Crafting the Change: The Role of Employee Job Crafting Behaviors for Successful Organizational Change

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Organizations today have to change constantly. Although both practitioners and scientists agree that organizational change communication is the most effective strategy to improve employee adjustment to change, little is known about how change communication enhances more proactive employee reactions to change. The present study addresses employee job crafting behaviors (i.e., seeking job resources, seeking job challenges, and reducing job demands) as a tool used by employees in order to respond to and cope with implemented organizational change. Using regulatory focus theory, we propose that on the basis of their promotion or prevention regulatory focus, employees respond to organizational change communication via job crafting behaviors that further enhance or hinder their adjustment to change (i.e., work engagement and adaptivity). Hypotheses are tested with a latent change score analytical approach via a three-wave longitudinal design among 368 police officers. Findings reveal that while adequate change communication is linked to increased job crafting behaviors for promotion focused employees, inadequate change communication is linked to increased job crafting behaviors for prevention focused employees. Furthermore, seeking resources is positively associated with employee work engagement, seeking challenges is positively associated with adaptivity, and reducing demands is negatively associated with work engagement. These findings bring

together three different streams of literature (i.e., organizational change, regulatory focus, and job crafting). Implications for management are outlined, and they are, thereafter, translated to a specific workplace intervention, which is proposed to organizations and managers.

Organizational change entails efforts that change agents, mainly managers, exert to bring employees to new behaviors that benefit the organization (Van der Ven, 2011). One of the most essential influence strategies that organizations enact in order to implement changes is effective communication of these changes (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993). Communication is the way to mobilize employees and persuade them to embrace change. In fact, employees' cooperation is vital during a change process since it is via their actual behaviors that organizational change occurs (Porras & Robertson, 1992). Today managers expect employees not only to adapt to implemented change but also to introduce changes themselves (Grant & Parker, 2009). Therefore, next to the role of managers in communicating organizational change clearly, the role of employees in successful adaptation to organizational change becomes critical.

Although adequate organizational change communication enhances employee adjustment (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004), little is known about what employees can do by themselves to facilitate their adaptation to organizational change. Such knowledge will help managers guide employees through uncertain times and will uncover how employees can survive organizational change on the basis of their actions. Following job redesign approaches (Grant & Parker, 2009) and perspectives on flexible types of work performance (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007), we address job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) as a strategy through which employees react to organizational change communication. We propose that via self-initiated voluntary behaviors (i.e., seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands), job crafters reshape the content of their jobs to deal more effectively with changes communicated by their organization. In that sense, we deal here with two kinds of change: organizationally communicated changes and employee initiated changes occurring via job crafting.

Quality of organizational change communication refers to the extent to which an organization provides useful, timely, and sufficient information on the implemented organizational change (Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and, thereby, commits employees to the change process. However, drawing from the individual differences theory within organizational change research (e.g., Kirton, 1980), we do not expect that organizational change communication elicits the same reactions from all employees. For example, in line with regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998), employee focus on promotion (e.g., development) versus prevention (e.g., duties) influences how employees perceive and react to organizational change communication (Brockner & Higgins, 2001), a proposition that has received surprisingly limited attention from research. Therefore, we propose that job crafting is a potential strategy employees use to react to and deal with organizational change, but the extent to which individuals engage in this behavior is based on the combination of the provided change information (i.e., quality of organizational change communication) and the way they interpret this

Figure 1
Our Hypothesized Model
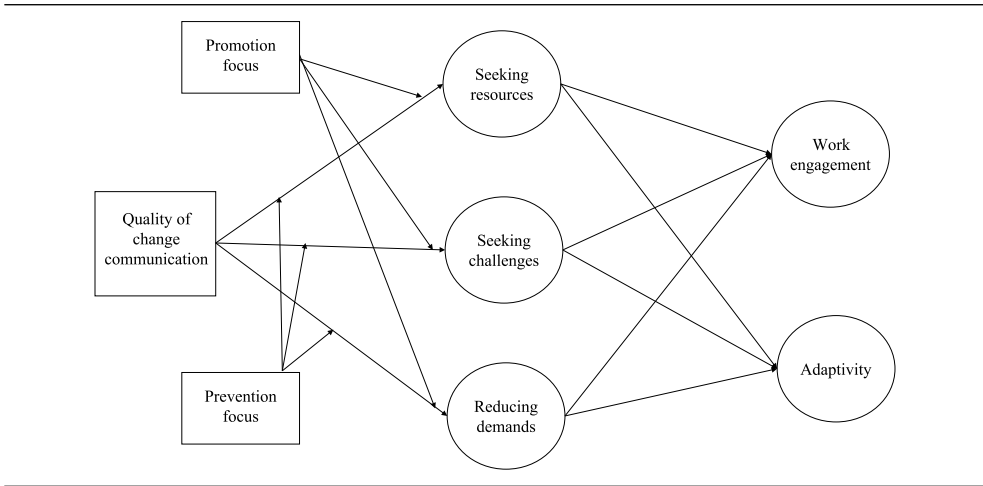
information (i.e., employee promotion vs. prevention focus). The first aim of our study is, thus, to introduce employee regulatory (promotion vs. prevention) focus as a condition (moderator) that determines the effectiveness of quality of organizational change communication in triggering job crafting.

Assuming that employees utilize job crafting strategies as a response to organizational change communication, an obvious question arises, namely, are these strategies successful in facilitating adaptation? The second aim of our paper is to examine the consequences of job crafting for employee motivation and performance. Adapting to organizational change successfully means that employees perform adequately their new tasks and remain engaged at work (Van den Heuvel, Demerouti, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2010). Therefore, we focus on work engagement and adaptivity as two employee outcomes of job crafting in organizational change context. Taken together, our research aims to address job crafting as an employee reaction to organizational change, which depends on organizational factors (i.e., organizational change communication) and individual factors (i.e., regulatory focus) and has the potential to enhance or perhaps hinder employee adaptation to new tasks (see Figure 1 for our hypothesized model).

To achieve our aims, we conducted a longitudinal survey among police officers. Police officers face high pressure to perform and frequent organizational changes that aim at improved performance (Juniper, White, & Bellamy, 2010); therefore, they provide a valuable opportunity to examine our questions. Our paper brings together job crafting and organizational change literature and contributes to these research areas in two ways. First, it uncovers whether job crafting represents a successful strategy that helps individuals adapt to organizational change (i.e., individual control over organizational changes) and whether this can be triggered by high quality change information provided by the organization (i.e., organizational control over organizational changes). Rather than focusing on adaptation in terms of employee resistance, which is frequently done in organizational change literature, we focus on work engagement and individual adaptivity, which are beneficial for both the employees

and the organization. Second, this study uncovers whether regulatory focus as a basic motivational orientation of employees influences the effectiveness of organizational change communication in triggering job crafting.

Conceptualizing Job Crafting

Via job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), employees alter the task boundaries of a job (i.e., type or number of activities), the cognitive task boundaries of a job (i.e., how one sees the job), and the relational boundaries of a job (i.e., whom one interacts with at work). In order to describe in more detail specific actions performed by job crafters, recent literature (Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012) has used the job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) as a conceptual framework. This model distinguishes job characteristics into job demands (i.e., demanding job aspects that require physical and psychological effort) and job resources (i.e., job aspects that are functional for achieving work goals and can eliminate the costs of the demands). While resources enhance employee work motivation, demands impair employee health (Demerouti et al.) or enhance motivation when perceived as challenges (e.g., Prieto, Soria, Martínez, & Schaufeli, 2008). Following this stream of literature, we refer to job crafting as voluntary self-initiated employee behaviors targeted at seeking resources (i.e., asking a manager or colleagues for advice), seeking challenges (i.e., asking for more responsibilities), and reducing demands (i.e., eliminating emotional, mental, or physical job demands). Unlike other existing definitions of job crafting that have been reported by employees to occur one to two times per year (e.g., Lyons, 2008), the conceptualization that we use is reported as a daily employee behavior during organizational change (Petrou et al.). Therefore, it is an appropriate way to capture the specific ways in which employees deal with organizational changes that occur constantly in their daily lives.

Organizational Change Communication and Job Crafting

Practitioners (Lewis, Schmisseur, Stephens, & Weir, 2006) and scientists (Johansson & Heide, 2008) agree that organizational change communication is a powerful tool in implementing organizational change successfully. High quality organizational communication around implemented changes involves employees in the change in at least two ways. First, by providing adequate information, it reduces feelings of uncertainty (Bordia et al., 2004). Second, by providing relevant information, it justifies the necessity of change (S. M. Klein, 1996). Provided that employees cannot avoid dealing with change, they are likely to seek ways in which to adjust to the new situation. How does this process evolve? Employees do not automatically "adjust" or "fail to adjust" to organizational change. In fact, next to job performance, research has explored a range of extrarole or voluntary behaviors displayed by employees as a reaction to change (Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011), which perhaps help them deal with the new tasks. For example, by creating a pool of facilitators and by bringing their situation closer to their wishes, job crafters may enhance their adaptation to a changing work environment (Kira, Van Eijnatten, & Balkin, 2010).

However, positive voluntary behaviors are likely not only when employees are content but also when they lack information. On one hand, employees should experience role clarity before

exerting extrarole behaviors (Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011). On the other hand, a job that does not meet employee expectations (i.e., producing misfit) does not necessarily lead to negative outcomes. To the contrary, this state is often linked to employee activation and may benefit employee well-being (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012). Similarly, when employees lack role clarity, they compensate for that via extrarole behaviors (Yun, Takeuchi, & Liu, 2007). In fact, while organizational change communication is acknowledged as a vital resource during organizational change, ambiguity is not described in exclusively negative terms. For instance, some extent of "strategic ambiguity" (Eisenberg, 1984: 228) can be functional in providing employees with the autonomy to engage in a range of beneficial behaviors.

The same paradox dominates the literature on proactive behaviors. Employees craft their jobs when they are provided with motivating factors, such as job autonomy (Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009) or leader support (Van Dam, Nikolova, & Van Ruysseveldt, 2013) but also when their working conditions are not optimal (Frese & Fay, 2001) or when they encounter uncertain and ambiguous situations at work (Grant & Parker, 2009). There is, thus, reason to expect that employees craft their jobs not only when they receive adequate change communication (i.e., in order to translate their readiness to change to relevant actions that help them embrace change) but also when they lack change communication (i.e., in order to improve their situation and motivation). This two-fold reasoning does not allow us to form straightforward expectations regarding the link between quality of organizational change communication and job crafting. We argue that individual differences in terms of motivational style can explain this link. On the basis of regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998), we examine whether employees are motivated to take action because of their ideals (i.e., what they want) or their fears (i.e., what they do not want).

Regulatory Focus and the Link Between Communication and Job Crafting

Organizational change communication is socially constructed and filtered by individuals via sense making (Johansson & Heide, 2008). People react to organizational change on the basis of their ability to create meaning (Van den Heuvel, Demerouti, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2013) and their values (K. J. Klein & Sorra, 1996). Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) illustrates different employee motivational styles that may result in different interpretations of organizational change by individuals (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Within the core of regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) lies a distinction between promotion and prevention focused individuals. Promotion focused individuals are motivated by their wish to grow and frame their goals in terms of "gain" or "nongain." Prevention focused individuals are motivated by their sense of responsibility and frame their goals in terms of "loss" or "nonloss." By looking at promotion and prevention focus, we gain insight into distinct roles that organizational change communication has for employees with different motivational styles.

Promotion Focus

Promotion focused individuals are creative and extraverted, and they display extrarole behaviors and a learning orientation at work (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008; Gorman et al., 2012). Because they are open to new experiences (Vaughn, Baumann, & Klemann, 2008),

they prefer change rather than stability (Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins, 1999). Promotion focused individuals aim at growth and development, so they are more ready to embrace change, since growth and development only comes through change.

A similar process should apply when organizational change is implemented. Promotion focused employees tend to take risks and improve themselves on the basis of their ideals, for instance, the identity they want to actualize and the goals they want to attain (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). Job crafting, thus, might represent an approach strategy used by promotion focused employees to reach their ideals (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Organizational change symbolizes for them an opportunity to learn (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Therefore, when organizational change is communicated to them in a clear, understandable, and timely way, it should motivate them in the following ways: First, organizational change communication of high quality will activate their natural tendency, namely, embracing change as a means of gain (Liberman et al., 1999). Second, their tendency to display voluntary behaviors (i.e., job crafting) will be enhanced in order to ensure their adjustment to the new situation. In fact, promotion focused individuals are motivated the most when the communication they receive emphasizes how they can succeed in reaching their goals (Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004). Besides a means to create meaning, organizational change communication is a tool necessary for employees to understand how they can successfully reach their new goals (Johansson & Heide, 2008). In that sense, when organizational change communication is of high quality, promotion focused employees are motivated to display the actions that will help them adapt to their new tasks and, therefore, attain growth. For example, via seeking resources, they will make full use of learning and developmental opportunities; via seeking challenges, they will feel competent and they will actualize their full potential; and via reducing demands, they will decrease possible disruptions that prevent them from pursuing their ideal outcomes. Hence, we formulate:

> *Hypothesis 1:* Quality of organizational change communication is positively related to employee job crafting when employee promotion focus is high rather than low.

Prevention Focus

Prevention focused individuals are security oriented, alert, and not particularly self-efficacious (Gorman et al., 2012; Higgins, 1997). In general, prevention focused individuals are interdependent rather than independent (Pham & Avnet, 2004) and rely on information, guidance, or confirmation from others or the environment rather than from themselves. For instance, prevention focused employees are shown to rely on managerial behaviors and role modeling more than promotion focused employees (Zhang, Higgins, & Chen, 2011).

During organizational change, communication should play a qualitatively different role for prevention compared to promotion focused employees. Prevention focused individuals are convinced by information communicated at the concrete rather than the abstract level (Lee, Keller, & Sternthal, 2010) since concrete information appeals to their motivation to perform their duties. Therefore, quality of organizational change communication should play an extrinsic utilitarian role (i.e., "I am told what I have to do in order to perform") rather than an intrinsic motivational role (i.e., "I am presented with opportunities for self-accomplishment"). When this information is of high quality, prevention focused employees can focus on their new duties.

What happens, though, when such useful and quality information is absent? Environmental uncertainty is more likely to stimulate uncertainty reducing behaviors (e.g., seeking information) for prevention focused individuals. While promotion focused employees may seek information (cf. job crafting) in order to exploit learning opportunities (e.g., signaled by quality change communication), prevention focused employees are more likely to seek information in order to reduce their uncertainty (Morrison, 2002), which is more likely to arise when organizational communication is of poor quality. Such inefficient or vague change communication from the organization will exacerbate their fear of failure, which is exactly what motivates prevention focused individuals to intensify their efforts in order to avoid this feared failure (Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004). In other words, while prevention focused employees may not be job crafters from their nature (Tims & Bakker, 2010), they may engage in a diverse set of job crafting actions when these help them avoid failure. For example, prevention focused employees who receive poor change communication will seek resources in order to reduce their uncertainty, they will seek challenges in order to feel capable of preventing feared failure, and they will reduce demands that perhaps interfere with their core tasks.

Similarly, accumulating evidence indicates that prevention focused individuals step out of their comfort zone and engage in divergent or unconventional courses of action when these actions can restore a negative environmental input or state (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2011; Scholer, Zou, Fujita, Stroessner, & Higgins, 2010). In other words, the motivating and energizing effects of a suboptimal work situation (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012) could become particularly pronounced for prevention focused employees. This proposition is, in fact, in agreement with regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Unmet prevention (rather than promotion) goals are accompanied by a state of high arousal and activation. When this feeling is channeled into the right direction, it can lead to beneficial energized behavior (Brockner & Higgins, 2001).

All in all, we propose that quality of organizational change communication restricts job crafting when employee prevention focus is high. Reversely, poor organizational change communication and its associated cost increases job crafting when prevention focus and, thus, intolerance for uncertainty (Morrison, 2002), is high.

> *Hypothesis 2:* Quality of organizational change communication is negatively related to employee job crafting when employee prevention focus is high rather than low.

Implications of Job Crafting During Organizational Change

Successful organizational change initiatives require that employees perform adequately on the new tasks and sustain their work engagement (Van den Heuvel et al., 2010). Therefore, we examine how employee job crafting (i.e., seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands) leads to two potential outcomes, namely, work engagement and adaptivity. Work engagement is a positive, fulfilling, and work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Adaptivity refers to the degree to which employees cope with, respond to, and support changes that affect their roles as organization members (Griffin et al., 2007). We note that while Hypotheses 1 and 2 assumed the same direction of effects to all job crafting dimensions, our remaining hypotheses break crafting into distinct dimensions because previous literature has shown that different job crafting dimensions relate to employee engagement and performance in different ways.

Seeking Resources

Individuals strive to accumulate resources so as to sustain existing resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Seeking job resources involves asking colleagues or the supervisor for advice or feedback on one's performance or seeking learning opportunities (Petrou et al., 2012). By seeking job resources, employees expand their resources pool, which enhances work engagement and provides the tools to increase performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004) because, by definition, resources foster goal achievement (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources are helpful during organizational change because they help employees cope with change, reduce uncertainty (Robinson & Griffiths, 2005), and adjust to the new situation (Terry, Callan, & Sartori, 1996). Depending on different motivational orientations, seeking resources may result in any of these outcomes. For promotion focused employees, seeking resources may be a way to find the necessary tools that will help them adapt to the new situation and, therefore, realize their full potential. For prevention focused employees, seeking resources may be more helpful in reducing uncertainty and providing a feeling of control that helps them fulfil their role and adapt to organizational changes.

> *Hypothesis 3:* Seeking resources is positively related to (a) employee work engagement and (b) adaptivity.

Seeking Challenges

Seeking challenges at work includes behaviors such as looking for new tasks once one finishes work or taking on more responsibilities (Petrou et al., 2012). Research has challenged the idea that job demands play an exclusively dysfunctional role. For example, challenge stressors enhance employee motivation via positive emotions and attitudes (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Taking on more responsibilities or focusing on the challenging aspects of the change improves employee work engagement (Petrou et al.) and facilitates employee adjustment (Amiot, Terry, Jimmieson, & Callan, 2006). This is in agreement with Bandura's (1986) social learning theory and with incremental approaches to organizational change (e.g., Orlikowski, 1996), whereby the mastery of successively more complex challenges helps individuals adjust to a new situation. The mastery experiences gained via seeking challenges will enhance the readiness of employees to embrace organizational change, and they will increase their motivation and performance on the new tasks. Therefore:

> *Hypothesis 4:* Seeking challenges is positively related to (a) employee work engagement and (b) adaptivity.

Reducing Demands

Reducing demands is a crafting strategy that may have dysfunctional implications. It includes behaviors targeted towards minimizing the emotionally, mentally, or physically demanding aspects of one's work (Petrou et al., 2012). Task avoidance, which is a way of reducing demands, has been viewed as a withdrawal-oriented coping response (J. D. Parker & Endler, 1996). Such responses entail a rigid and disengaging approach to a new situation and are ineffective ways to cope with organizational change (Amiot et al., 2006). Similarly, because demands contribute to the experience of a job environment as challenging and

motivating (Podsakoff et al., 2007), reducing job demands has been suggested as an indicator of low motivation and an unsuccessful strategy to adapt to organizational change (Petrou et al.). In other words, by eliminating their challenges and mastery experiences at work, employees who reduce their demands will also reduce their engagement and will be unprepared to perform adequately in new situations. Therefore, we formulate:

> *Hypothesis 5:* Reducing demands is negatively related to (a) employee work engagement and (b) adaptivity.

Method

Participants

Invitations to participate in the survey were sent to 1,780 police officers working in a Dutch regional police force that underwent organizational changes including the introduction of a new information and communications technology system, merging of departments, staff relocations, and increasing professionalization via employee trainings. The changes did not result in any personnel redundancies during the study period. The respondents who completed the Time 1 (T1) survey as well as the two yearly follow-ups (Time 2, T2, and Time 3, T3) were 368 (overall response rate = 21%).[1] On average, they were 43.5 years old (*SD* =9.84), they had a mean tenure of 18 years (*SD* = 11.68), and 36.7% were women. Of the respondents, 35.3% worked principally in executive patrol services (out of office), and 64.7% worked principally in administrative or support positions (at the office).

Procedure

The survey was administered online just before the majority of organizational changes were initiated (T1), during the changes (T2), and 1 year after the changes had been completed (T3). An interval of 1 year occurred between time measurements. According to information provided by the organization, a few changes were starting already at T1, and several changes planned for T2 lasted considerably longer than expected or started with delay. Participants were informed about the surveys through e-mails and meetings. They were invited to participate via e-mail, and those who did not take part received e-mail reminders twice. Study completers were compared to dropouts on all demographic and study variables. Compared to study completers, participants who dropped out after T1 and participants who dropped out after T2 reported organizational change communication of lower quality.

Measures

At the beginning of all surveys, respondents were informed that the topic of the survey was work engagement during organizational change. On the top of all pages that concerned organizational changes, employees were instructed to think of the implemented changes of the "current reorganization/organizational development" every time they read the word "change(s)." Because the survey was part of a larger project focusing on organizational change, where possible, we administered shortened scales to reduce fatigue effects and increase participation.

Employee Regulatory Focus

Employee regulatory focus was measured with a shortened version (Petrou, Demerouti, & Häfner, 2013) of the 18-item Work Regulatory Focus scale (Neubert et al., 2008). Promotion focus was measured with five items (e.g., "I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success"; Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .82; alpha$_{T2}$ = .82; alpha$_{T3}$ = .82). Prevention focus was measured with five items (e.g., "I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work"; Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .69; alpha$_{T2}$ = .70; alpha$_{T3}$ = .72). Items were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 6 (*totally agree*). In general, research indicates that regulatory focus has a trait component, which is relatively stable across individuals (Higgins, Friedman, Harlow, Idson, Ayduk, & Taylor, 2001). At the same time, regulatory focus is not only an individual characteristic. Environments or tasks may also activate a promotion or prevention focus through the cues of language and communication (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier, 2009). For instance, respondents in our sample who have a generally medium to strong promotion focus could develop a much stronger promotion focus at T2 because the organizational change initiative activates their ideal self. Indeed, preliminary analyses of our data revealed that the amount of variance attributed to between-person variation was 54% for prevention focus and 63% for promotion focus, meaning that considerable amounts of variation are explained by within-person (i.e., across time) variations. Therefore, we did not aggregate different time measurements of promotion and prevention focus but, instead, treated them as independent variables.

Quality of Organizational Change Communication

To measure the quality of organizational change communication, we used three items based on Wanberg and Banas (2000). A sample item is, "The information I have received about the changes has been useful" (Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .85; alpha$_{T2}$ = .87; alpha$_{T3}$ = .91). Items were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 6 (*totally agree*).

Job Crafting

Job crafting was measured with the three dimensions of general-level job crafting used by Petrou et al. (2012). After excluding two items with factor loadings below .40 from the original six-item subscale, we measured *seeking resources* with a four-item shortened version. An example item is, "I ask others for feedback on my job performance" (Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .70; alpha$_{T2}$ = .69; alpha$_{T3}$ = .70). *Seeking challenges* included three items, such as "I ask for more tasks if I finish my work" (Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .75; alpha$_{T2}$ = .77; alpha$_{T3}$ = .82). *Reducing demands* included four items, such as "I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense" (Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .76; alpha$_{T2}$ = .78; alpha$_{T3}$ = .79). Items were rated on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*).

Work Engagement

We measured employee work engagement with the nine-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006) that includes three subscales of three items each: Vigor (e.g., "At my work, I feel bursting with energy"), Dedication (e.g., "I am enthusiastic about my job"), and Absorption (e.g., "I am immersed in my work"). Respondents indicated how often

they experience each state using a scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). An aggregate score of the subscales was used in the analyses (Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .95; alpha$_{T2}$ = .95; alpha$_{T3}$ = .95), since a 1-factor solution of the measure has acceptable goodness of fit (Schaufeli et al.).

Adaptivity

Adaptivity was measured with the three-item Individual Task Adaptivity scale by Griffin et al. (2007). Because it was assumed before the start of the study that in T1, task changes had not been largely introduced, respondents of the T1 survey were asked to rate the items thinking of what they generally do (e.g., "I adapt well to changes in core tasks"), whereas in T2 and T3, they were asked to report on behaviors thinking of the past month (e.g., "I have adapted well to changes in core tasks"; Cronbach's alpha$_{T1}$ = .86; alpha$_{T2}$ = .90; alpha$_{T3}$ = .90). Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*).

Types of Organizational Change

Because not all employees dealt with the same types of organizational change at the same time, we administered a checklist of organizational change types to be used as a control variable in our analyses. On the basis of our contact with the organization, we decided on a list representing all possible changes respondents could deal with due to the organizational change initiative. Some types represent changes that were situated centrally within the change initiative (e.g., technological innovation), and other changes were less central but were part of an effort to become a more efficient organization (e.g., flexible work methods). We asked participants to indicate the types of change that the current "reorganization/organizational development within the police force" comprised. The checklist included new tasks (28% at T1, 22% at T2, and 24% at T3), new ways of completing existing tasks (47% at T1, 46% at T2, and 39% at T3), news ways of working with colleagues or clients (36% at T1, 39% at T2, and 38% at T3), working with new technologies (33% at T1, 35% at T2, and 33% at T3), working with new products or services (14% at T1, 16% at T2, and 19% at T3), getting a new supervisor (30% at T1, 40% at T2, and 44% at T3), working at a new location (21% at T1, 19% at T2, and 22% at T3), not having a fixed workspace anymore/flexible working (10% at T1, 12% at T2, and 14% at T3), or other types of change that were indicated in an open answering format (24% at T1, 21% at T2, and 17% at T3).

Impact of Organizational Change

Because not all employees were affected by the change in the same degree (according to the management), we asked participants one question about the extent to which the overall implemented changes interfered with their daily tasks to use as a control in our analyses. The answering scale ranged from 1 (*hardly*) to 10 (*daily*). T2 impact (M = 5.65, SD = 3.25) was significantly higher than T1 impact (M = 5.02, SD = 3.22, t = −3.82, df = 367, p < .001) and significantly higher than T3 impact (M = 5.25, SD = 2.83, t = 2.53, df = 367, p < .05). In line with information provided by the organization, it seems that although a moderate amount of change impact was perceived at all time measurements, this was significantly higher at T2.

A Latent Change Score Analytical Approach

Our reasoning assumes that employees display job crafting *because of organizational change*. Job crafting should, thus, represent a change, in other words, an increase in the habitual levels of job crafting displayed by employees. Similarly, a change in job crafting should relate to a change in adaptivity or work engagement. To capture change in our outcome variables appropriately, we analyzed data with a latent change score (LCS) approach (McArdle, 2001) in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2010). Because of the known problems associated with subtracting two scores from each other, the LCS approach creates an LCS represented by two repeated observed scores, whereby both repeated scores are modeled rather than being forced into a single difference score (see McArdle, 2009, for a review).

Building Our Model

Unlike many applications of LCS that examine relationships between two changing variables (e.g., Jones, King, Gilrane, McCausland, Cortina, & Grimm, 2016; King, King, McArdle, Shalev, & Doron-LaMarca, 2009), we tested a rather complex model comprising several time measurements of one predictor (i.e., organizational change communication), two moderators (i.e., promotion and prevention focus), and five outcome variables (i.e., seeking resources, seeking challenges, reducing demands and, subsequently, work engagement and adaptivity). Therefore, we decided to reduce the complexity of our hypothesized model (i.e., the number of freely estimated parameters) without paying the price of losing information by using aggregate manifest variables (i.e., mean scores) to represent all our variables (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). Furthermore, we followed previous examples of simplified LCS applications (e.g., Selig & Preacher, 2009) and used only specific (and not all) time measurements that were relevant to test our hypotheses. Specifically, for change communication, promotion focus, and prevention focus, we used only T1 and T2 points. For the three job crafting variables, we used T1, T2, and T3 points. For work engagement and adaptivity, we used only T2 and T3 points.

Predicting Change

Following common practice within LCS analysis, LCSs were predicted by observed variables at the beginning of the modeled change (i.e., T1 predictors for a T1-T2 change and T2 predictors for a T2-T3 change). We, thus, created LCSs for variables that served as outcomes in our analyses (i.e., the T1-T2 change in seeking resources, the T1-T2 change in seeking challenges, the T1-T2 change in reducing demands, the T2-T3 change in seeking resources, the T2-T3 change in seeking challenges, the T2-T3 change in reducing demands, the T2-T3 change in work engagement, and the T2-T3 change in adaptivity). Predictors and moderators were all observed variables and included T1 and T2 promotion and prevention focus, T1 and T2 quality of organizational change communication, and the interaction terms (both at T1 and T2) between promotion and communication and between prevention and communication. Product terms were standardized before computing the interactions.

In preliminary analyses, we imposed constraints to test whether our hypothesized links were equal across time (e.g., the effects from T1 regulatory focus and communication to T1-T2 change in job crafting and the effects from T2 regulatory focus and communication to

T2-T3 change in job crafting) and whether the change in our constructs from T1 to T2 (e.g., in job crafting) was equal to the change in the same constructs from T2 to T3. Because we found no evidence for such stability patterns (suggesting that probably the meaning of the change itself was changing over the time frame of the study), we excluded these constraints from all analyses.

Control Variables

Younger and male employees adopt (technological) innovations earlier than older and female employees (Morris & Venkatesh, 2000; Venkatesh, Morris, & Ackerman, 2000). It could, thus, be that certain employees in our sample are particularly sensitive to organizational change communication or less eager to adapt via crafting because of their age and gender. It also seems that respondents were subjected to different types or intensity of organizational change. Perhaps respondents who dealt with cognitively demanding change (e.g., technological change) or changes of visible impact engaged in more job crafting to facilitate their adaptation in comparison to employees who dealt with straightforward types of change (e.g., a new location) or change of low impact. Therefore, we controlled for the effects of gender, age, organizational change types, and impact of change to all outcome variables. We retained only the change types that were most consistent to the way the organization described its change initiative (i.e., new technology, new location, and flexible workspace).

Model Comparisons

In order to test our hypothesized model against several alternative models, we built a series of competitive models.

Model 0. Model 0 was the baseline model. It included only the paths from the control variables to outcome variables (i.e., changes in job crafting, engagement, and adaptivity) and the stability paths from T1 promotion focus, prevention focus, and communication to the respective T2 variables. Exogenous variables were left to correlate with each other (e.g., promotion with prevention focus). Meaningful relationships between predictors and previous measurements of outcomes that were not to be included in the model as structural paths (see the Model 1 section) were included as correlations (e.g., T1-T2 change in job crafting with T2 regulatory focus). All change scores in job crafting were left to correlate with each other within the same time frame (i.e., within T1-T2 and within T2-T3) and across time (i.e., T1-T2 with T2-T3). Because promotion focus is more prevalent among younger employees (Zacher & de Lange, 2011), we allowed T1 and T2 promotion focus to correlate with age. None of the interaction terms was allowed to correlate with its products.

Model 1. Model 1 represented our hypothesized model. It included all paths and correlations of Model 0 and additionally included paths from T1 promotion and prevention focus, communication, and their interaction terms to T1-T2 change in job crafting, work engagement, and adaptivity; paths from T2 promotion and prevention focus, communication, and their interaction terms to T2-T3 change in job crafting, engagement, and adaptivity; and paths from the T2 job crafting variables to the T2-T3 change in engagement and adaptivity. Although mediation is outside the scope of our paper, we additionally included paths from

T2-T3 change in job crafting to T2-T3 change in work engagement and adaptivity in order to be able to test indirect effects. This is in line with existing mediation practices whereby the predictor is represented by a T1 variable while the mediator and the outcome are represented by two simultaneous growth processes (Cheong, MacKinnon, & Khoo, 2003) and models that examine links between change scores (Grimm, An, McArdle, Zonderman, & Resnick, 2012).

Model 2. Model 2 was similar to Model 1 but instead tested indirect effects via a different time lag of the change in job crafting. Specifically, the T1-T2 (and not T2-T3) change in job crafting predicted the T2-T3 change in work engagement and adaptivity. Therefore, this model tests the mediating effects of an earlier change in job crafting compared to Model 1. The difference from Model 1 is that while in Model 1 respondents have a whole year to change their job crafting after organizational changes have been completed, the change in job crafting in Model 2 is completed immediately after the organizational changes have been implemented. Because the T2 job crafting variables correlated very highly with the T1-T2 change in job crafting, T2 job crafting was no longer a predictor of T2-T3 work engagement and adaptivity.

Model 3. Depending on their tasks, individuals may sometimes display a dual regulatory focus (Brockner, Higgins, & Low, 2004). In that case, organizational change communication may trigger crafting of not only promotion or prevention focus but also their combination. Therefore, Model 3 was identical to our hypothesized Model 1 but additionally included the following interactions: T1 promotion × T1 prevention and T1 promotion × T1 prevention × T1 communication predicting T1-T2 change in job crafting, work engagement, and adaptivity as well as T2 promotion × T2 prevention and T2 promotion × T2 prevention × T2 communication predicting T2-T3 change in crafting, engagement, and adaptivity.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations between the variables that we retained for the analyses.

Comparing the Alternative Models

Because the four competing models are not nested, they cannot be compared via chi-square difference tests; therefore, the Akaike information criterion (AIC) was used instead. In general, a lower AIC is a decision criterion in favor of accepting a model (Burnham & Anderson, 2004). Out of all four models, our hypothesized model (Model 1) displayed the best fit indices ($\chi^2 = 446.17$, $df = 262$, $p = .000$, comparative fit index = .92, Tucker-Lewis index = .91, root mean square error of approximation = .04, standardized root mean square residual = .05) and also the lowest AIC value (AIC = 21,904.57; see Table 2 for model comparisons). Therefore, we used Model 1 to test our hypotheses (see Figure 2 for the results of tested Model 1 and Table 3 for a summary of the hypothesized and nonhypothesized significant paths).

Hypothesis 1 suggested that quality of organizational change communication positively relates to employee job crafting for high employee promotion focus. As can be seen in Figure 2,

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among the Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	M	SD
1. T1 communication	—																		3.72	1.12
2. T1 promotion focus	.10	—																	3.38	0.98
3. T1 prevention focus	.10	.30**	—																4.23	0.69
4. T1 seeking resources	.16**	.33**	.21**	—															3.47	0.55
5. T1 seeking challenges	.00	.45**	.16**	.46**	—														3.03	0.80
6. T1 reducing demands	-.05	.17**	.23**	.04	.07	—													2.08	0.63
7. T2 communication	.59**	.03	.08	.23**	-.02	-.03	—												3.75	1.10
8. T2 promotion focus	.11**	.63**	.19**	.29**	.33**	.13*	.08	—											3.32	0.98
9. T2 prevention focus	.11**	.15**	.55**	.13*	.13*	.12*	.10	.38**	—										4.19	0.71
10. T2 seeking resources	.17**	.24**	.12*	.60**	.29**	.05	.23**	.28**	.14**	—									3.38	0.56
11. T2 seeking challenges	.08	.39**	.10	.35**	.53**	.11*	.04	.46**	.23**	.46**	—								2.99	0.80
12. T2 reducing demands	-.11*	.00	.05	-.07	-.07	.49**	-.09	.12*	.09	.03	.01	—							2.07	0.69
13. T2 work engagement	.29**	.07	.14**	.32**	.20**	-.18**	.35**	.01	.17**	.26**	.19**	-.22**	—						3.83	1.09
14. T2 adaptivity	.26**	.05	.10	.22**	.16**	-.04	.23**	.06	.14**	.29**	.29**	-.10*	.34**	—					3.96	0.76
15. T3 seeking resources	.15**	.29**	.05	.55**	.34**	.05	.16**	.31**	.12*	.62**	.40**	-.02	.25**	.28**	—				3.37	0.55
16. T3 seeking challenges	.07	.30**	.06	.36**	.53**	.06	.05	.36**	.14**	.35**	.56**	.10	.15**	.25**	.48**	—			3.00	0.83
17. T3 reducing demands	-.13*	.02	.06	.00	.05	.53**	-.09	.07	.08	-.03	-.04	.49**	-.18**	-.09	.04	.05	—		2.08	0.71
18. T3 work engagement	.28**	.05	.21**	.27**	.20**	-.10	.31**	.05	.27**	.27**	.19**	-.09	.72**	.28**	.33**	.17**	-.19**	—	3.85	1.09
19. T3 adaptivity	.24**	.12*	.18**	.28**	.25**	-.07	.26**	.10*	.13*	.25**	.23**	-.08	.32**	.43**	.26**	.22**	-.12*	.39**	4.03	0.74

Note: Communication refers to the quality of organizational change communication. Only the time measurements that have been used in the analyses are reported. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3.

*p < .05.
**p < .01.

Table 2
Fit Indices and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) Values for
All Competing Models

Model	χ^2	df	AIC	ΔAIC	RMSEA	SRMR	TLI	CFI
Model 0	768.71**	330	22,091.12	186.55	.06	.07	.80	.82
Model 1	446.17**	262	21,904.57	0	.04	.05	.91	.92
Model 2	464.86**	268	21,911.27	6.7	.05	.05	.90	.91
Model 3	816.13**	327	27,051.80	5,147.23	.06	.06	.79	.80

Note: ΔAIC refers to the AIC comparison with the model of the lowest AIC, which is Model 1. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index.
**$p < .01$.

Table 3
Summary of Significant Effects

| Predictor variable	Outcome variable	Standardized estimate	Hypothesis
T1 promotion focus × T1 change communication	T1-T2 change in seeking resources	0.10*	Hypothesis 1
T1 promotion focus × T1 change communication	T1-T2 change in seeking challenges	0.07*	Hypothesis 1
T2 prevention focus × T2 change communication	T2-T3 change in seeking challenges	−0.16**	Hypothesis 2
T2-T3 change in seeking resources	T2-T3 change in work engagement	0.17**	Hypothesis 3a
T2 seeking challenges	T2-T3 change in adaptivity	0.34**	Hypothesis 4b
T2-T3 change in seeking challenges	T2-T3 change in adaptivity	0.17*	Hypothesis 4b
T2-T3 change in reducing demands	T2-T3 change in work engagement	−0.14*	Hypothesis 5a
T1 promotion focus	T1-T2 change in seeking challenges	0.22**	Nonhypothesized
T1 change communication	T1-T2 change in reducing demands	−0.09*	Nonhypothesized
T2 prevention focus	T2-T3 change in work engagement	0.16**	Nonhypothesized
T2 change communication	T2-T3 change in adaptivity	0.14**	Nonhypothesized

Note: T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3.
*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.

quality of organizational change communication at T1 negatively predicted T1-T2 change in reducing demands ($\gamma = -0.09$, $p < .05$). T1 promotion focus positively predicted T1-T2 change in seeking challenges ($\gamma = 0.22$, $p < .01$). The interaction term between T1 change communication and T1 promotion focus positively predicted T1-T2 change in resources seeking ($\gamma = 0.10$, $p < .05$) and seeking challenges ($\gamma = 0.07$, $p < .05$). Figures 3 and 4 provide plots for the two interaction effects. Simple slope analyses revealed that when employee promotion focus was 1 *SD* above the mean, quality of organizational change communication positively predicted T2-T3 change in resources seeking (estimate = 2.83, $p < .01$) and seeking challenges (estimate = 2.23,
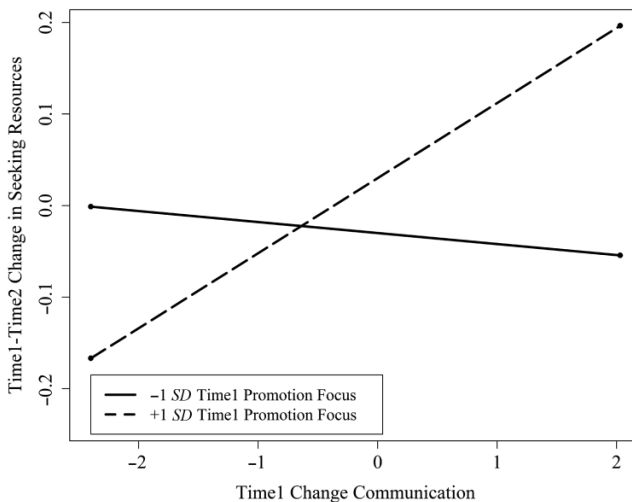
Figure 2
**Results for the Hypothesized Latent Change Score Model**
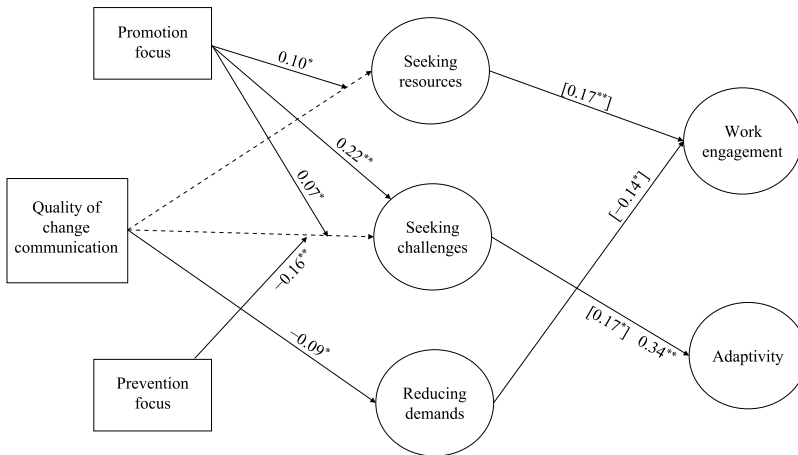
Note: For the sake of clarity, correlations between variables and nonhypothesized paths are not presented; for nonhypothesized effects, please see Table 3. Nonsignificant paths are presented only as dashed lines when they are part of a significant interaction effect. Estimates above the arrows represent paths between T1 predictor variables and T1-T2 change in outcome variables; estimates below the arrows represent paths between T2 predictor variables and T2-T3 change in outcome variables; estimates in brackets represent paths between T2-T3 change in predictor variables and T2-T3 change in outcome variables. All estimates are standardized. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3.
$*p < .05$.
$**p < .01$.

Figure 3
The Relationship Between Time 1 Change Communication and Time 1–Time 2 Change in Seeking Resources Moderated by Time 1 Promotion Focus

Figure 4
The Relationship Between Time 1 Change Communication and Time 1–Time 2
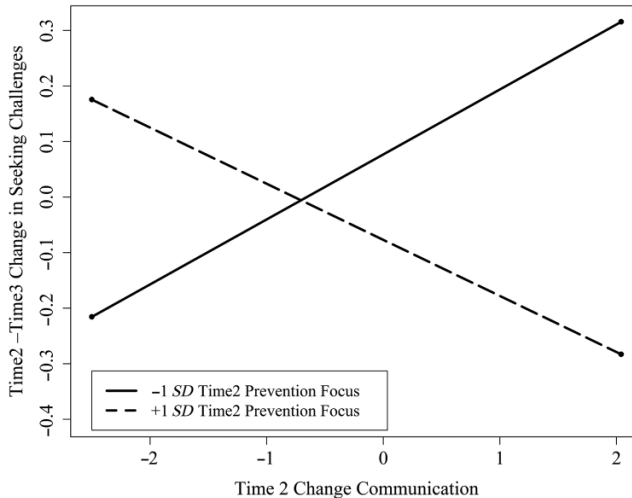**Change in Seeking Challenges Moderated by Time 1 Promotion Focus**
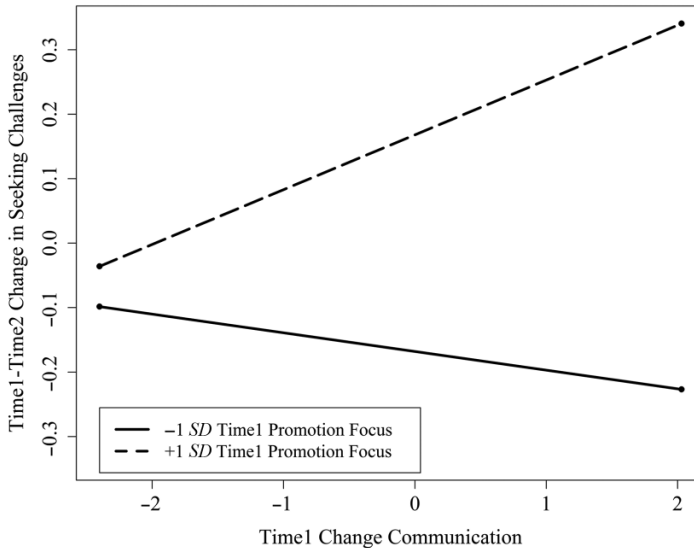
$p < .05$). When employee promotion focus was 1 SD below the mean, quality of organizational change communication was unrelated to T2-T3 change in resources seeking (estimate = −0.41, $p = .68$) and seeking challenges (estimate = −0.76, $p = .45$). Taken together, these two findings provide partial support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 suggested that quality of organizational change communication negatively relates to employee job crafting for high employee prevention focus. While we found no significant effects of T1 prevention focus, change communication, and their interaction, we did find significant relationships between T2 predictors and T2-T3 outcomes. Specifically, change communication at T2 positively predicted T2-T3 change in adaptivity ($\gamma = 0.14$, $p < .01$). T2 prevention focus positively predicted T2-T3 work engagement ($\gamma = 0.16$, $p < .01$). The interaction term between T2 prevention focus and change communication negatively predicted T2-T3 change in seeking challenges ($\gamma = −0.16$, $p < .01$). Figure 5 presents the plotted interaction effect. Simple slope analysis revealed that T2 change communication positively predicted T2-T3 change in seeking challenges when employee prevention focus was 1 SD below the mean (estimate = 2.43, $p < .05$) and negatively predicted T2-T3 change in seeking challenges when employee prevention focus was 1 SD above the mean (estimate = −2.10, $p < .05$). This finding provides partial support to Hypothesis 2.

Hypotheses 3 through 5 suggested that while seeking resources and challenges positively relates to engagement and adaptivity, reducing demands negatively relates to engagement and adaptivity. As expected, change scores in job crafting did exert significant effects on the employee outcomes. Specifically, T2-T3 change in seeking resources was positively related to T2-T3 change in work engagement ($\gamma = 0.17$, $p < .01$), which provides partial support to Hypothesis 3. T2 seeking challenges positively predicted T2-T3 change in

Figure 5
The Relationship Between Time 2 Change Communication and Time 2–Time 3
Change in Seeking Challenges Moderated by Time 2 Prevention Focus

adaptivity ($\gamma = 0.34$, $p < .01$), while T2-T3 change in seeking challenges positively related to T2-T3 change in adaptivity ($\gamma = 0.17$, $p < .05$), providing partial support to Hypothesis 4. T2-T3 change in reducing demands was negatively linked to T2-T3 work engagement ($\gamma = −0.14$, $p < .05$), providing partial support to Hypothesis 5.

Finally, although we did not formulate hypotheses for indirect effects, we did use Mplus to test for indirect effects within our findings, but no significant indirect effects were detected. Only the total indirect effect from the interaction between T2 prevention focus and T2 change communication to T2-T3 change in adaptivity through all change scores in the three job crafting dimensions was significant (estimate = $−0.02$, $p < .05$). However, all three specific indirect effects within this total effect failed to reach significance level. We note that the specific indirect effect from the interaction between T2 prevention focus and T2 change communication to T2-T3 change in adaptivity through T2-T3 change in seeking challenges was marginally significant (estimate = $−0.02$, $p < .06$).

Discussion

The present study hypothesized that quality of organizational change communication has an effect on employee job crafting only when employee regulatory focus is taken into account. We expected that organizational change communication predicts increased job crafting when employee promotion focus is high, whereas it predicts decreased job crafting when employee prevention focus is high. Furthermore, seeking resources and seeking challenges were expected to relate positively to employee adjustment to change (i.e., engagement and adaptivity), and reducing demands was expected to relate negatively to employee adjustment.

As expected, our findings revealed a different pattern of relationships between organizational change communication and job crafting for employees of distinct regulatory orientations. On one hand, promotion focused employees increased their seeking resources and their seeking challenges strategies when quality of organizational change communication was high. On the other hand, prevention focused employees increased their seeking challenges strategy when organizational change communication was poor. This pattern of results addresses regulatory focus as a basic individual difference giving insight on whether employee proactive or job crafting efforts are intensified under heightened motivation (S. K. Parker & Griffin, 2011) or under challenged motivation (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Most likely, employees of distinct regulatory focus enact job crafting behaviors for different reasons. While job crafting is likely to play a primarily motivating role for promotion focused employees who are inspired by the change communication they receive, it is likely to play a primarily coping role for prevention focused employees who are threatened by the poor change communication they receive.

In fact, negative affect or problematic situations have been shown to stimulate proactive (Frese & Fey, 2001) and self-regulatory behaviors (Leone, Perugini, & Bagozzi, 2005). Our findings, however, suggest that this is particularly true for prevention focused employees. In line with the affect-as-information model (Schwarz & Bohner, 1996), negative emotion helps to intensify efforts when people act under performance-oriented rules. Prevention focused employees are performance orientated (Gorman et al., 2012). Therefore, they are encouraged by the negative input associated with insufficient change communication to intensify their efforts so as to restore the status quo and create feelings of control and clarity via job crafting. In a different manner, adequate organizational change communication represents for promotion focused employees an opportunity to grow (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Having a strong learning orientation (Gorman et al.), promotion focused employees who are informed adequately about this opportunity (i.e., organizational change communication of good quality) are motivated to utilize this opportunity so as to approach and realize the potential of organizational change fully.

It is worth noting that promotion focused employees enacted job crafting behaviors on the basis of an earlier phase of the organizational change communication compared to prevention focused employees. This is in line with work on temporal construal (Trope & Liberman, 2003) indicating that prevention rather than promotion focused goals increase with temporal proximity of the goals (Pennington & Roese, 2003). It may also be the case that because extrarole behaviors are not the natural tendency of prevention focused employees (Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012), these employees engage in job crafting later than promotion focused employees and only after they have been convinced fully about the necessity of these actions.

The interplay between organizational change communication and regulatory focus did not predict any of the changes in reducing demands behaviors. A possible interpretation is that such behaviors should be enacted primarily with a motivation to tackle job stress and could, thus, be predicted by conditions such as quantitative workload, mental demands, technological complexity of change, or other variables that we did not include in our hypothesized model.

Regarding job crafting implications for employee adjustment to change, findings revealed positive links of seeking resources with work engagement and positive links of seeking challenges with adaptivity. Similar to Petrou et al. (2012), we found that an increase in reducing

demands was linked with a decrease in work engagement. These findings address seeking resources and seeking challenges as positive and effective employee tools for successful adaptation to organizational change and reducing demands as a potentially unsuccessful employee strategy during organizational change.

The positive link between seeking resources and work engagement is consistent with the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2001) as well as empirical evidence illustrating that resources seeking enhances one's actual resources and, therefore, motivation (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013) and relates to engagement in the context of organizational change (Petrou et al., 2012). Interestingly, it was seeking challenges and not seeking resources that was related to current adaptivity and also predicted subsequent adaptivity. It seems that the act of accumulating resources (e.g., advice or support from others) helps to maximize the positive motivational state that is necessary while approaching a new situation. But when it comes to actually realizing change, it is the strategy of actively confronting challenges that becomes important. Unlike seeking resources, seeking challenges is an intraindividual rather than a socially derived process with the potential to maximize one's self-efficacy. By adopting such a problem-solving approach to their work goals, employees become efficacious and are ready to confront change when it arises. This is in line with what has been called an incremental approach to assimilate change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999), whereby successful resolution of challenges produces mastery experiences (Bandura, 1986) that help employees deal with change.

Reducing demands, although theoretically useful to deal with high job demands (Tims & Bakker, 2010), does not seem to benefit employees in the present study. While avoiding demands acts as an emotion focused coping mechanism that is largely considered unsuccessful by organizational change research (Terry et al., 1996), an approach of actively confronting rather than avoiding the challenge helps adapt to change. This is in line with the negative link found between reducing demands and work engagement (Petrou et al., 2012) and with meta-analytical evidence linking task avoidance negatively with achievement motivation and performance (Steel, 2007). These findings address recent calls for more research especially on the negative consequences of job crafting (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Specifically, they show that although job crafting is mostly a beneficial strategy, when it takes the form of counterproductive behavior, it may have harmful implications for employees or organizations.

The links that we find for both seeking resources or challenges and reducing demands generally replicate earlier evidence on the consequences of job crafting (Tims et al., 2013) with an LCS approach and in an organizational change setting. In terms of causal interpretations, we need to point out here that there are two sets of findings within our data with different potential to address causality. While the links between change communication and crafting are based on actual *prediction* of LCSs (e.g., T1 or T2 variables predicting subsequent change scores; McArdle, 2009), the links between job crafting and employee engagement or adaptivity are based on *correlations* between LCSs (e.g., T2-T3 change with T2-T3 change; Grimm et al., 2012), thus limiting our ability to infer causality. The link between seeking challenges and adaptivity was the only link that was supported in both manners (i.e., T2 predicting T2-T3 change and T2-T3 change linked to T2-T3 change).

Overall, the fact that the meaning of change may have not remained the same throughout the time frame of the study can be a potential interpretation for the general lack of indirect

effects. In other words, people seemed to have used job crafting for different reasons at different times, which may explain why we could not find consistent indirect effects across the entire time period of the three measurements.

We contribute to the literature in the following four ways. First, organizational change communication is addressed as playing a role for employee proactive actions targeted at adapting to change in addition to commonly studied outcomes, such as willingness to change or strain. Second, using regulatory focus theory, we clarify conceptual and empirical controversies regarding the type of motivation (i.e., optimal vs. suboptimal communication) that guides employee crafting. Our findings, thus, bring together and resolve incongruent empirical findings of previous studies by showing that job crafting is triggered by both sufficient and insufficient organizational change communication. Third, we address both prevention and promotion focus as an employee orientation within organizational change. Next to the widespread belief that promotion focus facilitates change (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007), more attention should be given to the mechanisms enhancing adaptivity of security- and prevention-oriented employees who need guidance during organizational change. Our results demonstrate that prevention focused employees do not necessarily resist change. On the contrary, they can potentially improve their adaptivity by enacting strategies that tailor change according to their needs. Finally, by using an LCS method, we address job crafting in an organizational change context. In addition to being only a context, change is captured in a quantifiable way. We, thus, illustrate how organizational change communication produces measurable changes in job crafting and how increased crafting affects adjustment to change. All in all, our study integrates empirically three streams of literature that have been largely addressed independently, namely, regulatory focus (i.e., applied to an organizational setting), job crafting, and organizational change.

Limitations and Implications for Future Research

A potential limitation of our design is the use of self-report, which is associated with common method bias. However, there are a number of reasons why this should not be a major limitation. First, repeated measurements correct for common method bias (Demerouti, Taris, & Bakker, 2007) especially when measurements occur across different circumstances (Spector, 2006), which is likely the case across the three stages of the organizational change initiative in our study. Second, self-report is an ideal way to assess many psychological concepts that have to do with job satisfaction, private events, needs, or perceived job characteristics (Conway & Lance, 2010). Many of our study variables, such as organizational change communication, regulatory focus, and work engagement, certainly fall under this category of variables. As for the measures of adaptivity, there is evidence that individuals are more able to make a distinction between different dimensions of their performance (e.g., task performance vs. adaptivity) than supervisors who tend to produce overall judgments for an employee (Griffin et al., 2007). Therefore, self-report seems to be an appropriate method to assess adaptivity as well.

Furthermore, our measure of change communication addresses mostly quantitative and not qualitative aspects (e.g., promotion vs. prevention framing) of communication. This does not allow us to test the possibility of regulatory fit effects (i.e., fit between employee regulatory focus and regulatory focus of the communication) on job crafting. Last, our interaction effect sizes are considered small according to existing standards. They reach, however, similar levels to existing research on regulatory fit (e.g., Sue-Chan, Wood, & Latham, 2012).

Future research could expand our findings in several ways. First, field experiments initiated before change implementation can manipulate aspects of change communication provided by the organization (e.g., promotion- vs. prevention-oriented communication). Second, employee perceptions of manager communication style could be complemented by manager self-report on the respective concepts. Third, multilevel designs employing large numbers of employees nested within different teams could account for variation of change communication between departments. Then, communication is no longer a person-level variable but it is measured as a team-level variable with variation between teams of different leaders or culture. Fourth, we have argued that the prevalence of performance rules for prevention focused employees may explain their tendency to become proactive when something is wrong at their environment. Future research should explore whether and how goal orientation (i.e., performance vs. learning) can be used to address our findings. Finally, we have argued that whereas job crafting plays a primarily motivating role for promotion focused employees, it plays a primarily coping role for prevention focused employees. This assumption needs to be tested empirically.

Implications for Practice

Although research on job crafting and regulatory focus in the context of organizational change is new, there is room for practical recommendations. It seems that there are two main areas where managers could focus their attention, namely, managing change communication and managing employee job crafting behaviors.

It is widely accepted among organizational change practitioners that clear and concrete change communication ensures positive employee reactions to change. In our study, change communication positively predicted adaptivity for all employees and negatively predicted the unfavorable type of job crafting (i.e., reducing demands). It seems, therefore, that providing clear change communication can foster only favorable employee outcomes. When change communication is poor or simply missing, prevention focused employees will compensate by enacting seeking challenges. This is only an *indication* of employees' potential and ability to take over when management is not efficient. We certainly do not propose that managers should provide poor communication to prevention focused employees so that they craft their jobs.

Taken together, the aforementioned advice results in two distinct recommendations for managers. First, ensure that organization change is known to everyone and communicated in an efficient, clear, adequate, and nonthreatening way. Second, ensure that all employees (especially prevention focused employees) have enough autonomy and are also encouraged to display job crafting behaviors. Such behaviors benefit all employees, and for prevention focused employees, they have one additional role, namely, they compensate for possible management deficiencies. Translated to a quasi-experimental organizational intervention, these two pieces of advice would result in three intervention groups of employees undergoing organizational change: A first group where the intervention takes place at the management level and it concerns managerial communication and provision of employee trainings regarding the new tasks of the change initiative. A second group where the intervention is conducted at the employee level and it concerns efficient ways in which employees can craft their jobs. A third group where the intervention takes place at both levels (i.e., both managerial communication and provision of training and employee job crafting). We expect and propose that the third group will reach maximum levels of employee adjustment, for example, in terms of work engagement and adaptivity.

As far as it concerns the potential of job crafting for employee effectiveness, the message is quite clear. Although reducing demands should be managed carefully since its implications seem to be unfavorable, seeking resources and challenges are useful employee strategies in maximizing the pool of facilitators that motivate employees within the context of change. While that is true for most employees, for prevention focused employees, job crafting can be an additional way to tailor change to their needs and adapt successfully.

Note

1. The current paper shares its sample with Van den Heuvel, Demerouti, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2013).

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