

# Effects of Social Identity, Network Connectivity, and Prior Performance on Career Progression and Resilience: A Study of NCAA Basketball Coaches

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BOSTON COLLEGE  
Carroll School of Management

Department of Organization Studies

EFFECTS OF SOCIAL IDENTITY, NETWORK CONNECTIVITY, AND PRIOR  
PERFORMANCE ON CAREER PROGRESSION AND RESILIENCE: A STUDY OF  
NCAA BASKETBALL COACHES

Dissertation

by

DANIEL HALGIN

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

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Effects of Social Identity, Network Connectivity, and Prior Performance on  
Career Progression and Resilience: A Study of NCAA Basketball Coaches

By Daniel Halgin

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**ABSTRACT**

This study was an investigation of the effects of social identity on career progression and career resilience. Particular attention was given to the predictive impact of social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping. Using NCAA basketball coaches as an empirical setting, quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted to predict the status of next employer for job seekers who voluntarily changed jobs ( $n = 282$ ), and the employability resilience of job seekers who were fired ( $n = 151$ ). Job seekers with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping (in this empirical setting, defined as membership in a coaching family or coaching tree) were hired for positions with employers of higher status, and exhibited greater employability resilience than was the case for job seekers without such a social identity. Because membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping signals concise information about the social identity of an individual above and beyond prior performance, network connectivity and status affiliations, it is theorized that individuals with such a social identity are more easily understood, more predictable, and are therefore more valuable in the labor market. Additional career benefits are accrued by individuals who claim their ascribed identity, and by individuals who have social identities characterized as relational actors. Recommendations for future research on social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping are offered.

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## **DEDICATION**

*To my parents, Richard and Lucille Halgin, for their love and support*

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

*When a stranger comes into our presence, then, first appearances are likely to enable us to anticipate his category and attributes, and his social identity (Goffman, 1963, p. 25).*

Social identities have been the focus of scholarly study for a half century, as researchers have studied the many ways in which people are perceived and categorized. In this dissertation I define “social identity” as a social (public) category used by audiences to understand and label entities (e.g., Glynn, 2000; Glynn & Abzug, 2002; Goffman, 1963; Zuckerman, 1999), and a psychological category that is claimed by an individual who is a member of that particular category to define “who I am” (e.g., Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brewer & Gardener, 1996). In the field of organization studies, scholars have been especially interested in social identities, and how such identities influence intergroup relations, conflict, and socialization processes (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Limited research, however, has focused on the influence of social identities on career progression. In this dissertation I study the beneficial impact of social identity on the career progression and employability resilience of individuals within a professional field. In particular, I focus on the social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping.

Although individuals within the same profession usually share the same professional identity derived from their membership in the professional category, a finer grained look at a professional category often reveals the existence of identifiable professional sub-groupings that are formed around exemplar individuals of each sub-grouping. Examples of identifiable professional sub-groupings include executives

affiliated with Jack Welch who have been labeled “Graduates of Welch U,” consultants affiliated with William Bain who have been labeled “Bainies for Life,” and engineers in the early semi-conductor industry affiliated with Sherman Fairchild who were labeled as “Fairchildren.” As will be discussed, these sub-groupings exist to explain within-profession identity divergence and serve to order the profession in meaningful ways for audiences and members.

Considerable evidence supports the fact that individuals derive career benefits associated with the social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping. For example in 2008, 26 CEOs of the 1,187 publicly traded companies with market values of \$2 billion or more had previously worked at General Electric and were labeled as “Graduates of Welch U” (Jones, 2007). In addition to their obtaining subsequent positions with high status employers, several individuals recognized as “Graduates of Welch U” have exhibited employability resilience, namely success in finding desirable new positions after being fired. For example, former GE executive Bob Nardelli was ousted from his CEO position at Home Depot only to be hired within a year as the CEO of Chrysler (Benner, 2007).

In this dissertation I show that the social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping influences (1) an individual’s access to jobs with employers of higher status (i.e., career ladders), and (2) an individual’s employability resilience (i.e., the likelihood of finding employment after being fired), above and beyond the benefits of prior performance and social capital. Drawing on identity theories (e.g., Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Goffman, 1963; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and categorization

theories (e.g., Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Rosch, 1978; Zuckerman, 1999), I argue that social identity warrants careful study in the investigations of career moves. Because an individual acts on his or her social identity, I theorize that an individual's social identity can be used by external audiences to predict how he or she will behave in the future, thus making the individual more valuable during the hiring process. I further theorize that a job seeker will be at an advantage in the hiring process if he or she publicly claims the ascribed social identity. In this research I am limiting my focus to the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping.

I investigate social identity through an empirical analysis of two unique career outcomes. First, I investigate career progression through an analysis of individuals who voluntarily change jobs, with attention to the status of their new employer. Second, I investigate employability resilience through an analysis of the subsequent career moves of fired individuals.

My empirical setting includes the career moves of NCAA men's basketball coaches between October 31, 2001 and October 31, 2007. Identifiable professional sub-groupings in the NCAA basketball coaching profession are clusters of coaches who are characterized in various ways, such as "coaching families" and "coaching trees." These identifiable professional sub-groupings serve as social identities that order the field of coaches and are claimed as identities by coaches. Because coaches are easily recognized in terms of their membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings due to media attention, the coaching profession provides an ideal empirical setting for evaluating the effects of social identities on career progression and employability resilience.

This dissertation contributes to the careers literature by affirming the importance of the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping. I show that individuals obtain jobs not only because of their individual characteristics and prior performance, or their ties to important others (social capital), but also because of their social identity. This dissertation also contributes to the literature on identity by affirming the importance of identity claims. I combine sociological and psychological approaches to social identity to show that individuals who claim their ascribed social identity obtain more prestigious jobs and exhibit greater employability resilience than is the case for individuals who do not claim their ascribed social identity. This dissertation also identifies prior performance, social capital, and social identity as important determinants of employability resilience.

This dissertation is structured as follows: In Chapter 2, I introduce social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping, I review existing research pertaining to career progression and employability resilience, and I propose testable hypotheses to determine factors that predict employer status and employability resilience. In Chapter 3, I introduce the population of NCAA basketball coaches as the empirical setting and justify why this is an appropriate population for investigating social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping. In Chapter 4, I present the methodology for testing the hypotheses. The methodology includes social network analysis, as well as negative binomial and ordinal regression models. In Chapter 5, I present results. In Chapter 6, I discuss theoretical contributions emerging from this research, and propose future research directions for investigating social identity.



Appendices A, B, C, and D contain statistical data about variables that elucidate membership criteria in an identifiable professional sub-grouping in NCAA basketball.

Appendix E contains an extended case example highlighting the career benefits of social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping in NCAA basketball.

Appendix F is a glossary with relevant basketball terms.

## CHAPTER 2: THEORY

### **Social Identity and Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings**

According to social identity theory, members of all fields are ordered into social categories that have significance and meaning to members and audiences (e.g., Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). For external audiences, categories provide cognitive clarification regarding individual members of the field. As discussed by sociologist Goffman (1963), social identity is ascribed to an individual by others based on the assumptions of the individual's membership in various social groups, and creates social expectations of how members of a field will behave. For individuals within the field, categories also provide a sense of membership and placement within the field. As discussed by psychologist Tajfel (1973), social identity is "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (p 63).

As explained by Brewer (1991), identity emerges as a reconciliation of conflicting needs for assimilation and differentiation. The contradictory forces involved in social identity construction have been addressed at multiple levels of analysis. At the individual level, Brewer (1991) asserts that individuals satisfy their need for inclusion and sameness through group membership and satisfy their need for difference and distinctiveness through individuality. For example, individuals will emphasize the distinctiveness of aspects of their identities and will perceive these distinctive aspects as central to their identity (Brewer, 1991). Similar phenomena occur at the organizational level. Pedersen

and Dobbin (2006) discuss the contradictions between isomorphism (sameness) and polymorphism (distinctiveness). Glynn (2007) suggests that there are broad boundaries that circumscribe the appropriate elements of identities within social categories (such as banking organizations), but within these categories sub-groupings emerge. The broad boundaries establish sameness, while the within-category sub-groupings serve to distinguish one entity (e.g., individual, company, etc.) from another. Sub-groupings of social identity categories exist to provide a richer sense of the social identity of the entity.

Sub-groupings of social identity categories are evident in many settings such as the characterizations of business schools, cooks, artists, neuroscientists, engineers and countless others. In their research of business school rankings, Elsbach and Kramer (1996) indicate that business schools are defined across several social identity categories. For example, within the high-level identity category, they found sub-groupings of business schools with characteristics such as private public, regional, national, research oriented, small vs. large, quantitatively oriented, etc., which were used to order the field of business schools in a meaningful way. *Business Week* magazine used these characteristics to sort schools into sub-groupings, and representatives from these schools claimed membership in certain sub-groupings to differentiate themselves from others. In other words, memberships in these sub-groupings are social identities, because they are used by audiences to understand and label business schools (e.g., Glynn, 2000; Glynn & Abzug, 2002; Goffman, 1963; Zuckerman, 1999), and are used by business school administrators to claim distinctive and defining aspects of the institution (e.g., Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Sub-groupings of social identity categories at the individual level are also evident among individuals who share the same profession. For example, in an ethnographic study of kitchen workers, Fine (1996) found that cooks draw on occupational rhetoric from business, art, profession, and labor to establish sub-groupings that order the field of cooks in ways that have significance and meaning to fellow cooks and audiences of the kitchen work profession. Cooks are similar in that they share the high-level social identity of being a cook, but differ with regard to the various sub-groupings such as those who consider themselves artists and those who consider themselves business people.

Similarly, professional artists are differentiated by movement groupings such as impressionism, realism, and expressionism; within these movement groupings, there are sub-groupings clustered around focal artists and “schools” to further differentiate artists. For example, among expressionist artists there is a Die Brücke sub-grouping, the Der Blaue Reiter sub-grouping, and Bauhaus sub-grouping (available at [artcyclopedia.com](http://artcyclopedia.com)). Although expressionist artists share the same high-level social identity, they are ordered by audiences and fellow artists within identifiable professional sub-groupings that convey information about differences in style, medium, and other characteristics. These identifiable professional sub-groupings serve as social identities that convey meaning about the different types of individuals within the art profession.

Identifiable professional sub-groupings can be based on a wide range of characteristics. However, not all characteristics convey the same amount of identity content, and therefore not all possible professional sub-groupings are identifiable by audiences and serve as recognized social identities. For example, professional sub-

groupings of artists, based on sales criteria might lack endurance and therefore would not provide consistent order to audiences or consistent meaning to members within the profession (e.g., top selling contemporary artists change over time). Other possible professional sub-groupings, such as the height of a cook, is a characteristic that lacks meaning to audiences and members of the profession, and therefore fails to order cooks in a way that has significance to audiences and members of the cooking profession.

One type of identifiable professional sub-grouping that can be enduring and provide order and meaning is one that is formed around a focal individual who serves as an exemplar for the identity of the sub-grouping within the profession. For example, in the early days of the semiconductor industry, many employees of Fairchild Semiconductor left the organization to start their own companies. Even though they were working at new organizations, these engineers were recognized by media experts as “Fairchildren” (Higgins, 2005), signaling a finer grained sub-grouping of engineers based on their prior work experience with Sherman Fairchild, a well-known entrepreneur, inventor, and founder of Fairchild Semiconductor (<http://library.caltech.edu/sherman/fairchild.htm>, accessed February 3, 2009).

Membership in this identifiable professional sub-grouping (Fairchildren) served as a social identity which provided audiences with clarity about individual members such as their innovative practices and entrepreneurial spirit. A similar phenomenon can be seen in the consulting industry with groupings of Bain consultants who are referred to by media experts as “Bainies for life” throughout their careers (Hanna, 2005), differentiating them from others within the consulting profession. Membership in this identifiable

professional sub-grouping conveys concise information about the individual such as his or her passion, innovative practices, and results-oriented training, which are core elements of the Bain & Company identity which was shaped by founder William Bain (available at [www.joinbain.com](http://www.joinbain.com)).

Other identifiable professional sub-groupings include the collection of former executives of GE who have been referred to as “Graduates of Welch U” by media experts, differentiating them from others and conveying to audiences concise information about the individual such as his or her “Jack Welch style of management” (e.g., a top-down, autocratic command- and-control approach and style which values productivity and quality-control tools such as Six-Sigma (Deutsch, 2007)). There are similar identifiable professional sub-groupings among neuroscientists. Figure 2 highlights the existence of identifiable professional sub-groupings that are formed around focal neuroscientists, and have significance and meaning to this profession (available at [neurotree.org](http://neurotree.org), accessed January 29, 2009). Among neuroscientists, clusters of individuals who share common work experiences with focal individuals are recognized and labeled as members of identifiable professional sub-groupings which provide order to the field. These include the Schacter/Bower Visual System Attention sub-grouping and the Kandel/Nichollis Plasticity Visual System sub-grouping. Each sub-grouping has unique identity content (e.g., type of training, type of focus, values, etc.) and is labeled after an exemplar (e.g., Kandel, Nichollis, Schacter, or Bower). Similar to individuals in the semiconductor and consulting industries, not all neuroscientists are recognized as members of one of the identifiable professional sub-groupings, and not all neuroscientists

with experience working with focal individuals are recognized by audiences as members of such professional sub-groupings. Yet for those who are, this membership serves as a social identity within the profession.

It is important to note that while some identifiable professional sub-groupings might share characteristics of groups (e.g., common goals, division of labor, accepted norms, status relationships), group characteristics such as these are not defining variables of identifiable professional sub-groupings. In all cases, identifiable professional sub-groupings serve to differentiate members of the same profession in ways and dimensions that are meaningful to both members and external audiences.

In this dissertation I investigate the impact of the social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping on career progression. In the remaining section of this chapter I discuss factors, both established and proposed, that influence two distinct career outcomes: (1) the status of a job seeker's new employer, and (2) the employability resilience of job seekers who have been fired. I pay special attention to the role of the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping as a predictor of these two outcomes.

### **Career Progression**

Empirical research on career progression has identified several determinants of salary, promotion rates, hierarchical position within an organization, and employer status. In Table 1, I summarize empirical research relating to career progression published in leading management and sociology journals. Variables predictive of career progression can be delineated between those that capture an individual's traits and accomplishments

and those that capture an individual's relationships with others. Scholars have used the term *human capital* to characterize the importance of an individual's education, work experience, intelligence, and prior success (e.g., Dreher, & Bretz, 1991; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Wayne, Liden, Kraimer & Graf, 1999), and the term *social capital* to capture the importance of an individual's resources derived from relationships with others such as family, coworkers, friends, and high status alters (e.g., Coleman, 1988; Lin, 1982; Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001). While scholars have indicated that work performance (one type of human capital) and social capital variables influence career moves, noticeably absent in the literature on career progression is reference to an individual's social identity. Applied to the career context, this dissertation argues that the social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping is an important determinant of career outcomes above and beyond work performance and social capital.

### **Predicting Employer Status**

Employer status is a socially constructed, inter-subjectively agreed-upon and accepted ranking of an employing organization in a social system (Washington & Zajac, 2005). Employer status generates social esteem, heightened reputation, eliteness, and privileges, which are granted to and enjoyed by high-status employers in a social system (e.g., Washington & Zajac, 2005; Weber, 1978, p. 305). Consider two individuals who are selected to fill equivalent roles at organizations of differing status. Although the two individuals occupy equivalent roles, employer status is an important construct reflecting the career progression of the two individuals, because employers of high status facilitate



an individual's access to financial resources, outstanding colleagues, enhanced reputations, and other important resources (Miller, Glick & Cardinal, 2005).

Recognizing that status is inherently subjective and may take on different meanings for different stakeholders (D'Aveni, 1996), in this dissertation I follow the work of Miller and colleagues (2005) and focus on employer status from the perspective of audiences who are expert observers of a profession (e.g., industry analysts, media experts).

### *Antecedents to Employer Status*

#### *Prior Performance*

A large body of research links an individual's work accomplishments to career progression. For example, Turner's (1960) seminal research on career trajectories identified the contest mobility perspective which contends that career progression is largely a function of how hard individuals work, and the ability, education, and training that they possess. Performance variables such as training experience and work experience have been shown to result in increased compensation, promotions, and status attainment in many settings (e.g., Dreher, & Bretz, 1991; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Wayne, Liden, Kraimer & Graf, 1999). In a study of career mobility, Rosenbaum (1984) found that among individuals at the same job level, those achieving that level earlier in their career were more likely to receive subsequent promotions. This is consistent with the view that successful performance early in an individual's career is used to make decisions about promotions later in one's career (Dreher & Bretz, 1991). Similarly, those who achieve early career accomplishments will

be more likely to obtain employment at organizations of higher status. Thus, consistent with existing literature,

***Hypothesis 1: The prior accomplishments of a job seeker will be positively related to the status of the job seeker's next employer.***

***Hypothesis 1a. The recent performance of a job seeker will be positively related to the status of the job seeker's next employer.***

***Hypothesis 1b: The cumulative performance of a job seeker will be positively related to the status of the job seeker's next employer.***

### ***Social Capital***

Coleman (1988) defined social capital as any aspect of social structure that creates value and facilitates the actions of an individual within that social structure. The central proposition of social capital theory is that networks of relationships constitute a valuable resource for the conduct of social affairs, providing individuals with "collectivity-owned capital, a 'credential' which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 249).

Research has long linked social capital variables to career progression. For example, Turner's seminal work (1960) identified the sponsored mobility perspective, suggesting that an individual's career progression is largely a function of having relationships with prominent individuals who can help the individual. In an analysis of 448 employees in a range of industries and occupations, Seibert and colleagues (2001) found that an employee's relationships influenced an individual's career success through access to information, access to resources, and career sponsorship. Citing the influential

work of other research, Seibert suggests that information and resources are fundamental bases of social power (French & Raven, 1968), which increase the individual's organizational reputation (Kilduff & Krackhardt, 1994), and therefore make the individual better able to secure valuable organizational rewards independent of his or her actual level of performance (Ferris & Judge, 1991).

***Structural Social Capital.*** The structural dimension of social capital is defined as the overall pattern of connections between actors -- that is, who one reaches and how one reaches them (e.g., Burt, 1992). Structural network concepts, such as brokerage and strength of ties, create and maintain an individual's access to instrumental resources such as novel information, social support, financial support, and career sponsorship through relationships with others (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1974; Lin, 1982; Montgomery, 1992; Seibert, Kraimer, Liden, 2001; Wegener, 1991)<sup>1</sup>.

Borgatti and Everett (2006), in a review of influential research on network centrality (one measure of social capital), indicate that central players in social networks have greater influence (Galaskiewicz, 1979; Laumann & Pappi, 1973; Laumann & Marsden, 1977), power (Burt, 1982), advantage in exchange networks (Marsden, 1982), and competence in formal organizations (Blau, 1963).

In career settings, network ties have been shown to be strong predictors of job search success (Granovetter, 1974). Scholars have also indicated that job opportunities increase with increases in network size, and that a job seeker with relationships with a

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<sup>1</sup> A large body of literature addresses the importance of network ties in the job search process; however, research on the process of finding employment is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

large number of others is in a more advantageous position than someone less connected (Montgomery, 1992; Podolny & Baron, 1997). Thus, consistent with existing literature,

***Hypothesis 2a: The greater the connectivity of a job seeker, the greater will be the status of the job seeker's next employer.***

***Relational Social Capital.*** Scholars have also discussed relational dimensions of social capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1997) such as the assets and resources created and leveraged through relationships (e.g., Lin, Ensel & Vaughn, 1981). Social Resources Theory (Lin, 1981) suggests that individuals can access resources (e.g., developmental advice, letters of recommendation, etc.) needed to obtain career objectives through their relationships with others who have high occupational prestige. Seibert and colleagues (2001) found that employees with contacts at higher levels of the organization received higher salaries, and had greater numbers of promotions due to access to resources, and career sponsorship from high-status connections.

Scholars have also proposed that indirect benefits can be derived by affiliation with high-status entities (i.e., individuals, groups, organizations) which can influence career progression by affecting how a job seeker's potential quality is perceived by external audiences. Miller and colleagues (2005) use the example of a graduate student who benefits on the job market simply by being recognized as the student of an eminent scholar. This suggests that audiences interpret a job seeker's active sponsorship by a high-status mentor or organization as a signal of quality which overrides evidence of actual quality (Cable & Murray, 1999).

Researchers have investigated the benefits of affiliations with high-status entities (i.e., individuals, groups, and organizations) in the underwriting business (Gulati & Higgins, 2003), investment banks (Podolny, 1994; Jensen, 2006), wineries (Benjamin & Podolny, 1999), semiconductor firms (Podolny & Stuart, 1995), and even basketball teams (Washington & Zajac, 2005). Podolny (2001) indicated that a market relationship between actor A and actor B is relevant as a conduit of resources between A and B, **and** is relevant because the market relationship affects a third actor's perceptions of the relative quality of the product services that A and B offer in the market. If actor A has a visible exchange relationship with a high-status actor, A accrues perceptual benefits from the relationship due to reduced uncertainty in the eyes of audiences. For example, the research of Podolny and Morton (1999) on British shipping cartels addressed the importance of social status affiliations on predatory behavior directed at new entrants. They found that an individual "from a prominent family who founded the University X, or a Knight, or a Member of Parliament" (p. 55) was less likely than a low-status individual to be preyed upon in price wars. They proposed that this was because shipping cartels used social status to make inferences about the quality and likely level of cooperativeness of the entrant owner. Kilduff and Krackhardt (1994) further identified how an individual who is perceived as having ties to high-status actors is credited with the ability to influence higher-status persons, and therefore gains important advantages in the market for power and influence. Thus, due to the aforementioned arguments, consistent with existing literature,

***Hypothesis 2b: The greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater will be the status of the job seeker's next employer.***

### ***Social Identity***

***Ascribed Social Identity.*** Individuals are classified into various social categories such as organizational membership, religious affiliation, gender, and age cohort (Ashforth & Mael 1989, Tajfel & Turner, 1985). These categorizations (both of the self and others) are social identities that help order the environment into cognitive segments that provide an individual with a systematic means of defining self and others and making sense of behaviors in a cognitively efficient manner (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1997). As discussed, professions are ordered into identifiable professional sub-groupings that serve as social identities for individuals within the profession. These social identities are ascribed by audiences to understand and label entities, and are claimed by members to define “who I am.”

Work on social identity by sociologists has emphasized the importance of categorization in labor markets. For example, Zuckerman and colleagues (2003) proposed that an individual's prior work experiences are signals of an individual's identity which influence subsequent work opportunities. In their analysis of typecasting in the film industry, Zuckerman and colleagues found that an actor's fit with established categories (i.e., film genres) is beneficial because it facilitates audience valuation. Individuals who fail to fit within existing categories are penalized due to the difficulties of assessment because they do not have recognizable social identities.

Scholars have also indicated that audiences find it easier to isolate and value a particular phenomenon from the rest of the social world when they have access to a label (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1997; Hsu & Hannan, 2005). Goodwin (1994) discusses the process in which individuals use various coding schemes and well-established labels to organize the perception of a phenomenon within the discourse of a profession. He uses the example of the Munsell color chart, a tool used by archaeologists for color descriptions, which has influenced the perception of archaeologists through the creation of labels for different categories of soil. Category labels also increase the availability of the category to audience members by indicating that the category is meaningful. For example, the recognized label “Fairchildren” signaled the existence and importance of an identifiable professional sub-grouping within the semi-conductor industry that served as a social identity. Namely, individuals who are members of identifiable professional sub-groupings benefit due to the public recognition of the social identity of being a member. However, in addition to ordering a field in ways that have importance, social identities importantly provide audiences with information about the identity of category members.

An individual’s social identity signals clear and concise information to audiences about his or her character, values, work ethic, relationships with others, etc. This type of information is not apparent from looking only at the individual’s fit with established categories, prior performance, network connectivity, or relationships with high status alters. By applying the identity content of the social category to the individual, audiences reach expectations of the behavior of the individual and reach expectations of how to best relate with the individual. For example, Read (1983) found that in social situations

subjects learning about members of a foreign culture rely on the similarity of newly encountered members to members previously encountered when making predictions about their behavior; as environmental complexities increase, subjects are increasingly likely to use a similar prior instance with a member to predict future behavior. Cantor and Mischel (1979) capture this process by stating that “applying our categories about other people often allows us to feel an almost instant general understanding of someone we hardly know.”

Consider how a job seeker’s social identity as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping may influence career opportunities. Audiences first apply the sub-grouping label to individual members, making them more easily comparable to others. As discussed by Zuckerman (2003) in his analysis of the labor market for Hollywood actors, audiences compare and evaluate job seekers in terms of legitimate categories. Identifiable professional sub-groupings serve as legitimate categories to order the profession and serve as social identities. Job seekers without this form of social identity may not be readily compared to others by audiences, and therefore stand outside the field of comparison, just as oranges in a competition among apples (Zuckerman, 1999; Zuckerman, Kim, Ukanwa, & von Rittman, 2003). From the perspective of the audience, rather than scrutinizing the full menu of alternatives, the audience limits its attention to a discrete consideration set of like individuals (Zuckerman, 1999; Zuckerman, 2004).

After audiences apply the sub-grouping label to individual members, audiences then attribute the identity content of the professional sub-grouping to individuals with the



ascribed social identity of membership. For example, a job seeker with the social identity of being a “Graduate of Welch U” is likely understood in terms of the identity content of the professional sub-grouping; this individual is perceived to possess and value the identity content of the professional sub-grouping and behave in a way consistent with the recognized GE management style (e.g., a top-down, autocratic command- and-control approach and style that values productivity and quality-control tools such as Six-Sigma (Deutsch, 2007)). This categorization makes the job seeker more easily understood, and therefore audiences have clearer expectations of how the job seeker will behave. Thus, this job seeker is more valuable than a job seeker who is not a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping.

In summary, controlling for prior performance, network connectivity, and status affiliations, job seekers with an ascribed social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will have access to jobs at organizations of higher status because: (1) the label of the social identity of membership in the professional sub-grouping is applied to the individual, making him or her more easily classifiable during the valuation process; and (2) the identity content of the social identity of membership in the professional sub-grouping is applied to the individual, making him or her better understood and more predictable by audiences than is the case for a job seeker who is not a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping. This social identity provides audiences with clarity and valuable information about the job seeker which is not available from looking purely at the job seeker’s prior performance, network connectivity, or status affiliations. Thus,

***Hypothesis 3: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will receive a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker not recognized as a member of any professional sub-group.***

***Claimed Identity.*** Having an ascribed social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping is beneficial in itself, but it is especially important when a job seeker claims such categorization as part of his or her individual identity. Although most sociological work on social identity discusses the audience's placement of an actor in a category rather than the actor's announcement of membership (Stone, 1962; Zuckerman et al., 2003), the claiming process is especially important because an individual who interprets himself or herself in terms of the social identity will likely hold a set of cognitive beliefs associated with the professional sub-grouping, such as stereotypical traits thought to be shared by category members or ideological positions that define the category's goals (Ashmore, Deaux, & Mclaughlin-Volpe, 2004). The claiming of the social identity allows the individual to locate or define himself or herself in the social environment, thereby providing a partial answer to the question, "Who am I?" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Turner, 1999), and signals to external audiences that the individual's identity is congruent with the recognized characteristics and identity of the professional sub-grouping.

In career settings, the mutual agreement of the job seeker's externally ascribed social identity and his or her claimed identity will positively influence how the job seeker is perceived by external audiences. By claiming the identity, the individual signals that

he or she acknowledges the social identity, and is also likely to act on it; this helps external audiences better understand the individual and better predict his or her future behavior, and helps individuals act in a manner consistent with their social identity. In other words, when an actor's projected identity is symmetrical and congruent with an audience's understanding of the individual's identity, predictability-based trust among stakeholders is engendered (Barney & Hansen, 1994; Whetten & Mackey, 2002). A job seeker who claims his or her ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping is more valuable than a job seeker who does not claim such an identity, because he or she is more likely to act on the identity and is therefore better understood by external audiences. Thus,

***Hypothesis 4: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claims such an identity will receive a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who does not claim such an identity.***

***Social Identity Characterization.*** The specific labels used to identify social identities provide clues to what the identity means for individuals, and are not arbitrarily assigned. Glynn and Abzug (2002) indicate that the act of naming introduces meaning in an effort to make the identity of an organization (or sub-grouping) understandable, interpretable, and desirable to target audiences. For example, the names of some identifiable professional sub-groupings discussed earlier in this dissertation, such as the Fairchildren, and Graduates of Welch U, might convey rich meaning. The "Fairchildren"

terminology might evoke a connotation of family and development. The “Welch U” terminology might signal education and socialization that point to a learned competence. These labels indicate that the identifiable professional sub-groupings are characterized as relational actors, in that external audiences likely understand what it means to be family, or an alumnus, and therefore audiences might better understand how to interact with such entities. Glynn and Wrobel (2007) suggest that individuals leverage their understanding of family relationships or what it means to be a parent, a brother, an aunt, or a relative, to better understand what it means to be a member of an organization labeled as a family; outsiders then make inferences about such characterizations to better understand an organization’s offerings. For example, the name “Fairchildren” suggests that external audiences can relate to individuals with this social identity much like they would relate to a family member. A similar phenomenon might occur with individuals who have the social identity of being Graduates of Welch U. External audiences might be able to leverage their understanding of what it means to be an alum to better understand how to interact with such an individual.

In contrast to the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping labeled and characterized as a relational actor, there are social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings labeled and characterized as non-relational entities, which are more difficult for audiences to understand and relate to. For example, the label “Bainie” might not clearly signal that the social identity of the sub-grouping is a relational actor with which audiences can relate. Whereas audiences are able to leverage their understanding of social relations with family members and alums to

understand individuals with social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings characterized as relational actors, non-relational entities do not provide such clues. Therefore, individuals with social identities of being members of identifiable professional sub-groupings cast as relational actors are better understood than are individuals with social identities as members of identifiable professional sub-groupings cast as non-relational. Thus,

***Hypothesis 5: Among individuals in a certain profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will obtain a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor.***

In summary, I propose that prior performance, social capital, and social identity variables predict the level of employer status for a job seeker who accepts a new position. Consistent with the careers literature on prior performance and social capital, I propose that a job seeker's prior performance (both recent and cumulative) (H1a and H1b), connectivity (H2a), and status affiliations (H2b) predict the status of his or her next employer. In an extension of the careers literature, I propose that individuals with the ascribed social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will obtain positions with an employer of higher status than will be the case for individuals without such a social identity, controlling for prior performance, connectivity, and status affiliations (H3). In an extension of the identity literature, I propose that among individuals with the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable

professional sub-grouping, individuals who claim such identity will obtain positions with an employer of higher status than will be the case for those who do not (H4). Those acknowledged as having the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will obtain positions with employers of higher status than will be the case for individuals with the social identity of being a member in an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor (H5). See Figure 3 for a summary of hypothesized relationships.

### ***Predicting Employability Resilience.***

Resilience is defined as the maintenance of positive adjustment under challenging conditions (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). While there has been extensive research investigating the psychological response to being fired (Latack & Dozier, 1986; Mckee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg & Kinicki, 2005), there has been limited research investigating the subsequent employability of fired individuals. This is an especially interesting context for investigating social identities in careers because being fired creates a stigmatized identity. In addition, the construct of employability resilience is relatively underdeveloped theoretically. In this dissertation I investigate the subsequent employment moves of fired individuals to determine their job seeking outcomes after being fired. I investigate whether fired individuals: (1) fail to obtain employment in the same industry after being fired, (2) obtain employment in a position of less responsibility than the position that they held before being fired, or (3) obtain employment in a position of equal responsibility to the position that they held before being fired.

In the only relevant empirical study accessed, Ward, Sonnenfeld, and Kimberly (1995) investigated the subsequent career moves of 60 CEOs (of *Business Week*-1000 corporations) who were fired between 1988 and 1992. Their findings indicated that the identified reason for the firing and the age of the CEOs at the time of firing influenced the subsequent moves of the fired CEOs (e.g., whether they obtained a subsequent managerial position, whether they obtained a position on a board of directors, or whether they failed to obtain any type of position). Ward and colleagues hypothesized that the identified reason for the firing likely influenced the desirability of the ousted CEO, and therefore influenced his or her subsequent employment opportunities.

In this dissertation I argue that a recently fired individual has a stigmatized identity in the eyes of external audiences. As discussed by Goffman (1963), unemployment can be viewed as a blemish of individual character perceived as weak will, domineering or unnatural passions, treacherous and rigid beliefs, and dishonesty. Thus, this discrediting experience stigmatizes the individual and influences his or her subsequent career opportunities. I argue that the stigma can be mitigated by prior performance, network connectivity, status affiliations, and having the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping.

### ***Antecedents to Employability Resilience***

#### ***Prior Performance***

Considering that a firing creates a stigmatized identity, subsequent employability is likely influenced by prior performance. As discussed, human capital variables such as intelligence, motivation, education, training experiences, and work experiences have been

shown to result in increased compensation, promotions, and status attainment in many settings (e.g., Dreher, & Bretz, 1991; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Wayne, Liden, Kraimer & Graf, 1999). Work on career progression has also indicated that individuals who experience early performance success are more likely to be promoted than those who do not experience early performance success (Rosbenbaum, 1984). Likewise, following a firing, prior performance is an important factor for determining future performance in that it blunts the stigmatized identity. Even with the stigma of having been fired, an individual with a successful track record is more desirable than an individual who has been fired and lacks a successful track record. In addition to cumulative performance, an individual's recent performance is likely an important determinant of employability resilience. The stigmatized identity of being fired is potentially discredited if the individual has experienced recent success. Thus,

***Hypothesis 6: The prior accomplishments of a job seeker will be positively related to the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired.***

***Hypothesis 6a: The recent performance of a job seeker will be positively related to the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired.***

***Hypothesis 6b: The cumulative performance of a job seeker will be positively related to the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired.***

### ***Social Capital***

***Structural Social Capital.*** As discussed, network connectivity has been shown to be a strong predictor of job search success (Granovetter, 1974; Montgomery, 1992;



Podolny & Baron, 1997). The proposed mechanism of connectivity is access to resources. Resources such as novel information, referrals, and social support are especially important to an individual after being fired. Scholars have also indicated that job opportunities increase with increases in network size, and that a job seeker with relationships with a large number of others is in a more advantageous position than someone less connected (Montgomery, 1992; Podolny & Baron, 1997). Following a firing, an individual is likely dependent on his or her contacts for social support and information needed to obtain subsequent employment. A fired individual with a large number of contacts is in a better situation to obtain employment than is the case for a fired individual without such contacts, due to greater access to resources. Thus,

***Hypothesis 7a: The greater the connectivity of a job seeker who has recently been fired, the greater the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired.***

***Relational Social Capital.*** As previously discussed, scholars have proposed that affiliations with high-status entities (i.e., individuals, groups, organizations) influence job seekers' career progression by affecting how their potential quality is perceived by external audiences (e.g., Lin et al., 1981; Podolny, 2001; Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001). Following a firing, an audience's appraisal of the potential for future success of a job seeker is especially important. Consider two job seekers with identical track records who have both recently been fired. One is affiliated with a high-status individual and the other is not. The stigmatized identity of the job seeker with the high-status affiliation is likely blunted due to this signal of potential quality and legitimacy; therefore, the

individual is more desirable than the job seeker without such an affiliation. Status affiliations are especially important in that they potentially discredit the stigmatized identity of being fired. Thus,

***Hypothesis 7b: The greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired.***

### ***Social Identity***

***Ascribed Identity.*** As discussed, a job seeker's social identity can provide audiences with clarity of information such as values, work ethics, and other identity content. A job seeker's social identity also provides audiences with expectations about the behavior and actions of the job seeker. Such information is especially important when an individual has a stigmatized identity. As discussed by Goffman (1963), "While a stranger is present before us, evidence can arise of his possessing an attribute that makes him different from others in the category of persons available for him to be, and of a less desirable kind... He is thus reduced in our minds from a whole and usual person to a tainted discounted one" (p. 25). In this scenario, a social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping serves to counter the stigmatized identity.

Although an individual is viewed as tainted due to being fired, he or she can also be recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping with positive attributes<sup>2</sup>. Once again, consider two job seekers with equivalent track records who have both recently been fired. In this scenario, one job seeker has the social identity of being a

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<sup>2</sup> This assumes that the identity content of the professional sub-grouping has not been altered by the firing. Statistical analysis appearing later in this dissertation investigates this assumption.

member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping while the other does not. Despite the stigma of having been fired, the job seeker with the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping is perceived as desirable, due to the attributes and identity content of the professional sub-grouping and a clearer understanding of how the individual will behave in the future. In contrast, the job seeker without such a social identity is solely viewed as stigmatized. Thus,

***Hypothesis 8: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for a job seeker not recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping.***

***Claimed Identity.*** As discussed, when an individual is fired he or she has a stigmatized identity. This identity is likely blunted by his or her social identity; however, the identity of having been fired is still stigmatizing. As discussed by Goffman (1963), “In social situations with an individual known or perceived to have a stigma, we are likely, then, to employ categorizations that do not fit, and we and he are likely to experience uneasiness...This uncertainty arises not merely from the stigmatized individual's not knowing which of several categories he will be placed in, but also, where the placement is favorable, from his knowing that in their hearts the others may be defining him in terms of his stigma” (p. 13). Therefore, it is especially important for the individual to discredit his or her stigmatized identity by publicizing and claiming his or her social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping. In other words, the individual signals that he or she acknowledges the identity content of the

sub-grouping, and is also likely to act on it despite having been stigmatized. The act of claiming the social identity likely helps external audiences better understand the individual and better predict his or her future behavior, and helps the fired individual define himself or herself in the social environment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). By publicizing and claiming his or her ascribed social identity, the actor's projected identity becomes symmetrical and congruent with an audience's understanding of the individual's social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping. This congruence blunts the stigmatized identity and engenders trust among stakeholders that the individual will act based on the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping and not the stigmatized identity (Barney & Hansen, 1994; Whetten & Mackey, 2002).

Again, consider two job seekers with equivalent track records who are both recognized for having the same social identity of being members of an identifiable professional sub-grouping and who have both recently been fired. One job seeker publicly claims this social identity, but the other does not. Due to the absence of disconfirming information, the stigmatized identity of the job seeker who does not claim his or her ascribed social identity is likely confirmed. In contrast, the stigmatized identity of the job seeker who claims his or her social identity is blunted and potentially replaced with the identity content of the professional sub-grouping. Thus, the act of claiming this social identity makes the job seeker more valuable and understandable than is the case for the job seeker who does not claim such identity. Thus,

***Hypothesis 9: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claims such identity will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who does not claim such identity.***

***Social Identity Characterization.*** Goffman (1963) discusses the discomfort of interactions between “normals” and stigmatized individuals. He suggests that these mixed social situations make for anxious, unanchored interactions in which normals have difficulty interacting with the stigmatized. In these situations, the label of the professional sub-grouping to which a stigmatized individual belongs is especially important. For example, as noted above, Glynn and Wrobel (2007) suggest that audiences can leverage their understanding of family relationships or what it means to be a parent, a brother, an aunt, or a relative, to better understand how to interact with members of an organization labeled as a “family.” Likewise, audiences can leverage their understanding of social relationships to ease their difficulties in interacting with stigmatized individuals who have social identities labeled as relational actors. When audiences are not able to make sense of a stigmatized individual, they may act as if the individual is a “non-person” to avoid the discomforts of interactions (Goffman, 1963).

Return to the example of two job seekers with equivalent track records, each of whom is recognized for the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping, and each of whom has recently been fired. One job seeker has a social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is labeled and characterized as a relational actor (e.g., family, fraternity, brotherhood, alumni group,

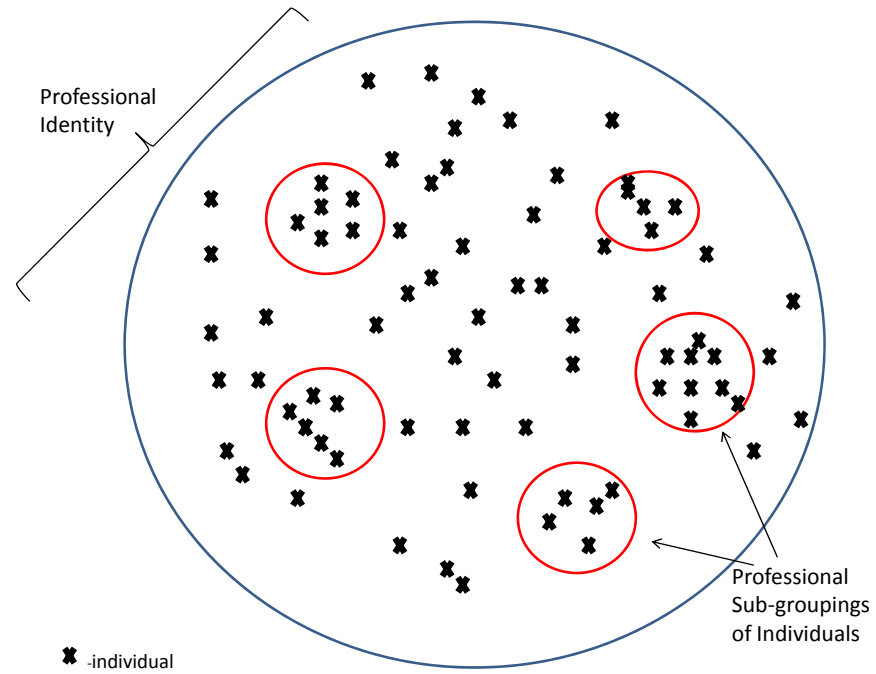
etc.), and the other job seeker has a social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is labeled and characterized as a non-relational actor (e.g., tree, ring, unit, etc.). Audiences will leverage their understandings of how to interact with family, brothers, and alums to guide their interactions with the job seeker who is a member of a sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor. In contrast, audiences will have difficulty leveraging their understandings of how to interact with a tree, ring, and unit in their efforts to make sense of the other job seeker; therefore, the stigmatized identity will become more salient. When stigmatized, individuals with the social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings cast as relational actors are better understood than individuals with the social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings cast as non-relational. Thus,

***Hypothesis 10: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker who is recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will obtain a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor.***

In summary, in an extension of the careers literature on prior performance and social capital, I propose that a job seeker's prior performance (both recent and cumulative) (H6a and H6b), connectivity (H7a), and status affiliations (H7b) predict the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired. In a further extension of the careers literature, I propose that individuals with the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping will more likely obtain

employment after being fired than will be the case for individuals without such an identity, controlling for prior performance, network connectivity, and status affiliations (H8). Among individuals with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping, I propose that individuals who claim such an identity will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for those who do not claim such an identity (H9). Those acknowledged as having the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for those having a social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a non-relational actor (H10). See Figure 4 for a summary of hypothesized relationships.

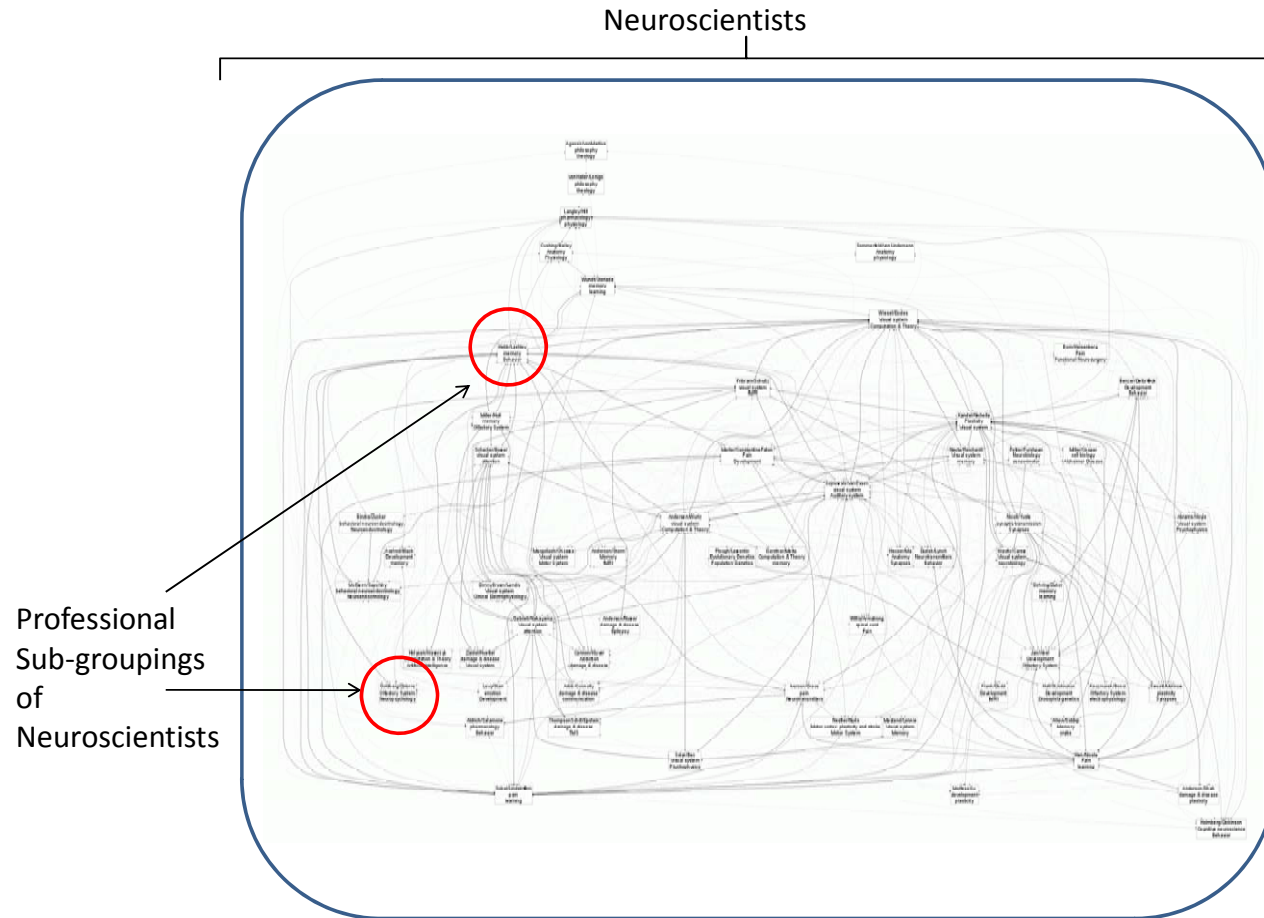
FIGURE 1: Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings as Social Identities in a Profession



Individuals within the same profession share the same professional identity (sameness), but can differ with regard to membership in a sub-grouping (distinctiveness).



**FIGURE 2:** Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings as Social Identities in Neuroscience  
(Available at [neurotree.org](http://neurotree.org))



**TABLE 1: Summary of Studies Examining Career Progression**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Dependent Variable(s)</b>	<b>Main Construct</b>	<b>Independent Variables (individual)</b>	<b>Independent Variables (dyadic/group)</b>	<b>Key Findings</b>
Zuckerman, Kim, Ukanwa, & Rittman (2003)	American Journal of Sociology	Work opportunities	Identity	Work experience, concentration of types of work	Network ties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A simple focused identity is advantageous early in one's career.</li> </ul>
Stovel, Savage, Bearman (1996)	American Journal of Sociology	Changing of definition of career success in early 1900s	Career systems	Demographics		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Societal changes brought about the "achievement career".</li> </ul>
Mahoney & Bechky (2006)	Academy of Management Journal	Acquiring employment (contract workers)	Stretch work	Job performance, education, approaches to developing new skills	Relationships with referral providers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Differentiating competence, acquiring referrals, framing and bluffing, and discounting are tactics used to obtain "stretch work."</li> </ul>
Siebert, Kramer & Liden (2001)	Academy of Management Journal	Promotions, salary	Social Capital	Structural holes, weak ties, access to resources, access to information	Structural holes, weak ties, contacts at higher levels, contacts in other functions, sponsorship,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Network structure is related to social resources.</li> <li>• The effects of social resources on career success are highly mediated by access to information, access to resources, and career sponsorship.</li> </ul>
Tharenou (2001)	Academy of Management Journal	Salary, position, type, span of control, promotions, years supervising others, less time without promotion	Traits	Education level, age, tenure, promotion opportunities, traits,	mentor career support, career encouragement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Human capital and opportunities are the strongest determinants of career success.</li> <li>• Masculinity traits and managerial aspirations are also significant determinants.</li> </ul>

**TABLE 1 (continued)**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Dependent Variable(s)</b>	<b>Main Construct</b>	<b>Independent Variables (individual)</b>	<b>Independent Variables (dyadic/group)</b>	<b>Key Findings</b>
Judiesch & Lyness (1999)	Academy of Management Journal	Salary, promotion, performance rating	Leaves of absence	Age, tenure, education, gender, leaves of absence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Leaves of absence are associated with fewer promotions and smaller salary increases.</li> </ul>
Tharenou, Latimer, & Conroy (1994)	Academy of Management Journal	Position in hierarchy, number of subordinates, salary	Training and gender	Training, self confidence, work experience, home status	Career encouragement, educational encouragement,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Training leads to managerial advancement.</li> <li>Work experience increases opportunities for training.</li> </ul>
Xiao & Tsui (2007)	Administrative Science Quarterly	Career success (pay, bonus evaluations) Job satisfaction	Brokerage and Chinese culture	Prior performance, education, demographics	Structural holes, organization culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The more an organization possesses a clan-like, high commitment culture, the more detrimental are structural holes for career achievements.</li> </ul>
Burt (1997)	Administrative Science Quarterly	Promotions, compensation,	Structural holes	Demographics, education, experience	Social capital measured by network constraint	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Individuals with networks rich in structural holes receive more positive evaluations, promotions, and compensation.</li> </ul>
O'Reilly & Chatman (1994)	Administrative Science Quarterly	Selection, salary, number of promotions	Individual differences	Intelligence, motivation		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High levels of general cognitive ability and motivation lead to career success.</li> </ul>
Podolny & Baron (1997)	American Sociological Review	Job grade advancement	Social capital, Social identity	Demographics, tenure	Network ties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mobility is enhanced by having a large sparse network. Performance is enhanced from a dense closed network.</li> </ul>

**TABLE 1 (continued)**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Dependent Variable(s)</b>	<b>Main Construct</b>	<b>Independent Variables (individual)</b>	<b>Independent Variables (dyadic/group)</b>	<b>Key Findings</b>
Lin, Vaughn, & Ensel (1981)	American Sociological Review	Occupational prestige	Social resource	Family background, education, occupational experiences	Network ties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An ego's weak ties reach higher status alters.</li> <li>• The occupational prestige of an alter is positively related to the prestige of the job secured by ego.</li> </ul>
Konrad & Cannings (1997)	Human Relations	Hierarchical level, number of promotions	Gender	Effort, performance, training, tenure, gender		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demonstrating competence in organizational experiences has more career benefits for women than men.</li> <li>• Work effort is more positively associated with advancement for men than women.</li> </ul>
Judge & Hurst (2007)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Salary, occupational prestige, career satisfaction	Self-evaluations	Education, demographics, health problems, core-self evaluations		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Higher core self-evaluations are associated with both higher initial levels of work success and steeper work success trajectories.</li> <li>• Individuals with high core self-evaluations have more ascendant careers, in part, because they are more apt to pursue further education and maintain better health.</li> </ul>

**TABLE 1 (continued)**

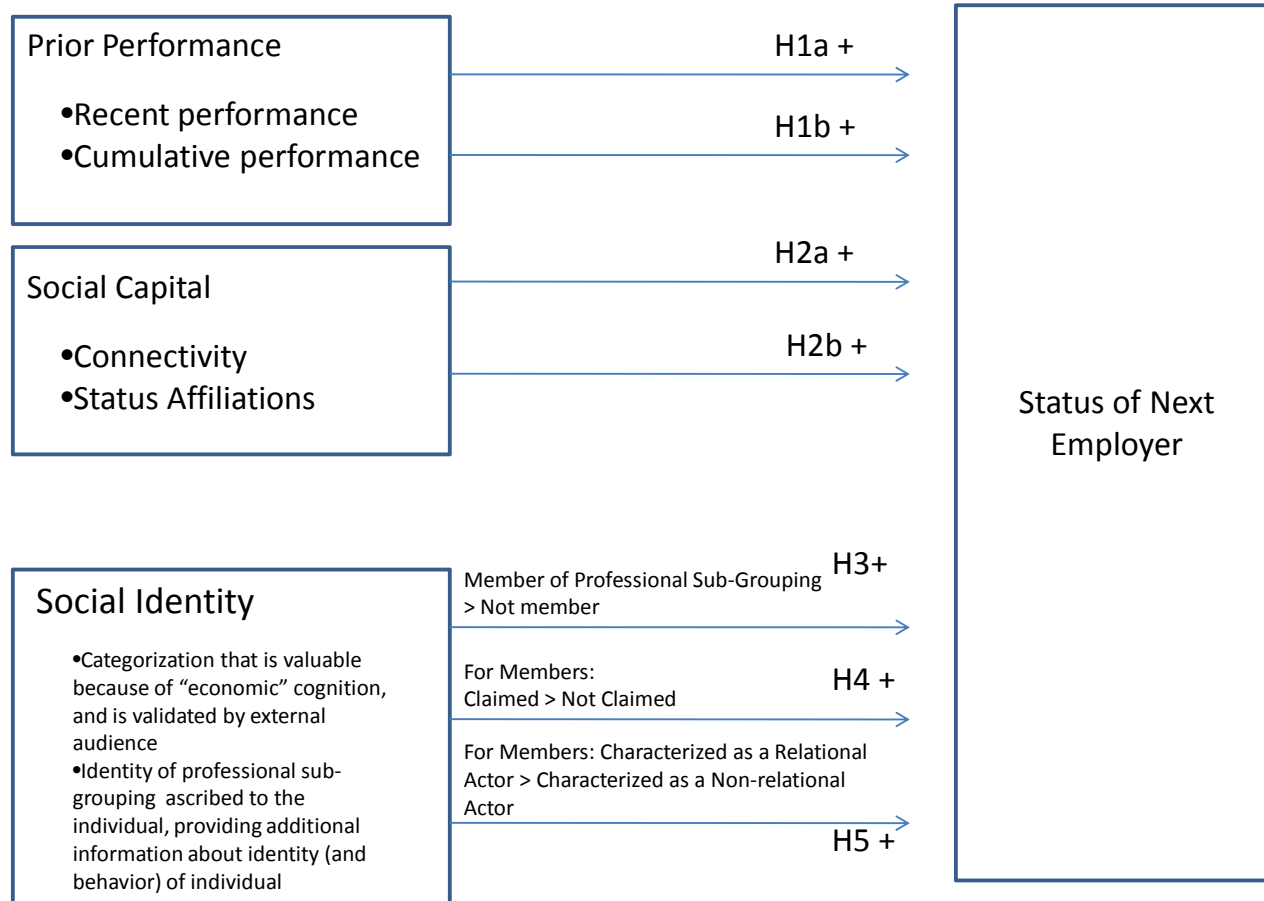
<b>Authors</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Dependent Variable(s)</b>	<b>Main Construct</b>	<b>Independent Variables (individual)</b>	<b>Independent Variables (dyadic/group)</b>	<b>Key Findings</b>
Jansen & Stoop (2001)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Average salary increase	Assessment centers	Thinking, interpersonal effectiveness, firmness, ambition, operational competence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Findings indicate support for their instrument</li> </ul>
Van Scotter, Motowildo, & Cross, (2000)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Rank, medals, promotions (sample was Air Force mechanics), supervisor ratings	Task and Context Performance	Task performance, context performance, job dedication, experience		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Task performance and context performance predict career advancement and careers success.</li> </ul>
Lyness and Thompson (2000)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Level, base salary, bonus, stock options	Gender	Job experience, gender, perceived barriers, developmental experiences	Perceived mentors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>An individual's breadth of experiences and developmental assignments lead to career success.</li> <li>Successful women are less likely than men to report that mentoring facilitated advancement.</li> </ul>
Ragins & Cotton (1999)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Promotion rate, compensation	Mentoring relationships	Tenure, work experiences	History of mentoring relationships, mentor functions, mentor satisfaction,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Protégés of informal mentors received greater compensation than protégés of formal mentors.</li> </ul>
Dreher & Cox (1996)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Total compensation	Gender and mentoring relationship	Age, education, occupation, organization size, socioeconomic background, racioethnic identity,	Mentoring relationships,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>There were no gender-based pay differences.</li> <li>Those with mentoring relationships with white-male mentors had greater compensation than those without mentoring relationships</li> </ul>

**TABLE 1 (continued)**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Dependent Variable(s)</b>	<b>Main Construct</b>	<b>Independent Variables (individual)</b>	<b>Independent Variables (dyadic/group)</b>	<b>Key Findings</b>
Hurley & Sonnenfeld (1998)	Journal of Vocational Behavior	Career level	Organizational Experience	Education, tenure, gender, race, organizational experience		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Human capital and organizational experience contribute to career attainment.</li> <li>• Gender moderates the relationships between experience and career attainment.</li> </ul>
Dreher & Chargois (1998)	Journal of Vocational Behavior	Salary	Mentoring	Age, education, occupation, organization size, socioeconomic background, racioethnic identity,	Mentoring relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Those with mentoring relationships with white-male mentors have greater compensation than those with mentors of other demographic profiles.</li> </ul>
Melamed (1995)	Journal of Vocational Behavior	Salary, managerial level	Gender	Mental ability, education, work experience, personality, career choices, opportunity structure		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women achieve success through merits.</li> <li>• Personality and societal opportunity structure have stronger effects on career success for men.</li> </ul>
Judge, Cable, Boudreau, Bretz (1995)	Personnel Psychology	Salary, rate of promotion	Human Capital	Demographics, motivation, education, tenure, experience		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Education level, quality, prestige and degree type all predict financial success</li> </ul>
Granovetter (1974)	Book	Getting a job	Weak ties		Social network ties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Weak ties are more likely than strong ties to provide an individual with information about job openings.</li> </ul>

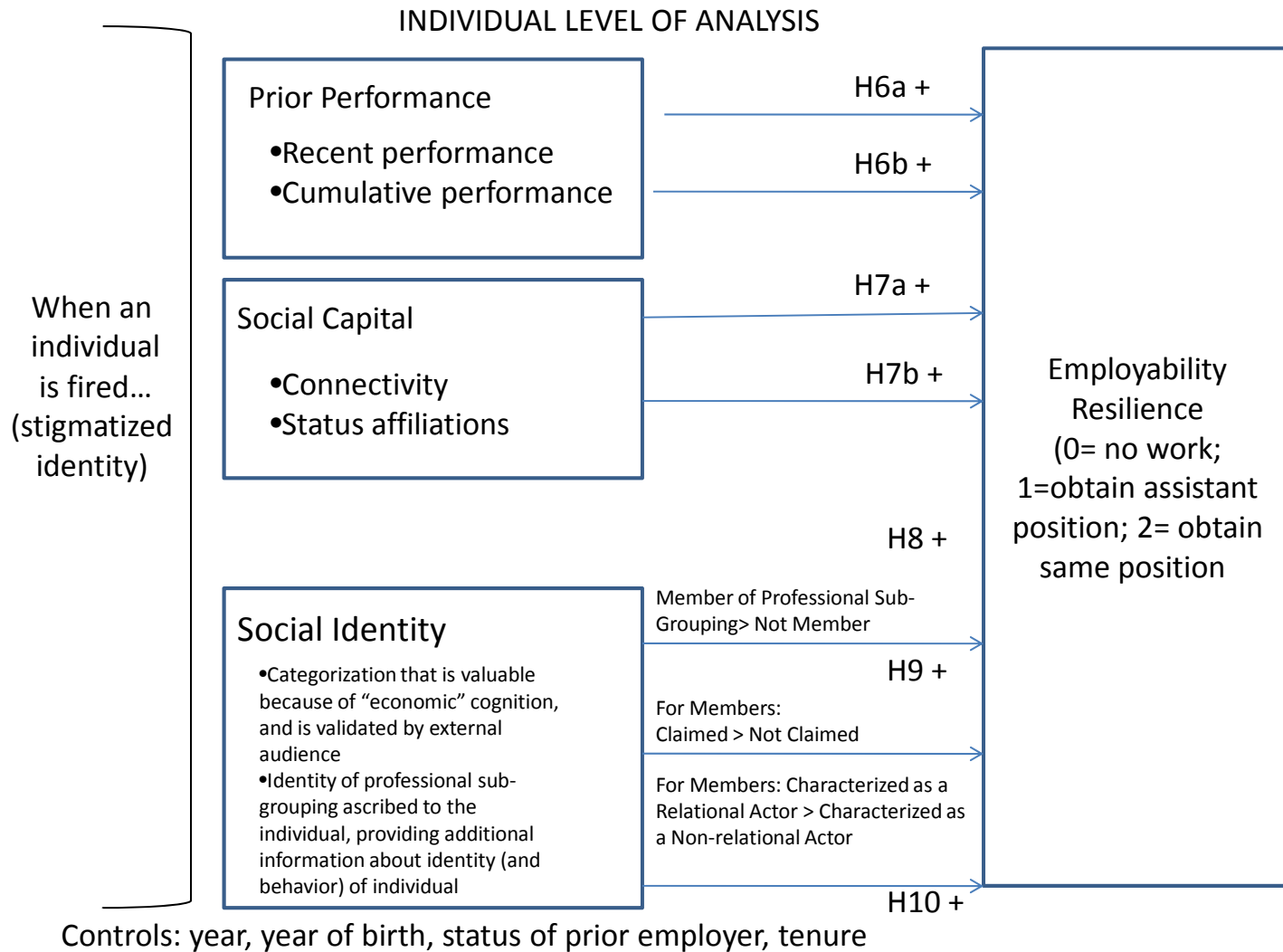
**FIGURE 3:** Hypothesized Predictors of Employer Status

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL OF ANALYSIS



Controls: year, year of birth, status of prior employer, tenure

**FIGURE 4:** Hypothesized Predictors of Employability Resilience





## CHAPTER 3: EMPIRICAL SETTING

Coaches of men's teams in National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) basketball provide an appropriate empirical setting to investigate how social identity affects an individual's career issues such as employer status and employability resilience. The setting is also similar to mediated markets in that organizations (i.e., universities) are looking to hire coaches (job seekers) who appease audiences (media, fans), the ones who ascribe different social identities. Coaches of athletic teams are also similar to managers, in that a coach's leadership and strategic management style are crucial determinants of team success (Fizel & D'Itri, 1999; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986). Using sport as an empirical setting also has a long history in management research as addressed by Wolfe and colleagues (Wolfe, Weick, Usher, Terborg, Poppo, Murrell, Dukerich, Core, Dickson, & Simmons Jourdan, 2005).

### **Hiring Decisions**

*Like it or not, a school's identity is often shaped by its athletic program, and a bad coaching hire, a scandal or an underachieving program can limit the number of talented applicants a school receives (Fish, 2003)*

There are currently 341 colleges and universities within the NCAA which have Division I men's basketball teams. Division I is the highest level of intercollegiate athletics. Each team is coached by one head coach and up to four assistant coaches who work closely throughout the season. Teams play between 20 and 40 competitive games each season (November to April) with the goal of winning as many games as possible, as the success of the basketball program has important effects for the team and the school. For example, after a winning season in 2007, the University of North Carolina Basketball

team coached by Roy Williams posted a 16.9 million dollar profit and was valued<sup>3</sup> at 26 million dollars (Schwartz, 2008). In addition, universities with basketball programs that make the “Sweet 16” (the third round of the NCAA post-season tournament) experience a 3% increase in applications the following year; schools that win the championship experience a 7 - 8% increase (Pope & Pope, 2008), highlighting the importance of successful athletic programs. As a result, there is tremendous pressure for an institution’s athletic department to find and employ a basketball coach capable of recruiting and coaching winning basketball teams. Leading sports commentator Dick Vitale equated NCAA coaches with corporate executives by stating, “Today, if you're a leading coach at a major institution, you're a CEO. You're worth millions to that university” (McCollough, 2008).

Similar to the pressure faced by top executives, the pressure to win in NCAA basketball has created an industry in which the salaries of certain head coaches have skyrocketed. In 2008, Bill Self of the University of Kansas signed a 10-year contract worth 30 million dollars (McCollough, 2008). In addition to compensation from their institutions, successful coaches can earn substantial income from endorsements. For example, Rick Pitino of the University of Louisville earned more than 1.5 million dollars from shoe and apparel endorsements in 2006 (Wieberg & Upton, 2007). Like CEO’s, certain coaches have become the face of their organization.

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<sup>3</sup> The value is based on: (1) the money generated by basketball that goes to the institution for academic purposes, including scholarship payments for basketball players; (2) the net profit generated by the basketball program retained by the department; (3) the distribution of NCAA tournament revenue; and (4) the incremental spending by visitors to the county during the regular season which is attributable to the program.

## **Role of Media Experts**

*There are always going to be people who think that someone else can do a better job.* Coach Don DeVoe (Feinstein, 1988).

The proliferation of sports journalists and information outlets has also resulted in an exponential increase in the public visibility of coaches similar to the visibility of top executives. For example, in 2008 there were 16 monthly magazines devoted solely to basketball ([internationalbasketball.com](http://internationalbasketball.com)), and many other sports magazines that cover basketball news. On television, there is a channel devoted to basketball (NBAtv) as well as several channels that air basketball programs (e.g., ESPN, Fox Sports, CBS, NBC, ABC, etc.). In fact, in 1999, CBS agreed to pay 11 billion dollars to the NCAA for exclusive rights to air the NCAA basketball tournament until the year 2010 (Sandomir, 1999).

The increase in public reliance on media channels to learn about and view NCAA basketball has anointed sportswriters as opinion-leaders or critics who provide guidance to schools looking to hire a new coach or fire an existing coach in ways similar to how “sell-side” analysts provide investment guidance to investors (Zuckerman, 1999). For example, the leading sports website ESPN.com commonly has a panel of experts publicly propose and debate the legitimacy of various candidates for open positions. Sports journalists can also influence whether a coach’s contract will be renewed by influencing public opinion. For example, there are sports websites calling for the firing of coaches, such as [www.fireherbsendek.com](http://www.fireherbsendek.com)<sup>4</sup>, [www.coacheshotseat.com](http://www.coacheshotseat.com), and also frequent articles

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<sup>4</sup> Herb Sendek is the former head coach at NC State University. He is currently the head coach at Arizona State University.

on ESPN regarding coaches who deserve to be fired. Former Tennessee head coach Don DeVoe stated, “Nothing’s guaranteed in coaching. I lost my job once after going 22 - 6. You’re always on the bubble if you are a coach. There are always going to be people who think that someone else can do a better job” (Feinstein, 1988).

### **Coaches as Job Seekers**

*Not even European monarchs can trace their lineage any better than college basketball coaches (The Topeka Journal, March 27, 2002)*

The career trajectory of a coach can be characterized as a boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) in that a coach often switches organizations for promotions. College coaches are seen as individuals making upward moves, with the ultimate goal of a top position within an organization of high status. With rare exceptions, the majority of current NCAA head basketball coaches began their careers as NCAA assistant coaches. The typical trajectory of a coach begins with experience playing basketball or being a student team manager at the undergraduate level, followed by entry into the coaching profession as an assistant. The assistant coach gains experience at various schools where he studies under different head coaches. An assistant coach of a successful team gains national recognition and is eventually offered a head coaching job. If he is successful in the head coaching position, the coach draws the attention of other institutions and, if offered a better position, might leave his current institution for a head coaching job at an institution of high status.

Following the 2007-2008 season, 45 coaches accepted new head coaching positions. While some of the 45 coaches were hired to replace retirees, the majority of the 45 coaching changes were initiated by firings. For example, 151 of the 341

institutions with Division I men's basketball teams fired at least one head coach between the 2001 and 2007 seasons. When a coach is fired, he is sometimes replaced by an assistant coach at that university, but is usually replaced by a coach from another institution. For example, when Coach Tim Welsh was fired from Providence College, he was replaced by Keno Davis, the former head coach at Drake University, who was replaced by Mark Phelps, a former assistant coach at Arizona State, who was replaced by Lamont Smith, a former assistant coach at Santa Clara University, who was then replaced by Dustin Kearns, a former graduate assistant at Santa Clara. Similar processes are repeated across the profession and occur every year. This annual flurry of coaching changes is termed the "coaching carousel" by sports journalists and basketball enthusiasts (e.g., Rankin, 2007).

### **Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings in NCAA Basketball**

*"We are part of the same family so it's not a co-worker relationship. It's in our blood."* Steve Wojciechowski, Duke Assistant Coach (and member of the Coach K Family) (quotation reported by Beard, 2008)

In the profession of basketball coaching, the media have recognized 16 professional sub-groupings that were active at the start of the 21<sup>st</sup> century<sup>5</sup>. All 16 of these sub-groupings have been referred to by media experts as "coaching trees" reflecting a lineage dating back to a legendary exemplar coach. Examples of coaching trees include the affiliations of coaches who have worked or played for legendary coaches Bobby Knight, Lute Olson, and Gary Williams. Journalist Greg Doyel (2004) asks, "Who's the most fertile" coach? Doyel and other journalists compare these sub-groupings in terms of

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<sup>5</sup> Based on a search of articles in the Dow Jones Factiva Database in years 2001-2007.

the coaching success of members of each sub-grouping (Doyel, 2004; Katz, 2000; Weis, 2007). Among the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings, six have also been characterized by media experts as “coaching families,” reflecting an even closer affiliation, likened to the relationships among blood relatives<sup>6</sup>. Examples of coaching families include the groupings of coaches with ties (as either former colleagues or former players) to legendary coaches Dean Smith (the Tar Heel Family), Tom Izzo (the Spartan Family), Rick Pitino (the Pitino Family), and Pete Carill (the Princeton Family). Journalist Joe Perry (2004) refers to the Tar Heel Family as “a living breathing entity linking the past to the present.” Although there are several remarkable coaching legacies, and all coaches have some affiliation to other coaches, it should be noted that the majority of coaches are not recognized as members of coaching trees by the media. A statistical analysis (in Appendix A) indicated that former colleagues and coaches who are structurally equivalent in the coworker network (e.g., two coaches who worked for the same third coach) are more likely to be recognized as members of the same sub-grouping than are randomly selected dyads. Although some of these identifiable professional sub-groupings share characteristics of groups (e.g., some groupings hold annual gatherings), others do not.

### **Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings as Social Identities in NCAA Basketball**

In my analysis of media experts’ characterizations of these 16 sub-groupings, I discovered that membership in these identifiable professional sub-groupings are social identities that impose order on the complex field of basketball coaches. These social

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<sup>6</sup> These characterizations were made in at least two different sources.

identities are desirable, are associated with prominence and are well-recognized by media experts. While there are multiple social identities among basketball coaches (e.g., school, conference, winning percentage, status, ethnicity, etc.), the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping is the most salient because it provides concise information about a coach's identity including his espoused playing style, leadership style, off-the-court values, and ethical values. Social identities of membership in other social categories do not have the same significance in the profession because they do not provide the same clarity about members' identities and behaviors. For example, conference affiliation and school affiliation are not always meaningful because coaches frequently change jobs and work at multiple organizations throughout their careers. Social identities based on performance and status categories do not have the same significance as the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings because they are not enduring. For example, winning percentage and status hierarchies are not consistent; and therefore such groupings fail to order the field in a way that is meaningful to coaches and to media experts. The social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping in NCAA basketball (e.g., a coaching tree or coaching family) is enduring, and provides rich identity content above and beyond performance, network connectivity, and status. See Figure 5 for a visual representation of identifiable professional sub-groupings among NCAA basketball coaches.

### ***Social Identities and Playing Style***

Membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping in NCAA basketball is a social identity that clarifies a coach's identity. One form of information that provides

clarity is a coach's employed style of basketball strategy. Coaches associated with the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings claim that they use distinctive enduring strategies, and are recognized for doing so by media experts. For example, Rick Pitino is known by media experts for instructing his teams to attempt many three-point shots. In fact, Pitino's first team at the University of Kentucky was nick-named "Pitino's Bombinos" for their propensity to shoot numerous long-distance (bomb-like) shots (Crawford, 2001). Pitino has acknowledged this strategy, and members of his coaching family have also made claims about their confidence in this strategy by highlighting that the strategy is superior to others, is exciting for fans, and is appropriate for their future players. For example, when hired at the University of Arkansas, John Pelphrey even discussed how the Pitino style of play is part of his "personality":

*As a player for Coach Pitino, I had more success playing his style of play – his running, pressing, three-point style of play – than any other style... It is my **personality**. It is the way I think the game should be played*  
([http://www.hogwired.com/ViewArticle.dbml?DB\\_OEM\\_ID=6100&ATCLID=858915](http://www.hogwired.com/ViewArticle.dbml?DB_OEM_ID=6100&ATCLID=858915), accessed September 23, 2008)

When hired at Oklahoma State, fellow Pitino Family member Travis Ford also referenced the style of play learned from Pitino:

*I think we play a very exciting style of basketball that you will enjoy watching... There's no question I think Coach (Rick) Pitino, as far as my style of play and what I learned from him to carry over into my coaching, has been the greatest influence.*  
([http://www.okstate.com/ViewArticle.dbml?SPSID=1463&SPID=145&DB\\_OEM\\_ID=200&ATCLID=1442524](http://www.okstate.com/ViewArticle.dbml?SPSID=1463&SPID=145&DB_OEM_ID=200&ATCLID=1442524), accessed September 23, 2008).

And, when hired to coach New Mexico State University, fellow Pitino Family member Marvin Menzies was introduced as a coach who would "use a Pitino-like style



of play” (Skwara, 2007). In his introductory press conference he stated how this style is a good match for his future players:

*We are going to be very up-tempo and a very aggressive team defensively... We are going to press a lot and change defenses. It's going to be a system that will fit any athletic player who is a true student of the game.*  
<http://collegebasketball.rivals.com/content.asp?CID=690937>

Similar phenomena were highlighted when members of the John Calipari Family, which uses the Dribble Drive Motion Offense, were hired at other universities. Journalist Dan Wolken (2008) suggested that this unique offense helped former Calipari assistants, Tony Barbee (UTEP), Derek Kellogg (UMass) and Chuck Martin (Marist) obtain head-coaching jobs, and all three coaches referred to the enduring style of play of their sub-grouping when accepting their new positions.

Newly hired UMass Coach Derek Kellogg: *People love it [The Dribble Drive Motion Offense]. It's a great way to play. Fans love to come watch teams play up and down. The recruits love it because that is the way they've played.* (Chimelis, 2008)

Newly hired Marist Coach Chuck Martin: *Our principles and our style of play [The Dribble Drive Motion Offense] works here. And This offense is really, really complicated and there's a reason why only four teams in the country run it.* (Hrinya, 2008)

Newly hired UTEP Coach Tony Barbee: *Offensively, my style is different types of style—dribble, drive, kick—similar to what the Phoenix Suns do. It will be high-paced and high-energy.* (Peregrino, 2006)

These illustrations suggest that identifiable professional sub-groupings signal information about a coach's style of play. In fact most of the founders of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings in NCAA basketball are recognized by media

experts for implementing specialized styles of play. For example, Hank Iba, formerly of Oklahoma State, was recognized for inventing the motion offense (Fraschilla, 2003); Bob Knight was recognized for leading teams that stressed motion offense and tough man-to-man defense (Fraschilla, 2003); Tom Izzo of Michigan State is known for leading teams that have a physically tough style of play which stresses defense and rebounding (Grinczel, 2007); Mike Krzyzewski of Duke is known for leading teams that emphasize team defense and has even written a book on the subject (Krzyzewski, 1987); and Pete Carrill was known for developing the “Princeton Offense” that stressed ball control and team defense (Berkow, 1997). These special styles are frequently attributed to members of each of the identifiable professional sub-groupings, thus suggesting that membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping also involves an enduring allegiance to certain behaviors such as game strategies (Skwara, 2007)<sup>7</sup>.

### ***Social Identities and Off-the-Court Values***

In addition to style of play, membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping is a social identity that provides clarity about a coach’s values which are not evident when looking at playing statistics. For example, membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping can signal not only athletic style, but also other characteristics such as academic quality, and leadership style. When Stanford University hired Johnny Dawkins and when Harvard University hired Tommy Amaker, both members of the Mike Krzyzewski Coaching Family, university administrators made comments at the

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<sup>7</sup> Surprisingly, although unique playing styles are attributed to and claimed by coaches with such social identities, analysis of team statistics (e.g., per-game points, assists, 3-point shots, rebounds, etc. See Appendix A) indicates that coaches do not always employ the specialized playing strategy associated with their identity. Yet media experts continue to perceive a coach’s membership in a sub-grouping as a signal of his playing style.

introductory press conferences in which they associated the new coach with the academic identity of Coach Krzyzewski and other family members.

Harvard Director of Athletics Bob Scalise introducing new coach Tommy Amaker: *He has been a well-respected head coach at the highest level of college basketball, and his experience as a player and assistant at Duke, where athletic and academic success is paramount, makes him a terrific fit. We're looking forward to the support of the Harvard and local communities as we pursue our first Ivy League championship in men's basketball.* (Harvard Athletic Communications, 2007)

Stanford Athletic Director Bob Bowsby introducing Coach Johnny Dawkins: *His credentials as a player, combined with his coaching experience gained mentoring under a Hall of Fame coach at a university such as Duke, made him a perfect fit for Stanford. The philosophies of the two programs both on the court and in the classroom are very similar. I am confident Johnny's leadership skills, coaching ability and commitment to attract top-flight student-athletes will be a driving force in continuing Stanford's tradition of basketball excellence.* (McCauley, 2008)

Both illustrations suggest that the coaches' membership in the Mike Krzyzewski family signal their leadership skills, athletic style, and academic identity. Other sub-groupings such as the Tar Heel family are also known for academic achievement. In fact, the University of North Carolina has named a faculty teaching award after Tar Heel member Dean Smith (Moeser, 2001).

### ***Social Identities and Ethical Values***

Membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping in NCAA basketball is also a social identity that provides clarity about a coach's ethical values. For example, members of the Tar Heel family have been recognized for their integrity, involvement in the community, and commitment to social justice. Coach Dean Smith of the Tar Heel family has been described as one of the most

successful and ethical basketball coaches in NCAA basketball (Boxill, 2003). As stated by journalist Thad Williamson (2001),

*The North Carolina situation under Dean Smith was unique because for many years you didn't have to choose between winning and doing things the right way – in fact the reputation for doing things the right way helped attract great players; and the ability to get great players through legitimate means meant that Carolina didn't have to consider bending either NCAA rules or its own ethos in order to maintain competitive excellence.*

The identity content of this social identity has been ascribed to and enacted by fellow members of this coaching family. For example, member Roy Williams has taken a leadership role on the National Association of Basketball Coaches Ethics Committee (<http://nabc.cstv.com/sports/m-baskbl/spec-rel/071206aaa.html>, accessed December 20, 2008), member Buzz Peterson was recognized as part of the Tennessee Community Service Team of the Year (Perry, 2004), and member Jeff Lebo has been active in charity work for the Children's Hospital of Alabama (<http://auburntigers.cstv.com/sports/m-baskbl/spec-rel/102108aaa.html>, accessed December 20, 2008). While there are many coaches who are not part of the Tar Heel family who are also active in community events, being recognized as a member of this family, clearly connotes an orientation towards community service.

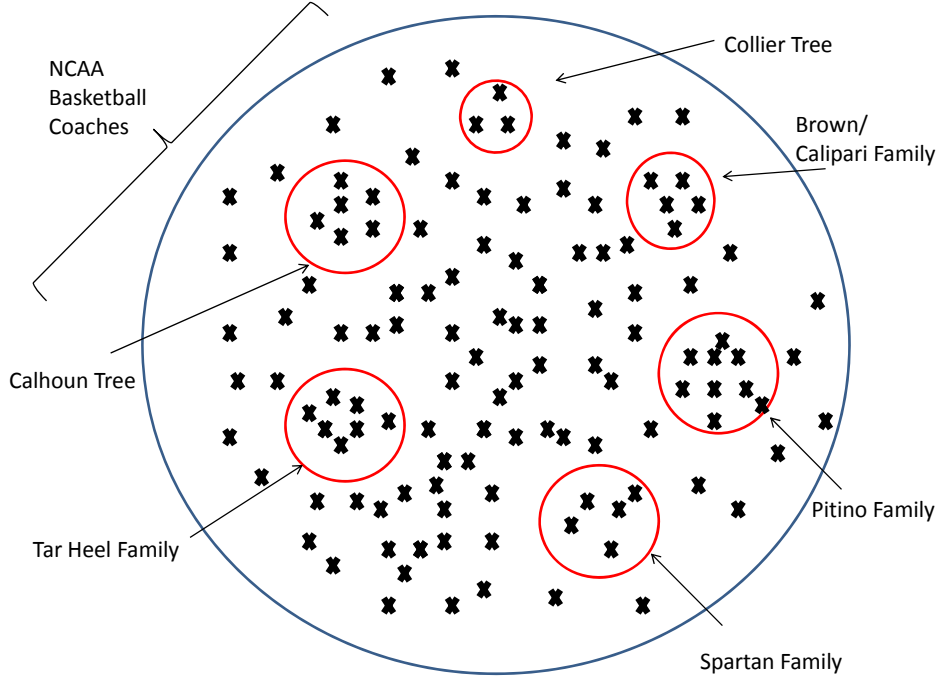
The identity content of the different identifiable professional sub-groupings is also evident in the informational material published by group members. For example, Figure 6 presents images produced by two identifiable professional sub-groupings among NCAA coaches. As evident, the images of Tar Heel coaching family members published in the *North Carolina Media Guide* convey an impression of familial relationships and implied values. The photographed individuals are smiling and emotionally expressive.

The image presented in the *Duke University Media Guide* of the Coach K Coaching Tree (also known as the Coach K Coaching Family) suggests an identity of order and hierarchy. There is a clear structure to the sub-grouping and each member is identified by name, title, school, and year of graduation from Duke University. Interestingly, Coach Krzyzewski is a graduate of West Point Military Academy, a fact that may be evidenced in the identity content of his professional sub-grouping.

In summary, membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping is a social identity that conveys concise summarized information about members that is above and beyond performance quality, connectivity, and status. For example, the selected illustrations suggest that these social identities provide clarity about the espoused playing style of the coach, the coach's leadership style, and the coach's values in off-the-court behavior (e.g., academic standards, ethical values,). As mentioned, these social identities are enduring and fluid, and coaches are often recognized by the media for these identities throughout their careers. For example, recognized members of the Tar Heel Family include the current head coaches at Auburn, Southern Methodist, the University of North Carolina, and the former head coach of Tennessee, as noted by journalist Jason Perry (2004) in his article listing all of the members of the Tar Heel Family. Another long-lived family is the Coach Pitino Coaching Family which includes the current head coaches at Arkansas, Florida, New Mexico State, Minnesota, and Oklahoma State, as noted by journalist Dick Weis (2007) in an article highlighting all of the coaches and notable members of this family. These identifiable professional sub-groupings are used by external audiences to order the field of NCAA coaches. For example, when coaches

are discussed by the media, they are often discussed in terms of their membership in a coaching tree or coaching family. These ascribed social identities are also publicly claimed by coaches, indicating that they serve as sources of meaning and self-definition for coaches. For more information on the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings in NCAA basketball see Table 1 and Appendices A, B & C.

**FIGURE 5:** Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings as Social Identities Among NCAA Basketball Coaches<sup>8</sup>



<sup>8</sup> In the interest of the clarity of display, not all 16 professional sub-groupings are identified in this diagram

**TABLE 2: Comparison of 16 Professional Sub-Groupings in NCAA Basketball (2001-2007)**

Professional Sub-Grouping	Number of Coaches w/ Ascribed Identity <sup>9</sup>	Number of Coaches who Also Claim the Identity	Sub-Grouping Visibility <sup>10</sup>	Visibility of "Leader" <sup>11</sup>	Identity Content of the Social Identity (e.g., playing style, values, academics, leadership)
Barry Collier	3	3	11	4,535	Defense
Bobby Knight	9	5	18	23,798	Motion Offense, Man-to-Man Defense, Discipline, Academics
Dean Smith/Tar Heel	10	9	109	47,522	T Zone Offense, Four Corners Offense, Community Service, Brotherhood
Gary Williams	5	3	10	32,912	Flex Offense
Hank Iba	19	12	28	3,852	Motion Offense, Man-to-Man Defense
Jim Boeheim	3	3	11	18,966	Syracuse 2-3 Zone Defense
Jim Calhoun	6	6	15	21,486	3-out 2-in Motion Offense
Jim Larranaga	4	1	2	3,778	Scrambling Defense
John Calipari	6	4	19	27,424	Dribble Drive Motion Offense, Community Involvement, High Visibility in Media
Lute Olson	4	4	21	28,758	Motion Offense, Zone Defense
Mike Krzyzewski	10	9	63	50,729	Team Defense, Academics, Discipline, Team Work
Mike Montgomery	5	5	3	14,207	Motion Offense, Up-tempo Style of Play
Pete Gillen	3	3	6	10,886	Defense
Pete Carill/Princeton	6	5	17	3,648	Princeton Offense, Team Work, Academics
Rick Pitino	12	12	54	53,568	Three-Point Shot, Team Work
Tom Izzo / Spartan	10	10	93	19,045	Man-to-Man Defense, Rebounding, Discipline, Team Work

<sup>9</sup> The number of recognized and claimed members only considers coaches who were active between 2001 and 2007.

<sup>10</sup> Number of articles written about each group

<sup>11</sup> The number of articles written about the leader of each group



**FIGURE 6: Informational Material Published by Members of Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings**

<p>“The Tar Heel Family” of the University of North Carolina, aka Dean Smith Coaching Tree</p>	<p>Coach K Coaching Tree</p>
<p>Copyrighted images withheld. See 2006 UNC Men’s Basketball Media Guide for photographs entitled “Tar Heel Family” on page 66 and 68.</p>	<p>Copyrighted image withheld. See 2006 Duke University Men’s Basketball Media Guide for photograph entitled “Coach K Coaching Tree” on page 82.</p>
<p>Images taken from UNC 2006 Media Guide</p>	<p>Image taken from Duke 2006 Media Guide</p>

## CHAPTER 4: METHODS

### Sample and Data Collection

The sample used in this study included all NCAA Men's Division I basketball coaches active between the 2001 season (October 31, 2001) and the beginning of the 2007 season (October 31, 2007). This time frame is ideal due to the large number of head coaching changes ( $n = 282$ ), the large number of firings ( $n = 151$ ), the large amount of media attention, and the concurrent existence of multiple professional sub-groupings ( $n = 16$ ) with varying characteristics. Although abundant statistics are available regarding NCAA basketball facts, there is no database of information on coaching careers, coaching performance, or coaching networks. Consequently, for this project it was necessary to construct a longitudinal dataset of the careers of all coaches in the sample, an endeavor that involved laborious scrutiny of many archival sources. To access data about each coach's career moves, I obtained information from the NCAA ([ncaa.org](http://ncaa.org)) and from the athletic website of each university in the sample. Division I men's basketball coaches almost always have their own web pages posted on the athletic website of the respective university, and coaches use these sites to post information such as their career histories and their prior performance statistics<sup>12</sup>. In addition, coaches include a career history statement on their webpage which highlights their affiliations with other coaches and institutions.

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<sup>12</sup> Only one coach in the sample did not have his own webpage.

## Operationalization of Variables

### *Independent Variables*

***Prior Performance Variables.*** I included the following variables to capture human capital: (1) the *cumulative winning percentage* of each coach, either as a head coach or an assistant (a mean of 60.1% for coaches who obtained new positions, SD = 8.89; a mean of 54.54% for coaches who were fired, SD = 8.6); (2) the *cumulative number of post-season NCAA tournament appearances* of each coach, either as a head coach or an assistant (a mean of 4.28 for coaches who obtained new positions, SD = 4.37; a mean of 4.15 for coaches who were fired, SD = 3.63); and (3) whether the coach was either a head coach or an assistant coach of a team that went to the *NCAA tournament in the year prior* to switching positions (112 of the 282 who obtained new positions; 10 of the 151 who were fired). To capture winning percentage and NCAA tournament appearances, I utilized the NCAA Statistics Archive (available at <http://www.ncaa.org/wps/ncaa?ContentID=1014>).

***Social Capital Variables.*** *Connectivity* is the number of coaches with whom an identified coach has worked. To calculate this measure I compiled the career histories of each coach to assess where, when, and with whom he worked. For example, Matt Doherty and Neil Dougherty were both assistant coaches at the University of Kansas in 1998, and therefore have had an affiliation tie from 1998 onward.<sup>13</sup> To calculate each coach's connectivity with other coaches at the time of interest, I utilized degree

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<sup>13</sup> Of the 341 active head coaches at the start of 2006 season, 273 had overlapped at the same institution with at least one other active coach at some point in their careers, indicating the high frequency of historical overlaps.

centrality. This measure captures the number of coaches in the entire network with whom each coach has worked. For example, in 2007, when Billy Gillispie was hired by the University of Kentucky, he had worked with six other active head coaches from his prior work experience at Baylor, Tulsa, Illinois, UTEP, and Texas A&M. This variable captures one perspective of social capital, which indicates that personal connections provide an individual with resources beneficial when looking for a job (e.g., Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001). The mean connectivity measure for coaches who accepted new positions was 5.44 (SD = 3.06). The mean connectivity measure for coaches who were fired was 4.58 (SD = 3).

*Status Affiliations.* This variable reflects the maximum win record of all head coaches with whom each coach has worked. I identified the number of wins achieved by the “winningest” active coach with whom he had ever worked. For example, in 2003 when Bruce Weber was hired as head coach at the University of Illinois, his former colleague Gene Keady had amassed an impressive 542 career wins. Weber’s experience working with successful Coach Keady was highlighted in the University of Illinois announcement of his hiring (available at <http://fightingillini.cstv.com/sports/m-baskbl/spec-rel/043003aaa.html>). This variable captures a relational aspect of social capital; namely, individuals affiliated with high-status individuals are more likely to accrue career benefits due to access to resources and perceived quality (e.g., Lin et al., 1981). The mean *status affiliations* measure for coaches who accepted new positions was 329.57 wins (SD = 204.95). The mean *status affiliations* measure for coaches who were fired was 279.88 wins (SD = 222.3).

***Ascribed Social Identity.*** Through text analysis of industry articles, I identified 16 professional sub-groupings as the only ones recognized and validated by media experts; all identifiable professional sub-groupings were characterized as trees, but some were additionally characterized as families. I first used the Factiva<sup>14</sup> database to identify all coaches ascribed one of these social identities by searching for articles containing “NCAA basketball” AND “coaching tree” OR “coaching family.” I created a variable to characterize each coach’s *ascribed social identity*. Coaches who were recognized by media experts for having the social identity of membership in one of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings were assigned a value of 1, and all other coaches were assigned a value of 0.

***Claimed Identity.*** To capture whether coaches with an ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping also claimed the identity, I viewed the web pages of all coaches recognized by media experts as members of one of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings to determine whether the coach also publicly acknowledged affiliations with fellow sub-grouping members<sup>15</sup>. Coaches who were recognized by media experts as members of an identifiable professional sub-grouping and who publicly claimed such an identity were assigned a value of 1; coaches who were recognized by media experts as members of an identifiable professional sub-grouping but did not claim such an identity were assigned a value of 0. Of the coaches involved in the 282 position changes, 80 were recognized by media experts as having the

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<sup>14</sup> The Dow Jones Factiva database includes more than 14,000 leading news and business sources (available at [www.factiva.com](http://www.factiva.com), accessed November 26, 2008).

<sup>15</sup> Only 1 of the recognized professional sub-grouping members, Tim O’Toole, did not have a webpage. I searched all articles about this individual and could not find any claim of this identity.

social identity of being a member of one of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings (66 of whom also claimed the identity). Of the 151 fired coaches, 43 were recognized as having the social identity of being a member of one of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings (20 of whom also claimed the identity).

***Social Identity Characterization.*** As discussed, media experts used different language in describing these identifiable professional sub-groupings. I created a variable capturing whether the sub-grouping was characterized as a *relational actor*. To create this variable, I first searched the Factiva database to retrieve all articles pertaining to the 16 sub-groupings. Through an analysis of a sample of articles about the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings, I found that in addition to being described as “trees,” six of the 16 were described using family language such as “family,” “brotherhood,” and even “blood.” These terms were also used by members in media yearbook guides, websites, and autobiographies. For example, individuals who identified themselves as members of the Tar Heel Family presented images of an identity that values a “lifelong brotherhood” (University of North Carolina Basketball Media Guide, 2006). Tar Heel Family Coach Dean Smith devoted the entire introduction of his autobiography to discussing the Tar Heel Family and the important lifelong relationships that he established with members (Smith, Kilgo, & Jenkins, 1999). Individuals who identified themselves as members of the Spartan Family (Michigan State) presented images emphasizing the importance and unique characteristics of the affiliation; for example, Coach Tom Izzo included a list of members currently active as coaches at other universities (Michigan State University Basketball Media Guide, 2006). Individuals who identified themselves as members of

the Princeton Family presented an identity of basketball purity and endurance, and made statements indicating that all future coaches of the Princeton basketball team will ideally have ties to former coaches at Princeton (Basil, 2004). I also found evidence that members of certain identifiable professional sub-groupings unite annually for golf tournaments and retreats (Katz, 2003; Scott, 2007; Smith, Kilgo & Jenkins, 1999). The other ten sub-groupings were exclusively referred to as coaching trees by media experts (See Table 2 for characterizations of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings).

Coaches with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor (i.e., “fraternity,” “family,” “brotherhood”) in two or more media publications were assigned a value of 1. Sub-groupings characterized solely as “coaching trees” (i.e., not also as families) were considered non-relational actors. Coaches with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a non-relational actor (i.e., “tree”) were assigned a value of 0.

### ***Dependent Variables***

***Employer Status.*** To determine the status of the new employer of each coach who changed jobs during the study period, I used the status rankings constructed by industry experts at ESPN.com, widely regarded as the leading media source for sports news<sup>16</sup>. This numerical ranking lists the most prestigious Division I men's college basketball programs since the 1984-85 season, considered the modern era of college

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<sup>16</sup> ESPN.com is a three-time Webby Award winner, six-time People’s Voice Award winner, two-time Online Journalism Award winner, two-time Editor and Publisher Award winner for online sports service, and averages 20.2 million unique users per month, more than any other sports Web site, according to Nielsen ratings (information available at [http://www.espnmediazone.com/corp\\_info/](http://www.espnmediazone.com/corp_info/)).

basketball (available at <http://sports.espn.go.com/ncb/news/story?id=3501739>, accessed September 1, 2008). The rankings were determined based on various historical performance and visibility measures including team performance, team appearances in high profile tournaments, historical team success in developing players for the NBA, and team success in developing players who have been awarded as All-Americans. The rankings range from 1 (most prestigious) to 299 (least prestigious). All schools not ranked (e.g., schools that only recently became Division I programs) were assigned a status score of 300. (For more information on the justification of the ranking metrics, see Shelton, Loucks & Fallica, 2008). The mean employer status for coaches who obtained new positions was 162.26 (SD = 91.1)

***Employability Resilience Index.*** In this analysis the dependent variable is an ordered index from one to three which captures the employability resilience of each of the 151 fired coaches. The subsequent career moves of the 151 fired coaches were identified and sorted into the following ordered categories of increasing employability resilience: (1) the fired coach dropped out of the coaching profession; (2) the fired coach was hired as an assistant at another institution; or (3) the fired coach was hired by another institution as a head coach. Coaching positions are few in number and great in demand, suggesting that a fired coach who is hired as a coach at another university exhibits more employability resilience than a coach who is not hired. In addition, a coach who is hired as a head coach after being fired exhibits greater employability resilience than a coach who is hired as an assistant coach due to the fewer numbers of head coaching positions. I used Factiva database searches to determine the subsequent career moves of each fired



head coach. Of the 151 fired coaches, 57 failed to obtain subsequent work, 58 obtained work as an assistant coach, and 36 obtained work as a head coach within the study time period (2001 – 2007).

### ***Control Variables***

I controlled for *year* and *year of birth* to account for differences in career timing (a mean birth year of 1960.27 for coaches who obtained new positions, SD = 7.89; a mean birth year of 1956.65 for coaches who were fired, SD = 6.88).

***Status of Prior Employer.*** To determine the status of the prior employer of each coach, I used status rankings constructed by industry experts at ESPN.com. Status of prior employer influences career opportunities. For example, Bill Self left high status Illinois, ranked 23<sup>nd</sup> most prestigious basketball program, to become the head coach at the University of Kansas, the 2<sup>nd</sup> most prestigious basketball program. Coaches who leave programs of lower status may be limited in terms of the status of coaching opportunities for which they will be hired. For example, Derrick Whittenburg left Wagner University (ranked 247<sup>th</sup>), to become head coach at Fordham University (ranked 214<sup>th</sup>); although he accepted a job at a program of higher status, the upward move was in all likelihood limited as a result of his prior position at Wagner. This variable controls for a status perspective; namely, individuals affiliated with high-status organizations are more likely to accrue career benefits (e.g., Podolny, 2001). The mean status of prior employer for coaches who accepted new positions was 133.9 (SD = 111.26). The mean status of prior employer for coaches who were fired was 176.89 (SD = 90.47).

***Tenure.*** To capture the career experience of coaches who changed jobs during the study period, I calculated the total number of games coached by each coach in the sample prior to changing positions (*tenure*). For example, in 2003 when Coach Kelvin Sampson accepted the head coaching position at Indiana, he was already well recognized from his 827 games coached over 22 years of experience as a head and assistant coach at Oklahoma, Washington State, and Montana Tech. In contrast, in 2006 when Sidney Lowe was offered and accepted the head coaching position at NC State, he had no prior coaching experience and was therefore relatively unknown as a coach. The mean tenure for coaches who accepted new positions was 493.74 games (SD = 214.37). The mean tenure for coaches who were fired was 550.44 games (SD = 199.08).

For more information on study variables see Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6.

## **Predicting Employer Status**

### ***Test of Hypothesis 1***

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the prior accomplishments of a job seeker (both recent and cumulative) will be positively related to the status of the job seeker's next employer. To test this hypothesis, I captured whether the coach was either a head coach or an assistant coach of a team that went to the *NCAA tournament in the year prior* to obtaining a head coaching position with the new employer, and I used the *cumulative winning percentage* of each coach, and the *cumulative number of post-season NCAA tournament appearances* of each coach. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, and tenure*.

### ***Test of Hypothesis 2***

Hypothesis 2a predicted that the greater the connectivity of a job seeker, the greater will be the status of the job seeker's next employer. To test this hypothesis, I used *connectivity* as an independent variable. Hypothesis 2b predicted that the greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater will be the status of the job seeker's next employer. To test this hypothesis, I used *status affiliations* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, and tenure*.

### ***Test of Hypothesis 3***

Hypothesis 3 predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will receive a position with an employer of higher status than a job seeker not recognized as a member of any professional sub-group. To test this hypothesis, I used *ascribed social identity* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, and tenure*.

### ***Test of Hypothesis 4***

Hypothesis 4 predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claims such an identity will receive a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who does not claim such an identity. To test this hypothesis, I used *claimed identity* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior*

*employer, year, year of birth, tenure, prior performance variables, connectivity and status affiliations.*

#### ***Test of Hypothesis 5***

Hypothesis 5 predicted that among individuals in a certain profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will obtain a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor. To test this hypothesis, I used *social identity characterization* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, tenure, prior performance variables, connectivity and status affiliations.*

#### **Predicting Employability Resilience**

##### ***Test of Hypothesis 6***

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the prior accomplishments of a job seeker will be positively related to the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired. To test this hypothesis, I captured whether the coach was either a head coach or an assistant coach of a team that went to the *NCAA tournament in the year prior* to being fired, and I used the *cumulative winning percentage* of each coach, and the *cumulative number of post-season NCAA tournament appearances* of each coach. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, and tenure.*

### ***Test of Hypothesis 7***

Hypothesis 7a predicted that the greater the connectivity of a job seeker who has recently been fired, the greater the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired. To test this hypothesis, I used connectivity as an independent variable.

Hypothesis 7b predicted that the greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired. To test this hypothesis, I used *status affiliations* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, and tenure*.

### ***Test of Hypothesis 8***

Hypothesis 8 predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for a job seeker not recognized as a member of any professional sub-grouping. To test this hypothesis, I used *ascribed social identity* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, and tenure*.

### ***Test of Hypothesis 9***

Hypothesis 9 predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claims such identity will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who does not claim such identity. To test this hypothesis, I used *claimed identity* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior*

*employer, year, year of birth, tenure, prior performance variables, connectivity and status affiliations.*

### ***Test of Hypothesis 10***

Hypothesis 10 predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker who is recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will obtain a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor. To test this hypothesis, I used *social identity characterization* as an independent variable. I controlled for *status of prior employer, year, year of birth, tenure, prior performance variables, connectivity and status affiliations.*

### **Model Specifications**

Because *employer status* is a count variable with non-negative integers, and the variance exceeds the mean, I used a negative binomial regression model to test Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Because *employability resilience* is an ordinal variable, I used an ordinal logistic regression model to test Hypotheses 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10. In all analyses I used Stata 10.1 to calculate regression models, and UCINET VI (Borgatti, Everett, & Freeman, 2002) to calculate network statistics. For more information on all study variables, see Tables 3, 4, and 5.

**TABLE 3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employer Status (n = 282)**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1</b> Year	2004.22	2.11	2001	2007					
<b>2</b> Year of Birth	1960.27	7.89	1935	1979	0.18				
<b>3</b> Cumulative Winning Percentage	59.46	10.78	0	95.24	0.02	-0.05			
<b>4</b> NCAA Tournament in Prior Year	112 = y 170 = n	.	0	1	-0.04	0.14	0.18		
<b>5</b> Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	4.28	4.37	0	26	-0.17	-0.37	0.39	0.13	
<b>6</b> Status Affiliations	329.57	204.95	0	893	0.06	-0.01	0.18	0.03	0.25
<b>7</b> Connectivity	5.44	3.06	0	15	0	-0.05	0.14	0.16	0.34
<b>8</b> Status of Prior Employer	133.9	111.26	2	301	-0.01	-0.28	-0.2	-0.5	-0.18
<b>9</b> Tenure	493.74	214.37	0	1229	0.01	-0.64	0.29	-0.07	0.54
<b>10</b> Ascribed Social Identity x Tenure	141.19	253.57	0	1229	-0.04	-0.12	0.25	0.07	0.43
<b>11</b> Ascribed Social Identity	80 = y 202 = n	.	0	1	-0.01	0.06	0.22	0.1	0.23
<b>12</b> Employer Status	162.26	91.1	2	300	0.03	-0.08	-0.14	-0.23	-0.22

**TABLE 3 continued: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employer Status (n = 282)**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>7</b> Connectivity	0.41					
<b>8</b> Status of Prior Employer	-0.2	-0.27				
<b>9</b> Tenure	0.16	0.29	0.1			
<b>10</b> Ascribed Social Identity x Tenure	0.44	0.4	-0.11	0.26		
<b>11</b> Ascribed Social Identity	0.42	0.34	-0.18	0.01	0.89	
<b>12</b> Employer Status	-0.08	-0.13	0.17	0.01	-0.22	-0.29



**TABLE 4: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employer Status Among Individuals with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-Grouping (n = 80)**

	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1</b>	Year	2004.18	2.21	2001	2007					
<b>2</b>	Year of Birth	1961.03	7.62	1936	1979	0.20				
<b>3</b>	Cumulative Winning Percentage	63.21	6.91	45.3	81.15	-0.23	-0.27			
<b>4</b>	NCAA Tournament in Prior Year	42 = y 38 = n	.	0	1	-0.05	-0.02	0.06		
<b>5</b>	Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	5.89	5.27	0	26	-0.24	-0.63	0.52	0.02	
<b>6</b>	Status Affiliations	467.61	247	0	893	0.13	-0.07	0.05	-0.21	0.12
<b>7</b>	Connectivity	7.09	3.27	1	15	-0.05	-0.17	0.25	0.08	0.32
<b>8</b>	Status of Prior Employer	102.65	105.74	2	301	-0.05	-0.26	-0.11	-0.52	0.08
<b>9</b>	Tenure	497.7	221.4	0	1229	-0.11	-0.72	0.36	-0.09	0.77
<b>10</b>	Claimed Identity	66 = y 14 = n	.	0	1	0.11	-0.07	0.27	0.17	0.16
<b>11</b>	SI Characterization: Relational Actor	39 = y 41 = n	.	0	1	0.2	0.2	0.05	0.14	-0.12
<b>12</b>	Sub-Grouping Status	115.72	49.89	16	300	0.03	-0.1	0.02	0	0.06
<b>13</b>	Sub-Grouping Size	6.86	5.3	3	17	0.18	0.1	-0.14	0.02	-0.05
<b>14</b>	Visibility of Sub-Grouping	18.95	22.91	1	95	0.25	0.07	0.04	-0.15	-0.06
<b>15</b>	Visibility of Leader	22619.17	20359.54	3778	53568	0.02	0.08	0.01	-0.12	0.06
<b>16</b>	Employer Status	120.4	91.31	2	300	0.05	-0.1	-0.03	-0.3	-0.06

**TABLE 4 continued: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employer Status Among Individuals with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-Grouping (n = 80)**

	Variable	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
7	Connectivity	0.24									
8	Status of Prior Employer	0.1	-0.06								
9	Tenure	0.23	0.38	0.21							
10	Claimed Identity	-0.04	0.08	-0.11	0.18						
11	SI Characterization: Relational Actor	-0.27	0.11	-0.08	-0.18	0.48					
12	Sub-Grouping Status	-0.21	0.03	0.08	0.16	0.06	0.16				
13	Sub-Grouping Size	0.23	0.12	-0.06	-0.09	0.06	0.35	0.06			
14	Visibility of Sub-Grouping	-0.09	0.08	-0.04	-0.01	0.18	0.47	0.09	0.4		
15	Visibility of Leader	0.23	0.11	0.02	0.03	0.2	0.39	-0.17	0.21	0.52	
16	Employer Status	0.05	0.05	0.2	0.13	-0.22	-0.14	0.14	-0.11	0.01	-0.08

**TABLE 5: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employability Resilience (n = 155)**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1</b> Year	2004.03	1.73	2001	2006					
<b>2</b> Year of Birth	1956.65	6.88	1941	1974	0.24				
<b>3</b> Cumulative Winning Percentage	54.54	8.6	19.67	72.96	-0.07	-0.13			
<b>4</b> NCAA Tournament in Prior Year	10 = y 141 = n	.	0	1	0.13	-0.06	0.32		
<b>5</b> Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	4.15	3.63	0	16	-0.15	-0.13	0.64	0.14	
<b>6</b> Status Affiliations	279.88	222.3	0	893	0.07	0.11	0.24	0.08	0.39
<b>7</b> Connectivity	4.58	3	0	15	0.01	0.16	0.33	0.19	0.44
<b>8</b> Status of Prior Employer	176.89	90.47	3	299	0.09	-0.07	-0.53	-0.19	-0.48
<b>9</b> Tenure	550.44	199.08	120	1086	0.1	-0.44	0.39	0.11	0.43
<b>10</b> Ascribed Social Identity x Tenure	163.6	281.93	0	1086	-0.09	-0.15	0.28	0.06	0.48
<b>11</b> Ascribed Social Identity	44 = y 107 = n	.	0	1	-0.14	-0.02	0.24	0.06	0.36
<b>12</b> Employability Resilience	57 = 0 58 = 1 36 = 2	.	0	2	-0.15	-0.01	0.33	0.22	0.33

**TABLE 5 continued: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employability Resilience (n = 155)**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>7</b> Connectivity	0.54	1				
<b>8</b> Status of Prior Employer	-0.2	-0.31	1			
<b>9</b> Tenure	0.18	0.21	-0.11	1		
<b>10</b> Ascribed Social Identity x Tenure	0.46	0.45	-0.23	0.28	1	
<b>11</b> Ascribed Social Identity	0.44	0.47	-0.23	0.04	0.91	1
<b>12</b> Employability Resilience	0.29	0.35	-0.29	0.17	0.3	0.32

**TABLE 6: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employability Resilience Among Coaches with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-Grouping (n = 44)**

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max	1	2	3	4	5
1 Year	2004.03	1.73	2001	2006	1				
2 Year of Birth	1956.65	6.88	1941	1974	0.24	1			
3 Cumulative Winning Percentage	54.54	8.6	19.67	72.96	-0.07	-0.13	1		
4 NCAA Tournament in Prior Year	0.07	0.25	0	1	0.13	-0.06	0.32	1	
5 Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	4.15	3.63	0	16	-0.15	-0.13	0.64	0.14	1
6 Status Affiliations	279.88	222.3	0	893	0.07	0.11	0.24	0.08	0.39
7 Connectivity	4.58	3	0	15	0.01	0.16	0.33	0.19	0.44
8 Status of Prior Employer	176.89	90.47	3	299	0.09	-0.07	-0.53	-0.19	-0.48
9 Tenure	550.44	199.08	120	1086	0.1	-0.44	0.39	0.11	0.43
10 Claimed Identity	21 = y 23 = n	0.73	0	1	-0.1	0.03	0.28	0.1	0.37
11 SI Characterization: Relational Actor	16 = y 28 = n		0	1	-0.09	0.05	0.29	0.09	0.34
12 Sub-Grouping Status	146.89	70.8	2	300	0.19	-0.12	-0.27	-0.01	-0.26
13 Sub-Grouping Size	2.06	2.9	1	17	-0.06	0.07	0.19	0.06	0.23
14 Visibility of Sub-Grouping	6.07	14.56	3	76	-0.11	0.06	0.15	0.03	0.18
15 Visibility of Leader	7551.91	16065.21	3778	53568	-0.09	0.13	0.16	0.03	0.23
16 Employability Resilience	7 = 0 19 = 1 18 = 2	0.77	0	2	-0.15	-0.01	0.33	0.22	0.33

**TABLE 6 continued: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table of Variables Predicting Employability Resilience Among Coaches with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-Grouping (n = 44)**

	Variable	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
7	Connectivity	0.54									
8	Status of Prior Employer	-0.2	-0.31								
9	Tenure	0.18	0.21	-0.11							
10	Claimed Identity	0.46	0.46	-0.27	0						
11	SI Characterization: Relational Actor	0.39	0.47	-0.29	0.01	0.95					
12	Sub-Grouping Prestige	-0.26	-0.18	0.31	0.03	-0.32	-0.31				
13	Sub-Grouping Size	0.48	0.27	-0.19	0.01	0.68	0.59	-0.26			
14	Visibility of Sub-Grouping	0.3	0.34	-0.25	-0.02	0.71	0.7	-0.31	0.59		
15	Visibility of Leader	0.43	0.37	-0.24	-0.03	0.81	0.79	-0.32	0.58	0.75	
16	Employability Resilience	0.29	0.35	-0.29	0.17	0.38	0.37	-0.25	0.31	0.25	0.26

**TABLE 7: Summary of Study Variables**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>H1</b>	<b>H2</b>	<b>H3</b>	<b>H4</b>	<b>H5</b>	<b>H6</b>	<b>H7</b>	<b>H8</b>	<b>H9</b>	<b>H10</b>
<b>Controls</b>										
<i>Status of Prior Employer</i>	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Year</i>	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Year of Birth</i>	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Tenure</i>	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Prior Performance</b>										
<i>Cumulative Winning Percentage</i>	X			X		X			X	X
<i>Cumulative Number of Post-Season NCAA Tournament Appearances</i>	X			X		X			X	X
<i>NCAA Tournament in the Prior Year</i>	X			X		X			X	X
<b>Social Capital</b>										
<i>Connectivity</i>		X		X			X		X	X
<i>Status Affiliations</i>		X		X			X		X	X
<b>Social Identity</b>										
<i>Ascribed Social Identity</i>			X					X		
<i>Claimed Identity</i>				X					X	
<i>Social Identity Characterization: Relational Actor</i>					X					X
<b>Dependent</b>										
<i>Employer Status</i>	X	X	X	X	X					
<i>Employability Resilience Index</i>						X	X	X	X	X

## CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

### Social Identity and Careers

Individuals with the a social identity of membership in one of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings (see Table 2) obtained head coaching positions with employers of higher status, and exhibited greater employability resilience after being fired than was the case for those without ascribed social identities. The potential for multicollinearity was examined in all models, and no potential problems were found.<sup>17</sup> I will now describe findings from each hypothesis tested.

### Predicting Employer Status

Between the start of the 2001 season (October 31, 2001) and the start of the 2007 season (October 31, 2007) there were 282 head coaching changes involving 151 coaches and 225 schools. Some coaches changed head coaching positions more than one time (e.g., Billy Gillispie accepted the head coaching job at UTEP in 2002, took over as head coach at Texas A&M in 2004, and then took over as head coach at Kentucky in 2007), and some schools were forced to hire more than one coach during the study period (e.g., the University of New Orleans made head coaching changes in 2001, 2006, and 2007). The open positions ranged in status from the 2001 New Jersey Institute of Technology position (ranked 299<sup>th</sup>, the lowest possible status ranking) to the 2003 Kansas position (the 2<sup>nd</sup> highest possible status ranking). Results of Regression Model 1 in Table 8 indicate the influence of the control variables. Findings indicate that status of a coach's

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<sup>17</sup> Across all models, the largest mean VIF was 3.02 and the largest individual VIF was 8.85. This statistic corresponds to the interaction term of ascribed social identity and tenure. All other individual VIF statistics were less than 4.



prior employer predicts the status of the employer (Model 1:  $\beta = 2.01$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). In other words, coaches with prior employment experience with a high status employer obtain positions with employers of higher status than is the case for coaches without employment experience with a high status employer. It should be noted that the dependent variable of employer status is rank ordered so that smaller values of the dependent variable correspond to greater employer status. Thus, variables with negative coefficients predict employment with higher status employers.

### ***H1: Prior Performance***

Results of Regression Model 2 in Table 8 provide support for Hypothesis 1a, reflecting the predictive influence of recent success on employer status. Findings indicate that coaches on staffs that appeared in the NCAA tournament in the year prior to changing positions (Model 2:  $\beta = -2.48$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) obtained positions with employers of higher status than was the case for coaches whose teams did not go to the NCAA tournament in the year prior to changing positions.

Results from Regression Model 3 provide support for Hypothesis 1b, indicating the predictive influence of cumulative performance on employer status. Findings indicate that the greater the cumulative number of a coach's prior appearances in the NCAA tournament (Model 3:  $\beta = -3.10$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), the greater the status of the coach's next employer. These findings indicate that performance variables both recent and cumulative influenced the likelihood that a coach obtained a subsequent position with an employer of high status.

### ***H2: Social Capital***

Results of Regression Models 5, 6, and 7 in Table 8 fail to provide support for Hypothesis 2a which predicted that the greater the connectivity of a job seeker, the greater would be the status of the job seeker's next employer. These regression models also fail to provide support for Hypothesis 2b which predicted that the greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater would be the status of the job seeker's next employer.

### ***H3: Ascribed Social Identity***

Results from Regression Model 8 provide support for Hypothesis 3, indicating that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping would receive a position with an employer of higher status than would be the case for a job seeker not recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-group among individuals of a certain profession (Model 8:  $\beta = -4.15$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Results from Model 9, provide additional support for Hypothesis 3 indicating that this type of social identity predicted employer status above and beyond performance and social capital variables (Model 9:  $\beta = -3.64$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

### **Analysis of the Employer Status of Members of Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings**

### ***H4: Claimed Identity***

Results from Regression Model 11 in Table 9 provide support for Hypothesis 4, indicating that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by

audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claimed such an identity would receive a position with an employer of higher status than would be the case for a job seeker recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who did not claim such an identity (Model 11:  $\beta = -2.08$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

#### ***H5: Social Identity Characterization***

Results from Regression Model 12 in Table 9 fail to provide support for Hypothesis 5, predicting that among individuals in a certain profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor would obtain a position with an employer of higher status than would be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor (Model 12:  $\beta = -1.64$ ,  $p < 0.10$ ).

#### **Summary of Findings on the Prediction of Employer Status**

Prior performance predicted employer status, whereas structural and relational social capital did not predict employer status. In other words, coaches with successful track records obtained positions with employers of higher status than was the case for coaches with less successful records.

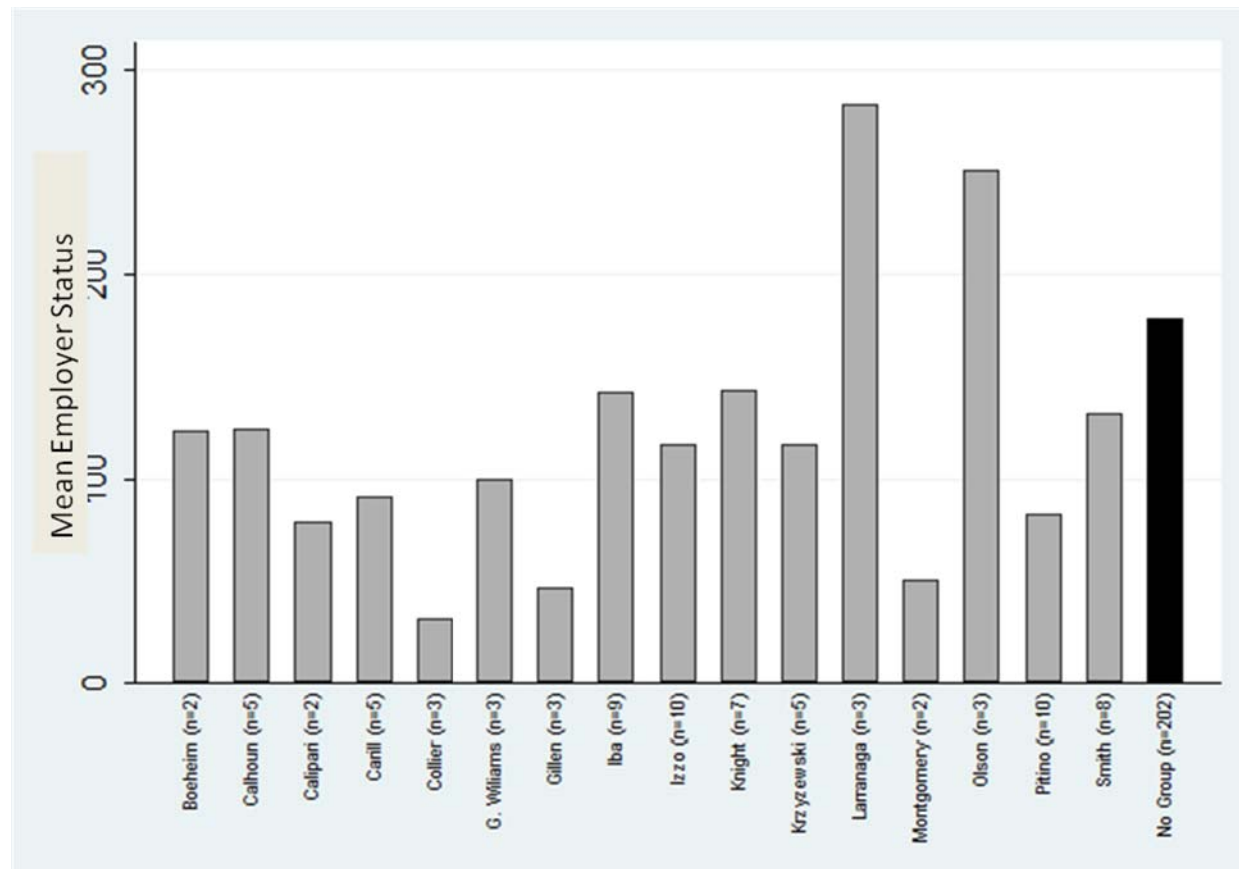
Having the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping predicted employer status above and beyond prior performance and social capital. Namely, coaches with the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping obtained positions with employers of higher status

than was the case for coaches without such ascribed identities, controlling for prior performance, connectivity, and status affiliations.

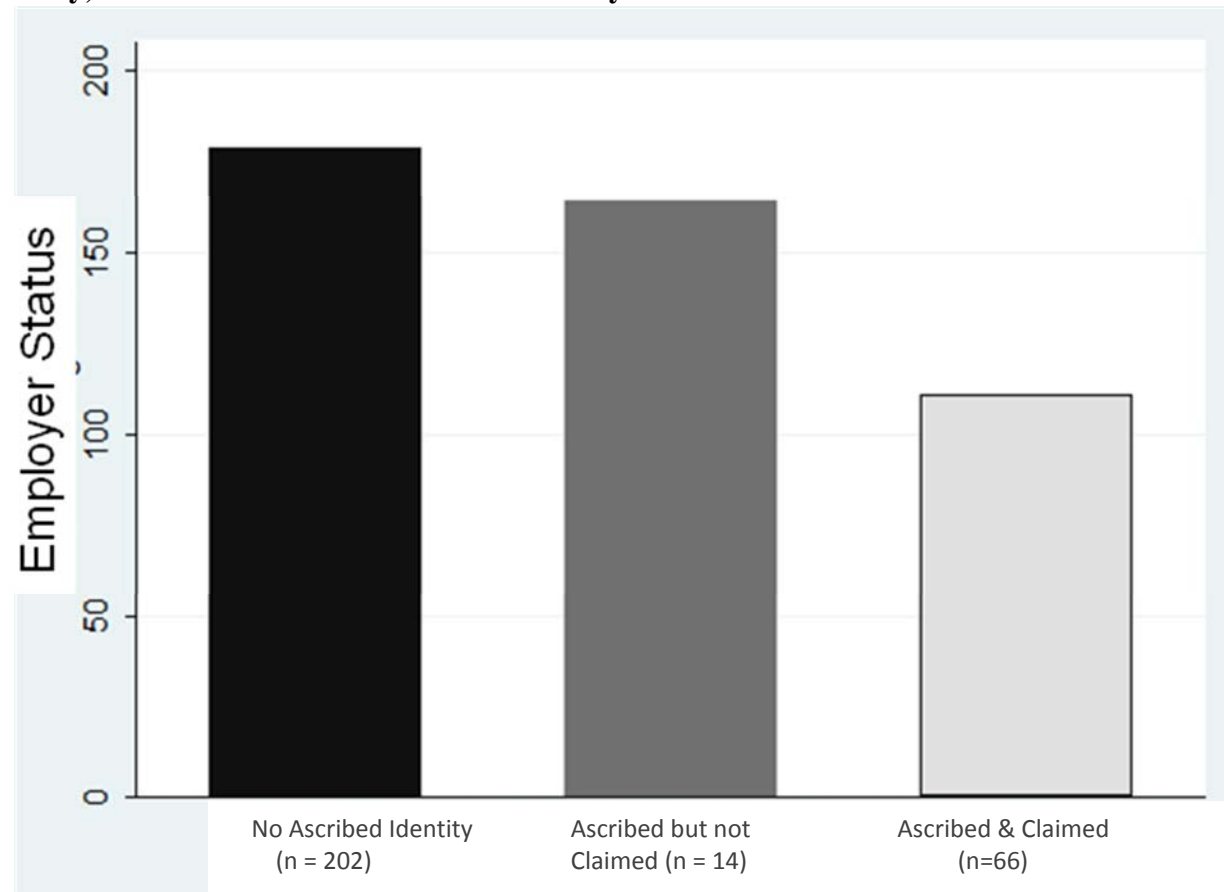
Coaches with the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping who claimed such identities obtained employment with employers of higher status than was the case for coaches with the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping who did not claim such an identity. In other words, coaches who were recognized as members of coaching trees or coaching families, and who claimed such membership, were more likely to be hired by high status employers than was the case for those members who did not publicly claim membership.

Social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings characterized as relational actors (i.e., coaching family, fraternity) did not predict employer status. Namely, employer status was no different for coaches who were members of coaching families than it was for coaches who were members of coaching groups solely characterized as coaching trees.

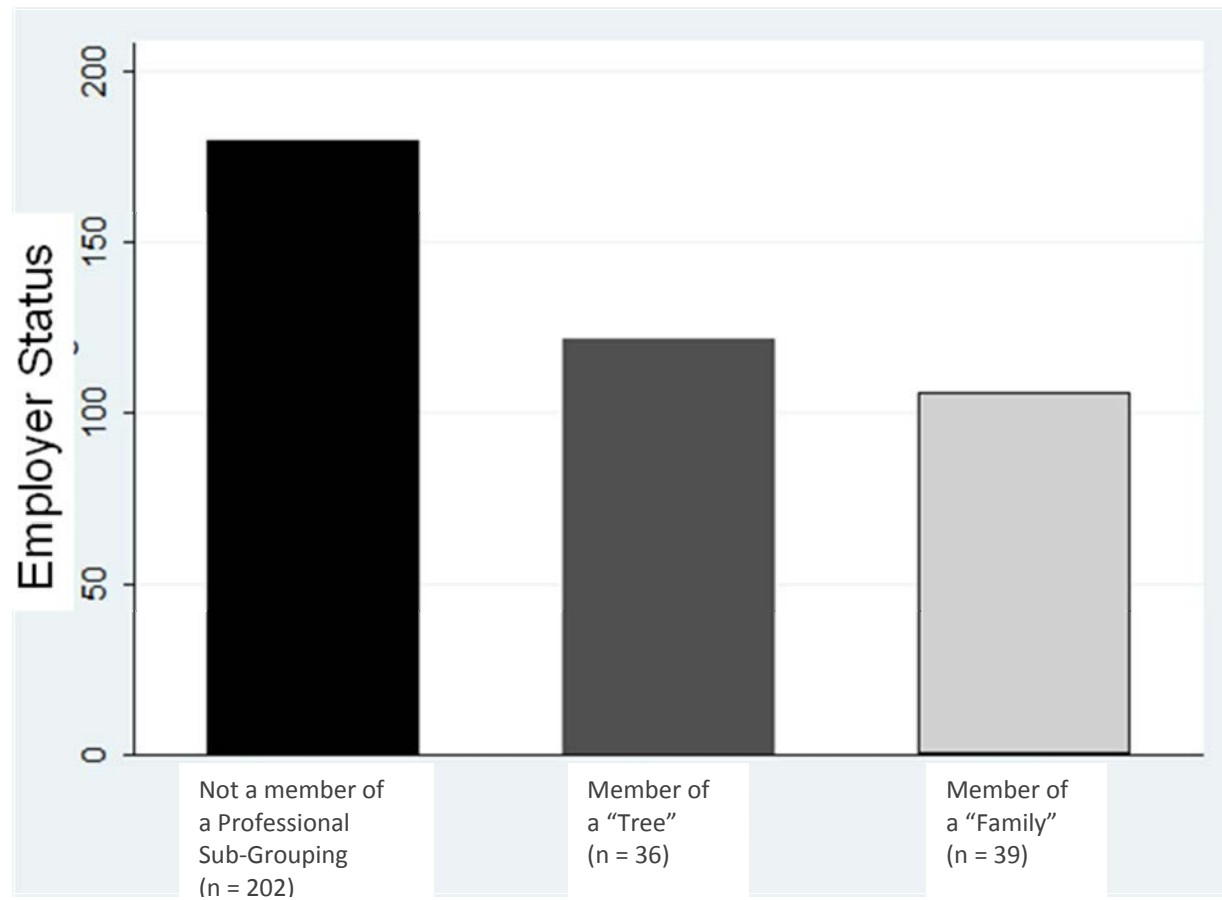
**FIGURE 7: Comparison of the Mean Employer Status of Coaches with Ascribed Social Identities of Membership in Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings Who Changed Jobs between 2001 and 2007**



**FIGURE 8: Comparison of Mean Employer Status for Coaches without an Ascribed Social Identity, an Ascribed but not Claimed Identity, and an Ascribed and Claimed Identity**



**FIGURE 9: Comparison of the Mean Employer Status of Coaches with Social Identities Characterized Using Different Language**



## **Employability Resilience**

During the study time period, 151 coaches were fired or forced to resign. In ascending order of employability resilience, 57 failed to achieve subsequent employment as a coach, 59 became assistant coaches, and 35 rebounded as head coaches. Results of Regression Model 13 in Table 10 indicate the influence of the control variables on employability resilience. The status of the employer that fired the coach was negatively related to the employability resilience of the coach (Model 13:  $\beta = -3.11$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ); and a coach's tenure was positively related to the employability resilience of the coach (Model 13:  $\beta = 2.44$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

### ***H6: Prior Performance***

Results of Regression Model 14 in Table 10 provide support for Hypothesis 6a, which predicted that the recent performance of a job seeker would be positively related to the likelihood that he or she would obtain employment after being fired. Findings indicate that a fired coach who was on a staff of a team that appeared in the NCAA tournament in the year prior to being fired (Model 14:  $\beta = 2.32$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) was 5.77 times more likely to be in a higher employability resilience category than was the case for a fired coach who did not appear in the NCAA tournament in the year prior to being fired. Results fail to support Hypothesis 6b, which predicted that the cumulative performance of job seeker would be positively related to the likelihood that he or she would obtain employment after being fired.



### ***H7: Social Capital***

Results of Regression Models 17 and 18 in Table 10 provide support for Hypothesis 7a, which predicted that the greater the connectivity of a job seeker who has recently been fired, the greater the likelihood that he or she would obtain employment after being fired (Model 17:  $\beta = 3.34$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). These Regression Models also provide support for Hypothesis 7b, which predicted that the greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater the likelihood that he or she would obtain employment after being fired (Model 18:  $\beta = 2.94$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

### ***H8: Ascribed Social Identity***

Results of Regression Model 20 in Table 10 provide partial support for Hypothesis 8, which predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping would more likely obtain employment after being fired than would be the case for a job seeker not recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping (Model 20:  $\beta = 3.34$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Odds ratios computed from coefficients obtained in Model 20 indicate that coaches with this ascribed social identity were 3.29 times more likely to be in a higher resiliency category than coaches without such an identity. However, results from Model 21 indicate that having the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping did not explain employability resilience above and beyond prior performance and social capital variables (Model 21:  $\beta = 1.72$ ,  $p < 0.10$ ).

## **Analysis of the Employability Resilience of Members of Identifiable Professional Sub-Groupings**

### ***H9: Claimed Identity***

Results from Regression Model 23 in Table 11 provide support for Hypothesis 9, which predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claimed such identity would more likely obtain employment after being fired than would be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who did not claim such identity (Model 23:  $\beta = 2.23$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Odds ratios computed from coefficients obtained in Model 23 indicate that those who also claimed such an identity were 5.05 times more likely to be in a higher resiliency category than coaches with this form of ascribed social identity who did not claim such an identity.

### ***H10: Social Identity Characterization***

Results from Regression Model 24 in table 11 provide support for Hypothesis 10, which predicted that among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker who is recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor would obtain a position with an employer of higher status than would be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor (Model 24:  $\beta = 1.93$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Odds ratios computed from coefficients obtained in Model 24 indicate that coaches with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping that was characterized as a relational actor were 3.11 times

more likely to be in a higher resiliency category than coaches with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping that was characterized as a non-relational actor.

### **Summary of Findings on Predictors of Employability Resilience**

Prior performance (i.e., successful track records) and social capital (i.e., connectivity and status affiliations) predicted the employability resilience of individuals who had been fired. In other words, fired coaches were much more likely to obtain employment after being fired if they had winning records, had worked with a large number of other coaches, and had worked with a successful coach.

Having the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping predicted employability resilience. Namely, fired coaches recognized as members of coaching families or coaching trees were more likely to obtain employment than fired coaches who were not recognized as members of coaching families or coaching trees. However, this result was not statistically significant ( $p < 0.10$ ) when controlling for prior performance and social capital variables.

Individuals with ascribed social identities from membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping who claimed such identities exhibited greater employability resilience than was the case for individuals with ascribed social identities from membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping who did not claim such identities. In other words, fired coaches who were recognized as members of coaching trees or coaching families, and who claimed such membership, were more likely to be hired than those who did not claim such membership

Individuals with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor exhibited greater employability resilience than individuals with the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a non-relational actor. Namely, a fired coach who was a member of a coaching family was more likely to find employment than was the case for a fired coach who was a member of a coaching tree.

## **Post Hoc Analyses**

### ***Employer Status***

After establishing the importance of social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping as a predictor of employer status, I investigated various dimensions of such ascribed social identities. These dimensions included the number of individuals with the same ascribed social identity (i.e., the size of each professional sub-grouping), the visibility of the professional sub-grouping (i.e., the number of articles written by media experts about each professional sub-grouping), the visibility of the recognized leader of each professional sub-grouping (i.e., the number of articles written by media experts about the leader of each professional sub-grouping), and the status of the professional sub-grouping (i.e., the average employer status of the members of each professional sub-grouping). The identifiable professional sub-groupings varied in size from 3 coaches (the Barry Collier Tree) to 19 coaches (the Hank Iba Tree). Media attention to identifiable professional sub-groupings ranged from two articles (the Jim Larranaga Tree) to 109 articles (the Tar Heel Family), and media attention to identifiable professional sub-grouping leaders ranged from 3,648 articles

(Pete Carill of the Princeton Family) to 53,568 articles (Rick Pitino of the Rick Pitino Family).

Results indicate that these factors did not predict the employer status for individuals with such ascribed social identities who changed jobs during the study period (see Appendix D for Regression Models 28 - 31). I also investigated the impact of this type of social identity on employer status at various points in a job seekers career. Findings indicate that the beneficial impact of having this type of ascribed social identity decreased as a job seeker gained more experience and exposure in the coaching profession (see Appendix D, Model 32:  $\beta = 2.24$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

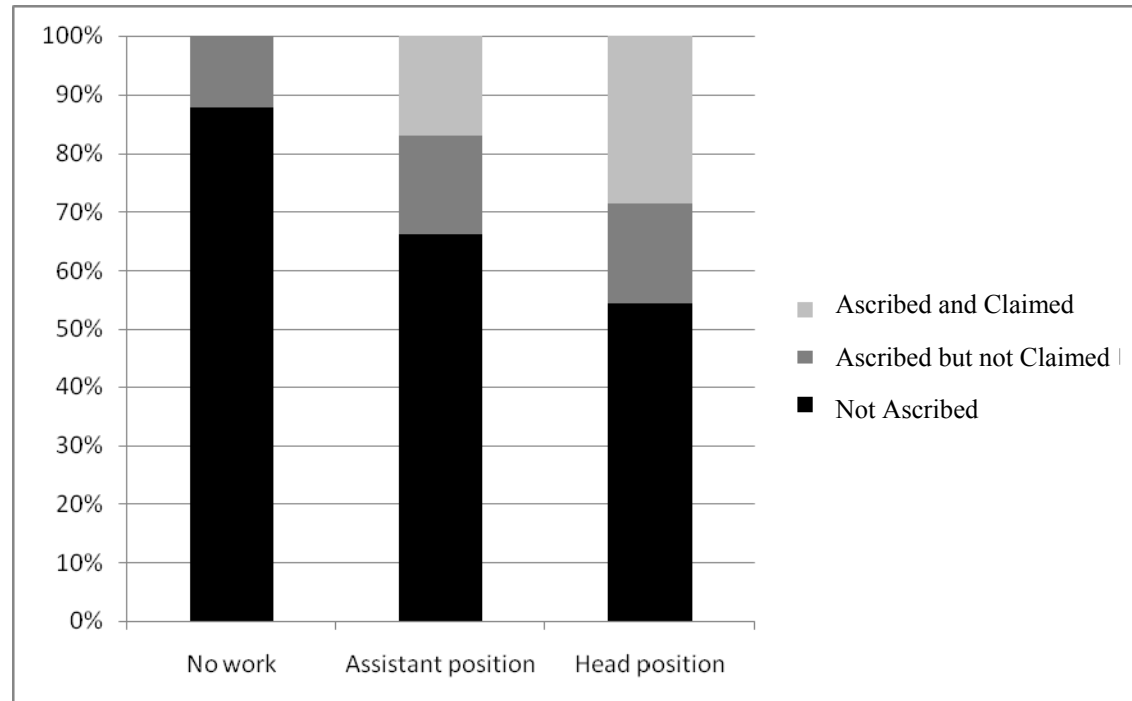
### ***Employability Resilience***

I also investigated whether the size, visibility of the professional sub-grouping, visibility of the leader of each professional sub-grouping, and the status of each professional sub-grouping predicted the employability resilience of members. Results indicate that these dimensions did not predict the employability resilience of individuals with such ascribed social identities who were fired (see Appendix D for Regression Models 33 - 36). Results also indicate that the positive effect of this type of social identity on employability resilience did not decrease as a coach gained more work experience (see Appendix D for Regression Model 37). Namely, the resilience benefits of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping remained constant over an individual's career.

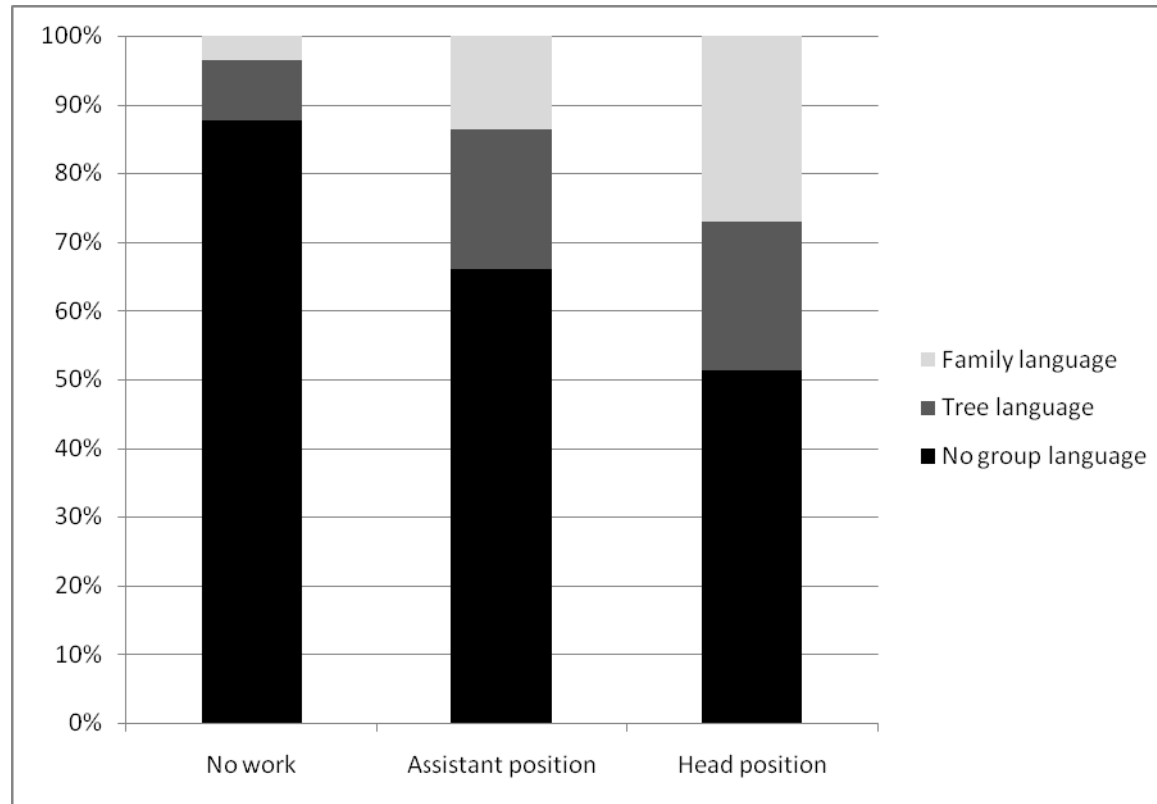
I also investigated whether the firings of coaches with membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings stigmatized fellow coaches who shared the same social

identity. For example, I investigated whether a fired coach from a coaching family in which fellow members had recently been fired would have less success obtaining subsequent employment than a fired coach from a coaching family in which fellow members had not recently been fired. Statistical analysis revealed that there was no significant relationship between these variables, indicating that the social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping was not stigmatized when fellow members were fired (see Appendix D for Regression Model 38).

**FIGURE 10: Comparison of Employability Resilience for Coaches without an Ascribed Social Identity, an Ascribed but not Claimed Identity, and an Ascribed and Claimed Identity**



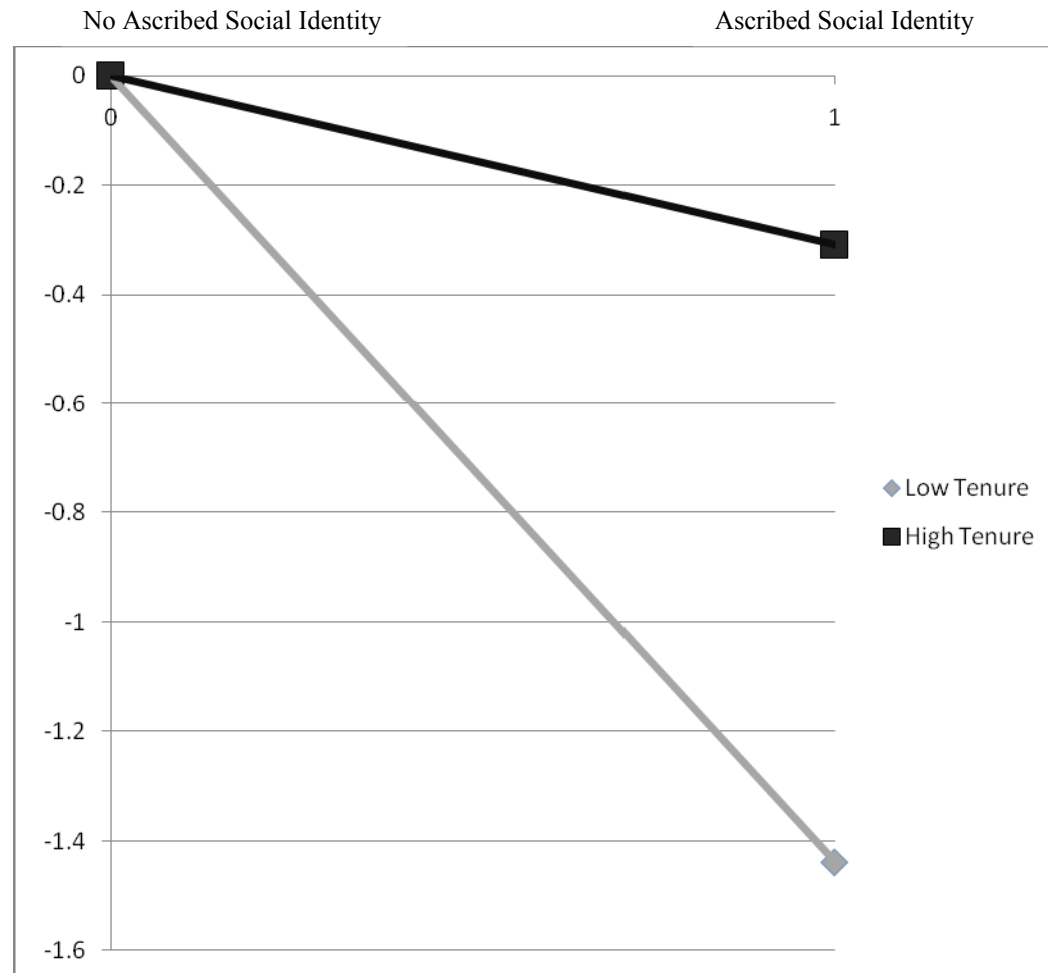
**FIGURE 11: Comparison of the Employability Resilience of Fired Coaches with Social Identities Characterized Using Different Language**





**FIGURE 12:** The Interaction Effect of Social Identity and Tenure on Employer Status

(Note: a negative coefficient indicates that the variable predicts allocation of a position with an employer of high status)



**TABLE 8: Negative Binomial Regression Models of Employer Status (n=282)**

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
	Controls	Perf	Perf	Perf	SC	SC	SC	SI	Full Model
<b>Prior Performance</b>									
NCAA Tournament in prior year		-2.48*		-2.34*					-2.54*
		(0.10)		(0.10)					(0.01)
Winning Percentage			-0.76	-0.53					-0.01
			(0.00)	(0.00)					(0.00)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments			-3.10**	-3.12**					-2.54
			(0.01)	(0.01)					(0.09)
<b>Social Capital</b>									
Connectivity					-1.18		-1.00		0.31
					(0.01)		(0.02)		(0.02)
Status Affiliations						-0.70	-0.34		1.02
						(0.00)	(0.00)		(0.00)
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>									
Ascribed Social Identity								-4.15**	-3.64**
								(0.09)	(0.10)
<b>Control Variables</b>									
Year of Position Change	0.73	0.55	0.11	-0.04	0.78	0.78	0.80	0.64	-0.13
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Year of Birth	-0.72	-0.84	-1.09	-1.23	-0.62	-0.70	-0.62	-0.46	-1.07
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Status of Prior Employer	2.01*	0.59	0.88	-0.29	1.62	1.83	1.57	1.62	-0.22
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Tenure (total games)	-0.58	-0.74	0.88	0.68	-0.18	-0.42	-0.15	-0.19	0.38
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	-0.37	-0.13	0.41	0.63	-0.46	-0.43	-0.48	-0.36	0.65
	(39.20)	(39.07)	(39.59)	(39.54)	(39.21)	(39.30)	(39.27)	(38.17)	(39.09)
Observations	282	282	282	282	282	282	282	282	282
Log likelihood	-1678.77	-1675.71	-1672.65	-1669.95	-1678.98	-1678.52	-1678.03	-1670.81	-1663.52
Change in LL from baseline	.	6.11*	12.23**	17.63**	1.37	0.49	1.49	15.91**	30.49**
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01									

**TABLE 9: Negative Binomial Regression Models of Employer Status Among Individuals with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-grouping (n = 80)**

	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>
	<b>Controls</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>SI</b>
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>			
Claimed Social Identity		-2.08*	
		(0.26)	
SI Characterized as a Relational Actor			-1.64t
			(0.18)
<b>Controls</b>			
<b>Prior Performance Variables</b>			
NCAA Tournament in prior year	-2.06*	-1.91t	-1.92*
	(0.23)	(0.22)	(0.22)
Winning Percentage	-0.19	0.69	0.27
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	-1.72t	-1.97*	-1.93*
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)
<b>Social Capital</b>			
Connectivity	0.71	0.38	1.11
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)
Status Affiliations	-0.08	0.01	-0.56
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Year of Position Change	-0.27	0.19	0.10
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Year of Birth	-0.74	-0.76	-0.70
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Status of Prior Employer	-0.10	-0.16	-0.12
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Tenure (total games)	1.02	1.41	0.89
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	0.61	0.16	0.22
	(95.00)	(94.06)	(96.71)
Observations	80	80	80
Log likelihood	-455.88	-453.63	-454.52
Change in LL from baseline		4.50*	2.71t
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01			

**TABLE 10: Logistic Regression Models of Employability Resilience**

	Model 13	Model 14	Model 15	Model 16	Model 17	Model 18	Model 19	Model 20	Model 21
	Controls	Perf	Perf	Perf	SC	SC	SC	SI	Full Model
<b>Performance Variables</b>									
NCAA Tournament in prior year		2.32* (4.36)		2.00* (3.76)					1.79t (3.40)
Winning Percentage			1.26 (0.03)	0.70 (0.03)					0.73 (0.03)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments			1.42 (0.07)	1.55 (0.07)					0.05 (0.07)
<b>Social Capital</b>									
Connectivity					3.34** (0.07)		2.24** (0.08)		1.23 (0.08)
Status Affiliations						2.94** (0.00)	1.51 (0.00)		0.94 (0.00)
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>									
Ascribed Social Identity								3.34** (1.17)	1.72t (0.88)
<b>Control Variables</b>									
Year of Position Change	-2.07* (0.08)	-2.38* (0.08)	-1.65t (0.08)	-1.93* (0.08)	-1.98* (0.08)	-2.08* (0.08)	-2.02* (0.08)	-1.81t (0.08)	-1.97* (0.09)
Year of Birth	1.21 (0.03)	1.45 (0.03)	1.16 (0.03)	1.35 (0.03)	0.32 (0.03)	0.74 (0.03)	0.27 (0.03)	1.15 (0.03)	0.78 (0.03)
Status of Prior Employer	-3.11* (0.00)	-2.57* (0.00)	-1.46 (0.00)	-1.31 (0.00)	-2.56** (0.00)	-2.87** (0.00)	-2.54** (0.00)	-2.72** (0.00)	-1.41 (0.00)
Tenure (total games)	2.44** (0.00)	2.47** (0.00)	1.14 (0.00)	1.27 (0.00)	1.39 (0.00)	1.83t (0.00)	1.32 (0.00)	2.35 (1.17)	1.27 (0.00)
Observations	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Log likelihood	-151.41	-148.42	-148.24	-146.06	-145.52	-146.96	-144.38	-145.64	-140.32
Change in LL from baseline		5.97*	6.32*	10.68*	11.78**	8.90**	14.05**	11.53**	22.17**

Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; \* p < .05; \*\* p< .01

**TABLE 11: Logistic Regression Models of Employability Resilience Among Individuals with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-grouping (n = 44)**

	<b>Model 22</b>	<b>Model 23</b>	<b>Model 24</b>
	<b>Controls</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>SI</b>
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>			
Claimed Social Identity		2.23* (3.67)	
SI Characterized as a Relational Actor			1.93* (1.83)
<b>Controls</b>			
<b>Performance Variables</b>			
NCAA Tournament in prior year			
Winning Percentage	0.09 (0.08)	-0.17 (0.08)	-0.42 (0.08)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	0.50 (0.17)	0.37 (0.17)	0.82 (0.18)
<b>Social Capital</b>			
Connectivity	0.29 (0.11)	0.54 (0.11)	0.37 (0.11)
Status Affiliations	0.38 (0.00)	0.03 (0.00)	0.59 (0.00)
Year of Position Change	0.28 (0.21)	0.03 (0.21)	0.17 (0.21)
Year of Birth	-0.47 (0.07)	-0.66 (0.21)	-0.88 (0.21)
Status of Prior Employer	-1.12 (0.26)	-0.77 (0.00)	-0.78 (0.00)
Tenure (total games)	-0.61 (0.00)	-0.12 (0.00)	-0.68 (0.00)
Observations	44	44	44
Log likelihood	-42.27	-39.60	-40.32
Change in LL from baseline		5.34*	3.89*
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01			

**TABLE 12: Summary of Hypotheses and Findings**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Findings</b>
H1: Consistent with existing literature, the prior accomplishments of a job seeker will be positively related to the status of the job seeker's next employer: H1a. recent performance; H1b: cumulative performance	Supported
H2a: Consistent with existing literature, the greater the connectivity of a job seeker, the greater will be the status of the job seeker's next employer. H2b: Consistent with existing literature, the greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater will be the status of the job seeker's next employer.	Failure to support
H3: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will receive a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker not recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping.	Supported
H4: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claims such an identity will receive a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who does not claim such an identity.	Supported
H5: Among individuals in a certain profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will obtain a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor.	Failure to support
H6: The prior accomplishments of a job seeker will be positively related to the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired: H6a. recent performance; H6b: cumulative performance	(a) Supported (b) Failure to support
H7a: The greater the connectivity of a job seeker who has recently been fired, the greater the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired. H7b: The greater the status of a job seeker's affiliations, the greater the likelihood that he or she will obtain employment after being fired.	Supported
H8: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for a job seeker not recognized as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping.	Partially Supported
H9: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who also claims such identity will more likely obtain employment after being fired than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping who does not claim such identity.	Supported
H10: Among individuals in the same profession, a job seeker who is recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor will obtain a position with an employer of higher status than will be the case for a job seeker recognized by audiences as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping that is characterized as a non-relational actor.	Supported

## **CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION**

Using the career moves of NCAA basketball coaches as an empirical setting, this dissertation was a study of the impact on career progression and employability resilience of prior performance, network connectivity, status affiliations, and social identity. Findings indicate that prior performance positively predicts employer status and employability resilience, and that network connectivity positively predicts employability resilience. Most novel among the findings is the fact that individuals with an ascribed social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping accrue considerable career benefits above and beyond the benefits attributable to prior performance and social capital. Additionally, the benefits of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping are maximal when the individual also publicly claims his or her social identity. In this chapter I will elaborate on the core findings linking social identity to career outcomes, and also discuss some unexpected findings about additional hypothesized factors that predict career progression and resilience.

### **Predicting Employer Status**

In assessing the impact on employer status of the ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping, individuals with the ascribed social identity of being a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping obtained positions with employers of higher status, as compared with individuals who were not members. This finding held when controlling for prior performance, network connectivity, and status affiliations, suggesting that this ascribed social identity provides additional information important to understanding factors that predict career progression.

The social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping signals concise information about the social identity of an individual. In the case of NCAA coaches this social identity conveys clarity of a coach's playing style, academic standards, and values which are not assessable from looking just at prior performance, network connectivity, and status affiliations. This information, concisely signaled through membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping, makes an individual more easily understood, more predictable, and therefore more valuable in the labor market.

As discussed in Chapter 2, individuals tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories that have meaning and significance (Ashforth & Mael 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). In the field of NCAA basketball coaches, the process of social categorization into identifiable professional sub-groupings serves to help order the environment into cognitive segments that provide a coach, university administrators, and media experts with a systematic means of defining others and making sense of their behaviors in a cognitively efficient manner (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1997). The process of social categorization also allows audiences to better understand others. For example, audiences can attribute to a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping the prototypical characteristics of the sub-grouping in the absence of other information. This dissertation contributes to literature on career progression by asserting that in career settings, individuals' social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings influence their progression by allowing audiences to better



understand them and more capably predict their future behavior. Social identity has so far been an insufficiently studied concept in the careers literature.

In assessing the impact of an individual's ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping, individuals with ascribed social identities who also claim such identities obtain positions with employers of higher status than is the case for individuals recognized as members of identifiable professional sub-groupings who did not claim such membership. In other words, with the public identity claim, the job seeker is likely to be more easily understood and valued due to mutual agreement regarding the job seeker's claimed and ascribed identity. When individuals with ascribed social identities fail to claim such identity, they obtain positions with less prestigious employers and are less likely to find employment after being fired. This suggests that failure to claim the identity might have the effect of leading external audiences to conclude that the job seeker does not fit with the values and meaning of the ascribed identity, and is therefore no more easily understood than a job seeker without an ascribed social identity.

Since the seminal work of Stone (1962), the majority of work in categorizations and markets has discussed the audience's placement of an actor in a category, rather than the actor's announcement of membership (e.g., Podolny, 1993; Zuckerman et al., 2003). Zuckerman and colleagues (2003) suggest that psychological approaches to identity "are limited in that they do not look beyond the organizational members' perceptions and thus the extent to which such perceptions may be irrelevant or at least highly circumscribed by external attributions...Such perceptions may be irrelevant or at least highly circumscribed

by external attributions” (p. 30-31). However, the present study provides evidence for a different assertion, namely that the valuation process of job seekers is also influenced by the identity claims of job seekers who are recognized as having an ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping. Furthermore, the benefits of social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping are maximal when the identity is both ascribed by external audiences and claimed by the individual.

This dissertation also differentiates social identity from other constructs. For example, one might argue that individuals who share the same ascribed social identity as members of an identifiable professional sub-grouping are talented people who are drawn to each other, and it is because of their inherent talent, not their identity, that these individuals excel in obtaining employment. Although individuals with such ascribed social identities presumably must have talent and quality to gain access to the coaching profession and be recognized for their identity, the results of the present study suggest that social identity provides benefits above and beyond talent. By including prior performance variables, a possible alternative explanation that this form of social identity is solely a proxy for quality was negated. Namely, although coaches with prior successful performance records obtained jobs with employers of higher status, social identity explains additional variance of employer status.

One might also argue that individuals with the social identity of being members of identifiable professional sub-groupings accrue benefits from network connectivity and status affiliations, and not from their identity. However, the present study provides evidence that individuals with this type of social identity are able to obtain more

prestigious positions than are individuals with similar network connectivity and similar status affiliations. Furthermore, individuals with social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings of varying status do not have different career outcomes (e.g., employer status, employability resilience), suggesting that status is not the lone driver linking social identity to career progression. In the case of coaches, one might argue that the status of the affiliated “head coach” of a sub-grouping is primarily driving the success of connected others. Although identifiable professional sub-groupings in this setting were formed around a focal legendary coach, the results indicate that this form of social identity provides individuals with benefits that are above and beyond those accrued from merely being affiliated with a high-status individual. By controlling for the media visibility of each sub-grouping’s central figure in post hoc analyses, a possible alternative explanation was negated; namely, that social identity is solely a proxy of being affiliated to a famous individual.

In the assessment of the impact on employer status of the characteristics of ascribed social identities, the present study does not provide evidence that individuals with social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings characterized as relational actors obtain positions with employers of higher status than do individuals with social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings characterized as non-relational actors. It was predicted that social identities of membership in identifiable professional sub-groupings characterized as relational actors would be more easily understood by audiences, and therefore individuals with social identities characterized as relational actors would obtain positions with prestigious

employers. In the empirical setting of the present study, coaches who were members of coaching families (relational actors) did not obtain positions with more prestigious basketball programs than did coaches who were members of coaching trees (non-relational actors). As will be discussed later in this chapter, having a social identity characterized as a relational actor is not irrelevant to career progression, because such a social identity does have an influence on employability resilience.

Having an ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping is more beneficial for job seekers early in their careers, than it is for job seekers later in their careers. A social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping provides a job seeker with an identity that is recognized by external audiences, especially when relatively little information is known about the job seeker who has not yet had the opportunity to establish a track record of accomplishments. Taken together, this pattern of results suggests that external audiences with limited information about a job seeker likely attribute the identity content of the professional sub-grouping to the individual in their attempt to understand his or her identity and values and to predict his or her behavior. In time, this person will develop an individualized identity, and his or her social identity based on prior work experiences will gradually diminish in salience to external audiences as the individual becomes more recognizable and respected for his or her individual achievements.

### **Predicting Employability Resilience**

The present study provides evidence that having an ascribed social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping predicts the likelihood that a

fired individual will obtain employment after being fired. In the case of coaches, fired coaches who were members of one of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings (e.g., the Pitino Family) were more likely to obtain employment than were fired coaches who were not members of one of the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings. As discussed by Goffman (1963), an unemployed person, especially one who has been fired, can be viewed by others as possessing several negative attributes. Yet, these pejorative connotations can be discredited if the individual can also be recognized for the positive attributes of his or her social identity. This conclusion contributes to the literature on careers by further highlighting the importance of social identity when the identity of an individual is questioned and stigmatized. To date, little research has investigated the ways in which social identity can counteract stigmatization that might emerge from job termination.

After being fired, claiming one's membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping plays an important role in helping the fired individual obtain employment, because attention is diverted from the stigmatized identity. In other words, the individual signals that he or she acknowledges the meaning and values of the social identity, and is also likely to act in ways consistent with the social identity. This finding highlights the very special value of such identity claims, because the fired individual is less likely to be perceived as flawed. Fired coaches who spoke openly about their memberships in identifiable professional sub-groupings such as the Pitino family were more likely to be hired than those who did not claim comparable membership.

Members of identifiable professional sub-groupings characterized as relational actors have more success in obtaining employment after being fired than is the case for members of professional sub-groupings characterized as non-relational actors. When audiences are not able to make sense of a stigmatized individual, they may try to act as if the individual is a "non-person" to avoid the discomforts of interactions (Goffman, 1963). Glynn and Wrobel (2007) suggest that audiences can leverage their understanding of family relationships or what it means to be a parent, a brother, an aunt, or a relative, to better understand how to interact with an organization labeled as a "family." Likewise, audiences can leverage their understanding of social relationships to ease their difficulties in interacting with stigmatized individuals with social identities characterized as relational actors. In the case of coaches, having a social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping characterized as a relational actor (family) did not predict employer status, but in this analysis it is evident that the relational characterization did predict whether fired coaches would find work. This contrast points to an interesting distinction which suggests that "family" identity is especially important in difficult times (e.g., following job termination), but not so essential for career launching or upward mobility. While not tested in this dissertation, it is also possible that individuals with "relational" social identities are more likely to provide each other with social support, much like one would support a biological family member. The discovered influential impact on employability resilience of the characterization of a social identity as a relational actor contributes to the literature on identity and career progression by highlighting the ways such characterizations can benefit fired job seekers in subtle yet

significant ways. A characterization as a relational actor is not a signal of quality as much as it is a signal of comprehensibility, which differs markedly from most status characterizations discussed in the literature (e.g., Cable & Murray, 1999; Podolny, 2001).

Success just prior to being fired influences an individual's employability resilience. In this setting, coaches who appeared in the NCAA tournament in the year prior to being fired were more likely to obtain employment after being fired than coaches who did not appear in the tournament. Interestingly, a coach's cumulative performance success (i.e., total NCAA tournament appearances) did not significantly predict employability resilience. This finding suggests that when fired, recent success can blunt the stigmatized identity and therefore make a job seeker more valuable than a fired job seeker who lacks recent success. The recency of the success is more important than the historical track record in determining subsequent employment opportunity for a fired coach. This finding has significance in highlighting how advantageous it is for job seekers who can reap the benefits of their most recent accomplishments despite having been fired. The fact that a job seeker at one time was successful, but not successful in the most recent evaluation phase, does not give the job seeker the same level of advantage that he or she would have with a record of very recent success.

The greater the number of former coworkers upon whom a fired job seeker can call, the greater the likelihood that this individual will obtain subsequent employment. In the present study, the likelihood that a fired coach would find employment after being fired was predicted by the number of coaches with whom he had worked. Namely, the more coaches with whom a fired coach had worked, the greater the likelihood that he

would obtain subsequent employment. Consistent with Granovetter (1982), this finding suggests that relationships are important in the job search process, and especially important for a stigmatized individual. When an individual is fired, it is likely that he or she actively calls on former coworkers for social support and information about opportunities.

In addition to the benefits associated with connectivity, status affiliations also predict whether individuals find employment after being fired. In other words, the higher the status of colleagues with whom a fired individual has worked, the more likely it is that he or she will find subsequent employment. For a fired coach, the greater the number of career wins of one of his colleagues, the more likely it was that he would obtain employment. This finding highlights the importance of network relationships following a firing, and as such contributes to work on social capital in which it has been determined that network relationships with others of high status provide an individual with access to career resources (e.g., Lin et al., 1981; Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001). Such access is especially important following a job termination when a fired individual is looking for another job.

### **Contributions to Literature**

In summary, four major contributions emerge from this study: (1) the importance of social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping in predicting career outcomes; (2) the importance of claiming social identities; (3) the elucidation of factors that predict employability resilience; and (4) the proposition of a mediated model of career progression and employability resilience.



*Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-Grouping.* This study contributes to careers literature by indicating that social identities of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping are important factors that influence career progression. Valuable information about a job seeker's values, character, and identity which cannot easily be obtained from signals such as prior performance, network connectivity and status affiliations, can be obtained from his or her ascribed social identity. Namely, the identity content of the social identity is ascribed to the individual, making him or her more easily understood. Audiences gain a better understanding of how to interact with such an individual, and audiences also develop expectations about the behavior and actions of the individual. Post-hoc analyses indicate that membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping is a social identity that results in career benefits which are above and beyond those of status affiliations and network connectivity. To date, little work has investigated the role of social identity in career progression.

*Claiming Social Identities.* This dissertation contributes to identity literature by indicating the beneficial impact that occurs when an individual publicly claims his or her ascribed social identity. Namely, the act of claiming the identity likely signals that the individual will act in accordance with the meaning and values of the ascribed social identity, making him or her more valuable on the labor market. This extends work of Zuckerman (1999) and Podolny (1993) who suggest that individual identity claims do not influence opportunity. By combining both a sociological and psychological perspective of identity, strong evidence is provided to support the ways in which individual identity claims do in fact influence opportunity.

*Employability Resilience.* This dissertation utilizes employability resilience as an additional measure of career progression and identifies prior performance, social capital, and social identity as important determinants of whether an individual will find work after being fired. To date, there has been only one empirical study that investigates employability resilience. The findings of the present study suggest that fired individuals can rely on relationships to obtain information about subsequent opportunities, and that it is especially important for them to publicize their ascribed social identity in order to blunt the stigmatized identity following a firing.

*A Model of Career Progression and Employability Resilience.* The pattern of findings in this dissertation also contributes to careers literature by proposing a mediated model of career progression and resilience for further analysis. Findings suggest that having a social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping makes a job seeker more easily understood by external audiences (e.g., hiring committees, industry analysts, media experts, organizational stakeholders, etc.), and therefore more valuable on the job market than is the case for a job seeker without such an identity.

### **Implications for Job Seekers**

Findings from the present study can be applied to the labor markets of managers and top executives. As discussed, coaches of men's teams in NCAA basketball are similar to managers, in that organizational performance is in many ways attributed to the leader. Identifiable professional sub-groupings as social identities are also evident among affiliated executives. For example, as previously discussed, former employees of General

Electric are referred to as “Graduates of Welch U.” Even though researchers (Groysberg, McLean, & Nohria, 2006) have concluded that the performance results of former GE executives after leaving GE have been uneven, these “Graduates of Welch U” continue to be offered top executive positions. For job seekers, the accrued career benefits of this form of social identity exceed the benefits of prior performance, especially early in one’s career, and job seekers are wise to claim and publicize such identities.

### **Implications for Managers**

Findings of this study can also be used by managers to highlight potential biases in hiring practices. For example, this study indicates that job-seekers who are members of identifiable professional sub-groupings obtain more prestigious positions and exhibit more employability resilience than those without such identities, but does not investigate the subsequent performance of these individuals. In some cases these individuals fail to live up to their expectations. For example, during “Welch U” executive Robert Nardelli’s tenure at Home Depot, the company’s stock value stagnated while competitor Lowe’s saw its stock value double (Hayashi, 2009). So, it is important that potential hiring biases are recognized.

### **Limitations & Future Directions**

While this investigation revealed statistical trends in labor market activity for one profession, subsequent analyses would be strengthened with the addition of qualitative data such as interviews with coaches and university administrators who hire coaches. These data could be used to develop and test a path model linking social identity with career progression and resilience through an analysis of audience factors and

individualized factors. Interviews with members of hiring committees would help identify whether individuals with ascribed social identities are more easily understood and more positively evaluated during the hiring process. Furthermore, interviews with individuals who share the same social identity (i.e., are part of the same professional grouping) would help determine the types of social support provided to fellow members, the strength of relationships between members (e.g., frequency of interactions, intensity of interactions, duration of relationships), and the level of identification with the social identity by members.

It would also be interesting to investigate the effects of having an ascribed social identity that comes to be perceived by media experts in a negative light. Results in this dissertation indicate that an individual having the same social identity as a fired coach is not harmed by the relationship, but it is possible that sharing a social identity with individuals who act in ways that are not valued by audiences might have a detrimental effect on the employability resilience and career progression of members. An example in this setting includes the recent behavior of members of the Bobby Knight Coaching tree. For example, Coach Bob Knight received a tremendous amount of negative press following his many disciplinary problems at the University of Indiana before being fired (e.g., <http://espn.go.com/ncb/s/bobknightindex.html>, accessed November 5, 2008); Knight tree member, Dave Bliss was recently banned from working in any athletic position at any university for his role in covering up details about the murder of one of his players at Baylor University (Schlabach, 2008); and Pat Knight (who is also the son of Bobby Knight) was recently reprimanded by the Big 12 conference for being ejected

from a game due to poor behavior (Associated Press, February 2, 2009). It is possible that these violations will affect the future opportunities of fellow members of the Knight coaching tree. A benefit of this setting is that the NCAA keeps records of violations and suspensions which would allow investigation of potential detrimental effects of affiliations with coaches who are known or perceived as problem-prone.

Further investigation should also be conducted on the emergence of the social identities studied in this project. Early analysis of media accounts indicates that the emergence of identifiable professional sub-groupings in NCAA basketball followed an increase in public scrutiny of coaches. For example, after retiring in 1987, legendary coach Ray Meyer commented about the increased scrutiny of coaches by saying that coaches were now forced to coach “with guns held to their heads” (Meyer & Sons, 1987). The increase in scrutiny led Temple Coach John Chaney to state, “A coach should only be loyal to himself. The fans are not loyal. The presidents fire coaches with 20-win seasons who lose in the first round. They are not loyal” (Vecsey, 2001). This scrutiny led to greater job movements of coaches (both voluntary and involuntary). It is possible that media experts began recognizing coaching trees and families as identifiable professional sub-groupings in response to the increasing job movement among coaches in NCAA basketball. Coaches also likely played a role in this recognition process and may have begun to claim these identities to reshape the relational boundaries of the job and reframe the meaning of their work, much like job crafting activities discussed by Wryzesniewski and Dutton (2001). In the present study, there was approximately a three-year lag between increases in the number of articles mentioning fired coaches and

increases in the number of articles mentioning coaching families and trees. This might indicate that these types of social identities arise as job security issues gain more public attention in an industry. Future analysis, such as interviews with coaches and media experts, would attempt to identify the factors leading to the emergence of coaching groups in the late 1990s, and elucidate why the 16 identifiable professional sub-groupings in this study came to be recognized and validated.

In conclusion, this study provides evidence supporting the conclusion that social identity of membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping has significant influence on the career progression and employability resilience of leaders in a field. Through an analysis of data from NCAA men's basketball coaching staffs, having an ascribed social identity as a member of an identifiable professional sub-grouping was found to predict the employer status and employability resilience of job seekers, controlling for prior performance, network connectivity, and status affiliations. I theorize that job seekers with such ascribed social identities are hired for positions with employers of higher status and exhibit greater employability resilience because the identity content of the professional sub-grouping is ascribed to individuals, making them more easily understood by external audiences. This type of social identity provides concise information about an individual's values, character, and predicted behavior which is not evident from looking at prior performance or network connectivity.

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## APPENDIX A

### **Determining the Statistical Integrity Coaching Groups**

To investigate the statistical integrity of these sub-groupings I conducted two additional analyses. The first analysis is a group level analysis of different social identities in NCAA basketball to investigate whether members of coaching sub-groupings utilize coaching strategies that are different from non-affiliation members (providing a form of integrity for sub-groupings). The second analysis is a dyadic analysis to investigate whether two coaches who employ similar strategies are more likely to be members of the same sub-grouping (elucidating category membership criteria).

#### **Analysis 1: Group Level Analysis of Statistical Integrity**

##### ***Dependent Variable***

*Playing Style Statistics.* To determine playing style, I collected team playing statistics from the 2007-2008 season for all teams. The collected statistics include Points per Game, Field Goal Percentage per Game, Free Throws per Game, Three Pointers Attempted per Game, Three Pointers Made per game, Offensive Rebounds per Game, Defensive Rebounds per Game, Steals Per Game, Blocks Per Game, Assists per Game, and Turnovers per Game.

##### ***Independent Variable***

*Social Identity.* I identified members of identifiable professional sub-groupings as previously described.

### ***Model Specification***

I compared the mean playing style statistic of each sub-grouping with the mean playing style statistic of all non-grouping members. I utilized t-tests in Stata 11.0.

### **Analysis 2: Dyadic Analysis of Statistical Integrity**

#### ***Dependent Variable***

*Sub-Grouping Co-Membership.* To determine sub-grouping co-membership, I used qualitative data to identify all active coaches who were members of sub-groupings at the start of the 2007 season. I then created a coach-by-coach matrix entitled Sub-Grouping Co-Membership to identify coaches who were part of the same professional sub-grouping. In the Sub-Grouping Co-Membership matrix,  $x_{ij}$  equals 1 if the two coaches are members of the same sub-grouping, and 0 if they are not.

#### ***Independent Variables***

*Adjacency Matrix.* To calculate this measure, I first collected the complete career histories of all active coaches. I then created a complete historical affiliation network so that  $x_{ij}$  equals 1 if Coach  $i$  and Coach  $j$  were at the same institution at the same point in time. For example, Coaches Tubby Smith and Billy Donovan were both assistant coaches at the University of Kentucky in 1989, and therefore have an affiliation tie in the adjacency matrix.

*Structural Equivalence Matrix.* To calculate this measure, I correlated the rows of the adjacency matrix. Two coaches who share the same pattern of work relationships would be highly correlated. For example, Coaches Jimmy Patsos and Mike Longeran are

perfectly structurally equivalent because both have worked with Gary Williams and Dave Dickerson but with no other head coaches.

*Playing Style Similarity.* To determine playing style similarity, I first collected team playing statistics from the 2007-2008 season for all teams. The collected statistics include Points per Game, Field Goals per Game, Free Throws per Game, Three Pointers Attempted per Game, Three Pointers Made per game, Offensive Rebounds per Game, Defensive Rebounds per Game, Steals Per Game, Blocks Per Game, Assists per Game, and Turnovers per Game. Qualitative data suggest that certain coaches utilize similar strategies that can be seen in their team's playing style. To assess similarity, I correlated playing style statistics to create a coach-by-coach matrix entitled Playing Style Similarity. In this matrix  $x_{ij}$  equals the correlation of two coaches based on the playing style of their teams.

*Performance Similarity.* To determine Performance Similarity, I first collected the win-loss record for every coach between October 31, 2007 and October 31, 2008. I converted these statistics into a winning percentage. I then created a coach-by-coach matrix in which  $x_{ij}$  is the absolute difference in winning percentage of Coach  $i$  and Coach  $j$ .

### ***Model Specification***

I used MRQAP to regress matrix Sub-Grouping Co-Membership on matrix Adjacency (the network adjacency matrix), matrix Performance Similarity (similarity in winning performance matrix), matrix Structural Equivalence (similarity in structural



position matrix), and matrix Playing Style (similarity in coaching style matrix). I conducted this analysis using UCINET VI (Borgatti, Everett, & Freeman, 2002).

## **RESULTS**

At the group level, results indicate that members of certain identifiable professional sub-groupings utilize different strategies than those used by non-grouping members. For example, members of the Rick Pitino Family, Izzo Family, Calipari Family, Tar Heel Family, Princeton Family, Boeheim Tree, Iba Tree, and the Knight Tree use statistically different strategies than coaches who are not members of any identifiable professional sub-groupings. Appendix B presents these differences. For certain sub-groupings, the playing style statistics correspond with the qualitative espoused sub-grouping playing style. For example, the Pitino Family is known for stressing an up-tempo offensive style, which is evident in their above average points per game and number of steals per game; the Izzo Family is known for “hard work” and rebounding, which is evident in their above average defensive rebounds per game and blocks per game; the Princeton Family is known for the slow-down “Princeton offense,” which is evident in their below average points per game; and the Tar Heel Family is known for teamwork, which is evident in their above average assists per game. However, the statistical differences do not perfectly match with the espoused identity of each sub-grouping. For example, despite averaging more points per game than other coaches, there is no statistical evidence indicating that members of the Pitino Family attempt and convert more three-point attempts than non-members. In fact, Pitino’s 2007 team was 45<sup>th</sup> in three-point attempts and 205<sup>nd</sup> in shooting percentage for three-point shots. In

addition, for eight sub-groupings, no statistically significant differences were found in styles used by these sub-groupings when compared to other coaches.

Results from Multiple Regression Quadratic Assignment Procedure (a dyadic analysis) indicate that two coaches who employ similar strategies are only slightly more likely to be considered members of the same professional sub-grouping than are two coaches who do not employ similar strategies (Model 26:  $B = 0.01$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Appendix C presents these results. Findings also indicate that two coaches who share similar performance records are no more likely to be recognized as members of the same sub-grouping than are two coaches who do not share similar performance records. As expected, former colleagues and coaches who are structurally equivalent in the coworker network (e.g., two coaches who worked for the same third coach) are more likely to be recognized as members of the same sub-grouping than are randomly selected dyads (Model 27:  $B = 0.10$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

**APPENDIX B: Comparison of Coaching Strategy of Coaches with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an identifiable professional sub-grouping who were Active in 2007-2008 (n=341)**

Professional Sub-Grouping	N	Espoused Style	Significant Statistical Differences	SI Mean	Non-SI Mean	Statistical Significance
Barry Collier	2	Defense				
Bobby Knight	9	Motion Offense, Man to Man Defense	Higher field goal percentage per game	0.55	-0.11	t = 4.49**
Dean Smith / Tar Heel	10	T Zone Offense, Four Corners Offense	More assists per game	0.79	-0.12	t = 2.08*
Gary Williams	2	Flex Offense				
Hank Iba	19	Motion Offense, Man to Man Defense	More steals per game Fewer turnovers per game	0.85 -0.30	-0.04 0.06	t = 3.77** t = -1.95*
Jim Boeheim	4	Syracuse 2-3 Zone Defense	More blocks per game	1.07	-0.09	t = 2.37*
Jim Calhoun	6	3-out 2-in Motion Offense				
Jim Larranaga	1	Scrambling Defense				
John Calipari	4	Dribble Drive Motion Offense	More steals per Game	0.97	-0.04	t = 2.92*
Lute Olson	3	Motion Offense, Zone Defense				
Mike Krzyzewski	6	Team Defense				
Mike Montgomery	5	Motion Offense, Up-tempo				
Pete Gillen	1	Defense				
Pete Carill / Princeton	5	Princeton Offense	Fewer points per game	-1.18	-0.07	t = -2.97*
Rick Pitino	8	Three point shot	More points per game More defensive rebounds per game More steals per game More blocks per game Higher field goal percentage per game	0.66 0.73 0.86 0.83 0.70	-0.07 -0.08 -0.12 -0.09 -0.11	t = 2.09* t = 2.35* t = 4.83** t = 1.97* t = 3.31**
Tom Izzo / Spartan	9	Man to Man Defense, Rebounding	More defensive rebounds per game More blocks per game	0.57 0.44	-0.08 -0.09	t = 1.80* t = 2.02*
Comparison: Other Coaches	263	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

## APPENDIX C

### MRQAP Predicting Sub-Grouping Co-Membership

	<b>Model 25</b>	<b>Model 26</b>	<b>Model 27</b>
Similar Performance Style	0.00		0.00
Similar Playing Style		0.01**	0.00
Network Adjacency			0.25**
Structural Equivalence			0.10**
Constant	0.00	0.00	0.00
Observations	114582	114582	114582
R squared	0.00	0.00	0.084

t p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01

## APPENDIX D

### Post Hoc Analysis of Employer Status: Negative Binomial Regression Models of Employer Status Among Coaches with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-Grouping (n = 80)

	Model 28	Model 29	Model 30	Model 31
	SI	SI	SI	SI
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>				
Size of Sub-Grouping				-0.67 (0.02)
Sub-Grouping Status			0.35 (0.00)	
Visibility of Sub-Grouping	-0.72 (0.00)			
Visibility of Sub-Grouping Leader		-0.52 (0.00)		
<b>Controls</b>				
<b>Performance Variables</b>				
NCAA Tournament in prior year	-2.15* (0.23)	-2.03* (0.23)	-2.07* (0.23)	-2.06* (0.22)
Winning Percentage	-0.07 (0.02)	-0.17 (0.02)	-0.21 (0.02)	-0.28 (0.02)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	-1.82t (0.03)	-1.69t (0.03)	-1.57 (0.03)	-1.69t (0.03)
<b>Social Capital</b>				
Connectivity	0.71 (0.03)	0.73 (0.03)	0.65 (0.03)	0.71 (0.03)
Status Affiliations	-0.08 (0.00)	0.02 (0.00)	-0.02 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)
Year of Position Change	-0.09 (0.05)	-0.27 (0.05)	-0.23 (0.05)	-0.18 (0.05)
Year of Birth	-0.74 (0.02)	-0.60 (0.02)	-0.71 (0.02)	-0.73 (0.02)
Status of Prior Employer	-0.07 (0.00)	-0.07 (0.00)	-0.14 (0.00)	-0.18 (0.00)
Tenure (total games)	1.08 (0.00)	1.05 (0.00)	0.91 (0.00)	0.98 (0.00)
Constant	0.42 (97.57)	0.56 (95.02)	0.55 (95.95)	0.51 (96.87)
Observations	80	80	80	80
Log likelihood	-455.63	-	-	-
Change in LL from baseline	0.50	455.75 0.27	455.82 0.13	455.66 0.44
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01				

**Post Hoc Analysis of Employer Status: Negative Binomial Regression Model of Employer Status and Tenure (n = 282)**

	<b>Model 32</b>
	<b>Interaction</b>
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>	
Ascribed Social Identity	-3.70** (0.22)
Ascribed Social Identity x Tenure	2.24* (0.00)
<b>Controls</b>	
<b>Performance Variables</b>	
NCAA Tournament in prior year	-2.66** (0.09)
Winning Percentage	0.16 (0.00)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	-3.14** (0.08)
<b>Social Capital</b>	
Connectivity	0.21 (0.02)
Status Affiliations	0.82 (0.00)
Year of Position Change	-0.20 (0.02)
Year of Birth	-1.20 (0.00)
Status of Prior Employer	-0.65 (0.00)
Tenure (total games)	-0.26 (0.00)
Constant	0.77 (38.97)
Observations	282
Log likelihood	-1661.04
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01	

**Post Hoc Analysis: Logistic Regression Models of Employability Resilience Among Coaches with the Ascribed Social Identity of Membership in an Identifiable Professional Sub-Grouping (n = 44)**

	Model 33 SI	Model 34 SI	Model 35 SI	Model 36 SI
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>				
Size of Sub-Grouping		1.76t (0.10)		
Sub-Grouping Status	-0.16 (0.87)			
Visibility of Sub-Grouping			0.33 (0.02)	
Visibility of Leader				-0.01 (0.99)
<b>Controls</b>				
NCAA Tournament in prior year	.	.	.	.
Winning Percentage	0.11 (0.08)	0.06 (0.08)	0.09 (0.08)	0.09 (0.08)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	0.49 (0.17)	0.63 (0.17)	0.55 (0.18)	0.50 (0.17)
Connectivity	0.33 (0.12)	0.58 (0.12)	0.27 (0.11)	0.29 (0.11)
Status Affiliations	0.30 (0.00)	-0.49 (0.00)	0.35 (0.00)	0.37 (0.00)
Year of Position Change	0.32 (0.23)	0.61 (0.23)	0.33 (0.21)	0.27 (0.21)
Year of Birth	-0.49 (0.07)	-0.54 (0.06)	-0.50 (0.06)	-0.46 (0.07)
Status of Prior Employer	-0.94 (0.01)	-0.71 (0.00)	-0.96 (0.00)	-1.06 (0.00)
Tenure (total games)	-0.54 (0.00)	-0.66 (0.00)	-0.65 (0.00)	-0.61 (0.00)
Observations	44	44	44	44
Log likelihood	-42.25	-40.57	-42.21	-42.26
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01				

**Post Hoc Analysis: Logistic Regression Model of Employability Resilience and Tenure (n = 151)**

	<b>Model 37</b>
	<b>Interaction</b>
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>	
Ascribed Social Identity	0.98 (4.96)
Ascribed Social Identity x Tenure	-0.31 (0.00)
<b>Controls</b>	
<b>Prior Performance Variables</b>	
NCAA Tournament in prior year	0.55 (1.61)
Winning Percentage	0.82 (0.03)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	-0.24 (0.08)
<b>Social Capital</b>	
Connectivity	0.37 (0.10)
Status Affiliations	1.21 (0.00)
Year of Position Change	-2.08* (0.10)
Year of Birth	1.11 (0.04)
Status of Prior Employer	-0.98 (0.00)
Tenure (total games)	1.35 (0.00)
Observations	151
Log likelihood	-84.28
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01	



**Post Hoc Analysis: Logistic Regression Model of Employability Resilience and  
Number of Firings of Fellow Sub-Grouping Members (n = 44)**

	<b>Model</b>
	<b>38</b>
	<b>SI</b>
<b>Social Identity Variables</b>	
Number of Coaches Previously Fired with Same Social Identity	0.48 (0.35)
<b>Controls</b>	
NCAA Tournament in prior year	.
Winning Percentage	0.06 (0.08)
Cumulative NCAA Tournaments	0.55 (0.17)
Connectivity	0.38 (0.11)
Status Affiliations	0.38 (0.00)
Year of Position Change	-0.11 (0.26)
Year of Birth	-0.45 (0.07)
Status of Prior Employer	-1.12 (0.00)
Tenure (total games)	-0.70 (0.00)
Observations	44
Log likelihood	-42.15
Standard error in parentheses t p<.10; * p < .05; ** p< .01	

## **APPENDIX E**

### **A Detailed Example of the Influence of Social Identity on Career Progression**

On April 18, 2005 Matt Doherty was hired as head basketball coach at Florida Atlantic University extending a strange period in his career. Only five years earlier, Doherty had been chosen to coach the prestigious University of North Carolina basketball team despite having only one year of head coaching experience at the University of Notre Dame where he led the Irish to a far from spectacular 22 win and 15 loss season. Three years later, Doherty was forced to resign from the University of North Carolina after leading the team to an 8-20 performance in 2001-2002, and a 19-16 performance in 2002-2003. Despite his struggles, in 2005 Doherty was given a second chance to coach Division I basketball, primarily due to his affiliation with the recognized Tar Heel coaching family. To better understand the importance of the Tar Heel Family as a determinant of Doherty's career progression, one must understand the creation of the Tar Heel Family.

Much of the prominence and popularity of UNC basketball is due to legendary Coach Dean Smith who coached at UNC from 1958-1997, winning two National Championships and compiling a record of 879-254. Smith came to UNC after playing under legendary Coach Phog Allen who had learned basketball from James Naismith, the inventor of the sport. In addition to being well situated in a lineage of historical basketball legends, Dean Smith extended the family tree of basketball legends by creating and cultivating the concept of family at the University of North Carolina.

The “Tar Heel Family” refers to all individuals who have spent time as part of the UNC basketball team, and includes many NBA superstars such as Michael Jordan, James Worthy, Rasheed Wallace, and Vince Carter as well as successful NBA and NCAA coaches such as George Karl and Larry Brown. Membership is a life-long experience. Coach Karl, who played under Smith talks of the identity of the Tar Heel Family as a tradition that Smith “built of loyalty and camaraderie” creating a “fraternity that’s very much admired by basketball people of the world” (UNC Men’s Basketball 2006 Media Guide).

The concept of “Tar Heel Family” was strengthened in 1997 when, after Dean Smith retired as the winningest coach in basketball history, he petitioned for the University to name long-time assistant Bill Guthridge as head coach, rather than conducting a national search. Although Guthridge had never served as a head coach, this move was applauded by the Carolina faithful who viewed Guthridge as a continuation of the Dean Smith legacy and pure lineage. Guthridge coached three successful years before deciding to retire from the profession in 2000. Following Guthridge’s announcement, UNC only contacted job candidates with former ties to Smith, and the University looked to continue the enduring and distinct family identity generated by Dean Smith (Katz, 2000).

### **July 11, 2000: Matt Doherty Hired**

On July 11, 2000 the University of North Carolina further claimed a distinct and continual family identity by selecting UNC alum Matt Doherty, a young and unproven head coach at Notre Dame, to lead the UNC basketball team. While Doherty had only

one year of experience as a head coach, his identity as a Tar Heel Family member nullified any worries about his inexperience. For example, the public announcement of his hiring highlighted his ties to UNC before any discussion of his actual coaching performance:

*Matt Doherty, a starter on North Carolina's 1982 NCAA national championship team, was hired as Tar Heels' coach Tuesday, the first former player from the storied program to return as coach in 75 years...North Carolina officials were determined this week to keep the job in the school's basketball family. (available at <http://tarheelblue.cstv.com/>).*

At the press conference announcing his hiring, Doherty referenced the importance of the Tar Heel Family and opened his comments by saying “I can't tell you how exciting it is to be home. I did grow up in New York, but this feels like home to me.” He also stressed the salience of the UNC identity by indicating, “It was important for me, once things didn't work out with Coach Williams (a fellow Tar Heel Family member who turned down the position), that someone with Carolina ties, a member of the family be in this position.” (Available at <http://tarheelblue.cstv.com/sports/m-baskbl/spec-rel/071100aai.html>). The UNC Chancellor also stressed the importance of family identity by saying, “Doherty is a great choice for this program because I think he maintains the same character, quality and integrity that has (sic) always marked Carolina” (available at <http://tarheelblue.cstv.com>).

#### **April 1, 2003: Doherty Forced to Resign**

Unfortunately, despite Doherty's membership in the Tar Heel Family, he struggled as head coach and was forced to resign in 2003. There are rumors that, in addition to his poor coaching performance, Doherty offended Tar Heel Family members

when he broke tradition and unwritten family rules by firing long-time UNC support staff and assistant coaches so that he could bring his own staff with him from Notre Dame (Chansky, 2005). However, despite being ousted from the coaching position, Doherty was not ousted from the family. For example, the statement below, taken from the press conference following his forced resignation, still highlights his family membership:

*This is an extremely difficult day for Matt and his staff and their families. It is made harder by the fact Coach Doherty is one of our own. He made this decision with a great deal of class and in looking out for what is best for the University and Carolina Basketball.* UNC Athletic Director Dick Baddour (<http://tarheelblue.cstv.com/sports/m-baskbl/spec-rel/040103aab.html>, accessed December 21, 2008).

And once again, UNC opened a job search in which the final candidates were members of the Tar Heel Family before selecting Roy Williams, who accepted after declining the offer in 2000. With the public backing of UNC, it was only a short while before Doherty re-obtained employment in the coaching profession at Florida Atlantic. In the press conference announcing his hiring, the athletic director highlighted Doherty's membership in the Tar Heel Family before discussing his accomplishments as a head coach (available at <http://fausports.cstv.com>, accessed November 6, 2008). The unique rise, fall, and subsequent resurgence of Matt Doherty as a coach provide clear evidence of the influence of social identity on career progression and resilience in NCAA basketball.

## **APPENDIX F**

### **Glossary of Relevant Basketball Terms**

#### **Motion Offense**

When teams are not blessed with super stars or big players, they must rely on a total team effort in order to be successful. Through teamwork, teams of average size and abilities can overcome and defeat teams of superior talent and size. However, this requires not only that players play together as a single unit; but more importantly, possess an unselfish attitude and work ethic to create open shots opportunities for their teammates

(<http://www.cybersportsusa.com/hooptactics/motiondefault.asp>, accessed December 10, 2008). The offense has no predetermined sequence of movement by the players or the basketball. Because there are no set patterns, the players are taught, instead, to pass, screen and cut with the "recognition" of how the defense is playing them -- and, then, react accordingly. The origin of "motion offense" is credited to Coach Henry Iba at Oklahoma State. It was further developed and popularized by coach Bob Knight at Indiana, who utilized screening as a key part of the offense

(<http://espn.go.com/ncb/2003/0225/1514311.html>, accessed December 10, 2008;  
<http://www.coachesclipboard.net/MotionOffense.html>, accessed December 10, 2008).

#### **3-out 2-in Motion Offense**

A specific form of the Motion Offense. The 3-out 2-in set features three perimeter players and two post players. This set provides good balance between the perimeter game and strong inside post play, with good offensive rebounding presence

(<http://www.coachesclipboard.net/MotionOffense.html>, accessed December 10, 2008).

### **Princeton Offense**

This offense emphasizes passing, cutting, and intelligent movement without the basketball. There is an understanding that offense is a series of two- and three-man plays and that all five players cannot compete for the ball but, rather, share it (<http://espn.go.com/ncb/2003/0304/1517990.html>, accessed December 10, 2008)

### **Flex Offense**

The "flex" is a continuity (or pattern) man-to-man offense where all five players are interchangeable. It involves constant reversal of the ball from one side of the court to the other. It can also be described as a structured form of "motion offense". And, with patient ball movement and good screening, it can keep a defense on its toes for the entire 35-second shot clock. This style has continuity and preys on a defensive breakdown, takes advantage of good shooters, can be run from a variety of entries, which disguises it from the defense, and is effective for a fundamentally sound team that passes and handles the ball well (<http://espn.go.com/ncb/2003/0218/1510637.html>, accessed December 10, 2008).

### **Dribble Drive Motion Offense**

A high-energy approach that involves driving the ball into the heart of the defense and repeating those drives until the defense is overwhelmed and yields either a layup or an

open 3-point shot (<http://nbcsports.msnbc.com/id/22718226/>, accessed December 10, 2008).

### **T Zone Offense**

The T-Game places players strategically on the floor to exploit the defense. Three guards work as a unit on the perimeter as the posts collaborate inside the paint and in short corners. Ball and player movement, posts dives and skip passes are all weapons against the zone ([http://www.basketballcoach.com/cgi-bin/basketball/basketball-dvds-videos/p/Dean-Smith-T-Game-Zone-Offense-Four-Corners-Delay-Game\\_BD-03162.html](http://www.basketballcoach.com/cgi-bin/basketball/basketball-dvds-videos/p/Dean-Smith-T-Game-Zone-Offense-Four-Corners-Delay-Game_BD-03162.html), accessed December 10, 2008)

### **Four Corners Offense**

An offensive strategy for stalling with a lead near the end of the game in which four of the players stand in the corners of the half-court and the fifth player dribbles the ball in the middle of the court ([http://hoopedia.nba.com/index.php?title=Dean\\_Smith](http://hoopedia.nba.com/index.php?title=Dean_Smith), accessed December 10, 2008).

### **Zone Defense**

A type of defense used in basketball in which each defensive player is given an area, or a "zone", to cover. Zone defense is different from man-to-man defense in that, instead of guarding a particular player, each zone defender is responsible for guarding an area of the floor, or "zone", and any offensive player that comes into that area. Zone defenders move



their position on the floor in relationship to where the ball moves

(<http://www.coachesclipboard.net/ZoneDefense.html>, accessed December 10, 2008).

### **Syracuse 2-3 Zone Defense**

1. The size and quickness of the players can effectively take away the open 3-point shot.
2. Teams spend most of their time working on man-to-man offense.
3. It is easy to know what teams will do against you. There are far more man offenses to prepare for than zone offenses.
4. It keeps good players out of foul trouble.
5. It hides a bad defender.
6. It can be an effective defense to rebound and fast break out of because of the players' positions in the zone.
7. It can change the tempo and momentum in the game

(<http://espn.go.com/ncb/2003/0113/1491778.html>, accessed December 10, 2008).

### **Scrambling Defense**

The scramble defense is a pressure man-to-man with trapping principles. The four rules to the scramble are: (1) Always have pressure on the ball; (2) Surprise the man you are trapping; (3) All players must anticipate your rotation; and (4) Constant hustle. The main concept is attacking in a five-on-three mentality, which gives this defense the advantage

(<http://www.basketballcoach.com>, accessed December 10, 2008).