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Does the Career Adaptation Process Change as a Function of an Employee's Age or Employment Gaps? An Investigation of Relationships Among Personal Resources, Contextual Factors, Coping Behaviors, and Career Success

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By

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Abstract

The goal of the current research was to enhance understanding of the career adaption process by developing and testing a new psychological framework by integrating three contemporary career theories (i.e., Protean, Boundaryless, and Social Cognitive Career (SCCT) theories). All of these career theories emphasize adaptability and agency as central constructs and stress career self-management as part of having a contemporary mindset because taking control of your career is important. To understand the adaptation process, antecedents and consequences of job-related coping behaviors, which are defined as cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands, were investigated. The model developed in this research depicts a complex process showing how personal resources (i.e., social and psychological capital) and contextual factors (i.e., organizational support for career management and labor market conditions) relate to career outcomes (e.g., perceived career success) and employment quality (i.e., job satisfaction and commitment). Also, the frequencies of job-related coping behaviors (e.g., information seeking) were predicted to mediate the relationships of resources and contextual factors with employment quality, and employees' age and prior employment gaps were predicted to moderate use of coping behaviors. The proposed

relationships were tested using a repeated measures design by collecting data three times, two months apart. The results showed that perceived organizational support for career development predicted employees' perceived and objective career success. Moreover, organizational career support and protean mindset were the strongest predictors of frequencies of coping behaviors. Although age did not function as a moderating variable in most of the tested relationships, the number of employment gaps that individuals experienced in the past was an important moderator in the relationships between personal resources and coping behaviors. One of the main contributions of the study was developing and testing a new, more comprehensive model which integrated contemporary career theories. The results contribute to both theory and practice by testing alternative constructs and clarifying relationships. Specifically, among the variables investigated, protean mindset was related to coping behaviors, perceived career success, and employment quality, suggesting that those willing to proactively navigate their careers are likely to use active coping behaviors and achieve perceived career success. Another important contribution is the finding that the process of adaptation was not different for older workers compared to younger ones which contradicts prior research and theories. However, the number of employment gaps was an important moderator of several relationships, which is consistent with boundaryless career theory's proposal that career advancement requires experiencing more than a single employer and organization. Moreover, the study provided insights about which resources were better predictors of career outcomes and clarified relationships to career success. Taken together, the findings provide important empirical support and also extend theoretical ideas from SCCT's unified view on effects of cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors. Specifically, the study suggests that employees' path to career success involves a complex

function of many factors, including their career mindset, personal characteristics, social network, contextual factors, and frequencies of coping behaviors.

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Bu doktora tezini koşulsuz sevgisini ve desteğini benden hiçbir zaman esirgemeyen aileme- anneme, babama ve ablama- ithaf ediyorum.

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Chapter 1: Introduction of the Problem

A career is defined as ‘‘the evolving sequence of a person’s work experiences over time’’ (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989, p.9). According to early conceptualizations of organizational careers, the organization managed the careers of its employees, and an ideal career started and ended in the same organization (Reitman & Schneer, 2008). People were hired into lower levels in an organization and promoted up through the organizational hierarchy as they gained experience, eventually retiring from that organization (Baruch, 2006).

In recent decades, changes in the nature of employment and the workforce have also changed the concept of a career. In newer conceptualizations, such as the “protean career” and “boundaryless career,” individual values play an important role in career choices, and it has become more accepted for employees to work in several organizations throughout their careers (Hall, 1996). Success and satisfaction in a career and at work can depend on an individual’s ability to accept and internalize this new career concept; however, adaptation may be challenging, especially for those who have been in the workforce for long periods of time, such as middle-aged and older workers. The current study aimed to investigate the process of career adaptation by examining antecedents and consequences of job-related coping behavior, which are cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal job-related demands. Furthermore, I examined how these antecedents and consequences may differ when comparing younger employees to middle-aged and older employees, as well as employees who had different types of employment gaps in the past.

Research comparing career adaptation of younger employees and middle-aged and older employees is particularly timely and important for two reasons. First, due to the economic recessions in the U.S. over the last few decades, uncertainty and layoffs have become a constant

characteristic of the economic climate. In the 21st century two major economic recessions have affected the U.S.: the 2001 crisis and the 2007-2009 crisis. The 2007-2009 market turmoil caused a steady decline in employment rates (Goodman & Mance, 2011). The average monthly job loss rate was 712,000 between October 2008 and March 2009 and this decline was reported to be the highest since the end of World War II (Goodman & Mance, 2011). Although projections of economic growth after the economic meltdown in 2009 were optimistic, reports emphasized that the growth would be slow between 2015 and 2020 (Sommers & Franklin, 2012). In such an economy employees tend to be uncertain about the continuity of their employment and cannot rely on their organizations to manage their careers (Kossek & Michel, 2010). This economic climate indicates the need for employees to shift away from a traditional career approach and the importance of adapting to a more self-directed career (Koen et al., 2010).

The second reason for studying career adaptation and comparing employees of different age groups is that there has been a steady increase in the percentage of middle-aged and older employees in the workforce in the past few decades (Sommers & Franklin, 2012). This increase is thought to be due to many factors, including the effect of Social Security laws, which discourage early retirement by limiting the benefits provided to those who retire before a certain age (Adler & Hilber, 2009). The increased participation of older people in the labor force may also be due in part to financial problems that stem from the difficult economic climate which may have drained people's savings (Adler & Hilber, 2009). Finally, an increase in contingent work, such as contractual or part-time employment, has increased the percentage of older adults in the workforce although these types of jobs are considered to have higher job insecurity and lower pay compared to full-time jobs (Kossek & Michel, 2010). Thus, understanding the unique experiences of older employees in the context of career management sheds light on the problems

that a large proportion of the U.S. population is facing or will be facing in relation to the recent changes in the economy and its effects on their careers.

Although the research is limited, there is evidence that recent changes in the economic climate have been detrimental for middle-aged and older adults (Bendick, Brown, & Wall, 1999; Loi & Shultz, 2007). Studies have shown that after involuntary job loss, unemployment duration was longer for older employees than younger employees (Lippmann, 2008). Moreover, older employees experienced higher wage loss than younger employees when they were rehired following an involuntary job loss (Koeber & Wright, 2001). Couch (1998) found that displaced workers between the ages of 51 and 60 had an average of 39% income loss. This income loss might reflect older people being forced to accept any job offer they can get since their unemployment duration is longer than that of younger people.

Some studies show that the lack of career adaptability is one of the reasons older employees' unemployment lasts longer (Mendenhall et al., 2008; Noonan, 2005). Career adaptability is the "readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working conditions" (Savickas, 1997, p. 254). This definition implies that career adaptability is not only associated with career transitions, such as involuntary and voluntary turnover, but also associated with daily job and role-level challenges that employees experience, such as having unclear tasks or miscommunication with coworkers. Job-level coping behaviors that employees display can be indicators of how they are dealing with daily problems which can contribute to achieving the careers they aim to have. (Ebberwein et al., 2004; Koen et al., 2010).

Although career adaptability is critical for all workers, studies show that the lack of adaptability might be more detrimental for older employees. Mendenhall and colleagues' (2008) interviews with managers who had recently lost their jobs revealed that the managers were struggling to change their mentality regarding the necessity of long-term employee-employer relationships, and they were trying to adopt a "free-agent" mentality. Noonan (2005) interviewed older adults who had lost their jobs, and the overarching theme that emerged from those interviews was that the older adults had to learn to be open to new experiences because the characteristics of the job offers and opportunities they received usually did not match what they had before their job loss. Thus, there is empirical evidence supporting the need for career adaptability. I aimed to study not only the benefits of adaptation but also why employees of various age groups (i.e., younger employees and middle-aged and older employees) may adapt more easily than others, such as younger people having more adaptability and flexibility compared to middle-aged and older employees.

The Proposed Research

The main objective of the current study was to investigate the psychological process of career adaptation, for people who are employed, by testing antecedents and consequences of job-related, active coping behaviors because coping is defined as "cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands" (Folkman et al., 1986, p. 993). I tested personal resources (e.g., protean career mindset), and contextual factors (e.g., organizational support for career management) as the antecedents of coping behaviors (See Figure 1). Changes in employment quality and changes in career success were tested as the consequences of coping behaviors. In the current study, I focused on employed individuals rather unemployed individuals because, as it will be described in more detail in the Literature Review chapter, one of the main

gaps in the literature is that there is little research on coping behaviors by employed people to cope with daily work challenges. The majority of studies on employee coping behaviors focus on behaviors displayed during unemployment. This leads to a limited view on the process of adaptation and generalization of the results becomes questionable when we want to understand coping strategies of employed individuals (e.g., Chan & Stevens, 2001, 2004). Therefore, there is a lack of studies that focus on the challenges of people who are currently employed rather than only those who are unemployed. Moreover, the definition of coping behaviors indicates that coping behaviors are shown when people perceive that there is a discrepancy between their desired and current conditions and wants to improve the situation to move closer to the desired level, therefore, they can be in a constant cycle of reaching goals set by themselves or others, whether they are employed or not.

The second objective of the study was to understand how the process of career adaptation differed based on employees' age. Prior studies have found that older employees struggle to change their mentality into the free-agent mentality (Ebberwein et al., 2004; Koen et al., 2010, Mendenhall et al., 2008). However, these studies did not examine the reasons behind the lack of adaptation among older adults compared to younger employees, making it an important area for further research.

The third objective of the study was to understand whether the proposed process differs depending on employment gaps that individuals experienced in the past. The work and career challenges people have faced can potentially affect how they cope with challenges and their specific coping behaviors. There are conflicting findings about the effects of stressful experiences people go through, such as job loss, on coping behaviors at a later time. Some studies show that a traumatic experience may not lead to negative outcomes if an individual

learns from these experiences and can be successful in adapting to new or similar challenging conditions (Choi, 2003; Mandal et al., 2001). Therefore, I tested whether employments gaps experienced in the past affected employees' future coping process, reflected in the way people utilize their resources and their coping behaviors.

In order to describe important factors involved in career adaptation, I have integrated ideas from contemporary career theories and created a new theoretical framework. This research is based on three theories, namely Hall's (1996) protean career theory, Arthur and Rouseau's (1996) boundaryless career theory, and the social cognitive career theory (SCCT) of Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994). All of these theories state that in today's work environment, career success is determined by people's ability to take control of their career paths. Protean career theory emphasizes that managing one's career requires being self-aware of one's needs, identities, and values. Similarly, according to boundaryless career theory, people's career advancement may require them to go beyond the boundaries of one single employer and organization, which is possible if they have the right resources to manage their careers. According to SCCT, people's career choices and successes are shaped by how much they believe they have the ability to manage their careers. This belief is known as career self-efficacy (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2013). All of these theories underscore the idea that a self-directed career mindset is necessary because change and mobility are core characteristics of today's organizational structure. For example, economic conditions can change unexpectedly, people can get laid off by their organizations regardless of their tenure, and individuals may work in jobs with flexible definitions and roles. Adaptability and self-awareness are among the career meta-competencies that shape people's career choices (Hall, 1996). A meta-competency is a "competency that is so powerful that it affects the person's ability to acquire other competencies"

(Hall, 2002, p.160). There are many studies confirming the importance of these meta-competencies, by showing, for example, that people who have a protean career identity and adaptability find jobs more easily after experiencing a job loss than people without this mindset (De Vos & Soens, 2008; Gowan, 2014, Briscoe et al., 2012).

I tested a model (see Figure 1) positing that not only can meta-competencies determine career outcomes but some additional personal and external contextual characteristics are also important factors in this process. Personal resources (e.g., protean career mindset) and contextual factors (e.g., organizational support for career management) were examined as the antecedents of coping behaviors (See Figure 1). Employment quality and changes in career success were tested as the consequences of coping behaviors. This model expands that of Briscoe et al. (2012), which showed that there was an indirect relationship between the self-directedness dimension of the protean career mindset and career success, which was mediated by attitudes towards showing active coping behaviors. Although the actual behaviors and contextual factors were not measured in their study, their findings suggest new ideas about how the psychological process relating to career success may work.

In the current study a more detailed psychological process was tested in order to understand how additional personal and contextual factors lead to career success. The psychological process that I tested included: 1) personal resources, 2) contextual factors, 3) frequency of job-related coping behaviors, 4) employment quality, and 5) career success. (See Figure 1). I expected personal and contextual factors to affect the frequency of coping behaviors displayed by employees, which in turn affected perceived employment quality (which will be referred to as “employment quality” in the rest of the paper). I also expected that employees’ age and the nature of the unemployment gaps they had experienced to moderate the effects of

personal resources and contextual factors on coping behaviors. To summarize, I predicted that there would be differences in employment quality and career success based on age and employment history, which would be modulated by the various types of resources they possessed (e.g., social capital) and the coping strategies (e.g., feedback seeking) they used (This process will be explained in detail in Chapter 2).

Overview

In Chapter 2, I will describe the literature on traditional and contemporary career theories to clarify how the work environment and career context have changed in the last few decades. This will be followed by a description of the current study. I will introduce the variables to be examined in this study by reviewing the relevant literature and will then introduce the hypotheses. The research methodology, including sample characteristics and methods, and results are described in Chapter 3. Finally, discussion of results, limitations and contribution of the study, and future steps will be presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Traditional and Contemporary Career Theories

Reviews of career management show that there has been a significant change in terms of what is considered to be an ideal career or what the fundamental components of career success are. Older studies depict an ideal career as including long-term employment in an organization where people could advance hierarchically until they retire (Betz, Fitzgerald, & Hill, 1989). On the contrary, today's careers are characterized by unpredictable economic conditions and flexible job roles in which mobility across organizations is nothing exceptional. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the contemporary career theories this study is based on are protean career theory, boundaryless career, and SCCT, and they take flexibility and adaptability as core components of career success. I will briefly explain these three theories.

The word *protean* is based on the name of the Greek god Proteus, a sea-god who was able to change his shape and form whenever he wanted (Hall, 1996). This characteristic of Proteus represents the constantly changing nature of both the seas and today's career and work life. Being protean refers to being able and willing to change when needed, which is now considered to be one of the antecedents of career success and satisfaction (Arthur et al., 1989). People with a protean career mindset are value-driven and self-directed in career-related decisions. People who have a protean career mindset are motivated to explore their needs and values, find organizations that represent these values, and take proactive steps to reach their career goals. Having a protean mindset also implies that one views challenges and changes as a chance to explore self-identity and fulfill personal values (Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

In addition, boundaryless career theory states that in today's organizational context people do not have to limit their careers to one single organization and job, but rather they can

have boundaryless careers which are characterized as having the mobility to shift jobs or positions (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994). Job mobility can be physical, referring to actually finding a new job, or it can be psychological, meaning the perception of having the capacity to change jobs (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Similar to the protean approach, the boundaryless approach also views people as managing their own careers as well as acquiring resources that will increase their mobility. Resources are "objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual" (Hobfoll, 1989, p.516), and in the context of a boundaryless career, the resources that will increase mobility are the skills and competencies that are transferable and portable to other jobs and organizations. The current study measured the various types of resources that people had in order to test to what extent different resources were contributing to positive job attitudes and career perception.

SCCT is another contemporary career theory that emerged to explain the vocational choices of students and employees (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Since its proposal it has been used in educational and organizational psychology research to understand career development (Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Lent et al., 1994; Rogers & Creed, 2011). SCCT is based on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, and it examines people's interests, self-efficacy, and agency and how they interact with contextual influences to explain career choices. The concepts of self-efficacy and agency refer to having control and mastery of our lives (Bandura, 1977). In recent extensions of SCCT (Lent & Brown, 2013), it is proposed that we have domain-specific agency and efficacy, such as career-self efficacy, which is defined by Lent & Brown as "the perceived ability to manage careers" (Lent & Brown, 2013, p. 562). According to SCCT, people have the chance to show agency throughout their careers, at least to a certain extent; for example, they can choose to participate in developmental activities and network with other

people to share knowledge and information about their jobs. The more agency people show, the more likely they will be to reach their career goals. This is why career self-efficacy is regarded as a meta-competency that determines the career outcomes of an individual. Although there are some studies applying SCCT in understanding the transitions from school to employment (Byars-Winston et al., 2010; Lent, Taveira, & Lobo, 2012), very few empirical studies have used SCCT to understand the psychological processes of people who have established their careers and have been in the workforce for a specific period of time (Brown & Lent, 2015; Fabian, 2000; Lent et al., 2015).

All of these career theories emphasize adaptability and agency as central constructs and make career self-management part of having a contemporary mindset because taking control of your career is important (Lyness & Erkovan, 2015). There are overlaps across the protean, boundaryless career, and SCCT theories, and together they provide a meaningful and complete picture of the factors leading to career success. The three theories complement each other in the sense that protean theory focuses on taking control of your career based on personal values (Lyness & Erkovan, 2015), SCCT takes cognitive and social factors such as self-efficacy into consideration for people who self-manage their careers, and boundaryless theory mentions something that the other two theories do not directly capture, which is the necessity of being open to work at more than one organization and one job role (Brown & Lent, 2015; Lyness & Erkovan, 2015; Uy et al., 2015). By integrating these three theories, I wanted to test that different aspects (e.g., career self-efficacy, psychological mobility) of adopting a contemporary career mindset affect the work and career outcomes of employees of different age groups in the current economic and organizational life, which is characterized by uncertainty and ambiguity.

Before getting into the details of the variables of the study (see Figure1), I will present the literature on middle-aged and older people's experiences during and after job loss and how they are coping with economic uncertainty. There is a need for a study with a process- and theory-oriented model taking age into consideration because although prior studies show that middle-aged and older adults experience more challenges than younger adults due to changes in today's economy and careers (e.g., longer unemployment durations), there are very few studies that actually investigated the underlying psychological reasons for their struggle (Bendick, Brown, & Wall, 1999; Loi & Shultz, 2007). Increases in the percentage of older employees in the workforce and the frequency of economic crises in the current decade make the proposed study necessary. In the next section, I will also describe the literature on economic uncertainty and its effect on employees. I will present research on how work and career challenges affect well-being of employees differently. The aim of this literature review is to show that there is a dearth of studies focusing on these important topics and that prior studies fail to explain why some people can cope with career-related challenges, like exploring career opportunities in different organizations or roles, while others cannot.

Economic Uncertainty, Layoffs, and Older Employees

The frequency of economic crises has increased in recent decades as has the percentage of middle-aged and older employees present in the workforce, yet there are relatively few studies investigating the effects of this challenging career environment on the experiences of older employees. The research about older employees has generally been narrowly focused on two major issues: 1) the effects of career turbulence on retirement decisions and 2) the re-employment duration of older adults who lost their jobs, with much less attention to other types

of career experiences or outcomes. In the following paragraphs, I will summarize this prior literature.

Many economic studies have looked at the retirement rates of the older workforce after a recession and have examined the overall characteristics of the workforce. These studies of older workers rely on archival data collected by research or governmental institutions. One of these is the University of Michigan's Health and Retirement Study (HRS), which is a panel study that has been conducted every two years since 1992 with a nationally representative sample of people in the U.S. who are 50 years old and older (HRS, 2015). Another one is the Current Population Survey (CPS), which is collected by the U.S. Census Bureau (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). It provides information on the employment (e.g., type of employment) and household (e.g., size of household) characteristics of the participants. Quarterly Workforce Indicators (QWI) is also collected by the U.S. Census Bureau and provides information on hiring, retention, and retirement rates. The QWI is part of the Longitudinal Employer-Household Dynamics program and it provides quarterly results. The HRS, CPS and QWI are commonly used datasets because they provide information on income, retirement, and health from both the participants and their partners if they have one.

The general consensus from studies that have used the HRS and CPS is that economic recessions and subsequent declines in the stock market increase intentions to delay retirement (Chan & Stevens, 2001; Coile & Levine, 2011b; McFall, 2011). These studies interpreted the decreased tendencies to retire after economic crises as reflecting concerns about insufficient financial savings. However, considering retirement decisions in relation to only economic concerns is a very narrow approach that ignores important psychological factors and personality characteristics, such as employees' ability to adapt to the new organizational and economic

context. A series of longitudinal studies conducted by Chan and Stevens (2001, 2004), using HRS, examined employment patterns, wage loss, and assets of older employees. They found that older adults (50 years and older) who lost their jobs experienced a wage loss of at least 30% or $12,497 after they were rehired. The wide variation in the amount of salary decreases, which ranged from 17% to 52%, shows that some older adults suffered more seriously than others, which I think suggests that resources and/or coping strategies may differ across individuals. In these studies the wage and asset losses explained only a small amount of the variance in intention to retire, which means that considering only the financial problems of older workers is not sufficient to explain their career decisions (Chan & Stevens, 2004). Couch (1998) found that displaced workers between the ages of 51 and 60 had an average of 39% income loss when they were rehired. Alan et al. (2012) compared HRS data from 2006 and 2010 to see the effects of the 2009 economic crisis, and they found that the total wealth of the older employees was 2.8 percent lower in 2010 than in 2006, on average $847,000 versus $871,000, respectively. Only wage and asset-related outcomes were presented in these studies, and therefore the possible underlying psychological factors affecting career decisions were not examined.

The employability of older adults is another question of interest in the literature, and studies on this topic question whether older employees use effective coping methods during career-related challenges. Employability is defined as “work-specific active adaptability that enables workers to identify and realize career opportunities” (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004, p.16). Data from CPS covering a 25-year-period confirmed that the shorter tenure and experience of younger employees was not a disadvantage in hiring decisions (Koeber & Wright, 2001; Lippman, 2008). After involuntary job loss, unemployment duration was three times shorter on average for younger employees compared to older employees, and this ratio was even lower in

some employment sectors. On average, younger employees had five weeks shorter unemployment than older employees. Adler and Hilber (2009) analyzed QWI and found that hiring and retention rates are lower for middle-aged and older employees than for younger ones overall, but these rates varied based on industry-specific factors such as the national industry growth rate, underlining environmental characteristics as critical factors to be considered in understanding career outcomes. For example, the overall new hire rate across industries was 17.5%, but this rate was only 0.9% for those between the ages of 55 and 64. This means that on average only 1 in 18 newly hired people was between 55 and 64 years old. As for different industries, educational service organizations hired the highest number of older employees, while the number was lowest in accommodation and food services. Moreover, Lippman (2008) stated that the year the workers entered the labor market was a major factor in explaining the vulnerability of employees to longer unemployment because the nature of the relationship between employees and their companies had shown changes, especially with the increase in the frequency of economic crises. For example, individuals born after 1964, who were members of Generation X, found employment more than eight weeks sooner on average than those born in the first ten years of the baby boom, which is from 1946 to 1956. Thus, although none of these studies provided information on specific job search behaviors (Adler & Hilber, 2009; Koeber & Wright, 2001; Lippman, 2008) the results support the necessity of investigating the extent to which older people adapt a contemporary career mindset as they may not be able to handle job loss and uncertainty as successfully as younger professionals.

A few prior studies examined the psychological effects of turbulence in careers of employees. Specifically, these studies focused on the effects of downsizing and job loss, but there are inconsistencies regarding relationships of these career experiences to strain and other

psychological effects. There are also methodological and other differences among these studies, such as the time frame of data collection, whether or not they took place during an economic crisis, and use of a longitudinal or cross-sectional research design, all of which make it difficult to compare findings across studies. Taking all these into consideration, the effects of job loss on strain outcomes for workers are unclear because the results of these studies exhibit three different patterns:

a) Job loss was related to persistent long-term strain outcomes. For example, there are studies that suggest that workers who do not lose their jobs are in an advantageous situation in terms of career and psychological outcomes compared to those who lost their jobs and are then re-employed. Two studies using archival data sets (Choi, 2003; Gallo et al., 2006) confirmed that depressive symptoms and physical health problems for people who lost their jobs and were then rehired were persistent, and their mental health was worse than those who did not experience any job loss.

b) Job loss was related to strain outcome, but rather than a permanent consequence, after finding new jobs they recovered, resulting in no long-term difference between those with and without the negative experience. A study by Mandal, Ayyagari, and Gallo (2011) used HRS data from 1992 to 2006 and found that expectations about losing one's job were higher for people who had experienced unemployment compared to people who had not. Additionally, their psychological well-being was worse compared to people who hadn't lost their jobs or who had quit voluntarily. Looking at the last wave of the data to see whether there was a difference between people who were re-employed after involuntary job loss and people with continuous employment, the authors found no difference in psychological well-being between

the two groups. Therefore, their findings suggest that re-employment is able to reverse some of the negative impacts of involuntarily turnover.

c) People who do not have employment gaps (i.e., those who stay in their jobs during a downsizing) experience more serious strain outcomes than those who lose their jobs and are later reemployed. A longitudinal study with a sample of hospital workers showed that people who were not laid off during a downsizing showed less favorable work outcomes, higher levels of burnout, and worse psychological well-being than those who were laid off and re-hired elsewhere because those who lost their jobs felt that they had higher levels of control in their lives, and they therefore experienced less stress and less negative job strain compared to people who were not laid off (Burke, 2003).

We can see from these three patterns that in reaction to work and career challenges, the well-being of employees may or may not be affected. There are studies showing that some people adapt, some people recover, and some people become more vulnerable. However, the factors underlying these different reactions were not studied due to the archival nature of research, which lacks a psychological background, and/or just looked at direct relationships (Choi, 2003; Mandal et al., 2001), and did not consider mediating and moderating variables (Burke, 2003).

Section summary. In this section I summarized the literature on the effects of economic uncertainty and layoffs on employees. Studies show that older people are in a disadvantageous position compared to younger employees during times of economic crisis and reemployment. They are ten times less likely to be rehired when they lose their jobs compared to younger candidates (Alan et al., 2012), and it takes more time for them to become reemployed compared

to younger employees (Adler & Hidler, 2009). Moreover, prior studies that examined the psychological effects of turbulence in careers of professionals found inconsistent findings on whether downsizing and job loss were related to strain over time. Although these inconsistencies can be attributed to differences in methodology, it is difficult to compare findings across studies. Taking all these into consideration, the effects of job loss on strain outcomes are unclear because the results of these studies exhibit multiple patterns.

One of the main gaps in the literature is that the majority of these studies did not consider the psychological processes that employees may go through, but rather they presented information on decreases in wealth following job losses, as many of these studies were published in economics journals (e.g., Chan & Stevens, 2001, 2004). In line with this limitation, a second limitation is a lack of studies that focus on the challenges facing people who are currently employed rather than only those who are unemployed. Third, due to the predominance of economic studies in this area, these studies are not well integrated with contemporary career theories from the psychological literature that would help explain the reasons behind the findings, such as career mindset and other career-related personal and contextual characteristics. Moreover, these studies confirmed that although older adults undergo negative experiences, there is variation in the outcomes. For example, the variation in the decrease of salary for reemployed older workers ranged from 17% to 52%, which indicates that they might have different resources or use coping strategies. In the current study, I propose to address these issues by testing a model that takes personal and environmental variables into consideration to help explain the experiences of people of different ages and different employment histories. This approach will be described in more detail in the following section.

The Proposed Psychological Process Model to Be Tested in the Current Study

The current study tested a model (see Figure 2) depicting a process that incorporates both personal resources and contextual factors that are thought to have a relationship with career outcomes and perception of employment quality. These relationships were expected to be mediated by job-related coping behaviors. The career outcomes that I measured are objective and subjective indicators of career success. Moreover, I examined the effect of age and differences in employment history in these relationships, specifically testing whether they operate as moderators. The results of the cross-sectional study by Briscoe et al. (2012) confirmed that attitudes towards showing active coping behaviors mediated the relationship between the self-directedness and career success. Their study did not test frequency of coping behaviors, so in the current proposed study I expanded the model of Briscoe et al. (2012) by testing the frequencies. I also expanded the model by testing contextual factors (e.g., organizational career support), different types of personal characteristics (e.g., social capital), and job attitudes using a repeated measures design.

Career success is the overall evaluation people make regarding the status of their careers and their progress towards reaching their career goals (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1969; Hall, 1996). It includes indicators that are both subjective (e.g., their perception of progress in achieving career goals) and objective (e.g., the amount of their salary). Both objective and subjective outcomes were measured because contemporary career theories support the idea that success in one's career cannot be fully captured by looking only at salary and organizational level (Lyness & Erkovan, 2015). Moreover, although a career is composed of a sequence of jobs, I predict that initial employment quality, changes in employment quality, and coping behaviors can affect objective and subjective indicators of career success. This prediction is based on the

conceptualization of career success that says that career success includes not only actually reaching the goals but also satisfaction with the progress made (Seibert, 1999). The rationale for choosing each construct will be discussed in the following sections where I provide a literature review and introduce the proposed hypotheses.

In the next section, first I will present justification of the time period chosen for the study, then I will review the variables of the study and the relevant literature to introduce the proposed hypotheses.

Justification of time period for the repeated measures research design. Choosing an appropriate time interval is a key issue in designing a repeated measures study. In the career literature, there are studies with longitudinal and repeated measures design with durations ranging from a couple of weeks (e.g., Kinnunen, Feldt, & Mauno, 2003; Sturges et al., 2002) to a couple of years (e.g., Joseph & Greenberg, 2001; Zikic & Klehe, 2006), depending on the type of variables investigated. Therefore, in order to justify my choice of time period, I will summarize time frames that were used in prior studies with longitudinal or repeated measures design that examined variables similar to those in my study.

***Coping behaviors and adaptation tactics*.** Studies focusing on coping behaviors and adaptation tactics usually use weekly or daily measurements if the study is focusing on the coping strategies of unemployed and job-seeking individuals (Wanberg et al., 2000; 2002; Zikic & Klehe, 2006) Longer intervals, such as monthly measurements, are used in studies of the coping behaviors of employed individuals, which is also the target sample of this study, to

increase the possibility of participants displaying certain behaviors (Bauer et al., 2007; Chen, 2005; Firth et al., 2014). For example, the meta-analysis of Bauer et al. (2007) on job-related coping behaviors revealed that in longitudinal studies the average time between data collections was 4.42 months, with a range from 1 to 6 months. Firth and colleagues (2014) found that, for expatriates, monthly changes in work adjustment mediated the relationship between work demands and assignment satisfaction in a 4-month study. Joseph and Greenberg (2001) used two- and four-month follow-ups to assess the positive effects of a career management and transition program on quality of employment, which were significant at both time points.

Employment quality. In the current study, job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) are used as indicators of perceived employment quality. Job attitudes are evaluations of one's job environment and there are studies investigating episodic changes in these appraisals for different time periods (Cote & Morgan, 2002; Judge, et al., 2006). Participants in these studies were instructed to think about their job experiences during a specific time period, such as four weeks. This approach was applied in the current study by framing instructions with statements such as "Please answer the following questions taking your work experiences in the last two months into consideration". In the study of Cote and Morgan (2002) job satisfaction and intention to quit, which is related to organizational commitment (Scheicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2010), were measured 4 weeks apart to understand the relationships between emotion regulation and job attitudes. It was found that emotion regulation predicted job satisfaction at different time points as well as changes in job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The authors used a 6-faceted (e.g., satisfaction with supervisor, communication, and coworker) measure of job satisfaction, which was also used in the current study (Spector, 1994). Although variance in each facet was not reported, the biggest change was found with

satisfaction with coworkers (R^2=.26). Laschinger et al. (2004) conducted a study investigating the relationship between employee empowerment and job satisfaction three weeks apart using a 4-item global measure of work satisfaction modified from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey. Respondents were asked to rate how satisfied they were with their job, work environment, and their coworkers. The results showed that there was change in both job satisfaction and engagement. The change in job satisfaction was large with an R^2=.47 and showed an increase of 36.6 % between the beginning and end of the study. Judge et al. (2006) measured daily job satisfaction using the diary method, which employees completed at the end of each day for three weeks answering questions such as "At this very moment, I am enthusiastic about my work" and "Right now, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job,". The results showed that there was an average of 11% increase in job satisfaction overall. Major et al (1995) conducted a study measuring the relationship between development of role expectations and job attitudes. They found significant change for both commitment (R^2= .33) and job satisfaction (R^2= .36) four weeks apart, providing substantial variance across data points over three months. Their organizational commitment measure assessed loyalty, attachment, and identification with the organization; and the job satisfaction measure asked whether different adjectives were descriptive of one's job. Vandenberghe et al., (2001) measured job satisfaction three times that were three weeks apart using the Job Diagnostic Survey (e.g., ''Generally speaking, I'm satisfied with my current job''), in addition to measuring affective commitment and turnover intention. The researchers used a sample of new employees and found a significant linear increase in job satisfaction (R^2= .33), and a decrease in turnover intention (R^2= .33) and organizational commitment (R^2= .31) across data points.

I conducted assessments with two-month intervals because empirical evidence shows that this time frame is long enough to allow employed participants to show some amount of job-related coping behaviors and also to show changes in attitudes. I avoided longer intervals between assessments, such as three or four months, to decrease participant attrition and recall issues (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In the next section, a detailed presentation of the study variables and proposed hypotheses can be seen.

Study Variables and Hypothesized Relationships

Personal resources predicting career success. Previous research and contemporary career theories emphasize the importance of adaptability in order to manage the demands of today's organizational life in relation to globalization, technological advancements, diversity, and economic uncertainty (Gowan, 2014; King, 2014; Lyness & Erkovan, 2015). Adaptability is considered to be a career meta-competency determining career outcomes. However, it is not the only factor that has direct and/or indirect effects on careers. Career mobility is a phenomenon that holds an important place in boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) states that people have mobility in their careers to the extent they have transferable resources. The word mobility refers to actually changing a job, i.e., physical mobility, or the psychological perception of having the capacity to change jobs, i.e, psychological mobility (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).

In line with boundaryless career theory, in the current study, I measured several key resources and investigate whether they directly or indirectly affect people's career success. A typology of resources proposed by Luthans and Youssef (2004) mention social capital (e.g., quality and quantity of business networks and friends) and psychological capital (e.g., career self-efficacy). In the current study, I measured various indicators of each of these forms of

career- related capital. I proposed that having these resources played a role in gaining positive career outcomes because, according to boundaryless career theory, people who have psychological mobility are less dependent on a specific employer or job, resulting in the feeling they are more in control of their careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Sullivan, 1999). In the following paragraphs I will explain these types of capital and why they are related to career outcomes.

Psychological capital, which is the main focus of this study, is defined as "an individual's positive psychological state of development" (Luthans et al., 2007a, p. 3). It includes having confidence (efficacy), resilience, and perseverance to be successful in an area (Luthans et al., 2007b). I am measuring three indicators of psychological capital that represent the meta-competencies proposed by protean career theory and SCCT: 1) protean career identity, 2) career adaptability, and 3) career self-efficacy. According to protean theory, protean career identity and adaptability are the two main career meta-competencies (Hall, 2002). According to SCCT, career self-efficacy is an important meta-competency (Lent et al.,1994). A protean career identity includes being value-driven and self-directed (Hall, 2006). People who have these characteristics are willing to explore what their values are, shape their careers in line with those values, and be proactive to learn and improve their skills rather than being dependent on their organizations. The second indicator of career mindset is adaptability, which is the ability to adapt to new work settings, career plans, tasks, or demands (Hall, 1996; Savickas, 1997). A person who has a high level of adaptability is open to new experiences and comfortable developing him/herself in order to adjust to the current work environment (Hall, 1996). The third meta-competency is career self-efficacy, which is a core concept in SCCT (Lent et al., 1994). Self-efficacy is one's belief about how well he/she can perform in a specific area (Bandura, 1986). An individual has domain-

specific self-efficacies representing personal perceptions about the level of competency in an area such as career self-efficacy (Betz, 2000; Lent et al., 2004). In the domain of career management, career self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about how well they can manage and direct their careers and how much control they think they have over their career-related choices (Lent et al., 2012). People who have high career self-efficacy are not passive receivers of career directions that organizations offer them, but rather they evaluate, accept, or reject these offers by taking their own needs and interests into consideration (Betz, 2007; Lent et al., 1994).

I expected these three indicators of psychological capital (i.e., protean career mindset, career self-efficacy, and adaptability) to have direct relationships with career success because they promote resilience, flexibility, openness to novel career experiences, and personal agency in decision-making (Betz, 2007; Fugate, et al. 2004). According to contemporary career theories, career success is not necessarily defined by salary or acquiring higher-level positions in an organization. Career success is about self-fulfillment and achieving one's needs, which can be material (e.g., salary) or not (e.g., having work-life balance) (Hall, 1996). For that reason, I measured subjective career success, which captures one's perception of self-fulfillment and overall satisfaction with one's career, in addition to objective career success, which is determined by salary and organizational level.

Previous research supports these expected relationships. A cross-sectional study revealed that people with higher levels of psychological capital were more likely to see even economic uncertainties and threats of downsizing as challenges rather than threats due to their perception of personal control and self-confidence (De Cuyper et al., 2008). Another cross-sectional study by Briscoe et al. (2012) tested the direct relationships of the self-directedness dimension of a protean career mindset with job performance and perceptions of career success, which were

found to be significant. There are also studies showing that people's tendency to show career self-management behaviors is related to higher salary and promotion outcomes (Koen et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou, et al., 2009). Therefore, I predicted that those who had higher levels of psychological capital would have more positive career outcomes than those who had lower levels because according to Hall (1996) and Lent and colleagues (1994), people need to take control of their careers to achieve satisfaction in them.

The second type of capital is social capital, which includes formal (e.g., business contacts) and informal networks (e.g., family and friends) (Arthur, 1994; Hall, 2002). Social capital can provide psychological support, positive messages, and advice and encouragement from other people. Social capital is useful because, as boundaryless career theory states, people can find jobs through their networks if their acquaintances inform them about job opportunities or recommend them to others, which increases their career mobility (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). The positive effects of networks for employees facing career challenges have been confirmed by research (Pollack et al. 2012; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001; Wanberg, Kanfer, & Banas, 2000). Pollack et al. (2012) found that among people who thought the economic climate affected their businesses badly, those who had tighter social ties experienced lower levels of depression and withdrawal intentions. The strength of the social ties was measured by asking participants about their frequency of contact with people in their business network. In their study, Seibert et al. (2001) found that people who had a high number of strong social ties had higher career satisfaction, which was mediated through other variables such as having access to strategic information at the company. In line with their findings, I also expected to find that people with larger social capital to have higher career success. The current study used procedures relating to social capital based on Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden's (2001) research examining relationships of

social ties to career success. Seibert and colleagues draw a distinction between the number of social connections and the quality of those connections. They state that researchers who investigate social capital should gather data on qualitative characteristics of social ties (e.g., the number of people who might provide information and advice on career issues) and then measure the quality of these ties (e.g., the perception of closeness with each social tie). Therefore, in the current study both qualitative and quantitative characteristics of social connections were measured. A detailed description of the social capital measure, including the questions and scales, will be included in the Methods section.

The hypotheses regarding the relationships of personal resources with career success are as follows:

H1: Personal resources will be related to career success at T2 and T3: **(1a)** Psychological capital, **(1b)** social capital will be positively related to career success at T2 and T3.

Contextual factors predicting career success. SCCT takes a unified approach by focusing on the importance of both environmental and personal factors for career success (Lent & Brown, 2006; Lyness & Erkovan, 2015). External contextual characteristics play an important role in career outcomes because it is wrong to think of a career in isolation from national and organizational factors. In the current study, I measured distal contextual factors, e.g., labor market conditions for an employee's industry, such as unemployment rates, and proximal contextual factors, e.g., organizational climate. The effects of the distal labor market conditions on career success haven't been studied before although the relationship of labor market conditions with job attitudes such as job satisfaction and turnover intention have been found to be significant. In previous studies, labor market conditions were found to predict job insecurity when labor market conditions were measured using unemployment rates and inflation rates (Goel

& Ram, 2013; Otto, Hoffmann-Biencourt, & Mohr, 2011). Cahill et al. (2015) found that shifts in the economy were associated with job satisfaction, engagement, and work-life balance. They used the Dow Jones Industrial Average (DOW), which is the largest stock index in the U.S., and the national unemployment rate, as predictors. I used inflation rates and unemployment rates in the industry as distal contextual factors because there are studies showing that indices that are taken at the industry-level are better predictors of individuals' work-related outcomes, such as turnover intention, than national-level indices (Adler & Hilber, 2009). The indices that I measured show how strong and stable the macroeconomy is. The ways these indices were obtained are described in detail in the Methods section.

As a proximal contextual factor I measured organizational climate. According to Ostroff, Kinicki and Tamkins (2003) "climate involves employees' perceptions of what the organization is like in terms of practices, policies and procedures, routines and rewards" (p. 566). I focused on the extent to which an organization supports career development among its employees. Organizations that invest in the career development of their employees are characterized by providing training, mentorships, and other developmental opportunities that can increase the skills of their workers in addition to encouraging employees to use these practices. There is limited research on the effects of organizational career support on career outcomes. Cross-sectional studies by Barnett and Bradley (2007) and Lyness and Ragins (2011) found that contextual factors, such as organizational support for career development and organizational career development opportunities, were related to subjective career satisfaction. Sturges and colleagues (2002, 2005) found that formal organizational career management activities, such as training programs, and personal development plans predicted organizational commitment. Those who got help from their organizations in managing their careers also had lower levels of absence,

higher performance, and lower intention to turnover (Sturges, et al., 2005). In light of these studies and the proposition of SCCT to take contextual environmental factors into consideration in determining career outcomes, I expected that people who worked in organizations that supported the career management of their employees would have higher subjective and objective career success because organizational practices can assist employees in discovering what they want in a career and ways to achieve those goals. I also proposed the relationship between proximal context (i.e., organizational career support) and career success to be stronger than the relationship between distal context (i.e, labor market conditions) and career success because organizational climate determines the characteristics of the immediate work setting. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

> **H2:** Favorable proximal and distal contextual factors will be positively related to career success at T2 and T3: **(2a)** Organizational career support and **(2b)** favorable labor market conditions will be positively related to career success at T2 and T3 **(2c)** The relationships between proximal contextual factors and career success at T2 and T3will be stronger than the relationships between distal factors and career success at T2 and T3

Personal resources and contextual factors predicting job-related active coping behaviors. Active coping is defined as "cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands" (Folkman et al., 1986, p. 993). Job-related active coping behaviors are shown when a worker perceives that there is a discrepancy between his or her desired and current conditions and wants to improve the situation to move closer to the desired level. In the career literature, the effects of career mindset on active coping behaviors have been studied mostly in relation to unemployed people who were looking for jobs in order to understand their job search strategies. For example, people who were unemployed showed higher

job search intensity and job search persistence if they had a protean career mindset (Koen et al., 2010, Zikic & Klehe, 2006). The current study proposes that examining changes in job-related coping behaviors during a specific period, for people who are employed, in relation to their career mindset can show how critical one's career mindset is because we can be in a constant cycle of reaching goals set by ourselves or others, whether we are employed or not.

A recent extension in SCCT aims to explain adaptive behaviors people may show in different stages of their careers (Brown & Lent, 2015; Lent and Brown, 2013). This framework includes stages such as the exploration period during childhood and the establishment period right after formal education. The stage that fits the purpose of my study and the population I propose to target is the maintenance stage because it captures adaptive behaviors people might show while they are employed. These behaviors are sometimes aimed at changing ourselves (e.g., trying to learn more about a task by asking for support) and sometimes aimed at changing the context (e.g., looking for a new job) that is related to the discrepancy between desired and current conditions. I expected that personal and contextual factors would determine the frequency of actual coping behaviors.

One group of coping behaviors is proactive adaptation tactics. These strategies include information seeking and networking. Information seeking includes asking for feedback or task-related knowledge. However, some people may prefer to take a different approach by opting to instead change their job, so employees' job search behaviors was also measured. Searching for a job is a proactive coping behavior because it means the individual shows an effort to seek and find alternative employment options. Moreover, a job search does not need to be external. One can look for and learn about jobs within a company, seek out new internal positions, and ask or talk with a supervisor or colleagues about these alternatives.

According to theories of coping, the desire to be proactive and show adaptation behaviors is determined by perceived cost and value of displaying the behavior (VandeWalle, et al, 2000). Personality traits are related to coping because they are indicators of people's values and tendencies to show specific behaviors, such as locus of control, goal orientation, and proactive personality (Levy et al., 1995; Vollrath, 2001; Vollrath & Torgersen, 2000). The empirical support for personal resources, such as personality dispositions and social support, enabling coping behaviors comes from prior research (Crant, 2000; De Longis & Holtzman, 2005; Levy et al., 2005). The meta-analysis of Connor- Smith and Flaschbart (2007) found that personality characteristics were antecedents of coping behaviors. Briscoe et al. (2012) found that self-directedness in a career was related to participants' attitudes towards active coping. Those who had a higher protean mindset reported that they were more open to taking actions in the face of changes and turbulence in their careers. Kanfer et al. (2011) and Rife and Belcher (1993) found that for older employees who had lost their jobs, it was easier to show appropriate job search strategies if they had social capital as it was seen that the level of social support increased their job search intensity, which increased the possibility of finding a new job. Another cross-sectional study on the protean career attitude supported the relationship between being value-driven and self-directed and the actual behaviors of career-self-management (De Vos & Solens, 2008). Moreover, it was found that career confidence, which was conceptualized as very similar to career self-efficacy, fostered job search intensity and the broadness of the job search of unemployed individuals (Koen et al., 2010; Kanfer et al., 2001; Wanberg et al., 2002). In short, I expected that people with more psychological and social capital would exhibit more frequent active coping behaviors. As for the contextual factors, I expected both distal and proximal factors to be associated with coping behaviors. Organizational career support was expected to increase

active coping behaviors because those who receive support and guidance to develop their careers should show more active coping as the organizational climate encourages it. I also expected people working in sectors with worse labor market conditions to show higher coping behaviors to keep their jobs or find better ones.

H3: Personal resources will be related to active coping behaviors at T2 and T3: **(3a)** Psychological capital and **(3b)** social capital will be positively related to the frequency of active coping behaviors at T2 and T3.

H4: Proximal and distal contextual factors will be related to active coping behaviors at T2 and T3: **(4a)** Organizational career support will be positively **(4b)** favorable labor market conditions will be negatively related to the frequency of active coping behaviors at T2 and T3. **(4c)** The relationships between proximal contextual factors and active coping behaviors at T2 and T3 will be stronger than the relationships between distal factors and active coping behaviors at T2 and T3..

Age and employment history as moderators in the adaptation process. One of the purposes of the current study was to understand how the process of career adaptation differed based on employee age and the nature of employment gaps. I proposed a moderator model in which age and employment history differences moderated the relationships of between personal resources and contextual factors with coping behaviors (See Figures 2 and 6).

There are studies suggesting that differences in coping behaviors by older and younger employees are not due to differences in type and level of resources they possess, but rather because they utilize their resources differently (Connor- Smith & Flaschbart, 2007). The meta-analysis of Connor- Smith and Flaschbart (2007) found that personality characteristics were

antecedents of coping behaviors, however age moderated some of the relationships. The authors stated that "Adults, who have the cognitive abilities to implement coping strategies plus the experience to match strategies to problems exhibit more coping flexibility" (p. 1084). This suggests that age is seen as a proxy for cognitive abilities and experiences which can lead to different ways to utilize resources. Although older employees have more experience and tenure than younger employees, which have positive effects on resource utilization and adaptation, there is also research showing that older employees resist to change more and are less motivated to allocate resources into new challenges compared to their younger counterparts (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor,2004; Jones & Meredith, 1996; Kanfer &Ackerman, 2004).

The second variable I take as a moderator between resources and coping behaviors is the nature of prior employment gaps. Meta-analytic and non-meta-analytic research confirm that past coping experiences moderate the relationships between personal resources (e.g., optimism) and subsequent coping behaviors (Burke, 2003; Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Bolger, Zuckerman, & Kessler, 2005; Carver et al. 1993; Connor- Smith Flaschbart, 2007; Zikic & Klehe, 2006). Direnzo and Greenhaus (2011) state that, regardless of whether job loss is voluntary or involuntary, past career turbulences help people understand and adjust to the current labor market and organizational demand. This is also in line with the adjustment model of Frese and Zapft (1988), which states that effects of stressful experiences (e.g., job loss) over time do not need to be negative because these experiences may enable employees to adapt to new or similar challenging conditions. However, there is also evidence suggesting that stressful conditions may make individuals more vulnerable to future stress because they are drained of their resources by previous negative experiences thus making them more prone to stress in the future and making them less adaptable (Mandal, Ayyagari, & Gallo, 2011). Therefore, in the long run, an

employment gap can lead to less resilience to face new challenges depending on the level of resources the employee has. Hypotheses regarding the moderation of age and unemployment history (See Figures 2 and 6) can be seen below and due to conflicting findings in the literature the hypotheses were proposed without giving the direction of the moderating effects:

> **H5:** Employee age will moderate the relationships of **(5a)** psychological capital **(5b)** social capital and **(5c)** contextual factors with coping behaviors at T2 and T3

> **H6:** Unemployment history will moderate the relationships of **(6a)** psychological capital **(6b)** social capital and **(6c)** contextual factors with coping behaviors at T2 and T3

Relationships of coping behaviors with perceived employment quality. Employment quality is a term encompassing multiple concepts that reflect the various characteristics of employment. I took two variables representing perceived employment quality: job satisfaction and organizational commitment. I predicted that job-related coping behaviors displayed throughout the two-month period would affect their employment quality at the end of that time period because the effort they show as part of active coping is likely to change their work experience and how they are being treated by other people. This is in line with the idea that active coping behaviors are expected to change the person and/or the targeted environment. For example, active coping strategies may include asking for help from others, which may result in closer ties with coworkers and supervisors if it results in getting positive responses that make an employee feel cared for and supported. In the next sections I will explain the indicators of employment quality in detail and how I expect frequency of active coping to affect them (see Figures 2 and 4).

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are among the job attitudes that have traditionally been analyzed the most. These are important work-related outcomes for employees as well as their organizations because studies suggest that they are related to job performance, and absenteeism (Judge et al., 2001; Ybema, Smulders, & Bongers, 2010). Organizational commitment is defined as "the degree to which an employee feels linked with or attached to his or her organization" (Schleicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2010, p.155). There are three dimensions of organizational commitment representing different types of ties between an employee and an organization. Affective commitment is the emotional link between the employee and the organization to which they feel connected (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Continuance dimension represents the level of commitment based on employees' evaluations of whether they have better options than staying at their current organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Therefore, if the person thinks s/he has better options, s/he may leave the organization. Normative commitment refers to being committed to an organization because employees think they are obliged to stay and be loyal to their organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). There are debates about the construct validity of normative commitment. Some scholars state that the normative dimension does not measure commitment but instead measures other constructs, such as existence of values developed before the person joins an organization through family or other socialization processes (McGee &Ford, 1987; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990). Because dimensions of affective and continuance commitment are more relevant to employment quality than the other dimension in the current study, I did not measure normative commitment.

In this study, I expected that adaptive coping behaviors (e.g., feedback seeking, relationship building) were positively related to job satisfaction and commitment. People who

show actual efforts to network with others should feel more satisfied since they increase their likelihood of adapting to their job conditions that led them to show coping behaviors in the first place. This can be explained with the dependency perspective, which states that people who perceive themselves as more vulnerable and powerless experience negative feelings and attitudes due to their lack of autonomy and control (Greenhalgh, & Rosenblatt, 1984). The dependency perspective is consistent with contemporary career theories because both protean career theory and SCCT encourage individuals to show career self-management behaviors and take responsibility and action to reach their career goals (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Lent & Brown, 2013). People who show the coping behaviors of seeking help, networking, or job searching may benefit from the realization that they are not solely dependent on others to improve their careers and are not passive receivers of the situations they are in, but rather can act to create a change in their careers. The dependency perspective supports the idea that active coping can increase the feeling of empowerment and recognition of opportunities not seen before (Mainero, 1986). Moreover, the literature has shown that people who show proactive efforts to reach out to their colleagues for support, ask for task-related guidance, and show networking behaviors perceive themselves to have a better fit to their jobs, which in turn increases commitment (Cable, 2001; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005).

Based on the dependency perspective and contemporary career theories, I expected that people who showed adaptive coping behaviors would experience higher satisfaction and commitment because they exerted effort to learn about tasks as well as effort to connect with people in the work setting. Efforts to adapt to jobs may be related to individuals to have better relationships with colleagues and to increase skills, two outcomes that may make their attitudes more positive. As for job searching behavior, the negative association of turnover intention or

actual turnover with job satisfaction and commitment, has been confirmed by many studies (Cohen, 1993; Griffeth et al. 2000; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Therefore, I also predicted that people who were engaged in job search behaviors would have lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction as turnover intentions imply a lack of satisfaction and commitment.

H7: (7a) The frequency of active adaptation tactics at Tn will be positively related to job satisfaction and commitment at Tn. **(7b)** Job search behaviors at Tn will be negatively related to job satisfaction, and organizational commitment at Tn.

H8: (8a) Changes in employment quality between T1 and T2 (ΔT1-T2) will be related to active coping behaviors at T2 **(8b)** Changes in employment quality between T2 and T3 (ΔT2-T3) will be related to active coping behaviors at T3 **(8c)** Changes in employment quality between T1 and T3 (ΔT1-T3) will be related to active coping behaviors at T3.

Direct and indirect relationships of personal resources and contextual factors with employment quality. The next set of hypotheses I proposed are related to the relationships of personal resources and contextual factors with employment quality. I expected personal resources and contextual factors to be associated with employment quality directly and indirectly through coping behaviors. These assumptions are based on dependency perspective and SCCT. Resources that people have (psychological and social capital) were proposed to be positively related to employment quality, as reflected in higher job satisfaction, and greater commitment, because people with important resources such as the ability to adapt would feel empowered and would have more control over their career choices, improving their attitudes towards their jobs. A study by Lent et al. (2015), testing the SCCT model on engineering students, found that career self-efficacy was related to job satisfaction. There are other studies showing that people who

were more confident in their job-related skills had higher employability, and had more positive job attitudes, including work engagement and organizational commitment. (Akoto et al., 2014; Berntson et al., 2007; Xanthopoulo et al., 2009).

Lastly, I expected distal and proximal contextual factors to be related to employment quality. People who do not have organizational career support and who work in a sector with poor labor market conditions should have lower employment quality. The literature confirms that employees in organizations that provide formal training or mentorship programs feel they can effectively deal with work-related problems, which in turn leads to positive job attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work-related social support compared to those who do not have formal career- related programs at work (Ebby et al., 2008, Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001). The encouragement and opportunities, such as mentoring, the company provides for career management can increase organizational commitment. For example, employees who have a good relationship with their mentors may think that they should stay at the organization because they have a career-related support system at the organization.

As for the distal contextual factors, the relationship between economic uncertainty and employment quality has been supported both for job satisfaction and organizational commitment. For example, the associations of economic uncertainty with turnover intentions and organizational commitment have been found to be significant (Finegold, Mohrman, & Spreitzer, 2002). Moreover, ambiguity about whether one will be able to keep his/her job in the future hurts the employees' perception of the dependability of the company which is related to negative job attitudes (DeCuyper & De Witte, 2005; Rousseu, 1995). Based on relevant theories and the empirical findings, I proposed the following hypotheses:

H9: Personal resources will be related to employment quality at T2 and T3: **(9a)** Psychological capital and **(9b)** social capital will be positively related to employment quality at T2 and T3.

H10: Favorable proximal and distal contextual factors will be positively related to employment quality at T2 and T3: **(10a)** Organizational career support and **(10b)** favorable labor market conditions will be positively related to employment quality at T2 and T3. **(10c)** The relationship between organizational career support and employment quality will be stronger than the relationship between labor market conditions and employment quality.

Taking a process-oriented perspective and my previous hypotheses about coping behaviors into consideration, I expected individual and contextual factors to have indirect effects on employment quality through coping behaviors. Hypotheses 3 and 4 proposed that individual and contextual factors were related to coping behaviors. Hypothesis 7 proposed that coping behaviors were related to employment quality. Hypotheses 9 and 10 proposed that individual and contextual factors were also related to employment quality. From these hypotheses, I expected a mediation relationship in which the frequency of coping behaviors was mediating the relationship between personal contextual factors and employment quality. In other words, I expected that individual and contextual characteristics would affect coping behaviors, which would in turn affect the level of employment quality.

H11: Coping behaviors at Tn will mediate the relationship between personal resources and employment quality, such that **(11a)** psychological capital and **(11b)** social capital will be positively related to the frequency of active coping behaviors at Tn, which will in turn be positively related to employment quality at Tn.

H12: Coping behaviors at Tn will mediate the relationships between contextual factors and employment quality at Tn, such that **(12a)** favorable labor market conditions and **(12b)** organizational career support will be related to the frequency of active coping behaviors at Tn, which will in turn be related to employment quality at Tn.

Employment quality at Tn predicting coping behaviors at Tn+1. The last set of hypotheses is about the association of employment quality at Tn with coping behaviors at Tn+1. I propose that there is a cyclical relationship between employment quality and coping behaviors in such a way that employees decide to show certain coping behaviors depending on an evaluation of the situation they are in and that employment quality represents the extent to which employees adapt to a work environment and how close they are to reaching their career-related goals. People who feel that they are already in a high quality work environment or that there has been an improvement in their job conditions might not feel the need to show coping behaviors. I base this hypothesis on protean career theory and SCCT, as these theories underscore adaptive behaviors as important factors in developing oneself throughout a career. I propose that employee's evaluations of their conditions (e.g., contextual factors and employment quality) can trigger coping if they think they need to change a situation or themselves for desired conditions. This is why I assess employment quality at Tn as antecedents of job-related coping behaviors at Tn+1 (See Figures 2 and 4).

In the literature, some cross-sectional studies found that job attitudes, such as job satisfaction (Ashford & Black, 1996; Kim et al., 2005; Proudfoot et al., 2009; Richter et al., 2013), were predictors of coping behaviors. Moreover, DeLongis, and Holtzman (2005) proposed a model in which employees' dissatisfaction with work conditions, such as disappointment with coworkers and supervisor, was considered as the predictor of coping

behaviors. Although the model of DeLongis and Holtzman was not empirically tested, I propose that people's evaluation of their situation will affect their coping strategies at a later time. Since people display coping behaviors when they think there is a need to change the environment and attitudes reflect evaluations of one's environment (VandeWalle, et al, 2000), I expect employment quality and perceived career success at Tn to predict coping behaviors at Tn+1 (See Figures2 and 4).

> **H13:** Employment quality at Tn will be related to coping behaviors at Tn+1: **(13a)** Job satisfaction and commitment at Tn will be negatively related to active adaptation tactics at Tn+1 **(13b).** Job satisfaction and commitment at Tn will be negatively related to job search behavior at Tn+1.

Section Summary. In the proposed research, I developed a model (see Figure 2) through which I studied direct and indirect antecedents of job and career outcomes by taking three contemporary career theories into consideration. I proposed testing personal resources (i.e., social and psychological capital), contextual factors (i.e., organizational climate and labor market conditions), job-specific coping behaviors (e.g., adaptation and job search behaviors), employment quality (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), and career success of employees (i.e., objective and perceived career success) conducting three assessments with two-month intervals. Moreover, I proposed whether there were differences in this process for people with different employment history and age. The reason for including such a comprehensive set of antecedents was to create an inclusive model that took many important antecedents of job and career-related variables into consideration.

The research was designed to address three major objectives. The first objective of the study was to develop and test a theoretical model using a repeated measures design which enabled me to investigate relationships that were not tested before over time, within a psychological framework, as the majority of research on this topic is non-theoretical or focuses on the coping behaviors of people who are unemployed. The second objective was to understand the adaptation process for older and younger employees because there is research showing that middle-aged and older employees might be struggling to adopt a contemporary career mindset and with the recent shift away from traditional career concepts has come the necessity to alter their understanding of what defines a successful career (e.g., Moore, Grunberg, & Grunberg, 2004; Ketsche & Branscomb, 2003; Koen et al., 2010). Therefore, I proposed a hypothesis in which employee age was taken as a moderator between resources and coping behaviors. Another focus of this study was to examine the role of employment gaps in the adaptation process because there is research supporting that career-related challenges may affect the way employees cope with challenges they face in later years. For this reason, employment history of employees was also proposed to be a moderator between resource and coping behaviors. As will be summarized in the following chapters, the results provided support that variables investigated in the current study, especially protean mindset and organizational career support, predicted perceived career success and employment quality. Moreover, organizational career support and quality and quantity of one's social network predicted frequency of showing job-related adaptive coping behaviors. Therefore, the results can be used to provide practical suggestions to help employees of different age and different employment history to achieve career and work satisfaction.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Results

Methodology Overview

The current study had a repeated measures design. An online survey was distributed through a survey agency three times, two months apart. Some variables were predicted to be more stable across this time frame, such as psychological capital (e.g., career self-efficacy) and contextual factors (e.g., organizational career support). However, coping behaviors (e.g., job search behaviors and adaptive coping behaviors) and attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and commitment) were expected to show variability across the three two-month-periods (See Appendix D). When employees answered questions about variables in which I expected fluctuations during the data collection (e.g., job satisfaction) participants were instructed to focus on a specific period, which was the past two months. For example, when the survey was taken at the beginning of April, they were asked to answer questions considering their work experiences in February and March. This episodic and retroactive approach has been used in other longitudinal studies which studied changes in job attitudes (Judge et al., 2006; Scheicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2010). Figure 2 shows a detailed description of the research design and data collection process. Before collecting data for the main study, a pilot study was conducted to test basic characteristics of the measures and user-friendliness of the online survey. Apart from the size of the sample, the participant characteristics were kept the same for the pilot and main studies. In the following sections, I will first describe the targeted sample characteristics. Then, I will provide separate descriptions of the procedure and results.

Participant Characteristics of the Pilot Study and the Main Study

For both the pilot and main study, I aimed for half of the sample to be younger (between the ages 18 to 39) and the other half to be middle aged and older (older than 40) although age

was taken as a continuous variable in the analyses. Age was a key variable of interest so by having an equal number of employees below and above 40 I had more control over the distribution of age in order to ensure my sample was diverse in age. This decreased the possibility of participants from one age group dominating the sample. The age of 40 was taken as a cut-off because the majority of the studies on the careers of middle-aged and older employees use age 40 or 45 as a cut-off to define middle-age (Mendenhall et al., 2008; Noonan, 2005). Moreover, in the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA), which prohibits age discrimination, older workers are defined as being 40 years of age and older.

I also aimed at half of the sample to experience at least one unemployment experience since they have been in the workforce, and the other half to have no unemployment experience because the nature of employment gaps was another key variable. I recruited full-time employees from diverse jobs and industries, not including governmental organizations. Prior findings show that job and organizational characteristics shaping one's career are different in governmental organizations than in the private sector. Furthermore, promotions in the private sector are often more merit-based than in the government (Boyne, 2002). People are less likely to be fired in government jobs where employments are seen as having a "job-for-life", and salary and promotions are more likely to be determined by hierarchy and seniority (Boyne, 2002; Boyne & Dahya, 2002). Convenience sampling was used in the selection of full-time employees from different jobs and industries. Individuals who were retired, owned their own businesses, or were employed in more than one job were not included to ensure that responses to the questions were specific to one job and that they were employed in a job in which they had supervisors.

Pilot Study Procedure

I collected data though a survey agency called Survey Sampling International (SSI). The agency states that they have more than 3000 clients including universities and research organizations (www.surveysampling.com). Participants are selected from SSI's diverse and consistently managed participant pool. To minimize the risk of bias, participants are randomly selected from SSI's pool to be invited to take a survey. Participants who do not perform well are not further included in SSI's sample pool. SSI works closely with clients, marking the ID of any participant who has been reported to SSI as a potential problem participant. To confirm identity, SSI employs a third-party data validation service which compares respondent demographics to multiple databases and data vendors specializing in consumer information to confirm key data including name, address, and date of birth. The participant pool of SSI is composed of people who agree to take surveys to receive compensation in return. SSI uses various verification methods to ensure that participants characteristics stated in the surveys are accurate and valid. A database which includes information on their participants is updated regularly. Responses are controlled by various quality-control procedures including digital fingerprinting, IP-verification, and confirmation of location prior to reward redemption. Although the agency was used to find participants, it did not have access to data I collected therefore I did data quality checking aswill be described later.

The survey was created on Qualtrics. I embedded links provided by the agency into Qualtrics so that participants could be tracked. SSI made the survey available to their participant pool and provided incentives to those who took the survey. The email invitation can be seen in Appendix A. Participants were able to take the survey after they passed screening questions

about age, industry, number of jobs they held, and type of employment (See Appendix B), and saw the consent form (Appendix C).

Pilot Study Results

Data was collected from eleven participants, though one was discarded due to low quality, resulting in 10 participants. I only analyzed the frequency and interrater consistency from the pilot study, as it was based on only ten participants. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were assessed as measures of internal consistency. Coefficients higher than .70 indicated adequate internal consistency (Cortina, 1993; Green, Lissitz, Mulaik, 1977). I also checked items with a high percentage of missing responses, as that might have indicated that an item was difficult to interpret or answer. Finally, I examined the responses to the open-ended feedback question.

Analyses showed that all measures other than continuance commitment had alphas higher than .70. Although I detected and took note of the problematic items in the continuance commitment scale, I kept all items in the main study to see if the same pattern was replicated with a larger sample. Frequencies showed that a different approach was necessary to measure unemployment history of the participants. Initially, I aimed at measuring unemployment instances happened in the last five years, however the range was narrow (0 to 3 instances). Therefore, for the main study, I decided to ask number of unemployment instances since one has joined workforce. I was still able to identify unemployment experiences during the last five years by asking which year each the unemployment experience took place. As for missing responses, there were missing responses in questions related to salary. I also received feedback about participants having concerns about sharing detailed information about income and salary. There were four questions about income: total annual income, total annual bonuses, spouse's income (if married), and total household income. Although concerns were raised, I kept these questions in

the main study because participants were given the option to skip questions and salary was necessary to measure objective career success. Finally, I checked the length of the survey and saw that the survey length was acceptable and in line with what was listed in the informed consent and instructions. The average completion time was 40 minutes, ranging from 25 to 57 minutes.

Main Study Participants

For the main study, data were collected three times two months apart. Online surveys were prepared and distributed by SSI as it was described earlier. I prepared the surveys on Qualtrics and SSI contacted people in its participant pool (See Appendix A for the invitation email). Data was stored on Qualtrics and only I had access to data, therefore I did the quality check at each wave of data collection. Participation criteria was the same as the pilot study. Full-time employees from diverse jobs and industries, not including governmental organizations, were recruited. Individuals who were retired, owned their own businesses, or were employed in more than one job were not included (See Appendix B for screening questions).

I collected data from 300 participants in the first wave. Half of the sample was younger (between the ages 18 to 39) and the other half was middle aged and older (older than 40). This sample size was determined by using the software "Optimal Design" developed by Raudenbush (2011) which calculates sample size by taking parameters of targeted power, effect size, and intraclass correlation (ICC) into consideration. To calculate sample size by Optimal Design, a targeted power of (0.80), effect size of (0.60) and ICC of .30 were entered, based on recommendations by scholars (Auginis, 1995; Kath, Roesch, & Ehrhart, 2012). The results showed that around 250 total observations were required for an adequate power.

In the first wave, I had data from 300 participants, although 1,225 attempted to take the survey. Of these 1255, only 404 passed screening questions and, making the pass rate for screening questions 25%. This high rejection rate can be explained by two reasons. First, a quota was set for age to make sure that I had 150 people younger than 40 and 150 people 40 or older. After I recruited 150 participants in an age group participants of the same age group were automatically rejected because age was one of the screening questions. The second reason for high rejection rate was there were 275 participants who were working part-time, or had more than one job, therefore, they did not pass screening questions. Among the 404 participants who passed all screening questions 51 did not complete the survey making the response rate for the first wave 87%. Three hundred fifty-three answered all questions and 47 were not recruited because they did not pass the quality check. Quality checking was conducted by looking at levels of central tendency, severity, and leniency, time participants took to complete the survey, and number of missing responses. I used multiple criteria to decide whether responses from a participant should be removed from the sample. For example, when there seemed to be a severe case of response tendency I also checked the time it took for that participant to complete the survey. Moreover, data from twelve participants was not used due to high levels (more than 50%) of missing data. I still paid these twelve participants because they were given the option to skip questions, however, they were not invited to the second and third waves of the study. At the end of first wave I had data from 300 participants.

The 300 participants from the first wave were invited to the second wave two months later. Only 230 took the survey although multiple reminder emails were sent. Data from five participants was not used due to high levels of missing data. I had usable data from 225 participants for the second wave. Therefore, the response rate was 77% and the percent of usable

data was 75% for the second wave of the study. Three hundred participants who participated in the first and second wave were invited to participate in the third wave, 2 months after the second wave. One hundred and ninety-two participants responded to the survey. Data from 7 participants was discarded due to extreme level of response tendency and short completion time or missing data. At the end, I had 185 participants who participated in all three waves. Therefore, the response rate was 63% and the percent of usable data was 62% in the third wave of the study.

Among the 185 participants, 44% were younger than 40 and 56% were middle aged or older (M = 42.79, SD = 11.76). The age of the participants ranged from 26 to 71. There was almost an even split of those who experienced an unemployment episode since they joined workforce (53.5%) and those with no unemployment experience (46.5%). The number of unemployment instances ranged between 0 to 5. Of those who had at least one unemployment experience since they were in the workforce, 81% had only 1 unemployment episode. Average unemployment duration was 7 months (SD = 6.02) ranging from 1 month to 2 years. More than 90% of the participants did not experience any voluntary unemployment. Female participants made up 43% of the data. Seventy percent had a four-year college or a higher degree, 17% had two-year college degree, and 13% were high school graduates. The majority (69%) were married or living as married. Among those who were married or living as married, 70% had a spouse working full time. As for employment characteristics, the largest portion worked in retail (30%), followed by manufacturing (16%). The most prominent occupations were private sector managers (14%) and sales workers (13%). Forty-eight percent of the participants were managers. On average they had been in the workforce for 22.1 years (SD = 9.4), with an average occupational tenure of 15.4 years (SD = 3.05) and organizational tenure of 9.18 years (SD=

2.36). Mean and standard deviation for all variables including demographics can be seen in Tables 1a to 1c.

In the following section measures and psychometric qualities of measures are presented.

Main Study Measures

Psychological capital. I measured three indicators of career-related psychological capital: Protean career mindset, career self-efficacy and career adaptability. Protean career mindset was measured by using the Protean Career Attitudes scale developed by Briscoe and Hall (2005). Items of all measures can be seen in Appendix D. The protean career mindset measure had seven items with an alpha of $\alpha = .86$ (e.g., "I navigate my own career, based on my personal priorities, as opposed to my employer's priorities"). Career self-efficacy was measured using a ten item-scale developed by Kossek et al. (1998). The career self-efficacy scale had a reliability of $\alpha = .84$ (e.g., "When I make plans for my career, I am confident that I can make them work"). Career adaptability was measured using a six-item measure developed by Rottinghaus, Day, and Borgen (2005). All three scales were rated using a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, to 7=strongly agree).

Dimensionality of the three measures was also verified by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The goodness-of-fit was assessed with accepted indices, such as the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI) and chi-square (x^2). A good fit is obtained if RMSEA is equal to 0.06 or less, CFI is equal or greater than 0.95 and the x^2 statistic for the model fit is not significant, which means that the null hypothesis of a good fit to the data is not rejected (Kline, 2005). A three-factor protean mindset, career self-efficacy and career adaptability model was tested and confirmed to have good fit ($RMSEA = .01$, $CFI = .99$, $SRMR = 0.03$, $x^2(9) = 12.99$, $p > .05$) An alternative one-factor measure was tested by putting all

psychological capital measures together but the model did not have good fit (*RMSEA* = .11, *CFI* = .90, *SRMR* = 0.13), and the three-factor model had a better fit than the one-factor model (Δx^2 = 28.5, $p < .001$). (See Appendix D).

Employment history. I measured instances of unemployment as an indicator of employment history. I asked participants whether they had any experience of unemployment since they joined workforce and, if so, I asked whether it was voluntary or involuntary. I also asked about the year they experienced each unemployment period, duration of it, and whether they postponed working voluntarily. Over half of the participants reported that they had at least one unemployment experience since they joined workforce (53.5%). Of those who had unemployment experience since they entered the workforce, 81% had 1 unemployment episode. The average unemployment duration was 7 months (*SD* = 6.02) ranging from 1 month to 2 years. Less than 10% of the participants experienced a voluntary unemployment and less than 5% postponed looking for a job voluntarily (See Appendix D).

Social capital. To measure social capital, I used the social capital measure developed by Seibert et al. (2001), which measures quality and quantity of social networks in relation to career success (Jing et al., 2009; Liu & Shaffer, 2005). Participants first listed the initials of people in their social networks following this instruction: "Please list people who have acted to help your career by speaking on your behalf, providing you with information, career opportunities, advice or psychological support or with whom you have regularly spoken regarding difficulties at work, alternative job opportunities, or long-term career goals." For each initial listed, participants rated how close they were with that person on a scale from 1 to 3 (1 = distant, 2 = close, 3 = very close) (See Appendix D). The average number of people participants reported was *M* = 2.61, ranging from 1 to 5), with an average closeness of *M* = 2.02 (*SD* = 1.28).

Contextual factors. In the current study, I measured both distal and proximal contextual factors affecting career success. Proximal contextual factors were measured by using the measure of organizational support for career development (Sturges et al., 2002). The measure had seven items (e.g., "I have been given a mentor to help my career development") with a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) (α= .90) (Kraimer et al., 2011; Verbruggen, Sels, & Forrier, 2007).

Two market indices were used as indicators of distal factors: industrial unemployment rate and inflation rate. I used these two indices because past studies have shown that indices that are taken at the industry-level are better predictors of individuals' work-related outcomes, such as turnover intention, than national-level indices (Adler & Hilber, 2009). The indices that I use also show how strong and stable the macroeconomy is. These two indices are published monthly and I took the average of unemployment and inflation rates capturing the period of data collection. Averaging economic indices is a method that has been used in other longitudinal psychology studies because monthly economic changes may be related to little variance on individual factors and average values provide information on overall climate of economic uncertainty (Otto et al., 2011). I obtained industrial sector unemployment rates from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) website. Inflation rates were also published monthly by BLS, which were calculated using the current Consumer Price Index (CPI). The CPI rates are considered to be an indicator of inflation because they give information about goods prices and people's purchasing power (Goel & Ram, 2013). If the inflation rate is high, it typically means people's purchasing power is low. Unemployment rates ranged from 2.6 % (finance) to 6.6 % (hospitality). The average inflation rate during the period of data collection was 0.96 (See Table 1a).

Active coping behaviors. I measured two types of active coping behaviors: job search and job adaptation behaviors. Both of these measures had a response scale reflecting the frequency of the relevant behaviors within the last two months (1 = very infrequently to 7 = very frequently). To measure job search behavior, I used the job search intensity measure developed by Wanberg, Kanfer, and Banas (2002). This measure was adapted from the job search scale of Blau (1993), which did not include an item regarding internet job searches. This item was added since it is necessary to represent today's job search behavior. There are ten items in the adapted new measure (e.g., "Asked for a referral to someone who might have helpful information or advice about my career or industry") and reliability ranged from .89 to .91 across Time 1 and Time 3 (See Table 1b).

The measure of job adaptation tactics had four subscales (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). The first two are information seeking from coworkers and supervisor. In the original measure, information seeking from supervisor and coworker are combined. However, I separated them by asking the questions twice and stating in the instructions to consider information seeking from supervisor or coworkers. Each scale had eight items (e.g., "I initiated conversations with coworker/supervisor about how to handle problems on the job"). For information seeking from coworkers, reliabilities ranged between .90 and 93 across all data points. For information seeking from supervisor, reliabilities ranged between .87 to .90 (See Table 1b). The third subscale is the feedback seeking measure with three items (e.g., "I have sought feedback on my performance after assignments") (α = .92 to .92) and the third one is the relationship building measure with three items (e.g., "I tried to socialize and get to know my coworkers") (α = .86 to .88). A four-factor model, which included job search, and three active coping measures, was tested and confirmed to have good fit (*RMSEA* = .01, *CFI* = .98, *SRMR* =

0.01, $x^2(75) = 13.61$, $p > .05$). An alternative one-factor model was also tested by putting all coping items into one factor. Model fit was not good for the one-factor model (*RMSEA* = .11, *CFI* = .90, *SRMR* = 0.13; $\Delta x^2 = 113.2$, $p < .001$).

Organizational Commitment. I used the measure developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) to measure affective commitment. The measure has eight items rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree) and reliability was .70-.77. A sample item is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" (*RMSEA*=.03, *CFI*=.99, *SRMR*= 0.03, *x2*(3) =23.72, *p*>.05). In addition to affective commitment I also measured continuance commitment which represents the level of commitment based on employees' evaluation of cost and benefits of staying or leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). I tested continuance commitment by using the measure by Meyer and Allen (1997) which has eight items (e.g., "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.". The Cronbach alpha was very low (.55) and I was recommended to drop two items (e.g., "One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives") which would increase alpha to α=80-.82 (Erdheim, 2006; Gong et al., 2009; Luchak & Gellatly; 2007) (See Appendix D and E). Before dropping the items, a CFA model was tested. A better model fit was achieved with those two items taken out compared to when they are in (Δ *x2* =52.20, *p*>.05). A two-factor model with continuance and affective commitment was tested, and two items from continuance commitment was taken out to have acceptable fit indices (*RMSEA*=.05, *CFI*=.99, *SRMR*= 0.02, *x2*(17) =11.23, *p*>.05). A one-factor model in which the affective commitment and revised continuance commitment were in one factor did not have good fit (*RMSEA*=.21, *CFI*=.90, *SRMR*= 0.22; Δ *x2*=89.5, $p < .001$) (See Appendix D).

Job Satisfaction. In the current study, I used two job satisfaction measures: a global job satisfaction measure and a multi-faceted job satisfaction measure. To assess global job satisfaction I used the Job Satisfaction Subscale of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. The measure was developed by Cammann, Fichman, and Jenkins (1979; 1983) and it has 3 items (e.g., "All in all I am satisfied with my job") (α=84-.86). (Miner et al., 2012; Raver & Nishii, 2010; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010) (See Appendix D).

I used the job satisfaction measure of Spector to measure satisfaction with different facets of a job (1994). In my survey, I focused on six of the eight dimensions, each with four items: satisfaction with promotion (e.g., "There is really too little chance for promotion on my job"), contingent rewards (e.g., "When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive"), communication (e.g., "The goals of this organization are not clear to me"), coworkers (e.g., "I enjoy my coworkers"), nature of work (e.g. "My job is enjoyable"), and supervision (e.g., "I like my supervisor") (Cote & Morgan, 2002; Felps et al., 2009; Nielsen, Smyth, & Liu, 2011). The measure also had pay and benefits dimensions but I did not include these dimensions because pay and benefits were not likely to change during the two-month periods (See Appendix E).

Although reliability levels of facets were acceptable (ranging from α=.72-.80) CFA did not support a model with different dimensions (*RMSEA*=.11, *CFI*=.90, *SRMR*= 0.13; *x2*=77.2, $p < .001$). Instead a one-factor model was supported by taking global satisfaction items from each facet, such as "I like the people I work with" "I like my supervisor" (See Appendix D). The measure had reliability ranging from α=.85-.86 from T1 to T3 and acceptable fit indices compared to the six-factor model (*RMSEA*=.02, *CFI*=.98, *SRMR*= 0.02; $\Delta 2$=73.2, $p < .001$),

Career Success. I measured both objective and subjective career success. Objective indicators were measured by asking participants' job level and yearly income as described in the demographics section. I used the measure of Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) which has four items to measure subjective career success (e.g, "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career") (α=.76-.81; *RMSEA*=.03, *CFI*=.99, *SRMR*= 0.01, *x2*(2) =1.17, p>.05)) (De Vos et al., 2011; De Vos et al., 2011; Heslin, 2005; Hoffmans, Dries, & Pepermans, 2008). Participants answered the extent they agree with statements using a 7-point Likert Scale (1= totally disagree to 7=totally agree) (See Appendix D).

Measurement models. Separate measurement models were tested for between-person and within-person measures. The between-person measurement model had four factors in total: Career self-efficacy, adaptability, protean mindset, and organizational career support (*RMSEA*= .05, *CFI*= .97, *SRMR*= 0.04, $x^2(98)= 95.150$, $p > .05$). I also tested an alternative 1-factor model by combining all factors and comparing it to the 4-factor model. The x^2 difference test supported the 4-factor model ($\Delta x^2=123.5$, $p<.05$). The within-person measurement model had 10 factors, including coping behaviors and employment quality indicators. The model showed a good fit to the data (*RMSEA*= .05 *CFI*= .99, *SRMR*= 0.03, $x^2(178)= 206.3$, $p > .05$). An alternative one-factor model was not supported based on worse goodness of fit indices (*RMSEA*=.09, *CFI*= .72) and results of the chi-square difference test ($\Delta x^2(178)= 274.5$, $p<.05$). Based on these CFA findings, the final versions of all the measures and the items used in this study are listed in Appendix D. Original versions of the measures that were altered based on CFA can be seen in Appendix E.

Control variables. Some variables were controlled because of consistent empirical proof of their relation to some key variables. These relations were confirmed by the data collected and analyses were run with and without control variables. The variables that controlled for are

gender, education, and tenure which were found to be moderately to highly correlated with attitudes, coping behaviors, and career outcomes (See Table 1c). Gender has repeatedly been found to be related to career outcomes. For example, older and middle-aged females have longer unemployment durations than males and larger decreases in salary after reemployment compared to their male counterparts (Green & Ferber, 2008; Slack & Lenson, 2008). Moreover, studies conducted by Lipmann (2008), Cheng and Chan (2008), and Armstrong-Stassen (2001) showed women were more likely to experience displacement compared to males and women reported higher job insecurity. There is also research on coping differences as a factor of gender, however, gender differences in coping behaviors are inconsistent, and not definitive as gender has been found to be a predictor of support-seeking behaviors (Mckee-Ryan et al., 2005). Women perceive having inadequate resources for coping with threatening job situations and are less likely to tend to turn to others for help (Lengua & Stormshak, 2000; Mckee-Ryan et al., 2005). This can also be related to the network and support system women have at work (Cananaugh et al., 2000; Vinokur & Schul, 2002). The current study also controlled tenure, which was operationalized as total number of year in the workforce. Tenure and education are confounded with job attitudes (Rambur et al, 2005; Williams, McDaniel, & Ngyuen, 2006) and career outcomes in the literature (Buchel & Mertens, 2004; Rodriguez, & Zavodny, 2003) because they are proxies of work skills, knowledge, and abilities (Pennings, Lee, & van Witteloostuijn, 1998). Moreover, people who have higher levels of education tend to have shorter unemployment durations, lower job insecurity, and higher satisfaction with pay compared to those with lower levels of education (Liu & Xiao, 2006; Williams et al, 2006).

Main Study Results

Preliminary analyses. Hypotheses were tested conducting random coefficient modeling (RCM) using the hierarchical linear modeling software (HLM, version 7.0) and regression using Hayes's macro Process (Hayes, 2013). RCM is used if data are nested, where lower level observations are nested within higher-level units (Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2004). To justify the aggregated nature of the data in conducting RCM, I tested whether between-person variance was significant and the intraclass correlation (ICC) was high enough. ICC, the ratio of the between-person variance to the sum of the between and within-person variances of an outcome variable (Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2004), ranges from zero to 1 and, in terms of a cutoff value, LeBreton and Senter (2008) note that a value around .35 is considered large.

In the current study, repeated measures observations were expected to be nested within participants; and the study tested both within-person changes (Level 1) and between-person changes (Level 2). Level 1, within-person constructs that were expected to show variance every two months were employment quality, active coping behaviors, and career success. Level 2, between-person variables were taken as resources and contextual factors. Personal resources measured were psychological, human, and social capital. Contextual factors measured were job market conditions and organizational support for career management.

The following are Level 1 and Level 2 equations for within- and between-person variations (Raudenbush & Sky, 2004).

$$\text{Level 1: } \gamma_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij} \qquad (1)$$

$$\text{Level 2: } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + U_{0j} \qquad (2)$$

The Level 1 equation represents the within-person and the Level 2 equation represents the between-person level estimates. γ_{ij} refers to the dependent variable for participant i. β_{0j} is the

Level 1 intercept, which is, for example, employment quality score at Tn. r_{ij} represents the Level 1 residual, which is the variance related to and can be explained by within person differences across time not explained by the mean employment quality score. γ_{00} is the grand mean across all observations and all participants. U_{0j} is the residual term. U_{oj} is the portion of person j's mean employment quality score that is not explained by the grand mean. This model is called a null model (or intercept-only model). In null models, there is no independent variable at Level 1 and Level 2. The model includes a dependent variable and Level-1 random intercept. For a significant between-person variance the U_{0j} value is expected to be significant (Hofmann et al., 2000). The significance of U_{0j} means that there is a significant level of between-person variance in the Level 1 DV and that the data has a nested nature, in which observations and their errors are similar and correlated. I tested the null model for coping behaviors and employment quality indicators which were expected to change across different time points.

The results showed that U_{0j} values were significant for coping behaviors and employment quality, where U_{0j} ranged between 0.19 to 0.26 ($p \prec .05$). Therefore, the assumption of non-independence was confirmed. The ICC results showed ICC values for coping behaviors and employment quality indicators were high enough, ranging between 0.42 and 0.72.

For indirect and conditional effects, I conducted regression using Hayes's macro Process (Hayes, 2013), because the macro provides bootstrapping results (MacKinnon, Lockwook, & Wiliams, 2004). This method has advantages over other methods in that it does not assume that the distribution of the indirect effect is normal (Preacher & Selig, 2012). Bootstrapping, a resampling method in which a sampling distribution of the multilevel indirect effect is simulated (MacKinnon, Lockwook, & Wiliams, 2004), draws random unique samples from the population, calculates the estimates for the indirect effect of the IV on the DV, and gives the distribution of

these estimates. The test provides a confidence interval, giving a significance level of .05 for the indirect effect of the IV on DV. If zero is not included in the confidence interval, the results indicate the indirect effect is significantly different from zero (Zhang et al., 2009).

As a final step before testing the hypotheses, I ran zero-order correlations to examine the relationships between all variables. Table 1a illustrates correlation results for between-person variables (e.g., correlation between protean mindset and career self-efficacy). The correlation results showed that psychological capital indicators were moderately and significantly correlated with each other, ranging from $r = .12$ to $r = .31$ ($p < .05$). Table 1b illustrates correlation results for within-person variables (e.g., correlation between job search behavior at T1, and job satisfaction at T1), which were tested at T1, T2, and T3. The results demonstrated that values of a variable across time (i.e., job search behavior at T1, T2, and T3) were highly correlated with each other (r's ranging from .52 to .74, $p < .05$). For example, correlation of job search behavior at T1 with job search behavior at T2 was $r = .73$, and its correlation with job search behavior at T3 was $r = .70$. Results also showed that organizational career support had high positive correlations with both global and facet job satisfaction measures, relationship building, and perceived career success at all times (with r ranging from .43 – .59, $r < .05$). Distal contextual factors (inflation rate and unemployment rate) were not correlated with any of the variables (Table 1c).

Hypothesis testing.

Resources and contextual factors as predictors of career success. Hypotheses 1a and 1b stated that personal resources (i.e., psychological capital and social capital) would be related to career success (objective and subjective career success). Less than 10 participants reported changes in their objective career success; namely, organizational level and salary. Therefore, I

excluded objective career support in HLM analyses. Instead, I tested these separately using linear regression, because direct relationships between resources, contextual factors, and objective career success were tested. Below, I will present HLM results for perceived career success first, then present regression results for objective career success.

For each dependent variable, psychological capital and social capital were tested separately as predictors. Total years in the workforce, gender, and education level were controlled, but equations were run with and without control variables.

Level 1 Model: $\gamma_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$ (3)

Level 2 Model: $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}$ (Gender) + γ_{02} (Education level) + γ_{03} (Quality of social capital) + γ_{04} (Quantity of social capital)+ u_{0j} (4)

At Level 1, γij represents the DV, i.e., perceived career success; β_{0j} is the Level 1 intercept, which is, career success score at Tn. r_{ij} represents the Level 1 residual, which is the variance not explained by the Level 1 intercept. At Level 2, γ_{00} is the grand mean across all observations and allof the participants. γ_{01} and γ_{02} are the coefficients (slopes) for the Level 2 control variables (i.e., gender and education level). γ_{03} and γ_{04} are the coefficients for the Level 2 independent variables (e.g., quality and quantity of social network). U_{0j} is the residual term. U_{o}j is the portion of person j's mean career success that is not explained by the grand mean. This is an intercepts-as-outcomes model in which the Level 1 random coefficients vary across Level 2 and are called random effects. The Level 2 coefficients are called fixed effects. To support the hypothesis γ03and γ04 needed to be significant showing that the difference in the Level 1 intercept due to the change of social capital was significant when controlled for gender and education level.

HLM analyses do not provide a true R-squared value, so pseudo R-squared values were calculated for the supported hypotheses to identify the effect sizes. I used two separate formulas to calculate the within-person and between-person variance, explained by the IVs (Kath, Roesch, & Ehrhart, 2012). Pseudo R^2 results are presented in each HLM result table.

Level 1 pseudo $R^2 = (\sigma^2_{\text{without predictor}} - \sigma^2_{\text{with predictor}}) / \sigma^2_{\text{without predictor}}$

Level 2 pseudo $R^2 = (\tau_{00\text{ without predictor}} - \tau_{00\text{with predictor}}) / \tau_{00\text{without predictor}}$

HLM also provides a comparison of variance-covariance components. This likelihood-ratio test compares the deviance statistic between the baseline model and the model with predictors added. The test is based on the difference between the deviance statistics of the two models, which have a chi-square distribution. If the p-value was significant that indicates that the fit was significantly improved by adding the predictor to the model, with only control variables. The model comparison results were also reported.

The results for Hypothesis 1a showed that the model for psychological capital (i.e, career self-efficacy, protean mindset, and adaptability) predicting perceived career success had a better fit than the baseline model ($x^2(3)= 18.6$, $p<.05$) although not every predicted relationship was significant. Among the three psychological capital variables, only protean mindset predicted perceived career success ($\gamma= .61$, $p<.05$; Table 2). Career-self efficacy and adaptability did not predict perceived career success. Using regression, I also tested whether psychological capital predicted objective career success (i.e., job level and salary). There R^2 is a measure that represents the percentage of variance explained by the overall regression model and F-test statistics show the results for testing the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between the predictors and criterion. I reported standardized and unstandardized beta coefficients, which represent how strongly each predictor variable influences the criterion variable (Darlington &

Hayes, 1990). First, I tested relationships, by taking job level and salary as separate outcomes, and then calculating a composite score by standardizing job level and salary. The results showed that the indicators of psychological capital did not predict job level, salary, or the composite objective career success score (See Table 3). For Hypothesis 1b, I tested the relationship between social capital (i.e., quality and quantity of network) and career success. HLM results showed that quality and quantity of social capital did not predict perceived career success (See Table 2). Moreover, the regression results were not significant when the outcome was job level, salary, or the composite career success score (See Table 3). Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was partially supported by the results and Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

In Hypotheses 2a and 2b it was expected that proximal (i.e., organizational support for career management) and distal (unemployment rate and inflation rate) contextual factors would be related to career success (perceived and objective career success). As the only proximal contextual factor, organizational career support positively predicted perceived career success (γ= .50, $p < .05$; Table 2), confirmed by an improved model fit ($x^2(3) = 79.19$, $p < .05$). Regression results showed that organizational career support predicted composite objective career support (β= .11, $p < .05$). Distal contextual factors, namely industrial unemployment rate and inflation rate, did not predict perceived or objective career success. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a was partially supported by the results and Hypothesis 2b was not supported (See Tables 2 and 3) because only organizational career success predicted both perceived and objective career success.

Hypothesis 2c proposed that effects of the proximal factor (i.e., organizational career support) on career success (i.e., perceived and objective) would be larger than the effects of distal factors (i.e., salary and job level). To test this hypothesis, I conducted separate analyses for perceived and objective career success; I used HLM to test perceived career success as an

outcome, and regression to test objective career success as an outcome. For perceived career success, I compared R^2 and deviance statistics separately for proximal and distal factors. When I entered distal factors into the baseline model, the R^2 change was minimal and less than 1%. The deviance statistics indicated no improvement in model fit ($x^2(7) = 11.19$, $p > 05$). When I entered organizational career support into the baseline model with control variables, the R^2 change was 18% and deviance statistics indicated a better model fit ($x^2(3) = 98.43$, $p < .05$).

To compare effects of proximal and distal factors on objective career support, I checked the confidence interval (CI) for the difference between regression coefficients, using Cohen and colleagues' recommended method (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Following this method, I (1) calculated the difference between two coefficients; (2) calculated the standard error of the difference between two coefficients; (3) transformed the standard error term into a *z* score, using the multiplier appropriate for the size of CI; (4) multiplied the standard error by 1.96 for a 95% CI; and (5) calculated the confidence interval by subtracting and adding the standardized SE value to the difference between coefficients. If the CI did not include zero, I determined the difference between coefficients as significant. The four-stage process is summarized below.

1) $B_{V\text{-}W} = (B_v - B_w.)$

2) $$SE_{B_v - B_w} = \sqrt{(SE_{B_v})^2 + (SE_{B_w})^2}$$

3) $Z = (SE_{BV\text{-}BW}) * 1.96$

4) $CI = B_{v\text{-}w} - Z;\ B_{v\text{-}w} + Z$

Organizational career support predicted only the composite objective career success measures; therefore, the comparison was done taking only the composite score into account. The results showed organizational career support as having a stronger relationship with objective career success composite score (*CI*= .01-.12) compared to distal factors did. Therefore, the

results supported Hypothesis 2c. Organizational career support was a stronger predictor of both perceived and objective career success than distal factors. Table 4 summarizes the results of this section.

Resources and contextual factors as predictors of coping behaviors. In Hypotheses 3a and 3b relationships of resources (e.g., psychological capital) with coping behaviors (e.g., job search behavior) are tested, controlling for total number of years in the workforce, education, and gender. I ran separate models for psychological capital indicators (i.e., protean mindset, career self-efficacy and adaptability) and social capital indicators (i.e., quantity and quality of social network), predicting the five coping behaviors (i.e., job search, information seeking from coworkers, information seeking from supervisor, relationship building, and feedback seeking). The results showed some of the relationships were significant and of those that were significant all were in the expected direction (See Table 5). When psychological capital indicators were predictors, the chi-square results were significant and ranged between $x^2(3) = 71.97$ and 170.64 ($p < .05$) for the model although not every relationship predicted was significant. Adaptability positively predicted two out of five coping behaviors: the frequency of job search ($\gamma = .30$, $p < .05$) and relationship building behaviors ($\gamma = .19$, $p < .05$). Career self-efficacy predicted only job search behavior ($\gamma = .11$, $p < .05$). Protean mindset predicted four of the five coping behaviors: feedback seeking ($\gamma = .39$, $p < .05$), information seeking from supervisor ($\gamma = .30$, $p < .05$), information seeking from coworkers ($\gamma = .33$, $p < .05$), and relationship building ($\gamma = .47$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3a was partially supported; the predicted relationships were significant only for some of the psychological capital indicators and coping variables. Overall, among psychological capital indicators, protean mindset was the strongest predictor of coping

behaviors. Among coping behaviors, relationship building was the most strongly predicted outcome.

Hypothesis 3b proposed that social capital (i.e., quality and quantity of the social network) would predict coping behaviors (i.e., job search, information seeking from coworkers, information seeking from supervisor, relationship building, and feedback seeking). When predictors were social capital indicators, the chi-square results ranged between $x^2(2) = 22.61$ and 96.39 ($p < .05$) and were significant. Quantity of social network predicted two out of five coping behaviors: information seeking from supervisor ($\gamma = .20$, $p < .05$), and job search ($\gamma = .20$, $p < .05$; see Table 6). Quality of social network predicted four out of five coping behaviors: information seeking from supervisor ($\gamma = .18$, $p < .05$), from coworker ($\gamma = .23$, $p < .05$), relationship building ($\gamma = .28$, $p < .05$) and feedback seeking ($\gamma = .22$, $p < .05$). The only coping behavior it did not predict was job search behavior. All significant findings were positive and in the expected direction; therefore, Hypothesis 3b was partially supported. Overall, quality of social network was a stronger predictor of coping behavior than quantity of social network, and relationship building behavior was the most strongly predicted coping behavior. These results are shown in Table 6.

In Hypotheses 4a to 4c, relationships of contextual factors (e.g., organizational support for career management) with coping behaviors (i.e., job search, information seeking from coworkers, information seeking from supervisor, relationship building, and feedback seeking) are tested, controlling for total number of years in the workforce, education, and gender were controlled. Organizational career support as the only proximal contextual factor predicted all five coping behaviors: feedback seeking ($\gamma = .32$, $p < .05$), information seeking from supervisor ($\gamma = .30$, $p < .05$) and coworker ($\gamma = .20$, $p < .05$), relationship building ($\gamma = .50$, $p < .05$), and job

search (γ= .17, $p < .05$; see Table 7). The results showing improved model-fits ranged between $x^2(3) = 35.71$ and 118.18 ($p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was fully supported; organizational career support positively predicted all coping behaviors. Hypothesis 4b was not supported; distal contextual factors did not predict any of the coping behaviors.

Hypothesis 4c proposed that the proximal contextual factor (i.e., organizational career support) would have stronger relationships with coping behaviors (i.e., job search, information seeking from coworkers, information seeking from supervisor, relationship building, and feedback seeking) than would distal factors (i.e., job level and salary). To test this hypothesis, I compared changes in R^2 and deviance statistics separately for proximal and distal factors as I did in Hypothesis 2c. I compared the model with predictors to the baseline model. When organizational career support was entered into the model, the deviance statistics indicated improvement for all coping behaviors with chi-square results ranging from $x^2(3) = 82.12$ to 122.4 ($p < .05$). The changes in R^2 ranged between 11% and 20%. When I entered distal factors into the baseline model with control variables, R^2 changes were all minimal ranging from 0.2% to 1%. Moreover, deviance statistics were not significant and ranged between $x^2(5) = 11.23$ to 20.3 ($p > .05$), indicating no model improvement over the baseline model for any of the coping behaviors. Therefore, the results supported Hypothesis 4c. Table 8 shows the summary of results for this section.

Testing age and employment history as moderators: In Hypotheses 5 and 6, I proposed age and employment history would moderate the relationships between personal resources and coping behaviors (See Figure 6). As was mentioned earlier, age was measured in years, and thus treated as a continuous variable in the analyses. Gender was controlled, but years in the workforce and education level were not, because they were highly correlated with age. The

moderation was tested using Hayes's macro Process (Hayes, 2013), as mentioned earlier. The significance of the coefficients was used to interpret the relationships and interactions (See Tables 9a to 9d). R^2 changes represented whether there was a significant change in the effect of IV on DV when moderators were included in the model. Change in R^2 must be significant for a significant moderation. Moreover, statistics, shown in Tables 9a and 9d, demonstrate for which values of the moderator the conditional effect of independent variable on dependent variable is significant. Using the Johnson-Neyman technique, I defined the region of significance for each finding where a significant moderation was supported (Hayes, 2002). Using this technique one can see conditional effects for different values of the moderator. The region of significance shows the range of values of the moderator the moderation is significant. I also report confidence intervals to confirm the significance of conditional effects. If the confidence interval did not include zero, then I considered it significant. Figures 7a through 7f further interpret direction and the nature of interaction, visualizing the effects of X on Y.

Tables 9a to 9d and Figures 7a through 7f show results for moderations. The correlation between age and unemployment instances was r=.25, which was a moderate correlation. The results showed that age moderated the relationships between quality of social capital and job search behavior ($\Delta R2$ (F (5, 180) = 5.23 and 6.12, $p < .05$ at Time 2 and Time 3). Main effects of age (β= -.41, .33, $p < .05$ at T2 and T3) and quality of social capital (β= .27, .23, $p < .05$ at T2 and T3) were significant. Interaction was significant when participant age was 41 years and above (Time 2: Z= .66, *CI* [.36, .96]; Time 3: Z= .38, *CI* [.06, .86]; see Table 9a). Job search behavior increased for participants 41 and above if they had higher quality social networks, which implied higher social closeness. The level of social closeness for younger participants (39 and below) made no difference in their level of job search behaviors (see Figure 7a).

A significant moderator for many of the tested relationships was the number of unemployment periods participants experienced since they joined workforce, referred to briefly as unemployment instances. Although unemployment instances did not moderate the relationships between every resource and coping behaviors that I had in the study, it was a moderator for many, which I summarize below. These moderations were significant both in Time 2 and Time 3, and were in the same direction.

First, unemployment instances moderated the relationship between career self-efficacy and job search behavior. Main effects and interactions were significant (ΔR^2 F (5,180) = 7.22 and 5.12, $p < .05$ at Time 2 and T3). The interaction was significant when employees had one unemployment instance (Time 2: Z= -.65, *CI* [-.91, -.38]; Time 3: Z= -.55, *CI* [-.89, -.21]; see Table 9a). For people with two or more unemployment instances no change appeared in the relationship between career self-efficacy and job search. However, for people who were unemployed only once there was a negative relationship. Participants who had higher self-efficacy showed fewer job search behaviors (See Figure 7b). Unemployment instances also moderated the relationship between career self-efficacy and information seeking from coworkers (ΔR^2 F (5,180) = 6.01 and 5.12, $p < .05$ at Time 2 and T3). The interaction was significant when people experienced two or more unemployment gaps (Time 2: Z= .39, *CI* [.06, .71]; Time 3*:* Z= .21, *CI* [.04,.41]); see Table 9b). Among those with two or more unemployment instances, people with high career self-efficacy carried out more information seeking from coworkers. For people with one employment instance or no unemployment, the relationship between career self-efficacy and information seeking did not change, depending on participants' self-efficacy level (see Figure 7c).

Adaptability had a significant interaction with unemployment instances in predicting participant's information seeking from coworkers, and in predicting information seeking from supervisor, at T2 and T3, and these results appeared in the same direction. Interactions were significant both for predicting information seeking from coworkers (ΔR^2 ($F(5,180) = 4.11$ and 4.12, $p < .05$ at Time 2 and T3) and information seeking from supervisor (ΔR^2 (F(5,180) = 3.30 and 6.23, $p < .05$ at Time 2 and T3), when people had more unemployment gaps (See Table 9c). In the case of information seeking from coworkers, the interaction was significant for people who had at least two or more unemployment gaps (Time 2: Z= -.36, *CI* [-.57, -.15]; Time 3: Z= -.26, *CI* [-.48, -.04) (See Table 9b). This implies that people with at least two gaps showed less information seeking behaviors if they were more adaptable. For people with lower unemployment instances, no change for high and low adaptability levels appeared (See Figure 7d). As for predicting information seeking from supervisor, the interaction was significant when people had two or more experiences of unemployment (Time 2: Z= -.38, *CI* [-.38, -.01]; Time 3: Z= -.33, [*CI* -.76, -.003]) (See Table 9c). For people with one unemployment experience, there was no change between high and low adaptability, and information seeking from supervisor. However, people with two or more unemployment instances showed less frequent supervisor information seeking behaviors if they had lower adaptability (See Figure 7e). Therefore, overall for Hypotheses 5 and 6, the results demonstrate that the moderation model was partially supported. The number of employment gaps was a common moderator between resources and coping behaviors in contrast to age.

Coping behaviors predicting employment quality and career success. Hypotheses 7a and 7b proposed that coping behaviors at Tn (i.e., job search, information seeking from coworkers, and from supervisor, relationship building, and feedback seeking) would predict

employment quality (i.e., global and facet job satisfaction, continuance and affective organizational commitment) and career success (perceived and objective career success) at Tn. I ran models separately for each employment quality variable, controlling for years in the workforce and gender. Relationships regarding objective career success were measured using linear regression as was outlined in Hypotheses 1 and 2; however, results showed that coping behaviors did not predict job level, salary, or the composite objective career success score (See Table 12)

For the relationships of coping behaviors with perceived career success and employment quality, some of the relationships were significant and in the expected direction across time. Model comparison tests confirmed increase in model fit for all significant models. Chi-square results ranged between $x^2(3) = 92.3$ and 216.13 ($p < .05$). Job search had negative relationships with two out of five outcomes: affective commitment ($\gamma = .-15$, $p < .05$) and global job satisfaction ($\gamma = -.16$, $p < .05$; see Table 11a). Information seeking from coworkers also predicted two out of five outcomes: predicted perceived career success ($\gamma = .11$, $p < .05$); and faceted job satisfaction ($\gamma = .13$, $p < .05$; see Table 11b). Information seeking from supervisor predicted two out of five outcomes: faceted job satisfaction ($\gamma = .18$, $p < .05$) and perceived career success ($\gamma = .10$, $p < .05$; see Table 11c). Relationship building positively predicted three out of five outcomes: perceived career success ($\gamma = .11$, $p < .05$), faceted ($\gamma = .10$, $p < .05$) and global job satisfaction. ($\gamma = .27$, $p < .05$; see Table 11d).

Thus, the results showed that Hypotheses 7a and 7b were partially supported; the proposed relationships were significant for some coping behaviors and employment quality variables (see Tables 11a to 11e). Overall, perceived career success and faceted job satisfaction were the most predicted variables by coping behaviors. Relationship building was the most

frequent predictor of employment quality among all coping behaviors. Feedback seeking behavior did not predict any employment quality variables.

Hypotheses 8a to 8c proposed that the frequency of active coping behaviors (e.g., job search behavior) at T2 and T3 would be related to changes in employment quality, between T1 and T2 (ΔT1-T2), T2 and T3 (ΔT2-T3), and T1 and T3 (ΔT1-T3). Multivariate analyses were conducted to view differences across time for all within-person variables (e.g., job search behavior and job satisfaction). The results showed no change for any of the within-person variables across any time points (see Table 13). Changes in means ranged between 0.0 and 0.10, and F values ranged between $F(2, 183) = 0.06$ and $F(2, 183) = 1.22$ ($p > .05$); therefore, Hypothesis 8 was not supported (see Table 13). Table 14 shows the summary of results for this section.

Resources and contextual factors predicting employment quality. In Hypotheses 9a and 9b relationships of resources (i.e., psychological capital and social capital) with employment quality (i.e, global and faceted job satisfaction, continuance and affective commitment) are tested. Gender, education level, and year since participants joined workforce were controlled. I ran separate models for psychological and social capital as predictors. When the indicators of psychological capital (i.e., protean mindset, career self-efficacy, and adaptability) were taken as predictors of employment quality, the model fit ranged between $x^2(3) = 29.24$ and 160.24 ($p < .05$). Although not all predicted relationships were significant the ones that were significant were in the positive and expected direction. Among psychological capital indicators, career self-efficacy predicted two of the four indicators of employment quality: affective commitment ($\gamma = .46$, $p < .05$), and global job satisfaction ($\gamma = .29$, $p < .05$; see Table 15a). Protean mindset positively predicted three of the four indicators of employment quality: faceted job satisfaction

(γ= .52, $p < .05$), global job satisfaction (γ= .50, $p < .05$), and continuance commitment (γ= .33, $p < .05$; see Table 15a). When social capital indicators (i.e., quality and quantity of social network) were the predictors of employment quality, the model fit ranged between $x^2(2) = 32.6$ and 113.84 ($p < .05$). Quality of network predicted two of four outcomes: faceted (γ= .13, $p < .05$) and global job satisfaction (γ= .14, $p < .05$; see Table 15b). Quantity of network predicted none of the employment quality indicators. Therefore, Hypotheses 9a and 9b were partially supported; the proposed relationships were significant for some of the resources and employment quality variables. Overall, protean mindset was the strongest predictor of employment quality. Global job satisfaction was the most predicted employment quality indicator.

In Hypotheses 10a and 10b relationships of proximal (i.e., organizational career support) and distal contextual factors (i.e., inflation and unemployment rates) with employment quality (e.g., job satisfaction) are tested. Organizational career support predicted all of the employment quality indicators: affective commitment (γ= .17, $p < .05$), continuance commitment (γ= .19, $p < .05$), faceted job satisfaction (γ= .50, $p < .05$), and global job satisfaction (γ= .53, $p < .05$; see Table 15c). The model fit ranged between $x^2(3) = 35.79$ and 191.83 ($p < .05$). Distal factors predicted none of the employment quality indicators.

Hypothesis 10c proposed that proximal contextual factors would predict employment quality indicators stronger than would distal factors; the results supported the hypothesis. As for Hypothesis 10c, I tested this hypothesis by comparing changes in R^2 and deviance statistics, separately, for proximal and distal factors. I tested a baseline model with only control variables. When organizational career support was entered into the model, the deviance statistics indicated improvement for employment quality variables, with chi-square results ranging from $x^2(3) = 72.21$ to 90.12 ($p < .05$). The changes in R^2 ranged between 10% and 15%. When I entered distal

factors into the baseline model with control variables, all R^2 changes were minimal, ranging from .01% to 1%. Moreover, deviance statistics were not significant and ranged between $x^2(5) = 12.7$ to 29.32 ($p > .05$), indicating no model improvement over baseline model for any of employment quality indicators. Therefore, Hypotheses 10a and 10b were partially supported because only proximal contextual factors predicted employment quality. Table 16 shows the summary of results for this section.

Coping behaviors mediating relationships between resources and employment quality. Hypothesis 11 stated that coping behaviors at T2 and T3 would mediate the relationships between individual factors (e.g., protean career mindset) and employment quality (e.g., job satisfaction) at T2 and T3. I used the Process macro, entering multiple mediators, one predictor and one criterion, into the model. Process provided multiple metrics to interpret moderation. The output provides significance tests for the following effects:

1) Effect of IV on DV
2) Effect of IV to mediator
3) Effect of IV on DV while controlling for IV
4) Effect of IV to DV while controlling for the mediator

Although, according to Baron and Kenny (1986), all four effects are expected to be significant, recent literature states that total effect (effect of IV on DV) need not be (Mackinnon et al., 2002). Thus, a mediation occurs if the effect of the IV on the DV is zero when we control for the mediator; or if the effect of the IV on the DV is smaller than the direct effect of the IV on the DV, but remains larger than zero. In addition to providing metrics on direct and indirect effects, the Process macro also provides bootstrapping results (Preacher & Selig, 2012) of which the nature and advantages were described earlier.

Results indicated that the protean mindset significantly predicted information seeking from coworkers (β = .33, .30, p < .05 at T2 and T3), which in turn predicted global job satisfaction (β = .27, .30, p < .05 at T2 and T3; see Tables 17a and 17f). The results thus supported the mediation hypothesis. The protean mindset was no longer predicting global job satisfaction after controlling for the mediator (information seeking from coworkers). The indirect effect was tested using bootstrap estimating approach (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The bootstrapping results indicated a small indirect effect of .10 at T2 (*CI* = .01, .23) and .10 at T3 (*CI*= .04, .28). Job search behavior mediated the relationship between adaptability and global job satisfaction. Adaptability positively predicted job search behavior (β = .32, .28, p < .05 at T2 and T3), which in turn negatively predicted job satisfaction (β= -43, -39, p < .05 at T2 and T3). The relationship between adaptability and global job satisfaction was no longer significant when job search behavior was controlled. The indirect effect was small, .14 at T2 (*CI*= -.26, -.05) and .12 at T3 (*CI*= -.15, -.02; see Tables 17a and 17f).

As expected, both quantity of social networks and quality of social networks had significant positive indirect relationships with global job satisfaction. Quantity of social network predicted two mediators: information seeking from coworkers (β= .16, .12, p < .05 at T2 and T3) and relationship seeking (β = .27, .37, p < .05 at T2 and T3). The IV to DV relationship was not significant after controlling for the mediators. Indirect effect sizes were small—.10 at T2 *(CI* = .01, .19) and .13 at T3 (*CI*= .01, .15)- when information seeking from coworkers was the mediator. The indirect effect was .10 at T2 (*CI*=.02, .19) and .13 at T3 (*CI*= .01, .23), when relationship building was the mediator (see Tables 17a and 17f).

The relationship between quality of social network and global job satisfaction was mediated by relationship building and information seeking from coworkers. Quality of social

network was positively related to information seeking from coworkers (β = .22, .24, p < .05 at T2 and T3) and relationship building (β = .30, .28, p < .05 at T2 and T3). Information seeking from coworkers had a positive relationship with global job satisfaction (β = .45, .41, p < .05 at T2 and T3). Relationship building had a positive relationship (β= .47, .45 p < .05 at T2 and T3) with global job satisfaction. At T2, the indirect effect of quality of social network on global job satisfaction was small—.10 (*CI*= .01, .20) and .15 (*CI*= .06, .29) —when the mediators were information seeking from coworkers and relationship building, respectively (see Table 17a). At T3, the indirect effect of quality of social network on global job satisfaction was also small—.11 (*CI*= .03, .17) and .12 (*CI*= .04, .28)- when the mediators were information seeking from coworker and relationship building, respectively (see Table 17f).

Relationship building was the mediator between three of the personal resource indicators (i.e., protean mindset, organizational career support and social capital) and faceted job satisfaction (see Tables 17b and Table 17g). Protean mindset positively predicted relationship building (β= .37, .40, p < .05 at T2 and T3). The small indirect effects of .19 at T2 (*CI*= .09, .34) and .10 at T2 (*CI*= .03, .20) were confirmed by bootstrapping. As expected, quantity of people in the social network positively predicted relationship building (β= .16, .26, p < .05 at T2 and T3). The indirect effects of .11 at T2 *(CI*= .03, .24) and T3 .06 (*CI*= .01, .17) were significant but small (see Tables 17a and 17g).

The relationship between protean mindset and career success had two mediators: information seeking from coworkers and relationship building. Protean mindset positively predicted information seeking from coworkers (β= .23, .26, p < .05 at T2 and T3) and relationship building *(*β = .37, .40, p < .05 at T2 and T3), which in turn had positive relationships with career success. The indirect effect of protean mindset was small. It was .08 at T2 (*CI*= .01,

.24) and .06 at T3 (*CI*= .02, .28) for information seeking from coworkers (See Table 17e). The indirect effect was .14 at T2 (*CI*= .02, .29) and .12 at T3 (*CI*= 0.4, .24) for relationship building (See Table 17j). Therefore, the results partially supported Hypothesis 11. Overall, relationship building was the most frequent mediator between personal resources, followed by information seeking from coworkers. Among personal resources, protean mindset and quality of network were the most common variables in predicting employment quality, directly and indirectly.

Hypothesis 12 proposed that coping behaviors at Tn would mediate the relationship of distal and proximal contextual factors (e.g., organizational support for career management) with employment quality at Tn (e.g., job satisfaction). Organizational career support positively predicted three mediators: job search behavior (β= .26, .23, p < .05 at T2 and T3), information seeking from coworkers (β= .28, .29, p < .05 at T2 and T3), and relationship building (β= .42, .51, p < .05 at T2 and T3). Indirect effect of organizational support on global satisfaction was -.11 at T2 (*CI*= -.23, -.02) and -.10 at T3 (*CI*= -.13, -.04), when the mediator was job search behavior. The indirect effect was small, both at T2 and T2. It was .08 at T2 (*CI*= .02, .21) and .05 at T3 (*CI*= .10, - .30) when information seeking from coworkers was the mediator. The indirect effect was .14 at T2 (*CI*= .02, .31) and .16 at T3 (*CI*= .04, .31) when relationship building was the mediator (See Tables 17a and 17f). Organizational career support predicted relationship building as a mediator to predict faceted job satisfaction. Indirect relationships were positive as expected (β= .20, .21, p < .05 at T2 and T3); the indirect effect was larger when compared to other effect sizes in the study. The effect size was .22 was at T2 (*CI*= .09, .34) (See Table 17b) and .15 at T3 (*CI*= .05 .27) (See Table 17g). Job search mediated the relationship between organizational career support and affective commitment. Organizational career support positively predicted job search behavior (β= .26, .22, p < .05 at T2 and T3), which in turn negatively

predicted affective commitment (β= -.42, .37, p < .05 at T2 and T3). The indirect relationship was tested with bootstrapping and found as significant but small. The effect size was -.15 at T2 (*CI*= -.31, -.03) and -.18 at T3 *(CI*= -.29, -.02) (See Tables 17c and Table 17h). Therefore, the results showed that organizational career support had three mediators in predicting global job satisfaction.

Feedback seeking behavior mediated the relationship between organizational career support and continuance commitment. Organizational career support positively predicted feedback seeking behavior (β= .45, .35, p < .05 at T2 and T3). Feedback seeking behavior had small significant indirect effects of .13 at T2 (*CI*= .03, .27) and .11 at T3 (*CI*= .02- .29) with continuance commitment Feedback seeking also mediated the relationship between organizational support and career success. Organizational career support predicted feedback seeking (β= .37, .31, p < .05 at T2 and T3), which in turn predicted career success (β= .39, .42, p < .05 at T2 and T3), with small but significant indirect effects: .15 at T2 (CI= .01, .31) and .12 at T3 (See Tables 17d and 17j). Therefore, Hypothesis 12 was partially supported. Relationship building was the most common mediator between contextual factors and employment quality. The strongest predictor of employment quality was organizational career support. Distal contextual factors did not predict employment quality directly or indirectly (See Table 18).

Employment quality and career success at Tn predicting coping behaviors at Tn+1. In Hypotheses 13a and 13b it was hypothesized that employment quality and career success at Tn would negatively predict coping behavior at Tn+1. I tested each model separately, using regression for each dependent variable at T2 and T3, and controlling for gender, education, and years in the workforce. First, I tested employment quality indicators as predictors (i.e., global and faceted job satisfaction, continuance and affective commitment), then objective and

subjective career success (i.e., perceived career success, job level, and salary) in separate models. Affective commitment predicted job search behavior negatively which was the proposed direction (β= -.42, -.39, p < .05 at T2 and T3; see Tables 19a and 19b). For adaptive coping behaviors, shown at Tn+1, the only predictor was faceted job satisfaction at Tn. Faceted job satisfaction positively predicted the following coping behaviors in the opposite direction than proposed: information seeking from coworkers (β= .33, .27, p < .05 at T2 and T3), information seeking from supervisor (β= .32, .34, p < .05 at T2 and T3), relationship building (β= .40, .39, p < .05 at T2 and T3), and feedback seeking (β= .32, .24, p < .05 at T2 and T3; see Tables 19a and 19b). Therefore, Hypotheses 13a was not supported and 13b was partially supported; career success variables at Tn predicted none of the coping behaviors at Tn+1. Moreover, employment quality indicators at Tn predicted some of the coping behaviors at Tn+1, but these relationships were not in the proposed direction except for the negative relationship between affective commitment and job search behavior (See Tables 19a and 19b). Table 20 shows the summary of results for this section.

Chapter 4: Discussion

There were three objectives of the current study. First, and most important, was to understand the career adaptation process by testing antecedents (i.e., personal resources and contextual factors) and consequences (i.e., employment quality and career success) of job-related active coping behaviors (i.e., adaptive coping behaviors, and job search behavior) (See Figure 2. Second, was to investigate whether the proposed process differed depending on (1) age of the employees and (2) differences in employees' employment history. To this purpose, I tested a model in which age and number of employment gaps moderated the relationships between personal resources and coping behaviors (See Figures 2 and 6). Third, was to observe the proposed relationships across a specific period to see patterns and consistencies in the adaptation process over time. To this purpose, I used a repeated measures design to understand changes in employee attitudes and coping behaviors, collecting data three times, two months apart.

Because the current study tested an extensive model (See Figure 2) with multiple predictors, outcomes, and direct and indirect relationships, I present a detailed discussion and implication of the results by dividing these into categories, similar to the way I explained the hypotheses and findings. However, before getting into the details, I will note some of the overarching main findings regarding the process of career adaptation. The most important finding was that many of the relationships proposed in the model were confirmed across time, and relationships that were significant at T1 were also significant at T2 and T3 after being tested by multilevel analyses. The confirmed relationships underlined that there were unique paths between personal resources, coping behaviors, employment quality, and career success. Not every predictor was related with every mediator or outcome which enables us to differentiate

what factors are more critical, such as protean mindset, in achieving objective and perceived career success.

The second important finding was that the current study did not support the assumptions that older people are less adaptable, do not have protean mindset, or a contemporary mindset compared to younger employees. The findings showed that older people used their personal resources no differently than younger employees. This finding contradicted the literature, which suggests that older employees may lack flexibility and adaptability to handle challenges stemming from changing careers, its demands, and dynamics (Bendick, Brown, & Wall, 1999; Loi & Shultz, 2007).

The third important finding was that the number of unemployment instances employees had had in the past constitutes an important factor determining the frequency of coping behaviors employees showed during the time of data collection. This finding demonstrates that past challenges for employees affected the way they currently cope with work and career-related problems. Finally, the study demonstrated that perceived organizational support for career development was the most important and consistent predictor of coping behaviors, employment quality, and career success among all personal resources and contextual factors tested as predictors. This finding implies that, if organizations provided guidance to their employees to develop their careers, employees in return could make better and more conscious choices about which coping behaviors are more beneficial for creating a positive work environment, since they would increase their likelihood of adapting to their job conditions and career challenges.

Below, I first present empirical implications, then theoretical and practical implications. After providing a detailed discussion of implications, I will discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the study.

Empirical Implications

Predictors of coping behaviors. In the current study, I tested two types of personal resources and contextual factors as predictors of coping behaviors. The personal resources were psychological and social capital. Psychological capital indicators were protean mindset, adaptability, and career-self-efficacy; social capital indicators were quality and quantity of social network. The only proximal contextual factor was perceived organizational career support, and distal factors included inflation rate and unemployment rates. The findings on psychological capital predicting coping behaviors, in general, are in line with the literature, as the relationships between personal resources and coping behaviors were positive; those participants claiming to be good at adapting to new job settings and environments were unintimidated by the act of searching for jobs internally or externally, initiating social interactions, and seeking feedback. More specifically, among psychological capital variables, protean mindset was the strongest predictor of coping behaviors, implying that individuals with a protean mindset were more self-aware of their needs, identities, and values, thus likely to take action to meet their needs and achieve their goals (Hall, 1996). The findings emphasize that people who self-direct their careers are more proactive in interacting with others and show extra effort in getting to know people from different parts of the organization. Although not as strong a predictor as protean mindset, career adaptability was also found to predict job search behavior and relationship building. I anticipated career-self efficacy to be as critical as protean mindset or adaptability, as previous research has shown (Luthans & Youssef, 2004); however, this hypothesis was not confirmed by the data, an unexpected result. A more detailed discussion of the findings will be presented in the Theoretical Implications section.

The majority of predictions regarding social capital were supported by the study findings, which suggest that people with high quality and quantity of social ties are more likely to display coping behaviors. In their study, Seibert et al. (2001) found that people with a high number of strong social ties had higher access to strategic information at the company. In line with this finding, the current study confirmed that people with high quality of social capital exhibited behaviors that could eventually give them access to critical work and career related information; quality of social capital was related to information seeking from coworkers and supervisors, and to relationship building. Moreover, the study results provided further insight on relationships between social ties and job search behavior. Kanfer et al. (2011), and Rife and Belcher (1993), found that employees who had lost their jobs had high job search intensity if they also had a high level of social support. However, in their studies the characteristics of the network were not examined. Results of the current study demonstrated that investigating the effects of social network can be better understood if quality and quantity of network are considered separately. I found that quantity of network was a significant predictor of job search behavior, whereas quality of network was not. A more detailed discussion of these findings is presented in Theoretical Implications.

The findings concerning contextual factors predicting coping behaviors emphasized that employees' immediate context and organizational setting are crucial for their proactiveness in handling job-related issues. Specifically, among the predictors of coping behaviors, organizational career support was the strongest. This relationship between organizational career support and coping behaviors was not unexpected; people with high organizational career support work in organizations that provide them information on how to develop their skills. Moreover, through career support, people have opportunities to meet with key people in the

organization, leading employees to discover and apply internal or external job positions. Organizational career support predicted all coping behaviors positively, including job search behavior. Unfortunately, none of the distal contextual factors (i.e., inflation and unemployment rates) had significant relationships with coping behaviors. Implications of these are presented in the Theoretical Implications section.

The roles of age and unemployment history in the adaptation process. A primary objective of the study was to understand the roles of age and unemployment history in the career adaptation process. I tested age and unemployment instances as moderators of the relationships between resources and coping behaviors which were supported for some of the tested relationships (See Figure 2). Overall, the results confirmed that age and unemployment experiences enable people to use their existing resources differently, as has been proposed by some scholars (Connor-Smith & Flaschbart, 2007). As mentioned earlier, there are two types of coping behaviors, those that aim to change ourselves (e.g., trying to learn more about a task by asking for support) to stay in the current context, and those that aim to change the context (e.g., looking for a new job) that leads to the discrepancy between desired and current conditions. The findings demonstrate no difference between older and younger employees in the ways they try to adapt. The results also imply that middle-aged and older people may be more hesitant in changing the context (their current jobs), depending on their level of closeness with people in their social networks; because the only interaction age had with personal resources was in predicting frequency of job search behaviors. People above age 41 searched jobs more if they had higher quality of networks, implying those with closer ties were more likely to search for internal or external jobs. On the other hand, the relationship between closeness of social ties and job search behavior did not change for participants who were 40 or younger.

An important moderator in the relationships between resources and coping behaviors was the number of unemployment experiences. My findings stress the importance of past challenges in affecting the relationship between self-efficacy and information seeking. The results indicate that people may prefer certain coping tactics, depending on what in the past they have perceived as useful or not. More specifically, participants with one unemployment instance did less job seeking if they had high career-self efficacy. This might be because people with few unemployment experiences considered job seeking useless or unnecessary because they lack experience in changing jobs. Moreover, I found that people who had high career self-efficacy and who had two or more unemployment instances showed more information seeking behaviors. Thus, the current study demonstrated not only which strategies were seen worthy of pursuit, but also which coping tactics were avoided or unpreferred. If we understand which coping behaviors people prefer we can discover important insights about the way people use their time and energy in managing their career issues. A more detailed discussion of empirical findings can be seen in Theoretical Implications.

Coping behaviors as mediators in the career adaptation process. The current study examined predictors of employment quality and career success through both direct and indirect relationships. The results confirmed that coping behaviors worked as mediators between resources and employment quality, and that each coping behavior predicted at least one employment quality indicator or perceived career success. The strongest coping predictor of employment quality was relationship building. The current study also underscores the importance of employees receiving career-related development plans from their organizations, so they might not only have a higher perception of accomplishment in their career, but also obtain a higher job level or higher salary compared to people who do not receive guidance on career

advancement. More importantly the findings underscore that both personal characteristics and organizational characteristics play important roles in obtaining career success, indicating that success in one's career is a result of individual effort in proactive career-related decisions, and also organizational efforts to show employees specifics about success within the organization.

The study demonstrated protean mindset—a personal resource—and organizational career support—a contextual factor—as the strongest direct and indirect predictors of perceived career success, although the effect sizes ranged from small to medium. Those with a higher protean mindset had higher levels of information seeking from coworkers, and relationship building behaviors, both of which in turn resulted in career success. As for proximal factors, people with higher organizational career support displayed more frequent feedback seeking behaviors, which resulted in higher perceived career success. A deeper understanding of different paths and mediators should be investigated further by examining the rationale behind using specific coping strategies under specific conditions. Such an examination might be achieved by collecting qualitative data through in-depth interviews.

I also tested direct and indirect relationships of personal and contextual factors with employment quality. Generally, organizational career support was the strongest predictor of employment quality; it predicted all employment quality variables positively. Global job satisfaction was the most predicted employment quality variable; it was predicted by all resources except quantity of social capital and adaptability. The finding of relationship building as the most common mediator confirms that making attempts to create social ties is crucial to achieving more favorable employment experiences. Another important finding was that quality of network predicted global and faceted job satisfaction positively, both directly and indirectly, through job seeking and information seeking from coworkers.

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical contribution of the study is capturing experiences of employees using a new psychological framework, created by integrating several contemporary career theories. The majority of prior studies comparing young and old employees, and their employment quality, lack a theoretical basis and have failed to focus on psychological processes (e.g., Chan, & Stevens, 2001), as presented in Chapter 2. For that reason, this study was based on protean mindset theory (Hall, 1996), boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), and social cognitive career theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1994), all emphasizing that career success depends on the individual's ability to take control of his or her career path. Protean career theory emphasizes managing one's career, and also self-awareness and proactiveness as important factors for success in today's work environment. Results showing that protean mindset predicted the majority of coping behaviors, employment quality indicators, and perceived career success confirm the assumption that those willing to navigate their career are likely to show coping behaviors and achieve perceived career success.

Similar to protean mindset, adaptability was found to be an important personal resource predicting job search behavior and relationship building, An unexpected finding was, for people with 2 or more employment gaps, information seeking from coworkers and supervisors was not seen as an important coping strategy if they had higher adaptability. Perhaps this finding resulted from these participants trying to be efficient in decision making, or being overconfident in their abilities to handle uncertainty. Ployhart and Bliese (2006) define this as adaptability to uncertainty which is basically the tendency to make decisions without all relevant information during uncertainty. Therefore, although, results of a study by Brown, Ganesan, and Challagalla (2001) indicate that employees with high adaptability seek and use information more effectively

than employees with low adaptability, there are also studies showing that people may sometimes try to adapt to circumstances with limited information because sometimes it may not be possible, practical, or necessary to gather information from various sources (Ryan, Pintrich, & Midgley, 2001; Wang, Zhang, Mccune, & Truxillo, 2011; Zhu et al., 2011).

The third personal resource was career self-efficacy and although it did not predict a majority of the coping behaviors and career success, we should not rule out career-self efficacy as an important factor in the adaptation process solely on these results. Career self-efficacy represents the extent to which employees perceive themselves as having the ability to control their careers (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2013). The measure of career self-efficacy had no low fit indices or reliability; therefore, the lack of significance could not be due to the psychometric characteristic of the measure. Lack of significant findings can be due to the difference between *action self-efficacy* and *coping self-efficacy* (Marlatt, Baer, & Quigley, 1995). Action self-efficacy concerns the belief about "setting ambitious goals and taking initiative"; coping self-efficacy is the "optimistic belief about one's capability to deal with barriers that arise during the maintenance period" (Schwarzer & Renner, 2000, p. 488). These terms were introduced in the field to explain the role of self-efficacy in different phases of coping behaviors, and mostly used in regards to health behaviors. Because, for the current study, I did not differentiate between stages and types of career self-efficacy the lack of significant findings regarding career-self efficacy could not be elaborated in more detail. Although action and coping self-efficacy have not been investigated in the career management literature, they should be included in future research. Using measures that separate self-efficacy in taking action or self-efficacy on maintaining the action would help us better understand the psychological process of work-related coping behaviors. For example, when a task is unclear, some employees may

believe they can initiate conversation with their supervisors; however, they may also have doubts about their ability to maintain the same behavior if they meet with challenges, such as their supervisor consistently remaining indifferent to their and other employee problems.

SCCT suggests that job and career success is shaped by cognitive, behavioral, personality, and environmental factors (Lent & Brown, 2006). The purpose of testing a model (See Figure 2) with multiple predictors was to show that having meta-competencies, that are competencies so powerful that affect people's ability to acquire other competencies (Hall, 2002, p. 102), may not be enough to turn intentions into actions or to achieve targeted career success. This idea is emphasized in SCCT's unified view on effects of cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors. Thus, I added psychological and social resources and external contextual factors to the research model as predictors of coping and job attitudes. I found that social capital was important as much as psychological capital. The quantity of network was a significant predictor of job search behavior, whereas quality of network was not. This finding can be attributed to the characteristics of the measures used in the study. I measured the frequency of job search behaviors, rather than the number of job search behaviors that were eventually successful. It is possible that the quality of social ties determines the outcome of job search, whereas the quantity of social ties predicts the number of application or attempts. Moreover, when measuring social capital, the current study incorporated no questions separating the way social network was used by the participants. Some might use people in the network for psychological support (e.g., advice), while others might use them for instrumental help (e.g., to send a resume to one's network).

In line with SCCT, the study showed that contextual factors were important in predicting both objective and perceived career success. Organizational career support was the strongest

predictor of career success, however, none of the distal contextual factors had significant relationships with coping behaviors, possibly because the indices measured were neither extremely high nor low to the extent they could have significant effects on person-level behaviors and attitudes. A study conducted when there are exceptionally high or low economic indices, or strong fluctuations in economic indices, might show distal economic factors that predict individual coping behaviors.

Moreover, the study provided insight on which coping behaviors were displayed more frequently, which shows that not only attitudes or resources define career success but frequencies of behaviors displayed are important to achieve career success. The strongest coping predictor of employment quality was relationship building; however, it did not predict any of the commitment variables. This might be because the relationship building questions in my measure failed to capture the quality of relationships, or to say whether the relationship has been created or not. The finding only captured the frequency of attempts to increase social interactions. For example, a sample item response was, “I tried to get to know as many people as possible in other sections of the company on a personal basis.” A higher score on this measure implies that the employee tried to create more social ties at work, but the score indicates nothing about the success of creating social ties, or the closeness of those ties. Thus, it might be understandable that an attempt to create social ties may be not enough to increase commitment. In fact, future research might well examine to what extent attempts to create social ties fail, or to what extent attempts to create social ties are perceived as one-sided, or mainly initiated by the employee.

The study’s strong support for the boundaryless career theory constitutes another theoretical implication. Boundaryless career theory proposes that career advancement requires experiencing more than a single employer and organization (Arthur & Rousseau’s, 1996).

Unemployment instances employees had in the past was a critical moderator between resources and coping behaviors, implying that those who went beyond the boundaries of one job actually spent time and effort on displaying different frequencies of coping behaviors. Unfortunately, in the current study very few participants had voluntary turnover, thus concluding about effects of changing jobs voluntarily on frequencies of specific coping behaviors remains difficult. Another theoretical implication of the study was although having a boundaryless career mindset is important mobility might be harder for certain age groups. I fount people above age 41 searched jobs more if they had higher quality of networks, implying those with closer ties were more likely to search for internal or external jobs. The relationship between closeness of social ties and job search behavior did not change for participants who were 40 or younger. This finding could be due to older people being more hesitant to contact people they know regarding a new position or job. Thus, for older individuals, closeness of social connection remains an important factor. Alternatively, younger employees might be more open to discussing job opportunities with others, independent of the connection's level of closeness, because of a greater comfort level around switching jobs and roles. It is also possible that younger individuals are more apt to seek lower-level jobs than older individuals; thus, for younger individuals contacting others about opportunities may not be considered as big a favor as for those in high-level jobs. Furthermore, younger individuals are in earlier stages of their careers and early mobility in the career may be more beneficial, providing as it does the opportunity of improving the quality of one's job. Still, boundaryless career theory does not limit the definition of "boundary" as organizational, also emphasizing that changing roles within a job can help people acquire flexibility and mobility beneficial for their career advancement. Future research might investigate coping behaviors more deeply in relation to role switching, or other types of transactions, such organizational merger

and acquisitions, which can help to understand contributors of job and role mobility in gaining a contemporary flexible career mindset.

Practical Implications

Findings from the current study lead to practical suggestions for employees and employers, to prevent employees from suffering low job satisfaction, experiencing a decrease in perception of career success, or losing their jobs, whether voluntarily or involuntarily. The current study, in line with SCCT (Lent & Brown, 2006), suggests that the path to career success is a function of personal and contextual factors; thus, it is the responsibility of the employee and the employer to create an environment that employees are satisfied with their work environment and career progress. Findings about positive effects of protean mindset and career adaptability suggest that employees should be more willing to be proactive in initiating conversations with coworkers and supervisors about how to handle problems on the job.

Another practical suggestion proposes that employers should provide formal and informal methods of supporting their employees' careers. In the current study, organizational career support was a key factor in predicting employee satisfaction and commitment. Practices, such as giving people personal development plans, having mentorship programs, and including career path discussions during performance evaluation, can increase the perception that employees are valued by their organizations. Moreover, at a time when finding and retaining talented employees is a challenge (Capelli, 2008; Jean & Schmidt, 2010), it is important to invest in human capital despite financial costs. Empirical evidence has demonstrated that formal organizational career management activities, such as training programs predict organizational commitment, decrease absenteeism, and increase job satisfaction and career success (DeVos, Dewettinck, & Buyens, 2009; Sturges, Guest, & Davey, 2002). Therefore, employers would do

well to remember that a well-managed career is not only beneficial to the employee, but also to the organization; because successful careers are those in which employees are able to show their potential to a fuller extent, which is valuable in an era that it is critical to find and retain talent.

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Study

The main strength of the study was in testing an extensive model (See Figure 2) with various antecedents, consequences, and moderators, enabling the investigation of relationships between different combination of criteria and outcomes. Instead of focusing on one type of resource, the current study gathered data about different support mechanisms that may empower employees to display coping behaviors. The results supported the notion that different coping behaviors had different antecedents and consequences. Without a rich variety of variables, it would be impossible to observe how differently the process of adaptation works for different combination of personal resources and contextual factors. Another strength of the study lay in using a repeated measures design, which enabled testing relationships between resources, contextual factors, and work and career-related outcomes across time, rather than collecting and analyzing data that pertained to a single point in time. The findings were consistent across time; thus, relationships significant at T1 were also significant at T2 and T3.

The current study was not without limitations, one of which was the lack of fluctuations in attitudes and frequency of coping behaviors across three data points. Although the rationale behind the time frame of the repeated measures design was supported by previous research with similar designs on coping behaviors and job attitudes, no significant change across time occurred for any of the variables in the current study (Cote & Morgan, 2002; Judge et al., 2006). Two possibilities may account for why no change occurred in the variables tested. First, participants may not have remembered the frequency of coping behaviors, or fluctuations in their attitudes,

accurately. Second, the two-month intervals were not long enough for participants to experience changes in attitudes or coping behaviors. In line with these assumptions, to capture fluctuations in coping behaviors and attitudes, future studies might apply the following: (1) Use very short time frames for data collection and collect data by keeping daily or weekly dairies, so that employees may recall changes in their attitudes and frequency of coping behaviors more accurately (Podsakoff et al., 2003); (2) Use a longer time frame in order to increase the possibility of employees experiencing favorable or unfavorable significant events during the data collection period, such as approval or rejection of a salary increase.

Conclusions

In spite of these limitations, the results of the study showed that personal resources and contextual factors predicted coping behaviors, which in turn predicted employment quality and career outcomes. Thus, the findings contribute to the career literature by confirming that adaptive strategies of employees were affected by how flexible they were in shaping their careers and how much support they received from their organizations. The study also showed that employee age was not a critical factor in the relationships between personal resources and frequency of coping behaviors. Moreover, frequencies of coping behaviors were affected by employment gaps experienced in the past. This latter indicates that challenges employees had in the past may define what they see as useful or helpful in problems they face today—stressing the importance of researchers considering past experiences to understand attitudes towards job and career, rather than simply focusing on age.

Appendix A: Invitation Email

Hello [Participant Name],

You have been invited to take a survey about predictors and outcomes of coping behaviors.

The study is expected to take about 30 to 45 minutes. You will be asked a few questions at the beginning to confirm that you are eligible to complete the study. Unfortunately, if **do not meet all of the criteria** then you are ***not* eligible to participate** in the study. If you **do meet all of the criteria**, then you ***are* eligible to participate** in the study and you will see a consent form followed by the survey items. **You need to enter your Participant Code at the end of the survey to receive your compensation.**

SURVEY LINK

This invitation will expire when we reach the required number of responses.

We appreciate your time!

Best Regards,

SSI Team

Be the first to find out what's new with SSI and stay in touch via Twitter, LinkedIn, and our blog.

Appendix B: Screening Questions

Please answer the questions determining whether you are eligible to participate in the study

How old are you?

- ❍ Under 18
- ❍ 18 - 24
- ❍ 25 - 39
- ❍ Older than 40

What is your employment status?

- ❍ Employed full time (working at least 30 hours per week)
- ❍ Employed part time (working less than 30 hours per week)
- ❍ Unemployed
- ❍ Retired

What is your occupational sector?

- ❍ Public
- ❍ Private
- ❍ Non-Profit

How many paid jobs are you currently working?

- ❍ 1
- ❍ 2
- ❍ More than 2

Are you currently self-employed?

- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

Are you currently a temporary/contract employee?

- ❍ Yes
- ❍ No

Appendix C: Consent Form

Congratulations! You are eligible to participate in this study! Please read the consent form and tell whether you agree or disagree to participate in the study

CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Baruch College
Department of Psychology

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

Project Title: Predictors and Consequences of Job-Related Coping Behaviors

Principal Investigator: Hilal Erkovan.
Baruch College, City University of New York
Box B 8-215, Dept. of Psychology
One Bernard Baruch Way
New York, NY 10010

Site where study is to be conducted: This study consists of a self-administered online survey to be completed remotely at a time and location chosen by each participant.

Introduction/Purpose: You are invited to participate in a research study, and we would greatly appreciate your participation. The study is conducted under the direction of Hilal Erkovan, Doctoral Student at the Dept. of Psychology, Baruch College, CUNY. The purpose of this research study is to gather information about job-related coping behaviors and career outcomes of employees. Job-related coping behaviors are defined as efforts to manage job demands. In this study both predictors and outcomes of coping on career outcomes such as satisfaction with career and income are investigated. The results of this study may help us gain understanding of some important issues so that others can learn from this research. This research has been approved by the CUNY University Integrated Institutional Review Board.

Procedures: You will be asked to respond to a Web-based survey with questions about your attitudes and job-related coping behaviors, as well as your background.

There are three waves in this study. In each wave you will answer surveys that will be administered two-months apart. Your views are important, so please feel free to be honest and open in your responding. Your time commitment is expected to be approximately 30 to 45 minutes for each survey. You may complete the online survey remotely at a time and location of your choice.

Voluntary Participation: Participation in this study will involve no cost to you as the participant. Your participation in this study is voluntary, and you may decide not to participate without prejudice, penalty, or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. At the end of the survey you will see a link that directs you to a website where you need to enter your Participation Code. After submitting this code you will receive payment. Please note that you are still able to withdraw from the study at any stage by not submitting your data. In this case you will not be paid for participation in the study.

Confidentiality: Your responses will be collected via a web-based survey program. You will participate in a survey that involves responding to questions about your personality, job-related coping behaviors, and attitudes towards your job and career. You will not be asked to provide the name of the company for which you work. You will also not be asked to provide the names of any employees with whom you work. You will be asked to provide some background information about yourself. Your responses will be kept entirely confidential. Although your responses are very important for this research, you may choose not to answer any question that causes you discomfort. The collected data will only be accessible to the

Principal Investigators. The researchers will protect your confidentiality by assigning random research IDs.

Contact Questions/Persons: If you have any questions about the research now or in the future, you should contact the Principal Investigator, Hilal Erkovan Hilal.Erkovan@baruch.cuny.edu and her advisor, Dr. Karen S. Lyness Karen.Lyness@baruch.cuny.edu. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant in this study, you may contact Keisha Peterson, Baruch College Human Research Protection Program Coordinator, by phone: (646)-312-2217 or by email: Keisha.Peterson@baruch.cuny.edu.

Participant's Statement

I have read the above purpose of the study, and understand my role in participating in the research. I have had a chance to ask questions. If I have questions later about the research, I am aware that I can ask the investigators or the HRPP Coordinator listed above. I understand that I may refuse to participate or withdraw from participation at any time. I certify that I am 18 years of age or older, and I freely give my consent to participate in this study.

TO INDICATE YOUR AGREEMENT, AND CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE BY TAKING THE WEB-BASED SURVEY, PLEASE CLICK THE "I AGREE" BUTTON BELOW:

Appendix D: Final Measures and Items

A. Career self-efficacy (1=*strongly disagree*, to 7=*strongly agree*)

1. When I make plans for my career, I am confident I can make them work.
2. If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.
3. When I set important career goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.
4. I avoid facing career difficulties.
5. When I have something unpleasant to do that will help my career, I stick with it until I am finished.
6. When I decide to do something about my career, I go right to work on it.
7. When trying to learn something new on my job, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.
8. I avoid trying to learn new things that look too difficult for me.
9. I feel insecure about my ability to get where I want in this company I rely on myself to accomplish my career goals.
10. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my career.

B. Career adaptability (1=*strongly disagree*, to 7=*strongly agree*)

1. I am good at adapting to new work settings
2. I can adapt to change in my career plans
3. I can overcome potential barriers that may exist in my career I enjoy trying new work-related tasks
4. I will adjust easily to shifting demands at work
5. My career success will be determined by my efforts.
6. I tend to bounce back when my career plans don't work out quite right

C. Protean career mindset (1=*strongly disagree*, to 7=*strongly agree*)

1. I am responsible for my success or failure in my career.
2. Overall, I have a very independent, self-directed career.
3. Freedom to choose my own career path is one of my most important values.
4. Where my career is concerned, I am very much "my own person."
5. I navigate my own career, based on my personal priorities, as opposed to my employer's priorities.
6. It doesn't matter much to me how other people evaluate the choices I make in my career.
7. What's most important to me is how I feel about my career success, not how other people feel about it.

D. Unemployment History

1. Have you ever experienced any employment gaps.? If yes please answer the following questions for each unemployment
    a. When did it take place?
    b. Was it a voluntary or involuntary turnover?
    c. What was the duration of unemployment?
    d. During the period of unemployment did you voluntarily postpone looking for a job? If so for how long? What was the reason?

E. Social Capital

1. Please list people who have acted to help your career by speaking on your behalf, providing you with information, career opportunities, advice or psychological support or with whom you have regularly spoken regarding difficulties at work, alternative job opportunities, or long-term career goals.

2. For each initial listed please rate how close you are with that person. (1= distant, 2= close, 3= very close)

F. Organizational Support for Career Development (1 = *strongly disagree* 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. I have been given training to help develop my career
2. I have been taught things I need to know to get on in this organization
3. I have been given a personal development plan
4. I have been given work which has developed my skills for the future
5. I have been given impartial career advice when I needed it
6. I have been introduced to people at work who are prepared to help me develop my career
7. I have been given a mentor to help my career development

G. Active Coping Behaviors (1= *very infrequently* to 7= *very frequently*)

- Job Search Intensity

1. Looked at help wanted/classified ads on the internet.
2. Used the Internet to locate job openings.
3. Talked to my friends or relatives to get their ideas about possible job leads.
4. Talked to my employer or people I work with about possible job leads.
5. Worked on my resumé.
6. Consulted a private employment agency or search firm.
7. Sent a resumé to a possible employer or turned in a job application.
8. Telephoned or visited a possible employer.
9. Tried to learn more about the places where I am applying for work.
10. Asked for a referral to someone who might have helpful information or advice about my career and job search.

- Job Adaptation Tactics- Information Seeking from Coworker

  Initiated conversations with my coworkers …….

  1. Job related topics in general
  2. Procedures for the completion of work
  3. How to handle problems on the job
  4. Specific work tasks
  5. Work priorities
  6. How to use equipment and materials
  7. Quantity and quality of work
  8. Job duties and procedures

- Job Adaptation Tactics- Information Seeking from Supervisor

  Initiated conversations with my coworkers …….

  1. Job related topics in general
  2. Procedures for the completion of work
  3. How to handle problems on the job
  4. Specific work tasks
  5. Work priorities
  6. How to use equipment and materials
  7. Quantity and quality of work
  8. Job duties and procedures

- Job Adaptation Tactics- Feedback Seeking

  1. I have sought feedback on my performance during assignments
  2. I solicited critiques from my boss

3. I asked my boss's opinion of my work

- Job Adaptation Tactics- Relationship Building
  1. Tried to get to know as many people as possible in other sections of the company on a personal basis
  2. Tried to socialize and get to know my coworkers
  3. Worked hard to get to know my boss

H. Organizational Commitment (1= *strongly disagree*, 7= *strongly agree*)

a) Affective Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.

b) Continuance commitment

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (reverse coded).
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.

4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (reverse coded)
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.

I. Global Job Satisfaction (1= *strongly disagree*, 7= *strongly agree*)

1. I am satisfied with my job.
2. I don't like my job (reversed)
3. I like working here

J. Faceted Job Satisfaction (1= *strongly disagree*, 7= *strongly agree*)

1. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
2. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
3. Communications seem good within this organization.
4. I like the people I work with.
5. I like my supervisor.

K. Perceived Career Success (1= *strongly disagree*, 5= *strongly agree*)

1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my overall career goals.
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for income.
4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for advancement.
5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for the development of new skill.

L. Demographics.

1. Age
2. Gender (Male/ Female)

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed? (Less than High School/ High School or GED/ 4 year college degree/ Master's Degree/ Doctoral Degree (including JD, MD, etc.)
4. What is your marital status (Single/ Separated/ Divorced/ Married/living as married
5. Do you have any children (Yes/No). If yes:
    a) How many children do you have?
    b) How old is each child? _____ (e.g. 2 years old, 11 years old)
6. Are you currently working full-time (i.e., working at least 30 hours per week)/ part-time (i.e., working less than 30 hours per week)?
7. What is your occupation?
8. What is your occupational sector (public/ private, coded)
9. For how many years have you been in workforce?
10. How many different industries have you worked IN TOTAL throughout the time you have been in the workforce?
11. How many organizations have you changed IN TOTAL throughout the time you have been in the workforce?
12. How many paid jobs are you currently working?
13. Are you currently…
    1) A small business owner (1 = yes, 2 = no)?
    2) Self-employed (1 = yes, 2 = no)?
    3) A temporary/contract employee (1 = yes, 2 = no)?
14. What industry are you working at? (Natural resources and mining/ Construction/ Manufacturing/ Information/ Financial activities/ Professional and business services/ Retail/Education and health services/ Leisure and hospitality/ Public administration/ Other)

15. For how many years have you been working in your current organization?
16. For how many years have you been working in your current industry?
17. Number of years in the workforce
18. What is your job level (non-manager clerical/administrative/sales staff, non-manager professional staff, first-level supervisor/manager, mid-level manager, upper-level manager, senior manager)
19. What is your yearly income? (less than 16,000/ between 16,000-31,999/ between 32,000-59,999/ 60,000- 100,000/more than 100,000)
20. What is your yearly total household income?
21. What age are you expecting to retire?
22. If you are married or living with a partner, what is your spouse's
    a. work status (homemaker/unemployed, working part-time, working full-time)
    b. yearly income (less than 16,000/ between 16,000-31,999/ between 32,000-59,999/ 60,000- 100,000/more than 100,000)
    c. organizational level (non-manager clerical/administrative/sales staff, non-manager professional staff, first-level supervisor/manager, mid-level manager, upper-level manager, senior manager)

M. Change in Employment (Questions asked in the second and third waves of the study)

1. Have you changed jobs during the last 2 months? (yes/no). If yes
    a. What is your new occupation?
    b. What industry are you currently working at? (Natural resources and mining/ Construction/ Manufacturing/ Information/ Financial activities/ Professional and business services/ Retail/Education and health services/ Leisure and hospitality/ Public administration/ Other)

2. Did you get a pay raise during the last 2 months? If yes
    a. What is your new annual total salary?
    b. What is your annual bonuses in average? If you do not have bonuses please enter '0'
3. Did you get a promotion during the last 2 months (yes/no). If yes
    a. What is your new job title?
    b. What is your organizational level? (non-manager clerical/administrative/sales staff, non-manager professional staff, first-level supervisor/manager, mid-level manager, upper-level manager, senior manager)

Appendix E: Original Measures Changed Based on CFA Results

A. Faceted Job Satisfaction Survey

a) Job Satisfaction with Promotion

1. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
2. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
3. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
4. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. *(included in the measure)*

b) Contingent Rewards

1. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. *(included in the measure)*
2. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.
3. There are few rewards for those who work here.
4. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.

c) Communication

1. Communications seem good within this organization. *(included in the measure)*
2. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.
3. Work assignments are not fully explained.
4. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.

d) Coworkers

1. I like the people I work with. *(included in the measure)*
2. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.
3. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.

4. I enjoy my coworkers.

e) Supervisor

1. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
2. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
3. My supervisor is unfair to me.
4. I like my supervisor. *(included in the measure)*

B. Continuance commitment

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (reverse coded).
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (reverse coded)
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. *(taken out)*
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. *(taken out)*

Table 1a. *Between-Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations*

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Career self-eff.	5.16	.95	(.84)							
2	Org. career sup.	4.87	1.38	.02	(0.9)						
3	Protean mindset	5.22	.90	.27**	.27**	(.86)					
4	Adaptability	2.89	1.43	.31**	.05	.12	(.93)				
5	Quan. network	2.61	1.18	.14**	.15**	.07	-.05	1			
6	Qual. network	2.02	1.28	.06	.14**	.05	-.03	.26**	1		
7	Industry unemp.	4.65	1.06	.11	.14	.08	.11	.19	-.08	1	
8	Gender	.42	.30	.09*	-.06	.04	-.08	.03	.07	.02	1
9	Age	44.9	12.43	.33**	-.10*	.10*	-.14**	-.06	-.02	.01	-.06
10	Education level	3.83	1.01	-.072	.19**	.08	.10*	.09*	.11*	-.06	-.09*
11	Occupat. Tenure	13.37	3.05	.22**	.01	.09*	.01	-.06	-.01	-.6	-.15**
12	Workf. tenure	22.07	9.39	.35**	-.11*	.09*	-.13**	-.09*	-.09*	-.00	-.12**
13	Industry tenure	14.73	10.95	.21**	.02	.05	-.04	-.08	-.04	.05	-.21**
14	Org.tenure	9.18	2.36	.18**	.02	.02	.04	-.06	-.10*	-.06	-.07

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. For Gender: Male=0, Female= 2. For Education Level: less than high school=1, high school graduate=2; two-year college= 3, 4 -year college=4, masters= 5, doctorate=6

Table 1a. *Between-Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Career self-eff.							
2	Org. career sup.							
3	Protean mindset							
4	Adaptability							
5	Quan. network							
6	Qual. network							
7	Industry unemp.							
8	Gender							
9	Age	1						
10	Education level	-.17**	1					
11	Occupat. Tenure	.60**	-.04	-.12**	1			
12	Workf. tenure	.83**	-.20**	-.08	.61**	1		
13	Industry tenure	.60**	-.06	-.04	.76**	.62**	1	
14	Org.tenure	.44**	-.04	-.14**	.54**	.42**	.60**	1

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. For Gender: Male=0, Female= 2. For Education Level: less than high school=1, high school graduate=2; two-year college=3, 4 -year college=4, masters= 5, doctorate=6.

Table 1a. *Between-Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
15	Job level	.84	.58	.02	.12*	.10*	.08	.13**	.04	-.02	-.24**
16	Ann. salary	71164.52	6.093.95	-.02	.11	-.05	-.03	.02	.14*	-.09	-.15**
17	Ann.house income	108838.69	15951.8	.11*	.16**	.05	-.06	.17**	.10*	-.02	.02
18	Age to retire	65.66	5.84	.15*	-.06	-.10	-.05	-.08	.04	-.05	.19**
19	Unemp. dummy	.46	.50	-.11**	.18**	-.06	.06	.15**	.01	-.05	.08
20	Unemp. duration	1.74	.93	.07	-.05	-.01	-.02	-.06	-.09*	.09	.01
21	Total unemp.(#)	3.54	1.13	.11*	-.17**	.10*	-.06	.03	.02	.05	-.03
22	Voluntary unemp.	1.1	.45	.09*	-.06	.14**	-.00	.01	-0.08	.04	.07
23	Unvol. unemp.	.30	.81	.07	-.16**	.01	-.07	.02	0.07	.02	-.07
24	Spouse work status	2.5	.82	-.06	.12*	.03	.01	.10	.25**	-.05	.20**
25	Spouse income	7158	1017.05	-.13*	.12*	.15*	.21**	-.07	.127*	.09	-.10
26	Spouse org. level	2.74	1.57	-.04	.16**	.02	.09	.12*	.04	.00	.05
27	Number of child	1.67	1.03	.18**	.05	.08	-.04	.19**	.02	.06	.14*
28	Youngest child age	14.58	11.17	.37**	-.13*	.05	-.10	.00	-.09	.13	.13*

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. For Job Level= Nonmanagerial=1; Managerial=2. Ann. Salary= Annual Salary. Ann. House Income= Annual House Income. For unemp. Dummy: Have been unemployed=0, Haven't been unemployed= 1.

Table 1a. *Between-Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
15	Job level	.12**	.43**	.12**	.04	.09*	.17**	-.11	1	
16	Ann. salary	.07	.32**	.11*	-.02	.15**	.05	-.09	.32**	1
17	Ann. house income	.02	.24**	.03	-.06	.03	.01	-.02	.09*	.26**
18	Age to retire	.31**	.04	.15*	.26**	.13	.13	.03	.09	-.02
19	Unemp. dummy	-.18**	.10*	-.06	-.22**	-.02	.20**	-.05	.09*	.08
20	Unemp. duration	.14**	-.13**	-.05	.18**	-.09*	-.15**	.04	-.15**	-.17**
21	Total unemp.(#)	.25**	-.07	.13**	.25**	.14**	-.13**	-.03	-.07	-.09*
22	Volunt. unemp.	-.02	.01	-.05	-.02	-.19**	-.13**	.01	.06	-.06
23	Unvol. unemp.	.30**	-.09*	.18**	.29**	.27**	-.07	-.04	-.12**	-.08
24	Spouse workstat.	-.12*	.23**	-.18**	-.16**	-.23**	-.16**	-.09	.08	.15**
25	Spouse. income	.07	.17**	-.02	-.01	.01	.01	-.01	.20**	.21**
26	Spouse org. level	.02	.27**	.06	-.09	-.04	.03	-.12	.45**	.11*
27	Number of child.	.25**	-.15**	.15**	.19**	.24**	.11*	-.01	-.05	-.01
28	Youngest child age	.70**	-.19**	.45**	.72**	.42**	.35**	-.04	-.05	-.07

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. For Job Level= Nonmanagerial=1; Managerial=2. Ann. Salary= Annual Salary. Ann. House Income= Annual House Income. For unemp. Dummy: Have been unemployed=0, Haven't been unemployed= 1.

Table 1a. *Between-Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
15	Job level												
16	Ann. salary												
17	Ann. house income	1											
18	Age to retire	.02	1										
19	Unemp. dummy	.14**	-.07	1									
20	Unemp. duration	-.12**	.01	-.55**	1								
21	Total unemp.(#)	-.10*	.14*	-.75**	.38**	1							
22	Volunt. unemp.	-.04	.05	-.45**	.21**	.48**	1						
23	Unvol. unemp.	-.09*	.14*	-.59**	.31**	.86**	-.04	1					
24	Spouse workstat.	.16**	-.19**	.000	-.02	-.06	.01	-.08	1				
25	Spouse. income	.59**	-.033	-.08	-.04	.02	-.07	.07	.19**	1			
26	Spouse org. level	.19**	.16*	.08	-.07	-.08	-.01	-.09	.39**	.27**	1		
27	Number of child.	.11*	.12	-.09	-.05	.18**	.08	.16**	-.07	.17*	-.05	1	
28	Youngest child age	-.04	.39**	-.25**	.11*	.33**	.14*	.31**	-.07	.01	-.01	.21**	1

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. For Job Level= Nonmanagerial=1; Managerial=2. Ann. Salary= Annual Salary. Ann. House Income= Annual House Income. For unemp. Dummy: Have been unemployed=0, Haven't been unemployed= 1.

Table 1b. *Within Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations*

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Universal job sat-T1	5.25	1.54	(.86)							
2	Universal job sat-T2	5.16	1.49	.72**	(.84)						
3	Universal job sat-T3	5.22	1.49	.66**	.77**	(.83)					
4	Facet job sat- T1	4.85	1.31	.70**	.64**	.59**	(.86)				
5	Facet job sat- T2	4.90	1.28	.66**	.77**	.67**	.79**	(.86)			
6	Facet job sat- T3	4.97	1.27	.55**	.63**	.71**	.70**	.76**	(.86)		
7	Job search- T1	3.17	1.51	-.19*	-.17*	-.16*	-.03	-.03	.03	(.92)	
8	Job search- T2	3.17	1.53	-.11	-.22**	-.21**	.04	-.01	.01	.73**	(.93)
9	Job search- T3	3.05	1.52	-.04	-.15*	-.21**	.07	.03	.01	.69**	.76**
10	Info seek cowork-T1	4.03	1.20	.18*	.18*	.13	.34**	.30**	.30**	.46**	.35**
11	Info seek cowork-T2	4.13	1.11	.18*	.13	.10	.33**	.32**	.29**	.42**	.40**
12	Info seek cowork-T3	4.08	1.15	.26**	.16	.23**	.33**	.35**	.44**	.33**	.34**
13	Infoseek superv- T1	3.89	1.32	.21**	.18*	.13	.36**	.32**	.28**	.43**	.34**
14	Infoseek superv- T2	3.93	1.28	.19**	.19*	.10	.32**	.34**	.29**	.37**	.44**
15	Infoseek superv- T3	3.96	1.26	.27**	.23**	.21**	.33**	.36**	.46**	.36**	.39**

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 1b. *Within Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Universal job sat-T1							
2	Universal job sat-T2							
3	Universal job sat-T3							
4	Facet job sat- T1							
5	Facet job sat- T2							
6	Facet job sat- T3							
7	Job search- T1							
8	Job search- T2							
9	Job search- T3	(.91)						
10	Info seek cowork-T1	.39**	(.93)					
11	Info seek cowork-T2	.32**	.63**	(.93)				
12	Info seek cowork-T3	.38**	.51**	.64**	(.92)			
13	Infoseek superv- T1	.39**	.83**	.62**	.57**	(.90)		
14	Infoseek superv- T2	.32**	.56**	.77**	.54**	.65**	(.89)	
15	Infoseek superv- T3	.45**	.49**	.53**	.78**	.61**	.59**	(.87)

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Info seek cowork: Information seeking from supervisor. Info seek superv.= Information seeking from supervisor.

Table 1b. *Within Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
16	Relation. build- T1	3.83	1.19	.28**	.28**	.25**	.48**	.43**	.38**	.39**	.34**
17	Relation. build- T2	4.01	1.06	.31**	.27**	.30**	.50**	.46**	.44**	.36**	.48**
18	Relation. build- T3	3.90	1.19	.29**	.26**	.33**	.49**	.44**	.49**	.39**	.38**
19	Feedback seek- T1	3.56	1.41	.19*	.15*	.13	.38**	.31**	.25**	.51**	.40**
20	Feedback seek- T2	3.62	1.35	.16*	.14	.14	.32**	.29**	.26**	.44**	.55**
21	Feedback seek- T3	3.56	1.40	.19**	.19**	.18*	.34**	.29**	.33**	.49**	.55**
22	Affective comm- T1	4.13	1.51	.39**	.37**	.34**	.23**	.22**	.14	-.45**	-.49**
23	Affective comm- T2	4.22	1.58	.47**	.54**	.46**	.31**	.40**	.29**	-.45**	-.49**
24	Affective comm- T3	4.14	1.58	.28**	.36**	.51**	.23**	.24**	.25**	-.41**	-.52**
25	Continu. comm- T1	4.63	1.28	.21**	.10	.09	.31**	.18*	.23**	-.01	.08
26	Continu. comm- T1	4.70	1.26	.19*	.14	.15*	.11	.16*	.13	.01	-.02
27	Continu. comm- T3	4.68	1.29	.19**	.14	.10	.19**	.18*	.14	.03	.07
28	Career success- T1	4.99	1.40	.57**	.56**	.54**	.69**	.62**	.58**	.05	.06
29	Career success- T2	4.94	1.47	.60**	.73**	.68**	.61**	.76**	.66**	-.04	-.01
30	Career success- T3	4.97	1.45	.54**	.65**	.69**	.58**	.67**	.74**	.00	.00

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Relation. Build.= Relationship building. Continu. Comm.= Continuance commitment

Table 1b. *Within Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
16	Relation. build- T1	.37**	.64**	.52**	.50**	.69**	.51**	.47**	(.87)		
17	Relation. build- T2	.35**	.43**	.59**	.51**	.51**	.66**	.53**	.9**	(.87)	
18	Relation. build- T3	.42**	.44**	.51**	.61**	.54**	.53**	.65**	.63**	.67**	(.88)
19	Feedback seek- T1	.44**	.55**	.45**	.39**	.64**	.49**	.40**	.68**	.49**	.46**
20	Feedback seek- T2	.45**	.46**	.56**	.46**	.56**	.68**	.50**	.51**	.69**	.56**
21	Feedback seek- T3	.56**	.43**	.45**	.55**	.56**	.56**	.35**	.32**	.39**	.66**
22	Affective comm- T1	-.49**	-.15*	-.12	-.05	-.11	-.14	-.14	-.09	-.15*	-.15*
23	Affective comm- T2	-.40**	-.13	-.06	.05	-.07	-.08	-.02	.04	-.02	-.02
24	Affective comm- T3	-.54**	-.19*	-.16*	-.13	-.13	-.15*	-.19*	-.01	-.05	-.04
25	Continu. comm- T1	.09	.16*	.15*	.15*	.12	.19**	.18*	.19**	.28**	.18*
26	Continu. comm- T1	-.03	.06	.04	.07	-.02	.09	.07	.00	.05	.09
27	Continu. comm- T3	.10	.17*	.19**	.23**	.19*	.19**	.23**	.21**	.23**	.24**
28	Career success- T1	.11	.30**	.29**	.28**	.25**	.24**	.27**	.17*	.16*	.-16
29	Career success- T2	.00	.26**	.32**	.33**	.26**	.27**	.35**	.14	.16*	.15*
30	Career success- T3	.04	.21**	.25**	.35**	.20**	.19**	.34**	.10	.11	.13*

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Relation. Build.= Relationship building. Continu. Comm.= Continuance commitment

Table 1b. *Within Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
16	Relation. build- T1									
17	Relation. build- T2									
18	Relation. build- T3									
19	Feedback seek- T1	(.94)								
20	Feedback seek- T2	.60**	(.93)							
21	Feedback seek- T3	.65**	.72**	(.93)						
22	Affective comm- T1	-.15*	-.22**	-.22**	(.70)					
23	Affective comm- T2	-.09	-.16*	-.14	.65**	(.76)				
24	Affective comm- T3	-.13	-.19*	-.20**	.59**	.62**	(.77)			
25	Continu. comm- T1	.13	.23**	.21**	-.12	-.04	-.14	(.81)		
26	Continu. comm- T1	.06	.17*	.13	.14	-.14	-.03	.55**	(.80)	
27	Continu. comm- T3	.12	.20**	.17*	.00	-.06	-.33**	.53**	.51**	(.82)
28	Career success- T1	.29**	.25**	.29**	.13	.29**	.17*	.21**	.04	.05
29	Career success- T2	.20**	.25**	.29**	.21**	.37**	.21**	.06	.06	.10
30	Career success- T3	.17*	.16*	.25**	.09	.29**	.18*	.06	.04	.07

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 1b. *Within Person Variables Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (continued)*

		28	29	30
16	Relation. build- T1			
17	Relation. build- T2			
18	Relation. build- T3			
19	Feedback seek- T1			
20	Feedback seek- T2			
21	Feedback seek- T3			
22	Affective comm- T1			
23	Affective comm- T2			
24	Affective comm- T3			
25	Continu. comm- T1			
26	Continu. comm- T1			
27	Continu. comm- T3			
28	Career success- T1	(.76)		
29	Career success- T2	.75**	(.81)	
30	Career success- T3	.71**	.81**	(.78)

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 1c. *Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables*

	Universal job sat-T1	Glob. job sat-T2	Glob. job sat-T3	Facet job sat- T1	Facet job sat- T2	Facet job sat- T3	Job search- T1	Jobs search- T2	Job search- T3
Career self-eff.	.24**	.19**	.20**	.10	.10	.10	-.23**	-.30**	-.24**
Org. career sup.	.58**	.44**	.43**	.57**	.57**	.52**	.15*	.18*	.26**
Protean mindset	.35**	.30**	.29**	.53**	.37**	.38**	.00	.00	.00
Adaptability	.10	.10	.10	.00	-.10	-.10	.10	.25**	.10
Quant.network	.12*	.10	.10	.19*	.10	.172*	.10	.00	.00
Qual. network	.10	.00	.10	.10	.00	.10	.10	.18*	.10
Unemp. rate	.00	-.10	-.10	.10	.00	.00	.10	.10	.10
Gender	.08	-.16*	.20*	-.16*	-.10	-.10	-.10	-.15*	-.21**
Age	.19**	.18*	.15*	.10	.00	.00	-.36**	-.33**	-.28**
Education level	.10	.10	.10	.21**	.16*	.23**	.10	.16*	.10
Marital status	-.10	-.10	.00	-.10	.00	-.10	-.10	-.23**	-.19*
Occupat. tenure	.15*	.21**	.19**	.10	.10	.10	-.27**	-.22**	-.23**
Workforce tenure	.17*	.15*	.16*	.00	.00	.00	-.38**	-.37**	-.35**
Industry tenure	.16*	.26**	.18*	.10	.10	.10	-.33**	-.29**	-.25**

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 1c. Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables (continued)

	Universal job sat-T1	Glob. job sat-T2	Glob. job sat-T3	Facet job sat- T1	Facet job sat- T2	Facet job sat- T3	Jobsearch-T1	Jobsearch-T2	Job search- T3
Org.tenure	.19**	.22**	.16*	0.1	.15*	0.1	-.28**	-.21**	-.18*
Job level	.15*	.19*	.19*	.14*	0.1	.11*	.11*	.11*	.10*
Ann. salary	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	.15*	.16*
Ann. house income	.12*	.11*	.11*	0.1	.11*	0.1	0.1	0	0.1
Age to retire	0.2	0.1	0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2
Unemp. dummy	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0.1
Unemp. duration	-0.1	-0.1	0	0	-0.1	0	0	0	-0.1
Total unemp.(#)	-0.1	0	0.1	0	-0.1	0	-0.1	-.19**	-.21**
Vol. unemp.	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	-0.1	-0.1
Unvol. unemp.	-0.1	0	0	0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-.18*	-.19**
Spouse work status	0.1	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	.26**	.21*	0
Spouse income	0.1	0.1	0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Spouse org. lev.	.19*	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0
Number of child	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-.19*	-.26**	-0.1
Youngest child age	.26**	.22*	.28**	0.1	0	0	-.33**	-.35**	-.36**

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 1c. *Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables (continued)*

	Infoseek cw-T1	Infoseek cw-T2	Infoseek cw-T3	Infoseek sup- T1	Infoseek sup- T2	Infoseek sup- T3	Relationship build- T1	Relationship build- T2	Relationship build- T3
Career self-eff.	.10	.00	.00	.10	-.10	.00	.00	-.10	-.10
Org. career support	.33**	.27**	.42**	.33**	.31**	.41**	.44**	.40**	.45**
Protean mindset	.29**	.28**	.10	.23**	.23**	.10	.34**	.33**	.34**
Adaptability	.00	.00	.00	.00	.10	.00	.00	.10	.00
Quant. network	.32**	.25**	.22**	.25**	.21**	.21**	.20**	.16*	.10
Qual. network	.21**	.10	.10	.18*	.22**	.16*	.24**	.29**	.10
Unemp. rate	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10	.17*	.10
Gender	.16**	.15*	-.19**	-.10	.00	-.10	-.11	.23**	-.18*
Age	-.10	-.19*	-.10	-.16*	-.26**	-.10	-.10	-.19**	.00
Education level	.16*	.19*	.10	.19*	.19*	.10	.19*	.15*	.17*
Marital status	-.10	-.10	-.19**	-.10	-.10	-.10	-.16*	-.10	-.15*
Occupat. tenure	-.10	-.10	.10	-.10	-.16*	.00	.00	.00	.10
Workforce tenure	-.10	-.19*	-.10	-.19*	-.30**	-.10	-.10	-.16*	-.10
Industry tenure	-.10	-.10	.10	-.10	-.19**	.00	-.10	-.10	-.10

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. Infoseek cw= Information seeking from Coworker. Infoseek sup= Information seeking from supervisor.

Table 1c. *Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables (continued)*

	Infoseek cw-T1	Infoseek cw-T2	Infoseek cw-T3	Infoseek sup- T1	Infoseek sup- T2	Infoseek sup- T3	Relat. build- T1	Relat. build- T2	Relat. build- T3
Org.tenure	0	0	0.1	0	-0.1	0.1	0	-0.1	0
Job level	0.14	.15*	.15*	.15*	.10*	.17*	0.12	0.1	0.12
Ann. salary	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Ann. income	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	.17*	0.1	0.1
Age to retire	-0.1	-0.2	-.23*	-0.1	-0.2	-0.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.1
Unemp. dummy	0	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0.1	0
Unemp. duration	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total unemp.(#)	0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0	-0.1	0
Vol. unemp.	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0.1
Unvol. unemp.	0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	0
Spouse work status	0	.19*	.18*	0.1	.29**	0.2	.21*	.28**	0.1
Spouse income	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	.20*	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Spouse org. lev.	0	0	.19*	0.1	0.1	0.2	0	0	0.1
Number of child	.24**	0	0	0	-.19*	0	0.1	-0.1	-0.2
Youngest child age	-0.1	-.26**	-.22*	-0.1	-.31**	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. Infoseek cw= Information seeking from Coworker. Infoseek sup= Information seeking from supervisor. ppppp

Table 1c. *Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables (continued)*

	Feedback seek- T1	Feedback seek- T2	Feedback seek- T3	Affec com-T1	Affec. com-T2	Affec. com-T3	Conti com-T1	Conti com-T2	Conti com-T3
Career self-eff.	-.15*	-.17*	-.19*	.25**	.29**	.29**	-.13	.00	-.10
Org. career sup.	.37**	.36**	.36**	.10	.14*	.10	.24**	.18*	.16*
Protean mindset	.23**	.18*	.19**	.00	.10	.10	.12	.10	.17*
Adaptability	.10	.01	.10	-.10	-.10	-.10	.00	.00	.00
Quant. network	.19**	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10	.00	.10
Qual. network	.19**	.19*	.10	-.10	.00	.00	.10	.00	.00
Unemp. rate	.10	.10	.10	.00	.00	-.10	.10	.00	.10
Gender	.00	-.10	-.15*	.10	.10	.14	.14	.13	.13
Age	-.29**	-.25**	-.22**	.22**	.19**	.26**	.00	.10	.00
Education level	.29**	.18*	.23**	-.10	-.10	.00	.00	.00	.00
Marital status	-.18*	-.10	-.22**	.10	.10	.10	-.10	.00	-.10
Occupat. tenure	-.16*	-.10	-.10	.29**	.26**	.25**	.00	.10	.00
Workforce tenure	-.32**	-.25**	-.27**	.34**	.25**	.32**	.00	.10	.10
Industry tenure	-.23**	-.20**	-.16*	.26**	.26**	.23**	.00	.10	.00

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Affec. Comm= Affective commitment. Conti. Comm.= Continuance Commitment.

Table 1c. *Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables (continued)*

	Feedback seek- T1	Feedback seek- T2	Feedback seek- T3	Affec com-T1	Affec. com-T2	Affec. com-T3	Conti com-T1	Conti com-T2	Conti com-T3
Org.tenure	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	.29**	.25**	.18*	-0.1	0.1	0
Job level	0.12	.19*	0.13	0	0.1	0	-0.1	0	0
Ann. salary	.11*	0.1	.13**	-0.1	0	-0.1	-.17*	-0.1	-0.1
Ann. income	.18*	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	-0.1	0.1	0
Age to retire	-0.2	-0.2	-.24*	.23*	.26*	.26*	-0.2	-0.2	-0.1
Unemp. dummy	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	-0.1	0.1	0	0
Unemp. duration	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0.1	0	0
Total unemp.(#)	-0.1	-0.1	-.17*	0	0	.19*	-0.1	0	0
Vol. unemp.	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	-0.1	-0.1	0
Unvol. unemp.	-.17*	-0.1	-.17*	0	0	.19**	-0.1	0.1	0
Spouse work stat.	.19*	.27**	0.2	-0.1	-0.1	0	0.1	0	0.1
Spouse income	0.1	0.2	0.1	-.22*	-.20*	-0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Spouse org. lev.	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0
Number of child	-0.1	-.26**	-.22*	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0
Youngest child age	-.29**	-.19*	-0.2	.31**	.19*	.36*	0	0.1	0.1

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. Affec. Comm= Affective commitment. Conti. Comm.= Continuance Commitment.

Table 1c. *Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables (continued)*

	Career success- T1	Career success- T2	Career success- T3
Career self-eff.	.10	.10	.10
Org. career sup.	.53**	.48**	.49**
Protean mindset	.53**	.35**	.36**
Adaptability	-.10	00	-.10
Quant. network	.10	.10	.10
Qual. network	.10	.00	.00
Unemp. rate	.00	.00	.00
Gender	.16*	-.18*-	-.14*
Age	.10	.00	.10
Education level	.16*	.17*	.20**
Marital status	-.19*	-.17*	-.10
Occupat. tenure	.15*	.10	.10
Workforce tenure	.00	.00	.00
Industry tenure	.10	.10	.15*

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 1c. *Correlations between Within and Between- Person Variables (continue)*

	Career success- T1	Career success- T2	Career success- T3
Org.tenure	0.1	.20**	.15*
Job level	0.13	.13*	.11*
Ann. salary	0.1	0.1	.18*
Ann. income	.15*	.15*	.19**
Age to retire	-0.1	0	-0.1
Unemp. dummy	0.1	.15*	0.1
Unemp. duration	0	-0.1	-0.1
Total unemp.(#)	-0.1	-.16*	-0.1
Vol. unemp.	0	0	0
Unvol. unemp.	-0.1	-.18*	-0.1
Spouse work stat.	0	0.1	0.2
Spouse income	0.2	0.1	0.2
Spouse org. lev.	.20*	0.1	.21*
Number of child	0	0.1	0.1
Youngest child age	0	0	0.1

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 2. HLM Results: Personal Resources and Contextual Factors Predicting Perceived Career Success

Variable				
Level 1				
Intercept (γ_{00})		3.13**(.1)	4.98**(.08)	4.90**(.05)
Level 2:				
Intercept x Career Self- Efficacy (γ_{01})		0.05 (.05)		
Intercept x Protean Mindset (γ_{02})		.61**(.12)		
Intercept x Career Adaptability (γ_{03})		0.08(.01)		
Intercept x Quantity of Social Network(γ_{01})			.009 (.007)	
Intercept x Quantity of Social Network (γ_{02})			.004 (.1)	
Intercept x Organizational Career Support(γ_{01})				.5**(.06)
Intercept x Inflation Rate(γ_{02})				.001 (.001)
Intercept x Unemployment Rate(γ_{03})				.001(.01)
Intercept x Gender (γ_{01})	-.23**	-.14* (.001)	-.20* (.1)	-.15*(.03)
Intercept x Education Level (γ_{02})	.20*	.19*(.08)	.11 (.1)	.09(.08)
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ_{03})	.23*	.21*(.11)	.18*(.1)	.17(.1)
R^2change	-	22%	1%	20%
Pseudo R^2(between)	11%	33%	12%	31%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.$^{***}p < .001$

Table 3. *Regression Results: Personal Resources and Contextual Factors Predicting Objective Career Success*

	Organizational Level			Salary			Composite Objective Career Success		
	B	SE B	R2	B	SE B	R2	B	SE B	R2
Career Self- Efficacy	.001	.03		.02	.01		.01	.05	
Protean Mindset	.001	.01		.03	.04		.02	.06	
Career Adaptability	.03	.03	.01	.01	.03	.01	.05	.06	.01
Quantity of Social Network	.02	.02		.001	.00		.03	.04	
Quantity of Social Network	.01	.02	.001	.03	.01	.003	.04	.06	.008
Organizational Career Support	.08	.04		.03	.05		.11*	.03	
Inflation Rate	.01	.01		.01	.001		.03	.02	
Unemployment Rate	.00	.00	.02	.02	.001	.02	.001	.01	.05

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 4. Summary of Results: Resources and contextual factors as predictors career success

	Perceived career success	Objective career success
Adaptability	No	No
Career self-efficacy	No	No
Protean mindset	**Yes**	No
Social capital (number)	No	No
Social capital (closeness)	No	No
Org. career support	**Yes**	**Yes**
Unemployment rate	No	No
Inflation rate	No	No

* Yes= Hypothesis supported, No= Hypothesis not supported

Table 5. *HLM Results: Personal Resources Predicting Coping Behaviors*

Variable	Job Search	Information Seeking from Coworkers	Information Seeking from Supervisors	Relationship Building	Feedback Seeking
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	3.22**	4.06**	3.94**	3.90**	3.58**
	0.05	0.1	0.11	0.07	0.09
Level 2:					
Intercept x Career Sef- Efficacy (γ_{01})	0.11*	0.009	0.001	0.06	0.03
	0.02	0.008	0.009	0.07	0.01
Intercept x Protean Mindset (γ_{02})	0.1	0.33**	0.30**	0.47**	0.39**
	0.04	0.07	0.09	0.07	0.09
Intercept x Career Adapatability (γ03)	0.30*	0.002	0.02	0.19*	0.07
	0.13	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06
Intercept x Gender (γ04)	-0.2*	-0.22*	-0.21*	-0.22*	-0.25*
	0.17	0.14	0.16	0.14	17
Intercept x Education Level (γ05)	0.15*	0.16*	0.18*	0.15*	0.11*
	0.1	0.07	0.008	0.07	0.08
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ06)	-0.25	-0.09	-0.016	0.1	-0.2
	0.1	0.07	0.008	0.07	0.09
R^2 Change	5%	12%	10%	19%	11%
Pseudo R^2(between)	27%	32%	28%	29%	33%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$

Table 6. *HLM Results: Social Capital Predicting Coping Behaviors*

Variable	Job Search	Information Seeking from Coworkers	Information Seeking from Supervisors	Relationship Building	Feedback Seeking
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	3.13**	4.07**	3.94**	3.91**	4.58**
	0.11	0.09	0.32	0.12	0.06
Level 2:					
Intercept x Quantity of Social Network(γ_{01})	0.2*	0.07	0.2*	0.011	0.1
	0.11	0.07	0.06	0.05	0.07
Intercept x Quality of Social Network (γ_{02})	0.01	0.23*	0.18*	0.28*	.22*
	0.08	0.05	0.08	0.08	0.09
Intercept x Gender (γ03)	-0.3*	-0.18	0.12	0.11	-0.18
	0.1	0.14	0.02	0.07	0.11
Intercept x Education Level (γ04)	0.11	.14*	0.10*	0.13	0.14*
	0.08	0.07	0.008	0.09	0.09
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ05)	0.11*	-0.06	0.14*	0.05	-0.12
	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.07
R^2 Change	5%	10%	10%	9%	10
Pseudo R^2(between)	28%	26%	25%	14%	23%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce $^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 7. *HLM Results: Contextual Factors Predicting Coping Behaviors*

Variable					
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	3.13**	4.07**	3.94**	4.90**	3.58**
	0.12	0.09	0.07	0.15	0.05
Level 2:					
Intercept xOrganizational Career Support(γ_{01})	.17*	0.2**	0.3**	0.5**	0.32**
	0.07	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.08
Intercept x Inflation Rate(γ_{02})	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
Intercept x Unemployment Rate (γ03)	0.002	0.01	0.001	0.001	0.001
	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Intercept x Gender (γ04)	-0.24	-0.13	-0.13	-0.15*	-0.19
	0.18	0.07	0.15	0.03	0.16
Intercept x Education Level (γ05)	0.17*	0.13*	0.14*	0.11*	0.2*
	0.1	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.08
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ06)	0.13	0.01	-0.05	0.07	0.1
	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.1	0.08
R^2 Change	13%	10%	10%	15%	13
Pseudo R^2(between)	23%	22%	21%	32%	29%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce $^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 8. Summary of Results: Resources and contextual factors as predictors of coping behaviors

	Job search	Info seek cowork.	Info seek superv.	Relation. build.	Feedback seek.
Adaptability	**Yes**	No	No	**Yes**	No
Career self-efficacy	**Yes**	No	No	No	No
Protean mindset	No	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**
Quantity of network	**Yes**	No	**Yes**	No	No
Quality of network	No	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**
Org. career support	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**
Unemploy. rate	No	No	No	No	No
Inflation rate	No	No	No	No	No

* Yes= Hypothesis supported, No= Hypothesis not supported

Table 9a. *Age and Unemployment Instances as Moderators Between Personal Resources and Job Search Behavior*

	Job search Time 2				Job search Time 3			
	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI
Career self-efficacy								
Unemp. instances	-.29**	.10			-.26**	.11		
Career self.eff	-.46**	.11			-.22*	.11		
Career self eff. X Unemp. instances	.26**	.08			.26**	.09		
-1SD Unemp. instances			-.65**	-.91, -.38			-.55**	-.89, -.21
+1SD Unemp. instances			-.22	-.46, .022			.17	-.14, .47
R^2 Change			.14**				.12*	
Social capital-closeness								
Age	-.41**	.01			-.33**	.01		
Quality of network	.27**	.10			.13*	.10		
Quality of networkX Age	.016*	.11			.024**	.01		
-1 SD Age			.25	-.15, .65			-.12	-.44, .19
+1SD Age			.66**	.36, .96			.38*	.06, .86
R^2 Change			.016*				.032**	

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. Unemp. Instances= Number of unemployment instances.

Table 9b. *Employment Instances as a Moderator Between Personal Resources and Information Seeking from Coworkers*

	Info Seeking -Coworker Time 2				**Info Seeking -Coworker Time 3**			
	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI
Career self-eficacy								
Unemp. instances	-.07	.11			-.04	.11		
Career self.eff	.03	.08			-.03	.08		
Career self eff. X Unemp. instances	.25*	.09			.25*	.09		
-1SD Unemp. instances			-.13	-.24, -.04			-.11	-.21, -.01
+1SDUnemp. instances			.39*	.06, .71			.21*	.04, .41
R^2 Change)			.04**				.05**	
Adaptability								
Unemp. instances					-.09	.09		
Adaptability	-.13	.08			-.03	.06		
Adaptability X Unemp. instances	-.08	.10			-.24**	.07		
-1SD Unemp. instances			.24 **	.05, .43			.15*	-.02, .33
+1SDUnemp. instances			-.36 **	-.57, -.15			-.26*	-.48, -.04
R^2 Change			.09**				.07**	

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. Unemp. Instances= Number of unemployment instances.

Table 9c. *Employment Instances as a Moderator Between Personal Resources and Information Seeking from Supervisors*

	Info Seeking -Supervisor Time 2				Info Seeking- Supervisor Time 3			
	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI
Adaptability								
Unemp. instances	-.08	.11			-.05	.10		
Adaptability	.03	.09			.02	.08		
Adaptability X Unemp. instances	-.29**	.12			-.28**	.12		
-1SD Unemp. instances			.12 **	.01, .49			.12**	.006, .38
+1SDUnemp. instances			-.38 **	-.78, -.01			-.33 **	-.76, -.003
R^2 Change			.03**				.04**	

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Unemp. Instances= Number of unemployment instances.

Table 9d. *Employment Instances as a Moderator Between Personal Resources and Feedback Seeking*

	Feedback Seeking Time 2				**Feedback Seeking-Time 3**			
	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI	B	SE B	Conditional effect	CI
Career Self-Efficacy								
Unemp. instances	-.13	.11			-.11	.14		
Career self-efficacy	-.05	.10			-.04	.09		
Career self-efficact X Unemp. instances	.22**	.09			.20**	.07		
-1SDUnemp. Instances			-.37 **	-.68, -.06			-.43 **	-.54, -.03
+1SDUnemp. instances			.16	-.17, .49			.11	-.13, .43
R^2 Change			.024**				.020**	

Note. $N = 185$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Unemp. Instances= Number of unemployment instances.

Table 10. Summary of Results: Age and unemployment instances moderating the relationships of resources and contextual factors with coping behaviors

	Job sear. T2	Job sear. T3	Info. cowo.T 2	Info. cowo. T3	Info. supv. T2	Info. supv.T 3	Relat. build. T2	Relat. build. T3	Feed. seek. T2	Feed. Seek. T3
Adaptability	No	No	**Yes[b]**	**Yes[b]**	**Yes[b]**	**Yes[b]**	No	No	No	No
Career self-efficacy	**Yes[b]**	**Yes[b]**	**Yes[b]**	**Yes[b]**	No	No	No	No	**Yes[b]**	**Yes[b]**
Protean mindset	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Quantity of network	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Quality of network	**Yes[a]**	**Yes[a]**	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Org. career support	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Unemploy. rate	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Inflation rate	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

* Yes= Hypothesis supported, No= Hypothesis not supported. **a:** Age was the moderator. **b:** Number unemployment instances was the moderator

Table 11a. *HLM Results: Job Search Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Global Job Satisfaction	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Continuance Commitment	Affective Commitment	Perceived Career Success
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	5.22**	4.9**	4.66**	4.16**	4.98**
	0.1	0.08	0.07	0.1	0.09
Intercept Job search (γ10)	-0.16*	-0.04	0.01	-0.15*	0.06
	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.05
Level 2:					
Intercept x Gender (γ01)	-0.11	-0.3**	0.14	0.33*	-0.25
	0.2	0.17	0.15	0.2	0.19
Intercept x Education Level (γ02)	0.14*	.22*	0.01	-0.05	0.12*
	0.1	0.08	0.08	0.1	0.1
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ03)	0.03	-0.05	-0.01	0.09	-0.19
	0.01	0.09	0.08	0.1	0.1
R^2 Change	8%	0%	0%	4%	0%
Pseudo R^2(between)	17%	19%	8%	20%	12%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce

$^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 11b. *HLM Results: Information Seeking from Coworkers Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Global Job Satisfaction	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Continuance Commitment	Affective Commitment	Perceived Career Success
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	5.22**	4.92**	4.66**	4.16**	4.98**
	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.099
Intercept Info. Seek Coworkers (γ10)	0.06	0.13*	0.08	-0.05	.11*
	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.01
Level 2:					
Intercept x Gender (γ01)	-0.11	-0.33*	0.14	0.32*	-0.25
	0.2	0.16	0.15	0.19	0.19
Intercept x Education Level (γ02)	0.14	0.22*	0.01	-0.06	0.13
	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.1	0.09
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ03)	0.01	-0.02	-0.02	0.09	-0.18
	0.11	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.11
R^2Change	0%	3.3%	0%	0%	4%
Pseudo R^2(between)	5%	22%	2%	11%	21%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce. $^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 11c. *HLM Results: Information Seeking from Supervisors Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Global Job Satisfaction	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Continuance Commitment	Affective Commitment	Perceived Career Success
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	5.22	4.92**	4.66**	4.52**	4.98**
	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.09
Intercept Info. Seek Supervisor(γ10)	0.05	0.18*	0.02	0.01	0.11*
	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.04	0.04
Level 2:					
Intercept x Gender (γ01)	-0.11	-0.32**	0.15	0.13	0.25
	0.2	0.16	0.15	0.1	0.19
Intercept x Education Level (γ02)	0.14	0.23*	0.01	0.01	0.13
	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.03	0.09
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ03)	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02	-0.18
	0.1	0.08	0.08	0.02	0.11
R^2 Change	0%	10%	0%	0%	7%
Pseudo R^2(between)	6%	25%	4%	3%	20%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce. $^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 11d. *HLM Results: Relationship Building Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Global Job Satistaction	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Continuance Commitment	Affective Commitment	Perceived Career Success
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	5.22**	4.92**	4.66**	4.17**	4.98
	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.09
Intercept Relationship Building(γ10)	.27*	0.10*	0.01	0.05	0.11*
	0.13	0.04	0.01	0.09	0.004
Level 2:					
Intercept x Gender (γ01)	-0.12	-0.33*	0.15	0.33	-0.26
	0.1	0.17	0.15	0.2	0.19
Intercept x Education Level (γ02)	0.09	0.22*	0.01	-0.07	0.13
	0.07	0.09	0.07	0.11	0.09
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ03)	0.1	-0.04	-0.02	0.09	-0.18
	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.11	0.11
R^2 Change	14%	7%	0%	0%	6%
Pseudo R^2(between)	23%	28%	2%	11%	19%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$

Table 11e. *HLM Results: Feedback Seeking Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Global Job Satistaction	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Continuance Commitment	Affective Commitment	Perceived Career Success
Level 1					
Intercept (γ_{00})	5.22**	4.66**	4.66**	4.16**	44.98**
	0.09	0.07	0.07	0.09	0.09
Intercept Info. Feedback Seek(γ10)	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	.12
	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.05
Level 2:					
Intercept x Gender (γ01)	-0.11	0.14	0.14	0.32	-0.26
	0.2	0.15	0.14	0.19	0.19
Intercept x Education Level (γ02)	0.14	0.01	0.01	-0.07	0.13
	0.09	0.07	0.07	0.1	0.09
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ03)	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	0.08	-0.17
	0.11	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.11
R^2 Change	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%
Pseudo R^2(between)	8%	10%	5%	12%	15%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce. $^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 12. *Regression Results: Personal Resources and Contextual Factors Predicting Objective Career Success*

	Organizational Level			Salary			Composite Objective Career Success		
	B	SE B	R2	B	SE B	R2	B	SE B	R2
Job search	.001	.01	.001	.02	.01	.01	.02	.02	.01
Information seeking coworker	.01	.02	.02	.01	.001	.001	.01	.03	.02
Information seeking supervisor	.01	.02	.01	.03	.02	.01	.03	.01	.02
Relationship building	.03	.01	.1	.01	.02	.03	.04	.02	.04
Feedback seeking	.001	.001	.02	.01	.001	.02	.001	.01	.03

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 13. *Multivarite Summary for Within-Person Variables - Change Across Time*

		Time 1		Time 2		Time 3				
	Variable	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	df	F	p
All	Job search	3.17	1.51	3.17	1.53	3.05	1.52	2	.38	.68
Sample	Info seek-coworker	4.03	1.20	4.13	1.11	4.08	1.15	2	.36	.70
	Info seek- supervisor	3.89	1.32	3.93	1.28	3.96	1.26	2	.13	.88
	Relationship building	3.83	1.19	4.01	1.06	3.90	1.19	2	1.22	.30
	Feedback seeking	3.56	1.41	3.62	1.35	3.56	1.40	2	.13	.88
	Universal job satisfaction	5.25	1.54	5.16	1.49	5.22	1.49	2	.21	.81
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.85	1.31	4.90	1.28	4.97	1.27	2	.35	.70
	Affective commitment	4.13	1.51	4.22	1.58	4.14	1.58	2	.19	.82
	Continuance commitment	4.63	1.28	4.70	1.26	4.68	1.29	2	.13	.88
	Career Success	4.99	1.40	4.94	1.47	4.97	1.45	2	.06	.94
Males	Job search	3.28	1.54	3.36	1.57	3.33	1.58	2	.06	.94
	Info seek-coworker	4.05	1.29	4.15	1.23	4.27	1.12	2	.87	.42
	Info seek- supervisor	4.03	1.36	3.92	1.42	4.10	1.32	2	.44	.65
	Relationship building	3.92	1.21	4.05	1.13	4.04	1.17	2	.37	.69
	Feedback seeking	3.63	1.42	3.71	1.38	3.76	1.43	2	.24	.79
	Universal job satisfaction	5.28	1.51	5.24	1.41	5.23	1.47	2	.04	.96
	Facet Job satisfaction	5.03	1.25	5.01	1.21	5.13	1.19	2	.22	.80
	Affective commitment	4.01	1.49	4.10	1.60	3.96	1.59	2	.27	.76
	Continuance commitment	4.55	1.33	4.59	1.28	4.65	1.33	2	.16	.85
	Career Success	5.04	1.40	5.06	1.50	5.12	1.47	2	.09	.91
Females	Job search	3.04	1.46	2.89	1.45	2.68	1.38	2	1.19	.31
	Info seek-coworker	4.01	1.09	3.81	1.15	3.74	1.27	2	1.63	.20
	Info seek- supervisor	3.74	1.27	3.97	1.11	3.80	1.18	2	.79	.46
	Relationship building	3.72	1.17	3.95	.99	3.74	1.21	2	1.09	.34
	Feedback seeking	3.50	1.41	3.50	1.33	3.32	1.35	2	.42	.66
	Universal job satisfaction	5.21	1.61	5.07	1.61	5.17	1.56	2	.14	.87
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.63	1.34	4.78	1.34	4.78	1.34	2	.31	.73
	Affective commitment	4.30	1.54	4.40	1.53	4.37	1.56	2	.07	.94
	Continuance commitment	4.74	1.22	4.80	1.21	4.70	1.24	2	.12	.89
	Career Success	4.92	1.43	4.79	1.45	4.78	1.45	2	.21	.81

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 13. Multivarite Summary for Within-Person Variables- Change Across Time (continued)

	Variable	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		df	F	p
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Younger than 40	Job search	3.79	1.26	3.68	1.30	3.55	1.48	2	.63	.53
	Info seek-coworker	4.27	1.00	4.31	1.00	4.11	1.09	2	.87	.42
	Info seek- supervisor	4.17	1.20	4.24	.98	4.08	1.18	2	.42	.65
	Relationship building	4.05	1.02	4.21	0.88	4.01	1.13	2	.97	.38
	Feedback seeking	4.07	1.14	4.00	1.12	3.94	1.27	2	.22	.80
	Universal job satisfaction	4.99	1.47	4.94	1.32	5.02	1.30	2	.13	.88
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.81	1.18	4.94	1.16	5.00	1.17	2	.53	.59
	Affective commitment	3.75	1.28	3.85	1.33	3.76	1.43	2	.13	.88
	Continuance commitment	4.64	1.14	4.68	1.20	4.64	1.29	2	.03	.97
	Career Success	4.94	1.35	4.86	1.37	4.80	1.49	2	.16	.85
40 or older	Job search	2.68	1.51	2.78	1.58	2.66	1.44	2	.19	.83
	Info seek-coworker	3.84	1.31	3.98	1.18	4.05	1.20	2	.82	.44
	Info seek- supervisor	3.68	1.38	3.70	1.43	3.87	1.31	2	.62	.54
	Relationship building	3.65	1.29	3.85	1.17	3.82	1.23	2	.75	.47
	Feedback seeking	3.17	1.48	3.33	1.44	3.27	1.43	2	.31	.73
	Universal job satisfaction	5.46	1.57	5.33	1.60	5.38	1.62	2	.20	.82
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.89	1.40	4.87	1.36	4.94	1.34	2	.07	.93
	Affective commitment	4.42	1.60	4.51	1.69	4.44	1.63	2	.09	.91
	Continuance commitment	4.63	1.38	4.71	1.31	4.71	1.29	2	.14	.87
	Career Success	5.03	1.44	4.99	1.55	4.99	1.55	2	.16	.85

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 13. *Multivarite Summary for Within-Person Variables- Change Across Time (continued)*

	Variable	Time 1 M	Time 1 SD	Time 2 M	Time 2 SD	Time 3 M	Time 3 SD	df	F	p
No unemployment	Job search	3.16	1.51	3.34	1.56	3.25	1.51	2	.89	.41
	Info seek-coworker	3.97	1.23	4.18	1.11	4.08	1.16	2	.00	1.00
	Info seek- supervisor	3.93	1.30	4.03	1.27	4.12	1.20	2	.02	.98
	Relationship building	3.81	1.26	4.08	1.04	3.91	1.14	2	.25	.78
	Feedback seeking	3.62	1.41	3.66	1.30	3.70	1.36	2	.26	.77
	Universal job satisfaction	5.41	1.42	5.28	1.42	5.22	1.37	2	.25	.78
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.96	1.27	5.09	1.25	5.08	1.22	2	.17	.85
	Affective commitment	4.30	1.44	4.35	1.57	4.04	1.62	2	.61	.54
	Continuance commitment	4.72	1.17	4.74	1.15	4.73	1.20	2	.17	.85
	Career Success	5.15	1.45	5.17	1.45	5.07	1.53	2	.31	.73
Had unemployment	Job search	3.17	1.52	3.03	1.50	2.88	1.51	2	.31	.73
	Info seek-coworker	4.07	1.18	4.07	1.18	4.07	1.15	2	.68	.51
	Info seek- supervisor	3.86	1.35	3.85	1.30	3.83	1.30	2	.46	.63
	Relationship building	3.84	1.14	3.94	1.09	3.90	1.23	2	1.19	.30
	Feedback seeking	3.52	1.41	3.59	1.40	3.45	1.43	2	.08	.93
	Universal job satisfaction	5.12	1.64	5.05	1.55	5.21	1.60	2	.41	.67
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.76	1.33	4.73	1.28	4.87	1.30	2	.30	.74
	Affective commitment	3.98	1.55	4.11	1.58	4.23	1.55	2	1.02	.36
	Continuance commitment	4.55	1.37	4.67	1.35	4.63	1.36	2	.00	1.00
	Career Success	4.85	1.35	4.74	1.46	4.89	1.39	2	.10	.90

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 13. *Multivarite Summary for Within-Person Variables- Change Across Time (continued)*

	Variable	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3				
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	df	F	p
Managerial	Job search	3.40	1.50	3.31	1.49	3.32	1.58	2	1.27	.73
	Info seek-coworker	4.23	1.15	4.33	1.07	4.43	0.94	2	.21	.72
	Info seek- supervisor	4.17	1.21	4.18	1.24	4.24	1.20	2	.43	.86
	Relationship building	4.00	1.09	4.10	1.04	4.16	1.08	2	.52	.54
	Feedback seeking	3.93	1.23	3.81	1.26	3.90	1.32	2	.14	.67
	Universal job satisfaction	5.57	1.48	5.37	1.46	5.41	1.40	2	.03	.85
	Facet Job satisfaction	5.07	1.21	5.10	1.15	5.17	1.17	2	.14	.35
	Affective commitment	4.14	1.44	4.39	1.63	4.04	1.64	2	1.27	.43
	Continuance commitment	4.62	1.31	4.66	1.26	4.60	1.33	2	.72	.77
	Career Success	5.32	1.29	5.20	1.40	5.29	1.34	2	.14	.97
Non-managerial	Job search	2.94	1.49	3.05	1.56	2.79	1.42	2	.61	.54
	Info seek-coworker	3.83	1.22	3.93	1.12	3.75	1.23	2	.40	.67
	Info seek- supervisor	3.64	1.38	3.71	1.29	3.70	1.26	2	.16	.85
	Relationship building	3.66	1.26	3.92	1.09	3.66	1.24	2	1.05	.35
	Feedback seeking	3.22	1.48	3.44	1.42	3.25	1.40	2	.86	.43
	Universal job satisfaction	4.96	1.55	4.95	1.50	5.04	1.57	2	.16	.86
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.64	1.36	4.71	1.36	4.77	1.33	2	.13	.88
	Affective commitment	4.12	1.57	4.07	1.51	4.24	1.53	2	.26	.77
	Continuance commitment	4.64	1.26	4.74	1.27	4.75	1.25	2	.03	.97
	Career Success	4.67	1.43	4.68	1.50	4.67	1.50	2	.00	1.00

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 13. *Multivarite Summary for Within-Person Variables- Change Across Time (continued)*

	Variable	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3		df	F	p
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
2-year college and lower degree	Job search	2.90	1.49	2.89	1.63	2.87	1.51	2	.11	.89
	Info seek-coworker	3.81	1.44	3.81	1.42	3.87	1.37	2	.11	.90
	Info seek- supervisor	3.54	1.56	3.53	1.52	3.80	1.41	2	.19	.82
	Relationship building	3.55	1.42	3.82	1.34	3.64	1.32	2	.29	.75
	Feedback seeking	2.97	1.56	3.26	1.46	3.12	1.42	2	.46	.63
	Universal job satisfaction	5.08	1.77	5.11	1.71	5.04	1.76	2	.13	.88
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.57	1.51	4.69	1.56	4.64	1.52	2	.16	.86
	Affective commitment	4.31	1.64	4.35	1.55	4.15	1.65	2	.29	.75
	Continuance commitment	4.69	1.22	4.77	1.31	4.76	1.29	2	.20	.82
	Career Success	5.02	1.45	4.90	1.67	4.84	1.58	2	.04	.96
4-year college and higher degree	Job search	3.27	1.51	3.29	1.48	3.14	1.52	2	.03	.97
	Info seek-coworker	4.11	1.08	4.26	.93	4.16	1.04	2	.56	.57
	Info seek- supervisor	4.04	1.18	4.10	1.13	4.06	1.16	2	.17	.84
	Relationship building	3.94	1.07	4.08	.92	4.02	1.11	2	.76	.47
	Feedback seeking	3.81	1.27	3.77	1.28	3.76	1.35	2	.08	.92
	Universal job satisfaction	5.35	1.42	5.20	1.37	5.33	1.33	2	.24	.78
	Facet Job satisfaction	4.98	1.19	5.00	1.12	5.12	1.10	2	.69	.50
	Affective commitment	4.05	1.45	4.19	1.58	4.14	1.56	2	.17	.84
	Continuance commitment	4.61	1.32	4.66	1.25	4.65	1.29	2	.30	.74
	Career Success	4.99	1.38	4.97	1.37	5.05	1.39	2	.09	.92

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 14. Summary of Results: Coping behaviors at Tn predicting employment quality and career success at Tn

	Global Job sat.	Facet job sat.	Contin com.	Affective com.	Perceived career suc.	Object. career suc.
Job search	**Yes**	No	No	**Yes**	No	No
Infoseek coworker	No	**Yes**	No	No	**Yes**	No
Info seek superv.	No	**Yes**	No	No	**Yes**	No
Relation. building	**Yes**	**Yes**	No	No	**Yes**	No
Feedback seeking	No	No	No	No	No	No

* Yes= Hypothesis supported, No= Hypothesis not supported

Table 15a. *HLM Results: Personal Resources Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Global Job Satisfaction
Level 1				
Intercept (γ_{00})	4.16**	4.66**	4.92**	5.22**
	0.09	0.07	0.07	0.08
Level 2:				
Intercept x Career Sef- Efficacy (γ_{01})	0.46**	0.18	0.05	0.29**
	0.11	0.08	0.08	0.1
Intercept x Protean Mindset (γ_{02})	0.05	0.33**	0.52**	0.50**
	0.1	0.08	0.08	0.1
Intercept x Career Adaptability (γ03)	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.01
	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.06
Intercept x Gender (γ04)	0.27	0.09	-0.46*	-0.25
	0.19	0.14	0.14	0.18
Intercept x Education Level (γ05)	-0.04	0.01	0.19*	0.14
	0.1	0.07	0.07	0.09
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ06)	0.03	-0.5	-0.13	-0.1
	0.1	0.07	0.07	0.09
R^2Change	17%	13%	18%	28%
Pseudo R^2(between)	32%	31%	36%	33%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce. $^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 15b. *HLM Results: Social Capital Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Global Job Satisfaction
Level 1				
Intercept (γ_{00})	4.16**	4.66**	4..92**	5.22**
	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.09
Level 2:				
Intercept x Quantity of Social Network(γ_{01})	0.13	0.01	0.08	0.04
	0.08	0.06	0.09	0.11
Intercept x Quality of Social Network (γ_{02})	0.11	0.06	0.13*	0.14*
	0.11	0.08	0.06	0.07
Intercept x Gender (γ03)	0.32	0.13	-.34*	-0.13
	0.19	0.15	0.16	0.19
Intercept x Education Level (γ04)	-0.07	0.001	0.19	0.11
	0.1	0.07	0.08	0.1
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ05)	0.08	-0.02	-0.05	-0.01
	0.1	0.07	0.08	0.1
R^2Change	1%	0%	4%	2%
Pseudo R^2(between)	3%	3%	15%	11%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce

$^{*}p$ <.05. $^{**}p$<.01.$^{***}p$<.001

Table 15c. *HLM Results: Contextual Factors Predicting Employment Quality*

Variable	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Faceted Job Satisfaction	Global Job Satisfaction
Level 1				
Intercept (γ_{00})	4.16**	4.66**	4.92**	5.22**
	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.08
Level 2:				
Intercept x Organizational Career Support(γ_{01})	.17*	.19**	.50**	52**
	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.08
Intercept x Inflation Rate(γ_{02})	0.001	0.001	0	0
	0.001	0	0	0
Intercept x Unemployment Rate (γ03)	0.002	0	0.01	0
	0.01	0	0.01	0
Intercept x Gender (γ04)	0.33*	0.16	-0.28*	-0.07
	0.19	0.14	0.13	0.16
Intercept x Education Level (γ05)	-0.1	-0.02	0.12	0.04
	0.1	0.07	0.07	0.08
Intercept x Total Years in Workforce (γ06)	0.12	0.01	0.06	0.11
	0.1	0.07	0.07	0.09
R^2 Change	8%	7%	20%	22%
Pseudo R^2(between)	19%	13%	38%	31%

Note: Entries are unstandardized coefficients (and S.E.). N=543 (Level 1), *N* = 181 (Level 2). Control variables= Gender, education level, years in the workforce. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$

Table 16. Summary of Results: Resources and contextual factors predicting employment quality at Tn

	Affective comm. Tn	Continuance com. Tn	Facet job sat. Tn	Global job sat. Tn
Adaptability	No	No	No	No
Career self-efficacy	**Yes**	No	No	**Yes**
Protean mindset	No	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**
Social capital (quantity)	No	No	No	No
Social capital (quality)	No	No	**Yes**	**Yes**
Org. career support	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**
Unemployment rate	No	No	No	No
Inflation rate	No	No	No	No

* Yes= Hypothesis supported, No= Hypothesis not supported

Table 17a. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Global Job Satisfaction at Time2*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Protean Mindset					
IV to Mediator	.00	.33**	.32**	.26*	.27*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.41**	.27*	-.06	.31**	.11
IV to DV, (total effect)	.42**	.42**	.42**	.42*	.42**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.09	.09	.09	.09	.09
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-00	.10**	-.02	14*	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.09, .09	.01,.03	-.12, .06	.03, 13	-.05, .07
Adaptability					
IV to Mediator	.32**	-.01	.06	.11	.20**
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.43**	.29**	-.07	.33*	.02
IV to DV, (total effect)	.14	.14	.14	.14	.14
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.14**	.01	.00	.04	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.26, -.05	-.05, .07	-.07, .01	-.01, .14	-.26, .09

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17a. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Global Job Satisfaction at Time2 (continued)*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org. career support					
IV to Mediator	.26*	.28**	.16*	.42**	.44*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.43**	.29*	-.07	.33*	.026
IV to DV, (total effect)	.45**	.45**	.45**	.45**	.45**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.36**	.36**	.36**	.36**	.36**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.11*	.08**	-.02	.14**	.012
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.23, -.02	.02, .21	-.16, .06	.02, .31	-.08, .11
Quantity of network					
IV to Mediator	-.02	.26*	.24**	.27**	.13
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.44**	.28*	-.06	.48**	.09
IV to DV, (total effect)	.20*	.20*	.20*	.20*	.20*
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.05	.05	.05	04	.05
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	.07	.10*	-.02	.10*	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.07, .12	.01, .19	-.12, .05	.02, .19	-.01, .09
Quality of network					
IV to Mediator	.21*	.22**	.27*	.30**	.24*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.45**	.45**	-.05	.41**	.09
IV to DV, (total effect)	.03	.03	.03	.03	.03
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.07	.07	.07	.07	.07
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.09	.10*	-.01	.15**	.022
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.20, .01	.01, .20	-.11, .06	06, .29	-.03, .11

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17b. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Facet Job Satisfaction at Time2*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Protean					
IV to Mediator	.00	.33**	.32**	.37 **	.27*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.14*	.07	-.05	.52**	.06
IV to DV, (total effect)	.49**	.49**	.49**	.49**	.49**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.27**	.27**	.27**	.27**	.27**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.00	.022	-.01	.19**	.03
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.04, .03	-.04, .12	-.09., .05	.09, .34	-.03, .08
Org. career support					
IV to Mediator	.26*	.28**	.36**	.42**	.45*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.14*	.16	-.08	.52**	-.0124
IV to DV, (total effect)	.56**	.56**	.56**	.56**	.56**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.38**	.38**	.38**	.38**	.38**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.05	.05	-.03	.22 **	-.0055
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.12, .01	-.00, .15	-.14, .04	.10, .38	-.10, .07
Quality of network					
IV to Mediator	-.02	.27*	.24*	.16 *	.13
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.20*	.14	-.07	.48*	.06
IV to DV, (total effect)	.24*	.24*	.24*	.24*	.24*
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	.00	.04	-.02	.11*	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.03, .05	-.02, .12	-.09, .04	.03, .24	-.02, .07

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17c. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Affective Commitment at Time2*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org career support					
IV to Mediator	.26*	.06	.07	.48**	-.11
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.40**	.05	-.02	.19*	-.01
IV to DV, (total effect)	.32**	.32**	.32**	.32**	.32**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.38**	.38**	.38**	.38**	.38**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.15*	.00	-.00	.14*	.00
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.31, -.03	-.01, .06	-.06, .03	.02, .22	-.03, .06

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17d. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Continuance Commitment at Time2*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org career support					
IV to Mediator	.26*	.28*	.36**	.42**	.45**
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.07	-.11	.10	-.19	.28**
IV to DV, (total effect)	.24**	.24**	.24**	.24**	.24**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.21*	.21*	.21*	.21*	.21*
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.02	-.03	.04	-.08	.13*
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.08, .02	-.15, .04	-.06, .17	-.22, .03	.03, .27

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17e. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Perceived Career Success at Time2*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org career support					
IV to Mediator	.26*	.28*	.36**	.42**	.37**
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.25*	.34*	-.13	.34*	.13
IV to DV, (total effect)	.51**	.51**	.51**	.51**	.51**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.28*	.28*	.28*	.28*	.28*
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.06	.09	-.05	.14*	.00
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.15, .01	.01, -.24	-.19, .04	.02, .29	-.09, .12
Protean					
IV to Mediator	.00	.23**	.32**	.36**	.27*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.22*	.30*	-.11	.30*	.08
IV to DV, (total effect)	.40**	.40**	.40**	.41**	.40**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.27**	.27**	.27**	.27**	.27**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.00	.08*	-.03	.11*	.02
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.05, .05	01, .24	-.15, .05	02, .29	-.05, .02

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17f. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Global Job Satisfaction at Time 3*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Protean Mindset					
IV to Mediator	.10	.30**	.25**	.34*	.01
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.35**	.24*	.04	.41**	.18
IV to DV, (total effect)	.25**	.25**	.25**	.25*	.25**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.08	.08	.08	.08	.08
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.05	.10**	.01	.14*	.05
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.11,.02	.04,.28	-.04,.09	.04, .26	-.00,.10
Adaptability					
IV to Mediator	.28**	-.01	.03	.12	.18*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.39**	.22**	-.08	.30*	.01
IV to DV, (total effect)	.10	.10	.10	.10	.10
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.001	.001	.00	.001	.001
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.12**	.01	.00	.04	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.15, -.02	-.03, .04	-.02, .04	-.01, .10	-.22., .04

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17f. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Global Job Satisfaction at Time 3 (continued)*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org. career support					
IV to Mediator	.23*	.29**	.11	.51**	.40*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.33**	.19*	-.03	.31**	.06
IV to DV, (total effect)	.41**	.41**	.41**	.41**	.41**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.31**	.31**	.31**	.32**	.32**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.10**	.05**	-.04	.16*	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.13, -.04	.01, .30	-.17,.02	.04, .31	-.04. .13
Quantity of network					
IV to Mediator	-.06	.12*	.20**	.37**	.11
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.42**	.34*	-.03	.49**	.03
IV to DV, (total effect)	.24*	.24*	.24*	.24*	.24*
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.06	.06	.06	06	.06
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	.00	.13**	-.05	.13**	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.08, .17	.01, .15	-.19, .05	.01, .23	-.06, .11
Quality of network					
IV to Mediator	.24*	.24**	.27*	.28**	.23*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.43**	.33**	-.08	.45**	.09
IV to DV, (total effect)	.28	.28	.28	.20	.28
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.06	.06	.06	.06	.06
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.05	.11*	-.03	.12**	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.23, .01	.03, .17	-.17, .08	04, .28	-.06, .11

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17g. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Facet Job Satisfaction*

Time 3

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Protean					
IV to Mediator	.04	.36**	.35**	.40**	.21*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.17*	.09	-.05	.26**	.07
IV to DV, (total effect)	.22**	.22**	.22**	.22**	.22**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.34**	.34**	.34**	.34**	.34**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.00	.02	-.04	.10*	.05
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.08, .03	-.01,.10	-.08, .02	.03, .20	-.01, .02
Org career support					
IV to Mediator	.22*	.28**	.37**	.51**	.48*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.13*	.13	-.08	.28**	-.02
IV to DV, (total effect)	.65**	.65**	.65**	.65**	.65**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.46**	.46**	.46**	.46**	.46**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	*-.09	.05*	-.08	.15*	-.05
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.11 .-01	.03, .16	-.13, .08	.05, .27	-.10, .01
Quantity of network					
IV to Mediator	-.06	.28*	.20*	.26**	.11
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.21*	.19	-.03	.25*	.08
IV to DV, (total effect)	.21*	.21*	.21*	.21*	.21*
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.06	.06	.06	.06	.06
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	.03	.07	-.07	.06*	.017
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.04, .04	-.02, .11	-.07, .01	.01, .17	-.05, .09

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17h. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Affective Commitment Time3*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org. career support					
IV to Mediator	.22*	.03	.03	.51**	-.15
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.42**	.04	-.03	.21*	-.02
IV to DV, (total effect)	.30**	.30**	.30**	.30**	.30**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.33**	.33**	.33**	.33**	.33**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.18*	.01	-.01	.11*	.01
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.29, -.02	-.02,.08	-.05,.06	.01, .24	-.01,.09

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17i. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Continuance Commitment Time3*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org career support					
IV to Mediator	.25*	.27*	.37**	.32**	.35**
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.06	-.15	.13	-.12	.29**
IV to DV, (total effect)	.17**	.17**	.17**	.17**	.17**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.19*	.19*	.19*	.19*	.19*
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.01	-.09	.07	-.09	.11*
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.06, .05	-.14,.09	-.01,.15	-.28,.06	.02, .29

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 17j. *Coping Behaviors Mediating the Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Career Success Time3*

	Mediators				
	Job search	Info seek-coworker	Info seek-supervisor	Relationship building	Feedback seeking
Org career support					
IV to Mediator	.25*	.27*	.34*	.42**	.31**
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.24*	.23*	-.19	.31*	.13
IV to DV, (total effect)	.49**	.49**	.49**	.49**	.49**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.22*	.22*	.22*	.22*	.22*
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.02	.04	-.06	.15*	.12
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.12, .02	.03, -.28	-.16,.05	.03, .24	-.02, .13
Protean					
IV to Mediator	.00	.29**	.21*	.40**	.21*
Mediator to DV controlling for IV	-.20*	.44*	-.10	.31*	.06
IV to DV, (total effect)	.50**	.50**	.50**	.51**	.50**
IV to DV (Direct effect)	.39**	.39**	.39**	.39**	.39**
Indirect Effect of IV on DV	-.01	.06*	-.02	.12*	.06
Bootstrap lower-upper limit	-.09, .02	02, .28	-.16, .07	.04, .24	-.06,.05

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 18. Summary of Results: Coping behaviors at Tn mediating the relationships of resources and contextual factors with employment quality at Tn.

	Global job sat. Tn	Facet job sat. Tn	Contin. comm. Tn	Affective com. Tn	Perce. career succ. Tn	Objec. Career Succ.
Adaptability	**Yes (JS)**	No	No	No	No	No
Care. self-eff.	No	No	No	No	No	No
Prot. mindset	**Yes(IC, RB)**	**Yes(RB)**	No	No	**Yes(IC, RB)**	No
Soc.C.(quant.)	**Yes(IC, RB)**	No	No	No	No	No
Soc.C.(qual.)	**Yes (IC, RB)**	**Yes(RB)**	No	No	No	No
Org. car. sup.	**Yes(JS, IC, RB)**	**Yes(RB)**	**Yes(FS)**	**Yes(JS,RB)**	**Yes(RB)**	No
Unemp. rate	No	No	No	No	No	No
Inflation rate	No	No	No	No	No	No

* Yes= Hypothesis supported, No= Hypothesis not supported

*Mediators are in parentheses JS: Job search behavior, IC: Information seeking from coworker. RB: Relationship building. FS: Feedback seeking

Table 19a. *Employment Quality at T1 Predicting Coping at T2. Regression Results*

	Job search			Info seek coworker			Info seek supervisor		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Global job satisfaction	-.10	.01	-.11	.11	.01	.12	.02	.00	.03
Faceted job satisfaction	-.02	.00	-.04	.28	.10	.33**	.31	.11	.32**
Affective commitment	-.43	.07	-.42**	-.02	.00	-.03	-.03	.00	-.04
Continuance commitment	-.04	.01	-.05	.04	.00	.05	.02	.00	.05
Perceived career Success	-.02	.00	.03	.10	.01	.12	.11	.02	.12
Salary	.05	.00	.07	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.01
Org. level	.01	.00	.02	.03	.00	.01	.06	.00	.08

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 19a. *Employment Quality at T1 Predicting Coping at T2. Regression Results (continued)*

	Relationship building			Feedback seeking		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Global job satisfaction	.09	.01	.09	.33**	.12	.32**
Faceted job satisfaction	.31	.09	.40**	.03	.01	.05
Affective commitment	.10	.03	.11	.05	.01	.06
Continuance commitment	.03	.00	.03	.04	.01	.06
Perceived career Success	.04	.00	.05	.00	.01	.01
Salary	.02	.00	.03	.00	.01	.00
Org level	.03	.00	.06	.00	.01	.01

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 19b. *Employment Quality at T2 Predicting Coping at T3. Regression Results*

	Job search			Info seek coworker			Info seek supervisor		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Global job satisfaction	-.07	.01	-.09	.06	.0	.07	.02	.00	.03
Faceted job satisfaction	-.02	.00	.03	.24	.11	.27**	.33	.12	.34**
Affective commitment	-.37	.08	-.39**	-.06	.01	.08	.04	.00	.06
Continuance commitment	.00	.00	-.01	.03	.00	.04	.07	.00	.09
Career Success	0.3	.00	.02	.08	.01	.10	.10	.01	.11
Salary	.06	.00	.07	.04	.00	.06	.01	.00	.03
Org level	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.01

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 19b. *Employment Quality at T2 Predicting Coping at T3. Regression Results (continued)*

	Relationship building			Feedback seeking		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Global job satisfaction	.09	.02	.11	.10	.02	.12
Faceted job satisfaction	.37	.10	.39**	.26	.13	.24**
Affective commitment	.08	.00	.10	.02	.01	.03
Continuance commitment	.04	.00	.06	.00	.00	.02
Career Success	.06	.00	.09	.05	.01	.05
Salary	.01	.00	.03	.01	.00	.02
Org level	.04	.00	.06	.01	.00	.01

Note. $N = 185$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 20. Section Summary: Supported Hypotheses in Employment quality at Tn predicting coping behaviors at Tn+1

	Job search Tn+1	Infoseek. Cowork. Tn+1	Infoseek. Superv. Tn+1	Relationship build. Tn+1	Feedback seek Tn+1
Global job sat. Tn	No	No	No	No	No
Facet job sat Tn	No	No	No	No	No
Affec. comm. Tn	**Yes**	No	No	No	No
Conti. Com. Tn	No	No	No	No	No
Perc. carer suc. Tn	No	No	No	No	No
Salary	No	No	No	No	No
Org. level	No	No	No	No	No

Yes= Hypothesis support, No= Hypothesis not supported

Figure 1. *Research Design of the Study*

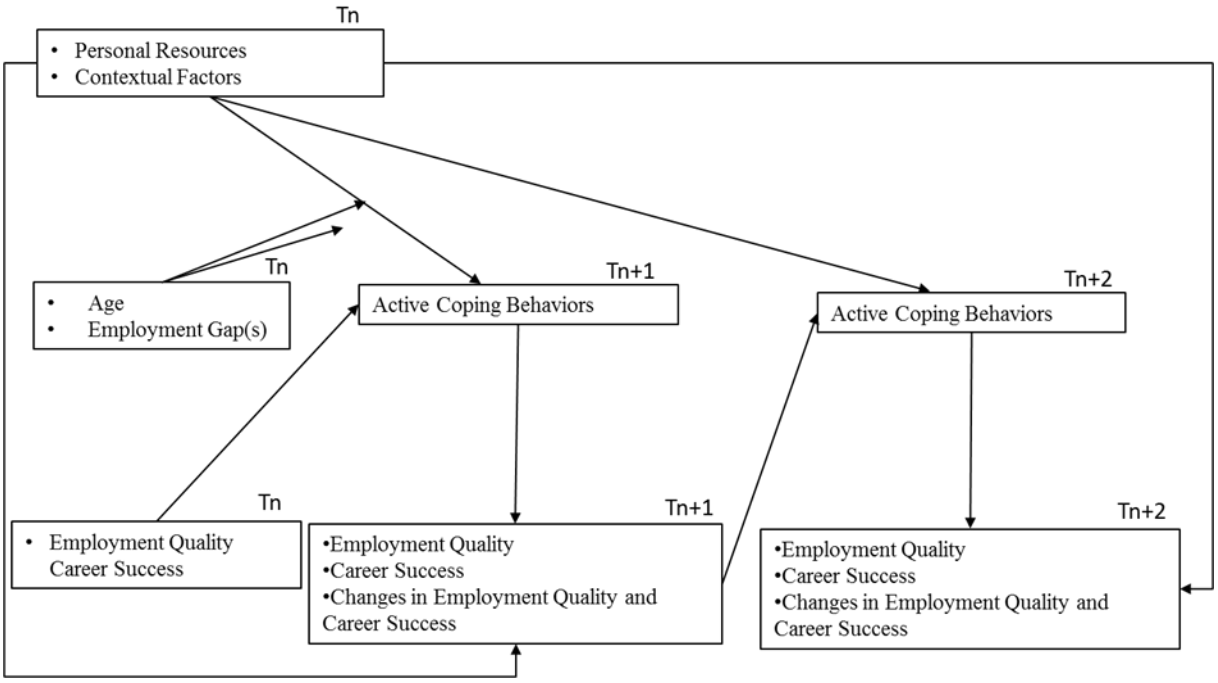


Figure 2. *Research Design and Hypotheses of the Study*

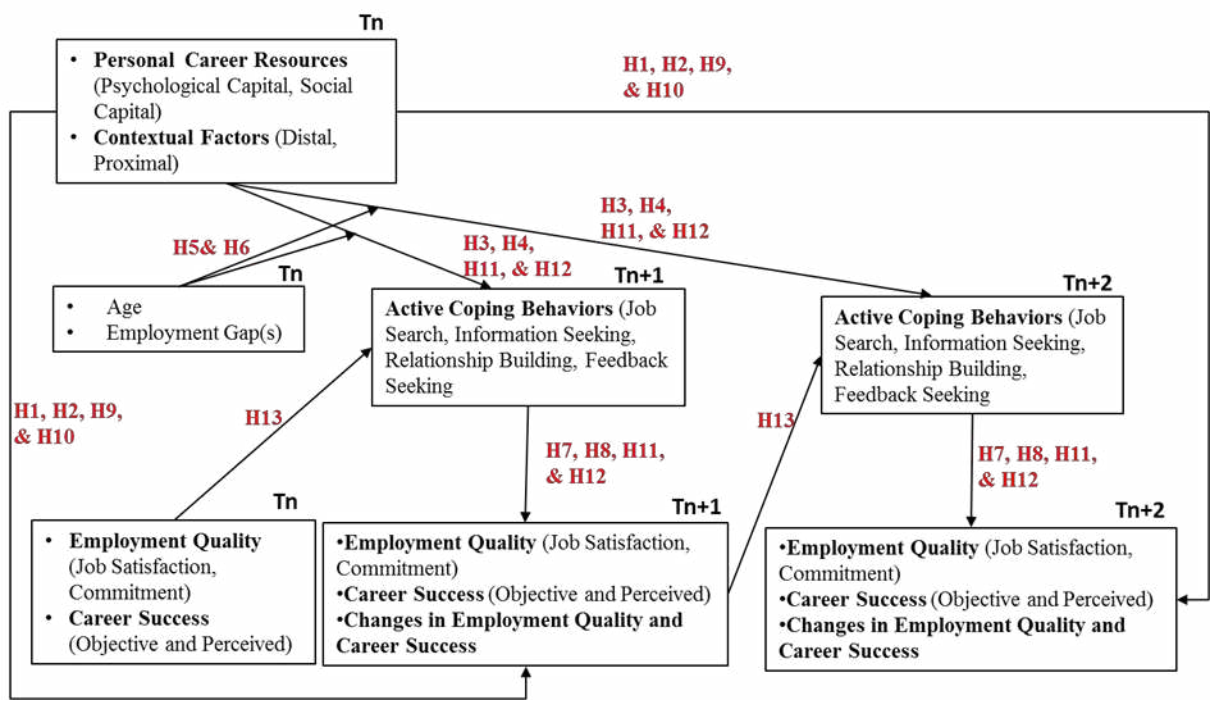


Figure 3. *Model Showing the Direct Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Active Coping Behaviors*.

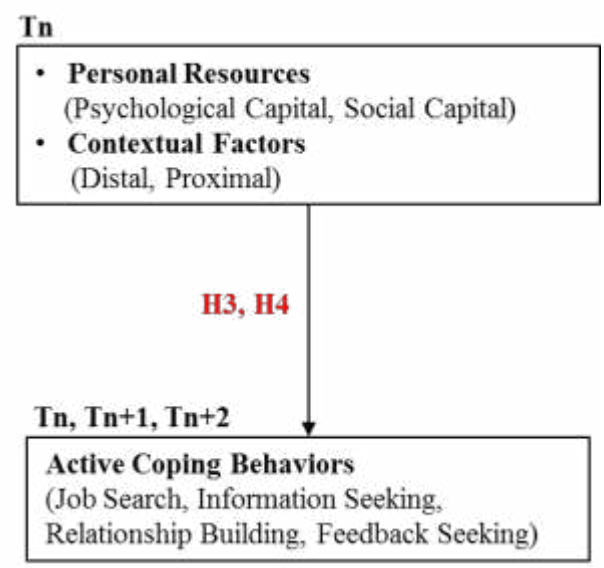


Figure 4. Model Showing the Direct Relationships of Active Coping Behaviors with Employment Quality and Career Success

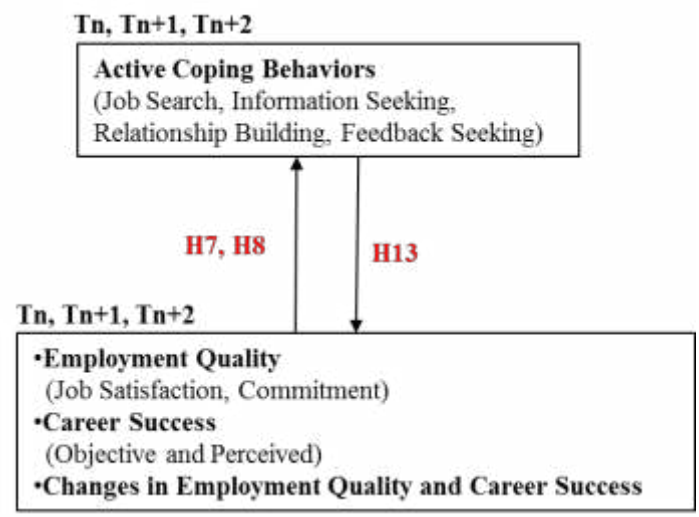


Figure 5. *Model Showing the Direct Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Employment Quality and Career Success*

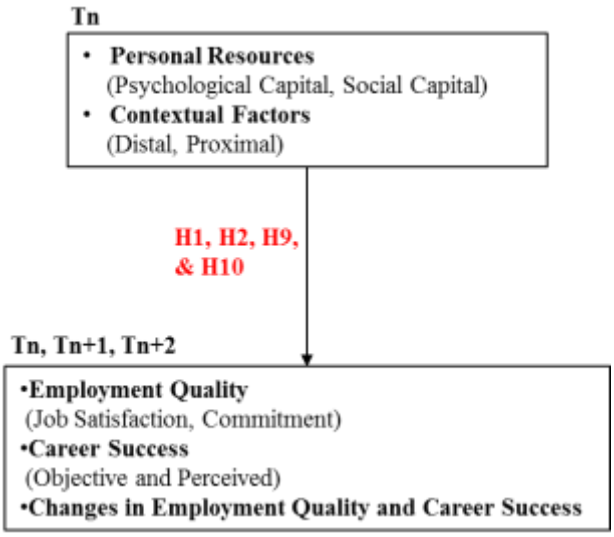


Figure 6. *Model Showing Relationships of Personal Resources and Contextual Factors with Employment Quality and Career success with Indicted Relationships Mediated by Active Coping Behaviors and Moderated by Age and Employment Gaps*.

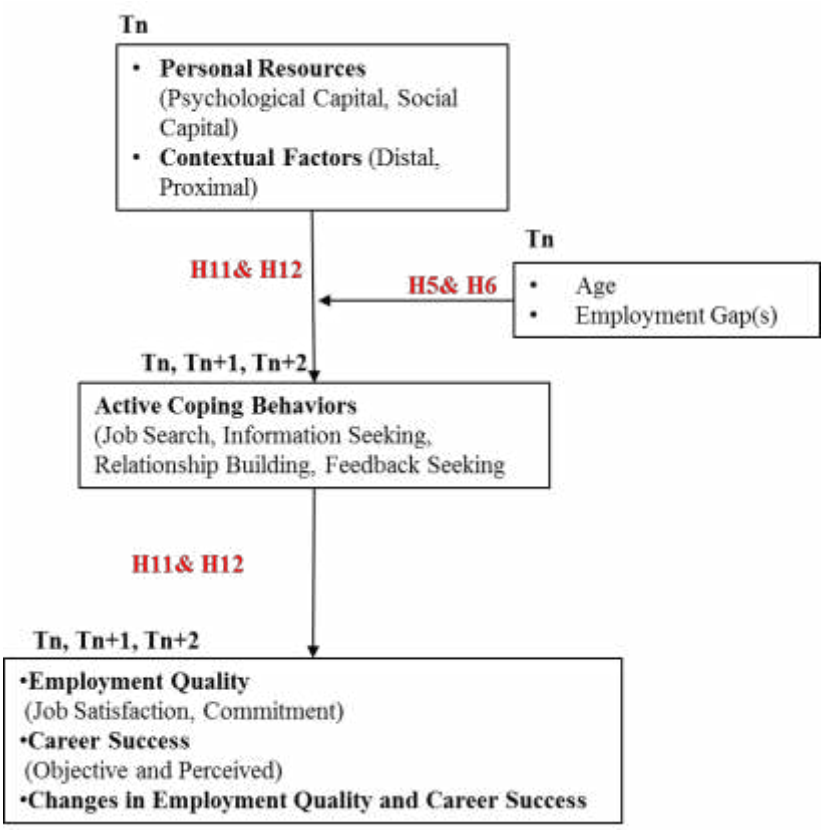
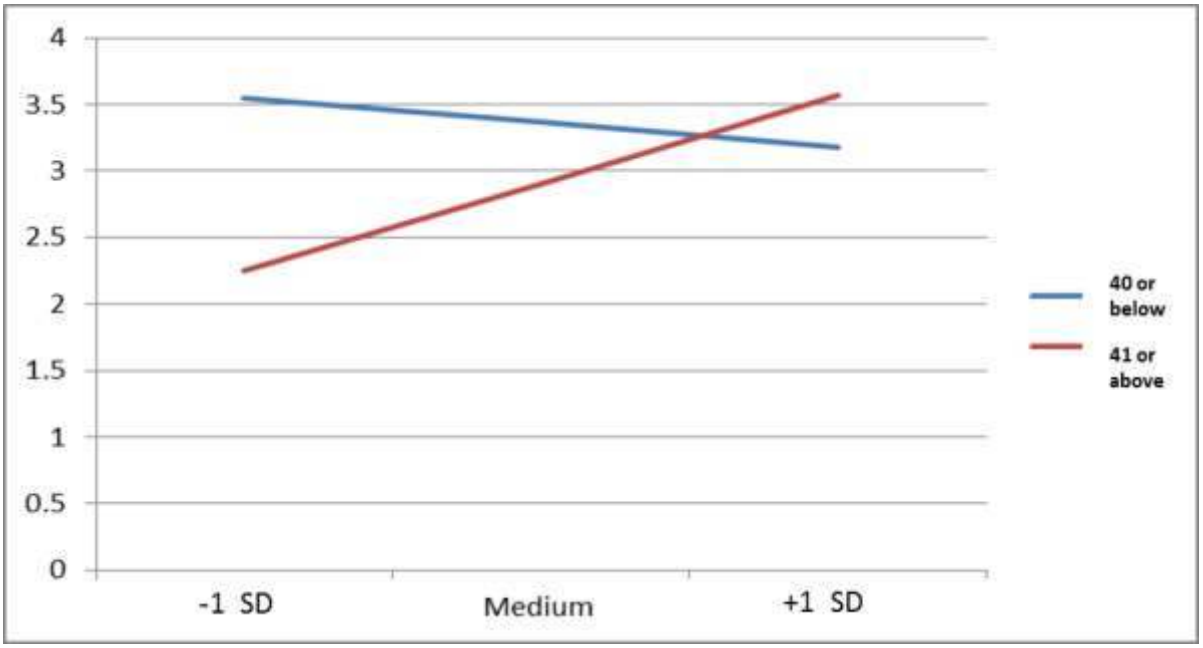
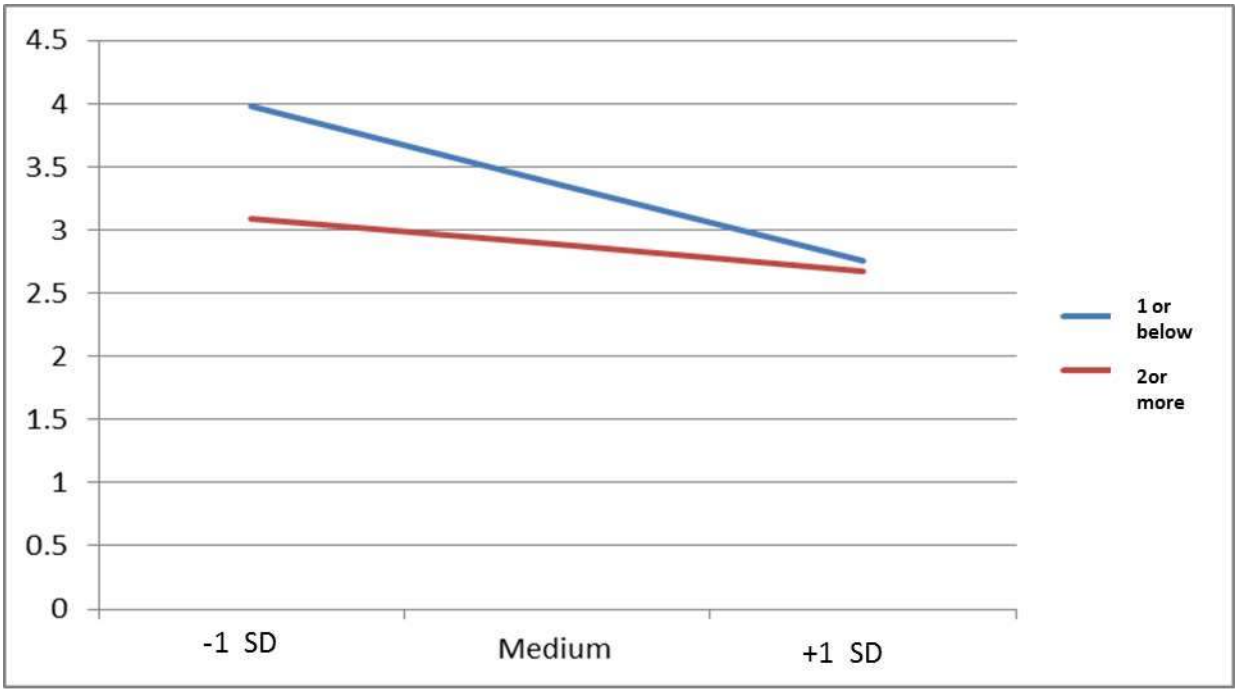


Figure 7a. *Age moderating the relationship between quality of social capital and job search*



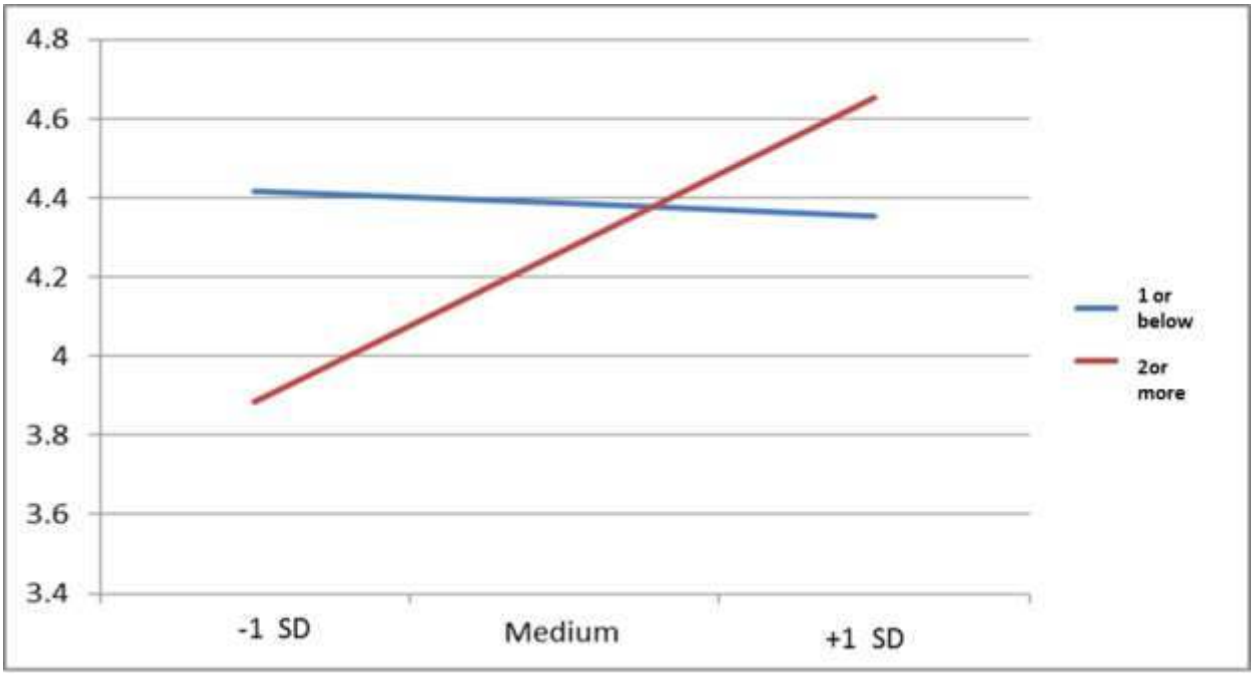
**x-axis= social capital- quality Y-axis= job search. Lines=age.*

Figure 7b. *Unemployment instances moderating the relationship between career self-efficacy and job search*



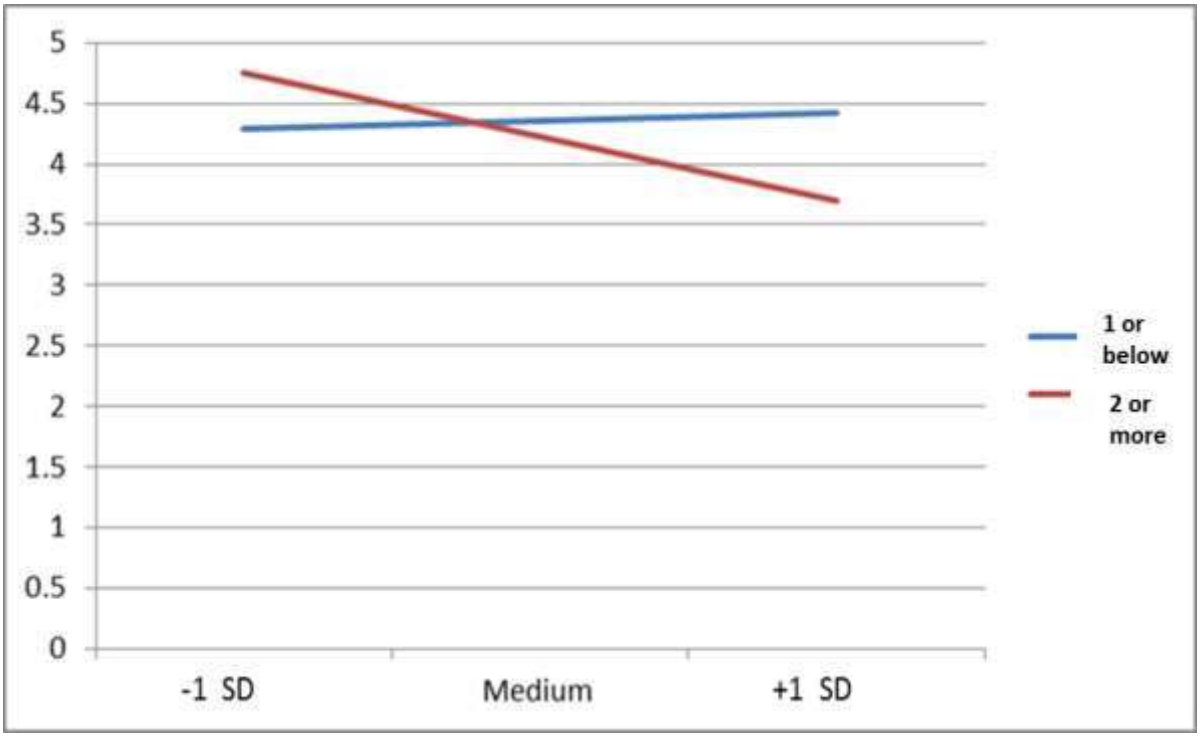
**x-axis= career self-efficacy. Y-axis= job search. Lines=unemployment.*

Figure 7c. *Unemployment instances moderating the relationship between career self-efficacy and information seeking from coworker*



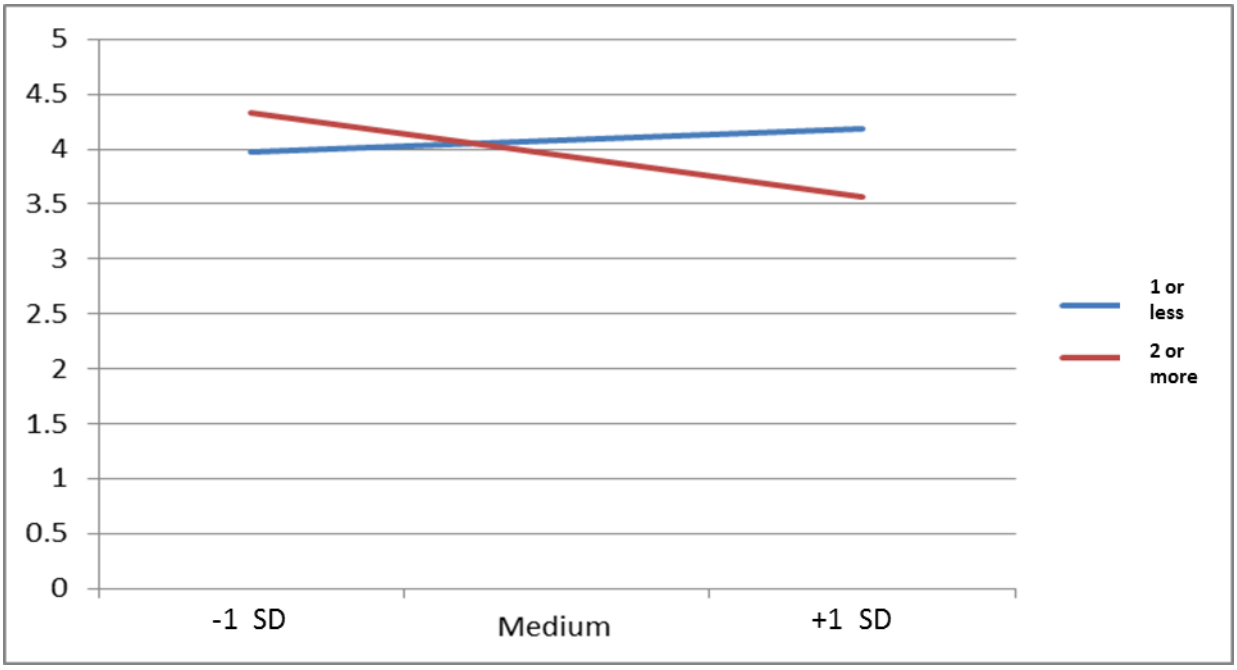
**x-axis= career-self efficacy Y-axis= coworker info seeking. Lines=unemployment instances*

Figure 7d. *Unemployment instances moderating the relationship between adaptability and information seeking from coworker*



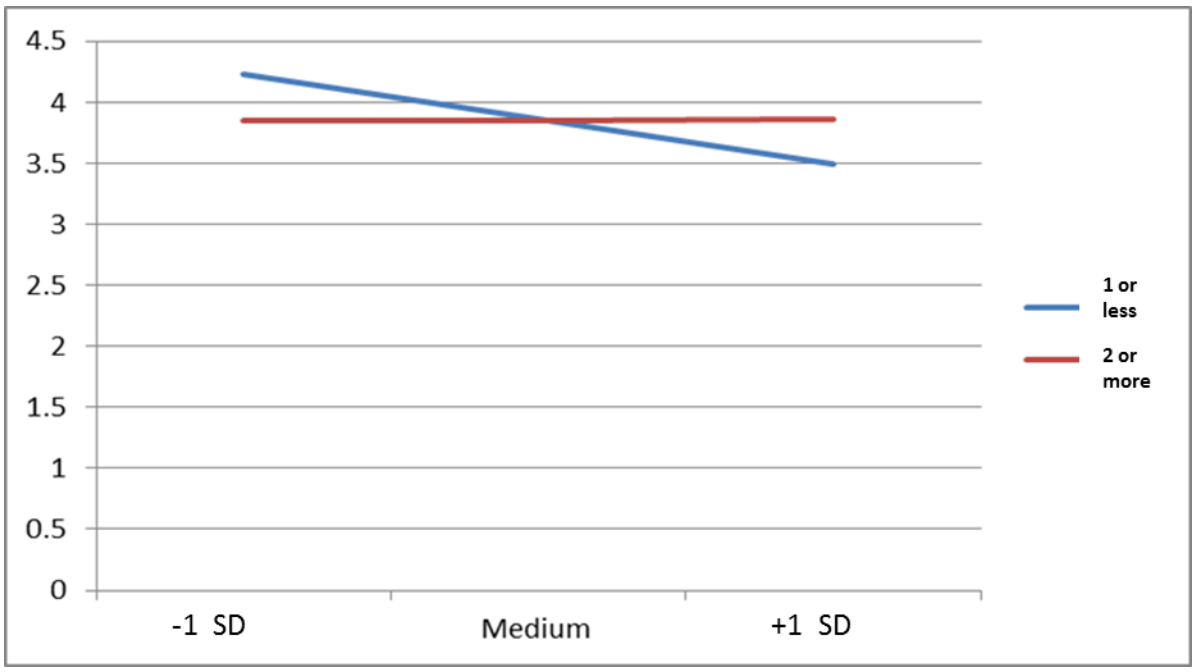
**x-axis= adaptability Y-axis= Information seeking from coworker. Lines=unemployment instances.*

Figure 7e. *Unemployment instances moderating the relationship between adaptability and information seeking from supervisor*



**x-axis= adaptability Y-axis= information seeking from supervisor. Lines=unemployment instances*

Figure 7f. *Unemployment instances moderating the relationship between career self-efficacy and feedback seeking*



**x-axis= career self-efficacy Y-axis= feedback seeking. Lines=unemployment instances*

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