombe, S., & Freeman, C. (2007). Attracting generation Y graduates. *Career Development International*, *12*, 504-522.

Tetlock, P. E. (1986). A value pluralism model of ideological reasoning. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *50*(4), 819-827.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, *46*(2), 259-293.

Tipton, R. M., & Worthington, E. L. (1984). The measurement of generalized self-efficacy: A study of construct validity. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *48*(5), 545-548.

Tomlinson, J., Baird, M., Berg, P., & Cooper, R. (2018). Flexible careers across the life course: Advancing theory, research and practice. *Human Relations*, *71*(1), 4-22.

Tucker, L. R., & Lewis, C. (1973). A reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, *38*(1), 1-10.

Twenge, J. M. (2006). *Generation me: Why today's young Americans are more confident, assertive, entitled - and more miserable than ever before*. Free Press.

Twenge, J. M. (2008). Generation me, the origins of birth cohort differences in personality traits, and cross-temporal meta-analysis. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *2*(3), 1440-1454.

Twenge, J. M. (2010). A review of the empirical evidence on generational differences in work attitudes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *25*(2), 201-210.

Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2001). Age and birth cohort differences in self-esteem: A cross-temporal meta-analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *5*(4), 321-344.

Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2008). Increases in positive self-views among high school students: Birth-cohort changes in anticipated performance, self-satisfaction, self-liking, and self-competence. *Psychological Science, 19*(11), 1082-1086.

Twenge, J. M., Campbell, W. K., & Gentile, B. (2012). Generational increases in agentic self-evaluations among American college students, 1966–2009. *Self and Identity, 11*(4), 409-427.

Twenge, J. M., Campbell, S. M., Hoffman, B. J., & Lance, C. E. (2010). Generational Differences in Work Values: Leisure and Extrinsic Values Increasing, Social and Intrinsic Values Decreasing. *Journal of Management, 36*(5), 1117-1142.

Twenge, J. M., Konrath, S., Foster, J. D., Keith Campbell, W., & Bushman, B. J. (2008). Egos inflating over time: A cross-temporal meta-analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality, 76*(4), 875-902.

United Nations (UN) Economic Analysis and Policy Division (2019). *World Economic Situation and Prospects*. (Report No. 125). United Nations. https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/wesp2019_en.pdf

Urick, M. J. (2012). Exploring generational identity: A multiparadigm approach. *Journal of Business Diversity, 12*(3), 103-115.

Van Beek, I., Hu, Q., Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W. & Schreurs, B. H. J. (2012). For fun, love, or money: what drives workaholic, engaged, and burned-out employees at work?. *Applied Psychology: An International Journal, 61*(1), 30-55.

Van den Bosch, R., & Taris, T. W. (2014). Authenticity at work: Development and validation of an individual authenticity measure at work. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 15*(1), 1-18.

Van den Bosch, R., Taris, T. W., Schaufeli, W. B., Peeters, M. C., & Reijseger, G. (2019). Authenticity at work: a matter of fit?. *The Journal of Psychology, 153*(2), 247-266.

Van der Heijden, B. I., de Lange, A. H., Demerouti, E., & Van der Heijde, C. M. (2009). Age effects on the employability–career success relationship. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 74*(2), 156-164.

Van der Velde, M. E., Feij, J. A., & van Emmerik, H. (1998). Change in work values and norms among Dutch young adults: Ageing or societal trends?. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 22*(1), 55-76.

Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. H. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. In B. M. Staw (Ed.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 209-264). JAI.

Van Vianen, A. E. (2000). Person-Organization Fit: The Match Between Newcomers' and Recruiters' preferences For Organizational Cultures. *Personnel Psychology, 53*(1), 113-149.

Van Vianen, A. E., De Pater, I. E., & Preenen, P. T. (2009). Adaptable careers: Maximizing less and exploring more. *The Career Development Quarterly, 57*(4), 298-309.

Vandenberg, R. J., & Scarpello, V. (1990). The matching model: An examination of the processes underlying realistic job previews. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(1), 60-67.

Vansteenkiste, M., Neyrinck, B., Niemiec, C. P., Soenens, B., De Witte, H., & Van den Broeck, A. (2007). On the relations among work value orientations, psychological need satisfaction and job outcomes: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 80*(2), 251-277.

Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A., & Wagner, S. H. (2003). A meta-analysis of relations between person–organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63*(3), 473-489.

Vogel, R. M., & Feldman, D. C. (2009). Integrating the levels of person-environment fit: The roles of vocational fit and group fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 75*(1), 68-81.

Voss, T., & Kunter, M. (2020). “Reality shock” of beginning teachers? Changes in teacher candidates’ emotional exhaustion and constructivist-oriented beliefs. *Journal of Teacher Education, 71*(3), 292-306.

Wall, E., & Olofsson, A. (2008). Young people making sense of risk: How meanings of risk are materialized within the social context of everyday life. *Young, 16*(4), 431-448.

Wallace-Brosnious, A., Serafica, F. C., & Osipow, S. H. (1994). Adolescent career development: Relationships to self-concept and identity status. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 4*(1), 127-149.

Wanberg, C. R. (2012). The individual experience of unemployment. *Annual Review Of Psychology, 63*, 369-396.

Wanberg, C. R., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D. (2000). Predictors and outcomes of proactivity in the socialization process. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(3), 373–385.

Wang, D., Hom, P. W., & Allen, D. G. (2017). Coping with newcomer “Hangover”: How socialization tactics affect declining job satisfaction during early employment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 100*, 196-210.

Wanous, J. P. (1980). *The Entry of Newcomers Into Organizations*. In J. R. Hackman, E. E. Lawler, & L. W. Porter (Eds.), *Perspectives on behavior in organizations* (pp.159-167). McGraw-Hill.

Wanous, J. P. (1992). *Organizational entry: Recruitment, selection, orientation, and socialization of newcomers*. Prentice Hall.

Wanous, J. P., Poland, T. D., Premack, S. L., & Davis, K. S. (1992). The effects of met expectations on newcomer attitudes and behaviors: a review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(3), 288-297.

Warr, P. (2001). Age and work behaviour: Physical attributes, cognitive abilities, knowledge, personality traits and motives. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 16*, 1-36.

Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations* (Vol. 3). Sage.

Weick, K. E., Sutcliffe, K. M., & Obstfeld, D. (2005). Organizing and the process of sensemaking. *Organization Science, 16*(4), 409-421.

Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., & England, G. W. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire. *Minnesota Studies In Vocational Rehabilitation, 22*.

Weiss, H. W. (1990). Learning theory and industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 171-222). Consulting Psychologists Press.

Wendlandt, N. M., & Rochlen, A. B. (2008). Addressing the college-to-work transition: Implications for university career counselors. *Journal of Career Development, 35*(2), 151-165.

Werbel, J. D., & DeMarie, S. M. (2005). Aligning strategic human resource management and person–environment fit. *Human Resource Management Review, 15*(4), 247-262.

Westerman, J. W., & Cyr, L. A. (2004). An integrative analysis of person–organization fit theories. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 12*(3), 252-261.

Westerman, J. W., & Vanka, S. (2005). A cross-cultural empirical analysis of person-organization fit measures as predictors of student performance in business

education: Comparing students in the United States and India. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 4(4), 409-420.

Westerman, J. W., & Yamamura, J. H. (2007). Generational preferences for work environment fit: Effects on employee outcomes. *Career Development International*, 12, 150-161.

Wilson, T. D., & Gilbert, D. T. (2005). Affective forecasting. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14, 131-134.

Wikgren, M. (2005). Critical realism as a philosophy and social theory in information science? *Journal of Documentation*, 61(1): 11-22.

Winter, R. P., & Jackson, B. A. (2016). Work values preferences of Generation Y: performance relationship insights in the Australian Public Service. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(17), 1997-2015.

Woiceshyn, J. & Daellenbach, U. (2018), Evaluating inductive vs deductive research in management studies: Implications for authors, editors, and reviewers. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management*, 13(2), 183-195.

Wong, M., Gardiner, E., Lang, W., & Coulon, L. (2008). Generational differences in personality and motivation: do they exist and what are the implications for the workplace?. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23(8), 878-890.

Wood, R., & Bandura A. (1989). Impact of conceptions of ability on self-regulatory mechanisms and complex decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(3), 407-415.

Wood, A. M., Linley, P. A., Maltby, J., Baliouisis, M., & Joseph, S. (2008). The authentic personality: A theoretical and empirical conceptualization and the development of the Authenticity Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 55(3), 385-399.

Wray-Lake, L., Syvertsen, A. K., Briddell, L., Osgood, D. W., & Flanagan, C. A. (2011). Exploring the Changing Meaning of Work for American High School Seniors from 1976 to 2005. *Youth & Society, 43*(3), 1110-1135.

Young, S. J., Sturts, J. R., Ross, C. M., & Kim, K. T. (2013). Generational differences and job satisfaction in leisure services. *Managing Leisure, 18*(2), 152-170.

Zalesny, M. D., & Farace, R. V. (1987). Traditional versus open offices: A comparison of sociotechnical, social relations, and symbolic meaning perspectives. *Academy of Management Journal, 30*(2), 240-259.

Zhang, X., & Savalei, V. (2020). Examining the effect of missing data on RMSEA and CFI under normal theory full-information maximum likelihood. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 27*(2), 219-239.

Zhao, H. A. O., Wayne, S. J., Glibkowski, B. C., & Bravo, J. (2007). The impact of psychological contract breach on work-related outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 60*(3), 647-680.

Zhou, J., & Shalley, C. E. (2003). Research on employee creativity: A critical review and directions for future research. In J. J. Martocchio & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management, Vol. 22* (pp. 165–217). Elsevier Science Ltd.

Zhu, J., Tatachari, S., & Chattopadhyay, P. (2015). Newcomer identification: Trends, antecedents, moderators and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal, 60*(3), 855-879.

Zikic, J., & Klehe, U. C. (2006). Job loss as a blessing in disguise: The role of career exploration and career planning in predicting reemployment quality. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 69*(3), 391-409.

Zytowski, D. (2006). Super work values inventory–revised: Technical manual (Version 1.0).

Appendix A: Non-Disclosure Agreement (NDA) Template

CONFIDENTIALITY UNDERTAKING

BETWEEN

1. The University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT **AND** 2. <<COMPANY>>

In order to assist the University of Leeds in conducting a research project sponsored by <<COMPANY>> entitled "Generation Me: understanding work values of young people entering the workplace" ("the Project") it is necessary for each of us to disclose certain confidential information relating to work values in the workplace (i.e., opinions, views, attitudes, perceptions etc.) ("the Confidential Information").

In this Agreement "the disclosing party" means that party disclosing confidential information to the other party which in this Agreement shall be referred to as "the receiving party". The disclosing party agrees to disclose the Confidential Information to the receiving party upon the following conditions:

- a) The receiving party shall use the Confidential Information solely for the purpose of conducting the Project and shall not use the Confidential Information for any other purpose or for further research unless the written consent of the disclosing party has been first obtained.
- b) The receiving party shall treat the Confidential Information in strict confidence and shall not cite the Confidential Information, or any part of it, in any external reports or other forms of disclosure without obtaining the prior written permission of the disclosing party.
- c) The receiving party will limit access to the Confidential Information to such of its employees as are necessary to carry out the Project aforesaid and shall use reasonable endeavours to ensure that each such employee observes the conditions set out in this Agreement.
- d) Subject to the receiving party's right to retain a copy of the Confidential Information for audit purposes, at the end of the Project the receiving party shall, if requested to do so by the disclosing party, destroy all copies of the Confidential

Information, provided that the receiving party shall be entitled to make any disclosure required by court order or government or regulatory requirement of the disclosing party's Confidential Information, subject to notifying the disclosing party as soon as possible of such requirement.

The receiving party's obligations under conditions (a), (b) and (c) above shall not apply to any part of the Confidential Information;

- 1) which is known by the receiving party at the date of disclosure and is not the subject of any restriction on disclosure imposed by a third party upon the receiving party; or
- 2) which is subsequently disclosed to the receiving party without restriction by any other person or company that is entitled to disclose the Confidential Information or relevant part thereof; or
- 3) which is in the public knowledge or subsequently comes into the public knowledge, other than by a breach of this Agreement.

This Agreement shall be governed and construed in all respects in accordance with the laws of England, and the parties hereto submit to the non-exclusive jurisdiction of the English Courts.

Signed on behalf of

Signed on behalf of

Party: The University of Leeds

Party:

Signature: .

Signature:

Title: Director, Research Support

Title:

Date:

Date:

Appendix B: Interview Schedule

(60 minute semi-structured interview)

Background Information

What is your current job title / role?

How long have you worked within the organisation?

In which area of the business / on what scheme do you work?

Do you have experience of working in other areas of the organisation?

What is your nationality?

To what level are you trained (i.e. degree, masters, PhD)?

In which country / countries have you been educated?

Working Preferences

Please tell me more about your job role and the characteristics that you prefer/do not prefer and why?

Prompts (*only use where necessary*):

Autonomy (being autonomous/independent/freedom/flexibility)

Job content (e.g., Task variety vs. skill variety)

Supervisor support (delegation/empowerment/responsibility/feedback/trust)

Development opportunities / training

Teamworking

Use of technology / automation

Work Values

What would you say are your work values?

What attracted you to the organisation?

Does your organisation support your work values?

How do you think your work values were developed / brought about?

Where relevant link to experience, culture of upbringing etc.

Prompts (*only use where necessary*):

Status - Advancement / Progression; Financial reward

Intrinsic - Personal growth; Challenging work; Skill development; Recognition

Extrinsic - Work life balance; Flexibility; Job security

Social - Affiliation (be part of an organisation/community); Social networks / relationships

Career Expectations

Who do you believe is responsible for a person's career – the organisation or the individual?

Please describe what you expect from your career, both now and in the future.

Have your career expectations changed since entering the workplace, and if so, how?

Do you believe there are age differences in career expectations, and if so, why?

Do you believe there are age differences in career mobility, and if so, why?

To what extent do you perceive career advancement opportunities in your organisation?

Working with other employees

How do you feel young people are currently perceived in the UK (e.g., media)?

How do you feel young people are currently perceived within your organisation?

To what extent do you feel you identify with such current perceptions of young people?

What are your perceptions of young people in the workplace?

Final Questions

Is there anything else we have not covered during the interview that you would like to add?

Do you have any further comments or questions about the research?

Pilot Interview Questions

Did you feel this interview was too long/short?

Did you feel that the questions were clear and made sense?

Have you found this interview experience useful?

Are there any changes you would recommend to be made?

Appendix C: Information Sheet for Interviewees

Young people are now entering employment and organisations. There are reports claiming they not only have different expectations of work (e.g., use of social media, preferred flexible/home working, faster progression), but also different work values and attitudes (e.g., less formality, individualistic focus, job mobility) as compared to previous generations. It is important to recognise the media hype around this topic and associated stereotypes, assumptions and exaggerations. With changing workforces there is now a growing need to understand how the design of jobs within organisations can accommodate young people, to improve individual performance and well-being, as well as overall organisational effectiveness.

This current work aims to investigate how organisations can cope with diverse ages to the best of their ability, as well as attract, recruit, retain and develop younger people. The research hopes to identify any real differences between generations through rigorous empirical research, which is currently lacking in this area.

The first stage of this research involves conducting some preliminary interviews with young members of **COMPANY**. Each semi-structured interview will last approximately one hour and will involve asking you about your work values, work preferences, career expectations, and your experience of different ages at work.

Interviews are voluntary (i.e., you have the right to withdraw at any time), confidential and all data will be stored securely. Your decision to participate, or not, in this research has no bearing on your employment in the organisation. Findings from the interviews will help to develop an online questionnaire to gather further information within the organisation during the second stage of research (early 2015). You will also be invited to participate in the online questionnaire.

We hope this is useful and would like to thank you for your time and participation.

If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact the lead researcher:

Lucy Bolton –Doctoral Researcher

Leeds University Business School, University of Leeds

bnleb@leeds.ac.uk

Appendix D: Consent Form for Interviewees

Consent to take part in research

	Add your initials next to the statement if you agree
I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 23/10/14 explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.	
<p>I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.</p> <p>In this case please contact the lead researcher: Lucy Bolton 0113 343 8286 / l.bolton@lubs.ac.uk</p> <p>Individual data will then be withdrawn from the dataset. NB. If interim reports/presentations have been provided to the organisation, it will be too late for individual responses to be removed from the analysed data.</p>	
I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research. I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential by the research team.	
I agree for the data collected from me to be used in relevant future research in an anonymised form.	
I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the lead researcher should my contact details change.	

Name of participant	
Participant's signature	
Date	
Name of lead researcher	Lucy Bolton
Signature	
Date*	

*To be signed and dated in the presence of the participant.

Once this has been signed by all parties the participant should receive a copy of the signed and dated participant consent form and the accompanying information sheet provided to the participants. A copy of the signed and dated consent form should be kept with the project's main documents which must be kept in a secure location.

Appendix E: Thematic Analysis Codebook (Generated by NVivo)

1	2	3	4	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
				Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By	
-				2 MOTIVATORS & EXPECTATIONS OF WORK		39	418	10/15/2018 9:05 AM	LEB	11/6/2018 5:39 PM	LEB
-				3 MEANING IN WORK (intrinsic)		38	161	3/24/2018 12:39 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:17 PM	LEB
				4 Recognition		16	50	3/24/2018 2:30 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 3:20 PM	LEB
	-			5 Challenge		18	36	5/16/2018 12:51 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:43 PM	LEB
				6 Interesting work vs boredom		20	32	3/24/2018 3:47 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 2:05 PM	LEB
				7 Enjoy work-passionate-JS		18	32	3/24/2018 2:42 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 3:05 PM	LEB
				8 Purpose at work-adding value		17	30	3/24/2018 12:25 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 6:03 PM	LEB
				9 Personal Growth (self-improvement)		11	13	8/14/2018 3:56 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 1:16 PM	LEB
	-			10 Money-Pay		28	88	3/24/2018 12:45 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 7:55 PM	LEB
				11 Financial pressures		12	27	3/24/2018 6:45 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:02 PM	LEB
	-			12 UPBRINGING-EDUCATION		34	76	3/24/2018 1:01 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:17 PM	LEB
				13 Upbringing-Family		23	34	7/25/2018 8:12 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:46 PM	LEB
				14 University-Degree		15	29	7/31/2018 3:50 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 7:57 PM	LEB
				16 School		11	13	7/31/2018 3:51 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 6:30 PM	LEB
				17 Variety in role (routine-diff tasks)		30	61	8/14/2018 11:06 AM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:43 PM	LEB
	-			18 Work Experience-previous jobs		18	32	3/24/2018 12:13 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 8:02 PM	LEB
				19 Reality of work		12	13	8/16/2018 2:43 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:11 PM	LEB
	-			20 FREEDOM - AUTONOMY-OWNERSHIP		39	337	3/24/2018 12:24 PM	LEB	10/15/2018 11:48 AM	LEB
				21 Flexibility		34	108	3/24/2018 12:35 PM	LEB	9/5/2018 11:14 AM	LEB
	-			22 Career Responsibility		38	78	3/24/2018 12:23 PM	LEB	9/5/2018 11:15 AM	LEB
				23 Individual Responsibility		35	58	8/8/2018 10:15 PM	LEB	9/5/2018 11:15 AM	LEB
				24 Organisational Responsibility		20	20	8/8/2018 10:15 PM	LEB	9/5/2018 11:15 AM	LEB
	-			25 Work-Life Balance		28	62	3/24/2018 12:34 PM	LEB	9/5/2018 11:14 AM	LEB
				26 Hours-working time		7	8	8/15/2018 10:41 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 4:07 PM	LEB

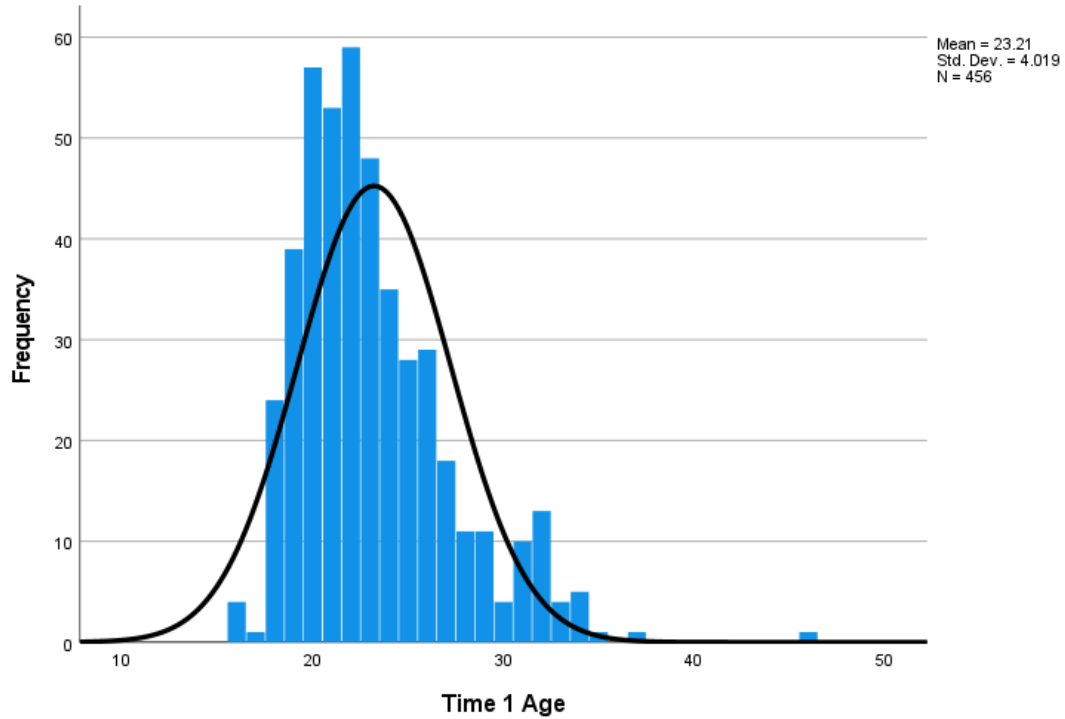
1	2	3	4	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
	-			27	Management-Delegation		31	58 3/24/2018 12:28 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 10:40 AM	LEB
	.			28	Structure-Direction		23	36 5/16/2018 12:46 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 1:58 PM	LEB
	.			29	Work style-Freedom		15	26 7/25/2018 11:30 AM	LEB	9/5/2018 11:15 AM	LEB
	.			30	Task Responsibility-Accountability		13	22 3/24/2018 2:31 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 1:38 PM	LEB
	.			31	Independence		11	20 5/16/2018 11:39 PM	LEB	8/15/2018 10:02 PM	LEB
	.			32	Trust		8	11 7/25/2018 11:29 AM	LEB	8/13/2018 5:57 PM	LEB
	-			33	'UP' (PROGRESSION)		38	277 10/15/2018 9:09 AM	LEB	10/15/2018 11:48 AM	LEB
	.			34	Career progression - importance of		25	52 3/24/2018 12:23 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 7:58 PM	LEB
	-			35	Ambition-Success		24	44 8/13/2018 10:46 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 8:04 PM	LEB
	.			36	Entrepreneurship		8	14 3/24/2018 12:47 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 10:38 AM	LEB
	-			37	Transparent career path		22	41 3/24/2018 12:18 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:51 PM	LEB
	.			38	Study-Prof Development		19	29 3/24/2018 4:22 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 3:06 PM	LEB
	.			39	Competing with Others		22	39 3/24/2018 2:45 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:04 PM	LEB
	.			40	Feedback from mngr		20	36 3/24/2018 2:24 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:16 PM	LEB
	.			41	Status at work		16	24 3/24/2018 12:45 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 3:15 PM	LEB
	.			42	Skills Development-Transferrable		16	24 5/15/2018 4:42 PM	LEB	8/15/2018 1:22 PM	LEB
	-			43	Confidence		9	17 8/13/2018 10:44 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 1:52 PM	LEB
	.			44	Speaking up (opinions)		13	19 8/13/2018 10:47 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:07 PM	LEB
	-			45	SPEED & MOBILITY ('NOW')		39	259 10/15/2018 9:09 AM	LEB	10/15/2018 11:48 AM	LEB
	.			46	Geographical Location		32	65 3/24/2018 12:09 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:55 PM	LEB
	.			47	Changing Career Paths		27	48 8/15/2018 1:27 PM	LEB	9/9/2018 6:00 PM	LEB
	.			48	Job Security - Stability		23	45 3/24/2018 12:47 PM	LEB	9/9/2018 6:00 PM	LEB
	-			49	'Job for Life' Philosophy		25	43 7/25/2018 12:11 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:09 PM	LEB
	.			50	Loyalty to Organisation		20	39 3/24/2018 12:59 PM	LEB	9/9/2018 6:01 PM	LEB
	-			51	Efficiency-Effort (daily work)		20	36 3/24/2018 2:44 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 7:58 PM	LEB

1	2	3	4	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
				52	Complacency in Role		22	34 3/24/2018 12:25 PM	LEB	9/9/2018 6:00 PM	LEB
				53	Learning at work - importance of new things		17	32 3/24/2018 12:14 PM	LEB	10/15/2018 10:37 AM	LEB
				54	Fast progression (time)		16	31 8/16/2018 12:52 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:10 PM	LEB
				55	Systems at work		5	6 8/16/2018 1:50 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:51 PM	LEB
				56	Job Market		13	22 3/24/2018 12:16 PM	LEB	9/9/2018 6:01 PM	LEB
				57	ORGANISATION VALUES		37	174 10/15/2018 9:09 AM	LEB	10/15/2018 11:50 AM	LEB
				58	Brand-Reputation		29	58 8/8/2018 4:01 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 8:00 PM	LEB
				59	Robust training-development		6	6 8/15/2018 9:26 PM	LEB	8/15/2018 11:08 PM	LEB
				60	Opp's by org-Investment in ppl		23	51 5/14/2018 7:40 PM	LEB	12/7/2018 9:31 AM	LEB
				61	Company support for career progression		10	13 8/16/2018 12:52 PM	LEB	10/15/2018 9:41 AM	LEB
				62	Company Benefits e.g., pension, discounts		7	7 8/15/2018 9:32 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 12:47 PM	LEB
				63	Org Values-Ethics		17	37 8/15/2018 9:25 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:07 PM	LEB
				64	Diversity in the workplace e.g., multicultural, female leaders		9	14 5/15/2018 1:05 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:11 PM	LEB
				65	Fairness		6	14 5/15/2018 12:30 PM	LEB	12/7/2018 9:32 AM	LEB
				66	COMMUNICATION & NETWORKS		35	99 3/24/2018 12:20 PM	LEB	10/15/2018 10:31 AM	LEB
				67	Comms with Manager		21	35 3/24/2018 12:20 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 1:46 PM	LEB
				68	Social networks at work		21	34 3/24/2018 2:38 PM	LEB	8/15/2018 10:51 PM	LEB
				69	Friendships outside work		17	21 8/14/2018 11:50 AM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:54 PM	LEB
				70	Role Models		9	9 7/25/2018 10:42 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:08 PM	LEB
				71	Team working (style etc.)		0	0 3/24/2018 12:29 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 8:03 PM	LEB
				72	Teamworking style-preference		24	33 8/14/2018 3:51 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 5:52 PM	LEB
				73	Lone working (vs)		13	15 8/14/2018 11:52 AM	LEB	8/14/2018 1:11 PM	LEB
				74	Comms within team		10	13 7/25/2018 10:40 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:59 PM	LEB
				75	Team diversity-make-up		7	8 8/14/2018 11:54 AM	LEB	8/14/2018 4:45 PM	LEB
				76	Affiliation to team-org		7	8 5/15/2018 12:29 PM	LEB	8/14/2018 5:47 PM	LEB

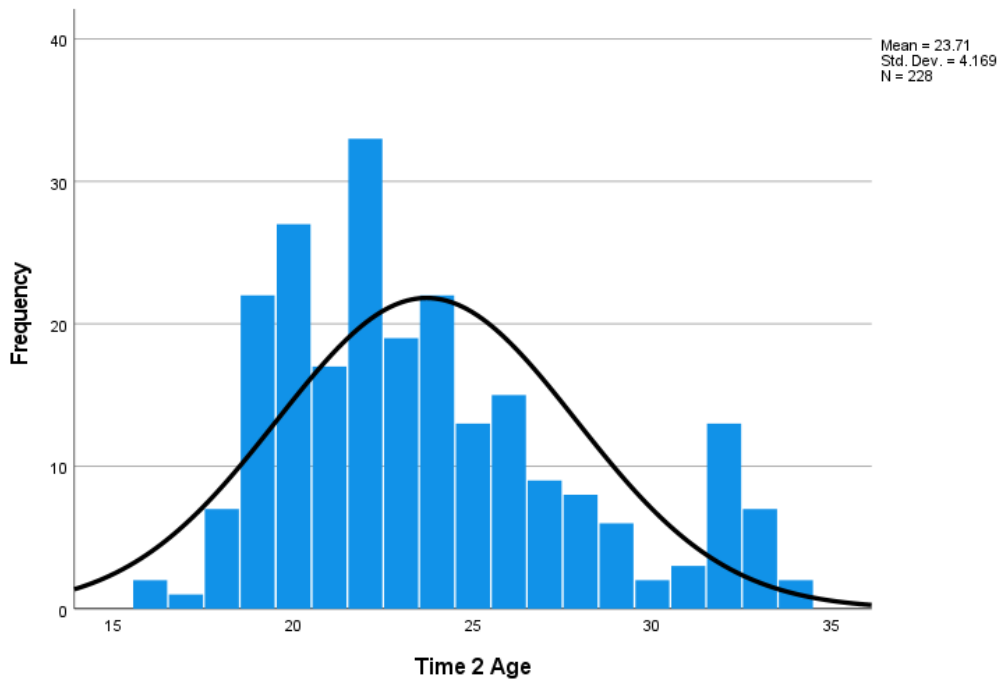
1	2	3	4	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	
-				77	GENERATIONAL STEREOTYPES		32	63	10/15/2018 10:40 AM	LEB	12/10/2018 1:55 PM	LEB
-				78	Generations-perceptions-conflict		35	99	3/24/2018 12:54 PM	LEB	7/25/2018 10:58 PM	LEB
				79	GenY		38	140	3/24/2018 12:54 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 10:41 PM	LEB
				80	BBoomers		16	31	3/24/2018 12:55 PM	LEB	7/31/2018 4:14 PM	LEB
				81	GenX		13	15	3/24/2018 12:54 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:05 PM	LEB
				82	GenZ		5	8	3/24/2018 12:54 PM	LEB	7/19/2018 9:38 PM	LEB
-				83	TECHNOLOGY		31	90	3/24/2018 12:34 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:17 PM	LEB
				84	Social Media Use		25	50	8/16/2018 4:28 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:12 PM	LEB
				85	Competence in using technology		18	24	8/16/2018 4:30 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:12 PM	LEB
				86	Digitalisation in the company		11	16	8/16/2018 4:31 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:12 PM	LEB
				87	Generational perceptions-age diff's		15	26	8/16/2018 4:32 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:04 PM	LEB
				88	Risk-taking		9	11	5/14/2018 6:36 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:22 PM	LEB
-				89	ORGANISATION TYPE		23	47	10/15/2018 10:39 AM	LEB	10/15/2018 11:50 AM	LEB
-				90	Organisational Climate		16	32	3/24/2018 5:39 PM	LEB	8/31/2018 8:00 PM	LEB
				91	Creativity-Fresh Ideas (vs traditional)		14	25	5/15/2018 4:23 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 11:08 PM	LEB
				92	XX Physical working environment		6	6	3/24/2018 4:20 PM	LEB	12/10/2018 12:02 PM	LEB
-				93	Size of organisation		10	15	8/15/2018 10:41 PM	LEB	12/7/2018 9:32 AM	LEB
				94	Decision-making-structures		8	15	3/24/2018 6:12 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 1:57 PM	LEB
-				95	XX Extra org notes (specific)		0	0	7/25/2018 11:32 AM	LEB	12/10/2018 1:05 PM	LEB
				96	MS company specific		13	83	3/24/2018 12:19 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:12 PM	LEB
				97	BT Specific Info		14	68	5/15/2018 3:48 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:12 PM	LEB
				98	Entering the organisations		30	52	3/24/2018 9:31 AM	LEB	8/15/2018 3:00 PM	LEB
				99	HS company specific		11	48	5/15/2018 6:34 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:12 PM	LEB
				100	PILOT Q'S		7	7	3/24/2018 1:09 PM	LEB	8/16/2018 5:12 PM	LEB
				101	GENDER DIFFERENCES		0	0	10/15/2018 10:41 AM	LEB	10/15/2018 11:48 AM	LEB

Appendix F: Frequency Distribution Histograms of Age at Three Time Points

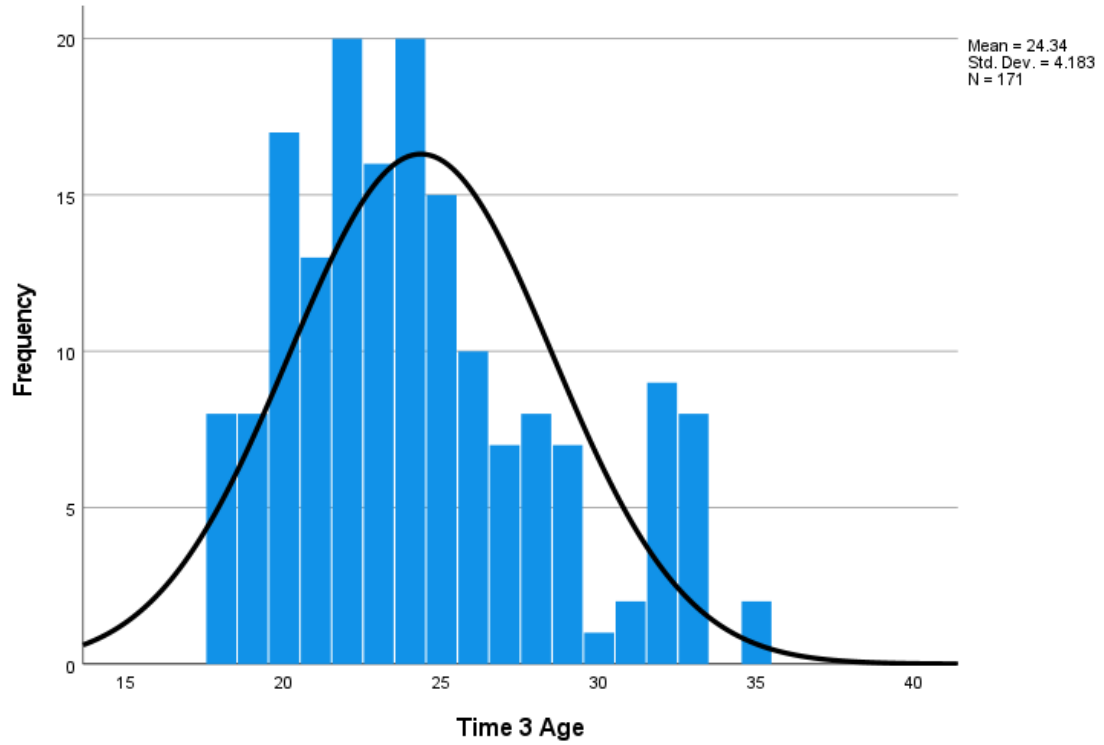
F.1 Frequency Distribution of Age at Time Point 1



F.2 Frequency Distribution of Age at Time Point 2



F.3 Frequency Distribution of Age at Time Point 3



Appendix G: Work Values Survey

NB. Not all of the measures were used at each time point. See Methods section for overview of which measures were used at which time point survey.

Opening Page:

Work Values & Careers Survey

Welcome and **THANK YOU** for taking part in this survey!

This research aims to understand the career preferences, work values and characteristics of young people in today's workplace, particularly when entering organisations. Your input is vital in order to help businesses to identify how career support and progression can be better developed and implemented to meet changing requirements.

The survey will take just 10 minutes (approx.) and all data collected will be held confidentially and securely. You have the right to withdraw from the survey and ask for your data to be removed up until the point it has been included in the final analysis. No individuals' data will be identifiable in the presentation of findings.

You will be asked to complete a survey at three time points in order to understand any changing preferences and /or values. The time points are approximately:

- Before you start your new role
- Within the first month of your new role (2-6 weeks)
- 3-4 months into your new role

Completing **ALL THREE SURVEYS** allows much more meaningful data to be generated, and you will also receive a small charity donation of your choice from the Researcher :-)
Don't forget to add in your email address if interested in this.

If you feel you cannot answer a question, please move onto the next one. Please be as honest and accurate as possible in your answers; there are no right or wrong answers in the survey. You will be asked for your age in the first question; please note that this is a required response to understand any generational differences that may occur in the workplace.

By clicking the progress button below you are agreeing to participate in this survey, confirming that you understand the research process and purpose, as well as how the research data will be used and stored.

If you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to contact Lucy Bolton, Chartered Psychologist and the Principal Investigator for this research on bnleb@leeds.ac.uk

Personal code

Since surveys require responses on different occasions, a personal code has to be created. This code helps us to match your responses without knowing your identity.

To create your personal code, you take the **first two letters** of your **mother's first name**, the **first two letters** of your **father's first name** and the **first two digits** of your **date of birth**.

Example: My mother's first name is **Susanne** and my father's first name is **Jonathan**, I was born on **06th** of June, therefore my personal code is: SuJo06

In case the father's name is not known, please use **XY**. If the mother's name is not known, use **XX**.

My personal code:

When did you start this role/training programme?

If fixed term, when are you due to finish this role/training programme?

SECTION A: Self-efficacy

New General Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001)

Five point scale used:

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neutral
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

To what extent do you agree with the following statements when in the workplace?

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.

3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at almost any endeavour to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

SECTION B: Work Values Survey (WVS) - Personal

The Lyons Work Values Survey (LWVS)

Revised 25-item format (Lyons et al., 2010; Lyons, 2003)

Personal Work Values

How likely is each item to be a **HIGH PRIORITY** for **YOU** when deciding whether to accept a potential job or stay in a job? Please select an answer from the columns.

	How likely is each item to be a HIGH PRIORITY for YOU when deciding whether to accept a potential job or stay in a job?				
1. Having benefits (e.g., vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan etc.) that meet your personal needs	1	2	3	4	5
2. Doing work that makes a significant impact on the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
3. Having the authority to organise and direct the work of others	1	2	3	4	5
4. Working on tasks and projects that challenge your abilities	1	2	3	4	5

5. Having management that provides timely and constructive feedback about your performance	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working with agreeable and friendly co-workers with whom you could form friendships	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in an environment that is lively and fun	1	2	3	4	5
8. Having the opportunity to continuously learn and develop new knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
9. Having the assurance of job security	1	2	3	4	5
10. Having hours of work that are convenient to your life	1	2	3	4	5
11. Doing work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging	1	2	3	4	5
12. Having the freedom to make decisions about how you do your work and spend your time	1	2	3	4	5
13. Working in an environment that allows you to balance your work life with your private life and family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
14. Having access to the information you need to do your job	1	2	3	4	5
15. Doing work that is prestigious and regarded highly by others	1	2	3	4	5
16. Doing work that affords you a good salary	1	2	3	4	5
17. Doing work that provides change and variety in work activities	1	2	3	4	5
18. Working where recognition is given for a job well done	1	2	3	4	5
19. Doing work that allows you to use the abilities you have developed through your education and experience	1	2	3	4	5

20. Having the opportunity for advancement in your career	1	2	3	4	5
21. Doing work that provides you with a personal sense of achievement in your accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5
22. Doing work that allows for a lot of social interaction	1	2	3	4	5
23. Having the ability to influence organisational outcomes	1	2	3	4	5
24. Working for a supervisor who is considerate and supportive	1	2	3	4	5
25. Doing work that allows you to help people	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: Work Values Survey (WVS) - Organisational

Organisational Work Values

Looking at the same work aspects, how likely is each item to be a **HIGH PRIORITY** for your **ORGANISATION**? Please select an answer from the columns.

	How likely is each item to be a HIGH PRIORITY for your organisation?				
1. Having benefits (e.g., vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan etc.) that meet your personal needs	1	2	3	4	5
2. Doing work that makes a significant impact on the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
3. Having the authority to organise and direct the work of others	1	2	3	4	5

4. Working on tasks and projects that challenge your abilities	1	2	3	4	5
5. Having management that provides timely and constructive feedback about your performance	1	2	3	4	5
6. Working with agreeable and friendly co-workers with whom you could form friendships	1	2	3	4	5
7. Working in an environment that is lively and fun	1	2	3	4	5
8. Having the opportunity to continuously learn and develop new knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
9. Having the assurance of job security	1	2	3	4	5
10. Having hours of work that are convenient to your life	1	2	3	4	5
11. Doing work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging	1	2	3	4	5
12. Having the freedom to make decisions about how you do your work and spend your time	1	2	3	4	5
13. Working in an environment that allows you to balance your work life with your private life and family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
14. Having access to the information you need to do your job	1	2	3	4	5
15. Doing work that is prestigious and regarded highly by others	1	2	3	4	5
16. Doing work that affords you a good salary	1	2	3	4	5
17. Doing work that provides change and variety in work activities	1	2	3	4	5
18. Working where recognition is given for a job well done	1	2	3	4	5

19. Doing work that allows you to use the abilities you have developed through your education and experience	1	2	3	4	5
20. Having the opportunity for advancement in your career	1	2	3	4	5
21. Doing work that provides you with a personal sense of achievement in your accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5
22. Doing work that allows for a lot of social interaction	1	2	3	4	5
23. Having the ability to influence organisational outcomes	1	2	3	4	5
24. Working for a supervisor who is considerate and supportive	1	2	3	4	5
25. Doing work that allows you to help people	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: Organisational Investiture (Socialisation Measure) - Ashforth, Sluss & Saks (2007)

Five point scale used:

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neutral
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your organisation?

1. My organisation accepts newcomers for who they are.
2. The organisation does not try to change the values and beliefs of newcomers.
3. The following statement describes the attitude of my organisation toward newcomers: 'We like you as you are; don't change'.
4. My organisation tries to transform newcomers into a different kind of person.
5. In this organisation, you must 'pay your dues' before you are fully accepted.

SECTION E: Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction – Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (Seashore, 1964, cited in McElroy & Morrow, 2010)

Please indicate as accurately as you can, your agreement with the following statements.

Five point scale used:

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neutral
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

1. All in all I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I really don't like my job.
3. In general, I like working here.

SECTION F: Demographics

F1 Personal

1. Gender: <options> Male / Female
2. Nationality:
3. Ethnicity:<options>
 - White
 - Black or African American
 - Asian
 - Mixed
 - Other
4. Highest education level: <options>
 - GCSE or equivalent
 - A level, BTEC, OCR Nationals, NVQs, HNCs, HND, Foundation Degree
 - Bachelor's degree or equivalent
 - Master's degree or equivalent
 - Doctoral degree or equivalent
 - Not stated
5. Home circumstances:<options> single without dependents; single with dependents; non-single without dependents; non-single with dependents
6. Where are you completing this questionnaire? <options> at work; outside of workplace

F2 Work-related

7. Industry where currently or due to be employed:
8. How long have you worked in this organisation (in years/months)?:
9. What is your job level:<options>
 - Intern/Placement
 - Apprentice
 - Graduate
 - Entry Level
 - Manager
 - Senior Manager
 - Director
 - Executive
 - President or CEO
 - Other

Closing Page:

Thank you for completing this survey. If you have any further questions or comments about this research please send them directly to myself, the Principal Researcher, Lucy Bolton, at bnleb@leeds.ac.uk

If there is anyone else you know who is in the age group 18-35 and who is starting a new job within one month, please feel free to share this survey link: https://leedsubs.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_2nqa9vnajMTZkgJ or alternatively ask them to contact the researcher directly. You will receive a reminder to complete the follow-up surveys at the various time points. Many thanks!

Appendix H: Non-Significant Outputs from PROCESS Mediated Moderation Models

H.1 Organisational Work Values (Extrinsic and Intrinsic)

Models

PWV Extrinsic

Considering the mediation effects for the extrinsic personal work values over the three time points of the moderated mediation model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.43), and time 2 and time 3 (.44) were found to be statistically significant with $p < 0.001$. The unstandardised regression coefficient between time 1 and time 3 (.26) was less significant with $p < 0.005$. The unstandardised indirect mediation effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.43)(.44) = .19$. The mediated indirect effect was not significant for when organisational extrinsic values were perceived to be high and organisational intrinsic values perceived to be low.

Extrinsic organisational work values were examined as a moderator variable on the relation between time 2 personal extrinsic work values and time 3 personal extrinsic work values. The interaction term between organisational extrinsic values and time 2 personal extrinsic values did not show a significant effect, $b = -.0993$, $t(110) = -.4095$, $p = .68$.

Intrinsic organisational work values were also examined as a moderator in the model on the relation between time 2 personal extrinsic work values and time 3 personal extrinsic work values. The interaction term between organisational intrinsic values and time 2 personal extrinsic values did not show a significant effect, $b = .1531$, $t(110) = .7454$, $p = .46$. From these results, hypothesis 2a is not supported.

PWV Intrinsic

Considering the mediation effects for the intrinsic personal work values over the three time points of the moderated mediation model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.82), and time 2 and time 3 (.39) were

found to be statistically significant with $p < 0.001$. The unstandardised regression coefficient between time 1 and time 3 (.34) was less significant with $p < 0.001$. The unstandardised indirect mediation effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.82)(.39) = .32$. The mediated indirect effect was not significant for when organisational extrinsic values were perceived to be high and organisational intrinsic values perceived to be low and medium, or when organisational extrinsic values are low and organisational intrinsic values were perceived to be high.

Extrinsic organisational work values were examined as a moderator variable on the relation between time 2 personal intrinsic work values and time 3 personal intrinsic work values. The interaction term between organisational extrinsic values and time 2 personal intrinsic values did not show a significant effect, $b = -.2298$, $t(113) = -1.4585$, $p = .15$.

Intrinsic organisational work values were also examined as a moderator in the model on the relation between time 2 personal intrinsic work values and time 3 personal intrinsic work values. The interaction term between organisational intrinsic values and time 2 personal intrinsic values did not show a significant effect, $b = .1133$, $t(113) = .8928$, $p = .37$. From these results, hypothesis 2b is not supported.

PWV Prestige

Considering the mediation effects for the prestige personal work values over the three time points of the moderated mediation model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.80), and time 2 and time 3 (.56) were found to be statistically significant with $p < 0.001$. The unstandardised regression coefficient between time 1 and time 3 (.27) was less significant with $p < 0.01$. The unstandardised indirect mediation effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.80)(.56) = .45$. The mediated indirect effect was not significant for when organisational extrinsic values were perceived to be low and organisational intrinsic values perceived to be high.

Extrinsic organisational work values were examined as a moderator variable on the relation between time 2 personal prestige work values and time 3 personal

prestige work values. The interaction term between organisational extrinsic values and time 2 personal prestige values did not show a significant effect, $b = .1547$, $t(119) = .9162$, $p = .36$.

Intrinsic organisational work values were also examined as a moderator in the model on the relation between time 2 personal prestige work values and time 3 personal prestige work values. The interaction term between organisational intrinsic values and time 2 personal prestige values did not show a significant effect, $b = -.2147$, $t(119) = -1.4881$, $p = .14$. From these results, hypothesis 2d is not supported.

H.2 Organisational Investiture Models

PWV Extrinsic

For the extrinsic personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.80; $p < 0.001$), time 2 and time 3 (.48; $p < 0.001$) and between time 1 and time 3 (.36; $p < 0.001$) were found to be statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.80)(.48) = .38$. The mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of organisational investiture and job satisfaction.

Organisational investiture was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal extrinsic work values and time 3 personal extrinsic work values. The interaction term between organisational investiture and time 2 personal extrinsic work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal extrinsic work values, $b = -.0271$, $t(118) = -.1253$, $p = .90$. Thus, hypothesis 3a is not supported in that organisational investiture negatively moderates personal extrinsic work values.

PWV Intrinsic

For the intrinsic personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.82; $p < 0.001$), and time 2 and time 3 (.47; $p < 0.001$) were found to be statistically significant, and between time 1 and time 3 (.23; $p < 0.1$) were found to be much less statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect

effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.82)(.47) = .39$. The mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of organisational investiture and job satisfaction, except when investiture was low and job satisfaction high.

Organisational investiture was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal intrinsic work values and time 3 personal intrinsic work values. The interaction term between organisational investiture and time 2 personal intrinsic work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal intrinsic work values, $b = .1268$, $t(121) = .7390$, $p = .46$. Thus, hypothesis 3b is not supported in that organisational investiture negatively moderates personal intrinsic work values.

PWV Social

For the social personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 ($.80$; $p < 0.001$), time 2 and time 3 ($.48$; $p < 0.001$) and between time 1 and time 3 ($.36$; $p < 0.001$) were found to be statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.80)(.48) = .38$. The mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of organisational investiture and job satisfaction.

Organisational investiture was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal social work values and time 3 personal social work values. The interaction term between organisational investiture and time 2 personal social work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal social work values, $b = -.1935$, $t(126) = -1.0440$, $p = .30$. Thus, hypothesis 3c is not supported in that organisational investiture negatively moderates personal social work values.

PWV Prestige

For the prestige personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 ($.79$; $p < 0.001$), time 2 and time 3 ($.53$; $p < 0.001$) and between time 1 and time 3 ($.25$; $p < 0.05$) were found to be statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.79)(.53) = .42$. The

mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of organisational investiture and job satisfaction.

Organisational investiture was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal prestige work values and time 3 personal prestige work values. The interaction term between organisational investiture and time 2 personal prestige work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal prestige work values, $b = .0161$, $t(127) = .1095$, $p = .91$. Thus, hypothesis 3d is not supported in that organisational investiture negatively moderates personal prestige work values.

H.3 Job Satisfaction Models

PWV – Social

The mediation outputs are summarised above with organisational investiture-social personal work values as the variables were all entered into the same model (PROCESS 16). Job satisfaction was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal social work values and time 3 personal social work values. The interaction term between job satisfaction and time 2 personal social work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal extrinsic work values, $b = .0171$, $t(126) = .0948$, $p = .93$. Thus, hypothesis 4c is not supported in that job satisfaction negatively moderates personal social work values.

PWV – Prestige

The mediation outputs are summarised above with organisational investiture-prestige personal work values as the variables were all entered into the same model (PROCESS 16). Job satisfaction was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal prestige work values and time 3 personal prestige work values. The interaction term between job satisfaction and time 2 personal prestige work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal prestige work values, $b = -.2003$, $t(127) = -1.0656$, $p = .29$. Thus, hypothesis 4d is not supported in that job satisfaction negatively moderates personal prestige work values.

H.4 Self-Efficacy Models

PWV Extrinsic

For the extrinsic personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.43; $p < 0.001$), time 2 and time 3 (.43; $p < 0.001$) and between time 1 and time 3 (.28; $p < 0.001$) were found to be statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.43)(.43) = .19$. The mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of self-efficacy and age, except for very young people with low self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal extrinsic work values and time 3 personal extrinsic work values. The interaction term between self-efficacy and time 2 personal extrinsic work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal extrinsic work values, $b = .0699$, $t(118) = .5409$, $p = .59$. Thus, hypothesis 5a is not supported in that self-efficacy positively moderates personal extrinsic work values.

PWV Intrinsic

For the intrinsic personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.84; $p < 0.001$), time 2 and time 3 (.39; $p < 0.001$) and between time 1 and time 3 (.35; $p < 0.001$) were found to be statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.84)(.39) = .33$. The mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of self-efficacy and age, except for very young people with low self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal intrinsic work values and time 3 personal intrinsic work values. The interaction term between self-efficacy and time 2 personal intrinsic work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal intrinsic work values, $b = .0424$, $t(121) = .3944$, $p = .69$. Thus, hypothesis 5b is not supported in that self-efficacy positively moderates personal intrinsic work values.

PWV Social

For the social personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.79; $p < 0.001$), time 2 and time 3 (.47; $p < 0.001$) and between time 1 and time 3 (.39; $p < 0.001$) were found to be statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.79)(.47) = .37$. The mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of self-efficacy and age.

Self-efficacy was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal social work values and time 3 personal social work values. The interaction term between self-efficacy and time 2 personal social work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal social work values, $b = .0149$, $t(126) = .1063$, $p = .92$. Thus, hypothesis 5c is not supported in that self-efficacy positively moderates personal social work values.

PWV Prestige

For the prestige personal work values model, the unstandardised regression coefficients between time 1 and time 2 (.81; $p < 0.001$), time 2 and time 3 (.46; $p < 0.001$) and between time 1 and time 3 (.30; $p < 0.01$) were found to be statistically significant. The unstandardised indirect effect from time 1 to time 3 was $(.81)(.46) = .37$. The mediated indirect effect was found to be significant across all levels of self-efficacy and age.

Self-efficacy was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal prestige work values and time 3 personal prestige work values. The interaction term between self-efficacy and time 2 personal prestige work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal prestige work values, $b = .1168$, $t(127) = 1.1672$, $p = .25$. Thus, hypothesis 5d is not supported in that self-efficacy positively moderates personal prestige work values.

H.5 Age Models

PWV Social

The mediation outputs are summarised above with self-efficacy-social personal work values as the variables were all entered into the same model (PROCESS 64).

Age was examined as a moderator of the relation between time 1 personal social work values and time 2 personal social work values (Path A). The interaction term between age and time 1 personal social work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 2 personal social work values, $b = .7191$, $t(129) = .4734$, $p = .47$. Age was also examined as a moderator of the relation between time 2 personal social work values and time 3 personal social work values (Path B). The interaction term between age and time 2 personal social work values did not explain a significant increase or decrease in the time 3 personal social work values, $b = .0217$, $t(126) = 1.4230$, $p = .16$. Thus, hypothesis 6c is not supported in that age positively moderates personal social work values.

Appendix I: Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA)

I.1 CFA Time 1 (version 1) Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts

Unstandardised coefficients

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T1_PHExtrinsic9 <--- T1_Extrinsic	1.000				
T1_PHExtrinsic8 <--- T1_Extrinsic	1.215	.146	8.350	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic7 <--- T1_Extrinsic	.611	.108	5.653	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic6 <--- T1_Extrinsic	.724	.108	6.719	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic5 <--- T1_Extrinsic	.802	.112	7.158	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic4 <--- T1_Extrinsic	.847	.124	6.820	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic3 <--- T1_Extrinsic	.713	.117	6.088	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic2 <--- T1_Extrinsic	.794	.122	6.532	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic1 <--- T1_Extrinsic	.525	.104	5.069	***	
T1_PHPreStige4 <--- T1_Prestige	1.000				
T1_PHPreStige3 <--- T1_Prestige	.974	.098	9.951	***	
T1_PHPreStige2 <--- T1_Prestige	.975	.100	9.777	***	
T1_PHPreStige1 <--- T1_Prestige	.870	.080	10.841	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic8 <--- T1_Intrinsic	1.000				
T1_PHIntrinsic7 <--- T1_Intrinsic	.933	.090	10.353	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic6 <--- T1_Intrinsic	.805	.104	7.732	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic5 <--- T1_Intrinsic	1.282	.113	11.323	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic4 <--- T1_Intrinsic	.481	.096	5.041	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic3 <--- T1_Intrinsic	.845	.080	10.567	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic2 <--- T1_Intrinsic	.819	.080	10.228	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic1 <--- T1_Intrinsic	1.072	.103	10.431	***	
T1_PHSocial4 <--- T1_Social	1.000				
T1_PHSocial3 <--- T1_Social	1.288	.208	6.182	***	
T1_PHSocial2 <--- T1_Social	1.331	.190	7.007	***	
T1_PHSocial1 <--- T1_Social	1.237	.178	6.941	***	

Model Intercepts

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T1_PHExtrinsic9	3.541	.033	108.807	***
T1_PHExtrinsic8	3.326	.037	89.594	***
T1_PHExtrinsic7	3.472	.032	109.754	***
T1_PHExtrinsic6	3.619	.030	119.732	***
T1_PHExtrinsic5	3.563	.031	115.721	***
T1_PHExtrinsic4	3.407	.035	98.244	***

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T1_PHExtrinsic3	3.548	.034	105.170	***
T1_PHExtrinsic2	3.425	.034	99.606	***
T1_PHExtrinsic1	3.507	.031	113.730	***
T1_PHPrestige4	2.930	.043	68.783	***
T1_PHPrestige3	2.850	.045	63.109	***
T1_PHPrestige2	2.653	.046	57.407	***
T1_PHPrestige1	3.367	.036	94.286	***
T1_PHIntrinsic8	3.544	.030	119.659	***
T1_PHIntrinsic7	3.623	.030	120.245	***
T1_PHIntrinsic6	3.322	.036	91.923	***
T1_PHIntrinsic5	3.222	.037	86.700	***
T1_PHIntrinsic4	3.328	.034	98.083	***
T1_PHIntrinsic3	3.705	.027	138.990	***
T1_PHIntrinsic2	3.728	.027	138.972	***
T1_PHIntrinsic1	3.355	.034	97.736	***
T1_PHSocial4	3.316	.039	84.607	***
T1_PHSocial3	2.973	.043	68.659	***
T1_PHSocial2	3.492	.033	105.563	***
T1_PHSocial1	3.558	.032	112.366	***

Covariance values

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T1_Extrinsic <--> T1_Prestige	.107	.018	5.774	***	
T1_Extrinsic <--> T1_Intrinsic	.095	.014	6.764	***	
T1_Social <--> T1_Extrinsic	.096	.017	5.678	***	
T1_Prestige <--> T1_Intrinsic	.166	.021	7.786	***	
T1_Social <--> T1_Prestige	.102	.020	5.200	***	
T1_Social <--> T1_Intrinsic	.091	.016	5.862	***	

I.2 CFA Time 1 (version 2) Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts

Unstandardised coefficients

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T1_PHExtrinsic9	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	1.000				
T1_PHExtrinsic8	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	1.205	.139	8.635	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic7	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.578	.104	5.548	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic6	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.649	.102	6.359	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic5	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.751	.107	7.035	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic4	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.753	.117	6.415	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic3	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.638	.112	5.710	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic2	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.787	.118	6.691	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic1	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.474	.100	4.759	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic8	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	1.000				
T1_PHIntrinsic7	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	.987	.098	10.088	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic6	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	.834	.111	7.500	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic5	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	1.364	.124	11.005	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic4	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	.462	.101	4.594	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic3	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	.847	.086	9.839	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic2	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	.811	.086	9.455	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic1	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	1.146	.112	10.237	***	
T1_PHSocial1	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	1.015	.119	8.561	***	
T1_PHSocial2	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	1.090	.125	8.718	***	
T1_PHSocial3	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	1.132	.153	7.413	***	
T1_PHSocial4	<---	T1_Extrinsic_Social	.973	.136	7.132	***	
T1_PHPrestige1	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	1.301	.119	10.939	***	
T1_PHPrestige2	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	1.141	.143	7.957	***	
T1_PHPrestige3	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	1.298	.143	9.059	***	
T1_PHPrestige4	<---	T1_Intrinsic_Prestige	1.263	.136	9.297	***	

Model Intercepts

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T1_PHExtrinsic9	3.541	.033	108.812	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic8	3.326	.037	89.612	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic7	3.472	.032	109.755	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic6	3.619	.030	119.781	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic5	3.562	.031	115.727	***	

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T1_PHExtrinsic4	3.408	.035	98.370	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic3	3.548	.034	105.150	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic2	3.425	.034	99.616	***	
T1_PHExtrinsic1	3.507	.031	113.730	***	
T1_PHPrestige4	2.930	.043	68.735	***	
T1_PHPrestige3	2.850	.045	63.086	***	
T1_PHPrestige2	2.653	.046	57.382	***	
T1_PHPrestige1	3.366	.036	94.253	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic8	3.544	.030	119.671	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic7	3.623	.030	120.307	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic6	3.322	.036	91.948	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic5	3.223	.037	86.742	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic4	3.328	.034	98.083	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic3	3.706	.027	138.979	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic2	3.728	.027	138.987	***	
T1_PHIntrinsic1	3.355	.034	97.811	***	
T1_PHSocial4	3.316	.039	84.613	***	
T1_PHSocial3	2.973	.043	68.636	***	
T1_PHSocial2	3.492	.033	105.525	***	
T1_PHSocial1	3.557	.032	112.277	***	

Covariance values

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T1_Intrinsic_Prestige <--> T1_Extrinsic_Social	.097	.014	7.072	***	

I.3 CFA Time 2 Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts

Unstandardised coefficients

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T2OHExtrinsic9 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	1.000			
T2OHExtrinsic8 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.853	.087	9.796	***
T2OHExtrinsic7 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.899	.095	9.501	***
T2OHExtrinsic6 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.756	.082	9.217	***
T2OHExtrinsic5 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.998	.094	10.564	***
T2OHExtrinsic4 <--- T2_OrgExtrinsic	.900	.097	9.250	***

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T2OHExtrinsic3	<---	T2_OrgExtrinsic	.898	.095	9.419	***
T2OHExtrinsic2	<---	T2_OrgExtrinsic	.831	.091	9.180	***
T2OHExtrinsic1	<---	T2_OrgExtrinsic	.710	.089	7.984	***
T2OHPrestige4	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	1.000			
T2OHPrestige3	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	.930	.124	7.492	***
T2OHPrestige2	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	.736	.118	6.261	***
T2OHPrestige1	<---	T2_OrgPrestige	.956	.108	8.891	***
T2OHIntrinsic8	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	1.000			
T2OHIntrinsic7	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.791	.072	11.062	***
T2OHIntrinsic6	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.807	.075	10.706	***
T2OHIntrinsic5	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.939	.077	12.220	***
T2OHIntrinsic4	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.740	.083	8.934	***
T2OHIntrinsic3	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.853	.076	11.231	***
T2OHIntrinsic2	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.740	.071	10.385	***
T2OHIntrinsic1	<---	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.727	.074	9.821	***
T2OHSocial4	<---	T2_OrgSocial	1.000			
T2OHSocial3	<---	T2_OrgSocial	1.731	.448	3.866	***
T2OHSocial2	<---	T2_OrgSocial	2.527	.605	4.175	***
T2OHSocial1	<---	T2_OrgSocial	2.422	.577	4.196	***
T2PHExtrinsic9	<---	T2_Extrinsic	1.000			
T2PHExtrinsic8	<---	T2_Extrinsic	1.055	.137	7.690	***
T2PHExtrinsic7	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.318	.111	2.872	.004
T2PHExtrinsic6	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.583	.109	5.360	***
T2PHExtrinsic5	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.862	.122	7.090	***
T2PHExtrinsic4	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.599	.110	5.445	***
T2PHExtrinsic3	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.436	.111	3.913	***
T2PHExtrinsic2	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.805	.137	5.866	***
T2PHExtrinsic1	<---	T2_Extrinsic	.384	.117	3.283	.001
T2PHPrestige4	<---	T2_Prestige	1.000			
T2PHPrestige3	<---	T2_Prestige	.708	.083	8.538	***
T2PHPrestige2	<---	T2_Prestige	.795	.078	10.136	***
T2PHPrestige1	<---	T2_Prestige	.735	.066	11.157	***
T2PHIntrinsic8	<---	T2_Intrinsic	1.000			
T2PHIntrinsic7	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.916	.106	8.669	***
T2PHIntrinsic6	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.855	.107	8.018	***
T2PHIntrinsic5	<---	T2_Intrinsic	1.134	.113	10.003	***
T2PHIntrinsic4	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.539	.097	5.565	***
T2PHIntrinsic3	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.804	.089	9.031	***
T2PHIntrinsic2	<---	T2_Intrinsic	.710	.086	8.209	***
T2PHIntrinsic1	<---	T2_Intrinsic	1.039	.111	9.384	***
T2PHSocial4	<---	T2_Social	1.000			

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T2PHSocial3	<---	T2_Social	1.187	.170	7.002	***
T2PHSocial2	<---	T2_Social	.794	.120	6.607	***
T2PHSocial1	<---	T2_Social	.819	.119	6.860	***
T2SelfEff2	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	1.000			
T2SelfEff3	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.828	.081	10.175	***
T2SelfEff4	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.984	.100	9.868	***
T2SelfEff5	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.817	.082	9.954	***
T2SelfEff6	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.990	.089	11.180	***
T2SelfEff7	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.734	.095	7.768	***
T2SelfEff8	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.800	.088	9.142	***
T2OrgInvest1	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	1.000			
T2OrgInvest2	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	1.241	.095	13.068	***
T2OrgInvest3	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	1.187	.095	12.466	***
T2OrgInvest4	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.980	.107	-9.174	***
T2JobSat1	<---	T2_Job_Sat	1.000			
T2JobSat2NEG	<---	T2_Job_Sat	-1.072	.062	-17.169	***
T2JobSat3	<---	T2_Job_Sat	.988	.058	17.003	***
T2SelfEff1	<---	T2_SelfEfficacy	.896	.086	10.414	***
T2OrgInvest5	<---	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.994	.114	-8.684	***

Model Intercepts

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T2OHExtrinsic9	3.136	.056	56.113	***
T2OHExtrinsic8	3.040	.057	52.999	***
T2OHExtrinsic7	2.884	.062	46.443	***
T2OHExtrinsic6	3.338	.054	62.265	***
T2OHExtrinsic5	3.029	.063	48.139	***
T2OHExtrinsic4	2.944	.064	46.304	***
T2OHExtrinsic3	3.031	.062	48.540	***
T2OHExtrinsic2	3.242	.059	54.818	***
T2OHExtrinsic1	3.147	.057	54.952	***
T2OHPrestige4	2.841	.062	45.582	***
T2OHPrestige3	2.703	.068	39.985	***
T2OHPrestige2	2.782	.065	42.776	***
T2OHPrestige1	3.237	.057	56.817	***
T2OHIntrinsic8	2.967	.064	46.595	***
T2OHIntrinsic7	3.028	.059	51.436	***
T2OHIntrinsic6	3.052	.062	49.543	***
T2OHIntrinsic5	2.880	.065	44.554	***

T2OHIntrinsic4	2.746	.066	41.843	***
T2OHIntrinsic3	2.943	.063	46.946	***
T2OHIntrinsic2	3.254	.058	56.263	***
T2OHIntrinsic1	3.103	.060	52.125	***
T2OHSocial4	3.107	.062	49.741	***
T2OHSocial3	2.920	.063	46.422	***
T2OHSocial2	2.976	.065	46.002	***
T2OHSocial1	3.202	.060	53.633	***
T2PHExtrinsic9	3.478	.040	87.651	***
T2PHExtrinsic8	3.159	.051	61.590	***
T2PHExtrinsic7	3.401	.042	80.379	***
T2PHExtrinsic6	3.560	.041	86.381	***
T2PHExtrinsic5	3.560	.046	78.030	***
T2PHExtrinsic4	3.557	.042	85.423	***
T2PHExtrinsic3	3.557	.042	83.891	***
T2PHExtrinsic2	3.267	.052	62.982	***
T2PHExtrinsic1	3.528	.045	79.101	***
T2PHPrestige4	2.741	.062	43.978	***
T2PHPrestige3	2.648	.064	41.537	***
T2PHPrestige2	2.477	.062	40.140	***
T2PHPrestige1	3.152	.053	59.878	***
T2PHIntrinsic8	3.402	.050	68.441	***
T2PHIntrinsic7	3.359	.051	66.190	***
T2PHIntrinsic6	3.219	.051	62.695	***
T2PHIntrinsic5	3.118	.054	57.660	***
T2PHIntrinsic4	3.328	.047	70.880	***
T2PHIntrinsic3	3.600	.043	84.305	***
T2PHIntrinsic2	3.586	.042	86.160	***
T2PHIntrinsic1	3.161	.053	59.649	***
T2PHSocial4	3.263	.054	60.754	***
T2PHSocial3	2.885	.064	45.293	***
T2PHSocial2	3.461	.046	75.171	***
T2PHSocial1	3.480	.045	77.048	***
T2SelfEff2	4.026	.058	69.063	***
T2SelfEff3	4.218	.051	83.025	***
T2SelfEff4	4.048	.062	65.078	***
T2SelfEff5	4.114	.051	80.380	***
T2SelfEff6	4.183	.055	75.585	***
T2SelfEff7	3.891	.059	66.425	***
T2SelfEff8	3.939	.054	72.339	***
T2OrgInvest1	4.027	.067	60.002	***
T2OrgInvest2	3.786	.075	50.277	***

T2OrgInvest3	3.506	.076	46.409	***
T2OrgInvest4	2.529	.082	30.906	***
T2JobSat1	3.940	.067	58.757	***
T2JobSat2NEG	2.074	.074	27.972	***
T2JobSat3	4.002	.069	58.219	***
T2SelfEff1	4.162	.054	77.465	***
T2OrgInvest5	2.496	.087	28.635	***

Covariance values

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgPrestige	.283	.046	6.164	***
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.161	.043	3.781	***
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.441	.057	7.770	***
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.141	.037	3.782	***
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.405	.059	6.894	***
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.091	.028	3.312	***
T2_Intrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.193	.033	5.825	***
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.297	.044	6.723	***
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_Social	.230	.043	5.404	***
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_Prestige	.132	.031	4.273	***
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.161	.026	6.201	***
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.167	.028	5.895	***
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.139	.027	5.136	***
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Prestige	.192	.043	4.423	***
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.147	.031	4.787	***
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.161	.033	4.828	***
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.120	.028	4.302	***
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Prestige	.321	.053	6.008	***
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.199	.037	5.356	***
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Social	.066	.021	3.158	.002
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.134	.030	4.473	***
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Prestige	.341	.055	6.151	***
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_Social	.202	.040	5.088	***
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.047	.016	2.989	.003
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Prestige	.091	.029	3.171	.002
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.047	.017	2.776	.006
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.177	.035	5.101	***
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_Social	.180	.037	4.862	***
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.121	.035	3.505	***
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.123	.037	3.319	***

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.140	.040	3.476	***
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.042	.018	2.306	.021
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.047	.023	1.981	.048
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.149	.042	3.534	***
T2_Intrinsic	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.109	.029	3.768	***
T2_Social	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.080	.029	2.765	.006
T2_SelfEfficacy	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.120	.040	2.969	.003
T2_OrgSocial	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.073	.025	2.879	.004
T2_OrgIntrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.154	.047	3.260	.001
T2_OrgPrestige	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.112	.042	2.625	.009
T2_OrgExtrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.186	.043	4.362	***
T2_Extrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.021	.027	.768	.443
T2_Prestige	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.006	.047	-.137	.891
T2_Intrinsic	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.030	.031	.951	.342
T2_Social	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	-.014	.032	-.446	.656
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_SelfEfficacy	.190	.047	4.037	***
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgInvestiture	.336	.060	5.588	***
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgExtrinsic	.246	.049	5.043	***
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgPrestige	.221	.051	4.313	***
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgIntrinsic	.284	.057	5.023	***
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_OrgSocial	.092	.030	3.067	.002
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Extrinsic	.037	.031	1.182	.237
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Prestige	.208	.056	3.705	***
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Intrinsic	.142	.038	3.724	***
T2_Job_Sat	<-->	T2_Social	.091	.038	2.386	.017

I.4 CFA Time 3 Unstandardised coefficients, covariance values and model intercepts

Unstandardised coefficients

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	
T3PHExtrinsic9	<---	T3_Extrinsic	1.000			
T3PHExtrinsic8	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.902	.135	6.701	***
T3PHExtrinsic7	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.398	.120	3.313	***
T3PHExtrinsic6	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.563	.111	5.080	***
T3PHExtrinsic5	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.568	.106	5.350	***
T3PHExtrinsic4	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.367	.104	3.518	***

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T3PHExtrinsic3	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.477	.102	4.667	***
T3PHExtrinsic2	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.797	.134	5.958	***
T3PHExtrinsic1	<---	T3_Extrinsic	.488	.119	4.109	***
T3PHPrestige4	<---	T3_Prestige	1.000			
T3PHPrestige3	<---	T3_Prestige	.722	.096	7.547	***
T3PHPrestige2	<---	T3_Prestige	.907	.103	8.811	***
T3PHPrestige1	<---	T3_Prestige	.528	.084	6.295	***
T3PHIntrinsic8	<---	T3_Intrinsic	1.000			
T3PHIntrinsic7	<---	T3_Intrinsic	.839	.126	6.635	***
T3PHIntrinsic6	<---	T3_Intrinsic	.848	.121	7.036	***
T3PHIntrinsic5	<---	T3_Intrinsic	1.084	.141	7.679	***
T3PHIntrinsic4	<---	T3_Intrinsic	.778	.125	6.222	***
T3PHIntrinsic3	<---	T3_Intrinsic	.873	.108	8.064	***
T3PHIntrinsic2	<---	T3_Intrinsic	.834	.114	7.347	***
T3PHIntrinsic1	<---	T3_Intrinsic	.948	.136	6.980	***
T3PHSocial4	<---	T3_Social	1.000			
T3PHSocial3	<---	T3_Social	1.078	.191	5.633	***
T3PHSocial2	<---	T3_Social	1.023	.161	6.357	***
T3PHSocial1	<---	T3_Social	1.095	.169	6.461	***

Model Intercepts

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T3PHExtrinsic9	3.454	.054	64.248	***
T3PHExtrinsic8	3.299	.058	57.243	***
T3PHExtrinsic7	3.479	.053	65.301	***
T3PHExtrinsic6	3.633	.048	74.953	***
T3PHExtrinsic5	3.663	.046	78.997	***
T3PHExtrinsic4	3.593	.046	77.921	***
T3PHExtrinsic3	3.614	.045	80.579	***
T3PHExtrinsic2	3.394	.058	58.590	***
T3PHExtrinsic1	3.506	.052	66.911	***
T3PHPrestige4	2.849	.075	38.169	***
T3PHPrestige3	2.825	.071	39.605	***
T3PHPrestige2	2.568	.076	33.923	***
T3PHPrestige1	3.265	.062	52.504	***
T3PHIntrinsic8	3.542	.049	72.740	***
T3PHIntrinsic7	3.512	.054	65.326	***
T3PHIntrinsic6	3.410	.051	66.565	***
T3PHIntrinsic5	3.247	.060	54.148	***

T3PHIntrinsic4	3.450	.053	64.948	***
T3PHIntrinsic3	3.645	.046	79.335	***
T3PHIntrinsic2	3.645	.048	75.526	***
T3PHIntrinsic1	3.248	.058	56.274	***
T3PHSocial4	3.259	.068	47.938	***
T3PHSocial3	2.910	.072	40.257	***
T3PHSocial2	3.404	.057	60.179	***
T3PHSocial1	3.434	.059	58.488	***

Covariance values

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
T3_Social	<-->	T3_Intrinsic	.178	.036	4.967	***
T3_Prestige	<-->	T3_Intrinsic	.231	.043	5.326	***
T3_Social	<-->	T3_Prestige	.170	.047	3.640	***
T3_Extrinsic	<-->	T3_Prestige	.162	.043	3.744	***
T3_Extrinsic	<-->	T3_Intrinsic	.166	.031	5.422	***
T3_Social	<-->	T3_Extrinsic	.178	.038	4.685	***

Appendix J: Conference Poster Presentations

Bolton, L.E. (2019). *“Fitting In”...understanding the values, expectations and mindsets of young people entering the workplace* Poster presentation at the 3rd Annual Middle East Psychological Association (MEPA) Conference and Expo 2019, 14th-16th March, Kuwait.

Bolton, L., Clarkson, G., & Clegg, C. (2015). “Generation Me, Me, Me”?? Accommodating Generation Y in the Workplace, Poster Presentation at the British Psychological Society’s Division of Occupational Psychology Conference 2015, 7th-9th January, Glasgow, UK.