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The role of the future in work motivation

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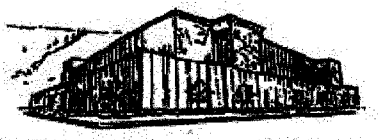

The Role of the Future

in Work Motivation

by

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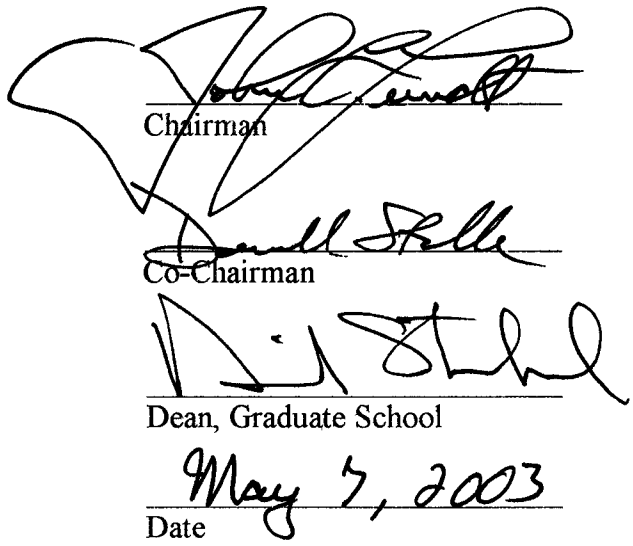

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The Role of the Future in Work Motivation

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This qualitative inquiry articulated a grounded theory of workplace motivation through investigating the degree to which and the way in which thoughts of the future were integrated into the thinking and the behaviors of twelve purposefully selected subjects from organizations in education, business, and government from across the state of Montana. Subjects represented a range of authoritative positions within their work organizations, from subordinate to authority. Data was collected during one-on-one semi-structured interviews and analyzed through a codified process of (a) open coding, (b) axial coding, and (c) selective coding.

Open coding revealed a number of categories by which interviewees think about and act upon ideas of the future within the workplace: "workplace factors", "personality factors", "changing environments", and "career scripts". These categories were then examined within context during axial coding and analyzed for the conditions, consequences, actions, and interactions that took place from the perspectives of the interviewees. Relationships between individual perceptions, behaviors, and transactions within the work environment were thus, systematically examined from a "micro" perspective. During selective coding, a narrative script was developed through re-approaching the data and resultant findings from a "macro" approach and completing a plausible explanation for the development of the phenomenon. This narrative report interrelated the categories recognized within the initial two stages of analysis and provides the foundation for the resultant theory generated through this study. A simplified visual model is offered as a conclusion of the analysis.

It was found that workplace Future Time Perspective is often actively engaged through work activities, being influenced by workplace rhythms, perceived opportunities, threats, and the lack of time to accomplish one's objectives. Future Time Perspective is often deemed necessary to perform common workplace activities and is even extended through workplace goals, deadlines, and seasons of activity. A number of environmental cues were reported as eliciting thoughts about the future within the workplace. The researcher posits that an important finding of this study is that workplace Future Time Perspective is a transactional mental representation resulting from person-environment interactions. For instance, attributional style, locus of control, and personal organizational commitment were found to be important factors that differentiated the Future Time Perspective of the interviewees across situations and work environments. This merits a re-examination of Future Time Perspective as a stable disposition and a call for integration of a better understood construct into theory and practice for education, business, and government.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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To my daughter Sophia and her mysterious sibling: thanks for peeling away the grime of the world, giving me a future better than that which work, school, experience or even dreams could grant me. It's said that, "the future belongs to those who give the next generation reason to hope", but you've given it to the preceding one: a real gift, indeed.

Thank you. May your futures be long, detailed, and bursting with hope!

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

"If you do not think about the future, you cannot have one."
- John Galsworthy, 1928

As a new millennium dawns and information technologies seem to be everywhere at once, "the future" is rising in popularity as a topic of conversation. Modern organizations seem to be undergoing continuous reorganization in order to remain viable as social, technological, economic, environmental, and political arenas become steeped in change. It is improbable that a person can pick up a newspaper or pass by a television without taking notice of the mergers, acquisitions, innovations, downsizing, or reengineering of one company or another. We live in a time of flux. Each individual learns to adapt to these changes with varying degrees of success and failure.

Our collective future has become more uncertain as economies are unstable, traditional ideas and technologies are continually rendered obsolete and supplanted by newer innovations, and institutions alter their missions and their means of doing business. The learning revolution transforming American business and public life has been accredited with the massive increase in the volume of information, the requirement of technological competence as a workplace skill, the rise of telecommuting as a workplace alternative, and the demand for increased collaboration, re-skilling, and selectivity (Oblinger & Rush, 1997).

In an effort to create success within a dynamic environment, there is a call for organizational "vision" (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). The ability to express a

captivating direction that marshals employee strength and galvanizes resolve toward accomplishing a mutually shared purpose is underscored among the literature on leadership (Sergiovanni, 1989; Covey, 1990; Bolman & Deal, 1995; Wheatley, 1994, Yukl, 1998). Articulating vision allows for many people to work toward a shared desired reality that does not yet exist. This is particularly necessary during times of change and instability (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

As a number of studies on the nature of organizational visions have been done over the years, there have also been many clinically researched investigations into the nature of how perceptions of the future influence an individual's motivations, goals and, ultimately, behavior. The degree to which these mental representations have an impact upon one's present behavior is thought to largely contribute to an individual's capacity to anticipate and work toward a future goal (Nuttin, 1985; Lamm, et al., 1976; Bandura, 1989; Husman & Lens, 1999). This construct, known as Future Time Perspective has been variously defined from a number of disciplines, with a variety of instruments having been developed along the way purporting to measure a person's capacity to envision a reality not yet present. The resulting problem, however is, as Seijts puts it:

> most of these measures do not provide consistent results on test-retest coefficients and different tests of the constructs have been found to have low convergent validity. Because there does not seem to be a clear and concise definition of Future Time Perspective that researchers can agree

on, the boundaries and nature of its properties remain a mystery to social scientists (1998, p. 159).

Understanding how individuals perceive the future and how this affects their lives is thus, in need of clarification. In particular, this relationship of how people conceive of the future as they go about their daily business may have a direct correlation to the way goals and work are pursued and represented. The context of this study can be described as the convergence of individual future representation, the perception and articulation of goals, and the organizational work environment.

Statement of the Problem

Future Time Perspective studies in the twentieth century have examined the way people consider distant outcomes in choosing their behaviors using a variety of construct definitions and a number of differing theoretical bases from which to conduct their research. Locke and Latham (1990) acknowledged that Future Time Perspective is a disposition that has not been studied very much and yet shows promise with respect to its relationship to goal setting.

It is conceivable that many of the theories that describe and explain Future Time Perspective are incomplete, or at least, ill-structured. This follows because the emphasis of most studies into elusive constructs such as consciousness, creativity, or perceptions of the future have been conducted just as those into many other scientific investigations of the 20th century: to support a given hypothesis that is usually made prior to the collection of data (i.e. quantitative methodology). The problem may quite possibly have been framed without first

defining the crux of the issue, or the interrelationships between dimensions not yet being fully worked out. Seijts (1998) identifies several problems with previous research regarding Future Time Perspective: (a) the lack of a clear and agreed-upon definition of Future Time Perspective; (b) a lack of understanding of the antecedents and how the capacity develops; and (c) lack of relation of Future Time Perspective as a construct to other dispositions and psychological constructs.

Absent from the literature is an adequate portrayal of Future Time Perspective as it is experienced from the individual's point of view within the work setting. A lack of understanding of how perceptions of the future influence the individual in motivation, goal setting, and behavior leaves organizations with an incomplete knowledge base from which to conduct vision-critical and mission-critical operations. A clearer sense of how perceptions of the future influence one's everyday workplace motivations and behaviors could assist both organizational efforts and individual pursuits. As people are assumed to make decisions based upon their perceptions rather than their actual situations (Lewin, 1935).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to develop a grounded theory of employee perceptions of the future and the ways in which they believe those perceptions influence their varied personal goals within the organizational setting. The theory to be generated used an inductive "construct-oriented, or category approach" as described by Creswell (1998), Glaser and Strauss (1967), and Strauss and Corbin

(1998). Through analysis of the varying perceptions of individuals' workplace future goals in a systematic way, this study offers insight into the personal and interpersonal dynamics of pursuing an organizational mission.

The far off, cumulative result of daily behaviors may be perceived as different, possible futures for the organization depending upon the individual role or perceived status of the individual in the workplace. Discovering differences in the way people mentally represent and act to create their respective desired futures may provide insight for organizations attempting to create a unified workforce collaborating on a single, preferred future.

This descriptive, categorical study has integrated and compared each subject's personal motivational profile with the organizational mission and their self-reported job roles and tasks to derive a theory relating Future Time Perspective to goal setting and motivation in careers. Through the constant comparative methods afforded the researcher via the Grounded Theory design, the relationships between working roles, behaviors, and Future Time Perspective are described.

Observations made from within the context of the natural setting is perhaps the best position from which to understand the degree to which individuals think about and actively engage in behaviors that are oriented toward attaining a particular goal within that setting. The product of this study is a theory that is consistent with the raw data collected from individuals within the work environment about their perceived futures as it relates to their work within the organization. The research questions were designed in such a way as to elicit that

part of consciousness where a person's ideas of the future, their goals and motivations, and their perceptions of their own work environment entwine, creating a relatively stable set of behaviors and cognitions.

Research Questions

Creswell (1994) delineated the methodology generally ascribed as Grounded Theory research in such way that it begins with a guiding or compelling major "grand tour" question. This question and the interrelated sub-questions were constructed so as to encompass the purpose and direction for the investigation, but so as not to limit the inquiry. As the intention of this study was to examine the interaction between individual perceptions of the future and their motivation in the workplace, the question is defined as:

How are an individual's perceptions of the future and their work motivation related?

The two sub-questions that stemmed from and further enhanced this grand tour question were:

1. How are an individual's ideas and images of the future influencing what one does and plans for at work?

2. What aspects of the work environment have an influence upon the way an individual acts toward and makes plans for their personal futures?

These questions provided a direction for the course of study and aided in the development of a grounded theory describing the perceptions of the future as they influenced goal-setting and work-related behaviors of individuals from within the work setting. A research question rationale and initial interview questions are provided in Chapter Three, Methodology.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms were defined for the purposes of this study:

Action Plan

An action plan is the behavioral sequence the subject intends to enact in order to attain a goal. Each action plan consists of three dimensions: *direction* (the actual behavioral sequence); *amplitude* (the intensity of the action), and *duration* (the persistence of the action). (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

Explanatory Style

Seligman defines explanatory style as "habits of explanation", or ways that individuals habitually attribute causes to events in the world. Three dimensions of explanation characterize an individual's style of attribution: permanence, personalization, and pervasiveness (1991, p. 43). Explanatory style underlies the phenomena of optimism and pessimism in individual behavior and cognition (Seligman, 1991).

Future Time Perspective

Husman and Lens define Future Time Perspective as "the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal-setting processes" (1999, p. 114).

Goal

Tubbs and Ekeberg define goals as, "the desired outcome of action" (1991, p. 181).

Goal-Setting

"Goal-setting" is the establishment of a standard or objective to serve as the aim of one's actions (Locke & Latham, 1990; Seijts, 1998).

Goal Commitment

The construct of goal commitment is concerned with the relationship between goals and task performance. Seijts (unpublished manuscript) emphasizes that goal commitment, "should be assessed across time to examine the dynamic interplay between goals, commitment, and performance". Goal Commitment, "refers to the one's attachment to or determination to reach a goal, regardless of where it came from" (Locke and Latham, 1990, p. 125).

Inducement Systems

Leonard defines Inducement Systems as, "those design aspects of an organization which act to energize, direct, or sustain behavior within the organization" (1995, p. 15).

Intention

A broader term than *goal*, intentions are defined as representing both desired end state, as well as the action cognitively represented to achieve it (Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991, p. 181).

Life Tasks

Cantor, et al. define Life Tasks as "...The problems that people see themselves as working on and devoting energy to solving at a particular period in life. They are the basic units into which people lump their daily activities and by which they give specific and concrete meaning to their current goals" (1986, pp. 97-98).

Motivation

Webster's Dictionary defines motivation as, "The act or process (such as a need or desire) of causing a person to act" (1987, p. 759). Motivation concerns itself with changes in behavior and with the factors that direct this change. Motivation inquiries study what people know of their own potential, what they plan to accomplish, or, alternatively, what they fear for the future. Such studies can reveal the meaning, the direction, and the boundaries of these behavioral changes (Cantor, et al., 1986). Motivation refers to both the inferences we make about conscious intent through observation of behavior and the stated thoughts of such intents that may lead to probable behavior (McClelland, 1987). Motivation, is thus, indicated through behavior, thought, and emotion (Dimasio, 1999).

Optimism

A belief, conceptualized in certain terms of one's expectations of likelihood for positive future outcomes (Hinze & Suire, 1997).

Optimists

Seligman has stated that optimists ... "believe defeat is just a temporary setback, that its causes are confined to this one case. The optimists believe defeat is not their fault: Circumstances, bad luck, or other people brought it about. Such people are unfazed by defeat. Confronted by a bad situation, they perceive it as a challenge and try harder." (1991, p. 4-5).

Organizational Success

Organizational success is defined as systematic progress toward mutually agreed upon goals (McCaw, 1999). This progress may either be referred to as formative or summative evaluation of organizational activity, or by ongoing observational phenomenon.

Pessimism

An explanatory style wherein the individual sees themselves as the source and reason for negative outcomes in a global, stable, and personal way (Seligman, 1991).

Pessimists

Pessimists are defined by their beliefs that bad events will last, will undermine everything they do, and that they are personally responsible for bringing them about (Seligman, 1991, p. 4).

Possible Selves

Possible selves, as defined by Cantor, et al. "systematically represent the potential for change in the self, for better or worse, from the present to the future. These cognitive representations include ideas about what is possible for the individual to be, to think, to feel, to experience, or to be perceived as, and as such, they provide end states to strive for or to avoid." (1986, p. 99).

Proximate Goals

Proximate goals are defined as small tentative steps necessary to achieving a distant goal (Seijts, 1998).

Delimitation of the Study

This study is delimited to a sample of purposefully selected subjects from Montana organizations within the fields of education, business, and government.

Limitations

The generalizability of the findings is limited because sampling was done purposefully to, "facilitate the expansion of the developing theory," (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992, p.71-72). Creswell (1994) has cautioned that qualitative research may not be generalizable or replicable due to the uniqueness of the study within a specific context. Others have stated users of research findings must assume the responsibility of determining whether these findings are appropriate to their situation and the findings should be regarded as tools with which to work (Eisner, 1991). The study has been designed to capture the essence of organizational vision behavior from organizations and the Future Time Perspective of residents

working within the state of Montana. Generalizations beyond this context are beyond the scope and intent of the proposed study.

Causal inferences of the origin and relationship of Future Time Perspective and Goal-Setting to Motivation may not be made since this was a qualitative research inquiry. This inquiry has been conducted within the spirit of the interpretive, constructivist paradigm which seeks to understand the reality and underlying meanings associated with it, as viewed from the individuals being researched (Creswell, 1994). The theory generated inter-relates the perspectives of individuals in the workplace concerning their motives, goal-directed behaviors, and Future Time Perspectives. The interviews were limited in that they will supply data, which has been filtered a priori through the interviewee (Creswell, 1994). Limiting the study to the personally articulated meanings by which workers attributed their occupational activities as contributing to their individual futures enhanced, rather than detracted from the potential significance of the study.

Significance of the Study

This study is the only known research inquiry which purports to have generated a theory around a qualitative investigation of individual perceptions of the future and their motivation in the workplace. The research will inform existing knowledge in the area of Future Time Perspective, goal setting, and motivation within that milieu. This study was designed to be relevant for the purposes of research theories, organizational practices, and administrative policy-making. The relationship of Future Time Perspective to goal setting and behavior within the

modern workplace may furthermore have particular relevance for the art and practices of the "Learning Organization" (Senge, 1990). The enterprise of teaching and learning can both benefit in many ways from the results of this research inquiry.

First, for the purposes of organizational research, the study provides a coherent theory that brings together ideas previously articulated only in separate works of inquiry. Examining the goals of individuals within the context of their working environment and developing a theory that is grounded in data from that observation may provide an understanding of people and how they best collectively pursue a mutual purpose. The fabric woven by the juxtaposition of three contextual elements may be better understood as the study is one of the first to examine Future Time Perspective, worker-organization dynamics, and goal-setting theory. Organizations may be better understood as the fluid, dynamic cultures that they are (Sergiovani, 1986) when theory describing the contextual phenomena within them is dynamically considered. The understanding developed here may serve to bridge theories that seek to describe organizational dynamics and those which seek to understand individual ones. In particular, the question of how thinking about the future is related to goal setting and motivation theories is investigated. Establishing a theoretical framework which interrelates the varying motivations, behaviors, opportunities, and barriers experienced by individuals with different positions of influence in the organization may be a key toward understanding the variables associated with these complex constructs. The

relationships between these constructs are in need of illustration yet remain largely unexplored (Siejts, 1998).

A possible theoretical significance is that this study has documented the experiences of subjects rather than testing the working hypotheses and theories of the researchers. This may contribute to the literature and theory of both goal-setting and Future Time Perspective in the event that new themes or aspects of the constructs may arise through the didactic interaction of the subjects and the researcher (Patton, 1990). The theory generated from this research has been derived from the perspectives of the subjects, consistent with methodological advice from Creswell (1998). This may contribute to the understanding of how visions are pursued through comparing and contrasting the Future Time Perspectives and goals of individuals with different degrees of participation within the organization. This is a qualitative study and this inquiry may be uniquely at advantage to show possible differences in the reasons for goal commitment, as Seijts (1998) has mentioned a need for. The methods of qualitative research may be suitable to illuminate relationships previously unconsidered or unexamined by quantitative methods, as goal commitment research concerns itself with personal goals and a person's performance over time toward attaining them.

This study is potentially relevant to organizational practices by illustration of the individuals' perceptions of what motivates them to work toward a distant future, and by inter-relating the possible mechanisms that contribute to a healthy organizational time perspective within the individual. First, Future Time

Perspective appears to be a significant force in creating motivation for people within the organization, thus understanding more of its nature and composition is of value for organizational considerations. Executives and administrators of organizations may decide to include future oriented goals and incentives that more closely match the perceptions of employees in an organization. Managers may find a way to better align the organizational structure itself to more closely match the motivations of the "average" worker within a particular job setting.

Second, this study could improve organizational practice. It may contribute to improving Future Time Perspectives in individuals with varying degrees of ownership in the institutional vision by illustrating the mechanisms by which people perceive the future as instrumental to their own and the organization's success. The simple recognition that there is a relationship between organizational efforts and individual Future Time Perspective may be of instrumental use to the organization and the individual alike. There is a, "strong belief that markets and competition are viewed within an increasingly global context and that in the future much of this context will coexist in developing and emerging economies" (Minehan, 1998, pg 189). If Future Time Perspective is a significant construct in the individual capacity to consistently work toward and conceive of an organizational vision, then an understanding of its properties and structure within the workplace setting is of great benefit to employees at every level in an organizational hierarchy.

MacDiarmin, Moukanas, & Nehls (1998) add to this notion by noting that,

> Today's winning companies – ones that are achieving sustainable and above average growth – have at least two things in common: they have identified where and how customers will allow them to make a profit in the future, and they have redesigned their businesses to take advantage of that opportunity (p. 57).

This emphasis upon strategic anticipation of changing markets seems to underscore the need for a more complete understanding of the individual perspective of the future and how it is related to motivation and the organizational visioning process. This study may represent a contribution to achieving such understanding by developing a coherent theory of future thinking within the workplace.

Two reasons why this research may help to improve organizational policy are in assisting to create organizational "fitness" of workers-to-jobs, and to assist in improving overall worker satisfaction. Knowledge of the relationship between Future Time Perspective and Goal Setting theories within the workplace could assist the organization in individualizing policy to fit the needs of the particular worker.

If there were better understanding of how an individual's representation of the future motivated him/her to pursue a career, go to work day after day, volunteer for overtime, "climb the ladder", build an empire, or take on a new mission, organizations could better create policies and procedures that might induce them to work harder, smarter, with more perseverance, and reduce employee turnover. Through an understanding of their employees' Future Time

Perspective, organizations could re-design the job to "fit" the individual, or screen for applicants that better fit the job description.

If the relationship between Future Time Perspective and goal setting theory in this study generated knowledge that can assist in understanding how individual motivations are anchored to relative time orientations, overall worker satisfaction could be improved by creating policy that encourages organizations to pay attention to what the workers find motivating and what keeps them focused on the organizational vision.

Finally, learners of all kinds and school personnel in particular may find the results of this study to be of valuable importance. John Pulliam described the purpose of education as a means of inventing the future, restructuring society so as to resolve the most pressing human problems and take advantage of technological innovation (Pulliam & Van Patten, 1995). As members of a practice designed to effectively prepare people for the future, teachers may benefit from results of this study through a more complete understanding of how the individual concept of the future impacts ones motivation to work and ultimately, behave.

Any study that purports to examine human motivation to achieve has potential significance for education. This study examines self-perceived reasons for motivation to work and investigates a major gap within the Goal-setting theories. This gap is the Future Time Perspective that individuals have for creating goals, which in turn affects their behavior. The theory generated from the results of this inquiry could add to the small bit of existing literature of how

mental representations of the future impact the way in which people pursue their life tasks (Husman and Lens, 1999).

Administrators of schools may use the theory constructed in this study to look for ways in which to re-configure the organization such that teachers could incorporate and maintain a future orientation. This could insure that the knowledge they impart upon their students be both relevant and germane to a changing world; and students may benefit as well through coming to understand what influences their long-term views and how to better motivate themselves and others during times of turbulence and instability.

Summary

This chapter has articulated the need for a grounded theory of Future Time Perspective and goal setting in the work place. The importance of organizational vision and personal growth in all aspects of living requires inquiry to better understand why individuals pursue particular goals within the workplace and what it is they aspire to while they go about their working day. Potentially flexible dynamics between an individual's own concept of their role in the workplace or their perceived degree of influence within the organization and their ability to integrate the future into everyday thought and action requires that this investigation include a contextual "organizational" component in addition to examining how goals are related to Future Time Perspective. The grand tour and sub-questions that guided this study provided data from which the researcher generated findings about Future Time Perspective, goal setting, and work. The

next chapter, the Review of the Literature, will discuss previous inquiries into questions related to the stated problem and provide context for the investigation.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

"History doesn't repeat itself, but it rhymes"
- Mark Twain

Any comprehensive review of literature related to this problem must confront a diverse and erratically organized wealth of information spread across a variety of disciplinary interests and philosophical platforms. There are so many interrelated discussions and vantage points from which to examine each construct that clarity and systematic analysis of prior thought and inquiry becomes elusive. As one performs even cursory research into any one of the individual constructs of Motivation, Future Time Perspective, or Goal-Setting, it quickly becomes apparent of the variety of voices and differing opinions on the complexity, antecedents, intervening variables, boundaries and definitions that consist of the subject of study. Combining these constructs becomes even stickier, as researchers attempt to investigate how these abstract, but important concepts co-exist, combine, and interact (see Seijts, 1998 for a review). Perhaps because of the complexity of the dynamic nature of human thought and action, research regarding these constructs is usually performed in isolation without much regard for their relationships to one another. A quest for understanding the relationships between goal-setting, organizational structure, and Future Time Perspective has rarely been the focus of inquiry, though there have been a few attempts.

Gjesme (1974) examined Future Time Orientation as a function of Achievement Motives with respect to several variables and Agarwal & Tripathi (1980) investigated Time Perspective in Achievement Motivation. Halvari (1991)

researched the relationship of goal distance in time and its effects on the relations between achievement motives, future time orientation and motor performance, while De Volder and Lens (1982) investigated the relationship of academic achievement and Future Time Perspective as a cognitive-motivational concept. Most recently, Husman & Lens (1999) researched and expounded upon the role of the future in student motivation. Future Time Perspective as it relates to goal setting and motivation in the workplace has not been researched (Seijts, 1998).

This literature review is organized based upon the various constructs that conceptually combine to create the phenomenon under investigation presented here. Conceptions of time, in general and Future Time Perspective, in particular—perhaps the most abstract and difficult of the variables to define is presented first—followed by a discussion of the related literature concerning Motivation, Explanatory Style, and Goal-Setting, and concluding with literature related to organizations. At the end of this chapter of a review of the related literature, is a summary and conclusion that places this proposed research into context.

Future Time Perspective, Conceptions of Time, and Possible Selves

The most unique and outstanding of all human capacities, the concept of Future Time Perspective is defined as, "the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal-setting processes" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p. 114). Future Time Perspective was first described by Lewin (1926, 1935, 1942) and Frank (1939), with subsequent elaborations by Fraisse (1963), Nuttin (1963), and Kastenbaum (1961, 1964). "Theories of work motivation, however, appear to

have ignored the construct of Future Time Perspective or future orientation" (Seijts, 1998, p. 154). The idea that the future as integrated into a person's motivational and cognitive lifespace may show promise with respect to its relationship to goal setting has been underscored (Locke & Latham, 1990; Seijts, 1998).

While social scientists have historically recognized the merits of studying an individual's ability to perceive and engage in behavior toward a distant future, they have also agreed on the limited success of research into this phenomenon (Kastenbaum, 1961; Gjesme, 1983; Rakowski, 1986; Seijts, 1998). Problems arising through construct definition as well as methodological and conceptual variation in data collection across research designs are numerous and inconsistently utilized from one inquiry to the next (Rakowski, 1986). Seijts concluded that currently developed scales do not adequately measure the scope, depth, and complexity of Future Time Perspective (1998). While there have been historical problems in defining and measuring the construct, Future Time Perspective studies have nevertheless turned up some interesting and arguably profound correlations. Statistically significant relationships that correlate to a relatively increased Future Time Perspective have been found with positive health behaviors (Mahon, et al., 1994, 1997), drug addiction recovery (Henik & Domino, 1975), academic achievement and study habits (De Volder & Lens, 1982), school performance (Murrell & Mingrone, 1994, Nuttin, 1985), life satisfaction among adolescents (Lessing, 1972), non-delinquent behavior (Stein, et al., 1968), and delay in the onset of sexual activity (Rothspan & Read, 1996). It has been argued

that having a relatively high Future Time Perspective is tantamount to having a high achievement orientation (Seijts, 1998).

Three issues which have been identified as still being unclear in the research concerning Future Time Perspective are, "whether Future Time Perspective is a stable disposition or a cognitive structure that is flexible and capable of modification, whether Future Time Perspective is a unitary or a multidimensional construct, and whether individuals differ along an underlying dimension from present to future or whether there exists two orthoganal dimensions: concern for the present (low to high) and concern for the future (low to high)" (Seijts, 1998, pp. 157-158).

Seijts (1998) illustrates that research has demonstrated through empirical evidence that Future Time Perspective is a cognitive structure because of its mutability and seeming dependence upon perceived life circumstances and the socialization process. He also points out that researchers have suggested as many as five dimensions of Future Time Perspective including: (a) **extension**, the length of the future time span that is conceptualized; (b) **coherence**, the degree of organization of the events in the future time span; (c) **density**, the number of events expected in one's future, that is, one's goals, hopes, fears, and wishes; (d) **directionality**, the extent to which one perceives oneself as moving forward from the present moment into the future; and (e) **affectivity**, the extent to which a person is gratified or pleased by anticipated events. However, "most of the work has been correlational with little theoretical rationale for relating variables to (dimensions of) Future Time Perspective" (Seijts, 1998, p. 158).

Concepts of Time

"Time is the means by which individuals organize the changes they confront. Time and life events are intrinsically linked; because of life events, we have a sense of time." (Fraisse, 1981, p. 233). Robert Ornstein's treatise, "On The Experience of Time" (1997) opens with a discussion on the "problem of temporal experience", as constituting a number of differing perspectives, both objectively and subjectively derived. The elusive quality that studies of time perception summon forth leaves Ornstein to utter, "one cannot immediately determine a process in the external world which gives rise to time experience, or discover anything within ourselves which could apprehend any special 'time stimuli'. It is, therefore, not too surprising that work on the experience of time would be so diverse, incoherent and easily forgotten" (Ornstein, 1997, p. 17). Though time's source and currency may be mysterious, it is a curiously common experience.

McGrath and Kelly offer that there at least five different concepts of time "embedded" within each of our lives, each with a different reference and standard of measurement. These conceptions are: 1) the individual as part of a physical universe ("geologic" time); 2) the individual as part of an ecology of living systems ("biologic" time), 3) the individual as a system of instrumental activities in relation to the culture's technological environment ("organizational" time), 4) the individual as an autonomous member of a culture, a social-psychological entity ("cultural" time), and 5) at least in our culture, an abstract conception of the universe and its associated abstract ("Newtonian") conception of time (McGrath and Kelly, 1986, pp. 54-61).

McGrath & Kelly say of these different concepts that, "people need, somehow, to reckon with differences in the various time frames with which they must deal" (1986, p. 56). Purposeful behavior is assumed to require such reconciliation of different, possibly conflicting time-concepts. Certainly mental representations of a desired end and the effectiveness of one's goal-setting within the context of an uncertain future would certainly necessitate resolution of differences in time frames. Representations of the future as they influence a person's motivations and goals within the workplace ostensibly are the result of reconciliation with any differences between the different concepts of time with which an individual may be dealing with.

Possible Selves

When people consider their own potential or what they are going to do, they are likely to be guided by, "distinct representations of themselves in the future" termed *possible selves* (Cantor, Markus, Niedenthal, & Nurius, 1986, p. 99). Cantor, et al. assert that, "possible selves are the component of self-concept that reflect the individual's perceived potential. They include those selves that individuals could become, would like to become, or are afraid of becoming, including the selves that are hoped for–the successful and accomplished self, the witty, creative self, or the loved and admired self and the selves that are dreaded–the blundering pseudo-intellectual self or the 'bag lady' self" (1986, p. 99). They also add that, "the repertoire of possible selves may include some potentials for the individual that have been clearly specified by influential others (e.g., parents and teachers)" (1986, p. 99). They conclude that,

> motivation does not reside outside the self-concept but derives from enduring self-knowledge that represents the individual's potentials, desires, and values. We should look at representations of people's goals and motives and their affective valence within the self-concept in the form of possible selves to understand more about motivation (1986, p. 100).

Possible Selves are important as they function to guide present and future behavior, often resulting from an individual's comparison of their own thoughts, feelings, and actions against those of select others. Development can be seen as a process of acquiring and then achieving or resisting certain possible selves. Through the selection and construction of such possible selves, individuals can be viewed as active producers of their own development (Cantor, et al., 1986). As individuals experience changes in their internal states and external circumstances, so do their subjective interpretations of the current possible, or "working" self (Cantor, et al. 1986).

Possible selves may influence motivation in several ways: by both providing goals to strive toward or to avoid, and by energizing the individual to pursue the actions required to attain the image of the possible self (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989). Markus an Nurius posit that, "most goals occasion the construction of a 'possible self' in which one is different from the 'now self' and in which one realizes the goal" (1986, p. 955). Leondari, Syngollitou, and Kiosseoglou (1998), through examining the relationship between possible selves, self-esteem, persistence, and academic performance, concluded that possible

selves have the capacity to have a very concrete impact on how one initiates and structures actions to realize their goals.

The challenge is to be able to keep one possible self, that most desired possible self as dominant or central in the working self-concept as is feasible (Bandura, 1989). This working self-concept, or the set of self-conceptions that are presently active in thought and memory, is influenced by the set of possible selves derived from the individual's particular sociocultural and historical context (Markus & Nurius, 1989). We develop mental models of what we would like to become and that is what we work toward or what we avoid; they are the powerful images that motivate us. Cantor, et al. state that motivation cannot be fully understood without reference to the self-concept. Motivation is largely manifest in people's understanding of themselves and that such self-knowledge is a significant regulator of ongoing behavior (1986, p. 97).

From the standpoint of motivation, many of the most important self-conceptions are those that represent the individual at a time other than the present. They are self-conceptions that represent the individual's accomplishment or failure to accomplish life tasks. They are views of the individual as he or she will be after having actually attained or failed to attain particular goals. As a result of these images and cognitions, a goal is not abstract; rather, it takes a cognitive form that is specifically meaningful for a given individual in a given context (Cantor, et al., 1986, p. 103).

Cantor, et al. believe that it is more important to consider what is the *current* self-concept, rather than in terms of *the* self-concept (1986, p. 103) when

incorporating possible selves into motivation. Each person has a set of views about themselves, some of them more dominant and salient than others, within a particular social context. This becomes a significant and driving factor in personal motivation. Such focused, energized thought and behavior toward a future end-state may be considered to be both part of "motivation" and "goal-setting", the next topics in this literature review.

Motivation, Explanatory Style, and Goal-setting Theories

Motivation is concerned with the direction, arousal, amplitude, and persistence of an individual's behavior (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Motivation becomes the central phenomenon of study in accounting for the reasons why people behave the way they do and in choosing the goals that they pursue. Weiner stated as principle that, "a theory of motivation must be concerned with conscious experience" and is inseparably linked with overt behavior (1986, p. 281). He referred to Lewin's (1935) position that studies of motivation, "must embrace phenomenology and accept the position that organisms act on a perceived, rather than objective world."

There are many theories of motivation. Sorrentino and Higgins, in writing the first chapter in their edited book on motivation and cognition provide a good overview of the subject. They proclaim motivation is a classic area of psychological research dating back to the late 1940s that demonstrates the connection between individual capacity for cognition and behavioral responses. Motivation, a construct they call "n-achievement" continues to, "predict reliably choice, persistence, and performance in achievement-oriented activity" (1986, p.

3). This finding is of particular interest to many psychologists, given that the rise of Behaviorism in America as a movement within the field unsuccessfully attempted to dispense with conversation and research regarding motivation, while cognitive theorists appear to have "largely ignored this individual difference variable in construct accessibility" (Sorrentino and Higgins, 1986, p. 4). Motivation is the connection between thought, emotion, and behavior.

"N-achievement", or the need for achievement as defined by McClelland (1961) develops through interactions with others, depends upon the competitiveness of those others, is reinforced by cultural standards, and by those of identified peers. Teaching one's children to be independent was subsequently found to be a significant factor in a person's internalized standards by which they motivate themselves to achieve (McClelland, 1987).

Before the rise of behaviorism, theorists such as Darwin (1872), Freud (1917), and McDougall (1908) each set forth explanations that placed instinct as the underlying motivational force accounting for behavior (Sorrentino & Higgins, 1986). Others, such as William James (1890) were positioning the will and the self in determining what he called voluntary behavior. Behaviorism vigorously attacked these positions as it gained popularity and, "all but eliminated any serious research in cognitive psychology for 40 years" (Watson, 1930, as cited in Serrentino, Higgins, & Tory (1990), p. 4). Kurt Lewin in the 1940s was almost single-handedly responsible for the reemergence of social psychology, but it was only recently during the 1980s that cognitive postulations were again accepted as viable research approaches (Sorrentino & Higgins, 1986).

Serrentino, Higgins, and Tory (1990) set about to put together a volume of work contributed by researchers in cognitive theories which accounted for motivational processes of the self. Their effort was toward reflecting both the "cold" or "faulty computer" ideal as dictated by learning states and the "hot" or "perceptual readiness" ideal as dictated by need states, into what they term a "warm" or "balanced" approach of motivation and cognition. The premise of this vast undertaking to explain the underpinnings of motivation was such that it is ultimately impossible to, after all, separate one from the other. The assumption there is an inseparable synergy of cognition and motivation continually at work within the individual is key to the underlying assumption of the design of the proposed research: by accurately portraying people's cognitive schemata for the future and the appropriate sources of their motivations, we can appreciably contribute to understanding motivation in the workplace.

Motivation and the Self-Concept

A contributing theory used as a rationale for the presently proposed research is Raynor & McFarlin's (1986) concept of motivation in relationship to the self-system. Their concept posits that "motivation to think (covert activity) or behave (overt activity) is actually a multiplicative function of the amount of positive value that is anticipated, recalled, or experienced and the subjective probability of attaining or retaining it" (p. 318). The resultant tendency for a person to think or act is thus, a function of the difference between motivation to think or act and resistance to thought or action (1986, p. 319). Raynor and McFarlin distinguish between time-linked self images and the amount of positive

or negative value associated with them. These self-images may have both an informational and an affective component that contributes to the motivational valence that an individual attaches to a particular perceived event or outcome. Positions such as, "self-enhancement, self-evaluation maintenance, self-consistency, self-confirmation, and self-assessment" may be reinterpreted to be "different manifestations of the basic motivation to maximize positive value and minimize negative value" (Raynor & McFarlin, 1986, p. 342). It may be true that people might distort the truth or forget certain details of matters to emphasize the positive and diminish the negative.

It is not the intention of this study to differentiate between causal conditions that contribute toward creating motivations, but rather to generate a theory interrelating the freely given perceptions of the motivations that individuals possess. However, it is nevertheless important to recognize that people may cover up, distort, or otherwise misdirect others as to the underlying reasons as to why they are motivated to do what they do. Raynor and McFarlin's "hedonistic" theory probably does actually play a part (to one degree or another) in each individual's mental schemata, as we are instinctively averse to pain and seek pleasure.

It is quite possible that the attributions that individuals make about their role in the world around them has much to do with the degree to which they are able to deal with setbacks and open the doorway for a healthier and more resilient Future Time Perspective. Thus, the literature review turns toward examining attribution theory, explanatory style, and optimism.

Attribution Theory, Explanatory Style, and Optimism

Individuals have a way of explaining their own behavior and the reasons for the events in their lives to themselves. Some people take credit for reality and some make the external world responsible for what happens. This idea is called Attribution Theory (Jones & Davis, 1965). Bernard Weiner (1980) proposed that some of the cues used for making inferences about the causes for success or failure may result in reinforcing statements about one's ability, effort, task difficulty, or luck. Weiner concluded that those with a high need to achieve attribute their success to their ability, and failure to bad luck or lack of effort (McClelland, 1987). Weiner used the dimensions of *permanence* and *personalization* to explain why people had different ways of attributing events in different ways (Seligman, 1991).

Permanence attributions are the degree to which the statements individuals make to and about themselves are held to be stable (Seligman, 1991). Some thoughts have a permanent or persistent quality about them, such as, "that will *never* happen", or "this *always* happens to me", while others have a temporary meaning, such as, "that isn't happening at the moment", or "this isn't working right now". Depending on whether one attributes permanent negative qualities or permanent positive qualities to the self through internal dialogue is what creates the dispositions for pessimism and optimism, respectively (Seligman, 1991).

Self-attributions have a "personalization" dimension, too (Seligman, 1991). If a person sees the cause of events as existing within, then there is an "internal" locus of control; if one feels subject to external forces and personal

choice and influence have little to do with the end result, then an "external" locus of control is operating (Weiner, 1980). How you feel about yourself is dependent upon the subjective valuation of the event in question, whether positive or negative (Seligman, 1991). Seligman notes that, "the optimistic style of explaining good events is the opposite of that used for bad events: it's internal rather than external" (p. 50); and vise versa for the attributions of bad events.

While Weiner only used two dimensions to explain the difference in individual attribution, those of permanence and personalization, Seligman added *pervasiveness* (1991). The "pervasiveness" dimension is about whether the attribution is made to generalize to universal instances in one's life or whether it remains specific to the situation (Seligman, 1991). Seligman emphasizes that, people who make universal explanations for their failures give up on everything when a failure strikes in one area. People who make specific explanations may become helpless in that one part of their lives yet march stalwartly on in the others. (p. 606)

Seligman (1991) sums up the three dimensions of self-attributions thus: (a) *permanence* determines how long a person gives up for following a failure; (b) *personalization* determines the degree to which failures are believed to be because of the individual; and (c) *pervasiveness* determines the degree to which failures are perceived as likely to generalize across all other aspects of a person's life following a set-back. While Weiner (1980) was interested in how people make attributions about single events, Seligman (1991) thought to examine the pattern of choices that individuals make over time.

Explanatory style, according to Seligman (1991), is a result of the habits that people settle into as they make attribution after attribution about the causes and sources of both good and bad events in their lives. Pessimists habitually explain failures in terms of personal, permanent, and pervasive ways, while Optimists explain failure in terms of external, transient, and specific ways. Pessimists and Optimists see success in opposite ways, as well (Seligman, 1991). Because of these differences in habits of thought, optimists are likely to engage in thinking of the future in ways that are not as painful or frightful to the pessimist. McClelland concludes that, "explanations for behaviors or causal attributions seem to be important modifiers of motive states" (1987, p. 489).

Optimism seems to be necessary to envision the future for, as Seligman illustrates, "the researchers and developers, the planners, the marketers—all (that) need to be visionaries. They have to dream things that don't yet exist, to explore boundaries beyond the company's present reach. If they don't, the competition will" (1991, p. 111). Seligman claims that, "the optimistic moments of our lives contain the great plans, the dreams, and the hopes" (1991, p. 114). Optimists have a crucial role to play in the creation of positive visions of the future, while pessimists are necessary to bring such dreams into reality (Seligman, 1991).

Thus, it seems that optimism, motivation, and Future Time Perspective all have important roles within the work setting. The research considering the construct of goal setting theory and its relationship to task performance, or "goal-commitment", may illuminate some of the personal variables related to these issues.

Goal-setting, Goal-commitment and Motivation

Researchers have repeatedly demonstrated that the external provision of goals for task-specific standards improves performance (Locke & Latham, 1990; Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981 for reviews), but results in the arena of the affect of goals upon intrinsic motivation has been less robust (Locke & Latham, 1990, p. 58). Standard setting for individuals has also been shown to enhance interest in previously uninteresting or routine tasks, but may undermine, or at best, maintain enjoyment of previously interesting activities (Locke & Latham, 1990).

Research investigations describing the critical moderators of the effects of goal setting on external and internal motivation have identified such factors as the evaluative focus of goals (performance vs. mastery) and achievement orientation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1994), competence valuation (Epstein & Harackiewicz, 1992), and task involvement (Kuhl, 1978). The relative degree to which a person has the ability to foresee and organize future possibilities, (i.e., Future Time Perspective), however has not been formally examined or theoretically framed within the goal-setting literature. Goal-setting theorists, while expounding upon the different affects that goals have upon the individual, have ventured only tentatively into the possible antecedents and dispositions from which goals originate.

Edwin Locke, one of the preeminent researchers in the field of goal-setting described over 30 years of research in this field, depicting the relationship between conscious performance goals and performance on work tasks (1996). He

summarized that increased goal difficulty, increased goal specificity, high self-efficacy, goal-related feedback, and perceived goal attainability are related to higher levels of achievement. Goals have been found to affect the direction of action, the degree of effort exerted, and the persistence of action over time. Furthermore, goals serve as standards of self-satisfaction, with harder goals demanding higher accomplishment in order to attain self-satisfaction than easy goals. Goals can be used to enhance task interest, reduce boredom, and promote goal clarity (Locke, 1996).

Among the many discoveries about the nature of goal-setting and it's effects made by researchers such as Locke (1996) and others, two findings are of particular interest to the present study. Goals and goal commitment, in combination with self-efficacy, mediate or at least partially mediate the effects of several personality traits and incentives on performance. Goal setting and self-efficacy seem to mediate the effect of knowledge of past performance on subsequent performance. If the conscious setting of a goal can change the effects of incentives, personality traits, and knowledge of past performance, then goals can motivate one to behave in such a way that they will perform differently than would be expected from past or present indications (Locke, 1996).

Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985) propose that the origin of purposeful behavior rests in a series of cognitive processes that unify wishes, wants, intentions, and actions. They basically refer to *wishes* as nonenergized goals with positive valences, which only become *wants* after they reach a critical level of subjective probability for attaining the goal. *Wants* become *intentions* when they influence a

person's actions and thus, pass through a "relevance" check, referred to as the OTIUM-future check. OTIUM refers to the five components, or criteria necessary for this transformation from *want* to *intention*: A person subjectively considers the **opportunity** to achieve the desired result, the **time** in which to invest in it's procurement, the relative **importance** to the individual, the relative **urgency** of acting upon it's acquisition, and the available **means** or utility of striving for that particular end.

Heckhausen and Kuhl propose that goal commitment is defined by the successful passing of the *want* through the OTIUM-future check, but for the *intention* to become an active part of their behavior, the goal must also pass through a "OTIUM-now" check (1985). Intentions alone do not guarantee goal-directed action. Intentions that pass the OTIUM-now check are given a higher valence, intentions that fail are relegated to the function of *current concern*, rather than active intention. The authors suggest this is the criteria by which difficult and long-term goals remain active and maintain self-regulatory processes, thereby protecting the intention from competing intentions and resource demands. The problem lies in literal, strict reliance to a proposition that a cybernetic model such as this, wherein these checks serve to guide and adjust present action for the individual. The length of the future perspective considered, the density of events represented on the future horizon and the realism of the future (Nuttin, 1985) are not considered as being influential in exhibited goal-setting and behavior. The OTIUM check is always intended for feedback to the *present* position and says

nothing of a future-focused image that may be driving, or pulling the individual onward.

The existence of multiple and often conflicting goals in a dynamic and complex environment most assuredly has an impact upon people's behavior and their formulations of plans. However, this has rarely been looked at in research or in the construction of motivational theories (Locke & Latham, 1990). For example, debilitated performance in a given task may not be a function of some generalized arousal process but rather because of competing or conflicting motivations attached to different goals (Piedmont, 1988).

Weiner (1986) looks beyond the self-report of individual values, suggesting that we, "consider frameworks larger than the self" when examining motivation which possibly includes the development and incorporation of the values of others. Thus, "motivation must be considered within the context of social values and the goals of the superordinate culture". Yearta, Maitlis, and Briner stated that, "the subjectivity associated with goal properties in organizational settings and the complexity and fluidity of the environment within which the goals are to be achieved are good reasons why it can't be assumed that what relationships researchers have found in the laboratory will hold perfectly in the organizational context" (1995, p. 249). The decisions people make cannot be divorced from the context of the environment in which the decision took place.

London concurs that, "how people interpret the environment has implications for motivational strategies" (1983, p. 626). London's findings indicate that individual characteristics such as "career identification", "career insight", and

"career resilience" are thought to interact with situational characteristics to create career decisions and work-related behaviors. There is a reciprocal relationship between organizations and the people working within them that cannot be studied as separate phenomena. Individuals create goals and mediate their lives to negotiate between their interpretations of the environment and the self.

Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl presented a paper at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management in August of 1995 wherein they attempted to unify a variety of motivational theories that explains the behavior of the self at work. They combine social identity theory (Stryker, 1980, 1986), self-presentation theory (Beach & Michell, 1990; Gergen, 1965) and self efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982, 1986) to present a typology of sources of motivation which they claim may be used as a framework to unify these distinct areas of research. Explaining why the addition of self concept-based constructs will help researchers and practitioners to more completely understand and predict organizational behavior, the authors posit: (a) the need to explain complex, non-linear work behavior; (b) the need to better account for internal sources of motivation; (c) the need to integrate dispositional and situational explanations of behavior; and (d) the need to integrate existing self-based theories in the literature. In the self concept-based model of motivation which Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl proposed, four inter-related perceptions of the self combine to energize, direct, and sustain organizational behavior: the *perceived* self, the *ideal* self, one's self *esteem*, and a set of *social identities*. Although many aspects of these self-related perceptions touch upon a future-related concern, the theory generated does not mention how

time spent thinking of a future end-state directly influences or inhibits an individual's motivation. Future Time Perspective might be considered an *attribute relative to the ideal self* (level of perception), but the focus of the self-concept based theory of motivation set forth by Leonard, et al. does not go far enough to explain how time references impact upon the self in the construction of motivations and attributions.

Although Goal-setting Theory has been recognized as a major accomplishment of organizational psychology (Dunnette, 1976; Latham, 1996), "we know very little about how Future Time Perspective affects goal choice and, eventually, behavior" (Seijts, 1998. p. 163). Locke and his colleagues (1990) point out that individual differences in goal-setting are significant, while Seijts suggests that it may be Future Time Perspective or other individual differences that contribute to the degree to which individual set goals for themselves (1998 p. 162).

Constructs such as Prospective Rationality (realistic appraisal of what will happen in the future) and Retrospective Rationality (what really has happened in the past) are considered by London (1983) to be products of social learning and with variations in information processing influence individual characteristics exhibited in the organizational setting. The degree to which and the way in which people appraise the future and the past are, to London, socially derived.

One problem in providing an overall picture of how different goals interact and coexist within the individual is that researchers have rarely examined this as the major focus of study. Blumenfeld (1992) pointed out the most current

research has focused almost exclusively on performance and mastery goals individually, rather than at interactions between them. Barling, Cheung, & Kelloway (1996) proclaim that one of the reasons the research into time management's effect upon performance is inconsistent may be because of possible interactions with other predictors. A review of the literature reveals much related to goal-setting under particular circumstances and some with respect to goals by certain individuals within the workplace. The lack of research into the particular interaction that people's individual concepts of the environment in which they work and the way in which they perceive their own futures and their own capacity to reach them is, however, apparent.

Leonard, et al. (1995) summarize the motivational impact of organizational inducement systems in terms of the source of the rewards. Inducement systems are typified by the "effect of design aspects of an organization which act to energize, direct, or sustain behavior within an organization" (p. 15). The self-concept model of work motivation that they derive presents five sources of motivation: (a) extrinsic/instrumental, (b) intrinsic/process, (c) value based/goal internalization, (d) self concept based/internal, and (e) self-concept based/external. These sources of motivation can be created out of the instrumental value of the reward for doing a task, for doing the task itself, as part of the management's interpersonal behavior, or for the social recognition or support that is gained by performance on the task. The other aspect of work motivation in the workplace, that of social power, is the final foundational aspect of research in organizations for this literature review.

Social Power

French and Raven's (1959) seminal work on social power distinguished between five ways to institutionalize influence over others: through rewards, respect, expertise, position, and force. *Reward Power* stems from the perceived notion that an individual has the capacity to mete out a reward in return for work performance, or withhold it for failing to perform. *Referent Power* is a function of the respect and esteem that a person generates within another by virtue of personal attributes with which others identify (Ambur, 2000). *Expert Power* is a form of referent power that results from individual recognition that the person has expertise in a given area, while *Legitimate Power* is created out of the organizational bureaucracy formally endowing them with the power to influence others, and *Coercive Power* centers on the threat of punishment and negative consequences for not doing the will of the person wielding the power. This typology of five social bases of power by French and Raven was a major contribution in understanding organizational behavior and opened the door for a few other social bases of power to be added in further research (Bulach, 1999).

Raven and Kruglanski added *Information Power* to the original typology in 1975, defining it as a variation of legitimate power that arises from a person's ability to control the access and accuracy of critical information to others. *Connectional Power* was then added by Hersey and Goldsmith (1980) and refers to the power one is accorded through their personal associations, what those relationships can do for them, and the support that it implies. Information and connectional power added to the original five bases for social power that French

and Raven (1959) proposed, combining to create the seven sources of power over individuals that most social scientists agree upon today (Ambur, 2000; Bulach, 1999). These forms of power allow for the creation of flexible systems that organizations may adapt to induce behavior according to both internal and external work motivations (Bulach, 1999).

Summary

This literature review surrounding and including Future Time Perspective within the workplace has been done by considering the psychological constructs that combine to create the focus of the inquiry: conceptions of time, particularly Future Time Perspective, and motivation and goal-setting. The review has demonstrated that each of these constructs is thought by many to be best examined from the phenomenological, or perceived point-of-view (Lewin, 1935). Motivations, Goal-setting, and concepts of time such as Future Time Perspective are all personally constructed out of historical experience and present ideals within specific contexts for each individual.

The approach taken within this study differs from many previous attempts to understand people's conception of time and motivations (Nuttin, 1985; Kastenbaum, 1961; Mahon, et al., 1994, 1997; Khoury & Thurmond, 1978; McClam & Blinn, 1988) in that is purports to examine the "lived experience" of individuals and documents their inner lives through their own words and perspectives. The method for this study is in line with the work of Locke (1966, 1968, 1976, 1995) and Locke and Latham (1990) in that, "a fruitful approach to human motivation might be to simply ask people what they were trying to

accomplish when they took an action (Locke, 1996). The major difference is that the focus is upon the future tense, looking at what people will do, what they perceive they will do, rather than post hoc. This kind of investigation is interested in what people think they will become, what they believe they could become, who they hope to become.

The intent of this research was to create categorical and constructive rationale to relate a theory of Future Time Perspective from the context of the workplace. This was accomplished through the systematic data analysis and coding of the perceptions of employees in educational, business, and government organizations. A Grounded Theory approach, as outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1990) and by Creswell (1998) was deemed the appropriate methodology to address this unique, yet previously unexplored problem. The following chapter, Methodology, will describe this research design as it was applied to questions of Future Time Perspective and Goal-setting within the workplace.

CHAPTER THREE

"If you wish to know the mind of a man, listen to his words."
- Chinese Proverb

Methodology

This chapter discusses the methodology utilized for the grounded theory research on Future Time Perspective in relation to work motivation. This study was designed to meet Merriam's (1988) assumptions concerning qualitative inquiry, including: a concern for research process rather than outcome, a search for subjects' meaning about events, the researcher as the primary instrument of the investigation, research that requires fieldwork, and research that is descriptive and inductive. According to accepted protocol for research within the qualitative paradigm (Creswell, 1994, 1998), this chapter will cover the research design, sample, data collection, interview protocol, data analysis, data reporting, and reliability and validity.

Research Design

This research sought to construct a theory derived from data collected from interviews on the perspectives of individuals in organizations from the government, educational, and business communities. Such a grounded theory research design is derived from work originally proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), wherein theory emerges from the data as it is collected and analyzed. Future Time Perspective, as it influences goal-directed work behaviors, personal motivation, and perception of the organizational future was the focus of the questions and the central phenomenon around which the study was conducted. The grounded theory method described here has been especially influenced in a

global way by methodological statements presented in a grounded theory study of the perceptions of leaders and followers by McCaw (1999). The method applies a rigorous analytical procedure to naïve descriptions of lived experience in which, "the researcher begins with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the data" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p.12). Data from interviews conducted for this study was thus, fractured, conceptualized, and integrated to form a theory.

Bogdan and Biklen (1992) emphasize that areas of inquiry about which little is known or where there is a lack of research are good candidates for a grounded theory design. Given the wide variety of dimensional definitions considering past research in Future Time Perspective and the virtual absence of the construct in theories of work motivation (Seijts, 1998), the design of this investigation amply met this requirement. Many researchers have found the grounded theory approach to be a particularly appropriate tool for investigating organizational culture (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Martin & Turner, 1986; Orlikowski, 1993; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Turner, 1983).

Although writing the methodology early in a grounded theory study posed difficulties because the investigation evolved during the course of the study, preliminary ideas about the sample, the setting, and the data collection procedures are described (Creswell, 1998, p. 179).

Data

Sample

The sample for this study was purposefully selected in a manner that allowed for the exploration and elaboration of the emerging theory (Glaser &

Strauss, 1967). This purposeful sampling technique, often called "theoretical sampling" is one of the major hallmarks of a grounded theory study. Strauss and Corbin define purposeful or theoretical sampling as:

> data gathering driven by concepts derived from the evolving theory and based on the concept of "making comparisons," whose purpose is to go to places, people, or events that will maximize opportunities to discover variations among concepts and to densify categories in terms of their properties and dimensions. (1998, p. 201)

The aim of such practices is to, "maximize opportunities to compare events, incidents, or happenings to determine how a category varies in terms of its properties and dimensions" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998., p. 202). Because the purpose of this study was to develop a theory grounded in data generated from interviews of workers within organizations about their perceived futures, purposeful sampling was deemed the appropriate method for identifying initial and possible subsequent participants. Using the purposeful sampling method, a range of individuals within the organizational spectrum was sought after and interviewed.

The sampling technique was governed by "theoretical relevance, concerned with the contribution of new sources of data to conceptual development" (Dey, 1999, p. 5). The subjects consisted of people considered to have a broad range of comparative influence on the organizational hierarchy. Because organizational structure may lend itself toward creating different incentive and power relationships, three different kinds of organizational

structures were sampled: educational, government, and business institutions. The purposeful sampling technique further ensured that adequate representation from each of these work arenas was present.

Figure 1.0

Organizational Hierarchy

	Extreme Authority			Extreme Subordinate
Business	Owner of a local business Small Business Owner	Business wholesaler	Agronomist Grocery store produce manager	Cashier Hospital staff
Education	Superintendent University President	Principal	Public School Teacher Community College Faculty	Teachers Assistant
Government	Governor of Montana Commissioner of Higher Education	County Commissioner	Marketing specialist County Sheriff	Fireman

The "Organizational Hierarchy" chart in Figure 1.0 (above) provides an example list of interviewees purposefully selected for theoretical relevance by organization-type and relative hierarchical power-influence status accorded their job position. This chart is not reflective of the actual work positions of the interviewees selected for this study, and is intended only as a model for the kind of range that was sampled. This is so as to protect the identities of the individuals that agreed to be interviewed for this study. Using the purposeful sampling

technique, interviews were done such that this kind of authority-to-subordinate variance in the three organizational types was explored.

The subjects were located throughout the state of Montana. By examining Future Time Perspective as it related to goal setting in a number of different organizations throughout a variety of locales, important contextual information was provided (Creswell, 1998). Four candidates from each of three organizational types were interviewed such that the relative authority-subordinate spectrum could be adequately explored and codified.

Data Collection

Data was collected during one-to-one interviews with subjects, review of day planners, calendars, and journals, and by telephone follow-up interviews with selected interviewees. The research began using more unstructured data collecting procedures and, as theory emerged, more focused methods of observation were used (Dey, 1999). Unstructured, open-ended interviews were conducted and audio taped with the subjects' permission, and transcribed. Follow up interviews by telephone were done to check the validity of inferences and assumptions that the researcher was making during the analysis of data gathered from initial interviews. Prior to data collection, the procedures outlined below were followed to ensure a productive interview.

Data Collection Procedures

The identified cross-section of education, business, and government workers represented the first field survey for performing a grounded theory study of Future Time Perspective in the Montana workplace. Subsequent data collection

meant a return to previous sites and subjects, but also included other individuals as, "we likely find gaps or holes in our theories and go back to collect delimited data to fill those gaps and holes" (Charmaz, 2000, p. 519). Before the interview process began, subject participation was sought through an introductory letter from the researcher asking for voluntary participation from the identified candidates in educational, government, and business organizations within the state of Montana. This introductory letter outlined: (a) the importance, purpose, and significance of the study, (b) an explanation of the interview process, (c) the anticipated perceived inconveniences of the subjects and organization, (d) assurances of individual and organizational confidentiality, and (e) an invitation for a summary of the study upon its completion (See Appendix A, introductory letter). Candidates were chosen so as to represent workers with widely differing circles of influence within the organization: from CEO to the most recent hire. The sample was chosen purposefully so as to, "allow for interesting comparisons in terms of the process being studied" (Dey, 1999, p. 5). Thus, executives and subordinate employees within all three organizational categories were identified and selected to participate in this research inquiry.

Data was gathered along this spectrum of organizational influence from individuals employed within each of the three identified types of organizations. Letters of support for the research were attached from Dr. John Lundt and Dr. Darrell Stolle, committee co-chairmen. Contact information on making appointments for interviews and questions regarding the research was made explicit in these letters of subject solicitation. A phone call to each potential

subject to confirm appointment times and to outline the interview procedure, as well as to obtain "permission to quote" from the data collected was made prior to each interview. Reassurances were made of the confidentiality of the materials collected from each participant.

The Interviews

Semi-structured interview methods were used, such that the subjects were allowed to tell their stories (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Because goal-setting and motivational processes, and individual time concepts, such as Future Time Perspective are subject to personal and varied interpretation this qualitative method was deemed appropriate. When investigating perceptions from the point of view of the subject in a qualitative inquiry, semi-structured interviews are an acceptable means for the researcher (Fontana & Frey, 2000).

Strauss and Corbin point out the delicate balance necessary in a qualitative research inquiry: "the research question begins as an open and broad one, but not so open, of course, as to allow for the entire universe of possibilities. On the other hand, it is not so narrow and focused that it excludes discovery" (1998, p. 41). The interview questions were asked so as to invite subjects to consider the juxtaposition between their Future Time Perspective, personal goals, and the work environment. Semi-structured interviews are appropriate for this kind of inquiry because it allows for the germane focus upon the research question, while allowing for the perceptions and experiences of the subjects to generate the theoretical model (Creswell, 1998).

Maintaining a balance between objectivity and sensitivity (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) was provided for by reliance upon the Grounded Theory methodology. Questionnaires and interviews may be too rigid in structure to elicit the complete illustration of how the perception of time influences individual goal behavior and thought. An interview protocol was used for each subject to ensure that comparable data is derived.

Interview Protocol

Creswell (1994) suggests that a form be developed for following a protocol commensurate with the design of the study and to note observations in the field. Following Creswell's (1994) recommendation, interviews should include: (a) demographic information concerning the time, place, and setting of the interview, (b) a heading, (c) opening statements, (d) interview questions, and (e) space for recording data. Note taking followed the suggestion of Eisner (1991) and Creswell (1994) that the researcher divide the paper vertically to separate descriptive notes from reflective notes The Interview Protocol is located in Appendix B. In addition to the interview protocol, field notes were also used to collect data. The Field Memo is located in Appendix C.

Field notes were used to make reference to issues raised in the setting and how they relate to larger theoretical, methodological, and substantive issues (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992). These were used to aid in the process of identifying emerging themes and categories for building the theory interrelating the data. Audio taping of subject responses was done, with permission, to get a verbatim transcript of the interview process. The researcher-subject relationship was

maintained by making assurances that all recordings would be destroyed upon creation of a transcript.

Development of Questions. The interviews for this study were open-ended, but focused around the topic of Future Time Perspective and the perceptions of the goal-setting behavior of the subjects in this study. Researchers generally agree that an open-ended interview around a specific topic is best when focused and guided by some general questions (Merton & Kendall, 1946; Werner & Schoepfle, 1987; Creswell, 1994). These questions were designed to elicit data pursuant to the question under study: the variation of Future Time Perspective from within the work organization. These questions served as a "springboard" from which to develop initial categories for developing the theory through coding (Charmaz, 2000). They were designed by the researcher to capture data regarding the participant's perceptions of the work environment, their motivations, and their personal perspective of the future.

Grand Tour Question:

The Grand Tour Question that guided and focused this research inquiry was:

"How are an individual's perceptions of the future and their work motivation related?"

Sub-questions. The Grand Tour Question was supported by two sub-questions:

1. How are an individual's ideas and images of the future influencing what one does and plans for at work?
2. What aspects of the work environment have an influence upon the way that an individual acts toward and makes plans for their personal futures?

Research Question Rationale

The research questions developed for this dissertation were developed from a review of the literature and designed to gather both the depth and breadth of a subject's perceptions of the future from within the work setting. The grand tour question was in a general form and allowed for the inquiry to evolve as the research progressed. The sub-questions relating to this Grand Tour Question focused upon each of the two poles betwixt which Future Time Perspective is thought to oscillate: the individual and the work environment. Allowing these questions to evolve and change through the transformational understanding that is afforded the researcher was consistent with the qualitative assumptions of an emerging design (Creswell, 1994; Dey, 1999).

Though there are many definitions and models of Future Time Perspective, this research inquiry relied on work accomplished by Nuttin (1985) in defining the nature of the construct for developing the interview questions. The five dimensions of Future Time Perspective reflected within the Grand Tour Question and sub-question rationale are the (a) "extension," (b) "coherence," (c) "density," (d) "directionality," and (e) "affectivity". Each interview question addressed one or more of these dimensions.

The ideas and images of the future that are said to influence each subject from within the work setting was recorded and the theory developed from the data that resulted. Though the following questions were developed according to dimensions of Future Time Perspective set forth by Nuttin (1985), other questions arose that departed from, or added to these dimensional characteristics in ways that could not have been anticipated. The research progressed along lines only roughly guided by the dimensions defined by Nuttin (1985), and the proposed questions could have been altered, reconsidered, or deleted altogether as the theory takes shape according to the inquiry process (Creswell, 1994, 1998).

Data was generated from answers to the interview questions relating to the two sub-questions and the Grand Tour Question collected through an interview process with each subject. The questions were designed to elicit each person's perspective on the degree to which the organizational structure and mission in which they work has influence over the future-oriented representations that are related to their efforts. Answers to the interview questions addressed one of the dimensions mentioned above through an inductive process that allowed for the development of emerging themes. Data pertaining to these five dimensions collected from each subject was the primary means of deriving the grounded theory, but analysis of work-related notes and schedules will assist in providing secondary sources of data, when obtained by permission.

Once general data was collected and the opening statement relating the nature of the study was read to the interviewee, the Grand Tour Question and related interview questions were asked of each subject, followed by the two Sub-

Questions and their related interview questions. The interview questions are listed beneath the sub-question that they supported. The number corresponding to each interview question is the initially proposed order in which the question was to be asked during the interview.

Grand Tour Question: How are your perceptions of the future and your work motivation related? Herzberg (1966) illustrated that there are both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to do a job. This question asks of the interviewee if they see either how their ideas of the future impact any given present work behavior or if their work motivation has an impact upon the way that they individually conceive of the future. Directly asking the Grand Tour Question of participants of this study provided some interesting and theoretically relevant results.

Interview Question #1: Does the way you think about the future affect your work performance? Seijts (1998) is convinced that any good theory of work motivation should include the idea of Future Time Perspective. This question asked the interviewee of their own opinion about whether their idea of the future has any impact upon their performance on the job. The data collected from this question provided affective qualities of the Future Time Perspective of interviewees within the work setting, commensurate with the emotional dimension previously identified as characteristic of the construct (Nuttin, 1985).

Interview Question #2: How effective are you at reaching your personal goals through your work? The affectivity and directionality of a person's Future Time

Perspective is sought after in this question (Nuttin, 1985). The feelings surrounding different possible futures prescribed in work place goals were noted. Of interest was how probable an intended future was perceived to be and whether or not that future was positively evaluated (Bauer & Gillies, 1972).

Interview Question #3: How have your thoughts about the future affected your personal work habits? This question is related to Interview Question #1, but extends it in that it asked the interviewee to relate the way in which the chronological future impacts their life-space in the everyday work setting (Husman & Lens, 1999). Also, it was intended to address Seijts (1998) issue that theories of work motivation have not considered Future Time Perspective in constructing their models.

Interview Question #4: In what ways, if any, are your own future and the future of this organization related to one another? Alignment of organizational and individual values has been cited as an optimal way to empower and motivate individuals to take part in the organizational mission (Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Senge, 1990). This question aimed to give the researcher insight into the interviewee's perception of potentially different Future Time Perspectives - that of their own and that of the organizations - to see if alignment or conflict of the two might play a role in work motivation.

Interview Question #5: What motivates you to do your job? This open-ended question is at the heart of the grand tour question. Each individual had their own perceived reasons for doing their work. Implicit to gathering data to answer this question, the researcher attempted to be mindful of addressing the determinants of

their behavior and the ramifications that such behavior might have (Steers & Porter, 1983). The degree of 'reality' present in the interviewee's statements was subjectively assessed by the researcher to determine the way in which a realistic view of the future impacted their motivation to work (Nuttin, 1985).

Interview Question #7: How far into the future do you have to think in order to be successful in your job? This question was designed to record the interviewee's subjective impression about how necessary a healthy Future Time Perspective is to performing their job well. The president of a company may feel that a future orientation is more necessary than the 9 to 5 assembly line worker with little consideration of the organizational ramifications of their work. The 'length' of a person's Future Time Perspective was taken into account by observing any statements of chronology that interviewees make (Nuttin, 1985).

Sub-Question #1: How are an individual's ideas and images of the future influencing what one does and plans for at work?

This question framed the personal perception of the individual in the context of a given environment, querying about life as it is experienced (Lewin, 1935). Data gathered from this grand tour question centrally focused upon the Future Time Perspective of each individual and tried to ascertain to what degree such cognitions play a role in the actions and plans that they make while at their place of employment. The researcher paid close attention to the statements made by the subjects noting the relative nature of their personal motivation to work, whether intrinsic, extrinsic, or future-oriented (Husman & Lens, 1999).

This research question takes into account that Future Time Perspective may or may not be a stable disposition (Seijts, 1998), and that context may indeed play a role in influencing the behaviors of individuals in different settings. By focusing the inquiry upon the work setting, questions about Future Time Perspective and motivation may be compared within a similar context across interviews and subjects. Through this comparison useful knowledge about organizational structure and personally represented futures arose. The theory was generated from the constant comparison of emerging data.

Interview Question #8: How often do you think about the future? This question was intended to record the perception of the interviewee as to how much they believe they think about the future. Pursuant to the "degree to which an individual thinks about the future" (Husman and Lens, 1999), data from this question was used to infer how conscious people are about this, if and when it does happen. The relative amount of time that a person spends actively thinking about the future is related to the 'density' factor of Future Time Perspective as described by Nuttin (1985).

Interview Question #9: Do you think about your future when you are here at work? In what way? How often? The aim of the question was to discover how often and to what extent individuals reflect on their personal goals and futures while in the work setting. The coherence and density of an individual's personal Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985) is important to discover the degree to which the chronological future is having an impact upon one's behavior. Husman and Lens underscore the importance of discovering the value that subjects place

upon the future (1999). This question was key to informing the goal-setting and motivational research of the degree to which Future Time Perspective plays a role in the work setting (Seijts, 1998).

Interview Question #10: How do your thoughts about the future affect your priorities on the job? This question directly asked of the interviewee how they felt their own Future Time Perspective impacts their reasoning to place one workplace behavior over another. Self-reported perceptions of importance on the degree to which one's thoughts about the future affects behavior focused the nature of the interview question for the subjects.

Interview Question #11: Is there anything in the distant future that motivates you? This question aimed to discover the length of the interviewee Future Time Perspective, or the chronological distance in time that the person considers when actively working (Nuttin 1985).

Interview Question #12: How do you set your personal goals? The way in which people set and act upon their goals is related to their personal commitment to achieving them (Seijts, 1998). This question led the investigator to ask the interviewees to reflect upon the way that they consider their priorities and the degree to which they articulate those goals. Discovering the goal-setting methods of individuals is related to the operational definition of Future Time Perspective, in that it aims to discover the way in which the individual integrates their ideas of the future into their life and space (Husman & Lens, 1999).

Interview Question #13: Do you have any personal goals or plans that motivate you in your work? There may be reasons outside of the workplace that

motivate the individual to perform (Herzberg, 1966; McClelland, 1987). This question was designed to discover personal motivations that might be influencing workplace behavior.

Interview Question #14: What strategies do you use to work toward your personal goals? This question relates to discovering the coherence, realism, and density (Nuttin, 1985) of an individual's Future Time Perspective. Responses led toward defining the individual ways that interviewees put their ideas of the future into operation. This was thought to be a key in defining Future Time Perspective in the work setting (Husman & Lens, 1999; Seijts, 1998).

Interview Question #15: In what ways can you influence the future of this organization? Do you? The degree to which an individual feels able to influence the outcome of events may be essential to their relative optimism or pessimism (Seligman, 1991). Some people, regardless of their position in the organization, may feel powerless to influence things, while others may feel that they have a great deal of impact. These two questions were designed to ascertain whether they felt that they can and whether they actually do take part in creating the organizational future.

Sub-Question #2: What aspects of the work environment have an influence upon the way that an individual acts toward and makes plans for their personal futures?

This question framed the effects of the environment upon the individuals' motivations and behavior. To derive a theory of work motivation that includes Future Time Perspective (Siejts, 1998), representations of the future of working

individuals must be brought to bear upon their perceived reasons for their behavior. By asking each person about how their personal motives are shaped, changed, or influenced by the environment in which they presently reside, the reciprocal relationship between environment and consciousness was established (Dimasio, 1999). The status of an individual within the workplace was of particular relevance for understanding the perceived amount and kind of influence that an individual may have in that environment (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Statements regarding the inducement system of the organization and the relative ownership that an individual feels for the organization (McCaw, 1999) was noted as to their effectiveness at affecting an individual's personal future goal pursuits (Leonard, et al., 1995).

Interview Question #16: Why do you work here? Directly asking interviewees why they work in their particular organization freely gathered perceptions concerning work motivation. Both intrinsic and extrinsic explanations as sources of motivation will be sought (Herzberg, 1966). Attention was paid to the opportunities that were provided to the individual for personal recognition, feedback, and participation (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). This question and its responses provided a foundation for individual work motivation within the developing theory.

Interview Question #17: What kinds of things do you encounter here that motivate you to do a better job or to do more than might be expected of you? The responses to this question further enhanced the descriptions of the motivating factors that individuals experience in their work roles. The direction, arousal,

amplitude, and persistence of subject's behavior was used as guiding factors for determining the parameters of a subject's motivation (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). This question guided the researcher to discover the immediate perceptions that the subjects are concerned with in their work environment (Weiner, 1972). This question also attempted to understand what kinds of motivational sources they found particularly effective (Leonard, et. al., 1995; Husman & Lens, 1999).

Interview Question #18: What kinds of things make you think about the future while you are working? The cues that individuals take from their environment that set them up to think or behave in a certain way may be of interest to those creating optimal workplace settings. This question was designed to see if there are elements in the work environment that sets the interviewee to consciously think about the future.

Interview Question #19: How are goals set for you and your co-workers in this organization? Do you find this helpful? Work goals may be set with or without the individual's participation or input. This question sought to examine the relationship between the individual's satisfaction with the work environment and the degree to which they consider the future within that setting.

Interview Question #20: When you think about the future of this organization, what comes to mind? The future of the organization may or may not be intimately related to the future of a given individual working within it. This question was designed to have the interviewee articulate what image of the future they personally have for the organization, irrespective of their own future. This was

used for comparative purposes to other questions and was considered vital to the developing theory.

Interview Question #21: Do you use a calendar or journal to plan for events, projects, or work-related activities? Making one's goals concrete assists in the coherence of Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985) and proximal goals assist in the development and attainment of distal goals (Seijts, 1998; unpublished manuscript). The time and effort it takes to write down one's goals in a planner, schedule, or calendar was taken as physical evidence that the subjects have the intention and will to attain these future states. Comparing organizational and personal goals and the degree to which they are each concretely formulated provided triangulation (Jick, 1979) upon which to observe an employees commitment to achieve the future that is planned for.

Interview Question #22: In your job, how far into the future do you actively set goals and work toward them? The extension of a person's Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985) is of interest to research in the field (Husman and Lens, 1999; Halvari, 1991). Proximal goals set by these individuals, set as benchmarks to reach these distal goals are thought to be of key importance (Seijts, 1998) and assist to bring a degree of coherence and density to the overall Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985).

Interview Question #23: How does this organization assist you to attain your personal goals? The perceived instrumentality of the work organization (Husman and Lens, 1999) and references to the organization's motivational inducement system (Leonard, et al., 1995) by the working individual provided the context for

discovering what motivates their working behavior. The coherence of each individual's Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985) within the workplace was accounted for by examining ways in which work helps them to achieve their expressed or intended goals.

Interview Question #24: Does the vision or mission of this organization have an affect upon your own future? Explain. This question was designed to describe the fitness between the organization's mission and the individual's own Future Time Perspective. Tubbs and Ekeberg (1991) outline the process that intentions have upon the process by which assigned goals influence behavior. Discovering what an organization wants an individual to do and comparing it to what a person ultimately is interested in doing was thought to be potentially illustrative for developing a theory of Future Time Perspective within work motivation theory. It was hoped through the analysis of data pursuant to this question that the relationship between achievement motivation and Future Time Perspective (Agarwal & Tripathi, 1980) would become clearer. Because this question could be answered with a simple yes or no, the interviewees were often asked to explain and elaborate on their answers.

Interview Question #25: How do people in this organization motivate you to do your job? This question sought to ascertain the degree to which the co-workers and leaders within the organization were perceived. French and Raven's (1959) theory of social power and influence over others was considered here in determining the reasons interviewees ascribe to in explaining their own behaviors.

Interview Question #26: What barriers do you perceive that this organization presents that keeps you from attaining the future that you prefer? This question was designed to determine if there is a lack of fitness between the organization and individual that limits or prohibits certain aspects of an individual's Future Time Perspective from playing a significant role within the work setting.

Data collection occurred through the interview process by asking these justifiable questions. The following section regards the process by which the data in this research was analyzed.

Data Analysis.

Data collected from the above questions was analyzed such that emergent trends were identified and placed into inductive categories (Creswell, 1994, 1998; Merriam, 1988). Constant comparison was used to identify categories until relevant data was no longer forthcoming by following interviews. Strauss and Corbin call this point of redundancy of information in the research process, *saturation* (1998).

When saturation occured, subcategories were developed, identifying *properties* that were considered to be multiple perspectives of the same category (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Categories are terms used for the classification of concepts within qualitative analyses. Strauss and Corbin defined the classification of a category as, "when concepts are compared one against another and appear to pertain to a similar phenomenon. Thus, the concepts are grouped together under a higher order, more abstract concept called a category" (1990, p. 61).

The development of sub-categorical properties ensures that depth of meaning is represented by a continuum of categorical descriptors. The central phenomenon within the data is identified via the development of these saturated categories and properties (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Such analysis of data into categories and refinement into sub-categories was employed by use of open, axial, and selective coding procedures (Creswell, 1998). The development of categories of data (open), the interconnection of the categories (axial), and the construction of a "story" that connects the categories (selective) culminated in a set of theoretical propositions. This resulted in a descriptive theory that is grounded in the data that the theory is derived from.

Open coding is the use of the constant comparison method to identify germane categories of information. Open coding is defined using Strauss and Corbin's definition: "Open coding is the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data" (1990, p. 61).

Axial coding connects and describes the relationships between the categories developed around the central phenomenon. Strauss and Corbin defined axial coding as, "a set of procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories" (1990, p. 96). The conditions, strategies, and context that shape the phenomenon are considered through axial coding. A theory is developed and articulated from the assessment of each category and their interrelationships.

Selective coding is the final lens through which the data is examined. All categories are integrated through validation of the theoretical scheme and by

looking for gaps in logic. Strauss and Corbin defined selective coding as, "the process of selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development" (1990, p. 116). Constant assessment is required as the selective coding process demands the movement of the analysis of general data to specific and back again to general.

The data analysis followed these procedures delineated by Strauss and Corbin. In this way, the researcher articulated a theory emergent from the data with sound methodological grounding.

Data Reporting.

The last crucial piece of the research process is the reporting of the data. Findings are reported in a narrative form to allow the researcher the freedom to describe and conceptualize the emergent theory as it was derived through rigorous analytic methods (Creswell, 1998). Strauss and Corbin (1998) recommend a well-organized, thematic narrative style that is substantiated by the qualitative data collected. Quotations from subject interviews are used to assist in framing the data and the categorical themes for the reader of the research (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Creswell, 1994, 1998). The theoretical scheme is supported by references from the literature and the relationship of the theory to other existing knowledge and the implications of the theory for future research and practice are outlined (Creswell, 1998). These recommended guidelines were followed for conducting and reporting the research.

The shape of the narrative followed the coding procedures of Strauss and Corbin (1990), as per a recommendation by Creswell (1998, p. 180-181): "begin with open coding, move to axial coding complete with a logic diagram, and state a series of explicit propositions in directional (as opposed to the null) form." Thus, the data reporting was organized along a chronological framework that unfolds as the research is conducted, culminating in a visual model that, "contains the axial coding categories of causal conditions, the central phenomenon, the context, intervening conditions, strategies, and consequences" (Ibid). This visual map of the degree to which and the way in which the perceptions of the future are found to impact individuals in terms of workplace behavior represents the resultant theory for the study.

Reliability/Validity

"Notions of validity and reliability must be addressed from the perspective of the paradigm out of which the study has been conducted" (Merriam, 1993). To understand phenomena and to judge work done by researchers in an effort to discern the truth about them, we must have the capacity to trust and believe the work accomplished.

Instead of "reliability", one can strive for what Lincoln and Guba call "dependability" or "consistency" (1985, p. 288). Reliability is concerned with the question of the extent to which one's findings will be found again (Merriam, 1993). In the social sciences and in education, since the environment is never static, this is problematic. "There is no benchmark by which one can take repeated measures and establish reliability in the traditional sense" (Merriam, 1988, p.

170). Three ways that this inquiry ensured that results were consistent with the data collected are 1) triangulation: collecting data through interviews, observation, and examining work documents; 2) providing an audit trail (Guba & Lincoln, 1981), describing in detail "how data was collected, categories derived, and how decisions were made throughout the inquiry" (Merriam, 1988, p. 172); and 3) through following the accepted research design of Grounded Theory inquiries as outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1998) as closely as possible.

Such questions regarding the "validity" of particular quantitative studies can be, at best, described as "credibility", or "trustworthiness" (Guba & Lincoln, 1985) in a qualitative inquiry. The reader of the research results is the "consumer" of the study's conclusions and is the ultimate judge of the truthfulness contained within them. At best, it can "persuade" the reader of its correspondent truthfulness. Wolcott (1995) argues against the "relevance of validity as a criterion measure in qualitative research" and questions the appropriateness of accepting "the language of quantitative researchers as the language of all research." Wolcott posits that, "truth value" be substituted as the standard by which qualitative research be evaluated. Whether it is validity, trustworthiness, or truth-value, this study demonstrates the theory generated through rigorous application of the described methods and through careful and artful language use.

To determine the veracity of a Grounded Theory qualitative research design, wherein the primary instrument is the researcher themselves (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992), a number of criteria have been established. "The purpose of using a theory-building methodology is to build theory. Thus, we are talking more the

language of *explanatory power* rather than of generalizability" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 267 – italics added). The theory should have the capacity to explain what might happen in a given situation.

In Strauss & Corbin's (1998) "Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory", eight criteria provide standards against which the reviewer may judge the results of a study. The criteria are:

1). Are Concepts Generated?

2). Are the Concepts Systematically Related?

3). Are There Many Conceptual Linkages, and Are the Categories Well Developed? Do Categories have Conceptual Density?

4) Is Variation Built into the Theory?

5) Are the Conditions Under Which Variation Can be found Built into the Study and Explained?

6). Has Process Been Taken Into Account?

7). Do the Theoretical Findings Seem Significant, and to What Extent?

8). Does the Theory Stand the Test of Time and Become Part of the Discussions and Ideas Exchanged Among Relevant Social and Professional Groups?

These criteria may be used to, "evaluate the analytic logic used by the researcher" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 269). By tracking a study through the logical procedures for gathering data and analyzing it, and through the

researcher's efforts to painstakingly recreate their thought processes in a visible way, one may judge the degree to which the results are grounded empirically against these questions. As such, it is thought that this study meets the standards and objectives of the qualitative paradigm for discovering truth.

Role of the Researcher.

Researchers are the primary instruments for data collection in a qualitative study (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). It is generally recognized among qualitative researchers that bias, value, and subjective judgments can be inadvertently made a part of the process of inquiry, analysis, and the creation of theory (Creswell, 1994, 1998). It is important that researchers recognize the values, judgments, and biases that they have surrounding the issues of the inquiry. Measures to ensure that data is accurate, reliable, and represented in a way such as to reflect the perspective of the subjects are worrisome issues the researcher should address (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Through asking good questions, analyzing the meaning of particular words, phrases, or sentences, and comparing incidents and objects, researchers have analytic tools to help them overcome their own biases (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Still, the history of experiences, beliefs, and convictions of the researcher were an inextricable influence and "filter" through which the research was conducted, analyzed, and the theory developed.

The researcher is a futurist, having been an active member of the World Future Society for several years and presented at their annual conference for the last three meetings. The strong belief that actively thinking about the future is essential during times of change and that this is ultimately important to many

organizations colors the researcher's perceptions and filters his thinking. Several measures have been carefully adhered to, such that this research is true to the qualitative paradigm of research.

Bogdan and Biklen (1992) suggest using detailed field notes incorporating extensive reflections by the researcher as a guard against the inherent biases of the researcher. The use of an interview form (see Appendix C) was used by the researcher of this study to record implicit and explicit data in field notes. Every effort was made to overcome researcher bias through the use of these analytic tools.

Maintaining a balance between objectivity and sensitivity is perhaps the most important, yet delicate role that the researcher has to play within the scope of his or her research (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Creating an accurate representation of this problem while remaining sensitive to both subjects and the creation of the theory from emergent data was a challenge. Three follow up phone calls and one face-to-face meeting with interviewees were conducted to check the veracity and "ring of truthfulness" to the analysis as it proceeded. These "member checks" were invaluable as they added depth and clarity to the analysis, while verifying the researcher's ability to accurately interpret the interactions and perceptions of the individuals within the context of the study.

Summary of Methodology

A qualitative research design was intended to generate a theory grounded in the data derived from open-ended questions. The questions were intended as a

device to gather the perceptions of the future according to individuals within the work setting. Data was collected from interviews with purposefully selected members of the educational, government, and business organizations in Montana that were represented. Field notes reflective of the researcher's impressions and the statements and behaviors of the subjects were recorded for analysis. The analytical tools of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding were then used to categorically generate a theory consistent with the perceptions of the subjects. A visual model represents the culmination of the theory generation.

The methodology described in this chapter provided the framework for this study's data collection, analysis, and theory generation. The following chapter, "Findings from the Qualitative Inquiry" presents the results of data analysis as outlined here.

CHAPTER FOUR

Findings from the Qualitative Inquiry

This study was guided by the grand tour question: "How are an individual's perceptions of the future and their work motivation related?" Data pertaining to this question and the analyses of that data are reported in this section. Twelve subjects were purposefully selected for this study and interviewed over a ten month period. Four people each from business, education, and government organizations were selected for interviews according to the nature of their work as it informed the developing theory, the relative position of leadership, and their accessibility to the researcher. All interviews were conducted by the same researcher with a micro-cassette recorder in a confidential setting at the organization in which the worker was employed. Semi-structured interviews were conducted using a standard protocol and included 26 questions that sought to obtain data pertaining to the grand tour question mentioned previously.

For the purpose of this study, descriptive data are reported in narrative form and amplified using direct quotations extracted from the interview transcripts. These quotes are presented verbatim and connected to the correct source even though a fictitious name is consistently used for each of the 12 subjects. The identities of the subjects and their place of employment have been purposely concealed. The confidentiality of this information did not detract from the collection or analysis of any data.

The analysis of data from each subject in this study to determine relationships, processes, and phenomena yielded five important categories. One

category, "The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations", emerged as the core category. This core category encompasses the remaining four subcategories and has a direct relationship with each subcategory. The four subcategories are: (a) Workplace Factors, (b) Changing Environments, (c) Personal Factors, and (d) Career Scripts. The relationships between all categories and their properties comprise the narrative of this study. This narrative could not have evolved without the scope and depth of data provided by each subject.

Subjects for this study provided data through detailed descriptions of their thoughts, feelings, and experiences. General information pertaining to individuals in this study can be found in Table 1. Table 1 presents demographic information for each subject; the type of organization in which they are employed; their gender; the number of years they have worked in their present position; and the distance into the future the person responded as being necessary for one to actively think in order to be successful in their work position.

Table 1

Subject Information

Subject	organization	years in position	distance required for success
#1 Jeremy	Education	1	1 day
#2 Samantha	Education	30	1 to 2 weeks
#3 Kevin	Education	1	5 to 10 years
#4 Mike	Education	1	1 day
#5 Paul	Business	3	1 to 3 years
#6 Andy	Business	4.5	1 year
#7 Laura	Business	30	"generations"
#8 Jack	Business	9	10 years
#9 John	Government	15	30 years
#10 Katie	Government	18	100 years
#11 Larry	Government	2	20 years
#12 Joe	Government	2	8 hours

The analysis of the data for this study follows the design suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990) and utilizes the processes of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Through this process the data has been taken apart, analyzed, and put back within context for multiple views of the relationships between observations and self-described experiences. The first stage of this process was through examining the data gathered from each subject in what is called the open coding process.

Open Coding

Open coding involved the making of comparisons and the asking of questions (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Utilizing the open coding methodology, data collected from interviewees were broken down into discrete parts and examined for relationships. This process revealed the following four categories: Workplace Factors, Changing Environments, Personal Factors, and Career

Scripts. These categories were then examined for their properties and dimensional range. Strauss and Corbin (1990) stated that this process of open coding stimulates the discovery not only of categories but also of their properties. Properties, within the open coding process, have been defined by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as "attributes or characteristics pertaining to a category" (p. 61). Properties were also analyzed to determine their dimensional range. The first of these categories to be examined was "workplace factors".

Workplace factors

Table 2 presents the category of workplace factors and the dimensional range of the properties related to workplace factors. The dimensional ranges are presented here, as they are throughout this study in a left-to-right fashion, starting with the less intense or negative case on the left, ranging to the more intense or positive case on the right.

Table 2

Properties and Dimensional Range of the Workplace Factors Category

Category	Properties	Dimensional Range
Workplace Factors:	Event Preparation	Near → far Peripheral → core Simple → complex/difficult
	Work Rhythm Timeline	Immediate → short → long range Single → concurrent → multi-task
	Time Pressure	Low → intermittent → high
	Future Orientation of Work, itself	None → short → long
	Organizational Mission	Removed → support → responsible
	Commitment to Planning Processes	None → informal → formal

Each property and dimensional range of the category workplace factors is supported with descriptive narratives. These narratives are drawn from transcriptions of verbatim recordings collected from interviewees for this study. The narrative examples provide both context and voice to the categorical analyses. After data for each property have been related to interviewee narratives, the data is related to the literature review. The open coding of workplace factors begins with the property, "Event Preparation" and refers to Table 2.

Event Preparation. All subjects referred to events within the work environment as factors that affect the amount or degree that they think about and

act upon the future. Interviewees reported a wide range of motivating events within the workplace: some in the immediate future, some farther away on the calendar that nevertheless stirred the employees to think about and take actions toward those distant events. Events that require active preparation or planning on the part of the employee were of particular self-reported consequence to interviewees. Katie provides a representative example:

> I'm already looking at and have already pulled a bunch of paperwork out to lay out what I need in my head, material-wise and everything else, for June two years from now... It just depends on your project how far you're looking out into the future.

The dimensions of Event Preparation were the chronological distance, ranging from near to far; the degree of personal integration that the event motivated the individual, ranging from peripheral to core; and the perceived complexity of the event being considered, ranging from simple to complex or difficult. The first dimension of Event Preparation, chronological distance, is discussed first.

Event Preparation Dimension 1: **near → far**. Chronological distance emerged as a consistent theme in self-reported factors that affected interviewee workplace motivation and active thinking about the future. Interviewees with work that require them to actively prepare for events that will take place far into the future (e.g. economic development activity, school district planning) reported a higher degree of forethought and action in the workplace than those whom work in a setting that is focused more upon the immediate present (e.g. fielding

emergency calls, tending bar). The proximity of a goal was a substantial factor for determining interviewee self-reported motivation and action for any given workplace event. An opposing pattern was also discovered, in that long-range goals are sometimes sacrificed for immediate or urgent needs. Mike, a university custodian said:

> I could come here each day and only take care of maintenance of the building – keeping the bathrooms tidy, the floors clean, what have you – but the long range health of (this building) depends upon a little more thought and planning. Will we need a coat of paint here in the next 6 months; do we need to repair those cracks now or can they wait for 5 more years?

Andy, the state superintendent summed it nicely:

> ...in this office, you can be totally consumed by just daily activities, and never, never get to anything that's a future goal. There's enough going on a daily basis that you don't, if you don't want to, you don't even have to think about it. You just, all you'd do is just deal with what comes across your plate on any given day. So it requires time management, you know, really good time management skills, and allotting time in a day to do the things that you need to do to get you going.

The dimension corresponding to the degree of personal significance that the individual attributed to the event and internalized it as motivating, ranging from a peripheral goal to a core goal is discussed next.

Event Preparation Dimension 2: **peripheral → core**. Another dimension of Event Preparation that emerged as a property of Workplace Factors in the present study was the degree to which workplace events were personally integrated and considered by the individual as important to think about and act upon. Personal Integration of future workplace events is described herein as the degree to which workplace events impact interviewee motivation depending upon how closely aligned to the perceived job description, the organizational mission, and/or personal motivations that the event in question was considered. Kevin, the superintendent of a Montana school district, described a close relationship between his personal motivation to work and events occurring in his environment: "... When you're watching some great talent and the people you're really relying on to carry you into the next period of district life – that you're hoping are going to drive your plans and you're having to let them go – it's very discouraging." A local retailer, Andy, was excited about the upcoming celebration for his record store's five-year anniversary, "it's gonna be awesome. I mean, there's a lot of people in this town – me included – that sometimes didn't think we'd make it past two!" The twelve people interviewed in their organizational settings related that if they felt personally invested in the outcome of a work-related event, then that event was personally motivating to them. The third dimension of Event Preparation, complexity, is discussed in the following section.

Event Preparation Dimension 3: **simple → complex/difficult**. The last dimension of Event Preparation that emerged as a category of Workplace Factors was the relative complexity or difficulty of events under consideration. The range

for the Complexity dimension for workplace events included a subject who reported no planning or thought necessary to do certain functions of their job, to several subjects that reported a great deal of time, effort, communication, and workplace resources dedicated to the articulation and implementation of a workplace event. Laura, a hospital administrator, connected the degree of thought devoted to an event and the chronological distance to any given goal to what she called the Change Cycle: "it depends upon how much change from where it is you are right now [sic] to where it is you want to be and how much work you think it's going to take to get there". Subjects reported that the degree to which they thought of upcoming workplace events as requiring detailed thought and planning (i.e. complexity) was related to the self-reported amount and depth of thought dedicated to preparing for those events. A review of the extant literature related to Event Preparation and its impact upon the constructs of Motivation and Future Time Perspective follows.

Event Preparation and the Literature Review. The way in which people subjectively think about events in the future appears to be a function of chronological distance (Von Wright & Kinnunen, 1976). The farther away in time that an event is, the relatively lesser the affective power that the event has on the motivations of the individual. Subsequently, attention to the far-off future is less frequent than to those events in the near future, creating a "density of future time perspective that appears to taper off exponentially with future time" (Ibid., p. 1240). However, those individuals with relatively longer Future Time Perspective have been found to engage in active thought and behavior to meet a goal sooner

than their counterparts with a shorter Future Time Perspective (Lessing, 1972). The "goal distance" dimension of the Event Preparation property of Workplace Factors is, thus, supportive of these previous research findings.

Zacks and Tversky (2001) provide several more propositions that are useful in thinking about the way individuals perceive and act upon the structure of events within their working lives. First, although events are, "in the minds of beholders, they are tied to actions in the world" (p. 3). The subjects interviewed for this study conceived of things that were slated to happen in the future of their workplaces and consequently acted upon those ideas; second, "the temporal dimension of events leads to an inherent asymmetry in event boundaries and organization" (Ibid.). Because events occur within a given location in time, people must conceptualize the way in which future events are to be constructed and then take action to create and organize them prior to their occurrence; third, the "perception of temporal sequence is elementary to perception of causality" (Zacks & Tversky, 2001, p. 3). The plans and actions that people take lead them to make sense of the events that occur later and further, to accredit responsibility to people or situational happenstances that led to the success or failure of the event after the fact. Future workplace events that individuals are compelled to think about, plan for, and take action on are thus, bound by time, perception, and the workplace culture and environment. These dimensions of event conception are supported by the perceptions of the individuals in the present study.

Zacks & Tversky's work on Event Structure has further implications to the present study: people are sensitive to a range of different time scales, depending

upon the saliency of features under consideration (2001, p. 7). This would explain the contextual differences between those that have work that require them to think far into the future and those that have work with relatively shorter temporal events to consider. A superintendent of schools or leader of a state government necessarily has a longer chronology of events to prepare for and consider than the bartender or the custodian.

Events also are thought to be, "characterized by plots (i.e. the goals and plans of their participants) or by socially conventional forms of activity" (Zacks & Tversky, 2001. p. 6). The events under analysis of the interview data collected from the twelve participants in this study fit this depiction – of things to do, things to think about, and relationships to negotiate. Each event had characteristics reflective of the shape and character of a story under development.

Finally, Zacks and Tversky posit that, "as the time scale increases, events become less physically characterized and more defined by the goals, plans, intentions, and traits of their participants" (2001, p. 7). This, too, is supported by the analysis of interview data from the present study. The dimension of Goal Distance within the Event Preparation property of Workplace Factors supports Zacks and Tversky's notion. The superintendent spoke less of the exact nature of the tasks at hand within his 30 year plan and more about the direction and outcomes that he hopes that the district will achieve within that space. Only the county clerk and recorder varied from this, stating that she was thinking of the specific things that needed to be accomplished for something nearly two years away! Clearly there are some individuals with particular dispositions placed

within certain kinds of jobs that lend themselves toward more discrete particulars of planning about chronologically distant events. Previous research investigating the dimensions of the Future Time Perspective construct may illuminate some potential personality differences related to these findings.

All five of the dimensions of Future Time Perspective previously identified by researchers are relevant to the Event Preparation property of the Workplace Factors category in the present study. Nuttin's (1985) distinction of five different dimensions of Future Time Perspective, those of Extension, Affectivity, Coherence, Directionality, and Density found purchase in the analysis of data pertaining to the phenomenon of thinking about a future event whilst within the workplace environment.

First, being able to prepare effectively for a workplace event appears to a certain extent dependent upon the chronological length of a person's future thinking about an event, or the Extension of Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985). This corresponds to the first dimension of Event Preparation, chronological distance (near → far).

Second, the degree of organization in which one mentally conceives of the event, or the Coherence of an individual's Future Time Perspective is also potentially endemic to a person's ability to successfully prepare for events within the workplace environment. The findings from this study also support this, as interviewees were motivated to think about those assignments and workplace events with a degree of complexity or difficulty (simple → complex/difficult).

Third, in considering the number of thoughts issued throughout thinking about and preparing for the event, or Density of the Future Time Perspective, this study anecdotally supports previous research findings. Although there was no formal count of the quantitative number of events mentally considered by the subjects interviewed for this study, the subjects' perception of what motivated them to increase their degree of thinking about the future during work corresponded to this dimension of Future Time Perspective. Subjects reported more detail and active thinking about events in the future that were considered motivating to them.

Fourth, the Directionality of Future Time Perspective corresponds to the degree to which one feels confident that they are moving forward from the present to the future and making progress toward the realization of the event (Nuttin, 1985). This dimension of Future Time Perspective is reflected in the statements made by interviewees in this study regarding their skills, abilities, challenges, and frustrations surrounding accomplishing the work set before them in the jobs that they presently hold.

Lastly, to the extent to which a person feels gratified or pleased by the realization of anticipated events, or what Nuttin (1985) termed Affectivity, ideas of the future were demonstrated to affect the motivation of the individuals interviewed for this study. Thus, differences in the way in which and the degree to which the twelve individuals interviewed for this study thought about and prepared for events in the workplace could be related to personality differences along any of these five dimensions of Future Time Perspective.

Two categories intimately related to Event Preparation emerged from data analysis of Workplace Factors: Work Rhythm and Time Pressure. Work Rhythm is defined here as the movement or fluctuation of job operations marked by regular or timely occurrence in the given work environment, while Time Pressure in the work environment is defined as the real or perceived pressure to accomplish a given goal or task within a specified timeframe. Multiple interviewees articulated both the anticipation of regularly occurring work events and the pressure to accomplish certain work-related goals as hallmarks associated with their increased thinking about the future at work. Related to the preparation of events within the workplace was the anticipated rhythm of events within the workplace, the next property described as a part of the category, "workplace factors" that influence the degree to which people think about the future as a motivator within the work setting.

Work Rhythm Timeline. The teacher prepares for next semester, ordering books and preparing unit plans. The retail store owner gets ready for university students to come back to school for a new year by ordering extra copies of his records and compact discs. The superintendent of schools sits down and prepares his notes for an upcoming school board meeting. The economic development specialist prepares for grant writing season. The bartender takes inventory and stocks extra liquor in anticipation of St. Patrick's Day festivities. The state government official prepares for the upcoming legislative session by holding strategic planning meetings and convening with a variety of stakeholders. The county clerk and recorder copies records into files, anticipating the need for them

to be accurate and useful decades from now. The police dispatcher awaits a call that will put him into action responding to immediate needs in an emergency situation. The experience of ebb and flow of regular events within the workplace created what were termed, "work rhythm" in the present study. The first dimension, length of work timeframe, is described in the following section.

Work Rhythm Timeline Dimension 1: **Immediate → short → long range**. Some jobs require a short operational timeframe, while others require long range thinking and planning. Each subject related to ways in which their unique task environment called them to think about the future in certain ways such that they would be successful in their jobs. Anticipation of future work demands based upon experience or key information acted as a motivator for the subjects to think about and prepare for the future at work. Experience in each task environment allowed the interviewees to relate particular timeframes that one must think about and prepare for if one is to be a success at that job.

Samantha, an experienced elementary school teacher provides insight into the relatively longer-term work rhythm of K-12 teaching:

This year I have a wonderful class and I really have enjoyed these children, so it's a lot more fun to come to school than some years when I've really had a difficult class, and it's been hard to come day after day. The only thing is that I keep in mind is this class will end, they will move on, and hopefully the next year will be better, so that makes a difference.

Experience as a classroom teacher has taught her that, if she waits, her work environment will change as she endures the year and gets a new set of students in the fall.

Seasons, cycles, and waves of work-related events were noted rhythms amongst the twelve subjects' motivation to think about the future within the job setting. Election years were mentioned by three of the four government employees; payday was brought up by several subjects; and the ebb and flow of student activity was mentioned by the teacher, the superintendent, and even the record store owner:

> And you have to plan, you have to realize that money goes in cycles, and that, you know, man, in May I'm gonna do pretty good 'cause everyone's graduating; in September, I'm gonna do great 'cause everyone's coming back to school. But man, in October it's gonna blow because all those students have spent their money and need to go home for Thanksgiving before they get any more. That took me four years to figure out, but I finally did.

The police dispatcher anticipated a rise in emergency calls as a local tourist event was thought to garner international attention in the coming few years. The economic development specialist within this study discussed preparing for a time of year in which many grants have to written and submitted, creating a "season" or several-month period each year when his job is consumed by one particular activity. The next dimension of Work Rhythm Timeline, task simultaneity, is discussed in the following section.

Work Rhythm Timeline Dimension 2: **Single → concurrent → multi-task**. Doing one task at a time is a luxury that many people in the workforce do not have. Many job environments require the worker to divide their attention amongst multiple timelines and several concurrent issues to attend to simultaneously. Several subjects interviewed for the present study remarked upon the realities of performing in a complex, multi-tasking work environment and the deleterious effects that that had upon their degree of future thinking whilst on the job. Three subjects noted the relative ease with which they were able to perform their required work when they are able to focus upon that job-at-hand, rather than having to perform multiple tasks at the same time. One of these three subjects stated that having a simpler task environment makes it easier for that person to consider the far-off, personal future. The review of the literature relating to Work Rhythms and the dimensions identified from the analysis of data comprises the following section.

Work Rhythm and the Literature Review. Though no specific research has been done to date on the relationship between employee future time perspective on the job and the combined experienced and expected events within the workplace, many researchers have provided germane evidence via inquiries regarding the structure of organizational task environments and their various effects upon human performance and perception. Researchers have investigated such factors as motivation (McClelland, 1987), commitment (Morris & Steers, 1980; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978) and satisfaction (Cummings & Berger,

1976; Porter & Lawler, 1965) as potential moderators of the effectiveness of task structure upon work performance.

Of the identified dimensions of Future Time Perspective first characterized by Nuttin (1985), the length and coherence dimensions appear to be most relevant to the research findings presented here. These two dimensions of Future Time Perspective allow the individual to perceive upcoming changes in the future and make sense out of the events and conditions that create these changes within the workplace. McGrath's observation that people must, "reckon with differences in the various time frames with which they must deal" (1986, p. 56) is also underscored by the present study's findings. The next property of Work Factors influencing the self-reported degree to which and the way in which people thought about the future within the work environment is Time Pressure, discussed in the next section.

Time Pressure. Immediate demands upon the subjects' time were commonly expressed as a barrier for working on and achieving longer range goals. The goals that were most commonly and actively worked on were reported to be those that existed between one day and three weeks out in time. Generally, longer range goals were actively worked on only when urgent needs could be either be delegated, suppressed, taken care of, or when those longer range goals were complex enough, difficult enough, and enough of a priority that the individual felt that they needed to be attended to. The degree of demand put upon the workers interviewed in the present study by a given goal in relationship to other goals was a subcategory of Event Preparation, coined *Time Pressure.*

The elementary school teacher juggles competing immediate demands for her time as students mill around the room working on assignments, asking questions, getting into one situation after another and exacting simultaneous planning, memory, and immediate attention demands. The police dispatcher will sometimes sit for hours with seemingly little to do, waiting for a call in to the station that will set him into a mode where he is suddenly thinking about and doing many urgent things simultaneously. The district judge mediates court dates between attorneys' calendars, other obligations, and various legal requirements. One response that consistently came up as a factor for subjects' thinking about the future as it relates to workplace Event Preparation was pressure to achieve goals in a constricted or firm timeframe, or Time Pressure.

Kevin, a K-12 school district superintendent said:

> you can come in with your to-do list for the day, and never get the first thing done because you get hit with a wave of 'I don't know what'. Just everywhere. And so it requires you to really somehow figure out how to organize your time.

Paul, an economic development specialist relates:

> ...many days we're asked to put out fires. People call us up and ask for information or assistance or something, or whatever the case may be. (...) There isn't many days that I walk into the office without a clear-cut idea or plan for what I'm going to do today, but I may not get to that plan until three days later.

Most interviewees expressed frustration at having to take care of urgent things in the present in lieu of working on things that are important farther off into the future. One subject, however, one within education, reported that (factors contributing to) Time Pressure was not a significant factor in impacting his future thinking within the workplace. The relevant dimension of Time Pressure is thus, for the purposes of this study, the relative intensity of Time Pressure perceived by interviewees.

Time Pressure Dimension 1: **low → intermittent → high**. Time Pressure as a property of Workplace Factors has the dimension of Intensity, from low to high. Subjects reported varying degrees of pressure to achieve work-related goals – often depending upon the work rhythms, the complexity of the job/s assigned, or the standards placed upon job performance. Four subjects reported little or no time pressure in the workplace, five subjects reported some or intermediate workplace time pressure, and three reported relatively high levels of time pressure put upon them in relationship to their workplace performance. A review of the literature of the Time Pressure phenomenon and its relative context within the Future Time Perspective construct and the present findings follows.

Time Pressure and the Literature Review. Researchers investigating organizational settings have found that Time Pressure is a negative predictor of the cognitive processing factors associated with creativity despite increases in productivity (Amabile, et al., 2002). Through the experience of Time Pressure, the decision making process is accelerated, low-risk solutions become preferable, and

people tend to make decisions without looking at all of the available alternatives. Further, Amabile, et al. highlight:

> people may be less likely to take the time to understand a problem deeply, or to fully prepare to solve the problem through learning and contemplation of what they have learned. ... In other words, the entire set of elements that make up creative cognitive processing could be adversely affected by time pressure (2002, p. 4).

Additional research results indicate that Time Pressure has effects upon other aspects of human cognition including the narrowing of information that people tend to process (Ben Zur & Breznitz, 1981) and the simplification of cognitive problem solving strategies (Rothstein, 1986). The results of this study seem to indicate that along with the multiple deleterious affects that Time Pressure has upon the thinking of the worker, Future Time Perspective is shortened, at least temporarily. The Length of a person's Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985) was considered shortened under the influence of Time Pressure situations as indicated by the subjects of this study.

Yet another property of workplace factors that subjects reported influencing their degree of future thinking within their task environments was the future orientation of the work, itself. Some work motivated their subjects simply by the thought of the potential that the work had for generally or specifically changing the future in a direction that the person thought was preferable.

Future orientation of work, itself as motivation. Some work that people do is aimed at creating the future. Many of the subjects in this study were motivated

by the opportunity to create sustained, positive change through working within their organizations. Katie, a county clerk and recorder, felt that her impact upon the future is great:

> So what we do today greatly impacts tomorrow and tomorrow's residents. I may not be here, but the trail, the legal documents, the things we leave behind for the future are very important. We know that by what we have to go back into the past on a very daily basis. We have people looking for something from the 30's or 40's or 50's. We know that if we're not motivated today, someone in the future is going to be very angry with us.

Several other subjects noted their potential to affect the future through their work, often relaying a sense of pride. The potential to create a better future was a self-reported motivation to work for subjects in a variety of ways. One of the subjects stated:

> ...helping this community or working with this community to have these kinds of discussions about where they want to be, how they want to get there, to talk about their values, I think is quite frankly probably the most exciting part of my job.

All four education-sampled workers, from the superintendent to the custodian, remarked on the importance of the school's potential to affect their many students' futures and its relationship to their personal motivation to work in their place of occupation. The government official in this study reported, "I understand fully that I can make a difference, that things can be different because I was here and I have the opportunity to in a way, to take (the state of Montana) in

the direction that I would like to see it go." The district judge, too, thought that one of his primary motivators for his work is to, "leave the place a little bit better than I found it."

In contrast, three of the subjects (custodian, bartender, and police dispatcher) felt that there was little future-oriented thinking necessary in performing the functions of their work. The police dispatcher thought that future-thinking might even interfere with performing his duties, as immediate and urgent responses are required of him under high-stakes conditions. The relative time orientation of different occupations comprises the dimension of the property, Future Orientation of Work, itself as Motivation. The economic developer, the county clerk and recorder, and the school district superintendent had longer self-reported Future Time Perspectives than those of the bartender, the custodian, or the police dispatcher. The motivation derived from work with a longer temporal horizon was relatively absent in those individuals interviewed that worked in places with a more immediate focus of attention or production cycle. The review of the literature regarding the motivation derived from future orientations of workplace objectives is discussed next.

Future Orientation of Work, itself as Motivation and the Literature Review. The length, density, and affective dimensions of Nuttin's Future Time Perspective construct (1985) are evidenced in the analysis of data relevant to this property. It is possible that those individuals thinking farther (length) and more often (density) into the future are those that might derive more motivation (affective) from finding work that allows them to feel as though they are making a

difference in the kind of future that they prefer. Research into the various sources of work motivation do not appear to have addressed the Future Orientation of the work itself, though this could ostensibly be translated into one or more of McClelland's (1987) three classic motives of achievement, power, or affiliation. Researchers such as Kouzes and Posner (1995), Sergiovanni and Corballi (1986), Sergiovanni (1989), Senge (1990), and Gardner (2000) have all made extensive references to the need to motivate people through establishing visions of the future for the organization, however. The findings from the next property of Workplace Factors, Organizational Mission, are discussed in the following section.

Organizational Mission. Every subject in the present study reported that the mission or primary goal of the organization had some kind of impact upon their personal motivation within the workplace. While some subjects gave a very explicit definition of the mission of their organization and others were more general, all agreed that the nature of their work had an impact upon their motivation. This was in sharp contrast to many of the subjects' responses to their self-reported knowledge and the degree of impact that a written mission statement within their respective organization had upon their future-oriented thinking and motivation to work. Of the four subjects who reported knowledge of a written mission statement for their organizations, none had it memorized and only one felt that it was a potentially useful document. When asked of knowledge of the school's mission statement and its impact on her own planning and motivation, Samantha replied:

> Not really. I mean I can't even tell you what the mission statement is. I guess in a way; because I'm wanting [sic] to help the children accomplish it, help (this school) be an excellent school, which I think it probably is. (...) maybe it would be more effective to me if it was a shorter statement that I could remember.

One subject felt that the mission statement for his organization was out of date and that they had achieved what had been described as a mission decades ago. Two other subjects without an organizational mission statement thought it would be a useful document to create for charting their organizations' futures. The first dimension of Organizational Mission, degree of responsibility or Personal Integration, is discussed in the following section.

Organizational Mission Dimension 1: **removed → support → responsible.** The degree to which the organization's mission impacted subject motivation ranged along the dimension of Personal Integration, from removed to responsible. Subjects reported a wide range of degrees of personal responsibility for fulfilling the organizational mission. Some subjects felt that the carrying out of the organizational mission was completely within their control. The record store that Andy owns and operates and Andy's personal future are intimately related:

> If I stop working, the store stops working. If I don't show up to shovel the sidewalks when it snows and somebody slips and breaks their leg, or I decide not to order any more C.D.'s ... that's my own fault that this place goes under, you know? Yeah, that motivates me.

Samantha felt responsible for guiding her classroom in such a way that she could provide the best learning experiences possible, her own interpretation of the organization's mission. Paul wanted to make sure the communities that he works with receive the best chance of economic success as possible. Other subjects, such as Mike, felt that they were at least supportive of the larger organizational mission: "I may not be teaching at this college, but I help out by making sure everything is clean and that students aren't distracted by a run-down, dumpy looking place to learn in. I feel good that I can play my part." Each subject spoke of motivating functions of their job as a direct result of the contribution they make to the purpose of the organization. In the following section, a review of the extant literature related to the property, Organizational Mission is discussed.

Organizational Mission and the Literature Review. One of the most powerful motivators to accomplish a task is the degree to which that task aligns with internal or intrinsic goals (Hertzberg, 1966). Individuals that personally value the thought of a behavior are thus, more likely to perform that behavior, as people feel that they are contributing to a cause that they have determined for themselves (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Kouzes and Posner (1995) underscore the need for work motivation to emanate from within the needs, values, and dispositions of the workers' internal worlds, just as many other researchers have done so in the past (Covey, 1990; McClelland, 1987; Hertzberg, 1966). There has been no work to date on the possible relative differences in workplace Future Time Perspective between those individuals in alignment with their work's organizational mission and those that do not internalize it.

Nuttin's directionality dimension of the Future Time Perspective construct (1985) is related to the findings congregated in the data surrounding this property. Those individuals "buying in" to the mission are ostensibly feeling more capable of moving in the direction that they wish to, compared to those that have no affective belief in their particular organization. The internalization of organizational missions was found to be a recurring theme in the self-reported factors influencing the degree to which and the way in which the subjects interviewed for this study thought about the future within the workplace. The following section discusses the Commitment to Planning Processes property of the Workplace Factors category.

Commitment to Planning Processes. All subjects reported factors surrounding planning and preparation within the organizational setting as consistent inducers to think about and act upon the future. Katie believed that the planning process in her office was "essential to getting everyone on the same page and functioning beyond chaos." The district judge reported setting major events to prepare for on the calendar "several times a week". The retail store owner noted that he could make more money and be better prepared for the future if he planned in a more thoughtful and organized way. The economic development specialist reported that planning for application to various grant projects was a major factor for his thinking about the future and for motivation to come to work in the morning. All subjects regularly refer to a calendar for upcoming work events that require preparation. The activity of planning for future events within the workplace was the most common phenomenon subjects referred to as

inducing them to think about the future within the work setting. The degree of formal planning instituted within the workplace comprised the single relevant dimension of the Commitment to Planning Processes Dimension and is discussed in the next section.

Commitment to Planning Processes Dimension 1: **none → informal → formal**. Some organizations schedule regular meetings at specified times, while others convene around the water cooler when necessary or just allow business to carry on without a lot of formal planning at all. The record store owner has a small enough and simple enough business that the most planning he reported doing was through talking things over with his wife, his banker, or by making arrangements to call an associate in the retail music business. The district judge, on the other hand, has a litany of meetings and schedules to pore over at the beginning of each day and processes these with people that he works with regularly. A review of the literature germane to the Commitment to Planning Processes property is the next section of this analysis.

Commitment to Planning Processes and the Literature Review. Work creates a sense of collective purpose for people, imposing structure on their activities, enlarging the scope of their social experiences, and providing them with a unified chronology upon which to focus attention and mutual activities (Bond & Feather, 1988). While conscious goal setting has been identified as a significant factor in developing and improving motivation, commitment, and work-related performance (Locke, 1996; Locke & Latham, 1990), it's relationship to Future Time Perspective is scantily illustrated, at best (Seijts, 1998). Though several

researchers have investigated the phenomenon of temporal horizons within organizations (Schein, 1990; Fraisse, 1963), there is no known study investigating the impact that goal-setting or the formal act of planning has as part of the organizational culture or the task environment itself upon the individual psyche in relation to their future consciousness.

As the subjects participating in this study have emphasized, the call to consciously plan for events – either collectively or as a responsible, working individual – was a compelling reason to think about the future and engage in purposeful activities in the present toward realization of those plans. Of the five dimensions of individual Future Time Perspective identified by Nuttin (1985), Coherence and Density are most germane to the property of Planning Processes as part of the category Workplace Factors in this study. Planning appeared to increase the number of events within a person's given workplace future time horizon and increased the degree of organization between events by providing a medium within which the future could be discussed, negotiated, and mutually agreed upon.

This completes a review of the open coding of the property, Workplace Factors. The following section describes the open coding analysis of the category, Changing Environments, beginning with the property, Predictability of the Task Environment.

Working in Changing Environments

Table 3 presents the category of working in changing environments and the dimensional ranges of the properties related to working in changing

environments. The Dimensional Ranges in this table are presented such that the negative or lesser intensity appears on the left and flows toward the positive or greater intensity end of the spectrum.

Table 3

Properties and Dimensional Range of the Working in Changing Environments Category

Category	Properties	Dimensional Range
Working in changing environments	Predictability of the task environment	Routine → new → novel Stable → changing → random Low need to adapt → high need to adapt
	Technological change	Low → high
	Growth perception	Low → high
	Threat perception	Low → high
	External pressure	Low → high

For the purpose of this study, the category "working in changing environments" consists of five properties. The properties are: (a) predictability of the task environment, (b) technological change, (c) growth perception, (d) threat perception, and (e) external pressure. Each property is described and includes the dimensional ranges as analyzed from the self-reported data from interview transcripts. Following each of the six narratives is a brief review of the literature relating to the data pertaining to the category, "working in changing

environments". The first property to be discussed is "predictability of the task environment" and refers to Table 3.

Predictability of the Task Environment. All subjects discussed the degree to which they anticipated change within their working environment as a factor in thinking about the future on the job. Laura, a hospital administrator said:

> They change the rules just about the time we figure them out. It makes you have to be pretty flexible. If you're rigid in healthcare – the only thing constant is change – if you're rigid in healthcare, you might be able to get in a niche in a bigger facility and kind of stay there, and the waves might go over the top of you. But if you're rigid in rural healthcare, you'll be left behind.

Later in the interview, Laura admits a sense of dread for her personal future as she anticipated the likely possibility of being laid off: "Today, I'm dreading the future because it's so much unknown." The first dimension of Predictability of the Work Environment that emerged from analysis of interview data was the degree of familiarity or novelty in the task environment and is discussed in the following section.

Predictability of the Task Environment Dimension 1: **routine → new → novel**. The familiarity of the task environment, from routine to novel, was one of the emergent dimensions of the property of Predictability. Subjects that indicated a high degree of familiarity with the expectations, roles, and demands of a particular task felt that they had a lower incidence of future oriented thinking than subjects that were new to tasks. Samantha, an elementary school teacher for more

than 30 years thought that she spent considerably more time preparing for her lesson plans earlier in her career than she does at present, but:

> having done this for so long I would say just a week (of thinking into the future) would take care of my needs for the following week unless there is a major change that I'm making or a major project that requires a lot of components and elements.

She emphasized that familiarity of the job is one of the primary motivators for her continued employment as a school teacher: "it's a motivation to know I can come to a job that I'm familiar with and I feel good about, and can handle" ... "I don't like new situations and changes...". Another dimension of Predictability of the Task Environment that emerged from interview analysis was the perceived relative stability of the workplace. Analysis of this property is summarized in the following section.

Predictability of the Task Environment Dimension 2: **stable → changing → random**. Emerging as a dimension of Predictability was the degree to which the task environment itself was changing or not and the way in which people think about and deal with those changes. The hospital administrator stated how much the medical industry was in a constant state of transformation, such that it required her to think more and more about technological, legislative, and procedural changes that were "coming down the pike". The K-12 superintendent of schools had community, economic, political, and personnel trends that he anticipated having a "significant impact upon our town and this school system." On the other hand, the custodian felt that his work environment and the changes

within it were going to be stable enough that he could come to work and, "pretty much know what's going to be happening every day for the next week or so. I like to keep it simple" ... "that's what I like about this job. You don't have to get so wrapped up in things that you lose perspective of what's important, you know?" The expected work environment as stable or changing was a consistent theme in respect to individual motivation to think about the future within the workplace as analyzed from interview data collected from the participants of this study. Another theme that emerged as a dimension of task environment predictability was the relative necessity for worker adaptation or change and is discussed next.

Predictability of the Task Environment Dimension 3: **low need to adapt → high need to adapt**. Some work environments require a high degree of attention and the adaptation of behavior in order for successful accomplishments to be possible. Other workplaces are not so demanding upon the resources of the individual worker. The perceived need to adapt to particular work-specific changes on the job was a theme derived from interview data as a self-reported factor which corresponded to future-related thinking in the workplace. The motivation to act "more efficiently" on the job was considered a hallmark of this dimension of task environment predictability.

For example, the district judge felt that the return of a legal question over and over hailed in his mind the signal to think about the future within the workplace: "how many times do we need to answer this question?" He related

ways in which he felt motivated to improve the justice system to enable it to react more efficiently:

> Here's what we can do. Here's how we can make it more efficient. People have to know here's what you can expect. It goes back to that consistency, you know? I think that, as you're doing those things on a daily basis, that makes you think, Why are we reinventing the wheel here?

Efficiency and predictability were explicitly relevant factors for the judge, the superintendent, the university custodian, the county clerk and recorder, and the hospital administrator as work issues that related to future-oriented thinking. A review of the literature related to Predictability of the Task Environment follows.

Predictability of the Task Environment and the Literature Review. Anticipation and expectation of work, while related to the rhythm of productive activity within an organization, are not solely derived from the sequence and flow of events within the workplace. Unexpected things happen at times and in some work environments more often than in others. The effects of familiarity or predictability of the task environment on people's motivation and behavior have received some attention by organizational psychologists over the years (Cannon-Bowers; Goodman & Leyden, 1991; Goodman & Shaw, 1992). Inquiries into the way in which either static or dynamic environments have an affect upon individual Time Perspective do not appear to have been addressed, however.

Results from this study indicate that, of the empirically identified dimensions of Future Time Perspective by researchers such as Nuttin (1985),

those of extension, coherence, affectivity, and directionality appear to each have a place within factoring the way in which individuals interpret the Predictability of the Task Environment property of Workplace Factors: the less predictable the work environment, the shorter the chronological length which one can effectively extend one's thinking (i.e. extension); the less predictable the work environment, the smaller the degree of cohesiveness or coherence which one's plans must take (i.e. Coherence); the degree to which one feels more or less positive about the anticipated future (i.e. Affect) is likewise most likely amplified by a significant change in the predictability of one's work environment; as is the degree to which one feels capable of or being part of moving positively from the present toward the future (i.e. directionality). From this stance, Future Time Perspective is not necessarily a stable disposition as some researchers have suggested (Nuttin, 1985; Seijts, 1998), but rather appears to be a transactional phenomenon between individual characteristics and dispositions and environmental factors and cues.

Related to familiarity or predictability of environments is the psychological state of boredom. Farmer and Sundberg (1986) state that, "...boredom is maintained by an environment that is perceived as static, with the actor remaining largely disconnected from the processes that comprise his or her environment" (p. 15). Watt (1991) found that highly boredom-prone individuals perceived time as passing more slowly during a task than low boredom-prone people, even though they did not differ significantly in their estimates of the passing chronological time! Similarly, Rodin (1975) found that when bored, overweight people perceived time to pass more slowly than did normal weight

people and so, ate sooner. These findings indicate that the passage of time is different for those with a mental predisposition to interpret the predictability or novelty of the environment as uniform and unstimulating than those that in one way or another remain connected to their environment and continue to respond to it adaptively. Yet another property of the Changing Environments category that emerged from analysis of data was the incidence of technological changes in the workplace, and is addressed in the following section.

Technological Change. **low degree of change → high degree of change.** One common agent of change within the workplace of the subjects within the present study was technology. Technological changes and adaptations within the job setting as they affected subject motivation and thinking about the future were common topics throughout the interviews. All but two of the subjects interviewed felt that technological change within their particular field of work had a great impact upon their occupation: that of custodian and bartender. Katie felt that,

As a K-12 District Superintendent, Kevin illustrates how the environment has changed despite the notion that the primary goals of the district have not, since 1974:

> There were computers as big as this room, but we didn't have any in the district. Technology... there's so much going on there that's different now, but even though the landscape is different, we still have most of the same learning objectives.

As District Judge, John said:

> we go to electronic filings and things become much more streamlined to where hopefully we can get the judicial system moving much more fluently and fluidly. And once we do that, I think our caseload will be more manageable. Automation is going to affect our job so much in the future that it can be a real challenge, and at the same time it can be a real godsend.

Laura looks to the future of the healthcare industry as fraught with change, largely due to anticipated technological advancement:

> Medicine will unequivocally be as much different for the next generation as this one has been from the last. Medicine is so driven by technology. And those changes in technology have come so rapidly that it's almost become our undoing. We provide so much expensive care that we almost can't afford to do it.

The dimensional range for the property of Technological Change ranged from low to high. A literature review germane to workplace technological

adaptation and its effects upon the psyche, particularly time perspective, is in the following section.

Technological Change and the Literature Review. There is no known historical or current research examining the relationship between the infusion or expectancy of change within the workplace due to technological integration and its potential impact upon worker Future Time Perspective. There are certainly, however, a number of inquiries that investigate and expound upon the impact of technological encroachment upon the organizational culture (Bridges, 1994; Rifkin, 1995; Tapscott, 1996). Changes largely due to technological innovation and adoption in economic and workforce spheres are causing people to reevaluate their strategies and priorities in using work as a means to sustain their lives and to create meaning for themselves (Niles, Herr, & Hartung, 2001).

Despite the absence of literature investigating the relationship between technological changes in the workplace and its effects upon the way in which people conceive of the future, the most well considered dimensions of Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985) are supported by the present study along the Technological Change property of Workplace Factors. The Affect dimension of Future Time Perspective is likely informed by a person's general attitude about the rapid advancement of information technology and the prospects of particular technological requirements and implementation within the task environment. This is evidenced by the many comments mentioned previously in the analysis of this property of the Grounded Theory presented before you. Growth Perception,

another property of the Working in Changing Environments category is presented in the following section.

Growth Perception. **low growth perception → high growth perception.** The prospect of being able to take part in the successful growth efforts of the organization was a noteworthy factor in the increase of workplace future-oriented thinking amongst virtually all of the subjects interviewed. Two, however, also noted the relative consistency and stability of their particular positions within the organization as factors that did not motivate them to think much about the future of their work. Paul gets excited when community members collaborate and seem to make progress on planning for growth, while Laura thinks of the future when she sees the potential for a home-based oxygen care endeavor. Jack's plan to renovate his tavern to attract more customers puts him in a future-focused frame of mind, as does Larry's efforts to create a better future for the state of Montana through his efforts as a government official. Joe considers moving on to a larger town, perhaps doing police dispatch work for awhile before "moving up the ladder." Samantha summarized many of the subjects' responses when she said, "opportunity knocks and I think about what's on the other side of the door." The dimensional range for perceived potential for growth in the organization was characterized from low to high. A review of the literature related to Growth Perception and its impact upon Future Time Perspective is next.

Growth Perception and the Literature Review. The analysis comprising this property is supported by the Affective and Directionality dimensions of Future Time Perspective as characterized by the work of Nuttin (1985). The

anticipation of growth within the organization as it affects one's future thinking is likely often associated with positive motivation. Making progress associated with growth of the organization may increase the degree to which people feel movement from the present moment into the future: the Directionality dimension. The intuitive flipside of Growth Perception, Threat Perception was deemed to be a separate property of the Changing Environments category, as is discussed in the following section of this review of the open coding analysis.

Threat Perception. **low threat perception → high threat perception.** While each subject in the present study related how the thought of opportunity was a factor in their thinking about the future, just as prevalent was thinking about threats or risks to the organizational mission. Paul illustrates how changes in state and federal policy have prompted discussion about the future of their economic development operations:

> Then I think, what is my future here as an employee? During the Reagan years – Reagan was not a big fan of the economic development administration. Um, those were tough years for us; a lot of cuts were made. And that has an effect on what we do. The Bush administration, too is taking a different perspective... it makes me think about what it is that we are doing or what I'm doing.
>
> In another vein, Paul portrays his frustration at the challenges of his work: personally and professionally, I'm frustrated by the lack of opportunities that are present in this area for people. ... There are times, especially when I'm doing research, when I look at the economic data and the demographic

data for this region and it can be very depressing. ... If (this organization) fails, I'm out of a job.

Kevin said, "there's always new programs. This "No Child Left Behind" thing, is going to take us out. I mean it's sure going to change the way that we operate." Andy summarizes the contentions of many of the subjects well: "I mean, if you're not thinking, if you're not looking ahead, you're gonna go under for sure." The dimensional range for Threat Perception as a property of the Changing Environments category was from low to high. A review of the literature as it relates to the Threat Perception property is the next section of this analysis.

Threat Perception and the Literature Review. Performing an extensive review of the research and literature surrounding the area of perseverance, Stoltz devised what he terms, the "adversity quotient", consisting of four interrelated constructs (1997, 2000). These four constructs include perceived control over adversity, perceived ownership of the outcome of adversity, the perceived scope of adversity, and the perceived endurance or expected duration of the adversity. Future Time Perspective differences in the dimensions of Affect and Extension (Nuttin, 1985) between individuals could have a direct influence upon these constructs of the adversity quotient. However, while there are a number of research efforts investigating the incidence or predictors of perseverance in the work environment (Stoltz, 2000; Markman, Baron, & Balkin, 2001), there has been no research to date regarding its possible relationship to Future Time Perspective.

Like the Growth Perception property, perceiving that the organization or the work is being threatened in one way or another was indicated as a frequent motivator, and also may have the potential to affect the degree of Affect or Directionality within one's workplace Future Time Perspective (Nuttin, 1985). The property next described in this review of the data analysis is termed, External Pressure.

External Pressure. **low external pressure → high external pressure.** While not necessarily posing a direct threat to the future of the organization or to the individual worker's job, there are external forces at work that put a certain amount and specific kinds of pressure on the organization to change, or move in a desired direction. It was a recurring theme in the analysis of interviews in the present study that such forces had an effect upon a person's workplace Future Time Perspective.

Each subject spoke of ways in which their organization is linked to the larger world outside. Customer or stakeholder expectations, changing perceptions, altered markets, and shifting community interests had impacts upon the degree to which and the way in which subjects thought about the future at work. Larry tells of concerned taxpayers and interest groups that call him up to discuss issues as an example of how the "outside world" gets him thinking about the future. Paul, Katie, and Laura each mention the need to watch the regulatory horizon to see what opportunities and changes will be necessary in their respective organizations. Samantha discusses ways in which local businesses, civic organizations, and the parents of her students all expect a certain amount of

collaboration and performance from her, beyond that which she sees as her strict job description. Andy illustrates the importance of keeping tabs on new ventures and customer opportunities that may compete for his special niche dollar in the community. Seven subjects mentioned the importance of maintaining a positive community reputation as a factor in developing a healthy future for their respective organizations. The dimensional range for External Pressure as a property of the Changing Environments category was from low to high. Following is a review of literature relevant to the External Pressure property of the Changing Environments category.

External Pressure and the Literature Review. There are no known research inquiries investigating the impact of the effects of external pressures placed upon the organization and its influence or lack thereof upon an individual's Future Time Perspective. Within the next section the category Personal Factors is presented, wherein individual differences and characteristics of the people interviewed are described as they were reported to affect the way in which the future impacted their motivation within the workplace setting.

Personality Factors

Table 4 presents the category of personality factors and the dimensional range of the properties related to personality factors. These dimensional ranges are presented in a format such that on the left side of the spectrum appears the lesser, the lower or the negative end of the continuum and to the right is the greater, the higher or the positive end of the continuum, respective to the property and dimension in question.

Table 4

Properties and Dimensional Range of the Personality Factors Category

Category	Properties	Dimensional Range
Personality factors	Personal-work alignment	Unbalanced → balanced
	Organizational commitment	Opposed goals → unlinked → parallel goals
	Personal resolve	Pessimism → optimism General → situation specific
	Goal articulation	Low incidence → high incidence Short term → long term Low need → high need
	Need for work as instrument for creating the future	Low → high

For the purposes of this study, the category "personality factors" consists of five properties. The properties are: (a) personal-work alignment, (b) organizational commitment, (c) personal resolve, (d) goal articulation, and (e) need for work as instrument for creating the future. Each property is described and includes the dimensional range as reported by the subjects. Following the narratives is a brief synopsis of the literature relating to the data pertaining to the category personality factors. The first property is "personal-work alignment" and refers to Table 4.

Personal-Work Alignment. Subjects reported a wide range of challenges, issues, and strategies for balancing and meeting the varied demands of their personal lives with those of their careers. Subjects described ways in which their

personal lives are enhanced through their work, both in terms of financial compensation and through other means, including being able to positively influence the future. Eight of the twelve subjects interviewed related the importance of a certain separation between their personal lives and their working lives. One subject, Kevin reported,

> I think we've maintained a relatively good balance between work and play and love, you know, those things. We try to keep that balance, so I don't feel a lot of regret about stuff, you know. I wouldn't go back and undo anything. (...) I really try to have a separate life. I mean, I have other personal goals in terms of my family and my personal life – personal, physical, family kinds of goals that actually give me energy to do the other.

Another subject, Andy, saw little distinction between his personal life and his working life as owner of a record store: "that's what motivates me, is that I'm self-employed and I can do with it what I want. It's my life. The future of this place and my own future are inextricably tied up." Two subjects however, felt that their personal lives would be affected by their jobs to a certain degree, regardless of what they did and that this particular line of work had little to no bearing upon them as a person.

Other subjects made statements indicating that a change in the alignment of their personal lives occurred within their careers as they switched jobs. John, for example, felt that his change from being a lawyer to sitting on the bench made a big difference in his attitude and his way of dealing with the justice system:

> The last two years as a prosecutor, I was getting along well with my wife, my family, and I was getting along well with my colleagues (...), but I was no longer satisfied with my job. And when you're no longer satisfied, you're just going through the motions. Here, I see the evolvement of the law and the input you can have with the legislature, to try to make things a little better. It's much more optimistic.

Later in the interview, he illustrates what he sees as the connection between one's personal and working lives:

> I think it's a two-fold thing: that the more satisfied you are with your employment and your job performance in particular, the more it carries over into your private life. I think that my public life (i.e. working) and my private life, though they're separate, are very much entwined with each other, very much. And you know, I happen to be blessed; I think I have one of the best jobs in the state of Montana, if not THE best job.

The majority of subjects interviewed stated a certain give and take of obligations and freedoms associated with their role as a working member of an organization compared against their personal motivations. Three subjects discussed second jobs or money-making opportunities that were beyond the identified occupations within the rubric of this study as ways in which the motivation within their personal lives were fulfilled: the student support specialist as horse rancher, the hospital administrator as carpenter, and the government official as cattle rancher. All three of the subjects with active alternative job interests in this study stated intrinsic motivation as the reason for doing the added

work. The dimensional range for Personal-Work Alignment as a property of the Personal Factors category was from balanced to unbalanced. The following review of the extant literature relevant to Personal-Work Alignment places these findings into context.

Personal-Work Alignment and the Literature Review. Kouzes and Posner investigated the congruence between organizational and personal values and discovered that, "people who had the greatest clarity about both personal and organizational values had the highest degree of commitment to the organization" (1995, p. 218). They also found the reverse: that those that could neither define their personal values nor those of the organization had a resultant low commitment to their work (Ibid.). In the present study, both the degree of perceived congruence between organizational and personal values and the relative degree of organizational commitment that one is experiencing were found to be factors influencing the degree of future thinking within the work setting. These findings indicate that Future Time Perspective, in addition to Personal-Work Alignment and Organizational Commitment, is a relevant "third factor" in calculating a person's perceived motivation to work. Brown asserts that, "previous research has not established the causal ordering of job involvement with respect to job satisfaction and organizational commitment" (1996, p. 239). Integrating the way in which individual differences in the way and degree to which people think about the future is thus, difficult to integrate with current research, as relationships between constructs in this area remain largely unaddressed (Seijts, 1998). The impact that Future Time Perspective has and the

effects that different personal time frames have on an individual's perception of their fit within the organization has been termed a "substantive area for future research" (Caplan, 1987, p. 261).

Of the five identified dimensions of Future Time Perspective outlined by Nuttin (1985), those of Coherence and Affectivity are the most germane to the Personal-Work Alignment property of the Personality Factors category. A consistent finding was that while discussing the degree of balance between their personal and working lives, subjects noted the degree of organization, or coherence that corresponds between the two spheres. Though not previously validated by research, this degree of fitness between personal and work goals likely has an influence upon the affective component of the Future Time Perspective construct and leads to motivational factors which a person works to resolve as they negotiate between both sets of values. Work related satisfaction, or lack thereof, pleasure derived out of prospective work performance, and the perceived benefits and penalties of goal pursuit all have a strong affective component and reportedly influenced the degree and way in which individuals thought about the future within the work environment. Another property of the category, "Personality Factors" that emerged from data analysis was the relative degree of commitment than an individual had for their current organization, or work situation. Brown (1996) considers organizational commitment to be a consequence of job involvement – itself a result of the degree of alignment between personal and work motivation. The findings related to the Organizational Commitment property are described in the following section.

Organizational Commitment. **opposed goals → unlinked goals → parallel goals.** Each subject had personal needs that were being fulfilled by their continued employment in their respective organizations. Statements made by each person indicated a personal ownership of the work of the organization, at least to the degree to which they, themselves were responsible. One subject, Joe, felt that as a police dispatcher being of service and helping others in emergency situations motivated him more than any previous job he had done. Eight of the subjects made reference to volunteering extra hours or spending their free time devoted to work because they were motivated to doing the job well. Most of the subjects when asked of their personal motivations to work in their given jobs replied by entwining remarks related to the organizational mission within their answers. Each subject responded in ways that they personally identified with the goals of the organization as motivations to think about the future while working.

The goals of the individual as they related to the goals of the organization comprised the dimensional range of the organizational commitment property of personal factors (opposed goals → unlinked → parallel goals). Katie felt that she wouldn't work at the courthouse as the clerk and recorder if she:

> Didn't love the work and the public, the people. And that's a two-fold thing. There are probably other jobs in government I could do, that I would not be content with, because I like people and I like interacting with people and helping people. And I get my first passion; I get to play around with history.

Personal goals and the goals of the organization are thought of in tandem by Katie. Judge John illustrated a myriad of ways in which he was committed to the justice system and the service of the public good, from deciding matters on a timely basis, to taking on neighboring departments that were rude to people, and seeing himself as a leader in setting a tone that was responsive, fair, and tactful to whoever came to the office or in front of the bench. Following is a review of the literature related to Organizational Commitment.

Organizational Commitment and the Literature Review. Organizational commitment has been a topic of research for several decades, stemming from both attitudinal and behavioral perspectives (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994) and has examined organizational structure (Morris & Steers, 1980), work reinforcement systems (Dawis, Dohm, & Jackson, 1993), person-environmental congruence (Moos, 1987), and personal characteristics (Brown, 1993) as antecedents to the phenomenon . There does not appear, however, to be any mention of Future Time Perspective as a factor influencing Organizational Commitment, or the role of organizational or goal commitment indices as it relates to Future Time Perspective within the research literature. The results of the present study indicate, however, that the degree of organizational commitment may affect the way in which a person is thinking about the future on the job.

Evidenced within statements made by interviewees for this study are hallmarks of the Future Time Perspective dimensions of Directionality, Length, and Affectivity (Nuttin, 1985). Interviewees perceived that their abilities to make progress in achieving work-related goals, how far into the future those active

goals were situated, and how committed they felt to achieving those goals were relevant factors that influenced their future-oriented thinking. In the following section, Personal Resolve as a property of the category Personality Factors is described and extant literature reviewed.

Personal Resolve. An emergent factor in examining the results of discussions with subjects about their future-oriented thinking in the workplace centered on their strategies for dealing with work-related conflicts. All subjects responded that encountering conflicts within the workplace was an impetus to thinking about the future. The record store owner reported that the theft of compact discs or other merchandise would get him thinking about ways in which he could recover that financial loss and/or prevent such incidents from happening again. He also admitted to lying to potential customers and telling them that they were sold out of a sought after item, when in fact, he hadn't ordered it in to the store at all:

> That's thinking about the future, 'cause you want 'em to come back. (...) Don't say "I don't have it"; just say, "I'm sold out" and then they'll come back next time, instead of thinking I'm unreliable and don't carry their product, see what I mean?

One subject, Katie, discusses the use of frustration and anger as a motivator to deal with an obstacle, even while maintaining an optimistic outlook on the future, in general:

> If you dwell in it (the problem), you'll accomplish nothing. It has to be that momentary thing that motivates you to do something about it and then

> yes, the next step has always got to be optimism. That thing I guess most people teach their children, 'When life hands you a lemon, make lemonade' doesn't mean that you're not going to get angry about being handed the lemon. You're going to look at it and be frustrated. But if you're wise, you're going to make lemonade and get going with it, you know? Go sell it on the corner and make a dime.

Two dimensions of the property Personal Resolve were identified as being relevant to the present study and are described and discussed in the following sections: the relative degree of hope that one attributes to events, and the focus of those attributions – whether constrained to specific events or applied in a global manner.

Personal Resolve Dimension 1: **pessimism → optimism**. One dimension of personal resolve was determined to be the relative degree of hope to which one looks to certain events within the workplace future. In this regard, optimism as a strategy to deal with conflict and maintain personal perspective in the workplace was a theme in half (i.e. six) of the subject interviews. As can be noted from the above quotation by Katie, setbacks or frustrating events that occur in the workplace may actually be motivators which set one to work with even greater resolve than one had previously... it simply depends upon the situation and the way in which the person interprets it. Another dimension of Personal Resolve was the scope of attributions made by the working individual to explain the causes of events within the work environment.

Personal Resolve Dimension 2: **specific → general**. Some subjects related to specific situations that caused them to think about the future as they mustered personal resolve to deal with workplace conflict. Others, however, referred to it as a general disposition that was necessary for them, personally, to survive and maintain their motivation. For example, Laura was quite unsure of her immediate future within her organization. When asked about the relationship between her personal future and that of the organization, she responded: "it's disheartening. I keep trying to think it's the old 'close the door, open a window' kind of thing. I keep trying to think that." The possibility that Personal Resolve could range dimensionally from a general disposition to a situation-specific characteristic was supported by such interview data from this study. Following is a review of the literature related to Personal Resolve, setting these findings within context.

Personal Resolve and the Literature Review. Interviewees in the present study made causal statements and attributions about their performance in the workplace consistent with research regarding explanatory style (Jones & Davis, 1965; Weiner, 1980; Seligman, 1991). Though a systematic evaluation of data gathered from each individual was not done in regard to explanatory or attributional style, the presence of stable, pervasive, personal statements of work effectiveness was noted consistently during the interviews and data analysis. What was not determined in the present study was the nature of the relationship between these attributions and the way in which and the degree to which the future integrated into subjects' work motivation. Two dimensions of Future Time Perspective that appear related to the Personal Resolve property of the Personal

Factors category and Attribution Theory are Affectivity and Dimensionality (Nuttin, 1985).

If one feels as though they are making progress in their work toward a future goal (i.e. directionality) and makes healthy attributions about their personal effectiveness at doing so (i.e. explanatory style), then one is likely more motivated and committed to the activity or work that engages one in pursuit of that goal (i.e. affect). There has been little research to date investigating the relationship between Explanatory Style and Future Time Perspective as it relates to achievement, though Husman and Lens (1999), Halvari (1991), Gjesme (1983), and Agarwal and Tripathi (1980) have had results that are encouraging. Goal Articulation was yet another property of the category Personal Factors and is described and discussed in the following section of this analysis.

Goal Articulation. The degree to which subjects reported thinking about the future within the work setting corresponded to the degree to which they felt their goals were articulated and the need to set them in the first place. Subjects said that distant goals, simple goals, and goals that entailed familiar tasks required less articulation for success than goals which were near-at-hand, complex, and/or unfamiliar in nature. Three dimensions of the property, Goal Articulation were identified through the analysis of data and are described in the following sections: the frequency/intensity of goal articulation, the degree of personal need to articulate goals, and the temporal length of the goals generally set by the individual. The first dimension described is the frequency/intensity of goals that are articulated within the workplace.

Goal Articulation Dimension 1: **low incidence → high incidence**. The perceived frequency and intensity of personally articulated goals in the workplace was the first dimension of the Goal Articulation property. Most subjects reported writing down only the barest reminder of a goal deadline, whether through calendaring software programs such as Microsoft Outlook, on sticky notes left on a bulletin board, or in a written daily planner. Subjects reported doing more thinking about what needed to happen for difficult or complicated goals, reminding themselves of certain aspects of the problem or thinking things through. Some goals were defined for the individuals, such as for Samantha through the curriculum goal-setting process and for Paul by his firm's Board of Directors and others were developed through the individual's own assessment and volition, such as Mike's decision to wax the hallway floors or Jack's goal to check the cellar stocks for wine and whiskey on a regular basis. Five of the twelve subjects reported using the strategy of breaking down larger, more complex goals into more manageable "chunks", whether formally or informally.

Paul described the process as, "another big fish that gets chopped up into little bites", as he describes the process of flexing his thinking between the present tense and the future tense – "telescoping back and forth" – as he prepares for something that is due in the future. Andy emphasized that this is the only way that he can keep his goals realistic. Samantha describes the act of teaching her students through thinking about the future and setting goals for them: "focusing in on the real specific things to see what has really been successful for them and to

try to continue with that, or see if a certain method is really working for them maybe there's another method that might even enhance it more."

Goal Articulation Dimension 2: **low need → high need**. The second dimension of the property Goal Articulation in the category Personal Factors was the degree of need that the individual felt compelled to personally articulate goals within a given task environment. Some subjects reported the necessity and formal process of articulating goals for their organizations and for themselves: "we have within the comprehensive economic development strategy eleven or twelve goals that are outlined for the organization," Paul reported. His biggest issue with the process in his firm was that:

> There's very little concept of the amount of work involved in a project. Because of that, there doesn't seem to be much thought given to, at least for the most part, given to, 'well, let's just do another project'. We tend to become overburdened and it's tough.

Those assigning the work had little knowledge of the details involved in performing the work, he surmised. Employees interviewed from the school district, the elementary school, the hospital, the state government, the clerk and recorder's office, and the district court all reported detailed mechanisms for articulating and setting goals within their organizations. They all generally agreed, too, that this kind of mindful planning was necessary to get their jobs done.

In contrast, several subjects reported little need for explicit goal articulation in their work. Joe reported that beyond professional development and learning the task environment, "goal setting during work is kind of pointless,

maybe even dangerous." Police dispatch work requires responding and acting in the moment, rather than focusing upon the future, he emphasized. Andy also felt that his goals were simple and did not require a lot of mindful planning: "it's a record store, man. C'mon." Jack agreed that bartending required only a little forethought and goal setting, but as owner, he had a different set of ideas about the future. Finally, Mike felt that setting goals as a custodian was important for the long-range health of the buildings, but that he really only had to think one day at a time. The chronological length of goals was another dimension of Goal Articulation and is described in the following section.

Goal Articulation Dimension 3: **short term → long term**. The third dimension of Goal Articulation was the length of the goals that a person feels was necessary to successfully carry out a particular task, or set of tasks. Some individuals think about and set goals that are further into the future than others. Some jobs require a longer temporal horizon within which workers must actively operate than others. Though the bartender does have to do inventory of available liquors and other goods on stock for the coming holidays and balance the till at the end of the shift, the work generally requires a shorter chronological perspective than the government official, the economic development specialist, or the hospital administrator.

Goal Articulation and the Literature Review. Findings related to the Goal-setting literature underscore the results of the present study, though the relationship between Goal-setting and Future Time Perspective is not articulated clearly by either Future Time Perspective or Goal-setting researchers (Seijts,

1998). Locke reported that there is higher commitment to those goals that are more specific and wherein people receive feedback as to their performance prior to reaching the goal. Further, goals, "affect performance by affecting the direction of action, the degree of effort exerted, and the persistence of action over time" (1996, p. 120). The interaction between future thinking within the work place and the presence or absence of regular goal setting as a self-reported perception of the individuals within this study (low → high incidence) highlights these propositions.

The Coherence and Density dimensions of the Future Time Perspective construct identified by Nuttin (1985) are relevant to these Goal-setting findings. The possibility that Future Time Perspective could be a moderator of the effects of goal setting on motivation was not established through the analysis of data, but a relationship between the three variables is clearly present.

Need for Work as an Instrument for Creating the Future. **low need → high need.** Some subjects reported that they had strong personal motivation to work in a place where a positive future was being created. All four education-related employees interviewed – including the custodian – reported being motivated in their work because of their contribution to the education that the students were receiving and the bright futures that they, thus would then have. The government official discussed creating a better Montana than the one he found when he took office and the district judge reported being motivated by "leaving your handprint" on the future. The economic development specialist, Paul, said that, "improving the livelihood of these communities is one of the best jobs in the world. I get

really excited when I start to see these places bloom." Three interviewed subjects responded, however, that it was unnecessary for them to have to think farther than one week into the future in order to be successful in their respective lines of work. The dimensional range of the Need for Work as an Instrument for Creating the Future was determined to vary from low to high.

Need for Work as an Instrument for Creating the Future and the Literature Review. The results of this study indicate that most of the individuals interviewed derived at least some degree of motivation from the prospects of their work improving the future in some way. Motivation and achievement orientations have often been misunderstood because of the way in which these constructs have been conceptualized (Monzo and Rueda, 2001). While many researchers have previously addressed the topic of motivation and achievement (Hertzberg, 1966; Raynor and McFarlin, 1986; McClelland, 1987; Tubbs and Ekeberg, 1991), from a sociocultural standpoint, motivation and behavior are created and displayed in interactions between the individuals and the environment in specific contexts (Rueda & Moll, 1994).

Relevant dimensions of the Future Time Perspective construct described by Nuttin (1985) that are offered as possible corollaries of the Need for Work as an Instrument for Creating the Future property of the Personal Factors category are Extension and Directionality. If a person has a comparatively longer Future Time Perspective, they may be compelled to find work that stretches their future thinking, and thus, aligns their occupational focus to be commensurate with their longer temporal focus. The relationship between those that have longer or

stronger Future Time Perspective and their satisfaction or motivation in different work situations has not been investigated. The category of "Career scripts" is discussed in the following section.

Career Scripts

Table 5 presents the category of career scripts and the dimensional range of the properties related to career scripts. Dimensional ranges are presented from lesser to greater intensity or from negative to positive, respective to the dimension in question.

Table 5

Properties and Dimensional Range of the Career Scripts Category

Category	Properties	Dimensional Range
Career scripts	Self assigned script placement	Undefined → defined Uncohesive → cohesive
	Perceived proximity to major life event	Close → far
	Prior experience developed script	No → yes No role model → role model

For the purposes of this study, the category "career scripts" consists of three properties. The properties are: (a) self assigned script placement, (b) perceived proximity to major life event, and (c) prior experience-developed script. Each property is described and includes the dimensional range as reported by the subjects. Following each narrative is a brief synopsis of the literature related to

the data pertaining to the category, "career scripts". The first property described is "self assigned script placement".

Self-assigned Script Placement. Most subjects discussed their work in terms of how much and what kind of working experiences they had had previously and what they wanted to accomplish in the future. Subjects discussed their choices of employment from the context of having purposeful and meaningful working lives in the sense that it added dimension and direction to their personal lives. Some subjects had dramatically different career experiences across time, while others remained within more consistent fields of employment. Alternative careers were mentioned by several subjects. Paul, the economic developer formerly worked in media and advertising, while John was a prosecutor before becoming a district judge. One subject from business and one subject from a government agency stated interest in becoming teachers; one having gone so far as to take most of the classes for an education degree at the local university.

Self-assigned Script Placement Dimension 1: **undefined → defined.** The degree to which people define the stages or positions within their self-developed life or career script was determined to be one dimension of the Self-assigned Script Placement property that impacts the degree to which people think about the future within the workplace.

Jeremy, a student support specialist at a community college, describes the thread of meaning that he strings across his different career experiences:

> I worked in the human services field since back in my twenties, in law enforcement, and I was always on the other side of the fence, looking out,

> looking at all of these folks that were getting arrested. Then I worked in a crisis center: more of the same situations, only lots of one-on-one work with the victims instead of going into a scene, investigating, making the arrest, then 'boom' it went into the court system. Seven years after that, I went to work in the school systems, trying to get people motivated and working together. Now I'm over here at the college and I'm still trying to weave it all together, from day one, from law enforcement all the way to what I'm doing now. Just back and forth. It's like I'm running zigzag through all of these things that are like, coming to a point, because it all allies. You can do a lot of this education (sic).

Other subjects also referred to their work in terms of their self-narrated career scripts. Kevin, the district superintendent's discussion of his active goals centered on work that would be carried out long after he was retired or even dead! Samantha stated that she hopes to finish out her career working in the same location and position. Larry thought that his work as a government official would continue to be rewarding but that his work as a rancher would also have its advantages. Another dimension of the Self-assigned Script Placement property is the relative cohesiveness of the work experiences perceived by the individual and the meaning ascribed to that schema. A summary of the analysis for this property is next.

Self-assigned Script Placement Dimension 2: **cohesive → uncohesive**. The degree to which careers have a linear, extrapolative arc along a person's self-assigned script is the second dimension of the Self-assigned Script Placement

property of Personal Factors. Some career paths have a logical framework, being within a specific field of work or building from previous experiences, while others follow a more personal rubric, seemingly random or across a variety of different stages. This was judged by the researcher to be a relevant dimension of the individual personality in factoring the way and degree in which the future is integrated within the workplace environment. The following section places the findings and analysis of Self-assigned Script Placement within context of seminal and recent research related to this property of the Personal Factors category.

Self-assigned Script Placement and the Literature Review. People react to situations in their environments based not only upon external factors, but also according to the roles and attributions that they make about how they feel such situations should be negotiated by someone befitting their self-image (Jones & Davis, 1965). Super (1980) identified nine primary life roles, played out in socially derived "theaters" that allow a person to engage in and enact a set of behaviors and reactions allowing them to navigate through these environments successfully. Thus, the roles of child, student, worker, partner, parent, citizen, homemaker, leisurite, and pensioner are traditionally played in their respective "theaters" of home, school, work, community, etc. Super's theory of career development considers the differences in and nuances of personal and situational factors, between which each unique individual must balance in order to create a "life-space" that is functional in negotiating career development tasks across the lifespan (1957, 1980, 1990). Meaningful work thus, creates one strand of an individual's personal story woven across their lifespan.

Allport (1963) defined four relevant aspects of roles that differentiate our behavior and reactions to particular situations: role-expectations, role-conceptions, role-acceptance, and role-performance. Within each role, the individual must have a good understanding of each of these dimensions in order to successfully play their part and perform well enough to achieve the desired outcomes. Balancing activities between roles and the, "fluidity of life-role activities has increased to the point that individual theatres commonly contain multiple roles" (Niles, Herr, & Hartung, 2001, pg 15). The impacts of technological encroachments into the work environment, changes in social and economic demographics, and the demands within the workplace have created a situation in which, "many workers today feel like achieving balanced participation in multiple life roles is a moving target" (Ibid, p. 8).

Self concept development through various life-roles is assumed to evolve over time, as people make continual adjustments and choices based upon their participation in events and strive to create meaningful and fulfilling lives (Super, 1957). Careers are thus, a significant strand throughout the life of most modern people, taking the social and the personal choices that a person makes and weaving a part of the fabric of a person's life. As a concept, career can be used to describe, "the individual's movement through time and space" (Collin & Young, 2000). Indeed, "Janus-like, career relates the past and present to the future, including our planning for and anticipation of the future, and also addresses how the future motivates action and the construction of meaning in the present. It makes a construction of the future possible" (Ibid., p. 1). This assertion is well

supported by the anecdotal evidence provided by the interviewees in the present study.

Statements about each subjects' careers were interpreted to provide orientation around meaning, direction, and future purpose for these individuals. Careers seemed to provide a strong sense of context for each person within this study to create understanding of who they were and what they were about – even those that weren't particular about their current job role or even their current line of work! Careers were relevant dimensions of each person's "personal script" or storyline that each of the individuals in the present study had for themselves (Super, 1980; Niles, Herr, & Hartung, 2001).

Some careers are typically bureaucratic, others are more entrepreneurial, while others are deemed professional in nature (Kanter, 1989). Young and Valach (1996) describe careers as a superordinate construct that allows people to create connections between actions, account for effort, goals, plans, and consequences, frame internal cognition and emotion, and use feedback and feedforward processes. Audrey Collin asserts that careers are one mechanism that people in the twentieth century have used to locate themselves in time and space for use in construction of their future and their identity. However, changes in societal and technological dimensions are thought to have created a present temporal focus rather than one that determines the future, and on spatial, rather than temporal movement and change (Collin, 2000). Though this social movement may be true, the subjects within the present study, though often unsure about what the future held for them or how they were going to navigate toward the future, were

steadfast in their determination and abilities to derive meaning out of their careers.

Each of Nuttin's five dimensions of Future Time Perspective (1985) has connections to theoretical strands of the property of Self-assigned Script Placement. The Extension of a person's Future Time Perspective may interact with the Coherence, Density, and Realism with which one apprehends their personal and career scripts. If one doesn't look beyond tomorrow or the day after to the time when their lives are much different than today, say, to retirement, then like the proverbial grasshopper in Aesop's fables, the future may be forgotten or dismissed too easily. Also of relevant importance to the degree and way in which people thought about the future within the workplace was the perceived proximity to a major life event, the property discussed within the next section.

Perceived Proximity to Major Life Event. **close → far.** The closer an identified major event was perceived to occur for a subject, the more they reported the likelihood of being motivated by it. The dimensional range for Perceived Proximity to Major Life Events was determined to be from close to far. Subjects reported being motivated by those events in their personal and working lives that they felt were pending or in need of action. One subject had the purchase of a new house as a major goal for working and making smart decisions about his money, ambitiously paying off his debt load. Ten subjects thought that retirement was a life event that often motivated them in their work, though three

of them couldn't imagine not working. Samantha, having taught for more than 30 years, had this to say about retirement:

> I'm quite sure that when I retire from teaching I will work at something else. I cannot foresee myself just sitting around the house, partly because, well, money is a big factor. My husband and I just bought a house a couple of years ago, so you know, I can't just retire. So I think a lot about the future, because I feel like I should be making a plan now as to what I'm going to do when I quit teaching; in case I need to get some extra training or ... (sighs) I just might need to start looking into some different things. But I still can't figure out what I want to do. There's this big question mark: what am I going to do? How did I start getting myself into this? Or, what should I be doing right now to help prepare myself for this unknown job in the future. And I'm clueless.

One subject confided that a particular personal event that had induced her future-oriented thinking was a recent life-threatening illness:

> Yeah, the future always motivates me. I can't just say, 'gee, I'm going to die.' My greatest motivator is that I'm going to get well. I still have years and I still have grandchildren (to look forward to). I think that's probably my greatest future motivator: grandchildren.
>
> Her script has a few things left on it: she can't die!

Laura, the hospital administrator unsure of her near-future employment, illustrated the relationship between the proximity of events in her career script and the nature of change:

> How distant the future seems is tied around change. If things are going to be really different, it seems like it's far away. When what you've done in the past will not work anymore because all of the rules have changed; when you're outside of your comfort level – that's when the future becomes distant. It's about how your working environment changes and that can be a very short timeframe, really. Distant future is in today's change, for me: today's technological explosion, 'distant future' might be an oxymoron.

Thus, perceptions of the future were seen to change along with their perceptions of change in their life roles. These findings are placed within the context of other investigations within the next section.

Perceived Proximity to Major Life Event and the Literature Review. The closer, more definable, more personally related a goal appears to be, the more likely it is that a person is willing to engage in planning and behaviors that will be considered in pursuit of that goal (Locke, 1996). "Future Time Perspective evolves from conscious goal setting. It is formed by the more or less distant goal objects that are processed by an individual" (Nuttin, 1985, p. 22). The extent to which a person locates an event in either a proximal or distal temporal zone is thought to exert important influences on behavior (Nuttin, 1985). The length of a person's Future Time Perspective is thought to be the mechanism by which particular events are placed into the "proximal" or "distal" temporal zone (Lessing, 1972, Nuttin, 1985). Individuals interviewed for the purposes of this study related that they were motivated to think about the future within their

respective places of work according to how close, or proximal they thought that a major goal was for them.

This finding underscores the idea that individuals derive personal meaning from their experiences and relate them to their evolving identities (Niles, Herr, & Hartung, 2001), an underlying tenet of constructivist interpretations of reality (Dewey, 1910). Those priorities that are most salient to a person's central life role and the tasks set before them to achieve those are what Super (1990) has termed, "career development tasks". It is through our assimilation of personal factors and accommodation or manipulation of situational factors that motivate them to work to achieve their goals (Super, 1990). Interestingly, it appears that those with a longer Future Time Perspective than others are more proactive at doing something about personally important goals comparatively sooner (Nuttin, 1985).

Experience within a particular role, or lack thereof, was also found to be a factor in the self-reported degree and way in which individuals thought about the future within the workplace. The findings for the Prior Experience-developed Script property of Personal Factors are presented in the following section.

Prior Experience-developed Script. **no → yes; no role model → role model.** Subjects reported a wide range of experiences that developed their future-oriented thinking and their personal values to work. Several subjects related ways in which their parents or grandparents had provided them with role models for working and thinking about life. Jeremy's great-grandfather had told him, "to always try to teach somebody something." Andy and Mike each reported thinking that visits to other businesses often inspired them to do greater things

with their respective stores. Joe reported looking up to one of his supervisors as a role model, inspiring him to work harder and in particular ways.

Most subjects related ways in which their prior experiences had taught them valuable lessons about how to conduct their working lives and think about the future. One subject related how the event of having his nose broken behind a bar one evening had given him a sudden realization about his limitations in life: "I realized then I was never going to be President of the United States." Another had a dream or a vision about a deceased brother that inspired him to go into the service of others.

Subjects also reported ways in which experiences from previous jobs compared to their present work, prepared them to work in their present job, and gave them perspective in their current work. The two dimensions of the property, Prior Experience-developed Script are whether or not there is experience upon which to base or develop a script at all (no → yes), and the presence or absence of a particular role model upon which to guide one's thinking of the future (no role model → role model). The following section places the findings from the Prior Experience-developed Script property into context by comparing and contrasting it to germane literature published by researchers in the field.

Prior Experience-developed Script and the Literature Review. It is a tenet of constructivism that existing conceptual frameworks gained by prior experience serve as a filter for subsequent experiences (Dewey, 1910; Gerace, 1992). Work and life satisfactions are thought to depend upon the way in which a person reflects upon prior experiences to develop ideas for what each considers to be

appropriate and congenial (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996). By establishing a "type of work, a work situation, and a way of life" (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996, p. 125), individuals are able to create meaning out of their personal situations in particular environments. The individuals in the present study noted a number of prior experiences that assisted them to make sense out of or prepare them for the work situations that they were in at the time of the interview.

Research on the effects of role models and mentors upon the future adaptability and success of workers in the field (Clawson, 1980; Kram, 1988; Cohen, 1995) has demonstrated the usefulness of the apprenticeship model. Singer's (1974) work on "future-focused role images" further underscores the importance of learning and developing from a figure or idea that embodies where a person plans to be in the future.

This concludes the summary of the open coding analysis for data collected from 12 interviewees regarding their perceptions of the degree and ways in which they think about the future within the workplace setting. This phase of data analysis has yielded a number of categories related to this phenomenon, each with identified properties and dimensions that occur with the workplace context. The next phase of analysis described is termed Axial Coding, a systematic method for further extending and interconnecting these categories, properties, and dimensional ranges first identified during the Open Coding process.

Axial Coding

Through open coding, analysis of the data in the present study yielded four categories along with their properties and dimensions. In axial coding, the relationships between these categories and the context in which such phenomena develop or are enacted are under investigation. Following procedures outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1998), categories were related to one another along a dimensional level, examining events and circumstances as they corresponded to the actions and responses of those involved. In this fashion, the structure of events and the process by which they unfolded were analyzed through the data, as interpreted by the researcher.

One method for systematically analyzing a phenomenon within context is by use of an organizational scheme that Strauss and Corbin (1998) term a "paradigm" (p. 128). Through such a process of analysis a central phenomenon emerged, around which the remaining categories were related through inference, deduction, and continuous re-examination of the research data. A brief explanation of the terms used in the identification and relationship between category properties is provided below. For a more in-depth review of the organization and analysis of qualitative data using the "paradigm" scheme, see Strauss and Corbin (1998).

Causal Condition. Causal conditions are sets of events or happenings that influence or result in the occurrence of phenomena (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Two causal conditions were identified through analysis of data for the purposes of this study: the employment of each individual and personal motivations of each

individual. It is the condition of employment, one's personal motivations, or combination and interaction of both of these causal conditions which leads to the development of each phenomenon.

Phenomenon. Phenomena are repeated patterns of events that occur in response to problems and situations in which people find themselves (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The phenomena for this study correspond to each category that emerged during the open coding process. Four specific phenomena emerged: (a) workplace factors, (b) changing environments, (c) personal factors, and (d) career scripts.

Context. Context is made up of the multiple factors operating in various combinations to create sets of conditions that come together to create a specific situation (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). For the purpose of this study, each context has an intervening condition. To aid in the development of relationships between phenomena and the relevant contexts within which future-thinking situations arose for the individuals in this study, three scenarios were identified to consider during the Axial Coding process: Individual factors, The Work culture, and Goal-specific factors. See Figure 1.

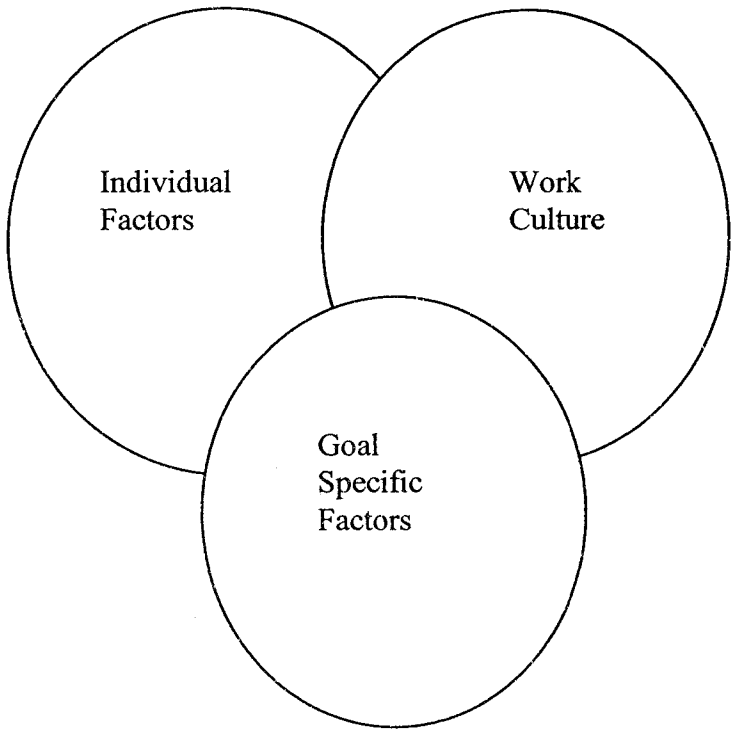


Figure 2. Axial Coding Contextual Scenarios

Intervening Condition. Strauss and Corbin (1998) define intervening conditions as, "those that mitigate or otherwise alter the impact of causal conditions on phenomena" (p. 131). Contingencies such as unexpected events often arise due to intervening conditions which must be responded to through a form of action/interaction.

Action/Interaction. Strategic or routine responses made to issues, problems, happenings, or events are defined by Strauss and Corbin (1998) as action/interaction processes.

Consequences. Consequences are the results or outcomes of actions/interactions, according to Strauss and Corbin (1998). For the purposes of

this study, consequences are listed directly below the action/interaction statements.

Table 6 displays the components of the axial coding process and the analytic flow between each component.

Table 6

Axial Coding Process

causal condition → phenomenon → context → intervening condition → action/interaction → consequences

For the purposes of this study's axial coding phase, analysis begins with identifying the relationship of a causal condition to a phenomenon. This phenomenon is then related to the context within which the phenomenon occurred, providing specific dimensions of that phenomenon. Intervening conditions are next analyzed in relationship to the particular responses that the subjects of the present study made, which, in turn, resulted in particular consequences. By presenting the results in this fashion, the systematic analysis of the rich and complex interactions between people and events within specific settings which created the phenomena under study is consistent with Strauss and Corbin (1998).

The causal conditions, "employment" and "personal motivation" are presented in Table 7 along with the phenomena related to each, respectively.

Table 7

Causal Conditions and Phenomena

Causal Condition	Phenomenon
Employment	Workplace factors Changing environments
Personal motivation	Workplace factors Personal factors career scripts

Each phenomenon has emerged from the synthesis of various contexts and the features of each context. For the purposes of this study, the aforementioned intervening conditions, action/interactions, and consequences are used to define the features of these contexts.

Each phenomenon and the features of each context for that phenomenon is presented in table format for the purposes of providing deeper understanding of the analysis that has been undertaken in the axial coding process. The first phenomenon presented is "Workplace factors".

Phenomenon of Workplace Factors

The phenomenon of workplace factors has emerged from the synthesis of three contexts. Table 8 lists the phenomenon of workplace factors as well as the contexts from which the phenomenon emerged.

Table 8

The Phenomenon of Workplace Factors in Context

Phenomenon	Context
Workplace factors	Subjects were committed to events in the future that they had obligated themselves to through relationships in the work environment.
	Subjects used work as an instrument to improve the future of the world.
	Subjects used work as an instrument to improve their personal futures.

Listed below are the three contexts for the phenomenon of workplace factors and the features of each context. The phenomenon and its features have evolved from the axial coding process. To enhance the clarity and accuracy of presentation of the phenomena, the results of the Axial Coding analysis are presented in outline format, beginning with the context within which varying intervening conditions, actions and interactions, and resultant consequences were reported to occur. This format is used throughout the presentation of results from the Axial Coding.

Workplace Factors Context #1

Subjects in this study were committed to events in the future that they had obligated themselves to through relationships in the work environment.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects viewed their commitments as requiring time, energy, and/or resources to prepare for events.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects anticipated the sequence of forthcoming workplace events based on past experience.
- Subjects evaluated the project requirements against other job demands and made decisions about priority and consequence.
- Subjects perceived their obligations as burdens with frustration, anger, or depression.
- Subjects perceived their obligations as interesting, as motivating, or with determination.

Consequence

- Subjects engaged in workplace routines and planning behaviors.
- Subjects felt pressure to perform and attain multiple priorities.
- Subjects had less energy to work.

- Subjects had more energy to work.
- Subjects gave definition to their commitments and set goals.

Workplace Factors Context #2

Subjects used work as an instrument to improve the future of the world.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects chose work that invests in the improvement of the future in respects that aligned with the subject's values.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects committed to the organizational mission and aligned their future thinking to that of the future-improving work of the organization.
- Subjects made efforts to improve the effectiveness of their work to better attain the future-improving mission of the organization.
- Subjects made personal sacrifices to assist the organization in attaining the future-improving mission of the organization.

Consequence

- Subjects were motivated in their work and felt that they were making a contribution to the organization.
- Subjects looked for alternative ways to conduct work for the organization.

- Subjects had difficulty maintaining work and personal life commitments.

Workplace Factors Context #3

Subjects used work as an instrument to improve their personal futures.

Intervening Condition

- Employment in the organization fulfilled personal needs that existed beyond or apart from the scope of the workplace.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects perceived their work as a means to an end.
- Subjects felt that they had "separate lives" apart from their work.

Consequence

- Subjects were committed to work so long as it met and/or did not interfere with personal needs.
- Subjects felt the need to balance work and personal commitments.

Phenomenon of Working in Changing Environments

The phenomenon of changing environments has emerged from the synthesis of five contexts. Table 9 lists the phenomenon of involvement as well as the five contexts from which the involvement phenomenon emerged.

Table 9

The Phenomenon of Working in Changing Environments in Context

Phenomenon	Context
Working in changing environments	Subjects perceived varying degrees of predictability in thinking about and performing workplace functions and interactions. Subjects employed a variety of strategies to deal with workplace change. Subjects perceived opportunities for the organization to grow. Subjects perceived threats to the organizational mission or workplace environment. Subjects perceived external pressure as a force of change within the organization.

Listed below are the five contexts for the phenomenon of working in changing environments and the features of each in context. The phenomenon and its features have been developed as a result of the axial coding process.

Working in Changing Environments Context #1

Subjects perceived varying degrees of predictability in thinking about and performing workplace functions and interactions.

Intervening Condition

- Change in the work environment

Action/Interaction

- Subjects attempted to understand the ramifications pending as a result of the changes.
- Subjects anticipated changes and developed strategies for meeting their work objectives.
- Subjects looked for historical patterns or evidence to guide them in making decisions about impending changes.
- Subjects talked to other people connected to or within the organization about the changing work environment, the potential impacts, and the rational for various decisions.
- Subjects made emotional, technical, and administrative assessments of workplace changes.
- Subjects reassessed their personal alignment to the changing work of the organization.
- Subjects identified obstacles, risks, opportunities, and advantages of the changed environmental conditions for the organization and for them, personally.

Consequence

- Subjects created strategies for adapting or responding to the changing environment.
- Subjects considered the possible, probable, and/or preferable futures of the work environment and identified a number of decisions based upon various conditions within these scenarios.

- Subjects felt motivated to think about the future within the workplace.

Working in Changing Environments Context #2

Subjects employed a variety of strategies to deal with workplace change.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects were compelled to take action about impending workplace change.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects ignored the change and dealt with the consequences.
- Subjects adjusted their work habits and job functions to accommodate the change.
- Subjects resisted the change and used organizational procedures, workplace relationships, and other strategies to negotiate, deflect, redirect, or absorb the change's impact upon their work.

Consequence

- Changes within the work environment created a misalignment between the subjects and their work.
- Changes within the work environment increased the alignment between the subjects and their work.
- Subjects were motivated by changes in the work environment (positive and negative).

- Subjects reassessed their personal motivations for work within the organization.

Working in Changing Environments Context #3

Subjects perceived opportunities for the organization to grow.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects had ideas for ways that the organization could make gains toward fulfilling its mission.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects discussed their ideas with other people within the organization.
- Subjects acted as leaders and took proactive action, sometimes beyond the scope of their work, to lay the groundwork for or take advantage of situations that would develop the organizational opportunities.
- Subjects felt pressure to perform other aspects of their work

Consequence

- Subjects were motivated by the perceived opportunities.
- Subjects thought increasingly about the future of the organization as it related to the opportunity.
- Subjects did nothing about the idea and continued to work on other work-related activities.

Working in Changing Environments Context #4

Subjects perceived threats to the organizational mission or to the workplace environment.

Intervening Condition

- Different events, individuals, and conditions led subjects to believe that their organization was being threatened, ranging from possible to dire.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects analyzed ways that the threat could be countered or dealt with.
- Subjects had emotional reactions to the perceived threats, ranging from frustration or anger to depression or fear.
- Subjects discussed or reported the threats to others within the organization.
- Subjects took action to deal with the threat to the organization.

Consequence

- Subjects were motivated to act on the perceived threats to the organizational mission or the organization itself.
- Subjects thought about the future within context of the problem.
- Subjects thought about the how to prevent future problems related to the conflict from occurring again, generally after the threat was considered "secured" by subjects or had passed.

- Subjects reassessed their personal values or fitness within the organization.

Working in Changing Environments Context #5

Subjects perceived external pressure as a force of change within the organization.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects had concerns about things going on outside of the organization that may signal change for the work within the organization.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects analyzed the likelihood of external pressures affecting their work and discussed it with others.
- Subjects developed strategies for dealing with changes within the organization.
- Subjects ignored the potential change factors signaled by external pressure.

Consequence

- Subjects were motivated to think about ways that the organization might deal with changes related to external pressures in the future.
- Subjects continued to work in the same regard, despite indications of pending change.

Phenomenon of Personal Factors

The phenomenon of personal factors has emerged from the synthesis of five contexts. Table 10 lists the phenomenon of involvement as well as the contexts from which the personal factors phenomenon emerged.

Table 10

The Phenomenon of Personal Factors in Context

Phenomenon	Context
personal factors	Subjects felt varying degrees of alignment or balance between their personal and working lives.
	The subject's degree of commitment to the organization.
	The subject's degree of resolve when confronted with workplace obstacles.
	The subject's perceived need to define and articulate goals within the workplace.
	The subject's perceived need for work as an instrument for creating the future.

Listed below are the five contexts for the phenomenon personal factors and the features of each context. The phenomenon and its features have evolved from the axial coding process.

Personal Factors Context #1

Subjects in this study reported varying degrees of alignment or balance between their personal and working lives.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects felt conflicts with available time, energy, and resources to simultaneously fulfill work goals and commitments in addition to personal goals and commitments.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects explored strategies for setting priorities and achieving harmony between working and personal goals.
- Subjects made sacrifices to attain working or personal goals by consciously making "trade-offs".
- Subjects made attempts to simplify goals through clarification, negotiation, or redefinition of priorities.
- Subjects made attempts to achieve goals by working more efficiently and/or more expeditiously.
- Subjects made attempts to simplify goals through delegation or absolution of obligations and responsibilities.

Consequence

- Subjects discovered ways to achieve equilibrium between working and personal goals.

Personal Factors Context #2

The subject's degree of commitment to the organization.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects perceived varying degrees of alignment between organizational and personal goals.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects felt that work within the organizations generally or specifically fulfilled certain personal goals.
- Subjects felt that work within the organizations generally or specifically threatened certain personal goals.
- Subjects perceived opportunities for personal growth and gain through work within the organization.
- Subjects perceived limitations to personal growth and gain through work within the organization.
- Subjects perceived the flow or rhythm of work within the organization to be suitable to their personal needs.
- Subjects believed that the negative impacts they personally grappled with because of their commitments to the organization were, overall, not as personally compelling as the benefits that they received because of or through their work.
- Subjects felt free to move to another organization or line of work if their working situations did not fulfill their personal needs.

Consequence

- Subjects' perceived commitment to the organization was undergoing continual negotiation and change.

Personal Factors Context #3

The subject's degree of resolve when confronted with workplace obstacles.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects encountered conflicts within the workplace environment.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects employed a number of strategies to deal with workplace conflicts.
- Subjects responded with frustration, anger, determination, depression, optimism, pessimism, deception, and/or patience when involved with workplace conflicts.
- Subjects defined the nature of the problem through past experience, dialogue with others, and/or researching the problem.
- Subject work time and resources were engaged in dealing with immediate and/or urgent conflicts

Consequence

- The degree of future-thinking engaged in by subjects was often impacted, either increasing or decreasing, by conflicts within the work setting.

- Immediate demands represented by conflicts in the workplace often decreased the amount of time subjects were able to think about and work on longer-term strategies, objectives, and goals.
- When conflicts were resolved, subjects often considered ways to prevent future conflict from occurring.

Personal Factors Context #4

The subject's perceived need to define and articulate goals within the workplace.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects were compelled to perform new actions within the workplace through self-perceived or organizationally-defined work objectives.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects determined importance and priority of new workplace objectives.
- Subjects determined complexity and amount of resources needed to accomplish new workplace objectives.
- Subjects mentally determined the sequence of activities thought necessary to complete the project if a task was perceived as "simple" and engaged in discussion with peers, supervisors, co-workers, or personal relations if tasks were perceived as "difficult" or had features requiring input, collaboration, or authorization.

- Subjects determined timeline necessary to perform new tasks, often writing them in work calendars such as Microsoft Outlook or daily planners, or on sticky notes, or memos visibly placed in personal work areas.

Consequence

- Subjects determined goals through engaging in systematic, experience-based processes that engaged others, utilized formal organizational processes, and required regular planning intervals.
- Subjects interacted with developing goal definitions to determine workplace priorities through perceived organizational need, complexity of tasks, available resources to complete the tasks, and estimated timeline/s required.
- Subjects analyzed the development of large, complex goals and divided them into smaller benchmarks and "chunks".
- Subjects underestimated or overestimated the importance of a workplace goal in light of changing personal or workplace conditions.
- Subjects often performed on an ad hoc basis by working toward goals that were largely undefined, changing them as they neared the perceived deadline.

Personal Factors Context #5

The subject's perceived need for work as an instrument for creating the future.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects' workplace responsibilities motivate them to work because of the perceived potential to develop or improve the future.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects felt commitment to the perceived future-focused mission of the organization.
- Subjects devoted personal time away from work thinking about improving their work performance, worked longer hours, and made sacrifices in their personal lives to enhance their workplace contributions.
- Subjects made work goals that went beyond their actual and/or possible timeframe for employment.

Consequence

- Subjects believed they were benefiting the long term future of the organization.
- Subjects were motivated to think about the future within the work setting.
- Subjects had conflict with personal obligations and goals because of commitment to work.

Phenomenon of Career Scripts

The phenomenon of career scripts has emerged from the synthesis of three contexts. Table 11 lists the phenomenon of career scripts as well as the three contexts from which the career scripts phenomenon emerged.

Table 11

The Phenomenon of Career Scripts in Context

Phenomenon	Context
career scripts	Subjects perceived their careers as having purposeful direction and meaning. Subjects determined that important events in their personal or working lives were close-at-hand or close enough to necessitate thought and action. Prior work experience gave subjects reference and context for doing their present work.

Career Scripts Context #1

Subjects perceived their careers as having purposeful direction and meaning.

Intervening Condition

- Subjects were aware of their personal values in relation to their working conditions.

Action/Interaction

- Subject job performance reinforced or complemented personal values.
- Subjects emotionally highlighted aspects of their jobs that they valued and minimized aspects that they did not.
- Subjects recounted past job experiences in relation to their present work and illustrated patterns of meaning.
- Subjects anticipated meaningful experiences in the future as a direct extension of their present work.

Consequence

- Subjects derive meaning from their work.
- Subjects are ready for a variety of possible workplace realities.

Career Scripts Context #2

Subjects determined that important events in their personal or working lives were close-at-hand or close enough to necessitate thought and action.

Intervening Condition

- A motivating event in the subject's life was perceived to be near.

Action/Interaction

- Analysis of the event resulted in goal setting and commitment by the subject to plan and/or act upon achieving the goal.
- Priorities were determined and strategies were developed to work toward accommodating the motivating event.

- Subjects used reflection, dialogue with mentors, close friends, and intimate relations, and research as methods of determining strategies for reaching the goals consisting of the motivating event.

Consequence

- Subjects increased the amount of future thinking that they did surrounding the planning, strategy-making, goal-setting, and working to achieve objectives surrounding the major life event.
- Subjects took no action but increased their amount of personal stress.
- Subjects took action as a result of their planning for the motivating event.

Career Scripts Context #3

Prior work experience gave subjects reference and context for doing their present work.

Intervening Condition

- Situations in the workplace were dealt with by subjects similar to those encountered through past work experiences.

Action/Interaction

- Subjects drew upon a variety of experiences to perform new work.
- Subjects compared, contrasted, and analyzed present work situations against past experience.

- Subjects referred to the values instilled from past experiences or by internalized personal role models.
- Subjects used imagination, creativity, and intuition to deal with work situations that they had no experiences to compare against.

Consequence

- Subjects relied upon memory and past experience to inform their work as it related to the present job.
- Subjects thoughts about the future increased as they found that prior experience did not serve them well in the present workplace.

This concludes the axial coding process. The convergence of two causal conditions, "employment" and "personal motivation" led to the development of each phenomenon. The contexts within which phenomena emerged were analyzed through axial coding by identifying the conditions that led to patterned responses made by subjects within their working environments. Such responses, termed interactions/actions, were then connected to the consequences within the environment which resulted. The categories that emerged during the open coding process again emerged during the axial coding process, confirming the notion that such categories are relevant to the idea of future thinking within the workplace by the twelve subjects in the present study.

Selective Coding

The third and final analytical process for performing the grounded theory method of qualitative research recommended by Strauss and Corbin (1998) is commonly referred to as selective coding. Rather than examining data closely to define categories and their dimensions such as was done during open coding, or to elicit the relationships between and the contexts within which phenomena emerged such as in axial coding, selective coding is an intentional "stepping back from the data" to create the larger theoretical scheme (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). For the purposes of the present study, the selective coding process is represented by a narrative storyline of the emergent categories and their relationships.

This narrative report is the cumulative result of the efforts represented by the open, axial, and selective coding. The selective coding narrative provides a holistic and plausible view of the data as they may combine to create the interrelationships between a core category and the four categories and their properties that emerged out of the open and axial coding processes. By further integrating and refining the categories representing the data, this story line allows for the creation of a grounded theory.

Within this narrative, the concepts and linkages between them as they occurred within context are represented through the phenomena, dimensions, and contexts identified through the axial and open coding phases of this research analysis. Contexts within the story line related to phenomena are identified with **boldface** type. The story line and the interrelationships of the phenomena are

presented in narrative form in the following section: "The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations".

The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations

Workplace motivation stems from two ontological sources: the **workplace environment** with its organizational context and the **personal factors** with which one interprets those environments. Work is created as administrative and managerial decisions about who and how work is accomplished combines with the unique personalities and the interpretations of work situations that people encounter are fulfilled to meet organizationally prescribed ends. Work varies by complexity, degree of responsibility and difficulty, length of time actively considered, and outcome. Each person has an internal **career script** that they follow or diverge from according to the alignment of personal values, motivations, and ideas to events that occur within the workplace relate to the **proximity** of significant benchmarks within a person's life.

People work for a variety of reasons. The money people earn at work enables them to make choices and purchases that provide them the opportunities and amenities to have personally fulfilling lives. People are even happier and more motivated on the job if they enjoy what they are doing as they earn their money: the **work itself is rewarding** to them and the **values of the organization fit** that of the individual. By pursuing their personal motivations through the context of their places of work, "The Future" itself and its many possible outcomes, becomes a motivational factor. There is a reciprocal relationship

between the personal way in which a person thinks about the future and the future-framing nature of the job which a person works at and that they, themselves, shape.

Some people rank the degree to which they are impacting the future as a highly motivational factor in doing the work that they have chosen. Using **work as an instrument for creating the future**, people discover meaning, purpose, and fulfillment. Some people do this in the literal sense, doing work that is more altruistic in nature: working to **create a better world** through doing something that they feel impacts a great worldly need. Others use work to create a future that is more limited to the personal sphere: they **create a future for themselves**, for their family, for the people or the things that they care about. Both "types" of motivations – intrinsic and extrinsic – may exist in two different people side-by-side in the same job position in the same organization or even in the same individual at different times, in different situations.

Situational factors within the workplace contribute to the degree and way in which people think of the future as well. The **predictability** of the work environment plays a significant role in lulling a person to form habit and routine, or keeping a person on their toes, always wondering what's coming up next. Habits and routines allow people to form schemata, or self-narrated scripts about what to do, when to do it, and how to do it such that, performance becomes "second-nature" and requires little thought or attention. This has much to do with how static or predictable the work environment is perceived and adapted to by the particular working individual.

Organizational and managerial structures have a lot to do with predictability, as they influence the **workplace rhythm**, the ebb and flow of activity and events on the job. Workplace **technological changes** and other competitive and community forces act as **external pressures** on the organization, forcing many workers to think and adapt to upcoming **changes within the environment**. Different kinds of work also have different chronological frames as the focus of their business: custodians work hour by hour, school teachers operate on semesters and school years, superintendents on five year plans, and legislators on thirty year strategies. The degree and way in which these people adapt to thinking of the future on the job has a way of impacting their personal future-thinking habits. Habits of thinking and behaving are formed on the job that often carry over into the personal sphere of life.

Making workplace **commitments** is one of the more common activities that increase the degree of future-thinking on the job, acting as a motivator for people as they work to accomplish their organizational objectives. The very act of accepting a job implies a commitment to physically "show up", to be mentally prepared to do the work, to accept a particular job role within an organization, and to perform a certain set of prescribed work functions. Being ready for the first day of work and learning to perform at a new job takes a certain degree of thinking about, understanding, and negotiating through the workplace environment. By anticipating, projecting, adjusting, and applying one's knowledge about the future within the context of that job, people match their personal motivations to those of the organizations as best as they can. A number of workplace activities further

impact a person's ability or preponderance for thinking about and acting upon their thoughts about the future in the work setting.

Once commitments are made, **preparing for events**, performing directed work along a prescribed timeline, and accepting other obligations bind the individual to think about the future in such ways as to fulfill workplace goals. Multi-faceted or intricate goals may require more complex thinking in that people must often be more specific about defining them and break them into smaller, more attainable proximal goals. Through work relations, people also often find themselves in leadership positions because of their instrumental role in organizational **planning processes**, collaborating and directing other people and manipulating the environment toward meeting the **organizational mission**. Work leverages a person to apply their skills, their knowledge, and their abilities toward designing and marshalling resources to create a future for the organization.

Goal Articulation is often a necessary aspect of the workplace for people as commitment to multiple, complex goals is made and people discover the need to express and communicate their goals to others within the organization. Goals are often weighed against other goals as to priority, material, fiscal, and human resource capacities, personal achievement motivation, and the amount of time required to achieve a goal versus the amount of time available to accomplish a goal. Through attempting to be efficient, productive, and/or through the stacking up of one goal after another, people may feel **Time Pressure** as needs and demands compete against one another.

Time Pressure occurs when a person feels that the demands of the immediate Now are invading the farther off, more ideal Future: when urgent needs are dominating the resources that could be contributed to the pursuit of more important, but more distant ones. This happens as working relationships, physical resources, and deadlines for various goals "compete for" a worker's time and attention. At such times, future-thinking is often curtailed, as thinking in the present is most called for, giving way to frustration, anger, or other emotions as **work rhythms** finally permit and thoughts surrounding the need for future-thinking return. During crisis, time perspective shortens as people take care of the present – once again lengthening as the sense of urgency recedes. **Time management**, delegation, and other organizational and personal means are often employed as people learn to minimize the frustration at their inability to reach the future because of the pressing demands of the unmediated present. In addition to the analytical skills required to recognize patterns and the organizational skills to manage workplace events and relationships that combine to create Time Pressure, these **strategies** are, of course, most effective when the individuals are motivated to be affective and competent in their work.

Workplace Experience often leads to a more competent worker. Experience provides the context and the scaffolding by which individuals make sense of situations and project their sense of what will happen in the future against incoming data and information. After getting experience in their field of work, people begin to monitor and anticipate the flow of activity around seasons, cycles, and periods of time indicated by clock time (12:30 p.m. and the kids are out to

lunch), calendar time (graduation day at the university) or by key indicators signaling a change in the work (noticing movements in the weather, the stock market, the legislature, or in the newspaper). People generally project their thinking as far into the future as their productivity as a motivated working individual or member of a driven organization requires them to. This creates a perspective of the future that emerges from the juxtaposition of a person's job role, their goal commitments and the **work rhythm** within which the goal is cast.

But Future Time Perspective within the workplace isn't just a function of the job and the environment. Different people interpret the same circumstances in different ways. **Personal resolve** leads some people to increase their thinking about the future when confronted with workplace conflicts, and some to think of the future less. The degree of motivation attached to attaining a given goal is related to the individual's level of foresight as to how attainment of that goal might advance or benefit their cause. The clarity and intensity of this motivation increases as the person perceives the level of realism build and the mix of resources are judged both present and sufficient to create circumstances necessary for attaining the goal. A person's degree of future-thinking for a given goal thus, has a lot to do with the level of commitment that that individual has for both pursuing such an analysis and for dealing with hurdles, roadblocks, and conflicts encountered in achieving the goal itself.

Conflicts within the workplace, like other kinds of human community, are so common as to seem largely unavoidable. People negotiate territory, resources, priorities, relationships, and the expenditure of time in pursuit of accomplishing

the desired end of a business, educational, or governmental endeavor. There are bound to be disagreements as perceptions and stances through these negotiations are tested and challenged. **Personal resolve** – or the degree to which people will work to create productive solutions for organizational or personal difficulties is inextricably linked to the way and degree in which a person views the future, its contents, and its evolution.

Some people are **optimists**, always seeing opportunities and the positive spin on every situation, while others are **pessimistic**: they see potential difficulty at every step and insist that realism be injected into any serious discussion of the future. Some people look to the far future attempting to maximize their potential to impact grand scale events or to leave some contribution to improve the conditions of the world, however small. Others feel obliged only to look ahead as far as necessity predicates. Personality factors and dispositions such as time orientation, or the degree to which people tend to think about the future, the present, or the past are just some of the ways in which the character of the people working within the job place tends to frame the work being done and the conflicts that occur while doing it.

Whether optimists, pessimists, or some relative position in between, people in the workplace are actively engaged with their environment as they try to accomplish their various goals. Depending upon their own dispositions, the situations that they find themselves in, and the cues or factors that individuals choose to pick up on and consider as they work, workplace opportunities and threats present themselves and have an impact upon the way they think about the

future in relationship to their jobs. **Perceptions of threat** and **perceptions of growth** or opportunity within the workplace stem from individual interpretations of a variety of events, individuals, and conditions within the workplace setting that have an affect upon the motivation of the person. Emotional and cognitive reactions to these perceived threats or opportunities leads people to develop **strategies** for dealing with them, thus creating **future-thinking about the issues within the context of the threats or opportunities**. Depending upon the actions taken or the knowledge gained from workplace perceptions of threat or growth, workers often reconsider the potential future of the organization, match it against the construct of their personal values, and assess their personal viability of fitness within that organization.

Balance or alignment between work and personal goals is another factor in a worker's subjective assessment of their motivation to think about and act upon the future within the workplace. Oftentimes, work is particularly demanding and takes up a large amount of time, energy, and personal resources that are relatively at odds against the many varied goals of the individual within their personal, family, civic, or community life. People engage in a kind of goal-setting and achievement "calculus", putting in more work toward one end and sacrificing others. This can lead to the phenomenon of Time Pressure as competing work and personal goals collide and the person rather than choose between them, attempts to "do it all". **Time management strategies** or the **delegation of resources** often are used as a means of balancing these spheres of an individual's life, too.

Organizational **commitment** is the generalized degree of motivation that a person feels for the work represented by the organization, itself. This results as a convergence of several components of workplace environment and personality factors already described: **personal-work alignment**, belief in the **organizational mission**, motivation by particular **events** encountered through the work environment, and personal acceptance of and synchronization with the **workplace rhythm** of a person's given task environment. People are willing to commit to an organization that provides them with meaningful work that aligns with their personal Career Script for doing work for a purpose: that of producing a meaningful life.

Career Scripts evolve out of an individual's personal experience and the way in which they see themselves working as it relates to the possible, probable, or preferable chronology of events within their lives. Career Scripts develop as a person gains skill sets, experiences, interests in particular fields of work, and identifies work and personal goals that they set to be reached through employment within an organizational setting. Positive or negative **role models** act as mental guides as to behavioral, chronological, or educational scripts for people to compare and contrast their own experiences while building their lives around their Career Scripts. Some people have definite Career Scripts and others have more loosely organized scripts around circumstantial opportunities and experiences. Some people attach a great deal of personal meaning to the identity that is developed through their workplace role, and others view their jobs more through

the lens as a means to be able to do what they need or wish to do in their personal lives.

The perceived proximity of an identified benchmark or goal within a person's Career Script has a lot to do with the degree of future-thinking leading to behavior that a person does about that benchmark or goal. Though some goals may be chronologically far away from an individual's **perception of the necessity to achieve the goal**, the need for achievement combined with the **degree of complexity** required may be **motivating enough to the person to begin preparation** for it well in advance. People **anticipate the creation of future personal meaning** as a direct outcome of their performance on the job. Buying a home, having and raising a child, and retirement at old age are common personal benchmarks that motivate people to think about what they are going to do with their careers in the future.

People seek work that fulfills them in personal ways. How they perceive their work and the way it relates to their personal values influences their motivation and the degree to which thoughts of the future compel them to perform within the workplace. Future thinking within the work setting is derived from three zones of personal experience: obligations negotiated through relationships enacted within the work setting, motivations derived out of personal concern for the welfare of others and the state of the future, and work which is used as an instrument for attaining personal goals that exist outside of or apart from the organization. The negotiations between personal and organizational ends result in the unique and personal interpretations of mutual purpose responsible for creating

workplace motivation. Thoughts of the future spring from these interpretations of mutual purpose as they are derived out of individual perceptions regarding the work environment and from the self-created career scripts which people have for themselves as befit their personal agendas. Thus, the future is negotiated between individual, organization, and situational factors. This synthesis of personal and environmental contexts to create future thinking and goal-directed behavior within the workplace results in the emergent category: The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations.

Articulating the story line during the selective coding process exposed the interrelationships between the phenomena. During the final integration of data a core category emerged. This core category is labeled "The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations" and it is related to the six phenomena that were examined during the axial coding process. It is important to note that once the core category has emerged (from a holistic analysis of the phenomena) the phenomena are now referred to as subcategories. The terminology changes to reflect the relationship between the core category and its subcategories (previously referred to as phenomena). The core category and its interrelationships with the subcategories form the backbone of the narrative report.

Core Category

The core category is based upon the interrelationships between the subcategories that emerged from the selective coding process. The core category is related to the following four subcategories: (a) workplace factors, (b) changing

environments, (c) personality factors and, (d) career scripts. These four subcategories are also related to each other and result in the workplace goal contexts identified in the axial coding process: (a) obligations negotiated through relationships enacted within the work setting, (b) motivations derived out of personal concern for the welfare of others and the state of the future, and (c) work that is used as an instrument for attaining personal goals that exist outside of or apart from the organization.

Subcategories

Under the heading of each subcategory, the interrelationships between the subcategories are briefly discussed. The first subcategory discussed is, "Workplace factors".

Workplace factors. Each subject in this study reported both negative and positive impacts upon their motivation by thinking about the future and enacting upon conditions within their work because of environmental and task-related constraints. The subcategory "Workplace factors" has direct connections to data classified within each of the other subcategories and is an integral part of the core category, "The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations."

While the properties of "Workplace factors" surrounding work obligations and the degree of future orientation of the work were both self-reported motivating factors, a dominant phenomenon eliciting future thinking was the prospect and anticipation of change. If success is thought to require one to reorganize behavior and thinking around anticipated change, then future thinking

becomes motivating. It stands to reason that the subcategory "Changing environments" is directly correlated to the subcategory "Workplace factors" by consequence of the degree of predictability, structural changes within the task environments incurred through the advancement of technology, the implications resulting from anticipated growth and/or change, and the different pressures placed upon workplace factors by the marketplace and the community. These factors of "Changing environments" also affect the workplace rhythms, the degree and nature of time pressure, and the character and scope of events that people prepare for within the workplace by raising awareness of change in "Workplace factors". People then engage in thinking about adjustments that will or may need to be made in operating successfully within that workplace and those thoughts about the future motivate them to act. In addition to "Changing environments", the subcategory, "Workplace factors" is also related to the subcategory, "Personal factors".

Personal factors that were found to influence the degree and way in which a person thought about the future within the workplace were (a) person-work alignment, (b) organizational commitment, (c) personal resolve, (d) goal articulation, and (e) the need for work to create the future. Each of these properties of an individual's personality has a logical relationship to the subcategory "Workplace factors" reflected in the analysis of data: those individuals committed and motivated to the workplace of their employment had reason to set goals commensurate with the rhythm of events and to persevere in the face of pressure. Furthermore, the perceived alignment between an

individual's need for work to positively impact the future and that of the future orientation of the work, itself is reflected in comments by subjects and is interpreted to act in a reciprocal fashion for people to think more about the future and to remain motivated in the workplace. People may seek out work that aligns with their relative temporal orientation, while the performance of the work itself may flex a person's time perspective. These interactions between the subcategories "Workplace factors" and "Personal factors" both influence people over time to create the subcategory, "Career scripts".

The subcategory "Career scripts" is related to "Workplace factors" as individual purposeful direction and meaning is derived out of interaction with and as a consequence of the environment of work. Motivation to prepare for workplace events within the workplace also combines with the perceived proximity to a major life event within a person's career script, another self-reported factor that subjects within this study consistently identified as a future-thinking inducer. Subjects stated that they were motivated to work when they felt that a compelling major event was proximally at hand.

The contexts within which workplace goals were set were also found to be directly connected to the subcategory "Workplace factors". The context of personal motivations created by obligations negotiated through relationships within the work setting is logically correlated with the mutual purposes developed through workplace relationships. Motivations derived out of personal concern for the welfare of others and the state of the future may have direct connections with the future orientation of the work, commitments to planning that the

organizational culture stimulates, and respondent to time pressures encountered within the workplace. Finally, work that is used as an instrument for attaining personal goals that exist outside of or apart from the organization is considered relative to "Workplace factors" by the instrumental utility by which a person may gain their external achievements through successful integration of workplace situations.

Subjects made explicit note of the degree of change inherent within their work environments as a factor that provoked them to consider the future and thus, motivate them to act. Change in "Workplace factors", such as the events prepared for, or the rhythm of the workplace itself were indicated through perceptions of growth, threat, external pressure, or the infusion of workplace technology. These changes within the workplace, thus, create a different environment to which the individual must adapt and align with. Indeed, the "Personal factors" category may undergo continual flux as working conditions transform. Individuals must anchor their motivations to moving targets or discover a sense of meaning and value elsewhere. "Career scripts" are thus, likewise contingent upon the ability of people to "re-write" their Career scripts as new rules, new media, new events, and new ways to perform work are created within their particular sphere of professional expertise. People learn to adapt in times of change or they risk becoming less viable in their work. The next section describes the connections from the "Changing environments" subcategory to the other aspects of the proposed theory of how perceptions of the future impact work motivation.

Changing environments. Within Changing environments is likely the context in which Career scripts are examined, altered, and defined the most. As the setting for production and the medium by which one must successfully navigate through that setting changes, people must make a choice in order to adapt: (a) they can learn to work within a changed environment; (b) they can try to change the environment back to previous conditions or further still to better meet their ends; (c) they can seek out a new environment to work in altogether; or (d) they can change their goals and their Career scripts. The degree to which a person is adept or willing to alter or redefine their Career script is dependent upon their individual Personal factors: how motivated and well they define their goals, how much Personal resolve they have to deal with change, and how much they feel the Need for their work to create the future. The next subcategory, "Personal factors" analyzes such differences between individuals and the factors that vary their thinking about the future within the work setting.

Personal factors. Different people respond to the same situations differently. This study revealed several individual factors which varied the degree and way in which subjects perceived the future related to their work motivations. Each property of the "Personal factors" subcategory – that of "Person-work alignment", "Organizational commitment", "Personal resolve", "Goal articulation", and the "Need for work to create the future" – is related to the subcategories "Workplace factors", "Changing environments", and "Career scripts". "Person-work alignment" is the first property interrelated to the other subcategories that emerged as part of this study.

Person-work alignment relates to "Workplace factors" by the degree of fitness perceived by the individual as to the kind of work being performed (i.e. event preparation), the degree of time pressure incurred within the workplace, and the temporal orientation of the work, itself. Each person must decide upon how much and how often the performance of work should align with their individual preferences, and when those degrees of fitness are violated or surpassed in other potential work opportunities. Person-work alignment is likely related to the subcategory "Career script" based upon this subjective evaluation as it compares to possible selves and where one sees their probable and preferable future. Person-work alignment also logically has a direct connection to the "Career script" property of "prior work experience", as future thinking is predicated off of past meaning, providing reference and context in which to project personal ideas in the fabrication of a personal career future. This is consistent with the data gathered from and analysis conducted of the interviewees from within their workplace role. "Organizational commitment is the next property of the subcategory "Personal factors" that is reviewed for it's interrelationships to the other subcategories in this study.

The property of "Organizational commitment" of the subcategory "Personal Factors" is related to "Workplace factors" in a symbiotic fashion: those workers with relatively high degrees of organizational commitment are likely more willing to prepare for events, withstand time pressures, commit to organizational planning for the future, and accede to the temporal orientation of the work and it's rhythms if one feels committed to the organization. Likewise,

one is likely to become committed to that organization in which the planning, work rhythms, and the events themselves are intrinsically motivating or at least agreeable. The correlation between commitment to work and the environment of the workplace is thus, a reasonable assumption and consistent with data analysis and the development of the theory in this study.

The properties of "Personal resolve", "Goal articulation", and "Need for work to create the future" in the subcategory "Personal factors" are thought to be similarly related to the subcategories "Workplace factors", "Changing environments", and "Career Scripts". Each of these personal dispositions relates to the way in which people respond to environmental conditions and tasks, changes within those environments, and ultimately relates to the way in which people forecast the potential consequences for different possible goals and actions. With respect to "Personal resolve", people make optimistic or pessimistic attributions about expected changing events and other workplace factors, which in turn affect their career scripts. The cumulative impact that an optimistic or pessimistic disposition has upon the individual thus, often translates more broadly into the qualitative nature of their longer temporal outlook: repeated negative attributions about a number of discrete events within someone's present life script provides the foundation for a more pervasive and long-term negative outlook on life – and vice versa. Personal resolve likely impinges upon the quality and nature of a person's career script, while imparting a powerful affect upon the way in which the individual responds to proximal events within a person's life.

The personal disposition to feel the need to set goals and for goal-oriented processes is related to the relative stability of an individual's Future Time Perspective, regardless of environmental circumstance. People that naturally are driven to think about the future in terms of the need to set goals and be productive are, by definition, more likely to participate in future-oriented thinking and activities. This relates to Workplace factors such as having the capacity and wherewithal to prepare for work-related events, adjust or accommodate productive rhythms in work, the ability to muster energy and personal resolve to withstand and see beyond periods of intense Time pressure in the workplace, and the capacity to effectively participate in organizational planning processes. Likewise, the "Need for work to create the future" is connected to future-oriented Workplace factors and, when the person's disposition is coordinated properly with the work environment's activity, appears to result in a better "Person-work alignment". The connections of the subcategory "Career scripts" to the properties of the other three subcategories in this study is the final analysis of the interrelationships between emergent themes for the purposes of this study.

Career scripts. Career scripts are possible, preferable, and probable directions for individuals as they derive direction and meaning through their work. The "Career scripts" subcategory in this study represents the extension of personal Future Time Perspective through people's working lives and across their prospective futures, connecting to identify goals within their personal and working environments. Each of the properties articulated by the individuals in this

study has relationships to the Workplace factors, Changing environments, and Personal factors subcategories.

As people derive meaning out of performing their work, whether it is through participation in events or in preparation for them, Career scripts are often engaged to motivate people in accomplishing their tasks. Other Workplace factors such as the Future orientation of the work, itself and the degree to which the Organizational commitment to planning processes are indicative of the degree of alignment that a person feels relative to their present work situation (i.e. Person-work alignment). This is done through a subjective comparison by the individual of their Career script and its multi-varied goals and events against these Workplace factors and its Changing environments.

Summary

Analysis of data collected from the subjects of this study was conducted through the processes of open, axial, and selective coding. The findings presented in this chapter were a result of interpretations made by the researcher and confirmed through constant comparison of data to analysis, as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998). During the open coding process, micro-analyses took place wherein statements made by subjects were categorized along with their properties and dimensions. In axial coding, emergent categories were examined to discern the interrelationships between phenomena and to further expand the dimensions and properties of them. Finally, in selective coding, a plausible narrative description of how future-thinking affects motivation within the

workplace was articulated. By stepping away from the meticulous, close-up analyses of particular segments of data and examining the interviews from a macro-view, a "core category" emerged, pulling the remaining categories within the greater context of the core. In this fashion, the categories now are referred to as "sub-categories" and combine together along with the core category to comprise what is presented as the grounded theory for the purposes of this study.

The following chapter, Chapter Five, is a summary and conclusion of the grounded theory study of The Role of The Future in Work Motivation. The findings from this study are again presented in a holistic context and compared to relevant literature.. A series of postulations for future research on Future Time Perspective in relation to motivation within the work setting are then set forth, concluding with implications for practitioners from a number of applied fields.

CHAPTER FIVE

Interpretive Summary, Postulations, and Implications

Time is like air or water. It permeates and sustains our existence, creating order and balance to the events and relationships within our lives. We don't often think about it until it takes on the status of a "precious resource"; and we're found managing it, running out of it, deciding how we'll use it to create and sustain over here and through deciding thus, destroy and wither over there. The future, being a part of the tapestry of time, is like that too, except that when it occurs and we experience it, it's no longer the future, but is now the present. Since we cannot see the many other potential futures that could have happened we often wonder of the usefulness and veracity of considering the future except as it portends to practically relate to the present. After all, what happened to all of those other potential futures when only one of them became the present? Is there only one future that really exists and are the other possibilities but chimeras?

Chapter Five summarizes the findings from Chapter Four of this qualitative research study. This summary includes a holistic view of the core category, "The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations", as well as the four phenomena of (a) Workplace Factors, (b) Changing Environments, (c) Personal Factors, and (d) Career Scripts. For the purposes of this summary, these four phenomena related to The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations will be referred to as "subcategories" of the core category since they are directly related to that core category. The following holistic summary integrates the three stages in the

analysis of data that has taken place to develop the theory of The Role of The Future in Workplace Motivation by synthesizing the categories developed in open and axial coding, and those interrelated in selective coding to create a broader, integrated "macro" view of the phenomena under investigation.

The first section of this chapter, Holistic Analysis, describes the qualitative process of creating a theory grounded in data by using procedures outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1998). One technique for analysis of data in the grounded theory method emphasizes an approach that moves from the micro analysis of data in which the themes or categories of a given phenomenon and their interrelationships are identified within context, to a macro approach that seeks to plausibly connect the actions and interactions of subjects with the phenomena under study to larger conditions and consequences that exist to create or impact the development of the phenomena. This approach allows the researcher to posit a structure for the theory as it exists within a larger framework, allowing for external environmental forces such as community, social, and global influences to be accounted for in their role and influence upon the development of the phenomenon under investigation. It allows the theory to be placed within a broader context to better explain the "diverse patterns of connectivity with discernable shifting patterns of action/interaction over time" (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p. 188). To this end, as a conclusion of this section of the holistic summary, a conditional/consequential matrix is presented as a simplified theoretical representation of the context and development of future-thinking and its role within the workplace.

The Holistic Analysis is conducted through an exploration of the grand tour question of this investigation and the sub-questions that have framed this study. The holistic analysis is completed by comparing and contrasting this re-integrated data to a literature review of related theories and research findings. Postulations resulting from the analysis of data reported in Chapter Four will be included in the following section, titled, "Postulations". Finally, implications for further inquiry on the impact of future-thinking upon motivation in the workplace conclude this chapter. The summary begins with a description of the qualitative procedures employed for data analysis and synthesis for the purposes of this study.

Summary

Holistic Analysis

The grounded theory approach is a qualitative research method aimed at generating or discovering a theory of how individuals interact in relation to a given phenomenon based upon the perspectives and lived experiences of those most impacted by or most representative of the phenomenon itself (Creswell, 1998). By synthesizing the analyses of the data gathered for the purposes of this study, a theory of the role of The Future in work motivation emerged. This grounded theory is the outcome of several phases of analysis, as delineated by Strauss and Corbin (1998): open, axial, and selective coding. Four categories emerged from the open coding process, which were then explored for their connections and interrelationships in axial coding. A narrative plausibly explaining the context and development of the phenomena under study then took

place during selective coding, resulting in the emergence of a fifth category, "The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations". This core category was related to the four original categories, now called "sub-categories" to reflect their integrated status. The four sub-categories identified from the data were (a) Workplace Factors, (b) Changing Environments, (c) Personal Factors, and (d) Career Scripts. Combined, these categories form the framework of the grounded theory which was presented in Chapter Four.

The grounded theory of the role of the future as it impacts the work motivation of the twelve people interviewed for this study was initiated through the creation of a number of relevant questions related to the grand tour question and sub-questions. These questions were asked of the twelve individuals within the context of their own work setting and their answers analyzed to develop thematic categories. The results of this micro-analysis of data were then synthesized during selective coding to generate a macro-view of subject data and a story line created. The context and consequences of the degree to which and the way in which twelve people think about the future within the workplace setting emerged through this process. Results of this analysis revealed that thinking of the future motivates individuals within the workplace in three distinct ways: 1) The Future as Commitment to the Organization; 2) The Future as Personal Enhancement; and 3) The Future as Improving the World. As a conclusion, a visual model representing the conditions for the manifestation of future thinking within the workplace setting is proposed, integrating the actions and consequences taken by the subjects and consistent with the data collected from the

interviews. First, an exploration of the grand tour and sub-questions from the vantage of the holistic analysis will set the stage for the propositions and the review of relevant literature.

Exploration of Grand Tour and Sub-Questions

The grand tour research question and the two related sub-questions were the essential guiding mechanisms for conducting this inquiry. By analyzing the data and creating the four categories of: (a) Workplace Factors, (b) Changing Environments, (c) Personal Factors, and (d) Career Scripts in relation to the core category, "The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and Personal Negotiations", the answers to grand tour and sub-questions were prepared. The grand tour question was:

- How are an individual's perceptions of the future and their work motivation related?

The two related sub-questions were :

- How are an individual's ideas and images of the future influencing what one does and plans for at work?
- What aspects of the work environment have an influence upon the way that an individual acts toward and makes plans for their personal futures?

The following is a holistic interpretation of how the analysis and re-synthesis of the data as prescribed by Strauss and Corbin (1998) correspond to each sub-question:

How are an individual's ideas and images of the future influencing what one does and plans for at work? Many thoughts, ideations, and mental processes likely converge to create what is known as Future Time Perspective within the working individual. Subjects for this study reported personal aspirations, fears, and strategies for using work as a means to reach their goals through a number of contexts. Some goals existed for the purposes of succeeding in the work environment, some were for personal reasons outside of work entirely, and others were set to improve conditions in the world through work performance, itself. These goals varied in complexity, length of time thought necessary to accomplish the goals, degree of planning necessary, and the level of motivation dedicated to goal achievement. Several personal variables were identified as contributing to or resulting from the ideas and images of the future in the workplace.

People weigh the demands, outcomes, and fitness of their work against their personal values and the degree to which it aligns with the way in which they strive to live their lives. They seek to balance and align their Career Scripts with their individual Life Scripts through assimilation and accommodation of events and goals encountered within the workplace. This results in a variety of strategies, from internalizing the mission of the organization to using work strictly as an instrument to attain separate personal life goals. The nature of the work itself often contributes to these strategies, influencing the degree of personal internalization, the length of the future considered, and the degree of challenge that a person considers. The strategy of breaking a larger goal up into smaller

goals chained, or "chunked" together results from individuals motivated to accomplish workplace goals with perceived complexity.

Subjects' assessment of the complexity of an idea contained within possible or identified work goals impacts their degree of consideration as to how much planning they felt was necessary for goal achievement. The degree of personal investment or alignment and the chronological distance that goal attainment is perceived are other personal ways in which people vary the degree of their future thinking around the preparation for an event within the workplace. The need to plan seems to originate from different sources within different contexts: at times, individuals interpret the complexity or the importance of an upcoming event within the workplace as one that is worthy of coordinated effort and planning; at other times, the work place has developed a culture of planning and it comes to be a part of the organizational process. It is reasonable to conclude that the origin of the incidence of planning for work-related events may be attributed to a reciprocal relationship between the individual psyche and the work environment, itself.

Subjects' appraisal of the priority of attaining a given work goal was directly influenced by personal and organizational values. Depending upon how much a person internalizes the mission of the organization, goals are often considered independently or against personal motivators, such as freedom, power, affiliation, interest, or concern. People look for ways to make meaning out of their work, seeking work that matches their personal values, finding aspects of work that they can believe in, or using work to meet ends outside of the workplace

altogether. The degree and manner of future thinking in the workplace is related to these internal motivations.

A personal factor that influences the degree of priority that an individual places upon work goals is the motivation that a person derives from the perceived proximity of a personal benchmark within their internalized Life or Career Script. Subjects reported identifying their personal motivation to achieve work goals with the perceived proximity of an identified major life goal. Major events in a person's life stand as markers for their passage through time: getting married, buying a house, having children, being promoted, and retirement are common examples. The more one perceives that a major event is pending (or should be), the more one is motivated to think about that future, make plans for it, and take action. Some individuals have comparatively extended Future Time Perspective; they see the connection between chronologically distant life goals and the instrumentality of performance in the immediate present. A person's internal career script – that consistent mental dialogue that a person has regarding their working life – of what one should be working on, where one should be, and when one should be doing it, motivates and encourages future-thinking within the work environment.

Subjects' emotional responses to their ideas of possible and most probable outcomes of the future within the workplace also had considerable impacts upon their motivation to perform their jobs. Anticipated workplace change, including threats or opportunities to the workplace environment, preparation for events, and the idea of technological progress within the workplace were all impetus for

future thinking and motivation. The future-oriented dispositions of optimism or pessimism have a great deal to do with the degree to which and the way in which individuals consider patterns of events within the workplace.

What aspects of the work environment have an influence upon the way that an individual acts toward and makes plans for their personal futures? Just as many personal variables were identified as contributing to or resulting from the ideas and images of the future in the workplace, likewise were there workplace contexts attributed to influencing and shaping those same motivations. The reciprocal nature of the particular workplace environment with the individual personality is evident in the manifestation of workplace Future Time Perspective. This study identified a number of workplace variables that had a reported affect upon subjects' degree of future thinking.

Subjects reported that the future-orientation of the work purposes performed by the subjects influenced their future thinking within the workplace. Doing work requiring immediate response in emergency situations had little future-thinking involved, while preparing documents that may be accessed one hundred years in the future or framing the long-term future of an organization increased the reported degree of active thinking about a more distant future. Work that focuses upon preparing for the future requires a different mindset than that work that focuses more upon the present or the past.

The degree of planning required within the workplace or formally conducted as a part of the workplace culture influenced the degree and way in which individuals thought about the future within the workplace. Preparation for

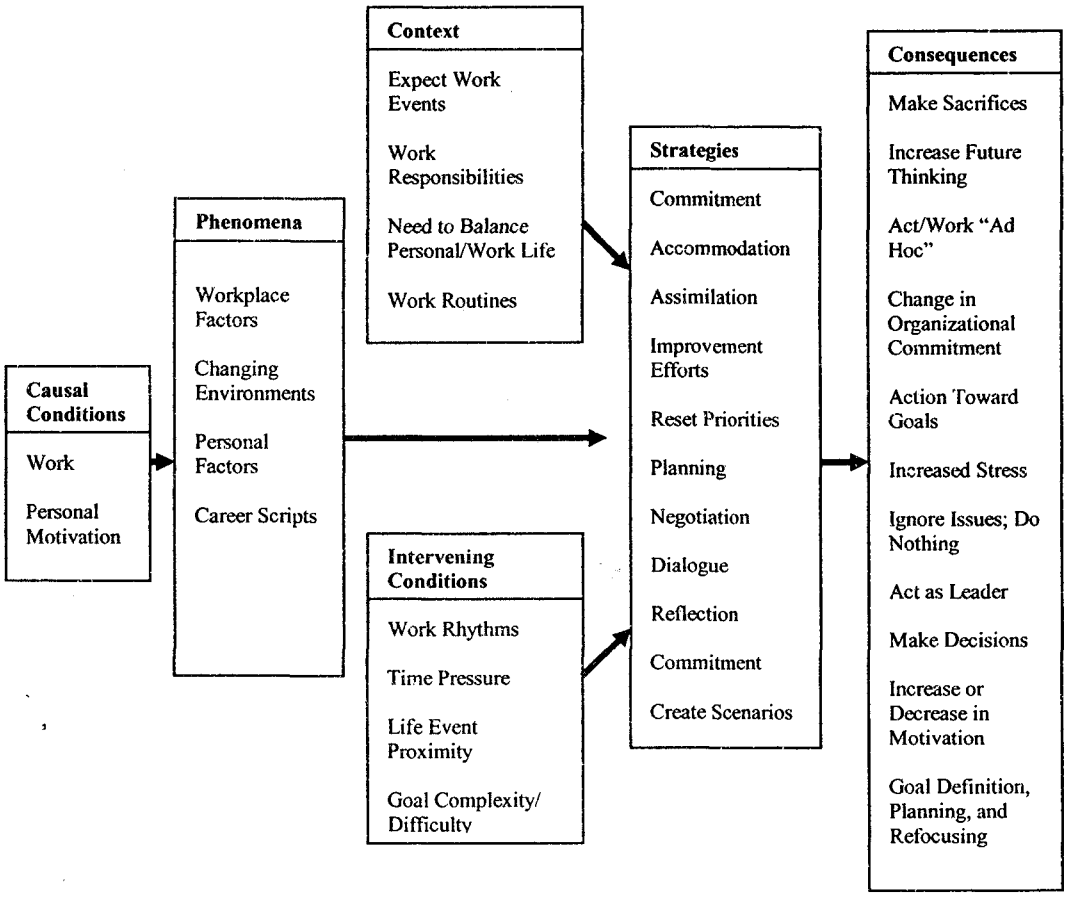
events requires people to think of the necessary details and possible contingencies in bringing about a goal. Workplace planning results from relationships created within the work environment.

The position of leadership or degree of responsibility for framing the future for the organization was a third workplace or situational variable that influenced the degree and way in which an individual considered the future in the workplace. Those people that felt responsible or at least invested in the continued or improved success of the organization reported thinking about the future of that workplace to a higher degree than did those that did not feel responsible for framing the future of the organization.

The degree of workplace change, including technological adoptions being made throughout the organization, workplace resource fluctuations, and alterations in the rhythm of the work had a reported effect upon subjects' degree of future thinking within the workplace. Perceived pressures from external sources, such as community, state, federal, global, or market forces had an impact upon these changes and were a noteworthy aspect of individual perceptions of the potential for change within the workplace. Anticipation and expectation of change are two major ways in which future thinking motivates people to act within the workplace environment.

A workplace factor that subjects reported as detrimental to their degree of future thinking within the workplace was termed time pressure, stemming from demands to perform in the present. Immediate calls upon an individual's time in the work setting often takes away from time that could be spent on planning,

preparing, and otherwise working toward a more distant future. The experience of Time Pressure was reported as an instigating condition leading to a subject's perceived need to develop their time management skills.



The Future as Workplace Motivation: Organizational and personal negotiation

Figure 3: Conditional/Consequence Matrix

Holistic Analysis Related to Literature

Studies of Future Time Perspective have generally attempted to define the construct as a stable personality disposition characteristic of the individual rather than something that adapts to the context provided by particular environments (Seijts, 1998). The perceived context of individuals within this study of how future-thinking motivates people within the work setting however, suggests otherwise. The kind of work that people do has as much to do with the way and degree of future thinking that goes on as does the characteristics and personalities of the people filling the work positions, themselves. Subjects within this study reported changes in the degree of future thinking from one job environment to the next. This finding is consistent with the notion that Future Time Perspective, like other mental representations, is a developmental construct that emerges as an interaction between the individual personality and specific environmental cues (Dimasio, 1999).

Postulations

This study has produced eleven major postulations that will be discussed in this section. The postulations are a result of a holistic interpretation resulting from the analytic processes of open, axial, and selective coding of interview data. The eleven postulations are described as position statements and are underlined, followed by a brief explanation and possible implications for further study. Potential implications for practitioners in business, education, and government will conclude this section. The first postulation, that Future Time Perspective is a transactional mental representation, follows.

Postulation #1: Future Time Perspective is a transactional mental representation that develops as a person matures and comes to understand the demand requirements of a given task environment.

The researcher posits that Future Time Perspective manifests itself as a transactional phenomenon which depends upon many personality characteristics and dispositions interacting with a variety of contextual and situational cues. A person's attributional style, their locus of control, the expectation of change, the degree of commitment or motivation that one has for the work itself, and the perception of growth or threat potential has a great deal to do with how an individual interprets the task environment and comes to see a potential or probable future that they work towards. Likewise, structural features within the environment also have a profound effect upon the way in which a person interprets, thinks about, and prepares for the future: work rhythms, goal and decision making processes, deadlines, cultural expectations, reinforcement schedules, and the future orientation of the work itself all likely have a considerable impact upon the Future Time Perspective of workers within their environs.

Studies investigating the organizational factors that impact the future thinking of workers within particular task environments would assist in the creation of a complete theory of Future Time Perspective and the way in which it integrates with the goal-setting and productive practices of organizations. Investigations regarding individuals within multiple settings – from novel to

familiar, leisure to work, native to foreign culture, and within stable to rapidly changing environments – would be of great service to the debate as to whether Future Time Perspective was stable, mutable, or derives certain factors in different dimensions and situations than from others. As change over time is not only a possible confounding variable in studies of Future Time Perspective, motivation, and goal setting, but also the subject of study itself, longitudinal studies of individual thinking about the future within particular contexts would be of considerable interest.

Postulation #2: Future Time Perspective is a necessary component for successful preparation for and engagement in many work-related events, such as a deadline, a project, or participation in budgeting processes.

Mentally representing the future is a practical, common, and integral component to conducting business, learning, and collaboration within a human community. People think about and act upon their mental model of the future often and with purpose, but conversations about these models are not common in everyday working life, nor does it seem, in research investigations either. Empirical and qualitative investigations surrounding the mental processes that individuals go through to prepare for events, work toward deadlines, or undergo budgeting for organizations would add to the understanding of Future Time Perspective within the workplace. The connections between goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) motivation theories (Hertzberg, 1966; McClelland, 1987), organizational commitment (Caplan, 1987), and life roles (Super, 1990)

could then be better understood through integration within an overarching framework.

Postulation #3: Future Time Perspective is engaged through work relationships and organizational processes such as intentional planning, budgeting, strategy making, and training and learning processes.

How do environments impact the individual Future Time Perspective? It was demonstrated throughout the study that interviewees perceived that engaging in work itself instigated their thinking about and preparing for the future. Several researchers have posited that Future Time Perspective is likely a more or less stable disposition (Seijts, 1998; Nuttin, 1985). This may be true, given that it is a mental representation that develops over time and draws upon genetic and experiential factors unique to the individual. But environmental and situational cues that elicit future thinking may also play a part within the context of enacting a productive work environment. It would be prudent for researchers to thoroughly investigate the relationship between such factors and the degree to which they influence a person's time orientation, generally and Future Time Perspective, specifically. Understanding what organizational procedures assist a worker to think more clearly or more productively about the future could yield a number of potentially fruitful applications – both theoretical and practical.

Postulation #4: Future Time Perspective is influenced by rhythms of the work and task environment, internally and externally imposed timelines for work production, reinforcement systems, organizational and cultural factors, and person-environment congruence.

Subjects within this study made inferences about the chronological rhythms within their work environments as being one of the factors that caused them to think about and prepare for the future. The researcher posits that work rhythms are a significant environmental cue that shapes and defines Future Time Perspective factors within the individual in the task environment. Future research investigating the differences between task environments and their different rhythms, time orientations, and foci of attention would do much to verify this notion.

The perceived degree of alignment between expectations and performance on a given task and the measure of motivation, concern, or priority that an individual has for that alignment is another factor posited by the researcher as a component that hinges upon workplace Future Time Perspective. People report a kind of mental calculus in weighing the priority and difficulty of a given task against those of others. Since all of the tasks are at such a point uncompleted by the individual and compete with other future tasks, the ability of a person to forecast their needs, interests, thoughts, and actions into a variety of scenarios and to weigh the costs and outcomes becomes an important exercise. In a world where the pace of work is becoming increasingly faster, interconnected, and complex (Smyre, 2000), being able to understand the way people mentally represent the future is arguably a necessary factor in survival and productivity.

Researchers interested in discovering how best to match work environments with individual preferences might consider examining the factors within the work environment that create productive timeframes and the degree to

which they coincide with individual rhythms and proclivities. Creating a dynamic model of the work environment flow of matter, information, and energy would greatly assist in the development of a better person-environment fit, as would a better understanding of how individual Future Time Perspectives are best integrated into such environments.

Postulation #5: Future Time Perspective is influenced by the predictability and familiarity of the task environment and by the degree of expected change in job stability, function, and/or capacity within the workplace.

Change and the expectation of change within the work environment is a factor in both altering workplace Future Time Perspective and in potentially upsetting the individual's sense of balance within their work and between their various life roles. People that feel that their work and life has a measure of predictability often do not worry about the future, as it is expected to remain just as they anticipate it. The researcher posits that the more predictable or familiar with a work environment that a person is, the less inclined to think about the future that they are. Of course, some people have the disposition to consider the future more than others, but in considering environmental factors that come to bear upon Future Time Perspective, familiarity sometimes breeds schemata that filter out signals regarding future change.

Future studies regarding the impact of familiarity and predictability of the work environment upon workplace Future Time Perspective may discover differences between both individual responses and workplace environments. Expectations of change within the workplace, such as those imposed by

technological change or marketplace forces are common experiences to many education, government, and business organizations. Understanding how these changes impact the way that people model and represent the future, however, is not common.

Postulation #6: Future Time Perspective is influenced by the degree and way in which the roles and responsibilities of a person's life are integrated or in competition with one another. (proximity, need for work to create the future).

The researcher posits that there is a synergetic relationship between Future Time Perspective and life role integration. As a mental model, Future Time Perspective synthesizes and borrows images, concepts, and ideas from other salient mental representations that guide a person in their actions and beliefs. The mental model that comprises a person's sense of balance between their life roles (which are, themselves mental models), is posited by the researcher as having a direct impact upon the individual's Future Time Perspective. If the roles and responsibilities of the workplace are impinging upon other life roles and perceived as causing stress, the likelihood that Future Time Perspective is concomitantly affected in all spheres rises dramatically.

Future studies regarding the relationship between Future Time Perspective and life role balance are called for in the estimation of the researcher. A phenomenon relative to Time Pressure (Amabile, et al., 2002), wherein stress due the perceived lack of time as a resource to accomplish a variety of objectives, may be the culprit preventing the balancing of life roles and curtailing Future Time

Perspective. Temporal orientation may be a significant factor in the strategies with which people integrate their various life roles.

Postulation #7: Workplace Future Time Perspective is influenced by the degree of organizational commitment one has.

The researcher posits that workplace Future Time Perspective is impacted by the organizational commitment one has for their current place of employment. Workers continually assess their degree of alignment with their personal goals, engaging in work that is fulfilling to them more affectively, and thinking about the future of the organization in steward-like fashion if they have a sense of commitment and ownership to that organization. Likewise, that work which is unfulfilling, unrelated to personal motivations, and without opportunity for personal input or stake has a lower chance of engendering organizational commitment and thus, workplace Future Time Perspective. It stands to reason that the more psychological investment that a worker places within their work, the more likely it is that they spend time thinking about the future of that organization.

Future research on the degree to which workers within organizations actively "buy in" to the vision or mission statement of an organization and measures of their Future Time Perspective would be of value to the notion that organizational commitment and workplace Future Time Perspective are correlated. Testing of a variety of hypotheses surrounding organizational commitment and Future Time Perspective would benefit those proponents of workplace vision and mission statements.

Postulation #8: Future Time Perspective is influenced by an individual's attributional style and personal locus of control.

Another postulation that the researcher makes as a result of inferences made from the analysis of data from the present study is that individual Future Time Perspective is impacted by the attributional style and locus of control of each person. Interviewees reported a need to explain conflicts and failures in terms of opportunities and survival in order to maintain their preferred sense of the future.

This notion that the degree of optimism or pessimism with which an individual attributes their notion of the future is supported by Seligman (1991). Future research on the way in which attributional style affects Future Time Perspective would be a welcome contribution to the understanding of how notions of the future are impacted by personality traits and cognitive explanatory statements.

Postulation #9: Future Time Perspective is affected by the nature of and degree of workplace goals imposed upon the individual.

Work environments that require an active mental attention upon work that is chronologically distant increases workplace Future Time Perspective, whether because of the complexity, priority, or nature of the work. Requiring someone to think about the future through a variety of motivational mechanisms naturally increases the likelihood that a person will participate and prepare for future events.

Future research related to this postulation might examine both the incidence of future related work activities (e.g. goal setting, planning, conversation) and the chronological distance that comprises the natural temporal boundary for that particular task environment. Studies into the temporal horizons for jobs within an organization might be revealing as to the development of different work rhythms even within the same workplace, for example.

Postulation #10: Goal setting is also, in turn, influenced by the Future Time Perspective of the individual (need for goals).

The researcher posits a corollary to the idea that workplace Future Time Perspective is influenced by the degree of goal setting within the organization: that goal setting and work place activities are also influenced by the Future Time Perspectives of the individuals working within the organization. Some individuals interviewed for the present study, for example, expressed a high degree of motivation to have goals and an ambitious future to pursue, while others were more content to live day by day and expressed a desire to shy from thinking about the future "too much". Some people have a natural proclivity to think about the future more or less than others. Those with little to do but a high need to set goals will likely find something to do, while those with more to do than they feel is comfortable will likely find less to do!

Future research on the effects of Future Time Perspective upon goal setting would further enhance the theoretical model of the impact that the future has on workplace motivation, presented here. Such research has been called for by

others (Seijts, 1998) and also seemingly benefits the theories in career role research (Super, 1993; Dawis, Dohm, & Jackson, 1993).

Postulation #11: Career and Life Scripts are largely influenced by the degree and way in which an individual has a healthy, integrated Future Time Perspective that pervades the varied and multiple roles within their life.

Lastly, the researcher posits that in order for a person to have a well balanced and integrated set of life roles (Super, 1993) their Future Time Perspective must actively correspond with the changes occurring within the environments within which those life roles are engaged. Because of the speed and complexity of changes that occur within life role environments in the 21st Century, a healthy Future Time Perspective is posited as a required mechanism to keep a person in synch with the environment. Fitness between the person and a given milieu may exist within a particular moment in time, each person making assessments in order to find their place and develop in ways that they prefer. But as change in the way in which environments function, appear, develop, sustain, and transact their situations, people must learn to adapt. Adaptation is rarely a performance done all at once. People need to learn to anticipate the future, to see change coming, to try out variations of behavior and ideas so as to find new niches within evolving situations. Future Time Perspective is the mechanism by which people develop new meanings and define new roles and responsibilities within these new settings.

Future research in the arena of Future Time Perspective and the degree to which it impacts a person's degree of balance in maintaining life roles and

meaning may more directly investigate the impact of change as it influences measures of Future Time Perspective and qualitative investigation of the synthesis of life roles. Validating the notion that while Future Time Perspective may indeed be a relatively stable disposition it is nevertheless influenced considerably by environmental factors would be a beginning.

Implications for Practitioners. Anyone working to accomplish or produce something relatively complex, something chronologically distant, something requiring collaborative effort, or something that is personally meaningful and transformational might be a satisfied consumer of this study. The future is continually transforming itself and we, in turn, must adapt within it. In particular, leaders, career counselors, and committed followers within business, education, and government organizations may be able to use a number of ideas implied through the presentation of this research. Organizations that understand the motivational profile of their employees, students, or clients have a range of tools with which to ply them to perform their tasks. Knowing the degree to which and the way in which an individual is concerned about the future within the workplace can assist managers to create conditions that are conducive to goal setting, strategic planning, and productive practices. By linking the motivations of workers to desired outcomes within the workplace, the idea goes, the worker will be happier and the organization will be more productive. Even beyond that, understanding how the future itself acts as a motivator, organizations can align their own futures with those of their employees. Thus, is the power of vision.

Noting the rhythms of production, goal setting, and deadlines within the workplace is another component of understanding the time perspectives that occur within the workplace and the fitness of goals and objectives with which organizations must be aware. If an organization's purpose or a task environment's setting is to produce quick, disconnected parcels, there is a temporal perspective that is engendered along with it. Fast food restaurants, emergency units, cashiers, bartenders, and some salespeople, for example, often have such environments. The focus of these jobs is on the here and now, or at best short time frames, such as a matter of days. An understanding of the preferences that people have through their temporal perspectives may lead some to excel with such jobs, and others to eventually reject them. Likewise, jobs that require a much longer Future Time Perspective: insurance salespeople, economic developers, researchers, or politicians might be better suited to their work if it was known that they had the temporal preference to do work that takes thinking about longer periods of time.

Finally, individuals seeking to invent their personal futures may find this research and the theory presented to be useful in cultivating their own future consciousness. Such individuals may glean from this work ways to better align their personal and career roles, use their work as an instrument to create the future, find a mission that they can commit to, seek strategies to relieve Time Pressure within their task environment and between their life roles, pay attention to their work rhythms, and focus on setting goals that push the temporal boundaries that they find themselves constrained within. As Alan Kay of the Palo Alto Research Center has been credited with saying, "the best way to predict the

future is to invent it" (1971), having the wherewithal to think about what may be required in the future seems to be implicit in this statement. Using Future Time Perspective is likely the only way to get there.

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Appendix A

Introductory Letter

Ms. Jane Pepper
14 Cloud Avenue.
Two-Dot, MT 55555

Dr. John C. Lundt
Dept. of Educational Leadership and Counseling
The University of Montana
Missoula, MT 59812

Dear Ms. Pepper,

Thank you for accepting to take part in Mr. Jonathon Richter's doctoral dissertation study regarding the role of the future in workplace motivation. This is a critical piece in his fulfillment of the requirements of the doctoral degree at The University of Montana and a potentially significant contribution to the profession of educational leadership.

I understand the commitment you have made in terms of allowing Mr. Richter to conduct this investigation by interviewing you in your place of employment. I would like to thank you on behalf of The Department of Educational Leadership and Counseling, and Mr. Richter, for volunteering for this important work.

With your approval, the interviews will take place at your place of employment at a time that is convenient for you. Please have this approved by your supervisor, if appropriate. Additional copies of this letter and supporting documentation are available if he/she requests more information regarding the nature and scope of this investigation. The time to complete the interviews will be open-ended, but are estimated to require between 1 to 3 hours in length. Follow up interviews will be much shorter and done over the telephone.

The Institutional Review Board at The University of Montana has approved this study with the full agreement that your statements and identity shall remain anonymous beyond the scope of the dissertation committee that will review Mr. Richter's findings. Please be confident that this will carried out in a professional and discrete manner.

You are invited to request a copy of a summary of this investigation through Mr. Richter upon its completion.

My sincere regards,

Dr. John C. Lundt, dissertation co-chair

Appendix B

Interview Protocol

Interview Questions

Each of the interview questions is directly related to the Grand Tour Question or one of the sub-questions.

1. How are your perceptions of the future and your work motivation related?
2. Does the way you think about the future affect your work performance?
3. How effective are you at reaching your personal goals through your work?
4. How have your thoughts about the future affected your personal work habits?
5. In what ways, if any, are your own future and the future of this organization related to one another?
6. What motivates you to do your job?
7. How far into the future do you have to think in order to be successful in your job?
8. How often do you think about the future?
9. Do you think about your future when you are here at work?
   a. In what way?
   b. How often?
10. How do your thoughts about the future affect your priorities on the job?
11. Is there anything in the distant future that motivates you?
12. How do you set your personal goals?
13. Do you have any personal goals or plans that motivate you in your work?
14. What strategies do you use to work toward your personal goals?
15. In what ways can you personally influence the future of this organization?
    a. Do you?
16. Why do you work here?
17. What kinds of things do you encounter here that motivate you to do a better job or to do more than might be expected of you?
18. What kinds of things make you think about the future while you are working?
19. How are goals set for you and your co-workers in this organization?
    a. Do you find this helpful/effective?
20. When you think about the future of this organization, what comes to mind?
21. Do you use a calendar or a journal to plan for events, projects, or work-related activities?
22. In your job, how far into the future do you actively set goals and work toward them?
23. How does this organization assist you to attain your personal goals?
24. Does the vision or mission of this organization have an affect upon your own future?
25. How do people in this organization motivate you to do your job?
26. What barriers do you perceive that this organization presents that keeps you from attaining the future that you prefer?

Appendix C

Field Memo

Future Time Perspective

Interview Notes

Responses and Observations	Reflections