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**BUILDING AND SUSTAINING PROACTIVE BEHAVIORS:
THE ROLE OF ADAPTIVITY AND JOB SATISFACTION**

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose was to investigate how job satisfaction and adaptivity influence proactivity over time. Proactivity describes employees' efforts to initiate positive change in the organization and can be differentiated from adaptivity: the positive behavioral response to ongoing change. We investigated how adaptivity supports subsequent proactivity and how job satisfaction can be a motivational resource for maintaining high levels of proactivity over time.

Design/methodology/approach – We surveyed 75 employees on two occasions separated by a period of two years,

Findings – Our findings provide initial support for the role of adaptivity in facilitating proactivity over time. Highly satisfied employees maintained their level of proactivity, whether high or low, over the two year period. Employees low in job satisfaction who showed high levels of proactive behavior at Time 1 did not report high levels of proactive behavior at Time 2.

Implications – In uncertain environments, organizations rely on their employees to support and promote change and innovation. Our results suggest that high adaptivity can build proactivity while high satisfaction can sustain proactivity.

Originality/value- Distinguishing adaptivity from proactivity provides a better understanding of the nature of proactivity in organizations. Inconsistent results concerning the link between satisfaction and proactivity are addressed.

BUILDING AND SUSTAINING PROACTIVITY OVER TIME THROUGH ADAPTIVITY AND JOB SATISFACTION

Proactivity is a behavioral construct involving self-initiated change by employees which can contribute to organizational effectiveness in uncertain and changing environments (e.g., Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). In such environments, it is not enough for individuals to passively comply with demands so employees need to use initiative to identify and implement improvements. Proactivity is positively related to organizational performance in terms of firm success (Koop, De Reu, & Frese, 2000; Zempel, 1999) and profitability (Baer & Frese, 2003). Proactive behavior is particularly important for innovation and organizational change (Kickul & Gundy, 2002); influencing the transition from idea generation to idea implementation (Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004). Ideas for change can initially be met with resistance and suspicion (Bateman & Crant, 1993), so for innovation to occur, proactive employees need to persevere until their ideas are successfully implemented (Ginsberg & Abrahamson, 1991; Howell & Boies, 2004; Howell & Higgins, 1990; Howell & Shea, 2001).

Because effective change requires perseverance in proactivity it is important to understand how proactivity develops over time and the factors that sustain proactivity in the face of obstacles. However, there are few empirical studies of the way individuals change or maintain their proactive behaviors over time (see e.g., Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997; Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007; and Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996, for exceptions). In this study we investigate two perspectives on how proactivity develops over time. First, we investigate the importance of adaptivity as a foundation for subsequent proactive behavior. Adaptivity describes the way individuals adjust and modify their behavior in response to change (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). For example, employees can adapt to new technologies, respond positively to changing team memberships, and adjust to changes in the

way the organization operates (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000). Although adaptive behaviors have been distinguished from proactive behaviors and several studies have included both adaptivity and proactivity as outcome variables (e.g., Ghitulescu, 2013; Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Marques-Quinteiro & Cural, 2012), the relationship between the two related types of behavior has received little attention. The literature on proactivity emphasizes the superiority of proactivity over more “passive” responses to one’s environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993). While proactive behavior is seen as an active way of seizing control over one’s environment, adapting to given circumstances is seen as less desirable (Bateman & Crant, 1993; see also Rothbaum, Weisz, & Snyder, 1982). This reasoning seems to suggest that proactivity is a more desirable way of engaging with a changing environment. However, we argue that adaptivity plays an important role for proactivity by creating critical resources during organizational change, and propose that adaptivity at one point in time will enable greater proactivity at later times. We thus contribute to the literature on adaptive and proactive behavior by exploring the complex interplay of these different yet related ways in which employees respond to uncertain and changing organizational environments.

Second, we consider the role of job satisfaction in maintaining proactivity. Research to date has reported inconsistent findings regarding the direct relationship between job satisfaction and proactivity. We provide a different perspective by investigating job satisfaction as a resource for maintaining higher levels of proactivity over time. Although it is clear that a variety of individual and situational factors contribute to proactive behavior, it is less clear how proactive behaviors are sustained over time, so this research helps understand the motivational basis for maintaining proactivity.

Our focus in this paper is organizationally-directed proactivity. Although there are multiple forms of proactive behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010), we focus on proactivity

directed toward the organization because the organization we investigated was undergoing a major transformation. Strategically, senior management sought to understand how employees might both adapt to and support the organization-wide change, but also contribute to it proactively by improving organizational systems and practices. Organizationally-directed proactivity is likely to be particularly important when the whole organization is undergoing change.

Building proactivity: The role of prior adaptivity

We first consider how adaptive behavior provides a foundation for subsequent proactivity. Adaptivity refers to the degree to which individuals adjust well to changes in the organization, such as mergers and restructuring (Griffin et al., 2007). Proactivity, on the other hand, reflects the extent to which employees attempt to bring about change in the organization, and is a crucial component of the innovation process. In the literature on proactive behavior, adaptivity has often been conceptualized as a more reactive response to changing environments in contrast to proactivity, which describes more active efforts to change the environment. Bateman and Crant (1993) compare proactivity to Weisz's (1990) concept of primary control, referring to attempts to change objective conditions, while adaptivity can be seen as a means of secondary control, reflecting attempts to accommodate to conditions (see also Rothbaum et al., 1982).

Although organization member adaptivity and proactivity are distinct concepts, they are also related (Ghitulescu, 2013; Griffin et al., 2007; Griffin et al., 2010; Marques-Quinteiro & Cural, 2012). A dynamic organizational environment is likely to require the interplay of organization member adaptivity and proactivity; employees need to cope effectively with ongoing change beyond their control but also actively contribute to positive change in the organization (Ghitulescu, 2013).

We propose that during organizational change adaptivity is required to provide individuals with the resources that enable them to subsequently engage in proactive behavior. Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) defines resources as “those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects”, and proposes that individuals are motivated to “retain, protect, and build resources” (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). During organizational change adaptivity creates resources which are necessary for individuals in order to engage in proactivity at a later stage. We propose that three different categories of resources are particularly critical. First, adaptivity involves acquiring new information that will facilitate employees’ adjustment to changes in the organization (Griffin et al., 2007). Proactivity requires relational knowledge about the intentions, goals, and stakes of others in the organization, which enables individuals to deal with the political aspects of initiating change in the organization. It requires normative knowledge about acceptable or appropriate behavior in the organization, such as the use of formal or informal knowledge to initiate change, as well as strategic knowledge about the organization’s goals and priorities (Dutton, Ashford, O’Neill, & Lawrence, 2001; Howell & Boies, 2004). During organizational change, adaptivity is critical for acquiring knowledge of, and adjusting to, changes in stakeholder goals, and organizational norms and strategy. If employees fail to adjust to changes in the way the organization operates they are likely to lack up-to-date knowledge that would enable them to engage in proactive behavior at a later stage. Adaptivity can thus facilitate subsequent proactivity because it ensures that individuals have the relational, normative, and strategic knowledge required to bring about change in the organization.

Second, adaptivity is likely to increase employees’ change-related self-efficacy. The experience of being able to successfully cope with change, for example, by coming to perceive change as positive rather than as threatening, can encourage individuals to initiate

change in the future. The changing organizational environment can be experienced as controllable when individuals know they are equipped to successfully cope with it. The experience of being able to adapt to changes in the organization thus allows individuals to develop higher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), an important antecedent of proactivity (e.g., Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker et al., 2006).

Third, adaptivity is likely to be instrumental for maintaining positive relationships which facilitate later proactivity. In deciding whether or not to engage in proactive behavior, individuals weigh the perceived risks involved against the perceived benefits (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). When interpersonal relations are poor, engaging in proactivity may seem too risky and the costs involved too high. Positive relationships, on the other hand, facilitate proactive behavior (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998) by creating a supportive environment and making proactivity seem less risky. Adaptivity reflects the willingness and ability to change one's plans and goals to deal with changing situations. If employees do not adapt to change they are consequently unlikely to face a context supportive of proactivity; this is because they may be seen as resistant to change or as poor performers. Adaptability is often seen as a component of job performance (e.g., Steel, Shane, & Kennedy, 1990), and handling stressful situations and adapting to change plays a significant role in supervisor evaluations of employees' overall performance (Johnson, 2001; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999; Shoss, Witt, & Vera, 2012). If employees fail to adapt to change this may thus be seen as an indication of poor performance. Supervisors are then unlikely to react positively to proactive behavior because they may believe that it constitutes an additional burden the employee is unlikely to cope with (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). If employees appear resistant to change, their efforts to engage in proactive behavior at a later stage are likely to be seen as challenging rather than supportive, and supervisors will consequently be less supportive of their proactive behavior (Burriss, 2012).

For these reasons, a lack of adaptability is likely to create a context that does not support proactivity, causing employees to refrain from engaging in proactive behavior.

While it is unlikely that employees will engage in proactivity if they have not adapted to change in the organization, it is possible that employees are adaptive without necessarily having engaged proactivity at an earlier stage. For example, individuals could respond positively to ongoing organizational change without engaging in proactive behavior because they do not feel responsible for bringing about change themselves (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Although proactivity is also likely to create resources (Bolino, Valcea, & Harvey, 2010; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013), individuals are likely to be able to adapt to change without necessarily having initiated change themselves at an earlier stage of the organizational change. Research on the antecedents of adaptivity has primarily highlighted the importance of relatively stable individual differences such as cognitive ability and achievement motivation (Pulakos et al., 2002) or a positive self-concept and tolerance of risk (Judge et al., 1999). While individuals should respond more positively to change if they have successfully adapted to change in the past (Axtell et al., 2002; Pulakos et al., 2002), adaptivity does not necessarily require resources that can only be acquired through proactivity.

Based on the above arguments we propose that adaptivity is an important precondition for future proactivity.

H1: Higher levels of organization member adaptivity will be positively associated with subsequent levels of organization member proactivity.

Sustaining proactivity: The role of job satisfaction

We next consider how high levels of proactivity might be sustained over time. We propose that job satisfaction is a resource that enables individuals to continue the effort required to maintain proactive actions. Job satisfaction is the most commonly studied short-

term indicator of occupational well-being (Kinicki, McKee, & Wade, 1996) and an important indicator of employees' adjustment to organizational change (e.g., Amiot, Terry, Jimmieson, & Calan, 2006; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010). To date, researchers have drawn different conclusions about the relationship between job satisfaction and proactivity. On the one hand, job satisfaction has been viewed as a passive motivational resource unlikely to generate the challenging behaviors required by proactivity. Frese and colleagues (Frese et al., 1997) found personal initiative, a form of proactive behavior, to be unrelated to job satisfaction. Focusing on antecedents, Parker et al. (2006) considered affect-related constructs such as satisfaction and commitment to be more strongly associated with compliance than with proactivity; the authors argued that a high level of positive affect toward the organization does not necessarily mean that an employee will engage in proactive behavior. On the other hand, satisfaction has been identified as an antecedent of citizenship behaviors that include elements of proactivity (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Although the strength of the association between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors is typically low to moderate, there is a consistent positive relationship between job satisfaction and outcomes such as civic virtue and helping. Individuals experiencing positive affective states associated with job satisfaction are also more likely to change their situation proactively (Isen & Baron, 1991; Judge, 1993), and to show higher levels of innovative behaviors (George, 1990). Thus, the positive feelings associated with job satisfaction might lead to more proactive behaviors at work.

In the light of these contradictory perspectives, we aim to explore the interplay between job satisfaction and proactive behavior over time. An indirect, moderating effect of satisfaction might explain some of the inconsistent findings regarding the link between job satisfaction and proactivity. Drawing on conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), Bolino and colleagues (2010) proposed that engaging in proactive behavior requires

resources, such as time, support, or energy. We propose that job satisfaction constitutes such a resource, enabling individuals to sustain high levels of proactivity over time. Specifically, the positive affective states associated with job satisfaction should allow individuals to develop and build resources which allow them to sustain high levels of proactivity (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). Positive emotions can help individuals to overcome setbacks, find meaning in stressful events, and rebound from negative emotional experiences (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Thus, job satisfaction should allow individuals to continue in their proactive endeavors, even after setbacks, and to maintain high levels of proactivity over time. Without the buffering effect of job satisfaction, individuals are likely to give up when they encounter setbacks. Based on this rationale, we propose that job satisfaction will moderate the relationship between past and subsequent organization member proactivity. Employees who have been highly proactive in the past and who are highly satisfied at work will sustain their proactive behavior over time, whereas those who are not satisfied will not maintain a consistent level of proactivity.

H2: Job satisfaction will moderate the relationship between past and subsequent organization member proactivity such that individuals high in job satisfaction will be more likely to sustain their proactive behavior over time.

Method

Sample and procedure

The participants for this study were 75 individuals who completed an organizational survey on two occasions separated by a period of two years. The participants were employees of a large public sector organization in Australia responsible for the provision of scientific and technical services for the public health service. During this period the organization was undertaking a significant transformation moving from the role of the single government

supplier to a commercially competitive environment. Therefore, ongoing change was experienced in relation to management, pricing, marketing, and evaluation of services. All employees within the organization (approximately 1800 employees) were invited to participate in a survey at Time 1 and at Time 2 two years later. Although the survey was confidential (in that no-one within the organization saw any individual responses), participants were invited to record their employee identification number so that individual responses could be matched over time by the research team. The present study was based on those respondents who recorded their employee number on both occasions.

At Time 1, there were 965 responses to the survey (representing a 58% response rate), and 192 of these responses included an employee identification number. At Time 2, there were 1,132 responses to the survey (representing a 61% response rate), and 297 of these responses included an employee identification number. Within these samples there were 75 employees who completed both surveys and included their employee identification number at both times.

Although the final sample was relatively small, resulting in low power to detect interaction effects, the matched sample provides an important opportunity to investigate proactivity over a two-year time period. To establish the representativeness of the sample of 75 employees who included their identification number at both time points, we compared this sample with two categories of respondents. The first group consisted of respondents who reported their identification number at one time point but not the other. We labeled these participants the “once-identified group” and it was comprised of 192 people at Time 1 and 297 people at Time 2. The second group consisted of respondents who did not provide an identification number. We labeled this group the “non-identified group” and it was comprised of 773 people at Time 1 and 835 people at Time 2.

At Time 1, the matched sample and the once-identified group showed significantly higher means than the non-identified group on the measures of adaptivity, proactivity, and job satisfaction. There were no significant differences between the matched sample and the once-identified group. At Time 2 there were no significant differences among the three groups on any of the focal measures.

These results show that the non-identified group displayed significantly less positive attitudes and behaviors than the matched sample at Time 1 though not at Time 2. These differences at Time 1 limit the representativeness of the sample and suggest that the findings might not generalize to employees at lower levels of these constructs. Nevertheless, the study provides a unique opportunity to examine proactive behavior in a group over a 2 year period. At the end of this 2 year period, the group was not statistically different to other respondents in the sample.

Measures

Organization member adaptivity (T1: $\alpha = .92$, T2: $\alpha = .94$) and *organization member proactivity* (T1: $\alpha = .86$, T2: $\alpha = .90$) were each measured with three items developed by Griffin et al. (2007). An example item for organization member proactivity is “Over the last month, how often have you made suggestions to improve the overall effectiveness of the organization (e.g., by suggesting changes to administrative procedures)”. An example item for organization member adaptivity is “Over the last month, how often have you responded flexibly to overall changes in the organization (e.g., changes in management)”. Answer categories ranged from “very little” (1) to “a great deal” (5).

Job satisfaction (T1: $\alpha = .85$, T2: $\alpha = .87$) was measured with three items used by Rafferty and Griffin (2006) to assess overall satisfaction with work. An example item is “Overall, I am satisfied with the kind of work I do”. Answer categories ranged from “very little” (1) to “a great deal” (5).

Control variables. In line with previous research (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Griffin et al., 2007; Morrison & Phelps, 1999), we included age, sex (male = 1, female = 2), tenure, and the employees' hierarchical level in the organization as demographic variables that might influence the relationship between job satisfaction and proactivity and adaptivity. In this study, only hierarchical level was significantly related to organization member adaptivity and proactivity (see Table 1) and was thus included in the analyses.

Results

Means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations of the study variables are shown in Table 1. Organization member adaptivity at Time 1 was positively related to organization member proactivity at Time 1 ($r = .43, p < .001$), and adaptivity at Time 2 was positively related to proactivity at Time 2 ($r = .57, p < .001$). Job satisfaction was positively related to organization member adaptivity at Time 1 ($r = .42, p < .001$) and Time 2 ($r = .49, p < .001$), and was positively related to organization member proactivity at Time 2 ($r = .30, p = .009$) but not Time 1 ($r = .02, p = .96$). Correlations across the two year time period were moderate for adaptivity ($r = .46, p < .001$) and proactivity ($r = .33, p = .003$) while being stronger for job satisfaction ($r = .62, p < .001$).

 Insert Table 1 about here

To test the hypotheses, we conducted a moderated hierarchical regression analysis predicting organization member proactivity at Time 2 (see Table 2), controlling for employees' hierarchical level and Time 1 proactivity in Step 1. Predictor variables were centered by subtracting the overall mean from each individual score (Aiken & West, 1991). Adaptivity at Time 1 positively predicted organization member proactivity at Time 2 ($\beta = .44, p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 1.

Although job satisfaction at Time 1 was not related to organization member proactivity at Time 2 ($\beta = -.01, p > .98$), there was a significant interaction between job satisfaction at Time 1 and organization member proactivity at Time 1, supporting the prediction of Hypothesis 2. The interaction is depicted in Figure 1 following procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). The figure shows that proactivity at Time 1 was more strongly related to proactivity at Time 2 when individuals reported higher job satisfaction at Time 1. The simple effect of the relationship between proactivity at Time 1 and proactivity at Time 2 was statistically significant for higher levels of satisfaction ($\beta = .51, p < .002$) but not for individuals with lower satisfaction ($\beta = -.02, p > .92$).

 Insert Table 2 and Figure 1 about here

The results support the hypothesized relationships for adaptivity and satisfaction. Although we could not formally test alternative causal models a number of results are consistent with our hypotheses. First, the correlation between proactivity at Time 1 and adaptivity at Time 2 was not statistically significant ($r = .08, p = .51$). Second, there were no significant interactions when adaptivity was tested as the dependent variable.

Discussion

Our results support the proposition that adaptivity helps to build higher levels of organizationally-oriented proactivity, while job satisfaction plays an important role in sustaining high levels of proactivity. Although relevant studies are scarce, past research incorporating both adaptivity and proactivity has tended to emphasize the differences between these two types of behavior (Ghitulescu, 2013; Griffin et al., 2007, 2010; Marques-

Quinteiro & Curren, 2012). Our research suggests a more complementary role for each construct. Specifically, our results suggest that for employees to initiate change in organizations, they also need to be able to adapt to their changing environment. We found a significant positive main effect of organization member adaptivity on subsequent organization member proactivity. These findings are consistent with the idea that adaptivity plays a role in supporting proactive behavior over time, and suggests that changing organizational environments might require an interplay between primary (proactive) and secondary (adaptive) control of one's environment (Weisz, 1990).

Employees who fail to adapt to ongoing change seem to be less likely to initiate change in the future. This might be because they experience change as threatening rather than positive. Their failure to adapt to ongoing change might also decrease their self-efficacy to cope with future change, and thus make it less likely for them to initiate change themselves. It is also possible a failure to adapt to ongoing change will lead to the loss of the strategic, relational, and normative knowledge that facilitates successful organization member proactivity (Dutton et al., 2001).

Interestingly, when adaptivity was taken into account, initial proactivity was not significantly related to subsequent proactivity. This finding has implications for organizations relying on proactive employees to bring about positive change in the organization. Irrespective of their past proactivity, employees' proactivity may decrease if they fail to adapt to ongoing change. To date, little research has investigated the potential dysfunctional effects of proactivity as an attempt to gain control over an ever-changing environment. We suggest that further research could usefully explore the potential role of adaptivity in the relationship between proactivity and success within a changing organizational context.

Our research also suggests that job satisfaction is important, not just as an instigator of proactivity, but as a force for maintaining its momentum, and supports a more nuanced

view of job satisfaction in relation to proactive behavior than suggested by research thus far. We found that job satisfaction moderated the relationship between past and future organization member proactivity over a period of 2 years. Importantly, highly satisfied employees who had not tried to promote change in their organization in the past were also not likely to do so in the future. This finding is consistent with Parker and colleagues' (2006) argument that job satisfaction would be associated more with compliance than with proactive behavior. However, we found that highly satisfied employees who were proactive in the past continued to initiate positive change in their organization. These findings appear to divide highly satisfied employees into 'good soldiers' who do not attempt to change the organization in which they feel satisfied and may support their organization in more compliant, less challenging ways, and 'positive agents of change' who persevere at initiating change in their organization over long periods of time. On the other hand, bearing in mind research suggesting that proactivity is at least partly determined by personality (c.f., the concept of proactive personality, Bateman & Crant, 1993), this pattern of findings may reflect the fact that some individuals are unlikely to ever be especially proactive. Managers might therefore focus on supporting other important contributions that these more reactive individuals might play within a changing organization, such as reliable task performance and proficiency.

For employees low in job satisfaction, organization member proactivity at Time 1 was not related to organization member proactivity at Time 2. This provides further support for the importance of a highly satisfied workforce. Low levels of job satisfaction may motivate high levels of proactive behavior in the short-term, but this is unlikely to be sustained over the long term. Our findings suggest that these employees will either succeed in changing their organization to fit their expectations and no longer see the need to initiate positive change; or fail to have their expectations met, become additionally frustrated and not persevere with proactive behaviors. Both patterns of behavior are undesirable given that organizations

depend on employees' consistency and perseverance at initiating change. Further research may increase our understanding of the relationship between proactivity and low levels of job satisfaction.

Limitations of the present study and further research

One of the limitations of our study is that it focused on a relatively small sample of employees from the organization for whom we had matched data. Whether these findings would have applied to a more complete sample of the organization or to other samples is not known. However, our sample of employees in the health care sector faced a number of challenges that are common to other contexts facing increased competitive pressure and technological change. The need to be both adaptive and proactive is likely to be experienced similarly by employees in other contexts with increasing pressure to deliver competitive services.

A further methodological limitation of this study is the use of self-report measures of behavior. However, to some extent the design of this study minimizes this issue because biases in reports of behavior (e.g., social desirability bias) should apply equally on both measurement occasions. In addition, some previous research has validated the use of self-report measures of proactive behavior. Parker et al. (2006) showed substantial correlations between external ratings of proactive work behaviors and self-assessment. Griffin and colleagues similarly showed that external ratings of proactivity within groups of employees were related to aggregate self-ratings within these groups (Griffin et al., 2007). A further argument for the use of self-report measures of proactivity is that supervisors may see proactive behavior as a threat (Frese & Fay, 2001; Parker et al., 2006), or a distraction (Chan, 2006), and may fail to acknowledge and reward it (Grant et al., 2009). Despite these arguments for the use of self-report measures in the present study, future research is needed to replicate our findings with peer- or supervisor-ratings of proactivity and adaptivity.

A further limitation could be that individual differences that have been shown to be significant predictors of proactive behavior are not included in the present study. However, we would expect relatively stable individual factors such as proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993) to influence proactivity at both time points, thus strengthening the relationship between proactivity at Time 1 and Time 2.

In the present study, we found a positive relationship between organization member adaptivity and subsequent organization member proactivity. We proposed this relationship on the grounds that adaptivity would enhance employees' change-related self-efficacy, contribute to a context supportive of proactivity, and provide employees with the relational, normative and strategic knowledge required for proactivity at the level of the organization. However, we did not investigate these mechanisms. Future research should explore the mechanisms through which adaptivity may enhance subsequent proactivity.

We suggested that successful organizational change requires the interplay of adaptive and proactive behavior (see also Ghitulescu, 2013). Our study has highlighted that adaptivity is related to future proactivity, but has not investigated the extent to which these two behaviors contribute to positive outcomes for the organization or the individual. Further research is needed to explore the contingency of successful organizational change on the interplay between adaptivity and proactivity.

Our findings further underline the importance of research employing multiple measurement occasions in enhancing our understanding of the complex interplay between employees' changing environment and their adaptive and proactive responses to this changing environment.

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Table 1. Means, standard deviations and correlations among study variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Sex ^a	1.43	.50	--										
2. Age T2	43.77	9.37	-.04	--									
3. Tenure (in years) T2	12.86	10.15	-.39***	.52***	--								
4. Hierarchical level T1	3.26	1.54	-.40***	.10	.37**	--							
5. Hierarchical level T2	3.45	1.57	-.40***	.08	.34**	.95***	--						
6. Proactivity T1	3.34	.91	-.14	.02	.02	.40**	.35**	.86					
7. Proactivity T2	3.31	.96	-.03	-.11	-.16	.17	.22	.33**	.90				
8. Adaptivity T1	3.34	.91	.03	-.15	-.21	.01	.01	.43***	.47***	.92			
9. Adaptivity T2	3.86 (.96	.01	-.06	-.19	.13	.20	.08	.56***	.46***	.94		
10. Job satisfaction T1	3.76	.92	.32**	.09	-.08	.01	-.01	.19	.18	.42***	.21	.85	
11. Job satisfaction T2	3.81	.99	.19	-.02	-.13	.00	.18	-.01	.30**	.38**	.49***	.62***	.87

N = 75; ^a 1 = Male 2 = Female; T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2; Cronbach's alphas are presented in the diagonal

p* < .05, *p* < .01, ****p* < .001

Table 2. Hierarchical regression analysis predicting organization member proactivity at Time 2

	Proactivity T2					
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	β	t	β	t	β	t
Hierarchical level T2	.12	1.04	.20	1.75	.20	1.78
Organization member proactivity T1	.29	2.47**	.08	0.65	.01	0.03
Organization member adaptivity T1	--	--	.44	3.55***	.45	3.68***
Job satisfaction T1	--	--	-.01	-0.11	.03	0.23
Adaptivity T1 x proactivity T1	--	--	--	--	-.10	-.41
Satisfaction T1 x proactivity T1	--	--	--	--	.27	2.01*
R^2	.12		.27		.32	
F	5.10**		6.55***		5.23***	
ΔR^2	--		.15		.05	
ΔF	--		7.13***		2.20**	

Note. $N = 75$; T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

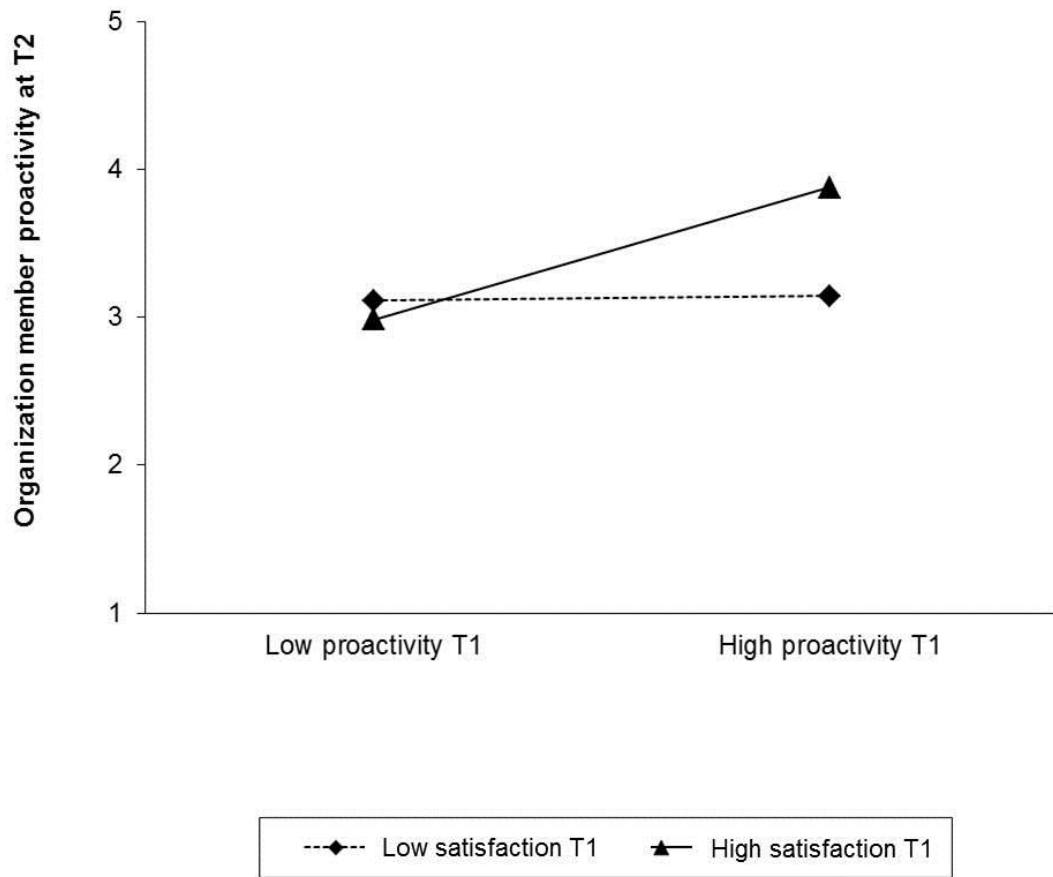


Figure 1. Interaction between past (Time 1) organization member proactivity and satisfaction in the prediction of subsequent (Time 2) organization member proactivity