# ABSTRACT

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| Title of Thesis: | DEVELOPMENT AND INITIAL VALIDATION OF A MEASURE OF CONFIDENCE AT SELF-ADVOCACY AT WORK |
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The purpose of the present study was to develop and validate a measure of Confidence at Self-Advocact at Work (CASA-W). CASA-W is designed to assess one's confidence at advocating for themselves in workplaces. Data were collected throughQualtrics from 200 full-time employees using Prime Panels as the recruitment platform. Results of the exploratory factor analysis indicated that the CASA-W consists of two underlying factors with a total of 18 items. The CASA-W total and subscale scores produced adequate internal consistency reliability estimates. Convergent and construct validity was supported by the relationship between CASA-W scores and measures of workplace self-efficacy (i.e., voice self-efficacy, occupational self-efficacy), proactive personality, and perceived organizational support. In terms of criterion-related validity, the CASA-W correlated as expected with measures of self-advocacy behaviors (voice, career initiative, job change negotiation) and outcomes of self-advocacy (organizational rewards growth, hierarchical status, career satisfaction). The CASA-W was also found to account for

unique variance in each of the behavior and outcome variables after controlling for demographic variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support. Implications for theory, future research, and practice were discussed.

# DEVELOPMENT AND INITIAL VALIDATION OF A MEASURE OF CONFIDENCE AT SELF-ADVOCACY AT WORK

by

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Thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, College Park, in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts
2021

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# Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I am would like to express my gratitude to my advisor, Bob Lent, for believing in my abilities and guiding me through every step of the research process. Bob, thank you for your valuable support, encouragement, and detailed feedback in this process. I would like to also thank my committee members Clara E. Hill and Dennis Kivlighan, who asked me thoughtful questions, provided insightful feedback and support, making my thesis better.

Next, I would like to extend my sincere thanks to the reviewers of my measure, Karen O'Brien and Kerrie Wilkins-Yel, for their constructive and helpful feedback on the content of my measure. I also am extremely grateful for my fellow Lentil Lab members, Glenn Ireland, Taylor Morris, Jason Wang, and Emily Cygrymus, for their consistent feedback through key stages of my project.

Getting through the thesis process required more than academic support, and I have many of my friends and family to thank for supporting me in the past two and half years. Thank you for the love and support they all have provided to help me through this process.

I also would like to thank all the researchers for their invaluable contributions in the field of adult career issues, in turn, helping me design this project. Lastly, I would like to thank the participants in this study for taking the time to provide me with valuable information about themselves making the study possible.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

Counseling psychology has long focused on issues of career choice and development, though it has tended to emphasize preparation for and entry into careers more than how people adjust to work after they make an initial career choice (Hackett et al., 1991). This focus has probably primarily been a result of the historical emergence of counseling psychology within college and veterans administration settings that serve the needs of late adolescents and young adults (Whiteley, 1984). In recent years, there has been a concerted effort within the field to balance the emphasis on career choice in educational settings with that of career adjustment in work settings. For example, Lent and Brown (2013) have recently extended social cognitive career theory (SCCT) by developing a model of career self-management (CSM) focusing on processes through which people help to manage both developmentally on-time, expected tasks, and non-normative events in their work lives.

To this point, the CSM model has been applied to a variety of career issues, including career decision-making (Ireland & Lent, 2018; Lent et al., 2016, 2017, 2019), job searching (Kim et al., 2019; Lim et al., 2016), managing work and non-work roles (Kim et al., 2018; Roche et al., 2017), retirement planning (Penn, 2019), and managing sexual minority identity in the workplace (Tatum, 2018; Tatum et al., 2017). However, one issue that has yet to receive much attention in thecounseling psychology literature generally, or in research on the CSM model, in particular, is how people steer their work behavior in order to advance their careers

proactively or to adjust reactively to conditions they experience as aversive. This broad topic has received a good deal of attention in the organizational psychology literature under the heading of proactive personality and related constructs (e.g., career initiative). The purpose of the current study is to develop a novel measure of self-assertive efficacy (Bandura, 2006) or confidence at self-advocacy at work, that can both extend research on the CSM model and build a bridge between counseling and organizational psychology inquiry on employee proactivity. The terms self-assertive and self-advocacy will be used interchangeably in this paper, though the latter will be used more often for ease of presentation.

In the remainder of this section, I will (a) provide an overview of the CSM model (b) introduce the topic of self-advocacy behaviors and related constructs from the organizational and management literature, and (c) situate the construct of confidence at self-advocacy within the CSM model. I will then describe the proposed study, which is intended to develop, and provide preliminary validation for, a measure of confidence at self-advocacy at work in adult workers.

### *The Career Self-Management Model*

SCCT's interest and choice models have been extended to include a model of career self-management (CSM) that is designed to describe the processes by which individuals make school and career decisions and manage critical developmental tasks, challenges, and crises (Lent & Brown, 2013). In the CSM model, the three social cognitive variables – self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and goals – relate to the adaptive actions individuals take in their work lives. For example, having goals to change jobs is assumed to impact the actions individuals take to find a job,

with goals being partly a result of job search self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. Self-efficacy is one's beliefs about their ability to perform certain behaviors or actions, and outcome expectations are expectations about possible outcomes of engaging in that behavior. The model further posits that performing actions will increase the probability of achieving favorable outcomes. Actions and outcomes are also subject to other influences, such as personality traits and contextual supports and barriers. As shown in Figure 1, certain person and contextual variables play different roles in the model (e.g., as direct or indirect precursors of actions or outcomes or as moderators of goal-action and action-outcome relationships).

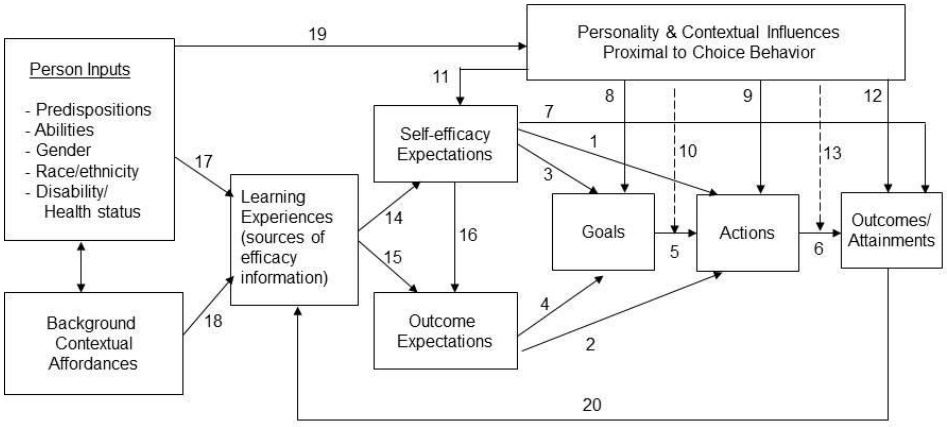



*Figure 1.* Model of career self-management. Adapted from "Toward a unifying social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance," by R.W. Lent, S.D. Brown, & G. Hackett, 1994, Journal of Vocational Behavior, 45, p.93. Copyright 1993 by R. W. Lent, S.D. Brown, & G. Hackett. Reprinted with permission.

In the CSM model, adaptive career behaviors are defined as skills people develop and engage in proactively and reactively to guide their own career development. These behaviors are divided into two clusters: (a) normative and proactive developmental tasks and (b) coping skills and processes. Normative and proactive developmental tasks include age related cognitive developmental tasks (e.g., self-regulation and problem-solving skills) and career-relevant tasks that help individuals explore, establish, and maintain their careers (e.g., exploring potential career paths based on one's interests and skills, applying for colleges and jobs, engaging in self-advocacy). Coping skills and processes are reactive behaviors that people use to negotiate life-role transitions and adjust to challenging work and work-life situations like role conflicts and work stress.

As in its other applications (e.g., career decision-making, Lent et al., 2016), the CSM model can be adapted to the study of self-advocacy behavior, its antecedents, and consequences. In the following section, I introduce the construct of self-advocacy behavior, relate it to the topic of proactive career behaviors, and situate this construct within the CSM model. I suggest that confidence at self-advocacy at work may be a useful precursor of engagement in self-advocacy behaviors, one that functions along with other important predictors, such as proactive personality and organizational support. Because a measure of this type of self-efficacy is not currently available, I propose to develop one in this study and provide initial estimates of its reliability and validity.

*Self-Advocacy Behavior*

The concept of self-advocacy is relevant to the topic of proactive career behavior in the organizational psychology and management literatures. Self-advocacy may be seen as an adaptive career behavior that workers use to assist themselves in the development of their careers and to cope with specific challenges. It involves workers' capacity to speak or act on their behalf to advance their career goals, achieve a better P-E fit, and address grievances or inequalities. It is a behavior that can have either proactive or reactive objectives. Examples of proactive self-advocacy include asking for a raise or requesting a promotion; reactive examples include declining requests for longer work hours or responding assertively to perceived discrimination.

To provide a conceptual definition, confidence at self-advocacy at work (CASA-W) refers to beliefs about one's ability to stand up for oneself at work so that one might receive fair treatment, accomplish things that are personally important, address their needs, and try to correct unfair or unsafe conditions. Self-advocacy involves asking for what an individual wants (or making clear what they do not want), even though it does not guarantee they will succeed. As with the broader concept of self -assertiveness (Alberti & Emmons, 2017; D. R. Ames & Flynn, 2007; Richins & Verhage, 1987), CASA-W is seen as communication that is respectful of the rights of others while trying to promote one's own agenda (e.g., well-being at work or advancing one's own career).

CASA-W is conceptually related to Bandura's (2006) notion of self-assertive efficacy, referring to perceived ability to advocate for oneself and stand firm in

challenging situations. Whereas Bandura introduced self-assertive efficacy as a general capability (i.e., one that could be adapted to different situations), CASA-W applies it specifically to behavior in the workplace. Rather than reflecting confidence in one's ability to perform one's routine job functions, it involves self-efficacy at performing extra-role behaviors designed to protect one's work interests and promote one's work sustainability (e.g., asking for a pay raise, promotion, or training). The proposed study situates the construct of CASA-W in the CSM model and aims to extend the CSM literature to understand how individuals act proactively and reactively on their behalf in workplaces. Study of the process by which individuals self-advocate at work is seen as having implications for career satisfaction and career success.

### Career Self-Management Model applied to Self-Advocacy Behavior

Figure 2 is a simplified version of the CSM model that includes only those parts of the model relevant to the current study. As shown in the figure, CASA-W may be conceptualized as a precursor of advocacy behaviors, such as voice. Proactive personality, as a trait variable, is seen as predictive of advocacy behaviors both directly and indirectly, through its relation to CASA-W. A person who exhibits high levels of proactive personality is defined as "one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change" (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 105). Perceived organizational support (POS; i.e., the perception that one is treated fairly by the work organization) is also seen as potentially predictive of both CASA-W and engagement in advocacy behaviors. POS may also be directly related to career satisfaction, career growth, and objective career success. Further CASA-W

is expected to relate to career success and career growth through advocacy behavior.

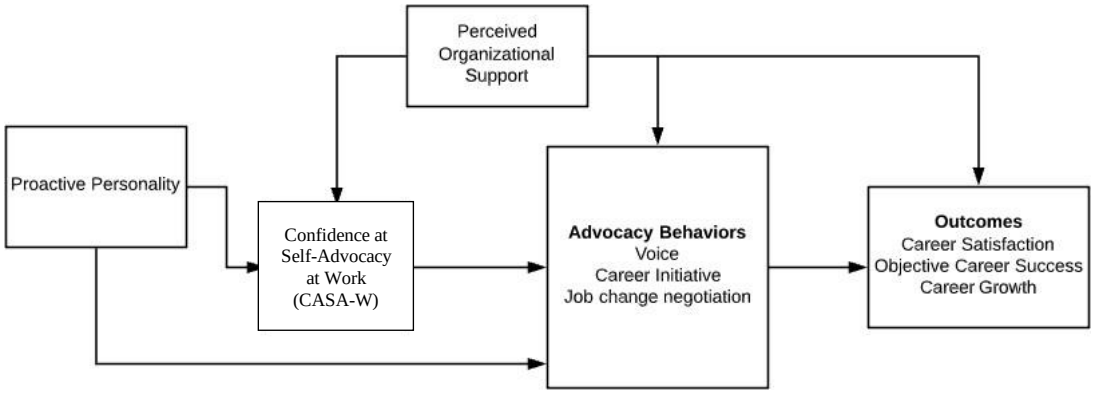



*Figure 2.* Model of career self-management as applied to self-advocacy behavior in workplaces. Adapted from "Social-Cognitive Model of Career Self-Management: Toward a Unifying View of Adaptive Career Behavior Across the Life Span," by R.W. Lent and S.D. Brown, 2013, Journal of Counseling Psychology, 60, p.564 Copyright 2013 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission.

### Self-Advocacy and Proactive Behavior

Self-advocacy can be viewed as a type of proactive career behavior, not unlike network building or taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Strauss et al., 2012). With workplaces becoming more and more dynamic, encouraging individuals to seek out opportunities to advance their careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996), self-advocacy can be vital to one's career sustainability, growth, and success. Parker and Collins (2010) classified proactive behaviors into three categories based on the intended targets of impact: the internal organization environment (proactive work behavior), the organization's fit with the external environment (proactive strategic behavior), and the individual's fit within the organizational environment (proactive

person–environment [P-E] fit behavior). Although they discussed more than 10 proactive behaviors, for the purpose of this study, I will focus on voice, job-change negotiation, and career initiative – all of which represent assertive means of producing intended objectives at work. Voice is classified as proactive work behavior while job-change negotiation and career initiative were classified as proactive person-environment fit behavior by Parker and Collins (2010).

Voice is a proactive behavior defined as “constructive change-oriented communication intended to improve the situation" (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001, p. 326). Voice behavior is distinct from traditional in-role behavior as it extends beyond one’s formal job responsibilities. Voice behavior can be seen as an advocacy behavior when employees use it to make recommendations about improving quality of one’s work life, obtain additional resources, and communicate their opinions even in the face of disagreement. Voice as self-advocacy behavior is intended to decrease personal dissatisfaction and increase work-life quality. Voice behavior has been found to correlate positively with personality traits like extraversion and conscientiousness (Crant et al., 2011), proactive personality (Crant et al., 2011; Fuller & Marler, 2009; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), and organizational career growth (Wang et al., 2014a).

Another study found that the relationship between proactive personality and voice behavior is indirect, operating through voice self-efficacy (Xie et al., 2014). Voice behavior has been found to correlate positively with perceived job autonomy, job challenge, and job satisfaction with work conditions, pay, and promotions (Ng & Feldman, 2012). It has also been shown to correlate negatively with organizational

stressors (e.g., breaches of promises and expectations, lack of organizational support) and to social stressors (e.g., dissatisfaction with supervisors) (Ng & Feldman, 2012).

Another proactive behavior identified by Parker and Collins (2010) as a person-environment fit construct is career initiative, which involves active attempts by an employee to promote their career rather than a passive response to their job situation. Seibert et al. (2001) used the term career initiative to describe the set of career advancement behaviors identified by Tharenou and Terry (1998). These behaviors include: (a) career planning, which refers to initiatives to make explicit career changes; (b) skill development, referring to initiatives that lead to mastery of skills needed in one's occupation; (c) consultation with more senior personnel, which involves seeking information, advice, or help from others. These three behaviors were also identified by Claes and Ruiz-Quintanilla (1998) as proactive behaviors, along with networking. There is evidence that each of the components of career initiative relate to objective and subjective indicators of career success. For example, career planning has been linked to salary (Gould, 1979), promotions (Ng et al., 2005), and career satisfaction (Aryee & Debrah, 1993; Ng et al., 2005; Wayne et al., 1999). Tharenou et al. (1994) found that skills training was related to managerial level and salary. Career consultation in the form of mentoring was positively associated with salary and promotions (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Whitely et al., 1991) as well as with job satisfaction and perceived career success (Chao et al., 1992; Seibert et al., 1999; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). Career initiative, as an aggregate variable, has also been found to relate positively to both objective and subjective career success (Seibert et al., 2001).

Like career initiative, job change negotiation is another proactive P-E fit behavior that reflects how employees take initiative to change the expectations of one's job so that it better fits their skills and abilities (Ashford & Black, 1996; Nicholson, 1984; Parker & Collins, 2010). It is a type of advocacy behavior because it involves negotiating one's task assignment and role expectations to fit one's career expectations and preferences. It has been found to relate to desire for control, conscientiousness, and role breadth self-efficacy which refers to one's confidence in their ability to carry out a range of proactive, interpersonal, and integrative activities beyond the prescribed job responsibility (Ashford & Black, 1996; Parker, 1998; Parker & Collins, 2010). Individuals with a high desire for control were found to negotiate more job changes compared with individuals with low desire for control. Performance goal orientation, defined as seeking favorable assessment and avoiding negative assessments of one's performance, was found to be correlated with job-change negotiation (Parker & Collins, 2010).

*Proactive Personality and Perceived Organizational Support*

In this section, I will discuss proactive personality and perceived organizational support as possible precursors of CASA-W and self-advocacy behavior. Bateman & Crant (1993) described a proactive person as "one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change" (p. 105). Proactive people are those who identify opportunities and act on them, show initiative, take action, and persevere until meaningful change occurs. Reactive people fail to identify opportunities, are passive, and prefer to adapt to circumstances rather

than change them. In this view, the extent to which people take action to influence their environments is a personality factor (Bateman & Crant, 1993).

Several studies have found a relationship between proactive personality and career success (Seibert et al., 1999), job performance (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Huang & Pan, 2007), entrepreneurship (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Gupta & Bhawe, 2007), proactive behavior that includes general actions like voice, taking charge, and networking (Lambert et al., 2006), and context-specific actions like socialization measured as information seeking and relationship building (Finkelstein et al., 2003). Seibert et al. (1999) found that there was a significant positive relationship between proactive personality and career satisfaction, salary attainment, and the number of promotions over one's career after controlling for variables like upward mobility, organizational size, and other demographic and human capital variables. People with proactive personality are thought to engage in their own career development, at least in part, because of their need for achievement (Thompson, 2005) and their motivation to learn (Major et al., 2006). Therefore, one would expect that individuals high in trait proactivity would not only engage in higher levels of taking charge behavior but also demonstrate more significant career initiative than individuals low in trait proactivity.

Perceived organizational support (POS) is defined as the extent to which an organization values their employees' contributions and cares about their overall well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Eisenberger et al. (1986) found that POS is strongly related to risk-taking behaviors in employees, job satisfaction, and organizationally based self- esteem; moderately related to work-family balance;

and weakly related to job self- efficacy. Employees with high POS appear to be more satisfied with their jobs andhave a more balanced relationship with home life (Kurtessis et al., 2017). POS wasstrongly positively related to supervisor support and training opportunities, and moderately related to flexible work schedules and perception of family supportive organizational practices (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

*Career Growth and Career Success*

Career growth, objective career success (e.g., hierarchical status), and subjective career success (e.g., career satisfaction) will be treated as the outcome variables in this study. Organizational career growth refers to the perceptions of employees about how well the work environment aids in their career goal attainment (Weng et al., 2010; Weng & McElroy, 2012). It is composed of three factors: career goal progress, professional ability development, and organizational rewards growth which included both promotion speed and remuneration growth. Career goal progress is defined as the extent to which an employee's current job promotes their career goals. Professional ability development indicates the extent to which an employee's current job allows the opportunity to gain knowledge and skills that improves their job-related capabilities. Promotion speed/remuneration growth indicates the extent to which one is able to move through the ranks and receive salary increases in his or her current organization (Weng et al., 2010; Weng & McElroy, 2012). Weng (2010) initially proposed promotion speed and remuneration growth as two separate subscales but a later study (Weng & McElroy, 2012) found that it was not possible to differentiate these two constructs, so they combined both as organizational rewards growth. This study will include only the organizational rewards growth subscale

because it indexes outcomes toward which self-advocacy behaviors may be directed rather than opportunities that are offered to employees irrespective of their self-advocacy.

Both the promotion speed and remuneration growth rates that employees experience in their jobs were found to be positively correlated with affective organizational commitment and proactive work behavior and explained additional variance in these two outcomes above and beyond career goal progress and professional ability development (Crawshaw et al., 2012; Weng et al., 2010). That is, employees with better promotion speed and remuneration growth had a higher level of organizational commitment and engaged in more proactive work behavior. Promotion speed and remuneration growth were found to be an important predictor of continuance commitment, a sense of commitment to the organization (Shouksmith, 1994; Weng et al., 2010). That is, having promotion opportunities and pay raises will increase the level of continuance commitment, making it more costly for the employee to leave the organization. (Wang et al., 2014) found that career growth was positively related to voice behavior and affective commitment. Career growth was also found to be related to work support and job satisfaction (Yang et al., 2015).

Career success is operationalized as both objective and subjective success. Objective success is directly observable, measurable (e.g., pay, promotion, hierarchical status), whereas subjective success is a function of employee perceptions (e.g., career satisfaction). Seibert and Kraimer (2001) found that extraversion was related positively to salary level, promotions, and career satisfaction while neuroticism and agreeableness was related negatively to career satisfaction. Further,

openness was related negatively to salary level. Proactive personality indirectly related to salary progression, promotions, and career satisfaction through proactive behaviors like career initiative, innovation, and political knowledge (Seibert et al., 2001). Hierarchical status was found to be positively related with career satisfaction and number of working hours (Abele et al., 2011). There are mixed findings about how voice behavior is related to career growth and career success. Seibert et al. (2001) found that there is a negative correlation between voice and objective career success (salary progression and promotions), while Wang et al. (2014) found that organizational career growth was positively related to voice.

### *The Present Study*

The main purpose of the present study is to develop a measure that assesses the perceived ability of employees to engage in self-advocacy behaviors at the workplace and to investigate the psychometric properties of this instrument. In particular, the factor structure and reliability estimates of the new measure will be examined. CASA-W measure's initial validity will be examined using several different methods, including content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity. Specifically, construct validity will be assessed by examining convergent validity of the CASA-W in relation to a measure of voice self-efficacy (Janssen & Gao, 2015), which is viewed as a less comprehensive (i.e., 3-item) measure of perceived ability to engage in voice behavior at work, and an occupational self-efficacy scale (Rigotti et al., 2008), which measures beliefs about one's ability to fulfill job tasks and demands successfully. Voice self-efficacy was selected as an alternative measure of confidence at engaging in constructive change-oriented

communication (voice behavior) in workplaces. A medium to large correlation is expected between voice self-efficacy and CASA-W. Although the occupational self-efficacy scale assesses confidence at fulfilling more general aspects of the work role, both it and the CASA-W are efficacy measures for performing work related actions. Thus, a medium to large correlation between occupation self-efficacy and CASA-W is expected.

Construct validity is also assessed by examining CASA-W's relation with two other conceptually related constructs, namely proactive personality and perceived organizational support. It is anticipated that the CASA-W would produce a medium to high correlations with proactive personality. Proactive personality was selected to examine construct validity because of its widespread use throughout the proactive behavior literature and its relation to various workplace efficacy measures (e.g., voice self-efficacy (Xie et al., 2014), occupational self-efficacy and role breadth self-efficacy (Fuller & Marler, 2009)). Likewise, various measures of workplace social support have been found to be related to career satisfaction, a correlate of proactive personality (Ng & Feldman, 2014). I contend that individuals who perceive their organization as being supportive are more likely to feel confident in advocating for themselves. Thus, a positive correlation between organizational support (as measured by Survey of Perceived Organizational Scale (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986)) and CASA-W is expected.

Criterion-related validity will be examined using measures of self-advocacy behaviors (voice, career initiative, job change negotiation), and outcome variables, including, organizational rewards growth, objective career success (i.e., hierarchical

status), and career satisfaction. Another means of assessing the criterion validity of CASA-W was to test the incremental validity and examine the extent to which the new measure and it's subscales contribute uniquely to the prediction of self-advocacy behaviors (e.g., voice behavior) and the outcome variables (e.g., career satisfaction).

### Self-Advocacy Behaviors and Outcomes.

Although research examining the relationship between advocacy behaviors and confidence at self-advocacy is limited, the relationship between other work-related self-efficacy measures and advocacy behaviors has been studied previously. Voice self-efficacy was found to be related to voice behavior (Xie et al., 2014) and role-breadth self-efficacy was found to relate to career initiative and job change negotiation (Parker & Collins, 2010). Further, several studies that applied the CSM model to different career process domains like career exploration and decision making found that self-efficacy strongly predicted job related behaviors like job search behavior (Lim et al., 2016) and outcomes of career exploration (i.e., career decidedness and decisional anxiety) (Lent et al., 2016). Kim et al. (2019) in a meta-analysis reported that job search self-efficacy was positively correlated with job satisfaction and life satisfaction. In this study, it is anticipated that CASA-W will relate to all of the advocacy behavior variables and will contribute uniquely to predicting voice, career initiative, and job change negotiation.

## *Research Question and Hypotheses*

Three primary research questions of the study include (a) are there two or more CASA-W dimensions capable of being differentiated? (b) if so, will scores on

each dimension produce adequate internal reliability estimates? and (c) what is the extent and nature of the relationship between these dimensions of confidence at self-advocacy? While it is possible that employees may view the items as belonging to distinct efficacy sub-dimensions (e.g., professional development, promotions and raise, leaves, role negotiation, discrimination), it is also possible that employees may view them as reflecting fewer dimensions (e.g., two broad classes of confidence at self-promotional behaviors and at management of work conditions) or even as a singular dimension of confidence at self-advocacy. The dimensionality of the CASA-W scale will be approached as an empirical question via exploratory factor analysis. While there is not an established empirical basis for hypothesizing an a priori factor structure of the new measure, it is expected that at least two factors will be identified.

### Factor Structure

Research Question 1: What is the factor structure of the new measure of CASA-W measure?

Hypothesis 1: Assuming they compose distinct factors, scores on the CASA-W sub-scales will each produce adequate internal consistency values.

Hypothesis 2: Assuming they compose distinct factors, there will be at least a medium-sized correlation between the CASA-W dimensions.

### Convergent and Construct Validity

Hypothesis 3: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores should correlate positively and significantly with measures of the following constructs: (a) proactive personality,

(b) voice self-efficacy, (c) occupational self-efficacy, and (d) perceived organizational support.

### Criterion Related Validity

Hypothesis 4: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with each of the advocacy behavior variables: (a) voice, (b) career initiative, (c) job change negotiation.

Hypothesis 5: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with each of the outcome variables: (a) organizational rewards growth, (b) objective career success (i.e., hierarchical status), and (c) career satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in each of the advocacy behaviors after controlling for proactive personality and POS: (a) voice, (b) career initiative (c) job change negotiation.

Hypothesis 7: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in each of the outcome variables after controlling for proactive personality and POS: (a) organizational rewards growth, (b) objective career success (i.e., hierarchical status), and (c) career satisfaction.

# Chapter 2: Methods

## *Participants*

Participants (N=200) were full-time employees working in a variety of occupations, including education and training (*n* = 30; 15%); information technology (*n* = 21, 10.5%); finance (*n* =18; 9%); business management (*n* = 22; 11%); government and public administration (*n* = 14; 7%); human services (*n* = 15; 7.5%);

health science (*n* = 16; 8%); manufacturing (*n* = 9; 4.5%); marketing, sales, and service (*n* = 13; 6.5%); law, public safety, and corrections (*n* = 8; 4%); STEM (*n* = 8; 4%); architecture and construction (*n* = 5; 2.5%); hospitality and tourism (*n* = 3; 1.5%); transportation, distribution, and logistics ( *n* = 6; 3%); arts, audio/video technology, and communications (*n* = 5; 2.5%); and other occupations (*n* = 7; 3.5%). One hundred forty-three (71.5%) were female and fifty-seven (28.5%) were male. One hundred sixty-two of the participants were European American/Caucasian (81%), 16 were African American (8%), 9 were Hispanic/Latino/a (4.5%), 8 were Asian or Pacific Islander (4%), 3 were Native American (1.5%), 1 was multiracial (.5%), and 2 identified as other (1%).

Participants ranged in age from 25 to 55 (*M* = 39.28, *SD* = 8.34) with one hundred fifty-four describing themselves as white-collar workers (77%) and 45 reported as blue-collar workers (22.5%). Additionally, ninety-seven of them reported having a bachelor's degree (48.5%), 34 had a master's degree (17%), 26 had some college experience (1- 4yrs) with no degree (13%), 16 had an associate's degree (8%), 15 were high school graduates (7.5%), 9 had a professional school degree (4.5%), 2 had a doctorate degree (2%), and 1 had less than a high school education (.5%). With regards to income, fourteen reported income less than $30,000 (7%); 91 reported an income between $30,000 and $59,999 (45.5%); 53 reported income between $60,000 and $99,999 (26.5%); 34 reported income between $100,000 and $199,999 (17%); and 8 had an income greater than $200,000 (4%). With regards to organization position, on a scale of 1 (entry level workers) to 7 (top leaders), fifty identified as level 5 (25%); 48 identified as level 4 (24%); 40 identified as level 3

(20%); 23 identified as level 2 (11.5%); 19 identified as level 6 (9.5%); 11 identified as level 7 (5.5%); and 9 identified as level 1 (4.5%). The average number of hours worked by the participants ranged from 40 to 90 with a mean of 42.51 and a standard deviation of 6.32. The average number of employees working in the participant's organization ranged from 3 to 100,000 ($M$ = 3718.6, $SD$ = 12271.68). An a priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power3 (Faul et al., 2007) to test a multiple regression model using 8 predictors (i.e., age, gender, education, organizational level, desire for upward mobility, perceived organizational support, proactive personality, CASA-W), a medium effect size ($f^2$= .15), and an alpha of .05. Results showed that a total sample of 160 participants was required to achieve a power of .95. According to best-practice considerations with EFA, an adequate sample size generally is above 200 (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Thus, the total number of participants recruited for this study meets the above criteria.

*Representativeness of the Current Sample*

The demographic characteristics of the sample in this study was compared to the US census 2020 to illustrate the representativeness of the sample to the larger US population. The age of the current sample participants ($M$ = 39.28, $SD$ = 8.34) was largely representative of the target population in the US (M = 39.65, SD = 6.30) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020a). Although in the target population 51.01% were male and 48.98% were female, the current sample was heavily skewed towards females (71.5%) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020a). Relative to population norms, the present sample had 4.7% more European American participants, 5.4% fewer African

Americans, 1.9% fewer Asians, roughly the same percentage of Native Americans, 2.3% fewer multiracial persons, and 14% fewer Latinx persons.

Although in the target population of full-time employees above 25 years of age, 38.61% of the population had a high school degree and/or some college experience, in the present study, this category was only 20.5%. Participants with an associate's degree were 3.22% higher in the target population compared with the current sample whereas participants with a bachelor's degree were 20.93% higher in the present study compared with the target population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020b). Similarly, the number of participants in the current sample with a master's degree also exceeded the target population by 4.61%. Also, participants with a professional degree were 2.6% higher in the present study compared with the target population. The number of participants with a doctoral degree are similar in both the current sample (2%) and the target population (2.65%).

With regards to income, 15.95% reported income less than $30,000 in the target population of full-time employees between 25-55 years old (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020b) as compared to 7% in the present study; 38.26% reported an income between $30,000 and $59,999 in the target population as compared to 45.50% in the present study; 25.58% reported income between $60,000 and $99,999 in the target population as compared to 26.50% in the present study; and 20.22% had an income greater than $100,000, which is similar to participants in the present study (21% with income greater than $100,000).

*Development of the CASA-W Measure*

In the first phase, I generated a pool of items on the basis of a review of existing literature related to assertiveness and proactive behavior in workplaces. In addition, I interviewed three workers in the fields of IT, counseling, and insurance to get their perspectives on the advocacy behaviors in which they engage in workplaces. In this interview, I asked open-ended questions about the different areas in which they engage in advocacy to enhance their career growth and satisfaction. Based on literature reviews and interviews, I created an initial pool of 21 items divided into seven different categories, namely work rewards (e.g., ask for a pay raise), leaves (e.g., request a flexible work schedule from your supervisor), discrimination (e.g., report workplace sexual harassment to a person within your organization), support (e.g., gather your co-workers to support your idea for a project), new tasks/projects (e.g., speak up to your supervisor with requests to be involved in new projects of your interest), professional development (e.g., promote your accomplishments at your workplace to your supervisor and other employees), and resources (e.g., ask additional equipment [e.g., computers, chairs] for yourself) to measure confidence at self-advocacy at work.

The second phase of the development of the CASA-W involved assessing the content validity of the initial item pool. These items were reviewed by a team of SCCT researchers, comprised of four doctoral students in counseling psychology and an SCCT research expert. Each of them was given definitions of the construct and asked to review the items based on representativeness to the construct, clarity of the items, and suggestions for any advocacy behaviors that are not captured in the initial

item pool. The research team provided feedback that the seven categories could be reduced to two categories, namely proactive advocacy efficacy and reactive advocacy efficacy. After reviewing the feedback, the researcher and her advisor eliminated items that seemed confusing, redundant, or lacking clear relevance to the concept of self-advocacy efficacy and added items that were not captured in the initial pool but were still found to represent the construct. Also, items were reworded (based on feedback and edits from the group) to enhance clarity and reduce confusion. This process brought the item pool to 24 items, with 13 items in the proactive advocacy efficacy and 11 items in the reactive advocacy efficacy. Sample items include "Negotiate for better benefits for yourself, apart from pay" and "Report workplace sexual harassment to the appropriate person in your organization".

The 24-item measure was then pilot tested on eight employees in different industries to gather preliminary data on content validity, reliability (interrater agreement), clarity, and overall comprehensiveness. Based on recommendations by Rubio et al. (2003) I first computed the content validity index (CVI) for each item by counting the number of experts who rated the item as three (item needs minor revisions to be representative of the construct) or four (item is representative of the construct) and dividing that number by the total number of experts. I calculated the CVI for the measure by averaging CVI across all 24 items. The CVI for the measure was 0.89 and as per Davis's (1992) recommendations, a CVI of .80 is considered good for new measures. I calculated the interrater agreement (IRA) for representativeness and clarity. Based on recommendations by Rubio et al. (2003), andconsistent with other literature on conducting content validity studies (e.g., Davis,

1992; Grant & Davis, 1997; Lynn, 1986), the four-point scale is dichotomized, with values one and two combined and values three and four combined. I first calculated IRA for each item and then counted the number of items with an IRA of at least .80 and dividing that number by the total number of items. The IRA for representativeness of items to the construct was .75 and IRA for clarity of items was .95. Based on this information and other qualitative suggestions, some items were reworded to be clearer but all 24 items were retained.

Next, this process was reviewed by the thesis committee members and they suggested pilot testing of items based on different categories instead of using just proactive and reactive advocacy efficacy categories. The researcher and her advisor reviewed their feedback and divided the items into four categories, namely work rewards and accommodations (4 items; e.g., ask for a promotion when you feel you deserve it), professional development and support (4 items; e.g., request that your supervisor provide training to assist your professional development), work conditions (11 items; e.g., ask for a personal [e.g., health] leave if and when you feel you need one), and self-promotion (4 items; e.g., point out your strengths and accomplishments to your supervisor). This process reduced the item pool to 23 items.

The 23-item measure was then reviewed by three counseling psychologists with expertise in measure development to gather preliminary data on the content validity, reliability (interrater agreement), clarity, and factor validity. The reviewers were given definitions of the general construct and the four conceptual factors and they were asked to review the items based on representativeness to the construct and clarity of the items. They were also asked to indicate the factor to which a particular

item belongs. The CVI for the measure was 1.0. The IRA for representativeness of items to the construct was 1.0 and IRA for clarity of items was .78. Based on recommendations by Rubio et al. (2003), I computed the factor validity index (FVI) for each item by counting the number of experts who correctly assigned the item to the factor and dividing that number by the total number of experts. I calculated the FVI for the measure by averaging FVI across all 23 items. The FVI for the measure was 0.77. The researcher discussed this feedback with her advisor and reworded a few items to be clearer; one item was excluded. The final item pool was 22 items (see Appendix C). Participants were given the following general statement stem before each item: "how much confidence do you have in your ability to …" and participants rated their level of confidence on a scale of 0 (no confidence at all) to 4 (complete confidence) for all items.

*Measures*

A variety of measures were used to gather data for this study. These include measures of proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993), voice self-efficacy measure (Janssen & Gao, 2015), occupational self-efficacy measure (Rigotti et al., 2008), perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), voice behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), career initiative (Tharenou & Terry, 1998), job-changenegotiation (Ashford & Black, 1996), organizational rewards growth (Weng & McElroy, 2012), hierarchical status (Abele & Spurk, 2009), career satisfaction measure (Greenhaus et al., 1990), and demographic questions.

### Proactive Personality (PPS; (Seibert et al., 1999)

Proactive personality (Appendix D) was measured with the 10-item Proactive Personality Scale (PPS; Seibert et al., 1999), a shorter version of the original 17-item scale developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). The original measure had adequate internal reliability estimates, ranging from .87 to .89 across three samples and a test-retest reliability coefficient of .72 over three months. It was positively correlated with four personality constructs: conscientiousness, extraversion, and the need for achievement and dominance. Discriminant validity was shown between the PPS and measures of neuroticism, openness, agreeableness, intelligence, private self-consciousness, and locus of control. Criterion validity was assessed with three variables: engagement of workers in extracurricular and civic activities, personal achievements, and transformational leadership. All of these variables were significantly correlated with scores on the PPS. Social desirability response bias was assessed using public self-consciousness scale (concern for impression management) and private self-consciousness scale (accuracy of self-ratings). PPS was not correlated with the first measure of social desirability, the public self-consciousness scale ($r$ = -.004) and was positively correlated with private self-consciousness scale ($r$ = .19, $p$ < .05). The correlation between the 17-item scale and the 10-item scale was reported to be .96 and the reliability estimate of the 10-item scale was .86, very similar to that of the 17-item scale (Seibert et al., 1999). The 10-item scale correlated positively with employees' current salary, number of promotions received, and career satisfaction.

### Voice Self-Efficacy (Janssen & Gao, 2015)

Voice self-efficacy (Appendix E) was measured with a three-item scale developed by Janssen and Gao (2015) by revising the competence subscale of Spreitzer's (1995) empowerment measure. They reported an internal consistency estimate of .75. Sample items include: "I am self-assured about my capabilities to voice my opinion about work activities" and "I have enough skills and experience to voice my opinion." All ratings were on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree). Janssen and Gao (2015) found that the relationship between supervisory responsiveness and self-perceived status was moderated by voice self-efficacy. They also found that voice self-efficacy moderated the indirect relationship between supervisory responsiveness and voice behavior, such that the relationship is stronger when self-efficacy for voice is higher.

### Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (Rigotti et al., 2008)

Rigotti et al. (2008) developed a shortened measure of occupational self-efficacy (Appendix F). This scale, developed by Schyns & von Collani (2002), was originally a 20-item scale with a reliability estimate of .92. The reliability estimate for the 8-item version was found to be .88; the 8-item and the 20-item scale were highly intercorrelated, $r$ = .94 (Rigotti et al., 2008). Rigotti et al. (2008) later adapted the 8-item version to a 6-item scale. This scale has produced reliability estimates between .85 and .90. For this study, I used the 6-item measure. Sample items include: "I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities" and " When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions." All ratings are made on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at

all true) to 6 (completely true). Higher scores indicate more positive occupational self-efficacy. Across a series of studies, the occupational self-efficacy scale was positively correlated with general self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control, job-satisfaction, and organizational commitment and negatively correlated with neuroticism (Rigotti et al., 2008; Schyns & von Collani, 2002). Abele and Spurk (2009) found that occupational self-efficacy measured at career entry was predictive of salary and hierarchical status three years later as well as salary change and career satisfaction seven years later.

### Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; (Worley et al., 2009)

Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed the SPOS (Appendix G), which was originally a 36-item scale with a reliability estimate of .97. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), the use of shorter versions of the scale is not problematic because the original scale is unidimensional and routinely yields high internal reliability coefficients. However, both facets of POS (valuation of employees' contribution and care about employees' well-being) have to be represented equally in the shorter versions. Worley et al. (2009) found that the 36-item version was strongly correlated with eight-item ($r$ = .94) and 16-item versions ($r$ = .97). They also reported a correlation between the eight-item and 16-item versions of .98, indicating that these two scales could be used interchangeably. Internal consistency for the 8-item scale was .93, with item-total correlations ranging from .70 to .84. Based on the above data, I will use the 8-item version for this study. Sample items include: "The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me" (reverse-scored) and "The organization really cares about my well-being."

In terms of convergent and criterion-related validity, Kurtessis et al. (2017) found that perceived organizational support (POS) is positively related to supervisor support, $r = .60$, job satisfaction, $r = .65$, and organizationally based self-esteem, $r = .53$; moderately related to work-family balance, $r = .40$; and weakly related to job self-efficacy, $r = .11$. Employees with high POS appear to be more satisfied with their jobs and have a more balanced relationship with home life (Kurtessis et al., 2017). For the 8-item SPOS scale, Worley et al. (2009) found that POS is positively correlated with affective commitment, organizational communication, and participation

### Voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)

Voice behavior (Appendix H) was measured with a 6-item scale developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998). All ratings are made on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree). Items were reworded to reflect employees' perception of their own voice behavior rather than supervisors' perceptions of them (e.g., "This particular co-worker communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different, and others in the group disagree with him/her" was reworded as "I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my work unit, even if my opinions are different and they disagree with me.") Internal consistency was estimated at .95. Voice behavior has been found to be positively related to personality traits like extraversion and conscientiousness (Crant et al., 2011), proactive personality (Crant et al., 2011; Fuller & Marler, 2009; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), and outcomes like organizational career growth (Wang et al., 2014).

### Career Initiative (Tharenou & Terry, 1998)

To measure the construct of career initiative, I used the 6-item Enacted Managerial Aspirations scale (Appendix I) created by Tharenou and Terry (1998). Participants indicated their agreement with each statement, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). An example is "I have updated my skills in order to be more competitive for promotions." They reported an internal consistency value of .80 (Time 1) and .81 (Time 2). Test-retest correlations over a 1-year period were .64 for this measure. Seibert et al. (2001) reported an internal consistency value of .77. Career initiative was positively related to willingness to relocate for advancement, willingness to change organizations for advancement, and chance of promotion; it was negatively related to length of time without a promotion (Tharenou & Terry, 1998). Career initiative was also found to be positively related to salary progression, promotions, and career satisfaction (Seibert et al., 2001).

### Job Change Negotiation (Ashford & Black, 1996)

Job change negotiation (Appendix J) was assessed with a measure developed by Ashford and Black (1996). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was reported as .90. Items were reworded by Parker and Collins (2010) and changed from past to present tense (e.g., "to what extent have you negotiated with others about your task assignments?" is changed to "to what extent do you negotiate with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about your task assignments?" Participants were asked to rate the statements on a scale from 1 (to no extent) to 5 (to a great extent). Job change negotiation has been found to relate to desire for control, conscientiousness, role breadth self-efficacy, and performance goal orientation

(Ashford & Black, 1996; Parker & Collins, 2010). Another study found that job change negotiation was positively associated with task mastery and role clarity (Gruman et al., 2006).

### Career Growth Scale (Weng & McElroy, 2012)

Career growth was measured with the Organizational Rewards Growth subscale (Appendix K) of the Organization Career Growth Scale (CGS) (Weng & McElroy, 2012). Weng (2010) initially proposed promotion speed and remuneration growth as two separate subscales but a later study (Weng & McElroy, 2012) found that it was not possible to differentiate these two constructs, so they combined both into a composite 7-item measure of organizational rewards growth. Sample items are "my promotion speed in my present organization is fast" and "my salary is growing quickly in my present organization". Participants will be asked to indicate their level of agreement with items using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Internal consistency reported for this sub-scale was .85 by Weng and McElroy (2012). Organizational rewards growth was found to be negatively related to turnover intentions ($r$ =-.23, $p$ < .01) and positively associated with affective occupational commitment ($r$ = .47, $p$ < .01) and perceived opportunities ($r$ = .15, $p$ < .01) (Weng & McElroy, 2012). Another study found that organizational rewards growth was positively correlated with voice behavior and affective commitment (Wang et al., 2014).

### Objective Career Success (Abele & Spurk, 2009)

Objective career success was measured with hierarchical status (Appendix L), using a scale developed by Abele and Spurk (2009). The scale contains information about permission to delegate work (0 = no, 1=yes), project responsibility (0 = no, 1=yes), and official leadership position (0 = no, 1=yes). The hierarchical status variable could vary between zero and 3. Test-retest correlations for this measure were .60 (time 2 and 3), .54 (time 3 and 4), and .75 (time 4 and 5) where time 2 was 14 months after graduation, time 3 was 3 months after graduation, time 4 was 85 months after graduation, and time 5 was 117 months after graduation. Hierarchical status was found to relate positively with career satisfaction and number of working hours (Abele et al., 2011). It has also been found to correlate positively with career advancement goals and occupational self-efficacy. Individuals with higher occupational self-efficacy at career entry stage were found to have a higher status three years later (Abele & Spurk, 2009). Change in hierarchical status was also related to change in salary over time (between career entry and 7 years post-entry) (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

### Subjective Career Success (Greenhaus et al., 1990)

A revised version of Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) career satisfaction scale was used to measure subjective career success. The original five-item measure's internal consistency estimate was .88 and included items such as "I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my overall career goals" and "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career." Participants indicated their degree of agreement with each statement using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree

to 5 = strongly agree). A career satisfaction score was produced by averaging the score on all items, with a high score indicating higher satisfaction in their careers. The original career satisfaction measure has been found to relate positively to sponsorship measured as advancement opportunities, visibility, and favored status provided by mentors, job discretion, job-performance evaluations, and supervisory support (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

Two items were generated to broaden the construct representation of career satisfaction to better reflect perceived progress or satisfaction at objectives of specific relevance to self-advocacy, as measured by the CASA-W. These items are, "I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards promoting my accomplishments and successes at work" and "I am satisfied with the efforts I have made to get fair treatment for myself at work." An exploratory factor analysis including the original and new items yielded a 1-factor solution that explained 60% of the total variance. An alpha coefficient of .90 was found for the five-item scale; it was .91 for the modified measure. The modified measure correlated very highly with the original measure ($r$ = .98) and produced slightly higher correlations with the CASA-W total scale score (.54 vs. .45).

### Demographic Variables

The demographic questionnaire included age, race/ethnicity, gender identity, education, industry, number of hours worked per week, work category (blue-collar vs white- collar), organization size, desire for upward mobility, income, organizational level, and information about location of employment. Some of the questions were presented at the beginning of the survey as screener questions to include only full-

time employees. Desire for upward mobility is considered a motivational variable measuring one's motivation to advance in their careers. Desire for upward mobility is measured by 4-item measure created by Landau and Hammer (1986). They reported a reliability estimate of .70. Sample items include: "I would like a job with more responsibility", "I would feel much better at working at my company, if I were promoted." Participants indicated their degree of agreement with each statement using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Desire for upward mobility has been found to correlate positively with log salary (i.e., log-transformed salary), promotions, and career satisfaction (Seibert et al., 1999). Organizational size was measured by the number of employees in the firm. To measure their level in the organization, participants used a slider (on a scale of 1 – 7) and selected where they stand at this time in their organization relative to other people in their organization. At the top of the ladder are the people who are at the top of the organization (e.g., top leaders) and at the bottom are the people who are entry-level workers with lower pay and lower skill requirements.

*Procedure*

The survey was administered online on Qualtrics and participants were recruited via Prime Panels. Prime Panels is a participant recruitment platform with over 50 million participants developed by Cloud Research. Chandler et al. (2019) found that the participants are more diverse as compared to MTurk and are less familiar with classic research protocols, making it a promising platform for the present study. If individuals were interested in participating, they followed an internet link that directed them to initial screener questions to assess their eligibility for the

study. Chandler et al. (2019) suggested use of screening questions for Prime Panels to address the problem of participant inattentiveness and English comprehension. There were three English comprehension questions (e.g., Which of the following words is MOST related to "moody"?) and one CAPTCHA question. After this, they were asked if they (a) are between 25 – 55 years old, (b) are currently employed by an organization full-time in the US, (c) number of hours worked per week, (d) number of employees in the organization, (e) gender, and (f) race/ethnicity. The screener questions are in Appendix A.

If participants did not pass any of the screener questions, they were not eligible to take the rest of the survey. If they met these eligibility requirements, they were then directed to a consent page explaining that the study will ask questions about their workplace experiences, support, and satisfaction. This page also informed participants that they may close their browsers at any time during the study if they did not wish to complete the entire survey. Participants indicated their consent by selecting a box indicating, "I agree to participate." A copy of the consent form is available in Appendix B.

Once started on the survey, participants were asked to complete a series of measures in a randomized order. They then completed the remaining demographics questions asking for education, income, industry, work category (blue-collar vs white-collar), desire for upward mobility, organizational level, and information about their location of employment. Participants were asked to answer all items before progressing to the next page so that no items are missed. Two attention check questions were inserted at different points during the survey. One question was

inserted in the CASA-W measure where participants were asked to select very confident for an item. Another question was embedded within the organizational rewards growth scale where participants were asked to select strongly disagree for an item. Participants were informed that they would receive compensation based on the panel provider's agreement with Prime Panels. The decentralized nature of payments on the Prime Panels does not allow the vendors to specify an exact payment amount. When participants completed the study, they were thanked for their participation.

*Data Analysis*

Before proceeding with data analysis, the collected responses were examined for missing data, normality of score distributions, and outliers. To be included in the final sample, participants needed to pass the two validity test items and have a response time at least 1/3 of the median response time. The median response time was 10.2 minutes and the cutoff for usable responses was 3.4 minutes. The initial focus was on conducting an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the new CASA-W measure. The factorability of the correlation matrix was established using Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic (Tabachnick et al., 2019). Because any potential underlying factors are likely to be correlated, principal axis factoring with oblique rotation was used. Individual items were evaluated for retention by examining possible low communalities, low primary factor loadings, and high cross-loadings (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Once a factor structure was established, internal consistency values for all scales included in the study were computed. Means and standard deviations were computed, and assumptions for bivariate correlation testing were checked, including

normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Correlations were computed for all scales, and relationships of interest were evaluated for significance. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis (one regression for each of the six dependent variables) was conducted to assess the unique relation of the CASA-W to the self-advocacy behavior variables (voice, career initiative, job change negotiation) and the career outcome variables (career growth, objective and subjective career success). The general strategy was as follows: In the first step of the regression equation, I entered control variables: age, gender, education, desire for upward mobility, and organizational level. In step 2, I entered proactive personality and perceived organizational support. In step 3, I entered CASA-W scores.

# Chapter 3: Results

In this section, I first present the results of the exploratory factor analysis of the CASA-W measure. Reliability of the CASA-W measure was obtained by using internal consistency estimates. Next, CASA-W's convergent and construct validity was examined via correlations with (a) proactive personality, (b) voice self-efficacy, (c) occupational self-efficacy, and (d) perceived organizational support. Relationships between the CASA-W and several criterion variables, such as voice, job-change negotiation, organizational rewards growth, and career satisfaction were then examined as estimates of criterion-related validity. Finally, hierarchical multiple regressions predicting each criterion variable were completed, entering age, gender, education, desire for upward mobility, and organizational level at the first step, proactive personality and perceived organizational support at the second step, and CASA-W at the third step to explore whether CASA-W accounted for unique predictive variance above and beyond the demographic, personality, and support variables.

## *Exploratory Factor Analysis of CASA-W*

The first research question asked, "What is the factor structure of the new measure of CASA-W measure?" Although item generation allowed for the possibilities of a two-factor structure (e.g., self-efficacy at proactive and reactive advocacy tasks) and a four-factor structure (work rewards, professional development, work conditions, and self-promotion), exploratory factor analysis was used to explore the underlying factor structure of the CASA-W based on empirical considerations. In

order to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis for the present study, Bartlett's (1950) test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy were used. The chi-square test was significant $\chi^2$ (df 153, $N$ = 200) = 2245.43, $p$ <.000 and the KMO value was .94. Both findings suggested the appropriateness of factor analyzing the data.

A principal axis factor (PAF) analysis with direct oblimin rotation was used to explore the factor structure of the CASA-W items. Several criteria were used to determine factor structure. These included parallel analysis, the scree plot, eigenvalues > 1.00, percentage of variance explained, the number of items that loaded on each factor, interpretability of each factor, and an acceptable level of cross-loading (e.g., Pett et al., 2003; Tabachnick et al., 2019; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). I retained items that loaded beyond .32 on a single factor and that showed a loading difference of >.15 between the two factors.

Initial analysis indicated three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, but the third factor included only 3 items, which may not yield a stable structure. A 2-factor solution appeared to be more plausible based on parallel analysis and the other criteria. The first and second factors had eigenvalues of 10.45 and 1.16, respectively, with the first factor explaining 47.49% of the variance and the second factor explaining 5.25% of the variance for a total variance of 52.74%. Ten items loaded on the first factor, with all loadings above .40. Eight items loaded on the second factor with all loadings above .45. The two factors were significantly correlated, $r$ = .68, $p$ < .001. The 2-factor solution retained 18 items, accounting for 54.13% of the total variance. The items and their factor loadings are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1**

Factor loadings, Item-Total Correlations and Alphas if Item Deleted for CASA-W Items

| CASA-W item | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Item-Total Correlations | Alpha if deleted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Factor 1: Work Management Advocacy* | | | | |
| 16. Ask for help with job tasks from your co-workers when you feel you could use it | **0.88** | 0.18 | 0.70 | 0.89 |
| 15. Let a co-worker know if you feel they are treating you in an unfair or discriminatory way | **0.74** | 0.02 | 0.69 | 0.89 |
| 19. Ask for a personal (e.g., health) leave when you feel you need one | **0.70** | 0.05 | 0.63 | 0.89 |
| 18. Express your concerns about job assignments that you feel are unethical | **0.68** | -0.10 | 0.72 | 0.89 |
| 6. Let your supervisor know if you are having difficulty with a work assignment | **0.63** | -0.04 | 0.62 | 0.89 |
| 10. Speak up against discrimination or bias that you feel is directed toward you (e.g., based on your age, appearance, gender, race, or religion) | **0.59** | -0.15 | 0.65 | 0.89 |
| 13. Speak up if you feel you are being asked to work too many hours | **0.54** | -0.23 | 0.66 | 0.89 |
| 21. Ask to leave early from work on occasion to take care of non-work issues | **0.52** | -0.14 | 0.58 | 0.89 |
| 14. Request that your supervisor provide training to assist your professional development | **0.52** | -0.27 | 0.66 | 0.89 |
| 4. Request resources (e.g., equipment) you need to do your job better | **0.42** | -0.26 | 0.58 | 0.89 |
| *Factor 2: Self-Advancement Advocacy* | | | | |
| 1. Ask for a pay raise | -0.08 | **-0.94** | 0.83 | 0.90 |
| 3. Nominate yourself for awards in your workplace | -0.13 | **-0.88** | 0.74 | 0.91 |
| 20. Negotiate for better benefits for yourself, apart from pay | 0.02 | **-0.84** | 0.81 | 0.90 |
| 11. Ask for a promotion that you want | 0.10 | **-0.82** | 0.85 | 0.90 |
| 7. Advocate for changes in company policies you feel are unfair to you | 0.22 | **-0.62** | 0.74 | 0.91 |
| 9. Point out your accomplishments to your supervisor | 0.22 | **-0.54** | 0.67 | 0.91 |
| 2. Volunteer for new projects that can benefit your career advancement | 0.25 | **-0.48** | 0.63 | 0.91 |
| 8. Request a flexible work schedule from your supervisor | 0.21 | **-0.45** | 0.58 | 0.92 |

Note. N =200. Factor loadings were obtained with the pattern matrix and oblimin rotation.

For labeling the factors, Pett et al. (2003) recommended selecting a name that represents the highest loading items on each factor. For Factor 1, the highest loading items included item content such as asking for help from co-workers. Hence, Factor 1 appears to summarize beliefs about one's ability to stand up for oneself at work, address one's needs, and try to correct unfair or unsafe conditions, all of which can be labelled as "work management advocacy" (10 items, accounting for 47.74%). Higher scores on this factor indicate greater confidence in advocating for oneself in situations that put one at a disadvantage. The items with high loadings on Factor 2 consisted of content related to requesting a raise, benefits, promotions, and promoting one's accomplishments. Therefore, Factor 2 best captures one's beliefs about their ability to promote oneself and achieve career growth. This factor was labeled as "self-advancement advocacy" (8 items, accounting for 6.40% of the variance). Descriptive statistics for each item are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2**

*Descriptive statistics for CASA-W items*

| CASA-W ITEM | Mean | SD | Skewness | SE | Kurtosis | SE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Factor 1: Work Management Advocacy* | | | | | | |
| 16. Ask for help with job tasks from your co-workers when you feel you could use it | 3.87 | 1.01 | -0.64 | 0.17 | -0.05 | 0.34 |
| 15. Let a co-worker know if you feel they are treating you in an unfair or discriminatory way | 3.65 | 1.14 | -0.57 | 0.17 | -0.36 | 0.34 |
| 19. Ask for a personal (e.g., health) leave when you feel you need one | 4.03 | 1.08 | -0.95 | 0.17 | 0.19 | 0.34 |
| 18. Express your concerns about job assignments that you feel are unethical | 3.82 | 1.10 | -0.66 | 0.17 | -0.28 | 0.34 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. Let your supervisor know if you are having difficulty with a work assignment | 3.90 | 0.99 | -0.65 | 0.17 | -0.18 | 0.34 |
| 10. Speak up against discrimination or bias that you feel is directed toward you (e.g., based on your age, appearance, gender, race, or religion) | 3.73 | 1.15 | -0.54 | 0.17 | -0.60 | 0.34 |
| 13. Speak up if you feel you are being asked to work too many hours | 3.51 | 1.13 | -0.46 | 0.17 | -0.46 | 0.34 |
| 21. Ask to leave early from work on occasion to take care of non-work issues | 3.94 | 1.13 | -0.87 | 0.17 | 0.01 | 0.34 |
| 14. Request that your supervisor provide training to assist your professional development | 3.74 | 1.03 | -0.51 | 0.17 | -0.19 | 0.34 |
| 4. Request resources (e.g., equipment) you need to do your job better | 3.87 | 1.00 | -0.77 | 0.17 | 0.36 | 0.34 |
| *Factor 2: Self-Advancement Advocacy* | | | | | | |
| 1. Ask for a pay raise | 2.87 | 1.29 | 0.17 | 0.17 | -0.95 | 0.34 |
| 3. Nominate yourself for awards in your workplace | 2.63 | 1.36 | 0.31 | 0.17 | -1.07 | 0.34 |
| 20. Negotiate for better benefits for yourself, apart from pay | 3.01 | 1.27 | 0.11 | 0.17 | -1.00 | 0.34 |
| 11. Ask for a promotion that you want | 3.15 | 1.18 | -0.10 | 0.17 | -0.76 | 0.34 |
| 7. Advocate for changes in company policies you feel are unfair to you | 3.33 | 1.08 | -0.13 | 0.17 | -0.56 | 0.34 |
| 9. Point out your accomplishments to your supervisor | 3.47 | 1.08 | -0.18 | 0.17 | -0.65 | 0.34 |
| 2. Volunteer for new projects that can benefit your career advancement | 3.82 | 0.98 | -0.58 | 0.17 | 0.06 | 0.34 |
| 8. Request a flexible work schedule from your supervisor | 3.55 | 1.24 | -0.47 | 0.17 | -0.71 | 0.34 |

Note. N=200. SD=Standard deviation.
SE=Standard Error

*Internal Consistency, Reliability Estimates, and Correlation Among the Efficacy Sub-Scales*

Hypothesis #1: Assuming that CASA-W items compose distinct factors, scores on the CASA-W dimensions will each produce adequate internal consistency values.

Internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's α) estimates of the total CASA-W scale was .94 and of the CASA-W subscale scores were .90 for the work management advocacy subscale and .92 for the self-advancement advocacy subscale (see Table 3). In addition, item-total correlations ranged from .58 to .72 for the work management subscale and .58 to .83 for the self-advancement subscale (see Table 1), indicating that all items were highly related to their respective subscales. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported, as the total scale, and both the work management and self-advancement subscales have adequate internal consistency reliability estimates. Internal consistency reliability estimates for all the other measures in this study ranged from .88 (Voice) to .92 (Proactive Personality), except for hierarchical status ($\alpha$ = .67) (see Table 3).

Hypothesis #2: Assuming they compose distinct factors, there will be at least a medium-sized correlation between CASA-W dimensions.

After elimination of the four items that cross-loaded highly, the work management and self-advancement scales correlated at $r = .73$. Hence, Hypothesis 2 is supported. Although both factors are highly correlated, it is possible that each may also capture a somewhat distinctive aspect of self-efficacy in relation to performing work management and self-advancement advocacy behaviors in the workplace.

*Convergent and Construct Validity*

To investigate the convergent and construct validity of the work management and self-advancement advocacy subscales of the CASA-W measure, correlations of each subscale were assessed in relation to measures of personality, self-efficacy in other work areas, and support in the workplace (proactive personality, voice self-

efficacy, occupational self-efficacy, and perceived organizational support). Preliminary analyses included checking all the measures for skewness and kurtosis by examining whether these values were greater than twice their standard errors. Voice self-efficacy measure was found to be significantly negatively skewed and somewhat kurtotic, but not excessively so (Weston & Gore, 2006). Table 3 presents descriptive statistics for all predictor and criterion measures.

Hypothesis #3a: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores should correlate positively and significantly with the measure of proactive personality.

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and the proactive personality scale was $r = .58$ ($p < .01$), indicating a statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with proactive personality ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), indicating that individuals high in proactive personality are likely to have confidence in their ability to advocate for their advancement. Work management advocacy was also positively correlated with proactive personality ($r = .51$, $p < .01$), suggesting that individuals high in proactive personality are likely to have confidence in their ability to advocate for themselves regarding work-related concerns. Thus, Hypothesis 3a was supported. The effect sizes of correlations were labeled using common rules of thumb (that will be applied to all correlations reported in this chapter), where *r* values of .5, .3, and .1 correspond to large, medium, and small effect sizes, respectively (Cohen, 1988). Thus, each of the above correlations represented large effect sizes (i.e., $r > .5$).

**Table 3**

*Correlations, Means, SD, Skewness, Kurtosis, and Reliability Estimates for all measures*

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Total | -- | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.WM-A | .93** | -- | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. SA-A | .93** | .73** | -- | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. PP | .58** | .51** | .58** | -- | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. VSE | .54** | .51** | .49** | .46** | -- | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. OSE | .59** | .58** | .53** | .55** | .59** | -- | | | | | | | | |
| 7. SPOS | .48** | .45** | .44** | .38** | .29** | .36** | -- | | | | | | | |
| 8. Voice | .58** | .53** | .55** | .59** | .46** | .39** | .35** | -- | | | | | | |
| 9. CI | .59** | .49** | .61** | .56** | .36** | .38** | .22** | .55** | -- | | | | | |
| 10. JCN | .47** | .40** | .49** | .34** | .31** | .21** | 0.13 | .54** | .54** | -- | | | | |
| 11.ORG | .59** | .46** | .64** | .55** | .37** | .46** | .45** | .46** | .55** | .45** | -- | | | |
| 12. HS | .34** | .30** | .33** | .30** | .15* | .19** | .16* | .39** | .31** | .32** | .38** | -- | | |
| 13. CS | .54** | .50** | .50** | .52** | .38** | .45** | .46** | .42** | .38** | .29** | .53** | .32** | -- | |
| 14. UM | .16* | .07 | .24** | .26** | .11 | .09 | .05 | .24** | .37** | .27** | .20** | .05 | -.02 | -- |
| M | 3.55 | 3.80 | 3.23 | 5.43 | 5.82 | 5.02 | 4.82 | 5.49 | 3.18 | 2.86 | 3.06 | .63 | 3.72 | 4.33 |
| SD | .80 | .78 | .95 | .96 | 1.11 | .80 | 1.41 | 1.01 | 1.00 | 1.13 | .93 | .36 | .83 | 1.31 |
| Skewness | -.18 | -.62 | .10 | -.58 | -1.20 | -.92 | -.53 | -.64 | -.08 | .16 | .07 | -.43 | -.64 | -.54 |
| Kurtosis | -.15 | .52 | -.66 | .71 | 1.82 | .76 | .06 | .90 | -.80 | -.89 | -.44 | -1.17 | .41 | -.16 |
| $\alpha$ | .94 | .90 | .92 | .92 | .88 | .89 | .91 | .88 | .89 | .91 | .88 | .67 | .91 | .72 |

N=200. Total = Total CASA-W. WM-A = Work Management Advocacy. SA-A = Self-Advancement Advocacy. PP = Proactive Personality. OSE = Occupational Self-Efficacy. VSE = Voice Self-Efficacy. SPOS = Perceived Organizational Support. CI = Career Initiative. JCN = Job Change Negotiation. ORG = Organizational Rewards Growth. HS = Hierarchical Status. CS = Career Satisfaction. UM = Desire for Upward Mobility. * p < .05. ** p < .01.

Hypothesis #3b: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores should correlate positively and significantly with a measure of voice self-efficacy.

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and the voice self-efficacy scale was $r = .54$ ($p < .01$), indicating a large, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with voice self-efficacy ($r = .49$, $p < .01$) and work management advocacy was also positively correlated with

voice self-efficacy ($r$ = .51, $p$ < .01). These results suggest that individuals high in voice self-efficacy are likely to have confidence in their ability to advocate for self-advancement and work management. Thus, Hypothesis 3b was supported.

Hypothesis #3c: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores should correlate positively and significantly with the occupational self-efficacy measure.

` The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and the occupational self-efficacy scale was $r$ = .59 ($p$ < .01), indicating a large, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with occupational self-efficacy ($r$ = .53, $p$ < .01) indicating that individuals high in occupational self-efficacy are likely to have confidence in their ability to proactively advocate for their growth and advancement in workplaces. Work management advocacy was also positively correlated with occupational self-efficacy ($r$ = .58, $p$ < .01), suggesting that individuals high in occupational self-efficacy are likely to have confidence in their ability to manage workplace issues through advocacy. Thus, Hypothesis 3c was supported.

Hypothesis #3d: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores should correlate positively and significantly with the perceived organizational support measure.

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and the perceived organizational support (SPOS) scale was $r$ = .48 ($p$ < .01), indicating a moderate to large, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with SPOS scale ($r$ = .44, $p$ < .01), indicating that individuals high in organizational support are likely to have confidence in their ability to proactively advocate for their growth and advancement in workplaces. Work

management advocacy was also positively correlated with the SPOS scale ($r$ = .45, $p$ < .01), suggesting that individuals who perceive their organization as supportive are likely to have confidence in their ability to manage workplace issues through advocacy. Thus, Hypothesis 3d was supported.

*Criterion-Related Validity*

To investigate the criterion related validity of the CASA-W total scale and the self-advancement and work management advocacy subscales, correlations of each measure were computed with several advocacy behavior and outcome variables (voice, career initiative, job change negotiation, organizational rewards growth, hierarchical status, and career satisfaction). Preliminary analyses included checking all the measures for skewness and kurtosis. None of these measures had abnormal skewness, while one measure showed somewhat elevated kurtosis: hierarchical status (1.17). However, the deviation from normality was not significant enough to warrant transformation. Descriptive statistics of the voice, career initiative, job change negotiation, organizational rewards growth, hierarchical status, and career satisfaction measures are shown in Table 3.

Hypothesis #4a: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with the advocacy behavior variable: voice

The correlation of the CASA-W total score with voice was $r$ = .58 ($p$ < .01), indicating that they are strongly, positively correlated. Thus, Hypothesis 4a was supported. Each of the CASA-W subscales also resulted in positive, statistically significant correlations with voice behavior; self-advancement advocacy, $r$ =.55 ($p$ < .01), work management advocacy, $r$ = .53 ($p$ < .01).

Hypothesis #4b: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with the advocacy behavior variable: career initiative

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and the career initiative scale was r = .59 ($p < .01$), indicating a large, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with career initiative ($r = .61$, $p < .01$) and work management advocacy was also positively correlated with career initiative ($r = .49$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 4b was supported.

Hypothesis #4c: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with the advocacy behavior variable: job change negotiation

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and job change negotiation behaviors was $r = .47$ ($p < .01$), indicating a moderate to strong, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with job change negotiation ($r = .49$, $p < .01$), indicating that individuals who have confidence in their ability to advocate for their advancement in workplaces are likely to engage in job change negotiation behaviors. Work management advocacy was also positively correlated with job change negotiation ($r = .40$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 4c was supported.

Hypothesis #5a: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with each of the outcome variables: organizational rewards growth

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and organizational rewards growth was $r = .59$ ($p < .01$), indicating a strong, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with organizational rewards growth ($r = .64$, $p < .01$), indicating that individuals high in confidence at self-

advancement advocacy are highly likely to report rewards growth in their careers. Work management advocacy was also positively correlated with organizational rewards growth ($r$ = .46, $p$ < .01). Thus, Hypothesis 5a was supported.

Hypothesis #5b: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with each of the outcome variables: objective career success (i.e., hierarchical status).

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and hierarchical status was $r$ = .34 ($p$ < .01), indicating a moderate, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with hierarchical status ($r$ = .33, $p$ < .01) and work management advocacy was also positively correlated with hierarchical status ($r$ = .30, $p$ < .01). Thus, Hypothesis 5b was supported.

Hypothesis #5c: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will correlate with each of the outcome variables: career satisfaction

The correlation of the CASA-W total scale and career satisfaction was $r$ = .54 ($p$ < .01), indicating a large, statistically significant, positive correlation. Self-advancement advocacy was positively correlated with career satisfaction ($r$ = .50, $p$ < .01) and work management advocacy was also positively correlated with career satisfaction ($r$ = .50, $p$ < .01). Thus, Hypothesis 5c was supported.

*Incremental Validity of CASA-W Total and Sub-Scales*

Although the correlation among the new self-efficacy subscales was quite high ($r$ = .73), it did not approach unity and it was lower than the internal consistency reliability estimate for each scale. In addition, the two subscales achieved somewhat variable relations with some of the criterion variables. Thus, each subscale may reflect overlapping yet somewhat unique aspects of self-advocacy efficacy. Hence,

hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to further explore the total and individual subscale relationships to the criterion variables.

A series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to predict each of the criterion variables (the same ones used in testing hypothesis 4 and 5). The purpose of these analyses was to examine whether the CASA-W total and sub-scale scores accounted for unique predictive variance beyond proactive personality and perceived organizational support after controlling for age, education, gender, desire for upward mobility, and organizational position. Thus, in each equation, (a) the demographic variables were entered at the first step, (b) proactive personality and perceived organizational support were entered at the second step, (c) and the CASA-W scores were entered at the third step.

Hypothesis #6a: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in voice behavior after controlling for proactive personality and POS.

Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the total CASA-W accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($\beta = .31, p < .001$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting voice behavior ($\Delta R^2 = .06$); see Table 4. Hierarchical regression analysis for the sub-scales also accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($\Delta R^2 = .06, p < .001$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting voice behavior. However, examination of beta weights indicated that only work management advocacy contributed uniquely to predicting voice behavior ($\beta = .24, p < .001$). This result is likely due to multicollinearity between the two sub-scales. Therefore, hierarchical regression

analysis was also conducted using the sub-scales separately. I found that self-advancement advocacy accounted for statistically significant unique variance in a separate regression ($\Delta R^2 = .03, \beta = .26, p < .001$). Work management advocacy entered separately also accounted for statistically significant variance ($\Delta R^2 = .05, \beta = .29, p < .001$). Hypothesis 6a was, therefore, fully supported as both self-advancement and work management advocacy accounted for unique variance in predicting voice behavior.

**Table 4**

*Regression coefficients of Total CASA-W on Voice Behavior*

| Variable | Step 1 | | | Step 2 | | | Step 3 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE |
| Constant | 4.00*** | | .64 | 1.48* | | .62 | 1.09 | | .60 |
| Age | .00 | -.03 | .01 | .00 | .01 | .01 | .00 | .01 | .01 |
| Education | .03 | .01 | .15 | .07 | .03 | .13 | .11 | .05 | .13 |
| Gender Identity | -.03 | -.03 | .05 | -.02 | -.02 | .05 | .02 | .02 | .04 |
| UM | .16 ** | .21 | .05 | .08 | .10 | .05 | .07 | .09 | .04 |
| Org Position | .25 *** | .36 | .05 | .12 ** | .17 | .04 | .08 | .12 | .04 |
| PP | | | | .49 *** | .47 | .07 | .36 *** | .34 | .07 |
| SPOS | | | | .09* | .12 | .04 | .03 | .04 | .04 |
| Total CASA-W | | | | | | | .40 *** | .31 | .09 |
| $R^2$ | .18 | | | | .40 | | | .46 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | | | | .23*** | | | .06*** | |

Note. N=200. UM = Desire for Upward Mobility. PP = Proactive Personality. SPOS = Perceived Organizational Support. SE=Standard Error. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Hypothesis #6b: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in career initiative behavior after controlling for proactive personality and POS.

Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the total CASA-W accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .001$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting career initiative behavior ($\Delta R^2 = .10$) (see Table 5). Examination of beta weights indicated that CASA-W total score was uniquely predictive of career initiative ($\beta = .43$, $p < .001$). Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the sub-scales entered together also accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .01$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting career initiative behavior ($\Delta R^2 = .10$). Examination of beta weights indicated that both self-advancement and work-management factors contributed uniquely predicted career initiative behavior (SA: $\beta = .31, p < .01$; WM: $\beta = .17, p < .05$). Hierarchical regression analysis for each sub-scale separately also accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .001$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting career initiative behavior (SA: $\Delta R^2 = .09, \beta = .42$; WM: $\Delta R^2 = .07, \beta = .34$), providing full support for Hypothesis 6b.

**Table 3**

*Regression coefficients of Total CASA-W on Career Initiative Behavior*

| Variable | Step 1 | | | Step 2 | | | Step 3 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE |
| Constant | 2.26 *** | | .59 | .30 | | .60 | -.23 | | .56 |
| Age | -.02 ** | -.20 | .01 | -.02 ** | -.16 | .01 | -.02 ** | -.17 | .01 |
| Education | -.08 | -.03 | .14 | -.04 | -.02 | .13 | .02 | .01 | .12 |
| Gender Identity | .00 | .00 | .05 | .01 | .01 | .04 | .05 | .06 | .04 |
| UM | .24 *** | .31 | .05 | .17 *** | .22 | .04 | .16 *** | .20 | .04 |
| Org Position | .24 *** | .35 | .04 | .14 ** | .21 | .04 | .09* | .13 | .04 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PP | | .44 *** | .42 | .07 | .26 *** | .25 | .07 |
| SPOS | | .00 | .01 | .04 | -.08 | -.11 | .04 |
| Total CASA-W | | | | | .54 *** | .43 | .09 |
| $R^2$ | .28 | | .42 | | | .52 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | | .15*** | | | 0.10*** | |

Note. N=200. UM = Desire for Upward Mobility. PP = Proactive Personality. SPOS = Perceived Organizational Support. SE=Standard Error. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Hypothesis #6c: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in job change negotiation after controlling for proactive personality and POS.

Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the total CASA-W accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .001$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting job change negotiation ($\Delta R^2 = .10$). Examination of beta weights indicated that the CASA-W total score was uniquely predictive of job change negotiation ($\beta = .43, p < .001$). Hierarchical regression analysis showed that both subscales entered together also accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .01$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting job-change negotiation behavior ($\Delta R^2 = .10$). Examination of beta weights indicated that both self-advancement and work-management factors contributed uniquely to predicting job-change negotiation behavior (SA: $\beta = .24, p < .05$; WM: $\beta = .23, p < .05$). Hierarchical regression analysis for each sub-scale separately also accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .001$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting job change negotiation

(SA: $\Delta R^2 = .08, \beta = .40$;WM: $\Delta R^2 = .08, \beta = .36$). Thus, Hypothesis 6c was fully supported. Results are displayed in Table 6.

**Table 4**

*Regression coefficients of Total CASA-W on Job Change Negotiation*

| Variable | Step 1 | | | Step 2 | | | Step 3 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE |
| Constant | 2.60 *** | | .71 | 1.59 * | | .80 | .99 | | .76 |
| Age | -.02 * | -.16 | .01 | -.02 * | -.14 | .01 | -.02 * | -.14 | .01 |
| Education | -.27 | -.11 | .17 | -.26 | -.10 | .17 | -.19 | -.08 | .16 |
| Gender Identity | -.04 | -.05 | .06 | -.04 | -.05 | .06 | .00 | .00 | .06 |
| UM | .19** | .22 | .06 | .15** | .18 | .06 | .14 * | .16 | .06 |
| Org. Position | .23 *** | .30 | .05 | .18** | .24 | .06 | .12 * | .16 | .05 |
| PP | | | | .24** | .20 | .09 | .03 | .02 | .09 |
| SPOS | | | | -.01 | -.01 | .06 | -.10 | -.13 | .06 |
| Total CASA-W | | | | | | | .61 *** | .43 | .12 |
| $R^2$ | .18 | | | | .21 | | | .31 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | | | | .03* | | | .10 *** | |

Note. N=200. UM = Desire for Upward Mobility. PP = Proactive Personality. SPOS = Perceived Organizational Support. SE=Standard Error. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Hypothesis #7a: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in organizational rewards growth after controlling for proactive personality and POS.

Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the total CASA-W accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .001$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting organizational rewards growth ($\Delta R^2 = .04$). Examination of beta weights indicated that CASA-W total score was significant in uniquely predicting organizational rewards growth ($\beta = .27, p < .001$). Results are displayed in Table 7. Hierarchical regression analysis also showed that the CASA-W subscale scores entered together

accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .01$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting

**Table 5**

*Regression coefficients of Total CASA-W on Organizational Rewards Growth*

| Variable | Step 1 | | | Step 2 | | | Step 3 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE |
| Constant | 3.04*** | | .56 | .93*** | | .54 | .63 | | .53 |
| Age | -.02** | -.18 | .01 | -.02** | -.15 | .01 | -.02** | -.16 | .01 |
| Education | -.23 | -.11 | .13 | -.20 | -.10 | .11 | -.16 | -.08 | .11 |
| Gender Identity | -.08 | -.11 | .05 | -.07 | -.09 | .04 | -.04 | -.06 | .04 |
| UM | .10* | .14 | .05 | .04 | .05 | .04 | .03 | .05 | .04 |
| Org. Position | .28*** | .46 | .04 | .17*** | .28 | .04 | .14*** | .23 | .04 |
| PP | | | | .33*** | .34 | .06 | .22** | .23 | .06 |
| SPOS | | | | .17*** | .26 | .04 | .12** | .19 | .04 |
| Total CASA-W | | | | | | | .31*** | .27 | .08 |
| $R^2$ | .26 | | | | .46 | | | .50 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | | | | .20*** | | | .03*** | |

Note. N=200. UM = Desire for Upward Mobility. PP = Proactive Personality. SPOS = Perceived Organizational Support. SE=Standard Error. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

organizational rewards growth. ($\Delta R^2 = .06$). Examination of beta weights indicated that only self-advancement advocacy contributed uniquely to predicting organizational rewards growth ($\beta = .36, p < .001$). Hierarchical regression analysis for each sub-scale separately also accounted for statistically significant unique variance beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting job change negotiation (SA: $\Delta R^2 = .05$; WM: $\Delta R^2 = .02$) and the beta weights were significant for both the subscales

(SA: $\beta = .33, p < .001$ ; WM: $\beta = .16, p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 7a was fully supported.

Hypothesis #7b: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in hierarchical status after controlling for proactive personality and POS.

Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the total CASA-W accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($p < .05$) beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting hierarchical status ($\Delta R^2 = .03$). Examination of beta weights indicated that the CASA-W total score was uniquely predictive of hierarchical status ($\beta = .22, p < .05$). Results are displayed in Table 8. The regression involving subscale scores entered together showed that they collectively accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($\Delta R^2 = .03, p < .05$), though neither of their individual beta weights was statistically significant. Hierarchical regression analysis for each sub-scale separately also accounted for statistically significant unique variance beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in hierarchical status (SA: $\Delta R^2 = .02$; WM: $\Delta R^2 = .02$) and the beta weights were significant for both the subscales (SA: $\beta = .19, p < .05$ ; WM: $\beta = .20, p < .05$).Thus, Hypothesis 7b was fully supported.

**Table 6**

*Regression coefficients of Total CASA-W on Hierarchical Status*

| Variable | Step 1 | | | Step 2 | | | Step 3 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE |
| Constant | .09 | | .24 | -.27 | | .26 | -.36 | | .26 |
| Age | .00 | .02 | .00 | .00 | .03 | .00 | .00 | .03 | .00 |
| Education | .02 | .02 | .06 | .02 | .03 | .06 | .04 | .04 | .05 |
| Gender Identity | .02 | .08 | .02 | .02 | .08 | .02 | .03 | .11 | .02 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| UM | .01 | .03 | .02 | .00 | -.01 | .02 | -.01 | -.02 | .02 |
| Org. Position | .08*** | .34 | .02 | .07*** | .27 | .02 | .06 ** | .23 | .02 |
| PP | | | | .08 ** | .20 | .03 | .04 | .11 | .03 |
| SPOS | | | | .01 | .02 | .02 | -.01 | -.04 | .02 |
| Total CASA-W | | | | | | | .10 * | .22 | .04 |
| $R^2$ | .13 | | | | .17 | | | .20 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | | | | .03* | | | .03* | |

Note. N=200. UM = Desire for Upward Mobility. PP = Proactive Personality. SPOS = Perceived Organizational Support. SE=Standard Error. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Hypothesis #7c: CASA-W total and sub-scale scores will account for unique variance in career satisfaction after controlling for proactive personality and POS.

Hierarchical regression analysis showed that total CASA-W score accounted for statistically significant unique variance ($\beta$ = .25, $p$ < .01) beyond the demographiccontrol variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting career satisfaction ($\Delta R^2$ = .03). Examination of beta weights indicated

that CASA-W total score was a significant predictor of career satisfaction ($\beta$ = .26, $p$ < .01). Results are displayed in Table 9. Hierarchical regression analysis for each sub-scale separately also accounted for statistically significant unique variance beyond the demographic control variables, proactive personality, and perceived organizational support in predicting job change negotiation (SA: $\Delta R^2$ = .03; WM: $\Delta R^2$ = .03) and the beta weights were significant for both the subscales (SA: $\beta$ = .22, $p$ < .01 ; WM: $\beta$ = .22, $p$ < .01). However, in the regression analysis involving the sub-scales entered together, though they accounted collectively for statistically significant unique variance ($\Delta R^2$ = .03), neither individual beta weight was statistically significant. Thus, Hypothesis 7c was fully supported.

**Table 7**

*Regression coefficients of Total CASA-W on Career Satisfaction*

| Variable | Step 1 | | | Step 2 | | | Step 3 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE | B | $\beta$ | SE |
| Constant | 2.65*** | | .53 | .54 | | .50 | .28 | | .49 |
| Age | .00 | .01 | .01 | .00 | .04 | .01 | .00 | .03 | .01 |
| Education | .04 | .06 | .04 | .05 | .09 | .04 | .07* | .12 | .04 |
| Gender Identity | .04 | .02 | .13 | .07 | .04 | .11 | .09 | .05 | .10 |
| UM | -.03 | -.05 | .04 | -.09* | -.14 | .04 | -.09 | -.15 | .04 |
| Org. Position | .23*** | .40 | .04 | .12 ** | .21 | .04 | .09* | .16 | .04 |
| PP | | | | .33*** | .38 | .06 | .24*** | .28 | .06 |
| SPOS | | | | .16*** | .28 | .04 | .12 ** | .21 | .04 |
| Total CASA-W | | | | | | | .26 ** | .25 | .08 |
| $R^2$ | .18 | | | | .43 | | | .46 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | | | | .25*** | | | .03** | |

Note. N=200. UM = Desire for Upward Mobility. PP = Proactive Personality. SPOS = Perceived Organizational Support. SE=Standard Error. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Table 10 summarizes the results at the last step of the regression equation (beta weights and change in $R^2$) for the regressions involving only the total CASA-W scale, the regressions in which the self-advancement and work-management subscales were entered together, and the regressions in which each subscale was entered alone. It may be seen that the total score accounts for statistically significant variance in all the criterion variables and the $\Delta R^2$ for the total score is similar to the use of both subscales together or alone. Also, for some criterion variables the use of the self-advancement or work-management subscale alone yields almost the same $\Delta R^2$. For instance, for voice, work-management advocacy accounts for slightly more variance than does self-advancement advocacy and about as much as the total score; for organizational rewards growth and career initiative, self-advancement advocacy

accounts for slightly more variance than does work-management advocacy and about as much as the total score. It may also be seen that for hierarchical status and career satisfaction, including both self-advancement and work-management advocacy together nullifies their unique contributions to the explained variance.

**Table 8**

*Summary of Regression coefficients and $\Delta R^2$ for all criterion variables with CASA-W scores.*

| Variable | $\beta$ | | | | $\Delta R^2$ | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total CASA-W | SA & WM together | SA alone | WM alone | Total CASA-W | SA & WM together | SA alone | WM alone |
| Voice | .31 | .09/.24*** | .26 | .29 | .06*** | .06 | .03*** | .05*** |
| CI | .43 | .31**/.17* | .42 | .34 | .10*** | .10 | .09*** | .07*** |
| JCN | .43 | .24*/.23* | .40 | .36 | .10*** | .10 | .08*** | .08*** |
| ORG | .27 | .36***/-.04 | .33 | .16 | .04*** | .06 | .05*** | .02* |
| HS | .22 | .08/.15 | .19 | .20 | .03* | .03 | .02* | .02* |
| CS | .25 | .12/.15 | .22 | .22 | .03** | .03 | .03** | .03** |

N=200. Total = Total CASA-W. WM = Work-Management Advocacy. SA = Self-Advancement Advocacy. CI = Career Initiative. JCN = Job Change Negotiation. ORG = Organizational Rewards Growth. HS = Hierarchical Status. CS = Career Satisfaction. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

# Chapter 4: Discussion

Despite the growing recognition for over 25 years of the role of employee proactivity in enhancing individual and organizational outcomes (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Bateman & Crant, 1993; Hall, 1996; Seibert et al., 2001), research on self- advocacy in workplaces has not been examined as a distinct topic. The existing empirical literature has investigated conceptually related topics, such as workplace assertiveness, proactivity, and voice, yet without a theoretical model that explains themechanisms underlying these behaviors. Although some research has been done in understanding dispositional antecedents (e.g., proactive personality) to assertive behavior, there has not been a comprehensive measure that investigates the self- efficacy of employees engaging in such behavior. Existing measurement tools, such as the voice self-efficacy (Janssen & Gao, 2015) and occupational self-efficacy (Rigotti et al., 2008), have been narrow in their construct definitions and their application to workplace advocacy.

The purpose of the current study was: (a) to propose a new, comprehensive definition of confidence at self-advocacy at work, (b) to develop and validate a measure of confidence at self-advocacy at work (CASA-W), linked to the new definition, and (c) to situate this construct within the career self-management (CSM) model. A pilot study with a sample of workers and input from a panel of experts in the field of career development supported the content validity of the new measure. Evidence related to factor structure, reliability, and construct validity is summarized, below.

*Factor Structure and Reliability of the CASA-W Scale*

Findings from the current study provided preliminary support for the validity and internal consistency reliability of the CASA-W scale. Exploratory factor analysis indicated that the CASA-W scale contains two correlated factors: Work Management Advocacy and Self-Advancement Advocacy. The first subscale, Work Management Advocacy, is composed of 10 items and reflects beliefs about one's ability to assert themselves when experiencing unfair or unsafe conditions and to address personal needs in the workplace. Examples include asking for help with job tasks from co-workers, asking for a health leave, speaking out against discrimination, and expressing concerns around unethical job assignments. The second subscale, Self-Advancement Advocacy, is composed of 8 items and reflects beliefs about one's ability to promote one's achievements and to achieve career rewards and growth. Examples include asking for a pay raise, nominating oneself for awards in the workplace, negotiating for better benefits, and asking for a promotion. Internal consistency estimates provided evidence of good reliability for the total scale and for each of the subscales.

*Convergent and Construct Validity of the CASA-W Scale*

The high positive correlation of the CASA-W- total and subscale scores with voice self-efficacy provided initial convergent validity for the CASA-W. This correlation might be the result of both the scales measuring efficacy beliefs of employees to communicate their desire to improve their situation in the workplace.

However, the CASA-W scale is more comprehensive in that it explores different dimensions of workplace advocacy, specifically related to career growth and workplace satisfaction. The convergent validity of the CASA-W scale was also supported by its high correlation with occupational self-efficacy. This finding suggests that employees who are confident in their ability to perform their work tasks also tend to have confidence in advocating for themselves, but the degree of correlation is not so high as to suggest that occupational task self-efficacy and the CASA-W represent a singular construct.

Additional evidence for construct validity of the CASA-W scale was provided by its high correlation with proactive personality. This finding makes sense given extensive research suggesting that proactive personality is related to general self-efficacy, voice-self-efficacy (Xie et al., 2014), job-search self-efficacy (Fuller & Marler, 2009; H. S. Kim & Park, 2017), voice behavior (Tornau & Frese, 2013), proactive behavior (Lambert et al., 2006; Seibert et al., 2001), and career success (Seibert et al., 1999, 2001). Thus, employees high on proactive personality may feel more confidentin their ability to self-advocate in their workplace. Convergent validity of the CASA- W scale was also supported by its high correlation with perceived organizational support. This finding makes sense because when employees feel supported by their organization, they may feel more confident in addressing workplace concerns with their supervisors and coworkers and also feel confident to take initiative to achieve their career goals.

*Criterion Validity of the CASA-W Scale*

CASA-W total and sub-scale scores were found to be associated with all criterion variables. For example, positive correlations were found between the CASA-W scores and voice behavior. This finding makes sense given research establishing prior relationship between voice self-efficacy and voice behavior (Xie et al., 2014) and between general self-efficacy beliefs and employee voice behavior (Eibl et al., 2020). The total-CASA-W also uniquely predicted voice behavior beyond proactive personality and perceived organizational support. Additionally, both work management advocacy and self-advancement advocacy also contributed uniquely to voice behavior in separate regression equations, with reactive work management advocacy explaining slightly more unique variance (2%) than self-advancement advocacy.

In regard to why work management advocacy explained more unique variance in voice behavior, one possible explanation is as follows. Several studies define voice behavior as a constructive challenging communication (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) intended to address job-related issues (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003), improve work situation (Van Dyne et al., 2003), and address an unfair situation or misconduct (Pinder & Harlos, 2001), all of which appear to be managing challenging situations in workplace rather than proactively achieving career goals and rewards. A proactive component is also involved in voice behavior as it is an extra-role behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), is discretionary (Detert & Burris, 2007), future focused (Parker & Collins, 2010), and intentional (Van Dyne et al., 2003).

Relevant past research has involved research on voice self-efficacy as a mediator. Xie et al. (2014) found that voice self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between proactive personality and voice behavior. Wang et al. (2015) found that employee self-efficacy mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and voice behavior. It will be important for future research to examine the mediating role of CASA-W given the relationships between different self-efficacy measures and voice behavior. This study is the first to explore the relationship between CASA-W and voice behavior, so further investigation of the relationship between CASA-W and voice behavior is warranted.

Career initiative has been associated with role-breadth self-efficacy and proactive personality (Parker & Collins, 2010) and has been used to predict outcomes like salary growth, promotions, and career satisfaction (Seibert et al., 2001). In this study, positive relationships between all CASA-W scores and career initiative (CI) were found. Both the work management advocacy and self-advancement advocacy subscales uniquely predicted career initiative when examined in separate regression equations, with self-advancement advocacy accounting for slightly more (2%) unique variance in career initiative behavior. This result makes sense because several researchers defined career initiative as a series of behaviors employees use to advance in their careers, including career planning, skill development, and consultation (Gould & Penley, 1984; Tharenou & Terry, 1998), and self-advancement advocacy encompasses beliefs about one's ability to promote themselves and achieve career progress. Additionally, items like requesting additional training from the supervisor and seeking support from coworkers in the work management advocacy sub-scale

seem to tap into some of the skill development and consultation behaviors. As career initiative strategies are those that ambitious employees use to further their careers (Rynes et al., 1988), and CASA-W plays a role in predicting this behavior, understanding individual differences in confidence at self-advocacy has implications for employees who are looking to grow in their career. It will be important for future research to explore reasons and context for engaging in career initiative behaviors to gain additional insight into the relationship between CASA-Wand career initiative.

Positive correlations were found between CASA-W and job-change negotiation. The CASA-W- total score correlated significantly and positively with voice behavior, as did the self-advancement and work management advocacy subscale scores. Each of the SAEW scores also uniquely predicted job-change negotiation beyond proactive personality and perceived organizational support. Self-advancement and work management advocacy were unique predictors of job-change negotiation when both were in the same regression equation as well as when entered in separate equations. These findings add to prior research by Parker and Collins (2010) who found that role-breadth self-efficacy (defined as the extent to which people feel confident in their ability to carry out a broader and more proactive role in their workplace) and proactive personality each predicted job change negotiation.

Positive correlations were found between the CASA-W and organizational rewards growth (ORG). The CASA-W- total score correlated significantly and positively with ORG as did the self-advancement and work management advocacy subscale scores. The total-CASA-W also uniquely predicted organizational rewards

growth beyond proactive personality and perceived organizational support. Both self-advancement and work management advocacy were also significant predictors in separate regression equations, with self-advancement scores accounting for 3% more of the variance than work management scores. Prior research has shown that objective career success (e.g., high salaries, frequent promotions) were associated with a proactive disposition (Seibert et al., 1999, 2001). This study is the first to explore the link between organizational rewards growth and CASA-W, so support for this result is drawn from other self-efficacy and related objective success variables. Existing research on self-efficacy and objective success (e.g., pay, promotions) is mixed. For example, Mulki et al. (2008) study found that that job self-efficacy had a direct relation to pay satisfaction. Day & Allen (2004) found thatcareer self-efficacy and salary were positively correlated. Additionally, Abele and Spurk (2009) found that occupational self-efficacy related positively to salary at time1, and salary change from time 1 to time 2 (1.5 years later). Conversely, Lubbers et al. (2005) found no association between job self-efficacy and hourly wage. It is possible that job self-efficacy and CASA-W are measuring different aspects of domain specific self-efficacy (i.e., perceived capability at job tasks vs. job-related self-advocacy). It will be important for future research to explorethe how CASA-W relates to different objective success variables and how the other self-efficacy measures are different from CASA-W.

Positive correlations were found between CASA-W and career satisfaction. The CASA-W- total score correlated significantly and positively with career satisfaction, as did the self-advancement and work management advocacy subscale

scores. The total - CASA-W score contributed uniquely to career satisfaction, and self-advancement and work management advocacy when entered in separate regression equations accounted for unique variance in predicting career satisfaction. This result suggests that perceived ability to advocate for oneself plays a useful role in how satisfied individuals are in their workplace. This study is the first to explore the link between career satisfaction and CASA-W. Related research is drawn from other self-efficacy and proactive personality studies. For example, a multi-national study by Rigotti et al. (2008) found that occupational self-efficacy was related to job satisfaction. Abele and Spurk (2009) also found that occupational self-efficacy had a positive association with career satisfaction. Kim et al. (2019) found positive relationships between job search self-efficacy, proactive personality, and job satisfaction. Similarly, Seibert et al. (1999, 2001) found significant positive relationships between proactive personality and career satisfaction. It will be important for future studies to explore indirect relationships from CASA-W to career satisfaction through advocacy behaviors. It is noteworthy that when both self-advancement and work management advocacy were in the same regression equation, they failed to account for unique variance in career satisfaction. This may be because of multicollinearity issues indicating that using both scales in the same regression equation might not be viable in future studies.

Finally, positive relationships between CASA-W and hierarchical status were found. More specifically, the CASA-W-total score correlated significantly and moderately with hierarchical status, as did the self-advancement and work management advocacy subscale scores. Additionally, the total - CASA-W score

contributed uniquely to hierarchical status. Both self-advancement and work management advocacy also explained unique variance in hierarchical status, but only when entered in separate regression equations. Similar to the prediction of career satisfaction, when both self-advancement and work management advocacy were in the same regression equation, they failed to account for unique variance in hierarchical status, which may be linked to multicollinearity and statistical power. Conceptually related research has shown that self-efficacy for negotiating was significantly positively related to baseline salary negotiation (Stevens et al., 1993). Miles & Maurer (2012) found that domain level negotiation self-efficacy (more general awareness of what negotiation involves, regardless of the task) uniquely predicted negotiation outcomes.

*Implications for Theory, Practice, and Research*

The present study contributed to the extension of research on the CSM model (Lent & Brown, 2013) by focusing on novel behaviors that workers use to help obtaintheir own career objectives and to protect their welfare. The findings offer several implications for workplace self-advocacy research, theory, and practice, in addition tothe research directions that have been noted above. First, the evidence regarding the appropriateness of using the CASA-W total score or individual sub-scale scores is somewhat mixed. On the one hand, the CASA-W-total score is highly correlated witheach of the sub-scales ($r$ = .93), correlations among the subscales is .73, and the total score has a high internal consistency value ($\alpha$ = .94), suggesting that all items of the CASA-W are closely related. The total score (which includes both self-advancement use of the subscales scores either together or alone. On the other

hand, for some of criterion variables, self-advancement and work management advocacy subscales alone predict about as well as the total score. In addition, work management advocacyaccounts for slightly more unique variance than self-advancement advocacy in voice behavior and about as much as the total score. Similarly, self-advancement advocacy accounts for slightly more unique variance than work management advocacy in predicting organizational rewards growth and career initiative.

Based on these results, one could potentially argue that dependent variables in this study can be organized into one of three categories: (a) mostly proactive, where the focus is on achieving personal rewards or career gains (career initiative and ORG); (b) mostly reactive (voice), where the focus is on improving work conditions or procedures (i.e., affecting work itself, or how it is done, rather than its external rewards); and (c) a combination of proactive and reactive (JCN, HS, CS). This is only conceptual speculation. Future research could explore the extent to which the two subscales differentially explain criterion variables that vary in terms of whether they represent proactive, reactive, or mixed outcomes.

Second, the CASA-W is the first instrument to assess a variety of areas of confidence at self-advocacy at work, including advocacy for work rewards, work conditions, self-promotion, and professional development and support. Given the increasing scholarly interest in the proactive component of employee organizational behavior (Crant, 2000; Seibert et al., 2001) and changing workplace dynamics encouraging employee initiative (Kochan et al., 2019; Rousseau, 2006), the CASA-W has the potential to add to understanding of employee proactivity by focusing on

these different aspects of self-advocacy. Interventions could be designed and tested, using the theoretical sources of efficacy information (e.g., modeling and behavior rehearsal), to promote confidence at workplace self-advocacy.

Third, organizations could use the present study results to design career self-management modules that enhances employee's self-efficacy at attaining their personal objectives at work. For example, training could be offered to supervisors on the role of having confidence to self-advocate in predicting positive career outcomes so that they can have productive careers discussions with their supervisees. Career counselors can also potentially use the CASA-W to help employees to identify areas for career growth and to counter stress due to workplace issues by building their efficacy at standing up for themselves. Clinicians and coaches can use the CASA-W as a tool to assess their client's confidence at advocating for specific requests with which they may be having difficulty (e.g., asking for a raise or asking for support on a job project). Given the early stage of research on the CASA-W, these clinical comments should be considered as tentative.

Fourth, further research on the CASA-W may have the potential to shed light on gender differences in wages and promotions. Several researchers have found that women have a lower probability of being promoted and suggested that one reason, apart from gender discrimination, may be that they have a lower propensity to negotiate than do men (Blau & Devaro, 2007; Greig, 2008; Olson & Becker, 1983). Propensity to negotiate might be predicted both by one's confidence at self-advocacy as well as by their expectations of the outcomes of negotiation. Given the CASA-W's ability to predict job change negotiation in this study, future research might use this

scale to examine confidence at self-advocacy as one mechanism underlying gender differences in obtaining raises and promotions.

*Limitations and Future Directions*

Several potential limitations of the study should be noted. First, the same sample was used to validate the CASA-W measure as well as to test the CSM model hypotheses. This highlights the need to gather additional data on the psychometric properties of the measure in a separate sample. There is a particular need to use confirmatory factor analysis to assess the stability of the CASA-W's factor structure. (Data have been gathered to address this need; they are in the process of being analyzed.) It would also be valuable to further explore reliability of the CASA-W measure, examining its test-retest reliability over short (e.g., 3 week) and longer (e.g., 4 month) periods of time.

A second limitation is that the present study did not test for indirect relations of the CASA-W to the career outcomes (e.g., career satisfaction) via use of advocacy behaviors (e.g., career initiative). Neither did it test the full set of relations among the predictors and dependent variables, shown in Figure 2, or provide an index of model-data fit. Parenthetically, as a next step in this research project, a path analysis, including additional data, will be performed to more comprehensively test the CSM model in the context of self-advocacy.

Third, the present study is limited by its cross-sectional design, which means that the results cannot support causal interpretations. Future research could explore the temporal relationships among the variables via longitudinal studies, which would test an important assumption of causality. A fourth limitation is the exclusive use of

self-report measures, which raises the possibility of inflated relationships due to common method variance and social desirability. Fifth, the study used a web-based survey, which raises concerns regarding generalizability because not all workers have internet access at home or use the recruitment platform that was used in this study. There are also potential concerns about selection bias as participants who responded to the survey might differ in terms of demographic and attitudinal variables from those who do not respond.

Sixth, organizational culture can play an important role in advocacy behaviors. This study did not assess or control for organizational culture, leaving out a variable which could potentially impact the findings. Seventh, according to the CSM model, decisions to engage in advocacy behaviors can be guided by outcome expectations as well as by self-efficacy, yet the present study did not take outcome expectations into account. Future research could explore how outcome expectations relate to CASA-W and other outcome variables in the study. Finally, the sample's participants represent a heterogeneous group of industries and occupations. While this is advantageous in some ways (e.g., the results may be broadly applicable across types of work), its relevance to particular industries and occupations is unclear and could be explored in future research.

In sum, prior research has demonstrated that objective and subjective career success indicators, such as salary progression, more frequent promotions, and greater satisfaction, are associated with a proactive personality disposition (Seibert et al., 1999, 2001). The present study builds on this research by suggesting that CASA-W can help to explain both use of proactive career behaviors (e.g., voice, career

initiative) and success outcomes above and beyond proactive personality as a stable trait. This offers optimism that, by focusing on their efficacy at advocating for their own objectives at work, individuals can increase the likelihood of attaining an extrinsically rewarding and intrinsically satisfying career.

# Chapter 5: Extended Literature Review

This section will review the literature that provides a foundation for the proposed study. In particular, I will define assertiveness, review two general theories of assertiveness (D. R. Ames & Flynn, 2007; Kipnis et al., 1980), and provide a context for the proposed study on self-assertive efficacy. In addition, I will define self-assertive behaviors as consisting of proactive and reactive components and I will use the literature on proactive career behaviors as a foundation for studying self-assertive behaviors (Crant, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2010). Lastly, I propose using the CSM model as a framework to understand self-assertive behaviors, present several applications of the CSM model, and justify the need for a novel measure of confidence at self-advocacy at work (CASA-W).

## *Theories of Assertiveness in Organizations*

The construct of assertiveness has received attention in the interpersonal influence theory and in the folk psychology literature. Presented below are two theories that provide context for self-assertiveness in organizations and for definitions of assertiveness.

### Interpersonal Influence Theory in Organizations

Kipnis et al. (1980) categorized influence tactics workers employ in organizations into eight categories that included assertiveness (achieving one's objectives in a forceful and demanding way), ingratiation (behaviors oriented towards appearing friendly and flattering other people), rationality (using logical arguments to justify requests and ideas), sanctions (using punitive measures to gain compliance),

exchange (offering one thing in exchange for another), upward appeals (requesting help from higher management), blocking (stopping someone's actions to curtail their progress), and coalitions (seeking assistance from others to push forward one's agenda). These influence tactics could be used to receive assistance on one's own job, to assign work to someone, to obtain benefits from the job, to improve a co-workers or boss's performance, and to initiate change. In this literature, assertion has sometimes been viewed as synonymous with aggression or pressure tactics (e.g., "expressed my anger verbally" and "had a showdown in which I confronted my co-worker/boss face to face"). At other times, it was defined on a continuum from low to high assertiveness (Ames, 2009; D. Ames et al., 2017; Ames & Flynn, 2007) with aggression and hostility at the upper end of the spectrum. In the current study, assertiveness is viewed as different than aggression or dominance in that it refers to speaking or acting confidently and affirming one's position while being respectful of the rights of others and without attacking or dominating.

One construct in the impression management literature relevant to self-advocacy behaviors is self-promotion. Jones and Pittman (1982) identified five impression-management strategies, including ingratiation (engaging in flattery to appear likable), self-promotion (individuals highlight their own abilities and accomplishments to appear competent), exemplification (going beyond required tasks to be seen as dedicated), supplication (making known one's flaws to be viewed as needy), and intimidation (acting in threatening ways to appear as dangerous).

In a meta-analytic review of the relationship between influence tactics (i.e., assertiveness, self-promotion, upward appeal, rationality) and work outcomes (e.g.,

performance assessments and objective success), Higgins et al. (2003) found that assertiveness was negatively related to performance assessments ($k$=4, $\rho = -.19, p < .05$) and positively related to objective success ($k$=5, $\rho = .08, p < .05$) measured using salary and promotions. They explained this differing relationship by stating that assertive individuals are more proactive in pursuing salary raise and promotions and, in doing so, they might receive outcomes that surpass their actual performance ratings. In this study, the relation of self-promotion to performance assessment was dependent on the source of assessment (supervisor vs interviewer in an employment interview): it correlated negatively with supervisor assessments ($k = 8, \rho = -.25, p < .01$) and positively with interviewer assessment ($k$=3, $\rho = .58, p < .01$). One potential explanation for this difference is that self-promotion is rewarding when the claims of competence are harder to substantiate, as in the case of an interview, but in cases where the claim can be verified, the likelihood of positive rewards is low (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Rationality was found to relate strongly with performance assessments ($k = 4, \rho = .50, p < .01$) and weakly with extrinsic success ($k = 5, \rho = .12, p < .01$). One likely explanation is that performance assessments may be directly related to one's influence tactics while indirectly relating to extrinsic success. Also, extrinsic success variables might have external limitations, such as organizational resources, size, and the availability of positions.

### Folk Psychological Approach to Interpersonal Assertiveness

Ames (2009) defined assertiveness as "reflecting an individual's interpersonal willingness to stand up and speak out for their own interests and ideas, pursuing their objectives and resisting others' impositions." He placed assertiveness on a continuum,

from passivity on one end to aggression and hostility on the other. In the middle are behaviors such as initiation, engagement, accommodation, resistance, collaboration, and assertion. This definition of assertiveness applies to everyday situations where someone wants something (e.g., an employee hoping to take the lead on a group project) but achieving this objective is somewhat dependent on the supervisor or other group members (e.g., another employee who also wants to take the lead). In such situations, individuals may select different tactics (e.g., providing a rational argument justifying one's qualifications for the position or aggressively stating that the project is theirs) and vary in the size of their request (e.g., the employee could ask to lead the marketing campaign or product delivery or the whole project).

Ames et al. (2017) identified downsides of both low and high assertiveness. When one is timid and under-ambitious in their requests, the resulting outcomes may not be satisfactory. Gunia et al. (2013) found that the initial proposals often impact the final outcome in negotiations. This becomes important when one is negotiating benefits (e.g., pay, promotions, work activities); if employees are under-assertive in their ask, they may not be able to take care of their needs. Readily accommodating other persons' requests or impositions or avoiding conflicts or negotiations are other forms of low assertiveness. Friedman et al. (2000) found that readily accommodating one's requests can lead to poorer material outcomes and workplace stress. Avoidant conflict style was found to be correlated with workplace stress and increased task conflict (Friedman et al., 2000). Further, Greig (2008) found that promotions are less likely for individuals who are less likely to initiate negotiations.

On the other hand, high assertiveness can be met with anger and rejection and can trigger counter-reactions that escalate conflict and prevent desired outcomes. For instance, Falbe & Yukl (1992) found that, in comparison to influence tactics like consultation, personal appeals, and ingratiation, assertive pressure tactics invoked far greater resistance, and led to worse outcomes. Some consequences of extreme assertiveness are less visible in the short-term and may impact workplace relationships in a negative way. Overall, both low and high assertiveness can threaten material outcomes, affect relationships, and inhibit one's well-being (Ames et al., 2017). Thus, the right level of assertion can play an important role in helping to achieve desired outcomes in the workplace and in reducing work-related stress.

### Relation of Assertiveness Theories to the Construct of Self-Advocacy

Self-advocacy behaviors in the workplace include such tactics as rationality (e.g., explaining the reasons for one's request), self-promotion (e.g., making other group members aware of one's skills and abilities), resistance (e.g., declining assignments that conflict with one's advancement goals), collaborations or coalitions (e.g., obtaining the support of co-workers to back up one's request), assertion (e.g., asking directly for a raise), exchanges (e.g., requesting to switch work roles on a project), and upward appeals (e.g., filing a report about a co-worker with one's supervisor). Such tactics can be used proactively or reactively to advance one's career goals, address one's needs, and achieve better person-organization (P-E) fit. I consider these tactics as instances of self-assertive behaviors and I will use the terms, advocacy and assertion, as interchangeable.

Although influence tactics like blocking (e.g., threatening to stop working until an employee gives in) and sanctions (e.g., threatening an employee's job security) have an assertiveness component, they are not respectful of the rights of others. In the introduction, I defined advocacy behaviors as communication that is respectful of the rights of others while trying to promote one's own agenda. Thus, blocking and sanctions are not included as advocacy behaviors in this study. Ingratiation (e.g., making my supervisor feel important by praising them) is not included as a tactic for advocacy behavior because it is typically oriented towards appearing likable to others, whereas advocacy involves standing up for yourself even in the face of disagreement.

Self-advocacy represents actions one can take to achieve one's career goals and address one's needs, many of which are proactive in nature. Employees are increasingly taking an active role in their approach towards work, reflecting the boundaryless nature of today's careers (Hall, 1996) and research on proactive behaviors has emerged in this larger context. The proactive component of self-advocacy behaviors can be better understood through studies of different proactive behaviors. In the next sections I discuss the literature on career proactivity and identify behaviors that have a self-advocacy component relevant to the present study.

### *Theories of Proactive Career Behaviors*

Parker and Collins (2010) identified three key elements of proactivity: acting in anticipation, taking control, and self-initiation. Proactive behavior is an anticipatory action that is self-initiated with the intention of improving oneself or

one's situation (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2006). Proactive self-advocacy is also self-initiated and future-oriented to further one's career goals and achieve a better P-E fit. For example, an employee who notices that additional training could benefit their career growth may request that their supervisor pay for additional training. Proactivity can be shown by individuals in both in-role and extra role behaviors (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker & Collins, 2010). For example, employees might engage in extra role behavior by redefining one's role in pursuing opportunities that expand the scope of their work. Proactivity in in-role behavior can be seen when employees proactively reach out to colleagues to receive feedback on their current skills. In a similar way, self-advocacy can encompass both in-role and extra-role behaviors.

The concept of proactivity has received scholarly attention over the past 45 years in the organizational behavior literature. In the beginning, it was studied as a distinct concept from passive behaviors and used several conceptual and measurement approaches. For example, some proactive behaviors that have been examined include voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), taking charge to bring about change (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), career planning, consultation, skill development, and networking (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998), issue selling to higher management (Dutton & Ashford, 1993), and information and feedback-seeking (Morrison, 1993a, 1993b). A few researchers have attempted to synthesize and createframeworks for understanding multifaceted inquiry on proactive career behaviors (Claes & Ruiz- Quintanilla, 1998; Crant, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2010). In the next sub-section, I discuss two frameworks: The first attempts to classify

proactive behaviors based on the intended targets of impact in an organization; the second identifies antecedents and consequences of proactive behaviors.

### Three Higher – Order Factor Model of Proactive Behavior

Parker and Collins (2010) investigated the similarities, differences, and interrelationships among several proactive behaviors and classified them into three categories based on the intended targets of impact: (a) the internal organization environment (proactive work behavior), (b) the organization's fit with the external environment (proactive strategic behavior), and (c) the individual's fit within the organizational environment (proactive P-E fit behavior). In the introduction section, I mentioned that, for the purpose of this study, I will focus only on three of the ten proactive behavior variables: voice, job-change negotiation, and career initiative – all of which represent advocacy behaviors intended to further individual objectives at work. In this section, I discuss the relationships among the three variables and overview individual studies relevant to the career outcomes in this study.

Voice is classified as proactive work behavior where the focus is on exercising control by addressing the internal organizational environment. Morrison (2011), in a meta-analytic review, identified the following characteristics of voice behavior: it is a way to improve a situation related to an organizational or work-related problem or to improve a situation of unfairness or misconduct. Voice could be used to address a strategic issue of importance or to express opinions that differ from those of others.

In a longitudinal study, Xie et al. (2014) found that proactive personality at time 1 correlated with self-reported voice self-efficacy ($r = .45$, $p < .01$) at time 1 and

supervisor reported voice behavior ($r$ = .32, $p$ < .01) at time 2. They also found that voice self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between proactive personality and voice behavior after controlling for gender, age, education, and tenure. Janseen and Gao (2015) found that self-efficacy beliefs for voice moderated the indirect relationship between supervisory responsiveness and voice behavior through self-perceived status (the latter was defined as the perception of employees of their own status in their work group). Specifically, the relation between supervisor responsiveness and self-perceived status was strengthened by positive voice self-efficacy beliefs, thereby promoting voice behavior. Based on earlier findings, these authors controlled for the relations of age, sex, organizational tenure, education, and team size to voice behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). Tornau & Frese (2013) also found that voice was significantly positively related to age and gender.

There have been mixed findings about the relationship between voice and outcome variables like salary progression and promotions. Seibert et al. (2001) found that voice behavior was negatively related to both salary progression ($r$ = -.31, $p$ < .01) and promotions ($r$ = -.31, $p$ < .01) and did not find a significant relationship with career satisfaction. Wang et al. (2014) found that voice behavior was positively correlated with organizational rewards growth ($r$ = .38, $p$ < .01) and affective commitment ($r$ = .42, $p$ < .01) after controlling for age, gender, education level, and position.

Self-assertive behavior, like voice behavior, involves a certain amount of risk as it could challenge the status quo (Liu et al., 2010). Unlike voice behavior, self-

assertive behavior is not just focused on the benefit of an organization but involves acting in favor of oneself. It can be intended to fulfill a formal job responsibility (e.g., requesting to take the lead on a new project), and can involve the act of whistleblowing if it is intended to stop a specific activity (e.g., harassment) directed towards oneself. Self-assertive behaviors are specific actions individuals take to further their career goals, while voice refers to any communication that is intended to improve a situation in one's workplace. Although voice is a good measure of assessing some components of self-assertiveness, it does not incorporate all of its aspects. For this reason, I include job-change negotiation and career initiative as additional variables.

Job-change negotiation and career initiative were classified as proactive P-E fit behavior by Parker and Collins (2010). P-E fit behavior refers to the compatibility between the attributes and values of a person and the supplies and demands of the environment. For example, is the work environment able to provide resources that will further individuals' motivations and goals, or do the work demands correspond to the skills and abilities of the individual? Job-change negotiation and career initiative as advocacy behavior involves achieving a better P-E fit so that one's career goals, abilities, and values align with that of their environment.

In job-change negotiation, the individual is attempting to modify their job so that it better fits with their skills, abilities, and preferences (Ashford & Black, 1996; Nicholson, 1984). Career initiative comprises proactive behaviors such as career planning, skill development, and consultation (Seibert et al., 2001; Tharenou & Terry, 1998). Job change negotiation was found to correlated modestly with career initiative

($r$ = .23, $p$ < .01), voice ($r$ = .32, $p$ < .01) and taking charge ($r$ = .30, $p$ < .01) (Parker & Collins, 2010). In a hierarchical regression analysis, it was found that conscientiousness predicted both job-change negotiation ($r$ = .23, $p$ < .01) and career initiative ($r$ =.19, $p$ < .01), while role-breadth self-efficacy predicted only job-change negotiation ($r$ =.20, $p$ < .01). Further, performance goal orientation predicted job-change negotiation.

In a longitudinal study, Seibert et al. (2001) found that career initiative was positively related to proactive personality at time 1, salary progression from time 1 to time 2 (2 years later) ($r$ = .25, $p$ < .01), promotions ($r$ = .20, $p$ < .01) at time 2, and career satisfaction ($r$ = .36, $p$ < .01) at time 2. They found that the relationship of proactive personality to extrinsic career success (salary progression and promotions) and intrinsic career success (career satisfaction) was mediated by career initiative and other proactive behavior variables (e.g., innovation, political knowledge).

### An Integrated Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Proactive Behaviors

Crant (2000) created an integrative model of proactive behavior in which he depicted two broad categories of antecedents, individual differences and contextual factors. As shown in Figure 3, individual differences include one's general disposition or potential to engage in proactive behaviors (e.g., proactive personality, role breadth self-efficacy) as well as one's tendency to engage in more specific proactive behaviors (e.g., need for achievement, desire for feedback). Contextual factors include variables like organizational culture, management support, and organizational norms. These factors are related to the decision-making process of whether to engage proactively or not.

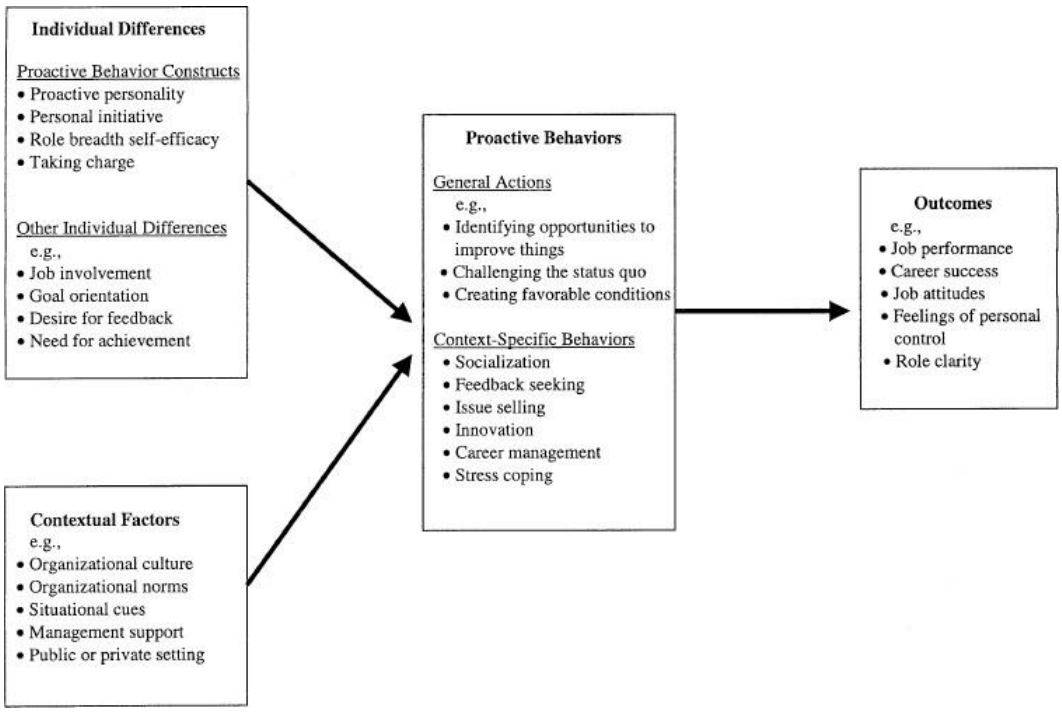



*Figure 3*. An Integrative Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Proactive Behaviors. Reprinted from "Proactive Behavior in Organizations", by J. M. Crant, 2000, Journal of management, 26(3), 435-462. Copyright 2000 by Elsevier Science Inc.

The central portion of this model categorizes proactive behavior itself in two ways: general actions to reflect broad categories of proactive behavior (e.g., challenging the status quo, creating favorable conditions) and contextual proactive behavior to capture specific behaviors that occur in a limited domain (e.g., feedback-seeking, socialization, career management). The outcomes (e.g., job performance, career success, feelings of personal control) in this model are described as the consequences of engaging in proactive behavior. Applied to the self-advocacy domain, proactive personality and perceived organizational support can be considered

as antecedent variables. Voice, career initiative, and job-change negotiation can be seen as context specific proactive behaviors, and the outcome variables (i.e., objective and subjective career success) for this study could be seen as consequences.

However, there are several drawbacks in applying this model to self-advocacy behaviors. For example, in this model, taking charge behavior – defined as a voluntary and constructive behavior aimed at improving organizational policies, methods, and procedures – was identified as an individual differences antecedent of proactive behavior. But in several other studies taking charge is classified as an indicator of proactive behavior (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker & Collins, 2010). This prompts the need for a better model that more clearly distinguishes between the antecedents, indicators, and consequences of proactive career behaviors, including self-advocacy behaviors. In the next section, I describe the CSM model as a framework for studying self-advocacy behaviors.

*Career Self-Management Model*

As an extension of SCCT's interest and choice models, Lent and Brown (2013) introduced a model of adaptive career behavior that focuses on the process aspects of career development and how individuals manage their careers over time. Some of the CSM variables as applied to self-advocacy behaviors overlap conceptually with Crant's (2000) integrative model variables, namely antecedents with person inputs, and contextual influences with contextual factors; their similarities and differences will be noted, below.

The CSM model defines adaptive career behaviors as actions taken by individuals to help steer their own career development both proactively and reactively

(i.e., either anticipating a work challenge and acting on it or addressing it after it has happened). In the organizational psychology literature, adaptive behaviors are seen as adapting to change and is different from proactive behavior, which involves initiating change (Griffin et al., 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010). As individuals adapt to change, they modify their actions to address the demands of new situations (Pulakos et al., 2000). In the current study, self-assertive behaviors have both proactive and reactive components.

In the CSM model, self-efficacy beliefs refer to individuals' beliefs about their ability to successfully perform a behavior or set of behaviors (Lent & Brown, 2006). In the case of self-advocacy, this would refer to beliefs about one's ability to successfully perform behaviors involved in advocating for oneself to further one's career goals and achieve better P-E fit. While proactive personality and self-efficacy are seen as antecedents to proactive behavior in Crant's (2000) model, in the CSM model, proactive personality could be conceptualized as a person-input trait variable that informs self-efficacy which, in turn, predicts the goals and actions in which one engages (e.g., voice, job-change negotiation). The behaviors, in turn, predict outcome variables, such as career satisfaction and career rewards growth. Although they were not developed within the context of the CSM model, proactive personality (as a person-input variable) and perceived organizational support (as a contextual variable) could be integrated within the CSM model and used as predictors of self-assertive efficacy and self-advocacy behavior.

Proactive Personality

Proactive personality is defined as the behavioral tendency to engage in proactive behavior. Individuals with a proactive personality are not constrained by their environment, can identify opportunities, and take action to bring meaningful change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Some example items measuring proactive personality include: "No matter what the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it" and "I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition." Numerous individual and meta-analytic studies have examined the relationships of proactive personality with Big Five traits, proactive career behaviors, job performance, and career success variables (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Seibert et al., 1999; Spitzmuller et al., 2015; Tornau & Frese, 2013). I will summarize the findings of some individual and meta-analytic studies relevant to the current study.

In a sample of 496 business and engineering alumni of a large private Mid-western university who graduated 3-30 years prior to the date of the study, Seibert et al. (1999) found that proactive personality accounted for a significant increase in the amount of variance in log salary ($\Delta R^2 = .01, p < .05$) and the number of promotions over their entire career ($\Delta R^2 = .01, p < .05$) explained by the model. They controlled for several demographic (e.g., gender, SES, marital status), motivational (desire for upward mobility), and organizational (e.g., occupation, number of employees in the firm) variables. The regression model including the control variables and proactive personality explained 54% of the variance in salary and 37% of the variance in the number of promotions. Proactive personality was also found to account for a significant increase in the amount of variance in career satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .07, p <$

.05) beyond that explained by the control variables, log salary, and number of promotions (the full predictive model accounted for 37% of the variance in career satisfaction).

In a meta-analytic review, Tornau and Frese (2013) found that proactive personality correlated significantly with voice behavior (sample size weighted and reliability corrected mean effect size ($r_{wc}$) = .28). They also found that proactive personality correlated negatively with agreeableness ($\beta = -.28$) and neuroticism ($\beta = -.09$). Fuller and Marler (2009) found that proactive personality was significantly correlated with voice (*K*=10, $\rho$= .26), taking charge (*K*= 5, $\rho$ = .28), and career initiative (*K*= 9, $\rho$ = .35). They also found that proactive personality relates to role breadth self-efficacy (*K*=5, $\rho$ = .49), job-search self-efficacy (*K*=3, $\rho$ = .51), and career self-efficacy (*K*=2, $\rho$ = .56). These results suggest that people with proactive personalities feel confident in being able to manage their careers and tend to engage in a variety of proactive tasks and behaviors.

### Perceived Organizational Support

POS is a context variable that could be adapted to the CSM model to study self-assertive behaviors. In a meta-analytic review of perceived organizational support, Kurtessis et al. (2017) found that POS was positively related to supervisor support ($\rho$ = .60), developmental opportunities ($\rho$ = .57), job security ($\rho$ = .42), flexible work schedules ($\rho$ =.21), autonomy ($\rho$ = .51); it related negatively to role conflict ($\rho$ = -.45) and role overload ($\rho$ = -.29). They also found that POS was positively related to dispositional tendencies like positive affectivity (β = .06) and negatively related to negative affectivity (β = -.24).

In another review of 70 studies on the antecedents and consequences of POS, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that fair treatment (encompassing both procedural justice and organizational politics) was strongly correlated with POS ($\beta = .06$, $p < .01$), supervisor support ($\beta = .32$, $p < .01$)., and organizational rewards and job conditions ($\beta = .12$, $p < .01$). Further POS was positively correlated with job satisfaction ($\beta = .12$, $p < .01$) and negatively correlated with turnover intentions ($\beta = .12$, $p < .01$). They also found that organizational type (e.g., manufacturing) moderated the relationship between POS and both fair treatment and organizational rewards such that manufacturing employees displayed a stronger relationship between fairness and POS. For educational employees, the relationship between rewards and POS was lower compared to other employees. They found a small significant correlation between POS and age, education, gender, and tenure.

In another study of employees at two private organizations offering computer, technological service, and banking consultancy services, Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) found that general self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between POS and work engagement, as reflected by high levels of energy, dedication, and concentration towards one's work. They found that organizational type, age, and tenure significantly correlated with POS and general self-efficacy. Additionally, POS was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to psychological strains.

### Applications of CSM Model to Other Career Processes

Although the CSM model has not been applied in the domain of proactive or self-advocacy behaviors, it has been studied in different career process domains like

career exploration and decision-making. Lent et al. (2016) found that self-efficacy strongly predicted two outcomes of career exploration (i.e., career decidedness and decisional anxiety). Ireland and Lent (2018) also found that self-efficacy correlated positively with career decidedness ($r = .35$, $p < .05$). They also found that self-efficacy played a mediating role between social support and career decidedness.

Lim et al. (2016) used the career self-management model to understand the job search process of unemployed job seekers and graduating college seniors in two studies. In the first study, job search self-efficacy mediated the relationship of social support, conscientiousness, and perceived control to job search intentions. In the second study, they found that self-efficacy mediated the relationship of conscientiousness, support, and perceived control to job search behavior through its path to job search intentions.

A meta-analysis by Kim et al. (2019) reported relationships between job search self-efficacy (JSSE) and several CSM variables of interest, such as gender and education (person inputs), personality and supports (antecedents), job search goals and behaviors, and job satisfaction and depression (outcome variables). They found that JSSE significantly related to education (mean weighted effect sizes ($ES_r$) = .15), proactive personality ($ES_r$ = .52), job-search support ($ES_r$ = .34), job-search intention ($ES_r$ = .27), job-search effort ($ES_r$ = .29), self-exploration ($ES_r$ = .31). They also found that JSSE was positively correlated with job satisfaction ($ES_r$ = .17), life satisfaction ($ES_r$ = .44), and negatively correlated with depression ($ES_r$ = −.19) and anxiety ($ES_r$ = −.31).

Another subset of studies looked at multiple role management. Roche et al. (2017), in a study of emerging adults, found that multiple role balance self-efficacy (MRSE) beliefs related to role balance intentions ($r = .20$, $p < .05$) and conscientiousness ($r = .40$, $p < .05$). They also found that the relationship between conscientiousness and role balance intentions was fully mediated by self-efficacy, suggesting that individuals who are conscientious have stronger intentions because they feel self-efficacious in their abilities to manage multiple roles. In a study of 693 working men, Kim et al. (2018) they found that MRSE predicted work-family spillover (outcomes of adaptive behavior). They also found evidence that contextual influences like conformity to masculine norms directly and indirectly influenced positive spillover between work and family through MBSE. Further, these CSM variables (i.e., work-family spill over, MBSE) explained a significant amount of variance in job, family, and life satisfaction.

Two studies applied the CSM model to understand the sexual identity management process of sexual minority workers. Tatum et al. (2017) found that concealment motivation (a person input variable), defined as one's motivation to not disclose their sexual identity, relates negatively to disclosure status. They also found that sexual identity management self-efficacy partially mediates the relationship between concealment motivation and disclosure status and between workplace climate and disclosure status. In another study, Tatum (2018) found that self-efficacy predicted disclosure status which, in turn, was predictive of job satisfaction. He also found that the relationship between disclosure status and job satisfaction was moderated by workplace climate.

*Summary*

Self-assertive efficacy at work may be an important variable in organizations where personal success is partly tied to proactivity and assertion. However, commonly used measures in the domain, like self-efficacy for voice (Janssen & Gao, 2015) and occupational self-efficacy (Abele & Spurk, 2009), do not capture the full array of advocacy in workplaces. For instance, occupational self-efficacy is a content-specific type of career self-efficacy and refers to beliefs about one's ability to fulfill job tasks and demands successfully, irrespective of the particular occupational context (Abele & Spurk, 2009). CASA-W goes beyond understanding efficacy beliefs for fulfilling in-role behaviors and seeks to understand beliefs specific to various self-advocacy behaviors, for example, regarding salaries, promotions, leaves, and harassment. Similarly, voice self-efficacy provides only a limited view of self-advocacy.

This study will attempt to develop a measure of self-efficacy beliefs for engaging in a multitude of advocacy behaviors that are intended to further one's career goals and achieve better P-E fit. Although the literature on self-assertiveness is relatively well established, it tends to view assertiveness in more global, domain-specific terms, and is not embedded within a unifying theory. The current study seeks to design a novel measure of self-assertive efficacy that is linked to the CSM model. The study will explore the underlying factor structure to see if it aligns with a two-factor (or more complex) structure, similar to measurement in other domains (e.g., Kipnis et al., 1980). If the scale demonstrates adequate psychometric properties, it will be used in testing hypotheses derived from the CSM model.

# Appendices

*Appendix A*

**Screening Questions (Chandler et al., 2019)**

Q1. Which of the following words is MOST related to "moody"?

O distant
O stable
O fantastic
O emotional

Q2. Which of the following words is MOST related to "distracted"?

O thoughtful
O unfocused
O generous
O beautiful

Q3. Which of the following words is MOST closely related to "persevere"?

O persist
O tame
O forgetful
O lucky

Q4. Which of the following words is MOST closely related to "sympathy"?

O compassion
O sociable
O truthful
O honest

Q5. Please enter the text exactly as it appears.
Captcha

Eligibility questions for the study

Q6. Are you between 25 – 55 years of age?

Q7. Are you currently employed by an organization full-time in the US?

*Appendix B*

**Informed Consent Form**

Thank you for your interest in the workplace experiences study!

This is a roughly 10-12-minute survey that will ask you to complete several brief scales that will ask about your attitudes about doing different career related tasks and behaviors. The results of this study could be used to help employees like yourself in the future.

Below is a consent form that describes the study and asks for your consent to participate. **Please review the consent form below.**

| | |
|---|---|
| **Project Title** | Workplace experiences and Career Advancement Study |
| **Purpose of the Study** | This research is being conducted by Bhanu Priya Moturu, MS under the supervision of Robert W. Lent, PhD of the University of Maryland, College Park. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you: (a) are between the ages of 25 and 55 years old, (b) are employed full-time by an organization in the US (i.e., not self-employed)<br><br>The purpose of this research is to ask about U.S. employees' career related beliefs and behaviors to examine factors related to career development and advancement. |
| **Procedures** | This study consists of a roughly 10-12-minute survey. The survey will ask you about your career related attitudes and behaviors. For example, the survey will ask you questions such as, "How much confidence do you have in your ability to ask for help from your co-workers when you feel you could use it?" and rate your agreement with statements such as, "My organization values my contribution to its well-being.." |
| **Compensation** | As a result of your participation, you will be eligible for compensation in the amount you had agreed to with the platform through which you are taking the survey. |
| **Potential Risks and Discomforts** | The main risks of participating are potential reactions to the survey items. Specifically, it is possible you may feel uncomfortable answering some of the survey questions. Also, some questions ask about sensitive information. If this happens, please remember that you can exit the survey at any time. Additionally, if you have concerns about privacy, you are welcome to complete the survey in a comfortable environment of your choosing. |

| | |
|---|---|
| **Potential Benefits** | Although there are no direct benefits from your participation in this research study, the results of the study may help us understand more about the factors that help workers advance in their careers. Through improved understanding of these factors, we hope to support the development of interventions that will help employees, employers, and human resource professionals grow in their careers. |
| **Confidentiality** | You will not be required to provide information that may link your identity to your survey responses. We will do our best to minimize any potential loss of confidentiality. The data will be collected via Qualtrics® and stored on their database, which is only accessible with a password. Once the information is downloaded, it will be stored in a password-protected computer. Any reports will be based on all survey responses. This means that your response will never be reported individually. |
| **Right to Withdraw and Questions** | Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time by closing your browser. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.<br>If you decide to stop taking part in the study, if you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or if you need to report an injury related to the research, please feel free to contact the investigator(s):<br><br>Bhanu Priya Moturu at (Hackett et al., 1991)3214<br>Mail Room, Benjamin Building,<br>University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742<br>(301) 405-2878<br><br>**or**<br><br>Dr. Robert W. Lent at boblent@umd.edu<br>3207 Benjamin Building, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742; (301) 405-2878 |
| **Participant Rights** | If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact:<br><br>**University of Maryland College Park**<br>**Institutional Review Board Office**<br>**1204 Marie Mount Hall**<br>**College Park, Maryland, 20742**<br>**E-mail:** irb@umd.edu<br>**Telephone: 301-405-0678** |

| | |
|---|---|
| | This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects. |
| **Statement of Consent** | By selecting your choice below you are indicating your right to consent or not consent electronically.<br><br>Selecting "Yes, I Consent" and clicking on the "Continue" button below indicates that you are at least 25 years old and have read and understand the terms of this study and thus voluntarily agree to participate.<br><br>If you do NOT wish to participate in this study, please select "No, I DO NOT Consent" and click "Continue" to decline participation. |

___Yes, I consent to participate
___No, I do NOT consent to participate

*Appendix C*

**Confidence at Self-Advocacy at work (CASA-W)**

How confident are you that you can do each of the following tasks?

| No Confidence | Little Confidence | Some Confidence | Mostly Confident | Very Confident |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**PROACTIVE ADVOCACY**

1. Ask for a pay raise when you feel you deserve one
2. Volunteer for new projects that can benefit your career advancement
3. Nominate yourself for awards in your workplace
4. Request resources (e.g., equipment) you need to do your job better
5. Say "no" to unreasonable requests at work
6. Let your supervisor know if you are having difficulty with a work assignment
7. Advocate for changes in company policies you feel are unfair to you
8. Request a flexible work schedule from your supervisor
9. Point out your accomplishments to your supervisor
10. Speak up against discrimination or bias that you feel is directed toward you (e.g., based on your age, appearance, gender, race, or religion)
11. Ask for a promotion that you want
12. Let your supervisor know if you think their feedback about your work is unfair
13. Speak up if you feel you are being asked to work too many hours

14. Request that your supervisor provide training to assist your professional development
15. Let a co-worker know if you feel they are treating you in an unfair or discriminatory way
16. Ask for help with job tasks from your co-workers when you feel you could use it
17. Let your co-workers know about your accomplishments at work
18. Express your concerns about job assignments that you feel are unethical
19. Ask for a personal (e.g., health) leave if and when you feel you need one
20. Negotiate for better benefits for yourself, apart from pay
21. Ask to leave early from work on occasion to take care of non-work issues
22. Decline unsolicited help from co-workers

*Appendix D*

**Proactive Personality Scale (Seibert et al., 2000)**

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing from the following options

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |

1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.

2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive

3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.

4. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.

5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it

6. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.

7. I excel at identifying opportunities.

8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.

9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it change.

10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.

*Appendix E*

**Self-Efficacy for Voice (Janssen & Gao, 2015)**

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing from the following options

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |

1. I am self-assured about my capabilities to voice my opinion about work activities.

2. I have enough skills and experience to voice my opinion.

3. I am confident about my ability to voice my opinion in the team.

*Appendix F*

**Short Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (Rigotti et al., 2008)**

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements

| Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

1. I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities.
2. When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions.
3. Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.
4. My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future.
5. I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job.
6. I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.

*Appendix G*

**Survey of Perceived Organizational Support Scale (Eisenberger et al. (1986); Worley et al., 2009)**

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about your workplace. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing from the following options

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.

2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)

3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)

4. The organization really cares about my well-being.

5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)

6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.

7. The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)

8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

*Appendix H*

**Voice (LePine and VanDyne, 1998)**

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing from the following options

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |

1. I develop and make recommendations to my supervisor concerning issues that affect my work.

2. I speak up and encourage others in my work unit to get involved in issues that affect our work.

3. I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my work unit, even if their opinions are different and they disagree with me.

4. I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to this work group.

5. I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.

6. I speak up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

*Appendix I*

**Career Initiative (Tharenou and Terry, 1998)**

Please indicate how often you engaged in the following behaviors in the past 12 months using the scale given below.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Never | Occassionally | Sometimes | Often | Frequently |

1. I have sought feedback on my job performance.

2. I have discussed my career prospects with someone with more experience in the department/organization

3. I have engaged in career path planning

4. I have updated my skills in order to be more competitive for promotion

5. I have discussed my aspirations with a senior person in the department/organization

6. I have volunteered for activities other than my day-to-day work tasks, such as working parties and selection panels.

*Appendix J*

**Job change negotiation (Ashford and Black, 1996)**

Rate the extent to which you engage in the following behavior ranging from 1- (to no extent) to 5 (to a great extent).

To what extent do you…

1. Negotiate with others about your task assignments and role expectations?

2. Negotiate with others (e.g., supervisor, coworkers) about the demands placed

on you?

3. Negotiate with others (e.g., supervisor, coworkers) about desirable job changes?

*Appendix K*

**Organizational rewards Growth (Weng and McElroy, 2012)**

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing from the following options

| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1. My promotion speed in the present organization is fast
2. The probability of being promoted in my present organization is high
3. Compared with previous organizations, my position in my present one is ideal
4. Compared with my colleagues, I am being promoted faster
5. My salary is growing quickly in my present organization
6. In this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is very large
7. Compared with my colleagues, my salary has grown more quickly.

*Appendix L*

**Objective Career Success: Hierarchical status (Abele and Spurk, 2009)**

Please think about your current work position and select if the following statements apply to you.

1. Do you have permission to delegate work – Yes, No

2. Do you have Project responsibility – Yes, No

3. Do you have an official leadership position – Yes, No

*Appendix M*

**Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990) – "subjective career success" per Siebert et al. (1999)**

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing from the following options

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |

1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.

2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my overall career goals

3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for income

4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for advancement

5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for the development of new skills

New Items

6. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards promoting my accomplishments and successes at work

7. I am satisfied with the efforts I have made to get fair treatment for myself at work

*Appendix N*

**Demographic Variables**

1. Age: _
2. Gender Identity:

   O Male

   O Female

   O Other (Please Specify): ___

3. Race/ethnicity

   O Black or African American O Hispanic American or Latino/a

   O White or European American O Asian/Pacific Islander-American

   O Native American O Multiracial

   O Other (please specify): _____

4. Please indicate which option best describes the highest level of education you have attained: [drop-down menu]

   O Less than high school

   O High school graduate (or equivalent)

   O Some college (1-4 years, no degree)

   O Associate's degree (including occupational or academic degrees)

   O Bachelor's degree (BA, BS, AB, etc)

   O Master's degree (MA, MS, MENG, MSW, etc)

   O Professional school degree (MD, DDC, JD, etc)

   O Doctorate degree (PhD, EdD, etc)

5. How many hours do you work on an average per week? ___

6. Please indicate which option best described your current yearly pay range (from all sources of your work: [drop-down menu]

   O Less than $10,000

   O $10,000 to $19,999

   O $20,000 to $29,999

   O $30,000 to $39,999

   O $40,000 to $49,999

   O $50,000 to $59,999

   O $60,000 to $69,999

   O $70,000 to $79,999

   O $80,000 to $89,999

   O $90,000 to $99,999

   O $100,000 to $149,999

   O $150,000 to $199,999

   O $200,000 or more

7. Desire for Upward mobility:

   Participants will indicate their degree of agreement with each statement using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

   a. I would like a job with more responsibility

   b. I would feel much better at working at my company, if I were promoted.

   c. If I'm not promoted from my present job within three to five years, I will be disappointed.

   d. I am not interested in moving from my present job. (Reverse scored)

["16 Career Clusters" from the O*NET – present as a drop-down menu:]

8. Which of the following best describes your primary occupation or type of work:

O Agriculture, Food & Natural Resources

O Architecture & Construction

O Arts, Audio/Video Technology & Communications

O Business, Management & Administration

O Education & Training

O Finance

O Government & Public Administration

O Health Science

O Hospitality & Tourism

O Human Services

O Information Technology

O Law, Public Safety, Corrections & Security

O Manufacturing

O Marketing, Sales & Service

O Science, Technology, Engineering & Mathematics

O Transportation, Distribution & Logistics

O Other: Please specify_____

9. Approximately, how many employees work at the organization you are in? ____

10. How would you describe your work category?

O Blue-collar (e.g., manual labor, trade occupations)

O White-collar (e.g., administrative, IT)

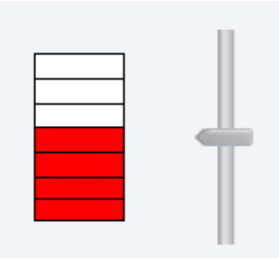
O Other: Please specify _____

11. Please select the state in which you reside in [drop-down menu]

_____State

12. Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in your organization. At the top of the ladder are the people who are at the top of the organization (e.g., top leaders). At the bottom are the people who are entry-level workers with lower pay and lower skill requirements. The higher up you are on this ladder, the closer you are to the very top; the lower you are, the closer you are to the people at the very bottom. Where would you place yourself on this ladder?

Please use the slider and select where you think you stand at this time in your organization relative to other people in your organization.



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