

A VALIDATION OF THE PROACTIVE PERSONALITY SCALE

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In a study, we carried out a validation of the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), that measures the inclination to take action and change the environment to realize one's goals. Participants were 139 employees, working in two companies. The majority of participants were blue-collar workers. The instrument used was a questionnaire. A 7-item version of the scale was constructed. Moreover, by applying confirmatory factor analysis, we demonstrated the distinction between proactivity and other individual difference variables: work-related self-efficacy, self-empowerment, locomotion. Also the predictive validity of the scale was shown. As expected, proactivity influenced organizational citizenship behaviors; it was not correlated instead with organizational commitment and turnover intentions. We discussed this lack of correlation in terms of the category of employees examined (mostly blue-collar workers).

Key words: Proactive personality; Proactive personality scale; Locomotion; Self-empowerment; Work-related self-efficacy.

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INTRODUCTION

Proactive behavior and personal initiative have become essential for the achievement of both personal and organizational success (Crant, 2000; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Innovation demands, self-directed careers, decentralized organizational structures and the reduction of the surveillance function require employees to be proactive, to take action in order to identify and solve their work problems (Campbell, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001; Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997; Frohman, 1997; Ibarra, 2003; Parker, 2000; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Research has shown that proactive behaviors are associated to positive individual and organizational outcomes, such as enhanced salaries, promotions and awards, higher performance (e.g., Seibert et al., 2001; Thompson, 2005; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000). Accordingly, researchers in the organizational field have devoted considerable attention to the proactive behaviors at work (Crant, 2000). In his review on proactivity in organizations, Crant defined proactive behavior as “taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones” (p. 436). Proactive behavior is a challenge to the status quo that can be expressed as part of both in-role and extra-role performance. Bateman and Crant (1993) assumed that people differ in their disposition to engage in proactive behaviors and proposed an individual difference construct — *proactive personality* — accounting

for the tendency to manipulate and change the surrounding environment. People high on proactivity are relatively unconstrained by situational impediments and are able to achieve effective changes. Proactive individuals identify and solve problems, look for new opportunities, enter into action and persist until they attain a change. Moreover, they create situations leading to effective performance (Crant, 1995). Conversely, individuals who are low in proactivity tend to be passive and reactive; they are less likely to show initiative, to identify and take opportunities for changing things; they are more inclined to adapt to situations rather than change them. The construct of proactive personality is rooted in interactionist psychology (Magnusson & Endler, 1977; Snyder & Ickes, 1985; Terborg, 1981; Weiss & Adler, 1984), which states that the individual and the environment mutually influence each other, namely human behavior is determined both by internal and external factors (Bandura, 1977; Bowers, 1973; Emmons & Diener, 1986). According to this perspective, individuals can actively shape their environment. In the working context, the ability to control events provides great benefits, since it allows employees to change their task assignments, the work procedures, and, therefore, to influence the management's decisions concerning their personal rewards (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). By selecting, creating and influencing their work environment, proactive individuals can attain positive career outcomes.

Bateman and Crant (1993) constructed the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) to measure individual differences in the inclination to take action and change the environment. Across three samples of university students, Bateman and Crant analyzed the psychometric properties of their 17-item scale. Results demonstrated that PPS is a unidimensional measure with good internal and test-retest reliability. Moreover, the scale was positively correlated with two of the Big Five personality constructs — conscientiousness and extraversion — and with need for achievement and need for dominance. PPS was instead not correlated with neuroticism, openness, agreeableness, locus of control, general intelligence, and private self-consciousness (that is, attention to one's own feelings and thoughts), as well as with age, gender, and years of work experience (for students who had full-time work experience). Findings also revealed a positive correlation between PPS and extracurricular activities aimed at obtaining constructive changes, transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), and personal achievements. Organizational researchers have moreover shown that the proactive personality is related to a wide array of work outcomes. In a study with real estate agents, Crant (1995) found that scores on PPS predicted relevant job performance criteria, even when controlling for work experience, general mental ability, conscientiousness, extraversion, and social desirability. Actually, individual differences on proactivity were positively related to the number of houses sold, the number of listings generated for the firm, and the commission income. Thompson (2005), drawing on the perspective of social capital, has recently proposed a model to explain the relationship between proactive personality and job performance. According to Thompson, proactive employees are more likely to create social networks, which enable them to take initiatives in their work environment and, therefore, to achieve a better performance. Results from correlational data supported a partial mediation version of this model, wherein proactive personality was positively associated with the creation of social networks, which in turn affected employees' performance both directly and indirectly, through the mediation of initiative taking.

Kirkman and Rosen (1999) showed that the positive effects of proactivity on job performance can be extended to the level of the work-teams. In a study, conducted with a sample of 101 formal work-teams, Kirkman and Rosen found a positive association between team proactiv-

ity and indicators of effective team performance, such as productivity and quality of customer service. Seibert et al. (1999), using a new version of PPS (Bateman & Crant, 1993), examined the relationship between proactive personality and career success in a large sample of business and engineering graduates. From the original scale, they selected the 10 items with the highest average factor loading. Demographic (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity), human capital (e.g., level of occupation, education), motivational (desire for upward mobility, number of hours worked), and organizational attributes (e.g., industry sector, number of employees) factors were used as control variables. Findings showed that differences in proactive personality predicted both subjective (satisfaction) and objective (current salary, number of promotions attained) career outcomes, over and above the control variables. In a subsequent study, Seibert et al. (2001) tested a model of career success, where proactive personality was linked to subjective and objective indicators of career success; the mediators were: proactive behaviors (voice, innovation, career initiatives); political knowledge of work relations and power structures within the organization. Results showed that proactive personality had positive relationships with political knowledge, innovation, and career initiatives, but not with voice. Political knowledge, innovation, and career initiatives, in turn, were positively related with salary progression, the number of promotions, and career satisfaction. More recently, Kim, Hon, and Crant (2009) found that the relationship between proactive personality and both career satisfaction and perceived insider status (identification) was fully mediated by employees' creative behavior. Thus, proactive employees are more likely to use creativity to shape their work environment, and this leads to greater career satisfaction and the perception of being valued and contributing members of the organization.

Other studies have shown that proactive personality is associated with entrepreneurial behaviors. In a study performed with presidents of small companies, Becherer and Maurer (1999) found that proactive personality was associated more with starting rather than buying or inheriting a business, and it was associated with the number of startups. Further evidence was provided by a study carried out with undergraduate and MBA students (Crant, 1996), which showed a positive relationship between proactive personality and intentions to own a business. Research has also evidenced a positive relationship between proactive personality and leadership. Crant and Bateman (2000), in a study examining managers of a financial services organization, found that differences in managers' proactivity predicted the evaluation of their charismatic leadership, expressed by supervisors; this finding was obtained even when controlling for Big Five personality factors, in-role behavior, and social desirability (see also the study by Deluga, 1998). Proactivity can also play an important role for employees' well-being, as shown by Parker and Sprigg (1999). These investigators found only a weak association between job demands and psychological strain for more proactive employees with high job control; conversely, job demands strongly predicted strain among less proactive employees, regardless of job control. These results suggest that proactive individuals are more likely to take advantage of job control in order to overcome their work problems, thus attenuating the impact of job demands on psychological well-being.

Finally, research has shown that the relationship between proactive personality and work outcomes can be moderated by other factors. Chan (2006), for instance, found that the effect of proactive personality on work perceptions (e.g., perceived procedural justice, perceived supervisor support) and personal outcomes (job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, job performance) was positive for employees who were able to judge and respond to situations, but negative for those who scored low on this variable.

OVERVIEW

The aim of this study is to evaluate the validity of the 10-item proactive personality scale (Seibert et al., 1999) in a work context, by using structural equation modeling. First, we will apply confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the unidimensional structure of the scale. Afterwards, we will analyze the relationship between proactive personality and other individual difference variables (CFA), namely locomotion, work-related self-efficacy, and self-empowerment.

Locomotion (Higgins & Kruglanski, 1995; Kruglanski et al., 2000) is a functional dimension of self-regulation. People oriented to locomotion tend to choose the alternative that, without distractions and delays, reduces the discrepancy between their current state and the desired end-state. They are generally engaged in goal-directed action; therefore they have short preactional decision processes, allowing the action to proceed. Locomotors are also task oriented; they tend to attend to an activity until its completion (Higgins, Kruglanski, & Pierro, 2003; Kruglanski, Pierro, Higgins, & Capozza, 2007). We predict a positive correlation between proactive personality and locomotion, since both imply a tendency toward goal-directed action; nevertheless, these variables are different, since proactivity is specifically concerned with taking action to change the environment and improve one's standing. Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986, 1997) is the belief in one's own ability to perform specific tasks or achieve specific goals. Individuals high on self-efficacy feel they are capable of performing the actions required to achieve the desired goal. Proactivity implies self-efficacy; it is, however, different, since proactivity corresponds to the inclination to change the environment to improve things. We assume that proactivity and work-related self-efficacy are positively related, but distinct constructs. According to the self-empowerment approach (Bruscaglioni, 2005, 2007), individuals who perceive they have a wide range of alternatives to solve their problems are more likely to feel protagonists of their life. The perception of many options does not necessarily imply the desire for change: among the many alternatives, individuals can choose to remain in their situation as well as to modify it, by leaving the organization or changing their job. We expect to find only a weak or no correlation between proactive personality and self-empowerment, since the latter does not involve taking action to change the environment.

To assess the predictive validity of PPS, we will test a model, in which the effects of proactive personality on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) are mediated by the three components of organizational commitment: affective, normative, continuance (Meyer & Allen, 1991). As control exogenous variables we will use perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) and three factors of organizational climate: convergence of information, interest for the professional growth of employees, and resources (satisfaction with one's pay and career). These factors express, respectively, the affective, cognitive, and instrumental dimensions, suggested by Ostroff (1993; see also Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003). In a second model, the outcome-variable will be turnover intentions.

Although organizational investigators have found a positive association between proactive personality and in-role performance (see, e.g., Crant, 1995; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999), the effects of proactivity might also concern discretionary behaviors, not required by one's own occupational role, such as citizenship behaviors. Therefore, we assumed that people oriented to proactivity are inclined to help other people (colleagues and supervisors), as a way of influencing and

changing their work environment. The effects of proactivity on citizenship behaviors could be both direct and indirect, that is, mediated by affective commitment. Concerning the relationship between proactivity and affective commitment, our expectation is that it can be positive, if the work structure allows proactive people to satisfy their personal needs and inclinations. Otherwise, no relationship should be found between these variables. With regard to the intentions to leave the organization, they could be negatively affected by proactivity through the mediation of affective commitment.

For organizational commitment, research has shown this variable mediates the relationship between perceptions of work environment and relevant outcome-variables. For instance, Hichy, Falvo, Vanzetto, and Capozza (2003) found that affective commitment fully mediated the relationship between POS and altruism (OCB). Moreover, Carr et al. (2003) demonstrated that the effects of affective, cognitive, and instrumental climate dimensions on job performance, psychological well-being and withdrawal from the organization were mediated by organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

Participants were 167 employees: 31 worked for a company in the cosmetic sector and 136 for a company in the mechanical sector. They received a survey package including a questionnaire and an unmarked envelop. After completing the survey, participants put the questionnaire inside the envelope and dropped it in a return box. All employees were informed their participation was voluntary and their data would remain confidential. Twenty-seven employees of the first and 112 of the second organization returned their questionnaire, with a total of 139 participants (83.23% response rate). Demographic information was not collected for respondents of the smaller company, since employees would have been easily identified on the basis of their personal data. Among the employees of the mechanical company, there were 25 males and 84 females (3 missing data). Most of the respondents were aged between 31 and 40 years (42%), 25.9% were aged between 18 and 30 years and 29.4% were over 40 years (3 missing data). Moreover, 58% were blue-collar and 9% were white-collar workers (33% did not answer).

Measures

Participants answered the following measures using a 7-step scale ranging from 1 (*absolutely false*) to 7 (*absolutely true*).

Proactive Personality Scale. We used the shortened version of PPS proposed by Seibert and colleagues (1999). The scale was translated into Italian via the back-translation procedure. The items (both in Italian and English) are reported in the Appendix. Reliability of the 10-item scale was $\alpha = .82$.

Locomotion. This construct was assessed using the 12-item scale developed by Kruglanski et al. (2000). Examples of items are: “By the time I accomplish a task, I already have the next one in mind,” “When I decide to do something, I can’t wait to get started” (alpha = .67).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was assessed using the Italian adaptation (Pierro, 1997) of the scale by Sherer et al. (1982). We selected nine items from the original 17-item scale and rephrased the wording to adapt them to the work context. Sample items are: “If I am unable to do a work-task the first time, I keep trying until I succeed”; “When I try to learn something new at work, I immediately give up if I do not succeed” (reverse code). Reliability for the 9-item scale was .80.

Self-empowerment (perceiving possibilities). For self-empowerment (Bruscaglioni, 2005, 2007), we considered the component: perceiving many opportunities to realize one’s goals and work aspirations. Three items were originated: “In this organization, there are many ways I can take to fulfil my work-related desires”; “In this organization, I see many possibilities to realize my work ambitions”; “In this organization, I do not see many opportunities to fulfil my work-related desires” (reverse code). Alpha was .81.

Perceived organizational support. Four items were selected from the scale developed by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997). Examples of items are: “The organization really cares about my well-being”; “The organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part” (alpha = .75).

Climate: communication. We used four items. Two were selected from the Organizational Fit Instrument (OFI; Ryan & Schmit, 1996): “Accurate and timely information is provided to facilitate work”; “Communication among all levels of the organization is reciprocal, not one-way.” One item was adapted from Pohl’s (2002) scale: “Information is often communicated in inappropriate ways” (reverse code). Finally, we applied an additional item: “The ways of communication are adequate.” A stem phrase — “In this organization” — was followed by items. Reliability of the four items was .90.

Climate: professional growth of employees. This dimension of organization climate was measured with four items. We adapted two items from Majer and D’Amato’s (2001) multidimensional questionnaire for the diagnosis of organizational climate (M_DOQ): “This organization is not particularly interested in the professional growth of employees” (reverse code); “This organization tries hard to make employees grow and stay within the organization.” One item was adapted from the Focus Questionnaire by Van Muijen et al. (1999): “Employees who wish to improve their performance are not supported by their supervisors” (reverse code). We proposed another item: “This organization invests in the professional growth of employees.” Alpha for the 4-item scale was .79.

Climate: resources. We adapted three items from the 6-item scale proposed by Tyler and Blader (2001): “I am satisfied with the pay I receive in this organization,” “It would be very difficult for me to find another job with the pay I receive in this organization,” “In this organization, I have good career opportunities.” The last item was dropped due to its low correlations with the other items. Reliability of the 2-item measure was .60.

Organizational commitment. Affective and continuance commitment were measured using the 6-item scales proposed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). Examples of items for the measure of affective commitment are: “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization” (reverse code); “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me” (alpha =

.86). Sample items for continuance commitment are: "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to"; "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire" ($\alpha = .63$). For normative commitment, we created a 4-item measure (e.g., "I feel morally obliged to stay within this organization"; "My moral principles prevent me from leaving this organization" ($\alpha = .83$).¹

Turnover. We used a 2-item measure: "I often think of leaving this organization"; "The idea of seeking a job in another organization is pleasant for me" ($\alpha = .87$).

Citizenship behaviors. OCBs were assessed using the measure introduced by Gellatly, Meyer, and Luchak (2006). Participants were asked to indicate to what extent they were used to performing five citizenship behaviors, corresponding to the higher-order dimensions suggested by Borman and Motowidlo (1993): a. persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort on the job; b. volunteering to do tasks, not formally part of the job; c. helping and cooperating with others; d. following organizational rules and procedures; e. endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational goals. The relative percentile method (RPM) by Goffin, Gellatly, Paunonen, Jackson, and Meyer (1996) was used to measure participants' ratings of the five behaviors: on the 11-step scale, ranging from 0 to 100, scores from 0 to 40 indicated that, according to employees, they engaged in OCBs less than the average of their colleagues; ratings from 60 to 100 meant that they engaged in OCBs more than the average of their colleagues; 50 was the neutral point, corresponding to the perception of performing OCBs as much as the average of one's own colleagues. Ratings were coded from 1 to 11. Reliability for this measure was .83.

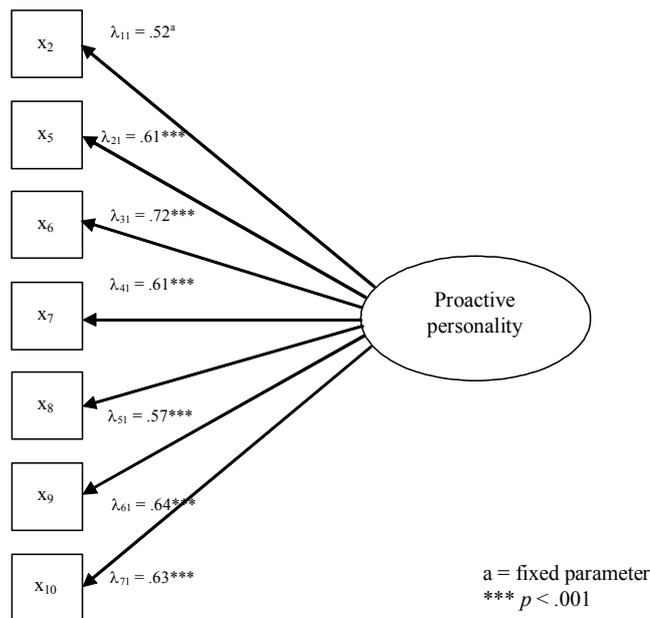
RESULTS

The dimensionality of the proactive personality scale, its relationship with the measures of other individual difference variables, and its predictive validity were evaluated by testing measurement and structural equation models. We used three goodness-of-fit indices: the chi-square test, the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995). A model fits the data well when χ^2 is nonsignificant. However, the chi-square statistic is sensitive to the sample size; for this reason, we used two additional measures. CFI values equal to or above .95 are considered acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1997, 1999). Concerning SRMR, Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that the fit is satisfactory for values of .08 or below. All analyses were performed on covariance matrices (Cudeck, 1989).

Dimensionality of PPS

To examine the dimensionality of PPS, we applied CFA (LISREL 8.7; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2004). A model with one latent variable and the 10 items as indicators was evaluated. This model showed a poor fit: $\chi^2(35) = 90.62, p \cong .00$; SRMR = .076; CFI = .90. Even though all factor loadings were significant, two indicators (the items: "Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality," and "If I see something I do not like, I fix it") showed loadings lower than .50 and, consequently, they were dropped. The largest modification index concerned error covariance between the first two items ("I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve

my life,” and “Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change”). Since the wording of the two items was quite different and there were no substantial reasons to set free the covariance of the error terms, we decided to remove one of the two indicators. We dropped the indicator with the lower factor loading (first item) and retained the other. The model with seven indicators (see Figure 1) showed a good fit: $\chi^2(14) = 26.03, p = .03$; SRMR = .054; CFI = .97. Factor loadings ranged from .52 to .72. Reliability of the 7-item measure was .81.



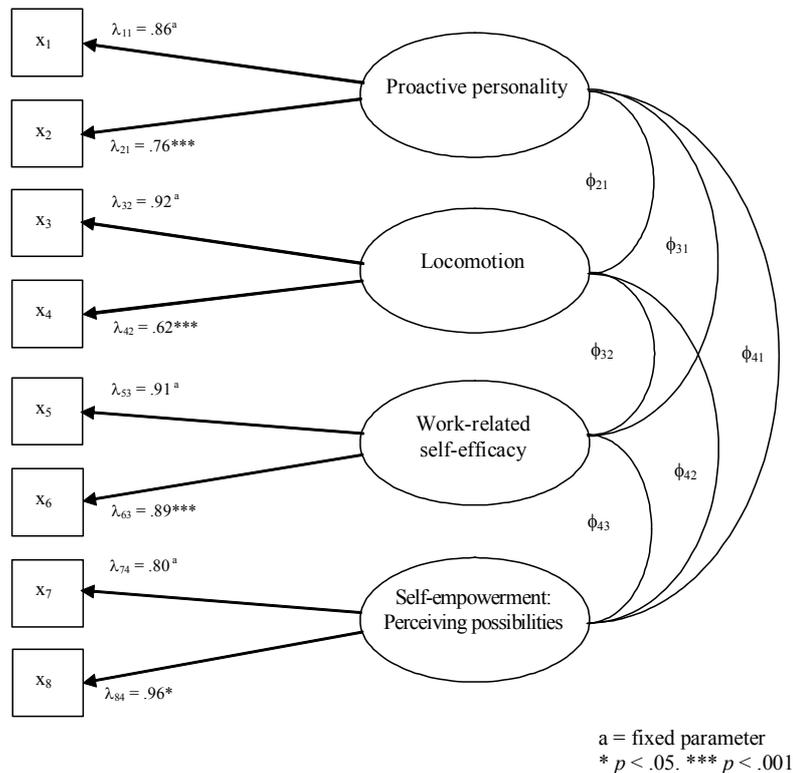
Note. For the meaning of the indicators, see the Appendix. For each indicator, the number corresponds to that of the respective item in the Appendix.

FIGURE 1
 The one-factor model for proactive personality.

Relationship with Other Individual Difference Constructs

Confirmatory factor analysis was applied to examine how proactive personality relates to locomotion, work-related self-efficacy, and self-empowerment. We tested a model with four latent variables (see Figure 2). For each factor, we computed two parcels, following the procedure of item-to-construct balance suggested by Little, Cunningham, Shahar, and Widaman (2002). Compared to item-level data, the use of parcels can offer the following benefits: it reduces the measurement error; indicators are more continuous and distributed more normally; it improves the ratio between sample size and number of parameters to estimate, with the result of more stable estimates (for a discussion on pros and cons of parceling, see Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Little et al., 2002). For the proactive personality, we considered the factor loadings of the seven items (Figure 1). The two items with the highest loadings were used as anchor for the two parcels. Then, we added to the anchors the two items with the next highest loadings in an inverted order, so that the anchor with the higher loading was paired with the lower loaded item. On the follow-

ing steps, lower loaded items were assigned to higher loaded parcels. The same procedure was applied to the items of locomotion, work-related self-efficacy, and self-empowerment. We used loadings from an exploratory factor analysis with three factors (maximum likelihood, oblimin rotation).



Note. Correlations between the four factors are reported in Table 1.

FIGURE 2
 Distinction of proactive personality from other personality constructs.

The model with four latent variables showed an excellent fit: $\chi^2(14) = 18.05, p = .20$; SRMR = .041; CFI = .99. Factor loadings were all significant and higher than .62. Correlations between the four factors are shown in Table 1. As hypothesized, we found a positive and significant correlation between proactivity and locomotion ($\phi = .67, p < .001$) as well as between proactivity and work-related self-efficacy ($\phi = .33, p < .001$). To test whether proactivity was distinct from these variables, we used the chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001). The model with four factors was compared with two nested models (see Miyake et al., 2000). In the first, we fixed the correlation between proactivity and locomotion to 1, and constrained the two factors to have equal correlations with the other factors. In the second model, the same procedure was applied to proactivity and work-related self-efficacy. Results showed that proactivity was significantly distinct from both locomotion and work-related self-efficacy: $\chi^2_d(3) = 25.67, p \cong .00$, for the first comparison, and $\chi^2_d(3) = 106.95, p \cong .00$, for the second comparison.² The correlation between proactive personality and self-empowerment was nonsignificant ($\phi = .08, ns$).

TABLE 1
 Correlations (ϕ coefficients) between proactive personality and other individual difference variables

	1	2	3	4
1. Proactive personality	–			
2. Locomotion	.67***	–		
3. Work-related self-efficacy	.33***	.32***	–	
4. Self-empowerment (perceiving possibilities)	.08	–.07	.03	–

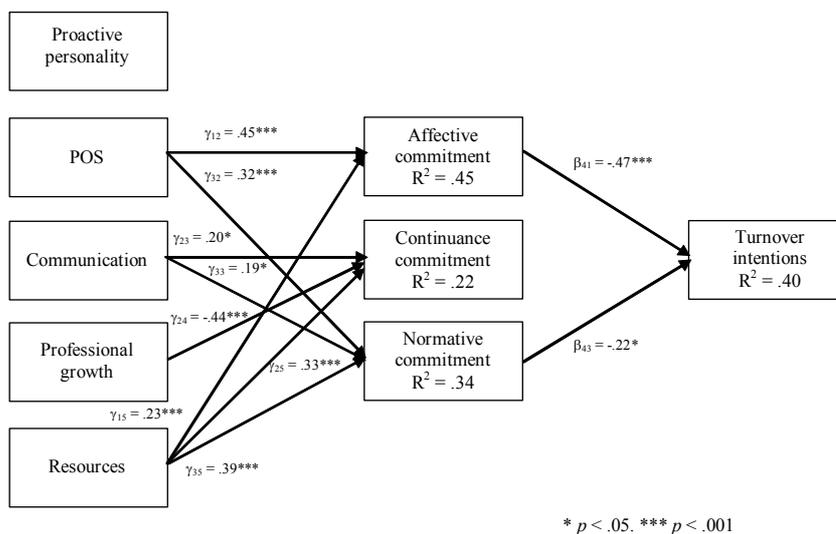
*** $p < .001$

Predictive Validity of PPS

To assess the predictive validity of PPS we tested two regression models, where the effects of proactive personality on turnover intentions and OCB were mediated by the three components of organizational commitment. Perceived organizational support (POS), professional growth, the system of communications within the firm, and resources were included into the models as control variables (see Figures 3 and 4). For each variable, we computed a composite score by averaging the respective items. Given the small size of our sample, we applied regression with observed variables, examining the matrix of covariances between composite scores. For the three commitment components error covariances were estimated.

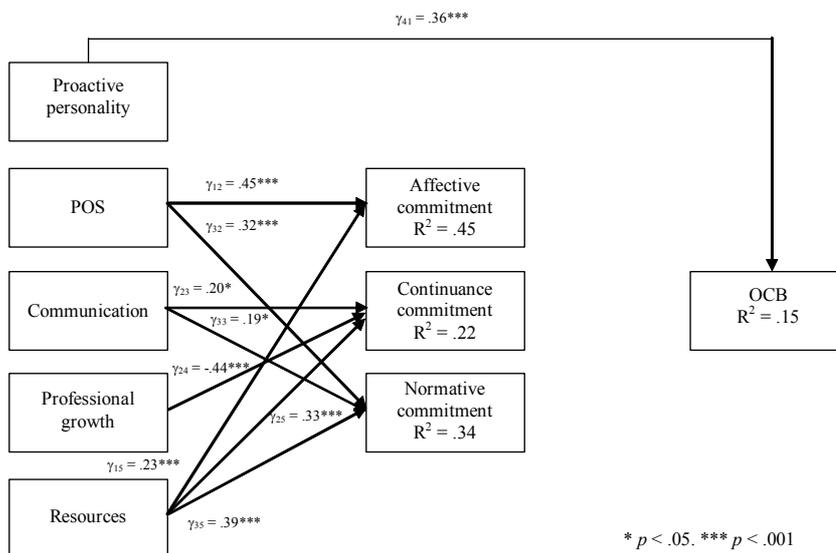
Outcome-variable: turnover intentions. The model for turnover intentions (see Figure 3) showed a satisfactory fit: $\chi^2(5) = 14.56, p = .01$; SRMR = .031; CFI = .98. Proactive personality did not have a significant influence on affective ($\gamma_{11} = .02, ns$), continuance ($\gamma_{21} = .14, ns$) and normative commitment ($\gamma_{31} = .06, ns$). Affective commitment was predicted by POS ($\gamma_{12} = .45, p < .001$) and resources ($\gamma_{15} = .23, p < .001$); continuance commitment was predicted by communication ($\gamma_{23} = .20, p < .05$), professional growth of employees (negative effect; $\gamma_{24} = -.44, p < .001$), and satisfaction for resources ($\gamma_{25} = .33, p < .001$); normative commitment was predicted by POS ($\gamma_{32} = .32, p < .001$), communication ($\gamma_{33} = .19, p < .05$), and resources ($\gamma_{35} = .39, p < .001$). Both affective and normative commitment showed a negative effect on turnover intentions ($\beta_{41} = -.47, p < .001$, for affective, and $\beta_{43} = -.22, p < .05$, for normative commitment). In order to test the direct effects of antecedents on the outcome-variable, we tested five additional models; in each of them we set free the path from one antecedent (e.g., proactive personality) to turnover intentions. Chi-square difference test was applied to compare each model to the baseline model (the full mediation model). Results are summarized in Table 2. Proactive personality did not directly predict employees' intentions to leave the organization ($\gamma_{41} = .10, ns$). The significant direct effect of POS ($\gamma_{42} = -.21, p < .05$) indicates that commitment only partially mediated its relationship with turnover. To test whether these partial mediations were significant, we applied the Sobel test (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Results showed that only the mediation effect of affective commitment was significant ($z = 3.04, p < .01$; for normative commitment, $z = 1.68, ns$). Concerning the total mediation effects, affective commitment fully mediated the relationship between resources and turnover ($z = 2.06, p < .05$); the mediation effects of normative commitment were nonsignificant ($z = 1.42, ns$, for communication; $z = 1.45, ns$, for resources).

Outcome-variable: OCB. For the baseline model, the goodness-of-fit indices were: $\chi^2(5) = 22.27, p \cong .00$; SRMR = .056; CFI = .96. The three components of commitment did not predict OCB (β s ranged between 0 and .10, *ns*). As regards the direct effects, only proactive personality significantly predicted OCB ($\gamma_{41} = .36, p < .001$; see Figure 4). For the model of Figure 4, the fit indices were: $\chi^2(4) = 3.49, p = .48$; SRMR = .023; CFI = 1.00.



Note. Only significant parameters are reported. To simplify the representation, correlations between the exogenous variables and between the mediators are not shown. POS = Perceived Organizational Support.

FIGURE 3
 Regression model for turnover intentions (baseline).



Note. Only significant parameters are reported. To simplify the representation, correlations between the exogenous variables and between the mediators are not shown. POS = Perceived Organizational Support; OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

FIGURE 4
 Regression model for organizational citizenship behavior: the direct effect of proactive personality.

TABLE 2
 Direct effects on turnover intentions and organizational citizenship behaviors

Model	χ^2 (df)	χ^2_d (1)	$p <$	γ	$p <$
Baseline	14.56 (5)				
PP → TI	12.37 (4)	2.19	<i>ns</i>	.10	<i>ns</i>
POS → TI	8.32 (4)	6.24	.01	-.21	.05
C → TI	12.49 (4)	2.07	<i>ns</i>	-.11	<i>ns</i>
G → TI	14.54 (4)	0.02	<i>ns</i>	.01	<i>ns</i>
R → TI	11.54 (4)	3.02	<i>ns</i>	-.14	<i>ns</i>
Baseline	22.27 (5)				
PP → OCB	3.49 (4)	18.78	.001	.36	.001
POS → OCB	22.24 (4)	0.03	<i>ns</i>	-.02	<i>ns</i>
C → OCB	21.31 (4)	0.96	<i>ns</i>	-.09	<i>ns</i>
G → OCB	21.71 (4)	0.56	<i>ns</i>	-.07	<i>ns</i>
R → OCB	21.88 (4)	0.39	<i>ns</i>	-.06	<i>ns</i>

Note. PP = Proactive Personality; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; C = Communication system; G = professional Growth; R = Resources; TI = Turnover Intentions; OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to further validate the shortened version of the proactive personality scale (Seibert et al., 1999). First, we tested the one-factor structure of the scale. Two items were dropped due to their low factor loading. A third indicator was removed owing to its too high correlation with another indicator. The model with seven items showed a good fit (reliability was high). Second, the relationship between proactive personality and locomotion, work-related self-efficacy, self-empowerment was analyzed, by testing a CFA model with four latent variables. As expected, proactive personality was positively correlated with locomotion and work-related self-efficacy, while it showed a nonsignificant correlation with self-empowerment. To our knowledge, this is the first time that the distinction between proactive personality and these individual difference variables has been demonstrated.

Finally, we examined the predictive validity of PPS with two regression models, in which the outcome-variables were turnover intentions and OCB, respectively. Results showed that proactive personality was not linked to the three components of organizational commitment. Employees of the two surveyed organizations were blue-collar and clerical workers; it is possible that their role within the organization did not entirely satisfy the need of proactive individuals to take action and transform, if necessary, their work setting. Concerning the direct effects on the outcome variables, proactive personality positively predicted OCB, but it had no effect on turnover intentions. As expected, by engaging in discretionary helping behaviors, not formally included in their role, proactive employees can shape their work environment, obtaining some useful changes.

Less important, but all the same interesting, our results concerning the positive effects of POS on affective commitment, and its negative effects on turnover intentions, replicated findings of previous research (see, e.g., Hichy et al., 2003; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Results also confirmed the mediation role played by affective commitment in the relationship between satisfaction with one's pay and turnover (see, e.g., Vanderberghe & Tremblay, 2008). Also the negative effect of commitment on intentions of turnover replicated previous research (Meyer et al., 2002). As regards the relationship between affective commitment and OCBs, research in the organizational field has widely shown that the emotional attachment to organization is positively correlated with citizenship behaviors (see, e.g., Meyer et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). The lack of influence of affective commitment on OCBs may be due to the specific organizations examined.

In sum, our findings support the validity of the proactive personality scale. Future studies should consider different occupational roles and organizations to reveal what is general and specific in our results.

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NOTES

1. We proposed a new measure for normative commitment because, in the Italian context, the 6-item scales for the affective and normative components have been found to be highly correlated (Chemello, 2008). In some studies the correlation between these components was even not different from 1 (Trifiletti, Mari, Capozza, & Falvo, in press). The complete list of items is available from authors upon request.
2. The chi-square difference test was performed also for the correlation between locomotion and work-related self efficacy: $\chi^2_d(3) = 79.74, p \cong .00$, showing that the two factors were distinct.

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APPENDIX

The Italian Scale of Proactive Personality

1. Sono costantemente alla ricerca di modi nuovi per migliorare la mia vita [*I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life*]
2. In qualsiasi contesto, sono stato/a una forza potente di cambiamento costruttivo [*Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change*]
3. Niente è più eccitante di vedere le mie idee trasformarsi in realtà [*Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality*]
4. Se qualcosa non mi piace, l'affronto [*If I see something I don't like, I fix it*]
5. Non importa quanto una cosa sia possibile, se ci credo la faccio succedere [*No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen*]
6. Mi piace essere un/a paladino/a delle mie idee, anche andando contro la posizione degli altri [*love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition*]
7. Primeggio nel trovare nuove occasioni [*I excel at identifying opportunities*]
8. Sono sempre alla ricerca di modi migliori di fare le cose [*I am always looking for better ways to do things*]
9. Se credo in un progetto, niente mi può ostacolare nella sua realizzazione [*If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen*]
10. Riesco a riconoscere una buona opportunità molto prima che gli altri ci riescano [*I can spot a good opportunity long before others can*]