Proactive Personality and Intent to Remain: Is Career Future a Moderator or Mediator?

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Individuals vary in their tendency to take action to control their environment. Proactive individuals actively create environmental change, while less proactive people take a more reactive approach toward their jobs. The extent to which individuals benefit from their own proactivity depends on the context. In the change context career future plays a vital role in affecting a proactive employee's decision to remain with the organization. The purpose of the present study was to empirically test the mechanism by which proactive personality was related to intent to remain with the organization through career future. The results supported both the mediating and moderating role of career future in retaining proactive individuals. Implications for organizations and future research are discussed.

OVERVIEW OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY

As the world shrinks, with the advent of globalization, there is marked increase in competition and a dire need for skilled employees. In such a dynamic environment, organizations are treating proactive behaviors as a role requirement, emphasizing its value to employees, and hiring applicants with a proactive orientation (Campbell, 2000). Bakker, Tims and Derks (2012) rightly point out the importance of people:

> It may be equally important that employees mobilize their own job challenges and resources. Managers are not always available for feedback, and organizations that are confronted with economic turmoil may set other priorities. Under such conditions, it may be particularly important for employees to show proactive behavior and optimize their own work environment…We expect that employees with a proactive personality are most likely to craft their own jobs, so that they stay engaged and perform well. (p. 1359)

Proactive behavior entails a dynamic approach toward work (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Parker, 2000) seeking to improvise the existing job along with developing personal prerequisites for furthering career success (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999) and organizational effectiveness (Bateman & Crant, 1999). It encompasses behaviors such as taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) and personal initiative (Frese et al., 1996) and is closely associated with flexible role orientations (Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997).

The dispositional approach involves the measurement of personal characteristics and the assumption that such measures can aid in explaining individual attitudes and behavior. Also, when traits and predispositions are strong there is a lesser likelihood they will be overridden by situational forces (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Using this approach past research has conceived proactive personality as a relatively

stable individual disposition toward proactive behavior (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Additionally, the extant work on proactive behavior advocates the fact that the construct proactive personality explicitly encompasses the varied aspects of proactive behavior and initiative (Crant, 2000).

Bateman and Crant (1993) defined the construct *proactive personality* "as a dispositional construct that identifies differences among people in the extent to which they take action to influence their environment" (p. 103). They further developed the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) to measure this construct and provided evidence for the scale's convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity with results from three studies. Since then, a number of studies have consistently demonstrated the validity of the proactive personality construct, as assessed by the PPS (e.g., Becherer & Maurer, 1999; Crant, 1995, 1996; Crant & Bateman, 1999, 2000; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Parker & Sprigg, 1998).

Proactive personality is a unique disposition not captured by other typologies such as the five-factor model; Crant and Bateman (2000) found only moderate correlations with the five-factor model of personality. Furthermore, Crant (1995) found that proactive personality predicted sales performance above and beyond conscientiousness and extraversion. Additionally, Bateman and Crant (1993) showed that proactive personality is distinct from self-consciousness, need for achievement, need for dominance, and locus of control. All these studies provide further evidence for the discriminant validity of proactive personality.

Research in understanding this construct has been rapidly increasing. Its effects have been studied in varied fields like job performance through a social capital perspective (Thompson, 2005); transformational (Bateman & Crant, 1993) and charismatic leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000); and job search success (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop, 2006). Chan (2006) has explored the interactive effects of situational judgment effectiveness and proactive personality on work perceptions and outcomes.

Parker and Sprigg (1998) found that proactive personality moderated the interactive effect of job autonomy and demands on employee strain. Their results were consistent with the premise that proactive employees take advantage of high job control to manage more effectively the demands they face, whereas passive employees do not take advantage of greater autonomy to this end.

Importance of Proactive Personality in Organizational Change

Past research studies have called for a more person-focused approach to the study of organizational change (e.g., Aktouf, 1992; Bray, 1994), especially since we are witnessing immense changes in the world of work with jobs in the 21st century requiring greater initiative, courtesy of global competition (Cascio, 1995; Frese & Fay, 2001; Howard, 1995). Recent years have therefore seen an escalating interest in studying the complexity of changes in the workplace, their causes, consequences, and strategies for change (for reviews, see Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Porras & Robertson, 1992). This is where the proactive stance plays an important role: as work becomes more dynamic and changeable, proactive personality and initiative become even more critical determinants of organizational success (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997).

Proactive personality is the degree to which individuals have an active role orientation. Rather than accepting their roles passively, proactive persons challenge the status quo and initiate change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Thus, employees with proactive personalities use initiative, persevere, and attempt to shape their environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993).

There is an ever-increasing demand by organizations for proactive behavior as they expect employees to fix things that they see as wrong (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005). In this context the words of Crant (2000) are apt:

Proactive people identify opportunities and act on them, show initiative, take action, and persevere until meaningful change occurs. In contrast, people who are not proactive exhibit the opposite patterns: they fail to identify, let alone seize, opportunities to change things. Less proactive individuals are passive and reactive, preferring to adapt to circumstances rather than change them. (p. 439)

Dual Role of Career Future

Li, Liang and Crant (2010) aptly point out that "little is known about the conditions under which organizations can reap the benefits associated with employees' proactivity rather than be harmed by it." (p. 395). One such neglected area is one's career and growth with the organization.

Careers have changed dramatically with advances in technology (Coovert, 1995; Freeman, Soete, & Efendioglu, 1995; Howard, 1995; Van der Spiegel, 1995) and increased global competition (Rosenthal 1995). Thus in today's borderless world characterized by technological advances wherein companies are competing for survival the assumption that an organization would provide lifetime employment has undoubtedly become a myth—'both parties know that the [employment] relationship is unlikely to last forever' (Cappelli, 1999, p. 3). Add to this the element of change and that gives you the perfect recipe to a chaotic and uncertain environment which in turn demands that employees start charting and navigating their careers. Thus, there is renewed interest in the idea of individuals taking responsibility for their career with researchers investigating the effect of organizational change on careers (e.g., Sullivan, Carden, & Martin, 1998).

Several authors have noted that understanding the strategies and behaviors applied by individuals to achieve career success is of vital importance (Bell & Staw, 1989; Judge & Bretz, 1994). In today's competitive world where there has been an increasing emphasis on protean careers, boundaryless careers, and career self-management (Hall, 1996; Jackson, 1996; King, 2004) proactive personality perfectly fits the bill. In an interesting study by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer, (1999) proactive personality was associated with career success even after accounting for predictors, such as demographics, human capital, motivation, type of organization, and type of industry. In another longitudinal study they also found proactive personality to be positively related to career initiative, which consequently has a positive impact on career progression and career satisfaction (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001).

However, it is essential to note that research on proactive career behavior primarily focused on 'bounded careers, that is, single-employer careers with the prospect of stable employment' (Claes, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998, p. 358). It would not be considerably wrong to conclude that the environment characterized by organizational change is the antonym of a stable environment. In such a backdrop it would be logical to assume that employees would remain with the organization only if they were convinced that they do have a career future in the organization especially proactive employees.

Although the bulk of past research has concentrated on the positive implications of proactive personality, it could have certain potentially negative implications, since the extent to which individuals benefit from their own proactivity depends on the context. Campbell (2000) pointed out the possibility of proactive persons receiving negative reactions from the organization, and raised an important question: "Are employees' enterprising qualities truly universally desirable, or do particular job and organizational circumstances make them relatively more or less valuable?" (p.57).

In the present context it may be plausible that if the proactive employees are not convinced that they have career future they may not only be proactive in leaving the job but also searching new jobs. Thus, it is of vital importance to gain insight into understanding as to *what* and *when* proactive personality leads to positive outcomes (Crant, 2000; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005) i.e. it is important to explore mediators and moderators of proactive personality respectively.

From the above discussion we conclude that career future will play a vital role in affecting a proactive employee's decision to remain with the organization. Its importance increases double-fold when the organization is undergoing change as change is characterized by dynamism, uncertainty, and unpredictability. Hence, we anticipated that career future will not only mediate but also moderate the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization (See Figure 1).

FIGURE 1
HYPOTHESIZED MODEL
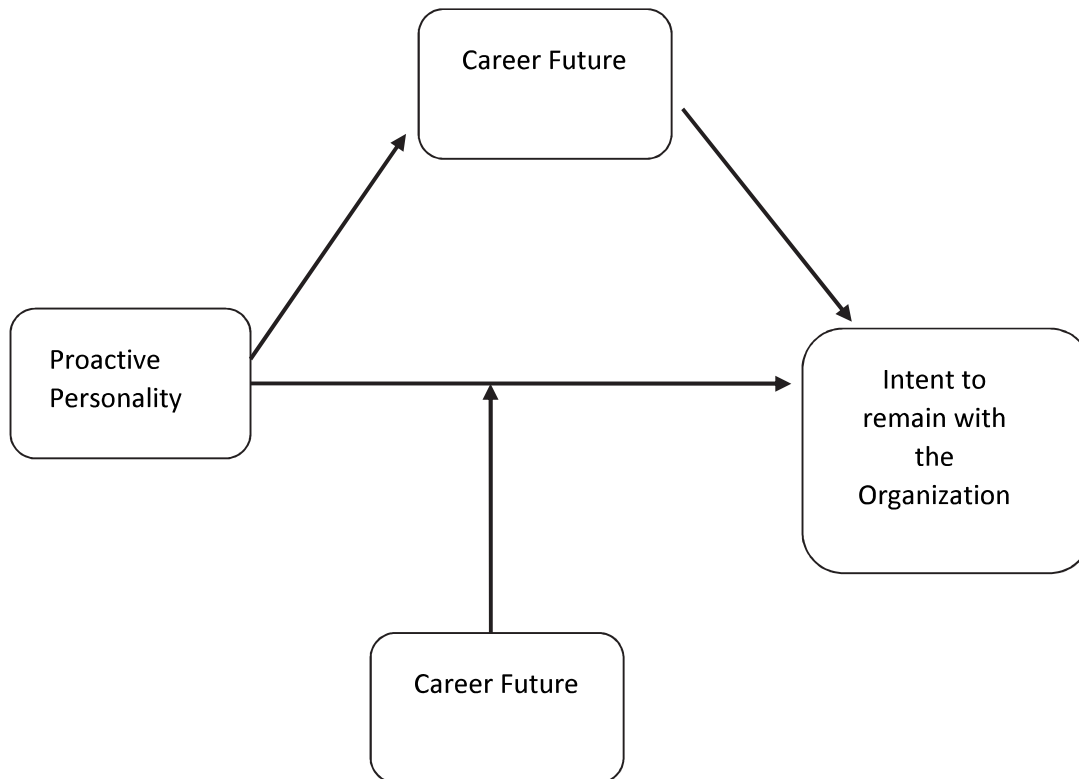
Hypothesis 1: Career future will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and Intent to remain with the organization.

Hypothesis 2: Career future will moderate the relationship between proactive personality and Intent to remain with the organization.

METHODOLOGY

Research Setting and Participants

Data for this study was collected from a non-profit organization located in the south/eastern United States, having approximately 900 employees working in offices spread out throughout the state of Alabama. This organization was chosen because it had recently experienced a major restructuring.

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Females	171	62.2
Race		
Caucasian	177	64.4
African American	75	27.3
Hispanic	1	.4
Native American	2	.7
Asian	1	.4
Other	4	1.5
Age		
20 – 29 years	13	4.7
30 – 39 years	38	13.8
40 – 49 years	100	36.4
> 50 years	118	42.9
Tenure (Organization)		
< 1 year		
1 – 5 years	11	4
6 – 10 years	47	17.1
11 – 20 years	53	19.3
> 20 years	88	32
	72	26.2
Tenure (Job position)		
< 1 year		
1 – 5 years	20	7.3
6 – 10 years	125	45.5
11 – 20 years	49	17.8
> 20 years	53	19.3
	20	7.3

Note: N = 275

Data was collected via a self-report quantitative online survey. The survey administration process began by sending an email to all the employees with the consent of the management, inviting them to participate in the survey. The email which in the form of an information letter, clearly stated that participation in the survey was voluntary and that the survey responses would be completely anonymous and that no member of the management would have access to the data. One day prior to sending the email the on-line survey was posted on the company's intranet—thereby preventing the chance of a non-employee filling the survey. The survey consisted of close-ended questions. However, on the request of the management certain additional items (open-ended questions) not included in this study were also added with the sole aim of getting constructive feedback from its employees with respect to the restructuring. After three weeks another reminder email was sent to the employees. The on-line survey resulted in 275 usable questionnaires, which gave a decent response rate of 31.3%. A sizeable amount of respondents used in our analyses aged over 50 years (42.6%) while the lowest range was between 20-29 years (4.6%), and 60.6 percent of the respondents were women, 63.5% were Caucasian while 26.6% were African Americans, . Table 1 provides a demographic profile of the respondents.

Measures

Proactive Personality

Proactive personality was measured by using the shortened version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) 17-item Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) created by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer, (1999). The shortened version consists of 10 items which were selected as they had the highest average factor loadings across the three studies reported by Bateman and Crant (1993) through which they had presented evidence for the scale's reliability (Cronbach's alpha across three samples ranged from .87 to .89, and the test-retest reliability coefficient was .72 over a 3 month period) and convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity. Seibert et al (1999) mentioned that the deletion of 7 items did not result in an major effect on the reliability of the scale (17-item α = .88; 10-item α = .86). These items were summed to arrive at a proactive personality score. Responses were indicated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"), with such items as "I excel at identifying opportunities" and "No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen." Internal consistency (coefficient alpha) obtained in the current study was .89, in line with that reported by Bateman and Crant (1993).

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)
DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS

Variable	N	%
Job Position		
County Extension Coordinator		
Regional Extension Agent	46	16.7
Regional Specialist		
State Specialist/University	73	26.5
Faculty	13	4.7
State-wide Administrators	29	10.5
Administrative Staff		
Para-profession	4	1.5
(Locally funded Agents &	47	17.1
Agent Assistants)	35	12.7
Others		
	17	6.2

Note: N = 275

Intent to Remain

Employee's intent to remain with the organization measured using a scale from Robinson (1996). This four-item scale asked employees to respond to three Likert-type questions about how long the employee intends to remain with the employer, the extent to which they would prefer to work for a different employer, the extent to which they have thought about changing companies, and one binary question ("If you had your way, would you be working for this employer three years from now?"). We found a rather modest reliability with Cronbach's alpha measuring .68.

Career Future

Career future was measured by using a part of the Index of Organizational Reactions (IOR) scale developed by Dunham and Smith (1979). The IOR assesses satisfaction with supervision, financial rewards, kind of work, physical conditions, and amount of work, company identification, co-workers, and career future. We used 5 items related to career future which was obtained from Cook, Hepworth, Wall,

and Warr (1981, pp. 42-45).   Several studies have used this scale reporting coefficient alphas values which ranged from .82 to .83 (Lee & Johnson, 1991; McLain, 1995; Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, & Carroll, 1995). In the present study was Cronbach's alpha was .84.

Demographic Data
    The survey also included items inquiring about the subjects' age, gender, ethnicity, and job tenure. Gender was dummy coded 0 for female subjects and 1 for male subjects. (See Table 3 for a summary of the measures).

Data Analysis
    In the present study the data was analyzed by using hierarchical linear regression. To test for mediation Barron and Kenny (1986) suggested a three-step procedure: 1) the mediator was regressed on the independent variable, 2) the dependent variable was regressed on the independent variable, and finally 3) the dependent variable was regressed on both the independent variable and on the mediator. However, to test for complete mediation the independent variable needs to be controlled in the third step. Hence a simple regression was performed for step one, but for steps two and three a hierarchical linear regression was employed. A formal test of the significance of mediation was provided by the Sobel test (1982) (see MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995).
    To test the moderation hypothesis the first step in the moderated multiple regression was to create an interaction term—simply multiply the predictor and moderator variable. However, this may cause multicollinearity (i.e. high correlations) because predictor and moderator variables generally are highly correlated with the interaction term. Centering (putting the scores into deviation score form by simply subtracting the sample mean from all the individuals' scores on the variable, thus producing a revised sample mean of zero) the variables reduces the multicollinearity problem (see Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).
    The predictor and the moderator main effects were entered into regression equation first which was done in a hierarchical fashion (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). This is followed by entering the interaction term (Holmbeck, 1997). A significant interaction term would confirm the moderator effect exists following which we would compute predicted values of the dependent variable for representative groups, at the mean and 1 standard deviation above and below the mean on the predictor and moderator variables (Aiken & West, 1991; Holmbeck, 1997).
    These values were then used to generate a figure summarizing the form of the moderator effect (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004). Finally, we tested the statistical significance of the slopes of the simple regression lines between the predictor and the dependent variable for specific values of the moderator variable (Aiken & West, 1991).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics
    Table 2 displays means, standard deviations and correlations among all the variables. Correlations among the independent and mediator/moderator variables had a median value of .07 and a maximum value of .40, with a maximum variance-inflation factor less than 2; hence, multicollinearity was not a severe problem that would preclude interpretation of the regression analyses (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1983). Proactive personality was significantly and positively related to intent to remain with the organization ($r = .13$, $p = .05$) and career future ($r = .21$, $p = .01$). Given the proposed mediational framework career future was significantly correlated with intent to remain ($r = .40, p = .01$).

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES

	Variables	M	SD	1	2
1	Intent to remain	5.39	1.25	-	
2	Proactive Personality	5.48	.81	.13*	-
3	Career Future	3.63	.81	.40**	.21**

Note. N = 124
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Hypotheses Testing

For testing hypothesis 1, which suggested the mediating role of career future in the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization, we first regressed career future on proactive personality. This was followed by a two-step hierarchical linear regression (see Table 3). In step one, intent to remain with the organization was regressed on proactive personality, followed by step two wherein proactive personality was controlled and career future was introduced. Finally we calculated the Sobel's test (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001). Formula for the test was drawn from MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer (1995). Table 3 summarizes the results of the regression analyses.

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES: MODERATION OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON INTENT TO REMAIN BY CAREER FUTURE

				Sobel Test	
		ß	ΔR^2	z	p
Regression 1[a]			.05***		
	Proactive Personality	.21***			
Regression 2[b]					
	Step 1		.37***		
	Proactive Personality	.13*			
	Step 2		.01*		
	Proactive Personality	.05		3.18	.001
	Career Future	.38***			

[a]Dependent variable is Career Future
[b]Dependent variable is Intent to Remain with the Organization
Note. N = 124. *p<.05. ***p<.001.

As shown in Table 3, the regression coefficient for career future was significant in contributing to intent to remain with the organization when proactive personality was controlled indicating the mediating role of career future (ß = .38, p = .001; $R^2\Delta$ = .01, p = .05). Proactive personality was statistically insignificant in step 2, which suggested that career future completely mediated the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization. The Sobel test (1992) revealed significant evidence of complete mediation by career future, z = 3.18, p = .001.

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF REGRESSION ANALYSES OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY-CAREER FUTURE INTERACTION FOR INTENT TO REMAIN WITH THE ORGANIZATION

	ß	ΔR^2
Step 1		$.16^{***}$
Proactive Personality	.07	
Career Future	$.59^{***}$	
Step 2		$.01^{*}$
Proactive Personality	.08	
Career Future	$.56^{***}$	
Proactive Personality X Career Future	$.20^{*}$	

Note. $N = 282$
$*p < .05. ***p < .001.$
Dependent variable is Intent to Remain

Table 4 showed that the regression coefficient for the interaction term between proactive personality and career future was significant thereby confirming the moderating role of career future between proactive personality/intent to remain with the organization. Note that in the absence of the interaction term there is no significant relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization. This suggests that career future completely moderates this relationship. Thus the results supported both the hypotheses.

FIGURE 2
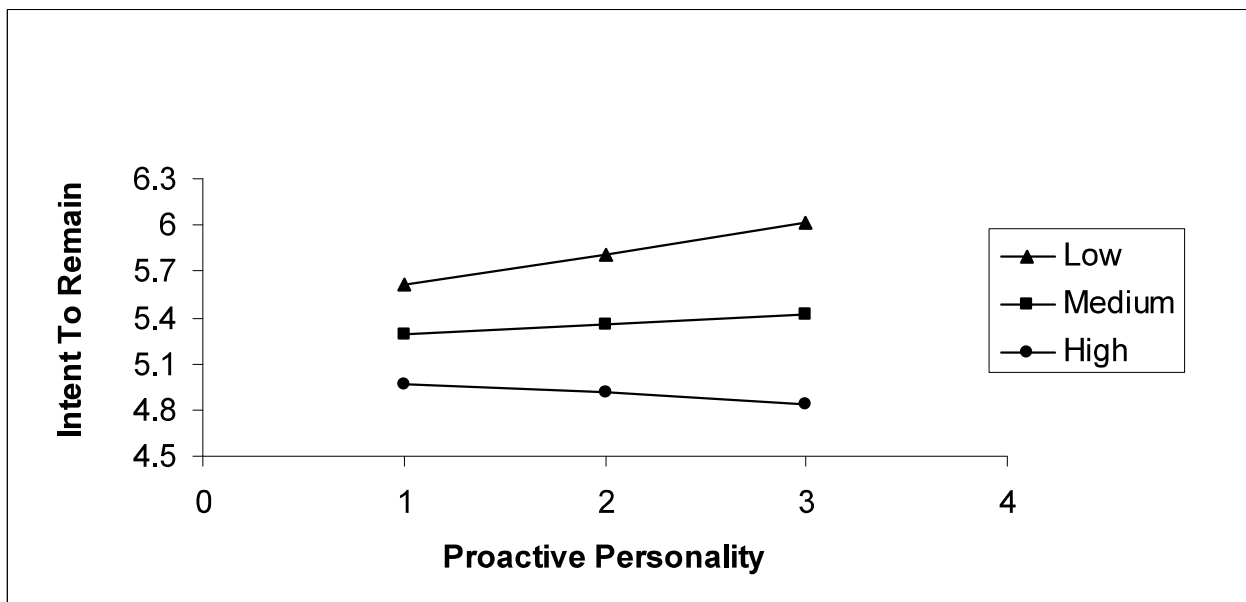**PROACTIVE PERSONALITY-CAREER FUTURE INTERACTION FOR INTENT TO REMAIN WITH THE ORGANIZATION**

TABLE 5
REGRESSION SLOPES DEPICTING THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PROACTIVE PERSONALITY AND INTENT TO REMAIN AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF CAREER FUTURE

Interaction	Slopes	SE	t
Proactive Personality X Career Future			
Low	-.08	.11	-.69
Mean	.08	.09	.92
High	.24*	.13	1.91

Note. $N = 282$

* $p < .05$.

Table 5 indicates that the slopes for career future is significant at only the high level thereby suggesting that proactive personality interacted with career future such that the positive relationship between intent to remain with the organization and proactive personality was significant at only high levels of career future but not at low and mean levels. As seen in Figure 2 a two-way interaction was observed between proactive personality and career future.

DISCUSSION

The present study which aimed at delineating the process/mechanism through which proactive personality affects intent to remain through career future has made two important contributions to both the proactive personality and the change literature. First the potential mediating role of career future was empirically tested. Career future completely mediated the relationship between proactive personality/intent to remain. Second, we tested the moderating role of career future and interestingly we found that career future completely moderated the relationship between proactive personality/intent to remain which implied that in the absence of career future there would be no relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain. Also, we found this interaction affected intent to remain only at high levels of career future and not at low or medium level. This implied that proactive employees may intent to remain with the organization only when they would strongly believe that there is some future for their career in that organization.

Practical Implications

The above findings have several practical implications especially from an applied perspective, this type of research is important as it gives more insight on how organizations can recognize and leverage from those exhibiting proactive personality. Hence companies need to invest in them even more if they want their organizational change process to be more effective and smooth. There is hardly any doubt in the fact that proactive people are an asset to the company, however it is up to the company to make sure that they do not lose such an asset. Our results have shown that proactive individuals will intend to remain with the company only if they are convinced that their career has a future in the company—note only at high levels of career future proactive personality was related to intent to remain but not at medium and low. There is a possibility that in the event of job insecurity and less scope for success proactive personality employees might seek brighter pastures. Thus it is of vital importance that employers should make sure that their proactive employees are assured that they will progress in their career within the organization.

Limitations of the Study

Data for this study was collected anonymously. Although limiting any inference of causality among the study variables, protecting respondents' anonymity provided benefits by potentially reducing the method bias (see P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & N. P. Podsakoff, 2003). This is a particularly

important aspect in the present study as it related to organizational change which is often characterized by high levels of distrust and uncertainty and which may lead to biased responses if participants believe their identity could be revealed to management. This, in turn, may result in a less of internal validity if respondents are hesitant to provide honest responses to the survey questions for fear of repercussion (Green & Feild, 1976).

Data was collected from a single organization even though a limitation but conducting the study in one organization helped avoid impending confounding factors, such as type of industry, resources, and markets (Pritchard et al, 1988; Mukherjee, Lapre', & Wassenhove, 1998).

Another limitation was related to common method variance as the data were collected from a single source. P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and N. P. Podsakoff (2003) mentioned that one of the most common variables assumed to cause common method variance is the tendency for participants to respond in a socially desirable manner. They argue that respondents may have less evaluation apprehension and therefore are less likely to edit their responses to be more socially desirable when anonymity is assured. In the present study the responses were completely anonymous thereby protecting the respondent's identity. Although this does not completely eradicate the problem of common method bias but it does alleviate it. This is a particularly important aspect in the present study since mergers are often characterized by high levels of distrust and uncertainty (Buono & Bowditch, 1989), which may lead to biased responses if participants believe their identity, could be revealed to management. This, in turn, may result in a less of internal validity if respondents are hesitant to provide honest responses to the surrey questions for fear of repercussion (Green & Feild, 1976).

Also inflated correlations between the independent and the dependent reduce power to detect interactions (Evans, 1985) and this was not a problem as we had two significant interactions in the study. Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, and Martin (1997) noted that if common method variance explains significant relationships, there is no rationale why there should be a significant relationship at one level but not on another.

Additionally, the measure of intent to remain with the organization had disappointingly low reliability (α =.68) in this study although it was close to the recommended minimum threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). An alternative measure could be used in future research. Finally, the data was collected from a non-profit organization and hence generalizability may be an issue.

Future Research

Following are some ideas for future research. Careers may be subjective—the individual's internal apprehension and evaluation of his or her career, across any dimensions that are important to that individual; or objective—individual's external perspective that describe more or less tangible indicators of the individual's career situation (Van Maanen, 1977, p. 9). Future study could replicate this study by measuring career future both subjectively and objectively.

This study could also be replicated by comparing data across cultures example U. S. and Japan as Japanese employees exhibit higher work centrality, and give greater importance to job security and stability than do employees in the U.S.(England & Misumi 1986; Lundberg & Peterson 1994).

Further it would be interesting to observe how the results of this study vary across demographic variables especially age. Age plays an important role as seen in the organizational change literature with older workers being more resistant to changes in job changes since they are worried that they may have to start afresh especially if there is no significant value for their job experience of past working skills (Campbell & Cellini 1981; Hansson et al. 1997). Another important demographic variable is workforce diversity as careers have changed with increased workforce diversity (England & Farkas 1986; England, Reid, & Kilbourne 1996; Johnston & Packer 1987).

Finally the effect of organizational change is better captured by longitudinal data. It would be interesting to observe if the present results would differ in a longitudinal study.

Crant (2000) aptly states the importance of proactive personality which can be rightly applied to an organization undergoing change—as change relates to dynamism and uncertainty: "As work becomes more dynamic and decentralized, proactive behavior and initiative become even more critical

determinants of organizational success" (p. 435). Unfortunately most organizational changes have a common storyline 'First there were losses, then there was a plan of change, and then there was an implementation, which led to unexpected results' (Czarniawska & Joerges 1996:20). The present study has aimed at giving organizational change a happy ending, although in a small but important way, by shedding light on the importance of career future given its dual role in the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization thus helping organizations from losing one of their most important asset—its proactive employees.

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