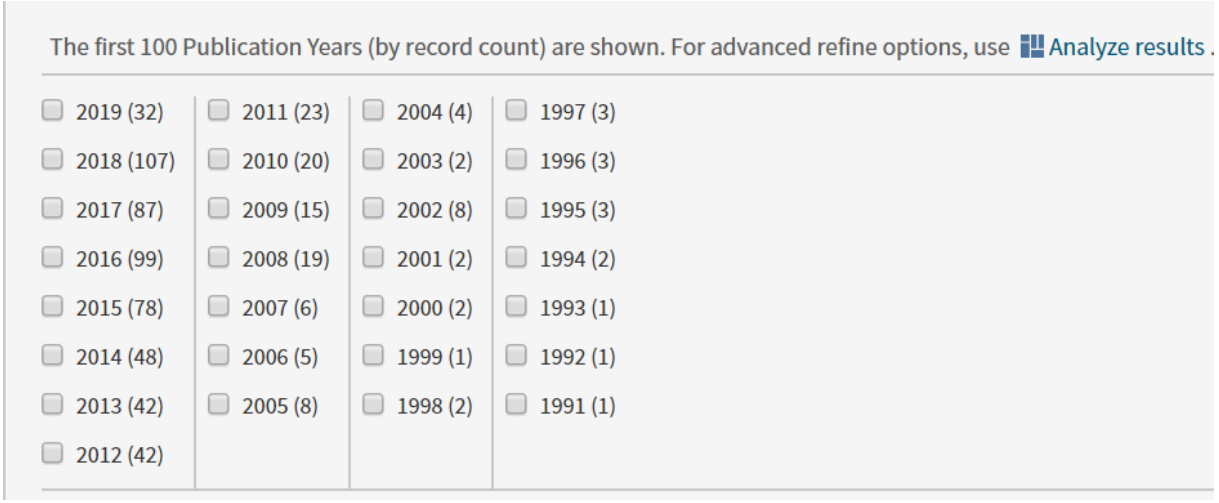
Science Review Adaptability construct

Overall Dimensions

Scientific articles published on adaptability



Adaptability measured by others

and threshold parameters for the 7-item adaptive performance measure used in the current study. All slopes were well above one and items were capturing "information" across a broad range of the latent construct. There was no evidence suggesting that modification of the scale by adding, removing, or altering any items was necessary.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF IRT ANALYSIS[A,B]

Item	a	b1	b2	b3	b4
Adapts readily to changing rules or requirements	3.39	-1.96	-1.04	.39	1.41
Strives to learn new processes	5.41	-1.52	-.74	.38	1.27
Seeks development through self-teaching	3.54	-1.63	-.76	.53	1.50
Is eager to learn new systems or procedures	4.79	-1.89	-.68	.37	1.26
Finds creative and effective solutions to problems	2.49	-1.89	-.79	.84	1.76
Uses critical thinking skills to analyze problems	2.70	-2.08	-.75	.74	1.66
Is open to new ways of doing things	2.82	-1.88	-1.10	.55	1.53

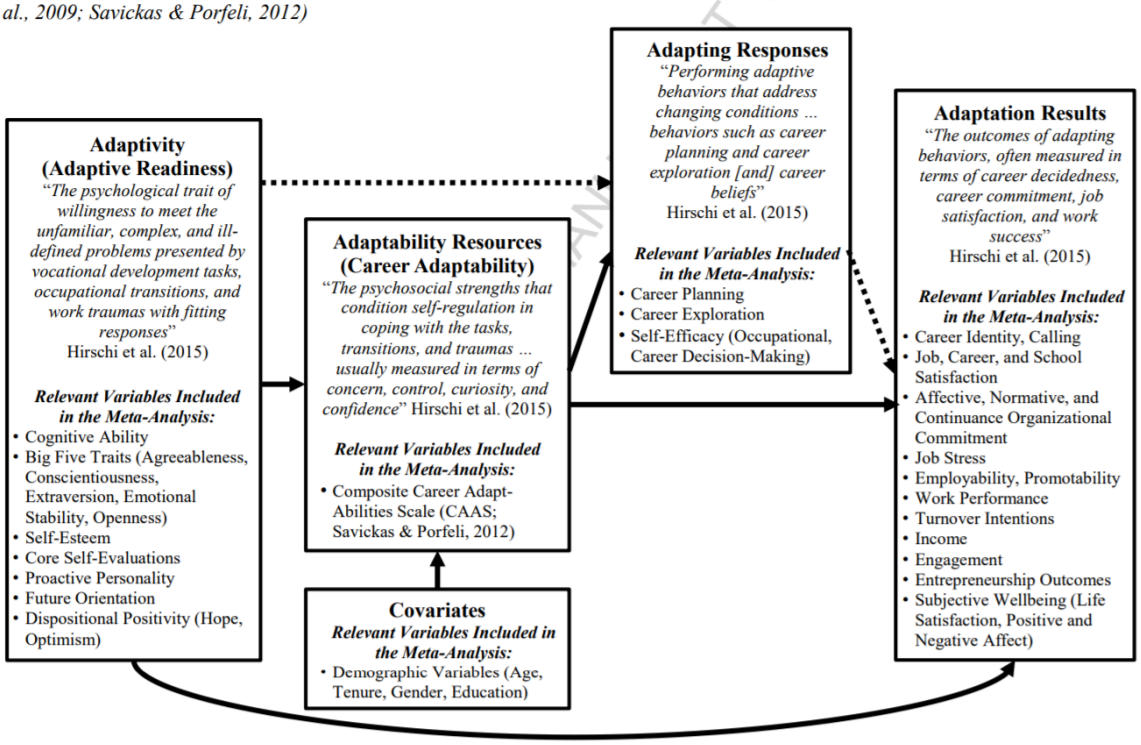
a. Marginal reliability = 0.9446

b. Values derived using Samejima's (1969) Graded Model with MultiLog (Thissen, 1991)

Career Adaptability

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework for Meta-Analysis Based on the Career Construction Model of Adaptation (Savickas, 2005, 2013; Savickas et al., 2009; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012)



Note. Solid arrows represent relationships (partially) examined in the meta-analysis; the dashed arrow represents relationships not examined in the meta-analysis.

Adaptivity and adaptability are two key elements representing one's "willingness" and "ability," respectively, in the career construction theory (CCT) framework. On the basis of CCT and complemented by the visual of resources in the conservation of resources theory, this study combines career issues and performance and examines the joint effect of adaptivity and adaptability on career self-management which will lead to improved performance.

Career construction theory (CCT)

(Savickas, 1997, 2005, 2013), also called the adaption model of career construction, provides a way to connect career issues and performance and helps to explain how career issues will promote individual performance. Career adaptability as a central concept in CCT refers to an individual's psychological resources and represents one's ability toward work tasks. The other three components in the CCT framework are adaptivity, adapting responses and adaptation results. Individuals' adaptivity can be measured through their cognitive ability, proactive personality or the big five personality traits (Savickas and Porfeli, 2012). "Adaptivity positively influences career adaptability, which in turn positively influences adapting responses and adaptation results (Rudolph et al., 2017). Adapting responses are the beliefs or behaviors of individuals on how to deal with career development tasks (Hirschi et al., 2015). Operational indicators of adapting responses include behaviors such as career self-management or career planning (Rudolph et al., 2017). Adaptation results mostly refers to the suitability between a person and their surroundings. Goals of career adaptability are to achieve adaptation results that are indicated by individual development, satisfaction or career success with performance included (Savickas and Porfeli, 2012; Savickas, 2013). Thus, high levels of career self-management require both proactive personality and career adaptability which will then lead to good performance.

Concurrently, based on the conservation of resources theory (COR, Hobfoll, 2001), both ability and personality are identified as different categories of individual resources. Career adaptability is a type of volatile resource, which can be more easily changed or transferred than proactive personality which works as a stable key personal resource (Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). The combination of different resources promote each other and lead to good results. Therefore, proactive personality works, on the one hand, as a predictor of career adaptability, which has been tested in prior studies. On the other hand, as a distinctive stable trait factor, proactive personality can also interplay with career adaptability which leads to adaptation results. Yet up to now, there are few studies examining the joint effect of career adaptability and proactive personality in the CCT framework."

Career adaptability has been examined as a higher-order construct in previous studies. It contains four dimensions, including "concern, control, curiosity and confidence" (Savickas and Porfeli, 2012, p. 662).

Career concern represents individuals' ability to foresee and predict the occurrence of an event that might lead to a change in work tasks in the future.

Career control represents individuals' self-discipline, which may affect their ability to take conscientious action.

Career curiosity entails individuals' ability to identify career opportunities and explore the relationship between themselves and their surroundings.

Career confidence is a positive belief to overcome difficulties when pursuing career goals.

Individuals with strong career adaptability will be willing and able to invest their inner resources, such as physical or emotional energies, into their career development within these four dimensions (Savickas, 2013; Guo et al., 2014). In contrast, those who do not possess career adaptability will doubt themselves and show little confidence toward their career The interplay effect of proactive personality and career adaptability, in predicting career outcomes, is of great interest in our research model.

A longitudinal study in 2019 by Fasbendera et al. showed among 664 older workers showed that older workers' late career planning was only indirectly a function of their career adaptability, with OFTP acting as the key mechanism. OFTP, in turn, was also not merely a function of older workers' adaptability, but also of the positive and negative experiences that workers had made with growing older. In the end, it was both older workers' adaptability and their aging experiences that influence the time and opportunities they saw for their future careers as well as their efforts to actively construct a late working career.

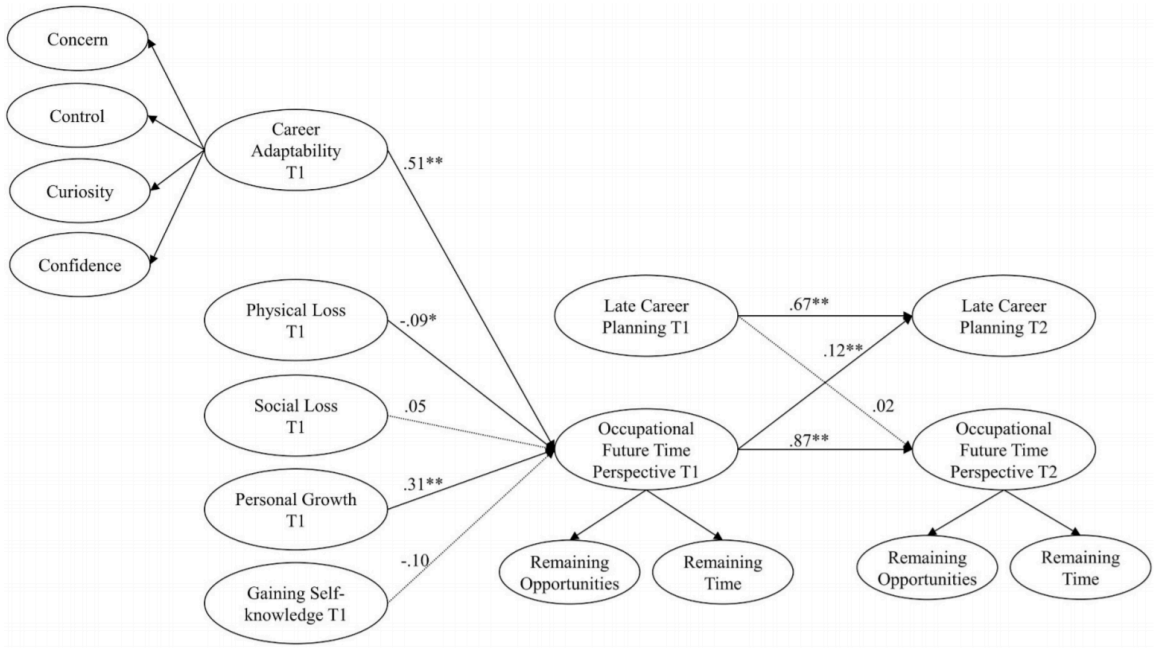


Fig. 2. Results of structural equation modeling with standardized coefficients; $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$.

Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (Hou et al., 2012; Savickas and Porfeli, 2012) with 24- items. The scale has four dimensions, of the four aspects of career adaptability, and each dimension contains six items. Within the stem of career adaptability, sample items for each dimension were "Thinking about what my future will be like," "Making decisions all by myself," "Looking for opportunities to grow," and "Overcoming difficulties." Respondents rated statements from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree," indicated from 1 to 5, on a five-point Likert scale. Cronbach's alpha for the total career adaptability scale was 0.94. Cronbach's alpha for each sub-scale were 0.85, 0.83, 0.86 and 0.85.

Table 1
Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: items, standardized loadings for the final M1 model, standard deviations of the loadings across the M1 models, and internal consistency reliabilities.

Construct		Item (First-order indicators)	Loading[a]	*SD*	α	Min α	Max α
Concern	1.	Thinking about what my future will be like	0.65	0.01	0.83	0.76	0.90
	2.	Realizing that today's choices shape my future	0.61	0.01			
	3.	Preparing for the future	0.77	0.00			
	4.	Becoming aware of the educational and career choices that I must make	0.69	0.01			
	5.	Planning how to achieve my goals	0.70	0.01			
	6.	Concerned about my career	0.60	0.02			
Control	1.	Keeping upbeat	0.48	0.01	0.74	0.65	0.89
	2.	Making decisions by myself	0.58	0.02			
	3.	Taking responsibility for my actions	0.57	0.01			
	4.	Sticking up for my beliefs	0.56	0.02			
	5.	Counting on myself	0.66	0.01			
	6.	Doing what's right for me	0.57	0.01			
Curiosity	1.	Exploring my surroundings	0.62	0.01	0.79	0.70	0.89
	2.	Looking for opportunities to grow as a person	0.69	0.01			
	3.	Investigating options before making a choice	0.64	0.01			
	4.	Observing different ways of doing things	0.66	0.02			
	5.	Probing deeply into questions I have	0.57	0.02			
	6.	Becoming curious about new opportunities	0.58	0.00			
Confidence	1.	Performing tasks efficiently	0.60	0.01	0.85	0.76	0.91
	2.	Taking care to do things well	0.66	0.01			
	3.	Learning new skills	0.69	0.01			
	4.	Working up to my ability	0.72	0.01			
	5.	Overcoming obstacles	0.75	0.01			
	6.	Solving problems	0.73	0.01			
Construct		Construct (Second-order indicators)	Loading	*SD*	α	Min α	Max α
Adaptability	1.	Concern	0.78	0.01	0.92	0.87	0.96
	2.	Control	0.86	0.01			
	3.	Curiosity	0.88	0.02			
	4.	Confidence	0.90	0.01			

[a] All of the loadings are statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.01$.

Task Adaptivity scale by Griffin et al. (2007). Because it was assumed before the start of the study that in T1, task changes had not been largely introduced, respondents of the T1 survey were asked to rate the items thinking of what they generally do (e.g., "I adapt well to changes in core tasks"), whereas in T2 and T3, they were asked to report on behaviors thinking of the past month (e.g., "I

have adapted well to changes in core tasks"; Cronbach's alphaT1 = .86; alphaT2 = .90; alphaT3 = .90). Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Performance Items

Items	Supervisors	Organization A	Organization B
Individual task proficiency			
Carried out the core parts of your job well	.88	.83	.85
Completed your core tasks well using the standard procedures	.85	.79	.92
Ensured your tasks were completed properly	.79	.76	.77
Individual task adaptivity			
Adapted well to changes in core tasks	.88	.81	.82
Coped with changes to the way you have to do your core tasks	.90	.83	.85
Learned new skills to help you adapt to changes in your core tasks	.92	.89	.87
Individual task proactivity			
Initiated better ways of doing your core tasks	.92	.85	.88
Come up with ideas to improve the way in which your core tasks are done	.91	.93	.91
Made changes to the way your core tasks are done	.90	.84	.87
Team member proficiency			
Coordinated your work with coworkers	.81	.65	.61
Communicated effectively with your coworkers	.82	.66	.76
Provided help to coworkers when asked, or needed	.75	.59	.66
Team member adaptivity			
Dealt effectively with changes affecting your work unit (e.g., new members)	.84	.73	.69
Learnt new skills or taken on new roles to cope with changes in the way your unit works	.92	.86	.70
Responded constructively to changes in the way your team works	.87	.83	.85
Team member proactivity			
Suggested ways to make your work unit more effective	.91	.88	.82
Developed new and improved methods to help your work unit perform better	.91	.88	.92
Improved the way your work unit does things	.92	.88	.92
Organization member proficiency			
Presented a positive image of the organisation to other people (e.g., clients)	.78	.75	.72
Defended the organisation if others criticized it	.89	.80	.82
Talked about the organisation in positive ways	.92	.88	.86
Organization member adaptivity			
Responded flexibly to overall changes in the organisation (e.g., changes in management)	.74	.82	.83
Coped with changes in the way the organisation operates	.84	.91	.83
Learnt skills or acquired information that helped you adjust to overall changes in the organization	.91	.89	.69
Organization member proactivity			
Made suggestions to improve the overall effectiveness of the organisation (e.g., by suggesting changes to administrative procedures)	.74	.86	.85
Involved yourself in changes that are helping to improve the overall effectiveness of the organization	.90	.85	.85
Come up with ways of increasing efficiency within the organization	.91	.89	.87

we identified 33 primary studies

Variable	k	N	$\bar{r}$	SD_r	$\hat{\bar{\rho}}$	SD_ρ	CV_{LL}	CV_{UL}	CI_{LL}	CI_{UL}	% Var
Change cynicism ↔ Related constructs											
Organizational trust	9	1,853	–.56	.09	–.65	.09	–.76	–.54	–.72	–.58	28
Resistance to change	5	582	.46	.06	.52	.05	.46	.58	.44	.59	77
Employee individual differences → Organizational change cynicism											
Positive affectivity	3	1,007	–.26	.12	–.30	.11	–.44	–.16	–.44	–.16	21
Negative affectivity	3	1,830	.22	.06	.25	.06	.17	.34	.17	.34	33
Psychological capital	2	468	–.43	.01	–.46	.00	–.46	–.46	–.53	–.39	100
Openness to change	2	397	–.57	.01	–.72	.00	–.72	–.72	–.78	–.65	100
Tolerance for ambiguity	2	191	–.25	.04	–.33	.00	–.33	–.33	–.46	–.20	100
Change belief	3	355	–.27	.07	–.31	.00	–.31	–.31	–.40	–.21	100
Workplace experiences → Organizational change cynicism											
Organizational justice											
Distributive justice	4	726	–.41	.13	–.51	.15	–.70	–.32	–.66	–.35	22
Procedural justice	8	1,813	–.54	.13	–.64	.13	–.80	–.47	–.73	–.54	15
Interactional justice	5	1,263	–.50	.12	–.59	.12	–.74	–.44	–.70	–.48	18
Overall justice	3	631	–.59	.12	–.71	.11	–.85	–.57	–.84	–.57	19
Perceived organizational support	5	1,387	–.49	.10	–.55	.10	–.68	–.42	–.65	–.46	21
Perceived supervisor support	2	279	–.55	.07	–.61	.06	–.68	–.54	–.73	–.50	58
Job security	3	476	–.09	.12	–.10	.11	–.24	.04	–.25	.05	41
Transformational leadership	5	2,008	–.44	.13	–.49	.15	–.68	–.29	–.62	–.35	8
Managerial trustworthiness	2	388	–.49	.04	–.53	.00	–.53	–.53	–.60	–.45	100
Communication about change	4	1,054	–.45	.03	–.49	.00	–.49	–.49	–.54	–.45	100
Psychological contract violations	2	347	.49	.04	.54	.04	.49	.58	.44	.63	76
Stress	2	278	.44	.06	.50	.00	.50	.50	.40	.59	100

Note. k = number of independent samples; N = total sample size; $\bar{r}$ = sample-size-weighted mean observed correlation; SD_r = sample-size-weighted observed standard deviation of correlations; $\hat{\bar{\rho}}$ = mean true-score correlation (corrected for unreliability for both variables); SD_ρ = standard deviation of corrected correlations; CV_{LL} and CV_{UL} = lower and upper bounds, respectively, of the 80% credibility interval; CI_{LL} and CI_{UL} = lower and upper bounds, respectively, of the 95% confidence interval around the mean true-score correlation; %Var = percentage of variance attributable to statistical artifacts.

Table 4. Comparison of 95% Confidence Intervals for Relationships of Change Cynicism, Organizational Change Cynicism, Trust With Common Correlates.

	Change cynicism	Organizational cynicism	Organizational trust
Predictors: Positive affectivity	[–.44, –.16]	[–.38, –.08]	n/a
Negative affectivity	[.17, .34]	[.25, .42]	n/a
Distributive justice	[–.66, –.35]	[–.59, –.43]	[.56, .64]
Procedural justice	[–.73, –.54]	[–.63, –.52]	[.56, .62]
Interactional justice	[–.70, –.48]	[–.58, –.43]	[.41, .53]
Perceived organizational support	[–.65, –.46]	[–.73, –.54]	[.79, .86]
Transformational leadership	[–.62, –.35]	n/a	n/a
Perceived contract violation	[.44, .63]	[.35, .67]	n/a
Outcomes: Job satisfaction	[–.52, –.38]	[–.68, –.48]	[.58, .64]
Organizational commitment	[–.67, –.50]	[–.60, –.44]	[.66, .71]
Intent to quit	[.50, .59]	[.34, .44]	[–.42, –.54]
Decision participation	[–.54, –.34]	n/a	[.17, .35]
Organizational citizenship behavior	[–.51, –.25]	n/a	n/a
Task/job performance	[–.36, –.08]	[–.17, –.02]	[–.09, .09]

Note. For organizational trust, we estimated the true-score correlations and their 95% confidence intervals based on values from Table 3 (sample size-weighted mean correlations and their standard error estimates) and attenuation factors derived from Tables 1 and 2 from Dirks and Ferrin (2002); for organizational cynicism, we extracted the data from Chiaburu et al. (2013, Table 1). All values reported in the table are true score correlations that are psychometrically equivalent because they were meta-analyzed using the same method (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004) and corrected for measurement error using local reliability estimates (i.e., coefficient alpha). n/a = not available (data were not available in the specific meta-analysis).

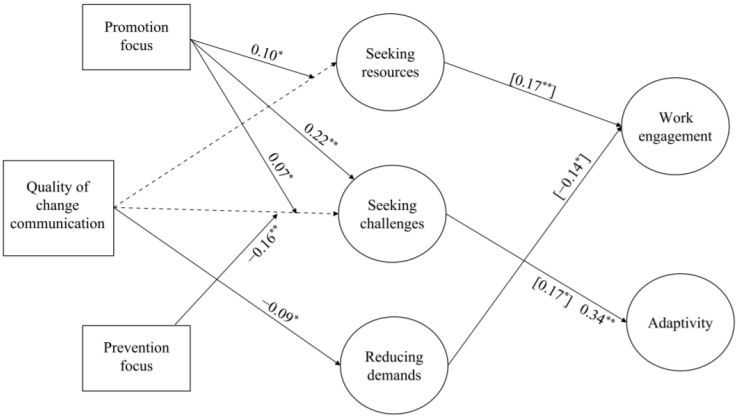
Marinova et al. 2015. Meta-analytic tests (106 effect sizes, N = 28,402) demonstrate that employee's proactive personality is a stronger predictor of change-oriented behavior than the five-factor model (FFM) personality traits of openness and extraversion. Also, enriched job characteristics (autonomy,

complexity, and task significance) are more important in predicting change-oriented behavior, than un-enriched job characteristics (routinization and formalization).

State

Seeking challenges

Figure 2
Results for the Hypothesized Latent Change Score Model



Note: For the sake of clarity, correlations between variables and nonhypothesized paths are not presented; for nonhypothesized effects, please see Table 3. Nonsignificant paths are presented only as dashed lines when they are part of a significant interaction effect. Estimates above the arrows represent paths between T1 predictor variables and T1-T2 change in outcome variables; estimates below the arrows represent paths between T2 predictor variables and T2-T3 change in outcome variables; estimates in brackets represent paths between T2-T3 change in predictor variables and T2-T3 change in outcome variables. All estimates are standardized. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3.
*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.

Interestingly, it was seeking challenges and not seeking resources that was related to current adaptivity and also predicted subsequent adaptivity. It seems that the act of accumulating resources (e.g., advice or support from others) helps to maximize the positive motivational state that is necessary while approaching a new situation. But when it comes to actually realizing change, it is the strategy of actively confronting challenges that becomes important. Unlike seeking resources, seeking challenges is an intraindividual rather than a socially derived process with the potential to maximize one's self-efficacy. By adopting such a problem-solving approach to their work goals, employees become efficacious and are ready to confront change when it arises. This is in line with what has been called an incremental approach to assimilate change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999), whereby successful resolution of challenges produces mastery experiences (Bandura, 1986) that help employees deal with change.

Job crafting can be differentiated conceptually from other proactive work behavior constructs, such as personal initiative, taking charge, and voice (Parker & Collins, 2010; Tornau & Frese, 2013, 2015), in that it is specifically directed at changing the (perceived) characteristics of one's job (Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). While other forms of proactive behavior may result in changes to one's job characteristics, the underlying intentions of these behaviors are more broadly focused (Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007). Additionally, although our meta-analysis particularly focuses on the most commonly used approach to job crafting that has been offered by Tims and Bakker (2010) and Tims et al. (2012), a number of alternative conceptualizations and measures of job crafting do exist (see Table 1 for a summary).

To this end, job crafting leads to changes in employees' identity and perceived meaning of work which, in turn, lead to greater job satisfaction and performance. Job crafting influences identity

development because it helps increase the fit between employees' views and definitions of themselves and their work. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) also argue that job crafting influences employees' understanding of the purpose of their work (i.e., perceived meaning), because their job characteristics become more aligned with their individual abilities and needs.

The most widely known and adopted theoretical model was developed by Tims and Bakker (2010), who define job crafting as a form of proactive behavior that involves employees initiating changes in their (actual or perceived) job demands and resources to increase the fit between these job characteristics and their personal abilities and needs.

Based upon the theory offered by Tims and Bakker (2010), Tims et al. (2012) suggested that job crafting consists of four dimensions: Increasing challenging job demands involves performing behaviors such as asking for more responsibilities and volunteering for special projects. Decreasing hindering job demands entails performing behaviors that aim to minimize physical, cognitive, and emotional demands, such as reducing workload and work-family conflict. Increasing structural job resources includes performing behaviors that aim to increase the autonomy, skill variety, and other motivational characteristics of the job. Finally, increasing social job resources entails asking for feedback as well as advice and support from supervisors and colleagues.

On the basis of factor-analytic evidence, Petrou and colleagues (2012) collapsed two of the dimensions in Tims and Bakker's (2010) conceptualization -- increasing structural and social job resources -- into one increasing job resources dimension and only differentiated between three types of job crafting. Likewise, Nielsen and Abildgaard (2012) developed a comparable, but much less widely used job crafting scale for blue-collar workers that additionally includes the dimensions "decreasing social job demands" and "increasing quantitative job demands." Of note, in our meta-analysis, we focus on the four dimensions of job crafting originally proposed and represented in the measurement model offered by Tims and colleagues (2012), because these dimensions directly map onto the widely accepted and studied theoretical model offered by Tims and Bakker (2010) and because this scale is the most commonly used in the literature.

Job crafting was measured with the three dimensions of general-level job crafting used by Petrou et al. (2012). After excluding two items with factor loadings below .40 from the original six-item subscale, we measured seeking resources with a four-item shortened version. An example item is, "I ask others for feedback on my job performance" (Cronbach's alphaT1 = .70; alphaT2 = .69; alphaT3 = .70). Seeking challenges included three items, such as "I ask for more tasks if I finish my work" (Cronbach's alphaT1 = .75; alphaT2 = .77; alphaT3 = .82). Reducing demands included four items, such as "I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense" (Cronbach's alphaT1 = .76; alphaT2 = .78; alphaT3 = .79). Items were rated on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

As expected, increasing structural job resources and increasing challenging job demands related negatively to job strain and turnover intention. Further underscoring the argument that decreasing hindering job demands reflects withdrawal behaviors, we found a positive relationship between decreasing hindering job demands and job strain. However, it appears from the relative weights analyses that increasing structural job resources and increasing challenging job demands may serve to offset this negative influence.

Seeking Challenges Scale

Table 3. Factor loadings for the 3-factor solutions of general-level and day-level versions of job crafting.

General level of seeking resources		Day-level seeking resources	
I ask others for feedback on my job performance	.58	I have asked others for feedback on my job performance	.44/.80
I ask colleagues for advice	.59	I have asked colleagues for advice	.81/.89
I ask my supervisor for advice	.71	I have asked my supervisor for advice	.48/.80
I try to learn new things at work	.56	I have tried to learn new things at work	.38/.67
I contacted other people from work (e.g., colleagues, supervisors) to get the necessary information for completing my tasks	.39		
When I have difficulties or problems at my work, I discuss them with people from my work environment	.39		
General level of seeking challenges		Day-level seeking challenges	
I ask for more tasks if I finish my work	.65	I have asked for more tasks if I finish my work	.56/.92
I ask for more responsibilities	.81	I have asked for more responsibilities	.92/1.00
I ask for more odd jobs	.76	I have asked for more odd jobs	.77/1.00
General level of reducing demands		Day-level reducing demands	
I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense	.89	I have tried to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense	.89/.97
I make sure that my work is mentally less intense	.65	I have made sure that my work is mentally less intense	.82/.98
I try to ensure that my work is physically less intense	.48	I have tried to ensure that my work is physically less intense	.44/.83
I try to simplify the complexity of my tasks at work	.45		

Note: All factor loadings are significant at the $p < .001$ level; the first factor loading for the day-level job crafting scales represents the within level and the second represents the between level.

Resilience and Emotional Regulation

Resilience

BRS is the only measure that specifically assesses resilience in its original and most basic meaning: to bounce back or recover from stress (Agnes, 2005).

Table 1. *The Brief Resilience Scale: Items and Factor Loadings*

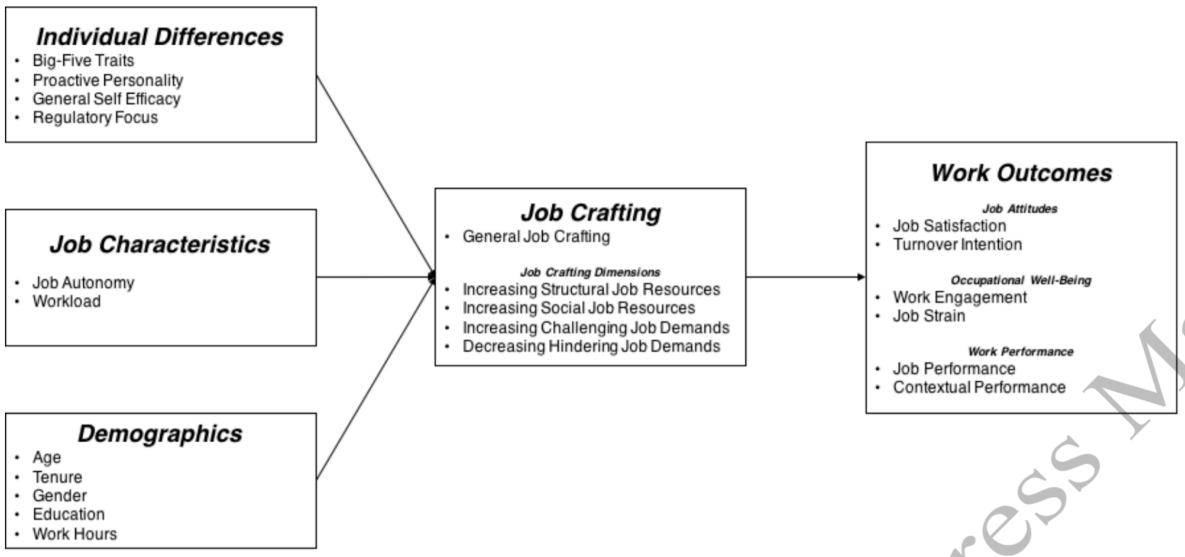
Items	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample 3	Sample 4
1. I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times	.77	.79	.70	.89
2. I have a hard time making it through stressful events (R)	.73	.78	.68	.91
3. It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event	.78	.78	.71	.71
4. It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens (R)	.85	.90	.70	.85
5. I usually come through difficult times with little trouble	.69	.69	.71	.68
6. I tend to take a long time to get over set-backs in my life (R)	.84	.81	.67	.68

Note. Sample 1 = 128 undergraduate students; Sample 2 = 64 undergraduate students; Sample 3 = 112 cardiac rehabilitation patients; Sample 4 = 50 women with fibromyalgia or healthy controls. R = reverse coded items.

Emotional Reappraisal

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form (Cooper & Petrides, 2010) is a 30-item self-report questionnaire that measures TEI using a Likert scale ranging from 1 = ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 = ‘strongly agree’. Cronbach reliability for the total score in the current sample was 0.83.

Figure 1
Conceptual Model & Overview of Relationships Investigated in Meta-Analysis



Mindset

The Growth Mindset Scale is usually given to children and teens, not adults. And though it is plausible that adopting a growth mindset may help move people out of poverty, no study has directly tested this idea.

You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you can't really do much to change it.

Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much.

You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic intelligence.

Paradox Mindset

http://paradox.lerner.udel.edu/

Paradox Mindset

1. When I consider conflicting perspectives, I gain a better understanding of an issue.
2. I am comfortable dealing with conflicting demands at the same time.
3. Accepting contradictions is essential for my success.
4. Tension between ideas energize me.
5. I enjoy it when I manage to pursue contradictory goals.
6. I often experience myself as simultaneously embracing conflicting demands.
7. I am comfortable working on tasks that contradict each other.
8. I feel uplifted when I realize that two opposites can be true.
9. I feel energized when I manage to address contradictory issues.

Exploration vs. Exploitation

Table 1 Factor Analysis for Managers' Ambidexterity

	Factors[b]	
Items[a]		
To what extent did you, last year, engage in work related activities that can be characterized as follows:	1	2
A manager's exploration activities ($\alpha = 0.90$)		
Searching for new possibilities with respect to products/services, processes, or markets	0.82	−0.05
Evaluating diverse options with respect to products/services, processes, or markets	0.84	−0.05
Focusing on strong renewal of products/services or processes	0.79	−0.02
Activities of which the associated yields or costs are currently unclear	0.74	−0.05
Activities requiring quite some adaptability of you	0.83	0.01
Activities requiring you to learn new skills or knowledge	0.76	−0.06
Activities that are not (yet) clearly existing company policy	0.72	−0.13
A manager's exploitation activities ($\alpha = 0.87$)		
Activities of which a lot of experience has been accumulated by yourself	0.08	0.75
Activities which you carry out as if it were routine	−0.18	0.71
Activities which serve existing (internal) customers with existing services/products	−0.08	0.75
Activities of which it is clear to you how to conduct them	−0.11	0.80
Activities primarily focused on achieving short-term goals	−0.03	0.69
Activities which you can properly conduct by using your present knowledge	−0.03	0.81
Activities which clearly fit into existing company policy	0.00	0.75

[a]Items are quoted from our survey. All items were measured on a seven-point scale (1 = to a very small extent to 7 = to a very large extent).
[b]Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization. Explained variance: 60%.

The ability to pursue both exploratory and exploitative innovations (O'Reilly & Tushman, 2004), referred to as organizational ambidexterity, has been shown to be important for organizational prosperity and survival (Junni, Sarala, Taras, & Tarba, 2013). Consistent with earlier research, we conceptualize operational manager ambidexterity as a multidimensional construct that captures the extent to which operational managers engage in both exploitative and exploratory behaviors (Bledow, Frese, Anderson, Erez, & Farr, 2009; Mom, Van Den Bosch, & Volberda, 2009). The former is concerned with achieving higher reliability by refining existing competencies, the latter with increasing variety by searching for and experimenting with new opportunities (March, 1991; Mom et al., 2007). Operational managers may thus conduct both routine and nonroutine activities (Adler, Goldoftas, & Levine, 1999), fulfill administrative and entrepreneurial roles (Probst, Raisch, & Tushman, 2011), and combine short- and long-term views (O'Reilly & Tushman, 2013).

Self-efficacy

Employees with low self-efficacy are likely to harbor pessimistic thoughts about their future accomplishments and personal development (Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2005). Those assumptions form the theoretical background for the association between self-efficacy and burnout. Self-efficacy and stress outcome indicators, such as personal accomplishment, are conceptually distinct (cf. Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2005). The construct of personal accomplishment (and its measure) is of retrospective character and it represents the outcomes of actions (e.g. "accomplished many worthwhile things" or "feel exhilarated after work"), whereas self-efficacy beliefs are of prospective and operative character (i.e. refer to potential abilities of an individual and their future actions). Research conducted in the context of stress shows that self-efficacy may operate as a resource preventing negative consequences of strain (cf. Blecharz et al., 2014). Self-efficacy prompts recovery

from job stress (Hahn, Binnewies, Sonnentag, & Mojza, 2011), and efficacy beliefs were found to facilitate employees' adaptation to changes in the organization (Jimmieson, Terry, & Callan, 2004). Experimental studies demonstrated that a self-efficacy-enhancing intervention reduced employees' strain (Unsworth & Mason, 2012).

Occupational self-efficacy was measured with six items (e.g., "Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it"). These items are part of the short version of the German-language occupational self-efficacy scale developed and validated by Rigotti et al. (2008). Participants answered on a six-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 6 (completely true). The authors of the scale (Rigotti et al., 2008) reported significant relationships with job satisfaction, commitment, job performance, and job insecurity.

APPENDIX
New General Self-Efficacy Scale

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Trait

Regulatory Focus

the WRF Scale can be characterized as either prevention focused and attending to security, obligations, and loss avoidance, or promotion focused and attending to nurturance, aspirations, and gains.

Item	Prevention focus	Promotion focus
1. I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security. (Security)	.890	
2. At work I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities. (Oughts)	.879	−.100
3. Fulfilling my work duties is very important to me. (Oughts)	.814	
4. At work, I strive to live up to the responsibilities and duties given to me by others. (Oughts)	.793	
5. At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security. (Security)	.764	
6. I do everything I can to avoid loss at work. (Losses)	.740	
7. Job security is an important factor for me in any job search. (Security)	.718	
8. I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work. (Losses)	.688	.103
9. I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work. (Losses)	.644	
10. I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement. (Gains)	−.149	.899
11. I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success. (Gains)	−.149	.864
12. If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project I would definitely take it. (Gains)		.816
13. If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one. (Achievement)		.738
14. A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job. (Achievement)		.715
15. I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement. (Achievement)		.678
16. I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations. (Ideals)	.152	.633
17. My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be. (Ideals)	.171	.587
18. At work, I am motivated by my hopes and aspirations. (Ideals)	.234	.567

Note. $N = 250$. Loadings less than .10 are suppressed.

Personality

Table 3
Definitions of Big Five Facets Significantly Related to Proactive Personality

Big Five factor and facet	Definition	Relationship sign
Neuroticism		
Vulnerability	Inability to cope with stress; dependent, hopeless, or panicked in difficult situations	−
Extraversion		
Assertiveness	Dominant, forceful; tendency to speak up; often leaders	+
Activity	Sense of urgency; need to keep busy, maintains a rapid tempo	+
Openness		
Actions	Willingness to try different activities; preference for novelty over the familiar or routine	+
Ideas	Intellectual curiosity; willingness to consider unconventional ideas	+
Values	Readiness to reexamine values (social, political, or religious)	+
Agreeableness		
Altruism	Concern for the welfare of others; tendency to show generosity and consideration and to provide help	+
Conscientiousness		
Dutifulness	Strict adherence to one's ethical principles; fulfills moral obligations; dependable and reliable	−
Achievement striving	Hard working; high aspirations; diligent and purposeful; sense of direction in life	+

Note. Definitions adapted from Costa & MacCrae (1992).

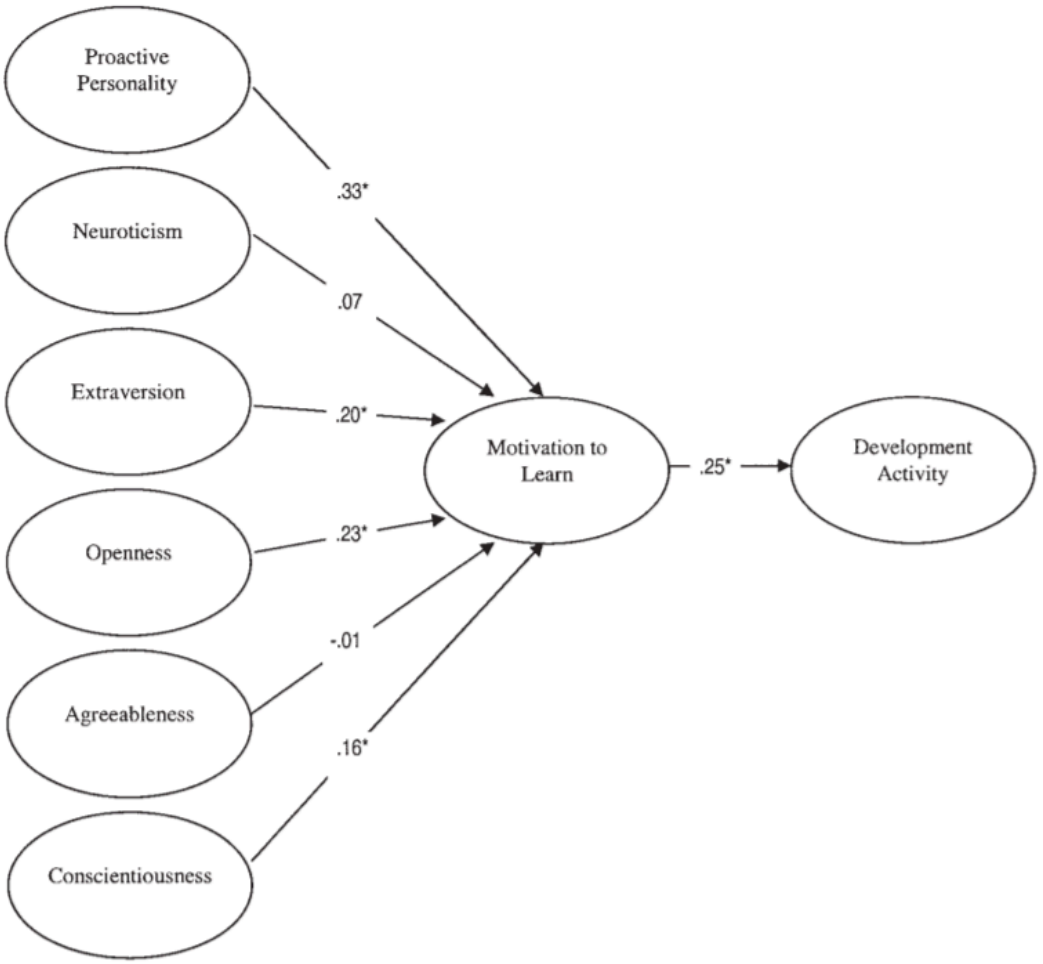


Figure 1. Structural model depicting personality predictors of motivation to learn. Values shown are completely standardized parameter estimates. $*p < .05$.

English version.
Instruction: How well do the following statements describe your personality?

I see myself as someone who …	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
… is reserved	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… is generally trusting	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… tends to be lazy	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… is relaxed, handles stress well	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… has few artistic interests	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… is outgoing, sociable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… tends to find fault with others	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… does a thorough job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… gets nervous easily	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
… has an active imagination	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Big Five model because it is best established and often assumed to offer ". . . a universal and comprehensive framework for the description of individual differences inpersonality". trait EI neatly fits in the same factor space as the other Big Five dimensions (see also Petrides et al., 2007).

A recent meta-analysis (Roberts, Luo, Briley, Chow, Su, & Hill, 2017) showed that personality changes following interventions involved trait (rather than state) variation. There was no evidence that the

effects of interventions faded over time. Rather, the effects of interventions appeared to A recent meta-analysis (Roberts, Luo, Briley, Chow, Su, & Hill, 2017) showed that personality changes following interventions involved trait (rather than state) variation. There was no evidence that the effects of interventions faded over time. Rather, the effects of interventions appeared to

Table 3
Results of Meta-Analytic Multiple Regression Models Predicting Career Adaptability from Measures of Adaptivity

	Big Five			**Big Five + Optimism**			**Big Five + Cognitive Ability**			**Big Five + Proactive Personality**		
	$N = 12{,}129$			$N = 10{,}789$			$N = 10{,}363$			$N = 2{,}831$		
	$R^2 = .52$*			$R^2 = .54$*			$R^2 = .53$*			$R^2 = .57$*		
				$\Delta R^2 = .02$*			$\Delta R^2 = .01$*			$\Delta R^2 = .05$*		
DV: Career Adaptability	**B**	**SE_B**	**t**	**B**	**SE_B**	**t**	**B**	**SE_B**	**t**	**B**	**SE_B**	**t**
O	0.34	0.01	51.99	0.31	0.01	43.90	0.32	0.01	44.43	0.25	0.01	18.25
C	0.51	0.01	74.56	0.47	0.01	64.70	0.51	0.01	70.16	0.36	0.02	23.52
E	0.31	0.01	46.55	0.27	0.01	37.92	0.31	0.01	43.85	0.20	0.01	13.80
A	-0.11	0.01	-16.08	-0.13	0.01	-17.88	-0.11	0.01	-14.62	-0.03	0.01	1.90
ES	0.13	0.01	19.57	0.07	0.01	9.68	0.13	0.01	17.13	0.11	0.01	8.13
Optimism				0.18	0.01	20.96						
Cognitive Ability							0.10	0.01	14.83			
Proactive Personality										0.30	0.02	18.34

Note. O = openness, C = conscientiousness, E = extraversion, A = agreeableness, ES = emotional stability. B = unstandardized regression coefficient, SE = standard error for B, t = t-value. For all effects, t-values greater than 1.96 are significant at $p < .05$. Sample sizes for each model were determined by computing harmonic means across the sample sizes reported in meta-analytic correlation tables (See Viswesvaran & Ones, 1995).

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Grit

Moreover, grit entails consistency of interests and goals over time, whereas the construct of resilience is agnostic on the stability of an individual's interests. Grit is also different than leadership potential insofar as the arenas in which gritty individuals demonstrate their stamina need not be those that entail organizing and managing other people. Likewise, grit can be distinguished from conscientiousness, a multi-dimensional family of personality traits that encompasses perseverance but also includes tendencies toward responsibility, self-control, orderliness, and traditionalism (Roberts et al., 2005). While correlated with conscientiousness, grit provides incremental predictive validity for achievement outcomes, particularly in settings of high challenge (Author, 2007).

Table 1
Common Factor Analysis of Grit Scale With Promax Rotation

Factor and Grit Scale item	Promax loading	Item-total *r*
Consistency of Interests		
I often set a goal but later choose to pursue a different one.[a]	.61	.51
New ideas and new projects sometimes distract me from previous ones.[a]	.77	.54
I become interested in new pursuits every few months.[a]	.73	.59
My interests change from year to year.[a]	.69	.51
I have been obsessed with a certain idea or project for a short time but later lost interest.[a]	.66	.44
I have difficulty maintaining my focus on projects that take more than a few months to complete.[a]	.47	.62
Perseverance of Effort		
I have achieved a goal that took years of work.	.65	.62
I have overcome setbacks to conquer an important challenge.	.68	.53
I finish whatever I begin.	.54	.68
Setbacks don't discourage me.	.58	.59
I am a hard worker.	.44	.70
I am diligent.	.64	.82

Note. The last column displays the corrected item-total correlations for each item with its respective factor (i.e., either Consistency of Interests or Perseverance of Effort).
[a] Item was reverse scored.

In a meta-analysis examining the surge of empirical research on grit over the past decade, Credé, Tynan, and Harms (2017) used data from 66,807 individuals to investigate the underlying structure of grit and its relationship to success and other variables. Credé et al. found that researchers have operationalized the construct in diverse ways. When researchers have analyzed grit as two distinct factors, grit's relationship to achievement pertains to only one of them—perseverance of effort. The other factor, consistency of interest, does not explain a significant amount of the variance in students' academic performance (see Credé et al., 2017, for a review; Muenks, Wigfield, Yang, & O'Neal, 2017) and may be challenging to measure in longitudinal, school-based studies (Schmidt, Fleckenstein, Retelsdorf, Eskreis-Winkler, & Möller, 2017). This led Credé et al. to encourage researchers intrigued by grit to shift their focus "to perseverance as the most promising avenue of future research" (p. 12). Some scholars have shown that grit overlaps empirically with other personality constructs (e.g., conscientiousness) and that its utility when predicting performance is reduced or null when such variables are simultaneously assessed (Credé et al., 2017). For example, Muenks et al. (2017) found that grit failed to predict high school and college students' school performance (i.e., GPA) when other variables such as effort regulation were included in the model. Grit has been assessed in relation to similar personality and trait variables, such as conscientiousness and self-control, and it has not typically been considered as an indicator of performance in conjunction with domain-specific motivation variables known to be related to academic outcomes (Credé et al., 2017). Duckworth et al. (2007) suggested that self-efficacy might be one such variable to investigate in conjunction with long-term perseverance

Proactivity

Proactivity was assessed as participants' self-reported proactive disposition using the German-language seven-item (e.g., "I actively attack problems") personal initiative questionnaire developed by Frese et al. (1997). The scale is widely used and the authors demonstrated its validity in several studies: for example in relation to knowledge, other personality variables, and performance (e.g., Fay & Frese, 2001).

Proactive personality is a type of individual disposition, aiming at identifying opportunities and acting to influence the surroundings. Research shows that proactive personality is "one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces and who effects environmental change" (Bateman and Crant, 1993, p. 105). People who are proactive will show a willingness and confidence to take risks as well as a desire to achieve (Bateman and Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). They are also likely to be self-initiated and will focus on developing themselves (Parker et al., 2010). A meta-analysis found that proactive personality can predict objective career success, such as job performance, which was stronger than any other personality trait, including the Big Five factors (Thompson, 2005; Fuller and Marler, 2009).

Proactive behavior refers to self-initiated behavior to bring about future-focused change (Parker et al., 2006). There are many forms of individual-level proactive behavior that have received attention in the literature. We include all of these forms of proactivity in the current review. We draw on Parker and Collins (2010), who synthesized the many forms into three overarching categories: (a) proactive work behavior, including taking charge, innovative behavior, voice, and problem prevention; (b) proactive strategic behavior, including issue selling and strategic scanning; and (c) proactive person–environment fit behavior, including feedback seeking and job change negotiation (idiosyncratic deals).

Results in our study can also inform practice. Both employees and managers need to be aware that proactive personality can strengthen the benefits of career adaptability on enhancing career self-management and improving performance. To increase the effects that proactive personality has on the mediated relationship between career adaptability and performance, some interventions should be implemented to improve employees' career adaptability and proactivity. For managers,

they could set proactive personality as a criterion for selection to ensure newcomers have high levels of proactive personalities, which could be easier to exert the effect of proactive personality on career self-management as well as on the performance. Whereas, for the existing employees, considering that the stable proactive personality is very difficult to change, there may be merit for managers to take measures to improve the employees' volatile career adaptability resources. For example, increase their career confidence by giving useful and positive feedback or provide them with opportunities to solve some problems; or help them to make clearer career goals to enhance their sense of control and thus improve the overall level of career adaptability.

We measured proactive personality with the 10-item proactive personality scale developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). The scale was translated from English into Chinese following a strict translation procedure by two doctoral candidates majoring in English. Respondents rated statements from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree," indicated from 1 to 5, on a five-point Likert scale according to the extents of their agreement. Sample items included "Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality" and "Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change." The scale's Cronbach's alpha was 0.87.

Appendix

Shortened Version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) Proactive Personality Scale

Responses are made on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.
2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.
3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
4. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
6. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.
7. I excel at identifying opportunities.
8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.
10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.

Note. From "The Proactive Component of Organizational Behavior," by T. S. Bateman and J. M. Crant, 1993, *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14,* pp. 103–118. Copyright 1993 by John Wiley & Sons Limited. Reprinted with permission.

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Other studies have found that proactive personality can positively affect subjective career success, such as career satisfaction (Jawahar and Liu, 2016; Turban et al., 2017). The CCT recognizes that adaptivity can lead to adaptability. Thus, proactive personality, an operationalized indicator of adaptivity, can positively predict career adaptability. Research shows that proactive individuals can prepare well to manage career tasks and changes (Rudolph et al., 2017). There are many works examining proactive personality as a predictor of career adaptability (Duffy, 2010; Buyukgoze-Kavas, 2016). Proactive personality as a trait-like key resource, which is stable in a person, while career adaptability is a volatile resource with more flexible characteristics. Different kinds of resources can be combined in different ways and then impact individual behavior differently. For example, some people may have strong adaptability but not active enough because of the lack of autonomy or other environmental support, while others, with the same level of career adaptability, are also very proactive toward work. The compiled effectiveness of different resources will be greater than the effect of a single one.

Context - Environment

Work Demands

- The amount of work I am expected to do within this company is too great.
- I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.
- It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do

Change demand

Table 1
Factor Loadings for the Four-Factor CFA in Sample 1 and Sample 2

Items	Frequent change	Planned change	Transformational change	Uncertainty
1. Change frequently occurs in my unit	.82 .80			
2. It is difficult to identify when changes start and end	.53 .57			
3. It feels like change is always happening	.84 .80			
4. Change has involved prior preparation and planning by my manager or unit		.56 .82		
5. Change has been the result of a deliberate decision to change by my manager/unit		.81 .98		
6. Change has occurred due to goals developed by my manager or unit		.76 .80		
7. Large scale changes significantly changing your unit's goals			.85 .85	
8. Changes that affect my work unit's structure			.86 .83	
9. Changes to the values of my work unit			.87 .84	
10. My work environment is changing in an unpredictable manner				.76 .74
11. I am often uncertain about how to respond to change				.80 .85
12. I am often unsure about the effect on change on my work unit				.88 .91
13. I am often unsure how severely a change will affect my work unit				.81 .93

Note. Sample 1 results are presented above Sample 2 results. All items are significant at $p < .001$. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis.

Leader

During change, charismatic (transformational) leadership provides a psychological focal point for followers by offering a role model who demonstrates desired actions. Instrumental (transactional) leadership ensures compliance and consistency with the commitment generated by the charismatic (transformational) leadership behaviour (Nadler and Tushman, 1989).

There is growing interest in issues of authenticity in organizational life (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011) focused on individuals behaving in ways that reflect inner and selftranscendent values (Detert & Bruno, in press). For example, authentic leaders manage values such as honesty, loyalty and equality in their interaction with followers to gain relational authenticity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). From this perspective, leaders draw from personality resources to foster selfawareness and self-regulated positive behaviors toward their followers (Luthans & Avolio, 2003: 243)

- I would share my opinion about sensitive issues with my direct manager even if my opinion were unpopular.
- If someone questioned my direct manager's motives, I would give him/her the benefit of the doubt.
- I would let my direct manager have complete control over my future in this company.
- I would tell my direct manager about mistakes I've made on the job, even if they could damage my reputation.

- If my direct manager asked why a problem happened, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.

Stimulating work

By contrast, stimulating work is associated with individuals experiencing higher well-being and higher psychological achievement (Roberts et al., 2003). A three-year longitudinal analysis showed that individuals stimulated by both higher job demands and job control were more likely to increase their proactive personality compared with people with less task control at work (Li et al., 2014).

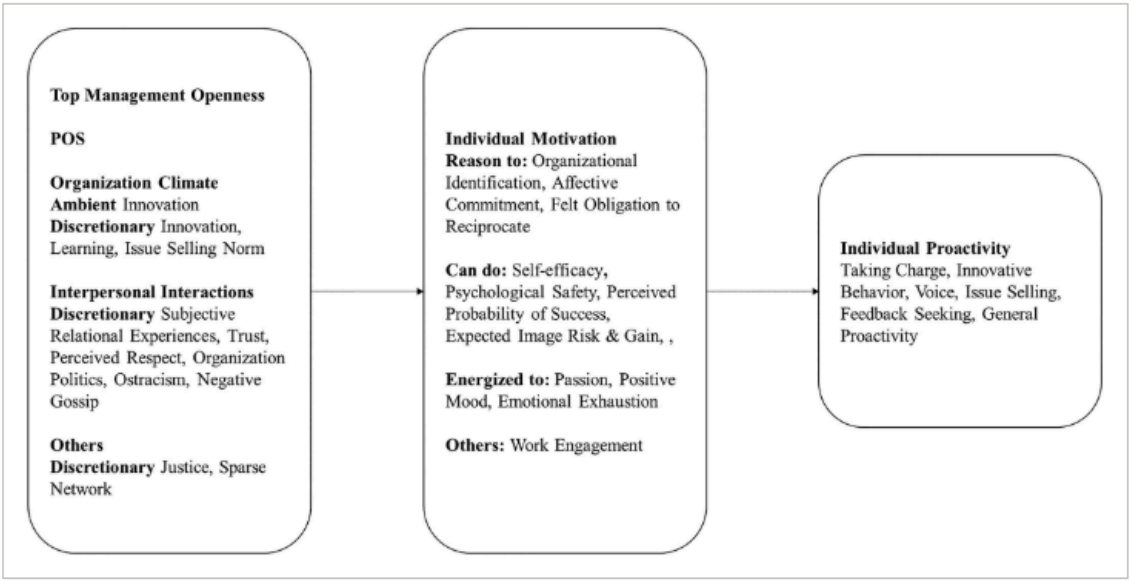

Figure 4 Open in figure viewer | PowerPoint

Organization-related Factors as Antecedents of Proactivity

Team

Axtell et al. (2000) found that perceived psychological safety climate increased innovative behavior, because it signals that there is a low risk in taking initiative. Wallace, Butts, Johnson, Stevens, and Smith (2016) found that an ambient involvement climate (in which the team encourages employee commitment by sharing information and power, encouraging self-development, and rewarding contributions), through satisfying individuals' basic psychological needs, improves their thriving ("other") and hence their innovative behavior.

There is a body of strong evidence proposing that favorable interaction with coworkers prompts both individual and team proactive behavior. The correlation of this factor with individual proactivity ranges from 0.01 to 0.44; the correlation with team proactivity ranges from 0.44 to 0.80. For example, as a discretionary input, the perceived trust gained from coworkers was found to motivate individuals to take the risk of setting and striving for broader goals than their prescribed job requirements, as described by a flexible role orientation ("reason to"), which in turn improved their proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2006). In a similar vein, the perception of coworker support for safety was found to motivate individuals to reciprocate with a more frequent voice concerning safety (Tucker, Chmiel, Turner, Hershcovis, & Stride, 2008).

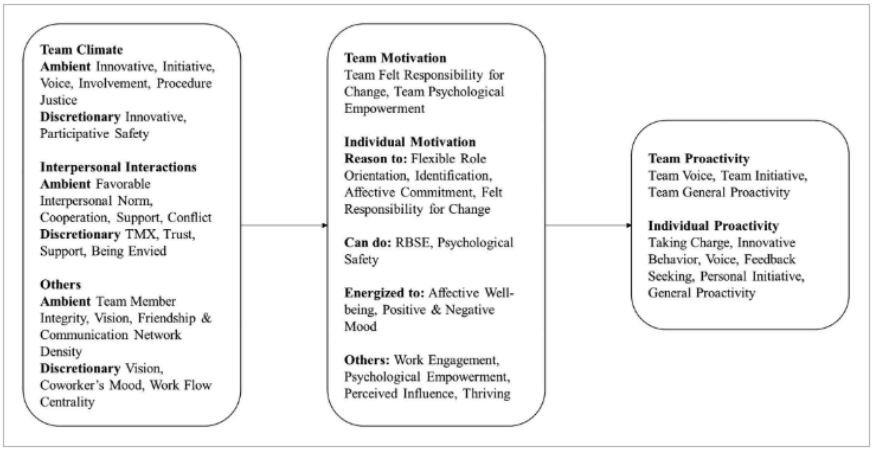

Figure 3 Open in figure viewer | PowerPoint

Team-related Factors as Antecedents of Proactivity

Team Safety

Team psychological safety*	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you.	.36	.38	.49	.41	.34	.43
2. Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues.		.28	.56	.35	.34	.37
3. People on this team sometimes reject others for being different.			.32	.45	.45	.33
4. It is safe to take a risk on this team.				.37	.37	.48
5. It is difficult to ask other members of this team for help.					.42	.41
6. No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts.						.39
7. Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized.						

Team learning behavior*	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. We regularly take time to figure out ways to improve our team's work processes.	.23	.28	.35	.41	.30	.23
2. This team tends to handle differences of opinion privately or off-line, rather than addressing them directly as a group.		.26	.31	.27	.29	.22
3. Team members go out and get all the information they possibly can from others—such as customers, or other parts of the organization.			.38	.35	.37	.37
4. This team frequently seeks new information that leads us to make important changes. . . .				.41	.47	.37
5. In this team, someone always makes sure that we stop to reflect on the team's work process.					.47	.25
6. People in this team often speak up to test assumptions about issues under discussion.						.43
7. We invite people from outside the team to present information or have discussions with us.						

Edmondson (1999: 354) describes team PS as an overarching team "climate characterized by interpersonal trust and mutual respect in which people are comfortable being themselves." Employees perceiving PS in their team environment are more likely to express authentic behaviors and directly communicate in the pursuit of team goals

Organizational Support

Table 1
Confirmatory Factor–Item Loadings

Statement	Loading
Perceived Organizational Support	
1. The ____ takes pride in my accomplishments.	.80
2. The ____ really cares about my well-being.	.79
3. The ____ values my contributions to its well-being.	.71
4. The ____ strongly considers my goals and values.	.65
5. The ____ shows little concern for me. (R)	.61
6. The ____ is willing to help me if I need a special favor.	.59

l perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. The consequence most strongly linked to POS was affective commitment. Evidently, employees strongly reciprocate indications of the organization's caring and positive valuation by increasing their emotional bond to the organization.

Outcomes

Also of relevance to commitment theory are our findings regarding the AC/NC-dominant profile. This profile has commonly been found to associate more strongly with retention, job performance, and OCB than the AC-dominant profile (e.g., Somers, 2009, 2010; Wasti, 2005). Its clearest rival is the fully committed profile that also includes strong AC and NC. We also found that turnover intention was lowest for employees in the AC/NC-dominant. Organizational commitment. We measured commitment to the organization using slightly reworded versions of Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) six-item affective (e.g., "[The company] has a great deal of personal meaning for me"), six-item normative (e.g., "I would feel guilty if I left [the company] now"), and six-item continuance (e.g., "I have no choice but to work for [the company]") commitment scales. Responses were made on a 5-point Likerttype scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Preliminary confirmatory factor analyses were also conducted on this instrument and used to estimate factor scores on the commitment factors to use as inputs for the main analyses. These results are fully reported in the online supplemental materials accompanying this article and fully supported the a priori factor model, as well as its complete longitudinal measurement invariance. Turnover intention. We measured turnover intention with one item: "How likely is it that you will voluntarily leave [the company] within the next 2 years?" Responses could vary from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). High scores reflected greater likelihood of leaving.

From a practical perspective, our findings regarding profile stability combined with evidence linking commitment to personality (Erdheim et al., 2006; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2012) and values (Clugston et al., 2000; Wasti, 2003) suggest that organizations might begin to establish desired forms of commitment in the selection process. Some personality characteristics (e.g., conscientiousness) and values (e.g., collectivism) might contribute directly to the development of an AC/NC-dominant profile. Other personality characteristics and values may need to be targeted differentially to achieve fit with the organization's goals, values, and mission (see Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).