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**UNDERSTANDING THE EFFECTS OF REGULATORY
FOCUS ON PROACTIVE BEHAVIOR**

by

Brian P. Waterwall, B.A., M.B.A.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Business Administration

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

August 2017

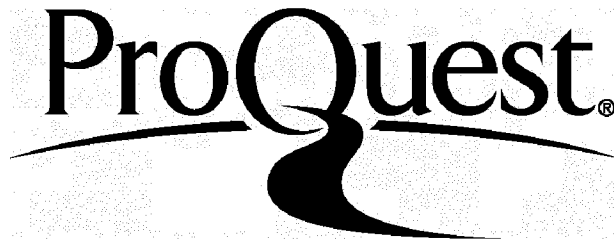
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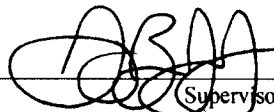
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by Brian Waterwall

entitled "Understanding the Effects of Regulatory Focus on Proactive Behavior"

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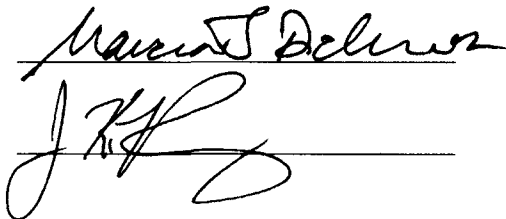
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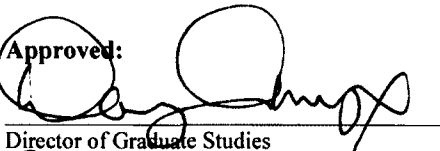
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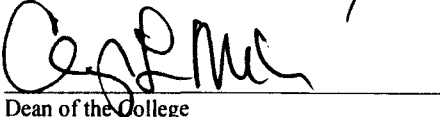
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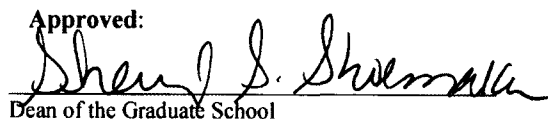
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ABSTRACT

Over the past decade, motivation research has focused on what motivates employees to engage in behaviors that fall outside of ones' job/task requirements and bring about meaningful change in the organization's environment, proactive behaviors (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). Recently, regulatory focus theory has received considerable research attention because of its potential to explain additional variance in behavior beyond other motivational constructs. Regulatory focus theory suggests that during goal striving, people will display behaviors associated with their current motivational state. Drawing from prior research examining motivation and behavior, I propose and test a model that examines the effects of employee work regulatory focus on proactive behavior. The hypothesized model focuses on individual and contextual factors which influence work regulatory focus. Further, given empirical findings of prior research on regulatory fit (e.g., Righetti, Finkenauer, & Rusbult, 2011; Spiegel, Grant-Pillow, & Higgins, 2004), I examine the moderating effect of two forms of fit (interpersonal and intrapersonal) on the relationship between work regulatory focus and proactive behavior.

Findings indicate regulatory focus theory is useful in predicting workplace behavior. Positive relationships were found between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive person-environment fit behavior and proactive strategic behavior while controlling for proactive personality. Findings suggest that regulatory focus theory

provides incremental understanding of the motivational processes that underlie proactive behavior beyond that of core proactive motivation constructs (e.g., proactive personality).


Further, this study explored the moderating roles of supervisor proactive personality and supervisor work regulatory focus on the relationship between regulatory focus and work behavior. Supervisor proactive personality was found to moderate the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate work promotion focus. This suggests that proactive personality shapes employee cognitive motivational states. No support was found to suggest that supervisor work regulatory focus has a moderating effect on subordinate work regulatory focus.

In support of interpersonal regulatory fit theory, results indicate that interpersonal promotion fit predicts both types of proactive work behavior. This finding supports the idea that regulatory fit, in this case interpersonal promotion fit, leads subordinates to experience positive affective states such as “feeling right” (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004) and should result in elevated levels of proactive behavior.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Several people have been essential in my success in my doctoral education and in completing my dissertation. First, to my committee members: Dr. Bryan Fuller, Dr. Marcia Dickerson, and Dr. Kirk Ring, I wish to express my sincere gratitude for their advice and support throughout this process. Each of you provided me with the wisdom and determination to excel under the extreme pressures and stress arising during my time at Louisiana Tech University.

I would also like to thank my family for their sacrifice, support, and understanding. Special thanks go to my mom and dad, without your love and support I would not be here today. Robert, without your encouragement and investment I would not have embarked on this journey, thank you for pushing me. To my daughter Katie, you are one of the biggest sources of motivation which helped me stay persistent and fight hard to complete my degree. A final thank you is owed to Jaime, her sacrifices allowed me to pursue this goal.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“Let them do it. Don’t talk about it. Do it.”

— Michael Frese

A highly qualified workforce is a necessary component of organizational success. However, simply having qualified employees does not guarantee an organization will be successful; success requires action (i.e., output from employees). Research into what motivates employees receives considerable attention in the management literature. Over the past decade, motivation research has focused on what drives employees to engage in behaviors aimed at bringing about meaningful change in the organization’s environment such as proactive behaviors (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). Several definitions of proactive behavior appear in the literature including, “taking initiative in improving current circumstances; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present condition” (Crant, 2000, p. 436), “self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself” (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006, p. 636), and “anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments” (Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 4). Each conceptualization of proactive behavior focuses on taking an active approach in ones work role in order to positively change the work environment.

A variety of proactive behaviors have been identified in the last twenty years of research including: voice behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), problem prevention (Frese & Fay, 2001), issue selling (Dutton & Ashford, 1993), proactive role performance (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006), and job change negotiations (Ashford & Black, 1996). Empirical evidence suggests that proactive behavior has a positive impact on desired outcomes such as increased efficiency and greater job satisfaction (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010; Marler, 2008; Parker & Collins, 2010; Tornau & Frese, 2013). The evidence present in the literature illustrates the importance of proactive behavior in organizations and considerable effort has focused on identifying and explaining the antecedents and mechanisms which lead to proactive behavior.

One of the most influential predictors of proactive behavior is proactive personality, “one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change” (Bateman & Crant, 1993 p. 105). Results from two proactive personality meta-analyses suggest that proactive personality has a strong positive relationship with many different forms of proactive behavior (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Tornau & Frese, 2013). Further, proactive personality plays an important role in proactive idea implementation and problem solving (Parker et al., 2006) and has been related to job performance (Thompson, 2005), as well as feedback seeking, mentoring, and career planning (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Despite the growth of studies linking proactive personality with proactive behavior, more research is needed in order to better understand the motivational mechanisms that link proactive personality and proactive behaviors (Fuller, Hester, & Cox, 2010). Scholars suggest future proactive

behavior research incorporate regulatory focus as a motivational mechanism in models of proactive behavior (Glaser, Stam, & Takeuchi, 2016; Morrison, 2002). Morrison (2002) suggested that feedback seeking, a form of proactive person-environment fit behavior (see Parker & Collins, 2010), may be the result of one adopting a promotion focus as the seeker may be searching for opportunities to achieve positive outcomes. Regulatory focus theory may be able to explain incremental variance in proactive behavior beyond that explained by antecedents commonly found in workplace behavior research (e.g., proactive personality). Results from Lanaj, Chang, and Johnson's (2012) meta-analysis indicate that regulatory focus, relative to eight other predictors (conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, positive and negative affect, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment), accounted for 17% additional variance explained in organizational citizenship behavior, 27% in counter productive work behavior, and 25% in innovative performance.

Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) provides insight into the processes and the underlining motivational mechanisms which individuals use to regulate their behavior. Regulatory focus theory (RFT), rooted in self-discrepancy theory (SDT), illustrates how individuals focus on reducing discomforts caused by discrepancies between their actual self and their ought or ideal self. According to the hedonic principle, people are motivated to approach pleasure and avoid pain. However, the hedonic principle is too simplistic in that it doesn't address how or why people approach pleasure and avoid pain just that they do. In order to explain why and how people approach pleasure and avoid pain, SDT suggests that individuals use self-guides, internalized standards a person feels he or she should possess, as reference points when regulating

their behavior (Higgins, 1987, 1998). Higgins (1987) suggests there are three conceptualizations of the self which act as self-guides: actual, ought, and ideal (Higgins, 1987). The actual-self represents the attributes that one believes they actually possess, the ideal-self reflects the attributes one would ideally possess, and the ought-self is the representation of the attributes one believes they should possess (Higgins, 1987). RFT suggests that individuals will adopt either a promotion or a prevention focus depending on which combination of selves is salient.

According to RFT, the way in which people manage progress towards a goal is dependent upon their regulatory focus. A promotion focus is adopted when there is a discrepancy between the actual and ideal selves (Higgins, 1997). Individuals with a promotion focus anticipate pleasure and use an approach orientation to achieve a desired end state. Individuals high in promotion focus frame outcomes as hits (gains) and non-hits (non-gains) and they desire to approach hits and avoid errors of omission (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Promotion focus individuals engage in behaviors which increase the likelihood of success as pain and pleasure come from the presences or absence of positive outcomes. Alternatively, a prevention focus occurs when there is a discrepancy between the actual and ought selves (Higgins, 1997). Individuals high in prevention focus frame outcomes as losses and non-losses and are motivated to approach non-loss and avoid errors of commission (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Prevention focus individuals engage in behaviors which decrease the likelihood of failure as pain is experienced when losses are present.

Findings from RFT research suggest that regulatory dispositions are malleable; they can vary as a result of the interaction between personal traits and contextual factors

(Higgins, 1997, 1998; Johnson, Smith, Wallace, Hill, & Baron, 2015; Lanaj et al., 2012; Moss, Ritossa, & Ngu, 2006; Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins, 1999; Wallace, Little, Hill, & Ridge, 2010; Zacher & de Lange, 2011). Because regulatory orientations are malleable, RFT distinguishes between two types of regulatory orientation: general regulatory focus and situational regulatory focus. General regulatory focus (GRF), one's preferred regulatory state, is influenced by life experience and tends to be stable in adulthood (Higgins & Silberman, 1998). Personality traits are strong indicators of GRF and research has identified many traits which affect regulatory focus including: extraversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness (Gorman, Meriac, Overstreet, Apodaca, McIntyre, Park, & Godby, 2012), anxiety (Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier, 2009), risk propensity (Idson, Liberman, & Higgins, 2000), self-esteem (McGregor, Gailliot, Vasquez, & Nash, 2007), and self-efficacy (Lanaj et al. 2012) to name a few. Although individual factors such as regulatory focus affect goal setting processes and goal directed behavior, they rarely do so in isolation of contextual factors.

Situational regulatory focus, sometimes referred to as work regulatory focus (WRF) in organizational research (Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008, Wallace et al., 2009), assumes that employees adapt to stimuli in order to become more compatible with the work environment (Camacho, Higgins, & Luger, 2003; Higgins, 2000). In the workplace, regulatory focus can be altered by contextual mechanisms such as reward structures (Freitas, Liberman, & Higgins, 2002), leadership (Benjamin & Flynn, 2006) and selection (Brockner, Higgins, & Low, 2004). For example, leaders can encourage their subordinates to adopt a prevention focus by emphasizing accountability (Peng, Dunn, & Conlon, 2015) or by emphasizing

compliance (Gino & Margolis, 2011). Alternatively, leaders can emphasize visions of future success or a desirable outcome to achieve in order to elicit a promotion focus (Stam, Van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010).

Work regulatory focus has been linked to several different behaviors. Employees with an active promotion focus are reported by their supervisors as displaying more organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) than their prevention focused counterparts (Wallace et al., 2009). Research suggests that a promotion focus is positively related to helping behavior and a prevention focus is positively related to deviant behavior (Neubert et al., 2008). Another study found that one's regulatory focus mediates the relationship between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction (Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, Djurdjevic, & Chang, 2013). Further, promotion oriented employees working on collective tasks continue to put forth effort even after the collective goal had been achieved (Aziz, 2008). That is, employees with an active promotion focus will not reduce their work efforts when a goal is reached. Rather, they will continue to work hard in an effort to maximize collective outcomes. Since WRF is shaped as environmental factors interact with one's GRF, research suggests that regulatory fit theory can further our understanding of the relationship between different regulatory foci and subsequent outcomes.

According to regulatory fit theory motivation towards goal pursuit is strengthened as a result of an individual's engaging in goal pursuit behaviors that align with their general regulatory focus (Higgins, 2000). There are two categories of regulatory fit: intrapersonal regulatory fit and interpersonal regulatory fit. Intrapersonal fit refers to experienced fit between an individual's general and situational regulatory foci (Righetti, Finkenauer, & Rusbult, 2011). Interpersonal fit occurs when an individual perceives "an

interaction partner to approach goal pursuit activities with a regulatory orientation that matches the individual's own regulatory orientation" (Righetti et al., 2011, p. 721). Both forms of fit result in increased motivation towards goal pursuit. Because regulatory focus is malleable, managers may attempt to influence subordinate regulatory focus in order to adjust subordinate performance (Johnson & Wallace, 2011). With that in mind, researchers and practitioners will benefit from research examining how supervisors influence subordinate regulatory focus to elicit desirable workplace behaviors such as proactive behavior.

The Need for Future Research

Despite a recent surge in RFT research, there is little research using RFT to predict proactive behavior. Although empirical evidence suggests there is a link between regulatory focus and extra role behaviors (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012) most of the research findings come from studies looking at organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Strobel, Tumasjan, Sporrle, & Welpe, 2013), leaving change focused behaviors, typically classified as proactive behaviors, unexamined. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) are not the same as proactive behaviors. OCB refers to "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). On the other hand, proactive behaviors are future oriented behaviors aimed at bringing about positive change to the work environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000; Tornau & Frese, 2013). One of the key differences between the two types of behavior is that proactive behavior is initiated in order to bring about change and change related behavior is inherently risky (Fuller et al., 2006; Parker

et al., 2006). Since regulatory focus is future oriented (Higgins, 1997) and different regulatory foci are associated with varying levels of risk seeking and risk aversion (Liberman et al., 1999), using regulatory focus as a future oriented motivational construct in a model of proactive behavior may provide new insights into the proactivity process.

Researchers have also stated that future research needs to acknowledge the fact that multiple motivation processes drive proactive behavior (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Indeed, few studies of proactive behavior include multiple motivational mechanisms. Doing so is necessary in order to better understand how each mechanism uniquely contributes to proactive behavior (see Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2012). Further, little research exists that includes multiple motivational mechanisms to predict proactive behavior. As stated by Nguyen (2013), “as theories of proactive personality evolve, it is necessary to investigate more potential mediators for a better understanding of the process by which proactive personality ultimately results in meaningful outcomes” (p. 6). This dissertation attempts to address this gap by including both a motivational mechanism that receives little attention in proactive behavior research (regulatory focus) and a core motivational state that has been integral in understanding proactive goal setting and proactive goal striving (proactive personality).

Finally, although the idea of regulatory fit is important to regulatory focus research, there appear to be no studies which examine the simultaneous effect of different forms of regulatory fit (intrapersonal and interpersonal) on work outcomes. This is unfortunate as both conceptual and experimental studies indicate that regulatory fit has a moderate relationship with individual behavior as well as behavior within exchange relationships (Righetti et al., 2011; Sassenberg, Jonas, Shah, & Brazy, 2007). Further,

while research suggests general and situational regulatory foci are distinct constructs (Neubert et al., 2008; Wallace et al., 2009), studies which foci on regulatory fit rarely include measures of both general and situational regulatory foci. Since regulatory fit is concerned with the degree of alignment between general and situational regulatory focus, research examining the interplay between both regulatory foci and different forms of fit is needed.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The primary purpose of this research is to investigate the effect of work regulatory focus (WRF) on the frequency at which subordinates engage in proactive behavior and determine whether or not regulatory focus can accurately predict which type of proactive behaviors will be displayed. A secondary purpose of this dissertation is to examine the path through which individual and contextual antecedents of WRF relate to the two different types of regulatory fit and how the degree of regulatory fit moderates the relationship between WRF and proactive behaviors. Figure 1.1 presents the hypothesized model to be examined in this dissertation. The hypothesized model represents a potentially new paradigm of proactive behavior in the workplace. Many proactive behavior studies tend to consider only one proactive behavior at a time (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Studies which include multiple related proactive behaviors will assist in identifying the “key” drivers of particular proactive behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010). This dissertation will explore the following questions:

1. Does work regulatory focus predict different types of proactive behavior? If so, do work prevention and work promotion foci uniquely predict different proactive behaviors?

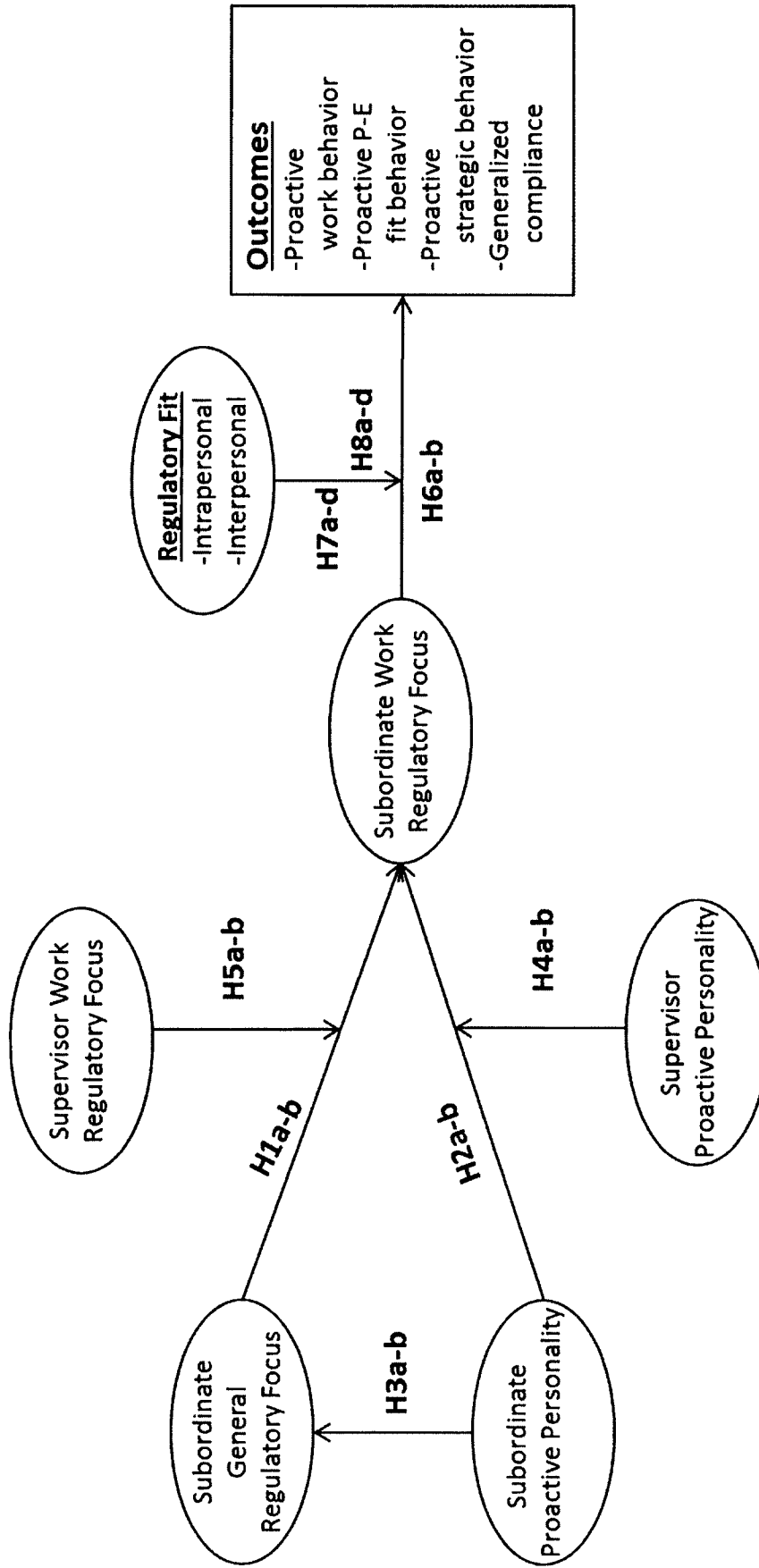


Figure 1.1: Hypothesized Model.

2. To what degree does supervisor work regulatory focus moderate subordinate work regulatory focus?
3. Does proactive personality relate to work regulatory focus? If so, does supervisor proactive personality moderate this relationship?
4. To what degree do different forms of regulatory fit (intrapersonal and interpersonal) moderate the relationship between subordinate work regulatory focus and proactive behaviors?

Contributions

This dissertation promises several theoretical and practical contributions to the management literature. First, this is one of the first studies to use regulatory focus as a motivational state to predict multiple forms of proactive behavior. In doing so, the present research illustrates the extent to which RFT provides incremental understanding of the motivational processes that underlie proactive behavior beyond that of core proactive motivation constructs (e.g., proactive personality).

Second, illustrating how the work environment shapes subordinate WRF is important for several reasons. First, illustrating the effect of supervisor proactive personality on subordinate proactive behavior suggests that different combinations of supervisor traits have unique effects on subordinate WRF and subsequent subordinate behavior. Next, although results indicate that supervisor WRF is not related to subordinate WRF, finding that supervisor proactive personality is significantly related to work promotion focus. Approximately 95% of subordinates in the sample were found to have a general promotion focus. Yet, only 32% of the subordinates were found to be higher in work promotion focus than work prevention focus. This suggests that

something in the work environment is triggering an interaction and the result is subordinates are adopting a situational regulatory focus that is not aligned with their general regulatory focus. Taken together, the findings support the claim that the work environment plays a crucial role in determining employees WRF.

Last, the findings from the regulatory fit analyses suggest that interpersonal regulatory fit has a greater impact on subordinate behavior than intrapersonal regulatory fit. This indicates that some supervisor/subordinate dyads are better positioned to positively impact the work environment than others. When taken together, findings from this study suggest that organizations wishing to increase the presence of proactive behavior in the workplace should take care to match subordinates with supervisors based on proactive personality and regulatory foci.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter reviews literature on regulatory focus, proactive behavior and proactive personality. Theoretical and empirical studies in each area are discussed. The regulatory focus literature review includes a discussion of the studies used to introduce, develop, and validate regulatory focus theory. This section includes a review of the studies that investigate the personal and contextual variables which are thought to be related to regulatory focus as well studies examining regulatory fit. The proactivity literature review includes a discussion of proactive behavior with an emphasis given to proactive personality and how it relates to proactive behavior. The final section integrates regulatory focus and proactive behavior and identifies the areas in the literature that this study aims to explore.

Literature Review of Regulatory Focus Theory

Overview of Regulatory Focus

Higgins (1997) introduced RFT in hopes of encouraging scholars to move beyond using the hedonic principle as the sole lens through which they examine motivation. The basic assumption of the hedonic principle is that people are motivated to approach pleasure and avoid pain. However, the approach-avoidance concept is too simplistic to provide an

understanding of the way individuals behave (Higgins, 1997). The hedonic principle indicates what an individual's desired end state may be, but it does not describe the means by which a person attempts to achieve this state. The hedonic principle provides a rationale for why people put forth effort to achieve a goal, but it does not describe the actual methods people use to achieve goals. Goals can be attained using a variety of strategic means; by integrating approach-avoidance motivation and self-regulation (see Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Carver & Scheier, 1990), Higgins (1997), suggests that regulatory focus theory can provide insight into the means by which individuals take action to pursue their goals.

Higgins (1997) relied heavily on self-discrepancy theory (SDT) when developing regulatory focus theory (RFT). According to SDT, people are motivated to align their self-concept and self-guide (Higgins, 1987). A person's self-concept represents the attributes the person feels he or she actually possesses. The self-concept, often referred to as the actual-self, refers to how the person believes he or she is actually represented (Higgins, 1998). Self-guides represent internalized standards a person feels he or she should possess. According to Higgins (1987, 1998), self-guides are represented by two distinct selves: the ideal-self and the ought-self. The ideal-self represents the attributes that a person would like to possess; they are a person's hopes and aspirations (Higgins, 1987). Following the ideal self-guide results in a regulatory state aimed at accomplishment and uncovering opportunities to advance (Freitas & Higgins, 2002). On the other hand, the ought-self represents the attributes that a person believes he or she should possess. Oughts are characterized as a person's sense of duty, obligation, and responsibility (Higgins, 1987). Following an ought self-guide results in a regulatory state

aimed at avoiding obstructions to responsibility and obligations. An assumption of SDT is that individuals are motivated to achieve a state where the self-concept and self-guide aligns (Higgins, 1987). Individuals experience negative emotions (e.g., discomfort, dejection, fear, sadness) when a discrepancy exists between their self-concept and their self-guide. Negative emotions result from the absence of positive outcomes or from the presence of negative outcomes while successful attainment of desired end states is associated with cheerfulness (Baas, De Dreu & Nijstad, 2008). SDT suggests that individuals are motivated to reduce or eliminate the negative emotions caused by a discrepancy between their actual and desired self (Higgins, 1987).

Regulatory focus theory (RFT) is concerned with the process by which individuals self-regulate their behavior in order to align their self-concept and self-guide (Gorman et al., 2012; Higgins, 1997, 1998; Lanaj et al., 2012). Meaning, regulatory focus is a mechanism that motivates changes in goal attainment strategies in response to feedback about one's current state (Higgins, 2000). RFT attempts to account for individual differences in how people view goals and provide an explanation as to why people adopt certain strategic means to achieve their goals (Brockner et al., 2004; Gamache, McNamara, Mannor, & Johnson, 2015). Pleasure and pain serve as reference points for individuals when determining desired (positive reference point) and undesired (negative reference point) end-states (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). People regulate pleasure and pain by using different self-regulatory systems (Higgins, 1996). Discrepancy reducing systems, also referred to as approach systems, involve attempts to move one's actual-self closer to a positive reference point (Carver & Scheier, 1990). In order to reduce discrepancies, individuals using an approach system will "approach self-

states which match desired end-states or avoid states that mismatch the desired end-state” (Higgins et al., 1994, p. 276). On the other hand, self-regulatory systems which use negative reference points are referred to as discrepancy amplifying or avoidance systems because they involve attempts to move one’s actual self away from an undesired end-state (Carver & Scheier, 1990). Under the discrepancy amplifying system, individuals can approach self-states which mismatch the undesired end-state or avoid states that match the undesired end-state (Higgins et al., 1994).

Promotion and Prevention Focus

By integrating approach-avoidance motivation and self-regulation, RFT provides insight into the means by which individuals pursue their goals. RFT suggests that people self-regulate their behavior differently when serving different needs (Higgins, 1997). RFT describes two systems by which individuals regulate behavior during goal pursuit: a promotion focus which focuses on nurturance needs and a prevention focus which focuses on security needs. A person’s regulatory orientation affects how they view their goals and indicates a preference for adopting one strategic means over another (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). RFT is useful to behavioral research as promotion and prevention foci have unique effects on behavior (Gamache et al., 2015).

A promotion focus is characterized by a concern with advancement, growth, and accomplishment and involves striving for goals following an ideal self-guide (Wallace, Butts, Johnson, Stevens, & Smith, 2016). Ideals are goals which represent hopes and aspirations (Higgins, 1987). Individuals adopting a promotion focus desire to approach pleasure and avoid the absence of pleasure, and will use eagerness-related means during goal pursuit. Higgins (1997, 1998) suggests that when individuals adopt a promotion

orientation, positive outcomes are framed as gains or hits and negative outcomes are framed as non-gains or non-hits. The desire is to approach hits (gains) and avoid errors of omission (non-gains). Attaining goals using a promotion focus results in positive emotions such as cheerfulness or enjoyment. Failure to obtain goals leads to experienced negative emotion such as disappointment, sadness, and frustration (Baas, et al., 2008; Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Self-regulation occurs in response to the presence or absence of positive outcomes. Losses are not salient to individuals striving for goals under a promotion focus; they're only concerned with achieving hits and avoiding errors of omission (Higgins, 2000). Under a promotion focus, goals are viewed as maximal goals and success is more intense than non-success (Halamish, Liberman, Higgins, & Idson, 2008; Idson et al., 2000). In the workplace, high promotion focus employees are motivated to engage in agentic work behavior including exceeding expectations, exploring alternatives and experimenting, and taking risks (Wallace et al., 2016). Therefore, a promotion focus is associated with behaviors which increase the likelihood of success (e.g., proactive behaviors).

Prevention focus is characterized by a concern with safety, security, and fulfillment of duty or responsibility. Individuals adopting a prevention focus strive for goals using the ought-self guide which represent goals that must be met (Higgins, 1987; Idson et al., 2000). Individuals with a prevention focus anticipate pain and adopt a discrepancy amplifying system to avoid undesired end states. Accordingly, prevention focused individuals will use vigilance-related means during goal pursuit. Higgins (1997, 1998) suggests that when individuals adopt a prevention focus, outcomes are framed as losses and non-losses. Prevention oriented individuals approach non-losses and avoid

losses or errors of commission. Self-regulation occurs in response to the presence or absence of negative outcomes (Higgins, 2000). Maintaining the status quo is salient and brings pleasure whereas pain is experienced when losses occur. When a prevention focus is activated, goals are viewed as minimal goals and failure to attain a minimal goal is more intense than a success (Halamish et al., 2008; Idson et al., 2000). When individuals achieve goals with a prevention focus they experience quiescence (calm and serene) whereas failure to achieve a goal results in agitation and frustration (Baas, et al., 2008; Crowe & Higgins, 1997). In the workplace, prevention focus employees are less likely than promotion focus employees to take risks or seek opportunities to develop new routines (Wallace et al., 2016). Therefore, prevention focus is associated with behaviors which decrease the likelihood of failure (e.g., compliance and task performance).

General and Situational Regulatory Focus

Promotion and prevention focus strategies are not opposite ends of a continuum. As suggested by Higgins et al. (1994), “all people possess both systems, but different socialization experiences could make one system predominant in self-regulation” (p. 277). A person’s regulatory orientation is shaped by personal traits and contextual factors, and can vary from one situation to the next (Gorman et al., 2012; Higgins, 1997, 1998; Idson et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 2015; Lanaj et al., 2012; Moss et al., 2006; Liberman et al., 1999; Neubert et al., 2008; Wallace et al., 2010; Zacher & de Lange, 2011). Therefore, a person’s regulatory focus can be referred in terms of a general regulatory disposition and a situational regulatory disposition.

General regulatory focus (GRF, sometimes referred to as chronic regulatory focus) is an individual disposition which is shaped by life experience and tends to be

stable in adulthood (Higgins & Silberman, 1998). Personality traits are strong indicators of GRF and as such, research has given considerable attention to examining the effects of different traits on GRF. For example, the big five personality factors are related to regulatory focus but each of the five factors differs in the degree to which it shapes one's regulatory orientation. Results from two recent meta-analyses suggest that extraversion, openness, and agreeableness are positively related to promotion focus and negatively related to prevention focus (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012). Results also suggest that neuroticism is the strongest predictor of prevention focus and conscientiousness has positive effects on both promotion and prevention foci (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012). Other individual factors which relate to GRF include: anxiety (Wallace et al., 2009), risk propensity (Idson et al., 2000), self-esteem (McGregor et al., 2007), and self-efficacy (Lanaj et al., 2012) to name a few.

On the other hand, situational regulatory focus refers to a regulatory state that occurs as a result of environmental factors interacting with an individual's GRF. Liberman et al. (1999) provide initial evidence to illustrate the malleability of GRF. Liberman et al. (1999) conducted several experiments which sought to determine whether or not a promotion or a prevention focus maybe evoked based on how a task is framed. In the experiments participants had to complete a task in which they had to describe an object to another person in such a way that the other person would be able to correctly identify the object from amongst many other objects. The task and the rewards were manipulated so as to reflect a promotion or a prevention focus. Participants in the promotion focus treatment were told they would start with 0 points and be rewarded points for each figure they described well. Participants in the prevention focus treatment

were told they would start with 6 points but would be penalized 2 points for each figure they did not describe well. During the experiment, all participants were interrupted while describing the third object and were advised that they could resume their current task or move to another task. For participants in the promotion focus treatment, either task (continuing to describe the current object or moving to the next object) is suitable for maximizing rewards. However, for participants in the prevention focus treatment, moving on to a new task means incurring a penalty for not completing the current task. Therefore, both tasks are necessary for goal accomplishment and individuals must finish their current task before moving on to the next one. Results from this study provide evidence that the characteristics of a task can be altered in order to manipulate a person's regulatory orientation; a finding that supports the existence of situational regulatory focus.

Situational regulatory focus, sometimes referred to as work regulatory focus (WRF) in organizational research (Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008, Wallace et al., 2009), assumes that employees adapt to stimuli in order to become more compatible with the work environment (Camacho et al., 2003; Higgins, 2000). A subordinate's regulatory orientation responds to situational influences which alter their behaviors at work (Johnson & Wallace, 2011). For example, employees can receive cues from the work environment as to which behaviors are rewarded and which behaviors are punished. Empirical evidence indicates that WRF is more strongly related to work attitudes and behaviors than general regulatory focus (Lanaj et al., 2012). When taken together, the finding that WRF is a strong predictor of work attitudes and behavior and that GRF is malleable has important implications for motivation in the workplace. In a work context,

regulatory focus can be manipulated through mechanisms such as reward structures, leadership, values and norms, and interpersonal interactions (Benjamin & Flynn, 2006; Brockner et al., 2004; Freitas et al., 2002; Gamache et al., 2015). For example, Brockner and Higgins (2001) suggest that leader regulatory focus and leader behavior can be interpreted by subordinates as an indicator as to what type of behavior(s) supervisors expect in the workplace. Because regulatory focus is malleable, supervisors can play an active role shaping their subordinate's regulatory orientation by role modeling desired behaviors, altering the work environment, or by framing tasks/objectives to match a desired regulatory orientation.

In one of the first studies examining leadership regulatory focus, Wu, McMullen, Neubert, and Yi (2008), found evidence which indicates that leadership plays an important role in shaping follower situational regulatory focus. Wu et al. (2008) suggest that leader regulatory focus shapes follower regulatory focus through a framing effect. Meaning leaders attempt to alter the way followers view a situation which, and if successful, affects subsequent behavior. According to Brockner and Higgins (2001), supervisors can foster a promotion focus from subordinates by emphasizing ideals and accomplishments (ideal-self). On the other hand, supervisors can attempt to foster a prevention focus from their subordinates by emphasizing obligations and duty (ought-self). Further, research suggests that even subtle differences in how a situation is framed can alter subordinate behavior (Gino & Margolis, 2011).

Results from Neubert et al. (2008) indicate that regulatory focus mediates the relationship between both initiating structure and servant leadership and behavioral outcomes such as deviant, helping, and creative behavior. In a similar vein, Cheng,

Chang, Kuo, and Cheung (2014) found evidence to suggest that regulatory focus moderates the relationship between ethical leadership and employee engagement; which is positively related to voice behavior. Whether employees are affected by their supervisor's attempts to increase motivation depends on both the employee's and the supervisor's dispositions.

According to social learning theory, behaviors are learned by observation (Bandura, 1977). Individuals will strive to emulate behaviors of their role models, leaders, and coworkers. In the workplace, supervisors can serve as a positive or a negative role model. Individuals view positive role models as representing a desired-self and view negative role models as representing an undesired-self (Lockwood, 2002). Positive role models focus on the pursuit of success by encouraging the use of strategies that promote desired outcomes (Higgins et al., 1994). Negative role models focus on avoiding failure by encouraging strategies that avoid undesired outcomes. Supervisors may induce a promotion or prevention focus by framing outcomes (e.g., rewards) in terms of losses to avoid or benefits to gain (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Additionally, supervisors may emphasize job obligations and minimal performance standards to elicit a prevention focus from subordinates (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007) or communicate appealing visions to elicit a promotion focus (Neubert et al., 2008; Stam et al., 2010). Results from Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002) suggest that positive role models increased motivation of promotion focus individuals and negative role models increased motivation for prevention focus individuals. Further, promotion focused individuals prefer positive role models when considering additive behaviors (Lockwood, Sadler, Fryman, & Tuck, 2004). This phenomenon is thought to occur as a result of promotion focus individuals

seeking out information that relates to the pursuit of success while prevention focus individuals are more sensitive to information that relates to the avoidance of failure (Lockwood et al., 2002). This finding suggests that whether or not a supervisor has an impact on employee motivation depends, in part, on the strength of the employee's promotion or prevention focus.

Moss et al. (2006) suggested that leaders could influence whether their followers would experience eagerness or vigilance in the workplace. Since transformational leaders emphasize uplifting emotions and encourage employees to fulfill their aspirations, transformational leadership should be associated with eagerness strategies and result in employees using a promotion orientation (Moss et al., 2006). Corrective-avoidance leadership is focused on errors and shortfalls. This type of leadership emphasizes using vigilance and result in employees using a prevention orientation (Moss et al., 2006). Their findings suggest that while corrective-avoidant leadership does not lead subordinates to adopt a prevention focus, corrective-avoidant leadership does curb promotion oriented behavior.

Findings from a recent study by Wallace et al. (2016) further highlight the effect of leadership and the work environment on the relationship between employee regulatory orientations and workplace behavior. The purpose of their study was integrating self-determination theory and RFT to explain how individual and contextual factors interact to shape employee motivation and innovation. They hypothesize that employee thriving is positively related to innovation. When thriving at work, employees: have more energy and motivation for exploring new processes, are in a position to recognize and implement improvement opportunities, and experience positive moods and emotions which foster

cognitive thinking and problem solving (Wallace et al., 2016). They also suggest that employees high in promotion focus are more likely than prevention focus employees to experience thriving. However, just because an employee adopts a promotion focus does not mean they will thrive or innovate. Rather, “the opportunity to pursue such behaviors depends on the workplace context” (Wallace et al., 2016, p. 988). Supervisors can increase the opportunity for employees to thrive by creating high involvement climates. Supervisors can develop high involvement climates by providing employees with: opportunities to participate in decision making, opportunities for training and development, and autonomy. In high involvement climates, promotion focus employees experience strong motivation as a result of thriving and are more likely to innovate than prevention focus employees (Wallace et al., 2016).

Taken together, the research presented above suggests that the elements within one’s environment, especially leadership, impact the regulatory orientation one uses to pursue goals. Consider the following scenarios, both adapted from Johnson et al. (2015). In the first scenario, a supervisor frames a task as being promotion oriented by demanding an increase in profits. The employee responds by lowering the importance placed on due diligence (decreased vigilance) when selecting new projects in order to take on many projects with the hopes of obtaining many successes (increased eagerness). However, the supervisor can also frame the task as being oriented toward a prevention focus. This is accomplished by emphasizing reduced financial losses over larger profits. The employee responds by increasing due diligence (increased vigilance) when approving new projects. This results in a few projects being started overall, but each project has a high likelihood of success; subsequently reducing the potential to incur

financial losses. In both scenarios, the employee adopts a regulatory orientation that aligns with the requirements of the task. It's important to note that the opportunity to pursue behaviors aligned with one's regulatory orientation is dependent on the context of the environment (Wallace et al., 2016). Motivational dispositions may be of little consequence if the environment is not supportive.

Regulatory Fit

While there are many factors which determine a person's initial level of motivation to pursue a goal (e.g., self-efficacy, personality), regulatory fit determines whether existing motivation is strengthened or weakened during the goal pursuit process (Spiegel, Grant-Pillow, & Higgins, 2004). RFT is concerned with goals and discrepancies between ought- and ideal-selves and suggests that the strategies individuals use to attain their goals affect personal outcomes. The theory of regulatory fit is concerned with the alignment between an individual's general regulatory orientation and the strategies they use to approach or avoid certain outcomes (Higgins, 2000). The "value from fit hypothesis" states that when current and preferred goal pursuit means match, regulatory fit occurs (Higgins, 2000). Motivational strength is enhanced when the means people use to pursue a goal sustains their current regulatory orientation, thereby, leading to a greater sense of commitment to the goal (Higgins, Idson, Freitas, Spiegel, Molden, 2003). Some suggest this occurs because using a strategic means that fits one's general regulatory orientation increases the perceived instrumentality of the means during goal attainment (Spiegel et al., 2004).

There are two types of regulatory fit: intrapersonal and interpersonal.

Intrapersonal fit refers to the alignment between an individual's preferred goal pursuit

means and their current goal pursuit means. This type of fit is concerned with the motivational benefits that occur within the individual (Righetti et al., 2011). On the other hand, interpersonal fit considers the consequences of an interaction partner's regulatory focus on the target individual. Interpersonal fit occurs when an individual perceives "an interaction partner to approach goal pursuit activities with a regulatory orientation that matches the individual's own regulatory orientation" (Righetti et al., 2011, p. 721).

Wu et al. (2008) found that regulatory fit between supervisor and subordinate has a positive relationship subordinate performance. Results from Lee and Aaker's (2004) study suggest that when supervisors frame messages to fit the receiver's regulatory orientation, receivers rate the messages as being more persuasive than messages not aligned with the receiver's regulatory orientation. Similar results were found in later study examining regulatory focus and ethical behavior. Evidence from Gino and Margolis (2011) suggest that how organizations present a code of ethics can impact whether employees behave ethically or unethically depending on employee regulatory focus. When organizations frame ethics around promoting positive outcomes, employees with a promotion focus are more likely than employees with a prevention focus to be risk seeking and behave unethically. When organizations frame ethics around preventing negative outcomes, motivation to behave ethically is stronger for employees with a prevention focus than in organizations that frame ethics around promoting positive outcomes (Gino & Margolis, 2011).

Existing research on regulatory fit suggests that fit in the workplace has positive effects on employee motivation. Regulatory fit has been linked to increases in both task enjoyment and task success (Freitas & Higgins, 2002). Further, high regulatory fit should

increase the likelihood of repeating a task in the future. Fit also reduces subordinate turnover intentions (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011). With regard to performance based outcomes of regulatory fit, under a promotion focus, regulatory fit is positively related to OCB (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008; Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017) while regulatory fit is positively related to counterproductive work behaviors under a prevention focus (Lanaj et al., 2012). Hamstra, Sassenberg, Van Yperen, and Wisse (2014) found that regulatory fit between leaders and subordinates results in subordinates feeling more valued by their leaders. At the team level, regulatory fit can affect perceptions of team value. Teams with higher power relative to other groups are viewed as more valued by individuals with a promotion focus and lower power teams are valued by prevention focus individuals (Sassenberg et al., 2007). It is suggested that high power teams provide promotion focused individuals with more opportunity to achieve while prevention focused individuals likely value lower power teams because of their focus on security and safety. Findings from regulatory fit research could prove useful when examining dyads in the workplace. Yet, research has only just begun to look beyond intrapersonal fit and consider the effect of interpersonal fit on employee behavior.

Potential Research Areas

Available evidence makes a compelling case for regulatory focus' importance in organizational settings. Regulatory focus is believed to be more malleable than dispositional traits (e.g., proactive personality) but more stable than transient states (Gamache et al., 2015) meaning supervisors can increase employee motivation by encouraging employees to adopt different goal strategies congruent with the employee's

GRF. Although there has been a surge in regulatory focus research in the past decade there are some areas which still lack adequate study. A potential area which has seen limited attention is the relationship between regulatory focus and change related OCB or proactive behavior. For example, Dewett and Denisi (2007) proposed that there is a positive relationship between promotion focus and change related citizenship behaviors. Wallace et al. (2009) provide evidence in support of this proposition. In their study, Wallace, Johnson, and Frazier (2009) uncovered a positive relationship between promotion focus and OCBs and a negative relationship between prevention focus and OCBs.

A recent study examining the effect of personality on OCBs found that future focus has an indirect effect on OCBs through regulatory focus (Strobel et al., 2013). Future orientation or future focus is an individual difference variable that indicates the extent to which an individual thinks about future events and states (Shipp, Edwards, & Lambert, 2009; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). In the workplace, future focus has been conceptualized in terms of future work selves, a representation of one's future self in terms of hopes and aspirations, and is thought to be a strong link between one's self-concept and behavior (Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012). Since RFT suggests that individuals envision a future state, one which they hope to achieve or to avoid (Higgins, 1997), the future focus perspective should be related to both regulatory foci. Results from Strobel et al. (2013) indicate that promotion focus mediates the relationship between future focus and two OCBs (altruism and civic virtue) while prevention focus mediates the relationship between future focus and courtesy. The finding that different regulatory

foci are related to different OCBs provides some support for more research examining the effect of different regulatory foci on a variety of workplace behaviors.

Lin and Johnson (2015) found evidence that promotion focus is positively related to promotive voice behavior while prevention focus is positively related to prohibitive voice behavior. The results were found in two separate studies. Further, promotion focus has been shown to moderate the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and follower prosocial behavior (De Cremer, Mayer, Dijke, Schouten, & Bardes, 2009). Results from two separate meta-analyses provide evidence which support the positive relationship between promotion focus and OCBs (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012). However, neither study found support for a relationship between prevention focus and OCBs (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012).

In sum, empirical evidence suggests there are positive relationships between promotion focus and change related OCBs and prevention focus and maintenance related OCBs. Although research has examined the pathways through which regulatory focus effects OCBs, the number of studies currently available is limited. Further, few regulatory focus studies examine behaviors which are more change oriented such as change related OCB or proactive behavior. Including proactive behavior in studies of regulatory focus may provide important implications beyond those uncovered in research which only examines OCBs as proactive behavior is distinct from many conceptualizations of OCBs.

OCB research recognizes several types of citizenship behavior. Organ (1988) identified five OCBs: altruism (actions that help another person with work), courtesy (gestures that help someone else prevent a problem), sportsmanship (willingness of

employees to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining), civic virtue (taking an active interest in the life of the organization), and conscientiousness (accepting and adhering to rules, regulations, and procedures). Williams and Anderson (1991) suggest that OCB can be categorized as being directed towards an individual (OCB-I) or towards the organization (OCB-O). OCB-I includes behaviors that directly benefit specific individuals and indirectly benefit the organization (e.g., altruism). OCB-O includes behaviors that are beneficial to the organization such as following rules and giving notice when unable to work. Both Organ's (1988) and Williams and Anderson's (1991) conceptualizations of OCB suggest that OCBs sustain the status quo and/or foster supportive working relationships rather than serving as an impetus for change. OCB in this sense would not be considered risky behavior by employees.

Dewett and Denisi (2007) incorporate change related behavior into the OCB concept and suggest conceptualizing OCB as maintenance related or change related. Maintenance behaviors are intended to sustain the status quo and include behaviors such as altruism, cheerleading, helping, sportsmanship, and volunteering. Maintenance behaviors are more aligned with the traditional conceptualization of OCBs. On the other hand, change oriented citizenship behaviors (OCB-CH) focus on efforts to identify and implement change in the workplace (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; Dewett & Denisi, 2007; Shin et al., 2017). Change related OCBs include taking charge, voice behavior, and personal initiative. Change related OCBs are more similar to proactive behaviors than traditional or maintenance OCBs. For example, Dewett and Denisi's (2007) conceptualization of maintenance related OCB overlaps with Parker and Collins' (2010) recent conceptualization of proactive work behavior, "taking control of, and

bringing about change within the internal organizational environment” (p. 637). While there is some overlap between various conceptualizations of OCBs and proactive behavior there is a distinct difference between the two; specifically with regards to behaviors directed at benefiting the self.

Recently, Spitzmuller and Van Dyne (2013) advocated a more nuanced perspective on OCB or helping behavior. They do so, in part, by delineating seven dimensions which differentiate two popular conceptualizations of helping behavior: reactive helping behavior and proactive helping behavior. According to social exchange theory, individuals engage in reactive helping behaviors in response to the needs of others around them or in order to reciprocate positive treatment (Spitzmuller & Van Dyne, 2013). According to functional motives theory, individuals engage in proactive helping behavior in order to satisfy personal needs (Spitzmuller & Van Dyne, 2013). By engaging in OCB, one might receive personal benefits (e.g., experiencing positive emotions when helping others), but OCBs are usually not categorized based on benefits received by the focal actor. Spitzmuller and Van Dyne’s (2013) conceptualization of reactive helping behavior and proactive helping behavior provide a better explanation than other conceptualizations of OCB as to the possible motives which lead one to engage in helping behavior.

Although existing research has exemplified the relationship between regulatory focus and OCBs, researcher have paid little attention to the relationship between regulatory focus and proactive behavior. While there is some overlap in behaviors that are classified as OCB or proactive behavior. The two constructs are distinct. Organ’s (1988) conceptualization of OCB included behaviors like altruism and sportsmanship;

behaviors that are not necessarily future focused or enacted to bring about meaningful change. Proactive behavior differs from conceptualizations of OCB because proactive behavior can “occur either within or beyond the boundaries of employees’ roles” (Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 9) while OCBs are often conceptualized as occurring outside of prescribed work roles (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Grant and Ashford (2008) suggest that proactive behaviors follow a process which involves anticipating, planning, and taking action directed toward future improvement. Behaviors that result from this sequence can be considered proactive behavior regardless of whether they are in-role or extra-role. Grant and Ashford (2008) distinguish between proactive role behavior (anticipatory behavior arising in the course of achieving prescribed goals using prescribed processes) and proactive extra-role behavior (anticipatory behavior arising beyond specified processes or goals). Examples of proactive role behavior include seeking out performance feedback and going out of one’s way to build relationships with coworkers. Examples of proactive extra-role behavior include networking or seeking feedback from outside of one’s department.

Given the evidence supporting the effect of regulatory focus on different forms of OCBs in addition to evidence of the conceptual distinction between OCBs and proactive behavior, it is surprising that researchers have given little effort to examining the relationship between regulatory focus and OBC-CH relationship or the relationship between regulatory focus and proactive behavior. While some research exists which examines the relationship between regulatory focus and change related behavior (see Simo, Sallan, Fernandez, & Enache, 2016; Strobel, Tumasjan, Sporrle, & Welpe, 2017; Wallace et al., 2013), most studies focus on the relationship between regulatory focus and

non-change oriented OCBs (see Dimotakis, Davison, & Hollenbeck, 2012; Neubert et al., 2008). Shin, Kim, Choic, Kim, and Oh's (2017) study appears to be only study which includes both helping and change oriented behaviors. However, even when studies include change related behaviors, only one or two behaviors are measured. Studies which include multiple related proactive behaviors will assist in identifying the "key" drivers of particular proactive behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010). Moving beyond just OCB by modeling the effects of regulatory focus on proactive behavior is a potential next step in advancing both literatures.

A second area where more research is needed surrounds the disparity in one's preference promotion and prevention foci and how this relates to contextual influences of regulatory focus. Although research has examined the effect of supervisor/subordinate regulatory fit on subordinate emotions and behavior, there is virtually no research which examines the implications of congruence or disparity between different levels of promotion and prevention foci. As suggested by Higgins et al. (1994), "all people possess both systems, but different socialization experiences could make one system predominant in self-regulation" (p. 277). This suggests that even though an individual will prefer one regulatory focus to another, it is possible that their preference for either regulatory focus will be similar. Prior research alludes to the idea that contextual activation can temporarily change regulatory orientations depending on the level of disparity in preference between the two orientations (Higgins et al., 1994; Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992). In both studies efforts were taken to ensure that participants selected for the experiment had a predominant preference for one orientation over another in order to show that distinct systems can be temporarily changed.

In a situation where an employee's preference for promotion and prevention foci is very similar, supervisors are more likely to be able to alter subordinate regulatory focus. On the other hand, when an employee's levels of promotion and prevention foci are not similar, a supervisor's ability to modify subordinate WRF will be dependent on two factors: 1) the similarity (or dissimilarity) in a subordinate's preference of a general promotion or general prevention focus, and 2) the regulatory focus the supervisor is trying to evoke. If a subordinate's preference for general promotion focus is similar to their preference for a prevention focus, then a supervisor's attempts to induce a promotion or prevention focus will likely be met with success as the subordinate's preference for a prevention focus over a promotion focus is minimal. If a discrepancy exists between a subordinate's preference for one focus over the other, then the likelihood that the subordinate will respond to supervisor attempts to alter subordinate regulatory focus will decrease as the discrepancy grows larger. Research examining regulatory fit at different levels of promotion and prevention foci has the potential to expand our understanding of contextual influences on regulatory focus (Shin et al., 2017).

Last, research is needed that deals with the relationship between regulatory fit and desirable organizational outcomes. Little research exists which examines the role of regulatory fit on OCBs and proactive behavior. Scholars have called for more research examining the effects of regulatory fit on work outcomes (Lanaj et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2015, Shin et al., 2017). Shin et al. (2017) suggest that "regulatory fit research can benefit from examining the relationship between fit and misfit at different levels of prevention and promotion foci and different forms of OCB" (p. 20).

Reviewing existing regulatory focus research has highlighted several gaps which if addressed have the potential to make important contributions to the literature. The present research hopes to provide insight into how the interplay between dispositional factors and contextual factors affect regulatory focus and in doing so, answer the call for more research examining how personality factors relate to regulatory focus and the call for research examining the effects of regulatory fit on workplace outcomes.

Proactive Behavior

Prior research indicates that both promotion and prevention focus have a moderate impact on OCBs. Dewett and Denisi (2007) proposed that promotion and prevention foci would be associated with different types of OCB. In order to integrate regulatory focus with OCBs, Dewett and Denisi (2007) conceptualize OCBs as being either maintenance focused (efforts to maintain the status quo) or change focused (future focused action meant to bring about change). Since a prevention focus is characterized by a concern with safety and security and maintaining the status quo, an individual using a prevention focus is more likely to display maintenance focused behaviors. Promotion focus is characterized by the use of eagerness means during goal accomplishment and with avoiding errors of omission. Promotion oriented individuals are likely to display change related behaviors which are focused on shaping the environment in order to foster better future performance (Dewett & Denisi, 2007). Evidence in support of their proposition was provided soon after their study was published. Neubert et al. (2008) found that a promotion focus was positively related to helping behavior whereas the relationship between prevention focus and helping behavior was not significant. Neubert et al. (2008) did not test for a relationship between regulatory focus and change related

OCBs. However, other studies have tested for a relationship. For example, results from Shin et al. (2017) suggest that a prevention focus is more strongly related to maintenance OCBs than change related OCBs and promotion focus is more strongly related to change OCBs than maintenance OCBs.

Originally, proactive behavior was defined as “the relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change” (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 103). Several definitions of proactive behavior appear in the literature including “taking initiative in improving current circumstances; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present condition” (Crant, 2000, p. 436), “self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself” (Parker et al., 2006, p. 636), and “anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments” (Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 4). Each of the varying definitions of proactive behavior focuses on the idea that individuals with a high degree of proactive personality adopt an active approach in their work roles in order to influence the work environment towards positive change.

Much of the proactive behavior research focuses on the various ways in which employees attempt to shape or change their environment. Notable proactive behavior constructs include: voice behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), career management (Seibert et al., 2001), seeking feedback (Ashford & Cummings, 1985), issue selling (Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Saks, Gruman, & Cooper-Thomas, 2011), revising job tasks, and knowledge sharing (Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker et al., 2006). The multitude of proactivity constructs is the result of researchers not integrating research findings. Grant and Ashford (2008) noted that “research on proactive

behavior has been phenomenon driven; researchers have noticed a particular behavior and then developed theory and collected data to describe, predict, and explain it as a distinct phenomenon” (p. 4). Parker and Collins (2010) help bridge this gap by introducing three higher order categories of proactive behavior: proactive work behavior, proactive person-environment (PE) fit behavior, and proactive strategic behavior.

Proactive work behavior is described as bringing about change in the internal environment. Examples of proactive work behaviors include taking charge, voice, individual innovation, and problem prevention. Proactive work behaviors stem from an employee’s self-initiated attempts to bring about improved future work situations (Vough, Bindl, & Parker, 2017). Proactive PE-fit behavior is directed towards changing the self or one’s situation to become more compatible with the organizational environment. Proactive PE-fit behaviors include feedback inquiry, feedback monitoring, job change negotiation, and career initiative. Proactive strategic behaviors are behaviors aimed at bring about change in the broader organizational context such as changing strategy or fit with the environment. Strategic scanning, issue selling credibility, and issue selling willingness are different types of proactive strategic behavior. By integrating different types of proactive behaviors and organizing them into a concise framework, Parker and Collins’s (2010) classification of proactive behaviors include behaviors aimed at helping individuals, helping the organization, and helping the self.

Proactive behavior researchers have also focused on identifying and explaining the antecedents and mechanisms which are thought to result in proactive behavior. At the broadest level, an individual’s behavior is the result of the interaction between traits and contextual factors present at the time the behavior occurs (Ajzen, 1991, 2005; Bandura,

1986). The same is true for specific behaviors such as proactive behaviors which are thought to be a result of both individual level factors and contextual factors (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2010; Tornau & Frese, 2013). Numerous individual and contextual factors are thought to be related to proactive behaviors including the big five personality factors (Fuller & Marler, 2009; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Parker & Collins, 2010; Tornau & Frese, 2013), self-efficacy (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), value congruence between supervisor and subordinate (Nguyen, 2013), affect (Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2007), perceived coworker support (Parker et al., 2010), personal initiative (Glaser et al., 2016), self-esteem (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), proactive personality (Fuller et al., 2006; Sibert et al., 2001; Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010), supervisor proactive personality (Fuller et al., 2012), and role-breadth self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2006). Proactive personality and personal initiative receive considerably more attention in proactive behavior research than other dispositional factors. However, the results from a recent meta-analysis examining proactive behavior (Tornau & Frese, 2013) provides support to the notion that personal initiative and proactive personality are highly related and essentially the same (Crant, Hu, & Jiang, 2017).

Proactive Personality

Proactive personality, “one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change” (Bateman & Crant, 1993 p. 105), is thought to be a compound personality trait (Fuller & Marler, 2009). Meaning proactive personality is comprised of variety of basic uncorrelated personality traits. The results of Fuller and Marler’s (2009) meta-analysis support this view in that proactive personality was found to be related to four of the Big Five factors (openness to experience, conscientiousness,

extraversion, and neuroticism). Additional research also indicates that proactive personality explains additional variance beyond the Big Five in change-related behavior (Marinova, Peng, Lorinkova, Van Dyne, & Chiaburu, 2015). People high in proactive personality identify opportunities, display personal initiative, and are persistent in their desire to bring about constructive change in their environments (Crant, 1995). Proactive personality is linked to many desirable outcomes. Research suggests that employees high in proactive personality engage in feedback seeking, mentoring, and career planning (Seibert et al., 2001). Proactive personality plays an important role in proactive idea implementation and proactive problem solving (Parker et al., 2006) and proactive personality has been linked to job performance (Thompson, 2005). Results from Fuller and Marler's (2009) meta-analysis suggest that proactive personality has a strong positive relationship with proactive behavior.

Although research suggests that proactive personality is a strong predictor of proactive behavior, having a proactive personality does not guarantee that proactive behaviors will occur (Marler, 2008; Thompson, 2005). Many scholars theorize that personality is only a distal antecedent of behavior and theoretical models should include constructs which are more proximal to behavior such as motivation (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Gorman et al., 2012; Judge & Illies, 2002; Lanaj et al., 2012; Parker et al., 2006; Parker et al., 2010). For example, some scholars suggest proactive personality is a distal predictor of proactive behavior which acts through cognitive motivational states (Fuller et al., 2006).

Since Thompson's (2005) call for more research into the mediating mechanisms through which proactive personality affects proactive behaviors, researchers have focused

their efforts on integrating proactive behavior and motivation theories in order to further our understanding of proactive behavior. Parker, Williams, and Turner (2006) were among the first to include motivational variables in a model of proactive behavior. Their hypothesized model includes role breadth self-efficacy, control appraisals, and flexible role orientation as cognitive-motivational mechanisms through which proactive personality affects proactive behavior. Results from Parker et al.'s (2006) study provide evidence that proactive personality has an indirect effect on proactive work behavior through role breadth self-efficacy and flexible role orientation. Two environmental factors act as antecedents to role breadth self-efficacy and flexible role orientation: job autonomy and co-worker trust. These results provide evidence of illustrating how environmental factors affect the relationship between proactive personality and proactive behavior.

In the same year, Fuller, Marler, and Hester (2006), introduced a model of proactive behavior which includes felt responsibility for constructive change (FRCC) as a motivational variable through which proactive behaviors occur. Results from their study provide evidence that contextual factors (position in organization hierarchy and employee perceptions of their access to resources) are linked to voice behavior and continuous improvement through a motivational mechanism (e.g., FRCC). Further, results indicate that for individuals with proactive personalities, access to resources is positively related to voice behavior and access to strategy related information is positively related to felt responsibility for constructive change (Fuller et al., 2006). For individuals with passive personalities, no relationship was found between access to resources and voice behavior and a negative relationship was found between subordinate access to strategy related

information and FRCC. Together, the results from these two studies provide evidence that individual and contextual factors affect proactive behavior through various motivational states. Fuller, Marler, and Hester's (2006) results also illustrate the importance of including motivational variables in models of proactive behavior.

Parker, Bindl, and Strauss (2010) developed a model of proactive motivation which draws from self-regulation theory (Bandura, 1991) and goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990). The model illustrates the pathways and mechanisms through which individual and contextual variables lead to proactive behavior. They conceptualize proactive behavior as "a goal driven process involving both the setting of a proactive goal and striving to achieve that proactive goal" (Parker et al., 2010, p. 1). Proactive goal setting or goal generation involves an assessment of desired future outcomes. Once a goal is established, a strategy will be enacted to help strive for or achieve the desired outcome. The two processes are stimulated by three motivational states: can do, reason to, and energized to. Can do motivation requires the individual to make an assessment of both the degree to which they believe they possess the skills necessary to achieve their desired outcome and the degree to which contextual factors will help or inhibit their ability to achieve the desired outcome. Reason to motivation focuses on why people engage in particular behaviors (e.g., why should I act?). Energized to motivation is based on the idea that certain dispositions such as positive affect, energize individuals to put forth effort toward achieving their desired outcomes. Parker et al.'s (2010) conceptualization matches some tenants derived from goal-setting theory. Particularly, goal regulation is driven by an assessment regarding the reason why a person is pursuing a goal and whether the goal is focused on achieving ideals or fulfilling obligations.

Building on Parker et al.'s (2010) model, proactive behavior research has begun to examine the can do and reason to motivation, sometimes operationalized as future work selves. Future work selves refer to "an individual's representation of himself or herself in the future that reflects his or her hopes and aspirations in relation to work" (Strauss et al., 2012, p. 580). Similar to self-discrepancy theory, thinking about the future work self involves an evaluation of current and future states (ought or ideal). One of the key assumptions in this area is that discrepancies between current and future selves motivate proactive goal setting and goal striving (Strauss & Parker, 2015). A recent study examining the effect of future focus on OCBs report a moderate correlation ($r = .25$) between promotion focus and proactive personality and a small correlation ($r = .16$) between prevention focus and proactive personality (Strobel et al., 2013). However, the authors did not offer any hypotheses regarding said relationship. Research examining the effect of the future work-self perspective on proactive behavior illustrates how regulatory focus may be applied to the study of proactive behavior.

Building on research from Parker, Bindl, and Strauss (2010) and Strauss, Griffin, and Parker (2012), I suggest that regulatory focus theory addresses the proactive motivational states: reason to, can do, and energized to. Proactive goal generation requires one to think about a desired future outcome and select a strategy to achieve the desired outcome (Parker et al., 2010). Regulatory focus theory suggests that individuals adopt goal pursuit means which help them achieve desired outcomes or avoid undesirable outcomes (Higgins, 1997). Proactivity can be promotion goal oriented such as achieving something positive, and/or proactivity can be preventive goal oriented such as avoiding or reducing negative outcomes (Bateman, 2017). Both GRF and proactive behavior

require individuals to reflect on a desired future outcome and determine the appropriate strategy to reach the outcome. For individual's adopting a general promotion focus, hopes and aspirations represent of a source of intrinsic or "reason to" motivation. Promotion oriented individuals engage in behaviors that increase the likelihood of obtaining future outcomes because the future outcome will bring positive or rewarding emotions (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). For individual's adopting a general prevention focus, obligations and duties represent the "reason to" motivation. Prevention oriented individuals engage in behaviors that decrease the likelihood of failure because failure results in negative emotions (Crowe & Higgins, 1997).

Individuals may feel uncertain as to whether or not they can accomplish their goals or deal with undesirable outcomes and therefore, may not act until they believe they "can" (Parker et al., 2010; Zhang, Law, & Yan, 2015). The shift from GRF to WRF requires the assessment of one's environment to determine if achieving the goal is possible; answering the question "can I do this" or "am I able to do this?". WRF takes into consideration contextual factors that may enhance or hinder one's ability to use their preferred goal pursuit means (Lieberman et al., 1999). If the environment is supportive, one should feel they "can do" and be motivated to act because the behavior will likely lead to desired outcomes. On the other hand, if the environment is not supportive of goal pursuit means, then non-preferred means will be used which will result in a decrease in overall motivation.

Within motivational systems "emotions work as approach or avoidance energizers" (Hirschi, Lee, Porfeli, & Vondracek, 2013, p. 33) with positive and negative affect each having a polarizing effect on motivation. Bindl and Parker (2012) suggest that

positive affect (e.g., cheerfulness, enjoyment) energizes individuals to put forth greater effort toward achieving their desired outcomes than feelings of contentment or quiescence. On the other hand, experienced negative emotions (e.g., fear) heighten one's focus on threats and preparations to take defensive action (Lebel, 2017). Research suggest that regulatory fit, both interpersonal and intrapersonal, leads to positive affective states such as "feeling right" which has an "energizing" effect and leads to stronger motivation during goal pursuit (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004; Righetti et al., 2011).

Predicting Work Regulatory Focus

According to regulatory focus theory (RFT), individuals regulate their behavior using promotion or prevention strategies in order to achieve desired end states (Higgins, 1997). A person's regulatory orientation is shaped by personal traits and contextual factors and can vary from one situation to the next (Gorman et al., 2012; Higgins, 1997, 1998; Idson et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 2015; Lanaj et al., 2012; Moss et al., 2006; Liberman et al., 1999; Neubert et al., 2008; Wallace et al., 2010; Zacher & de Lange, 2011). General regulatory focus (GRF) is an individual disposition which is shaped by life experience and tends to be stable in adulthood (Higgins & Silberman, 1998). However, GRF can be manipulated by various mechanisms (Liberman et al., 1999). For example, research findings suggest that in the workplace, regulatory focus can be manipulated through reward structures (Freitas et al., 2002), leadership (Benjamin & Flynn, 2006) and selection (Brockner et al., 2004).

Unlike GRF which represents one's preferred regulatory orientation, work regulatory focus (WRF) represents one's regulatory focus that is evoked in the workplace

(Neubert et al., 2008). WRF is shaped as situational factors such as leadership, co-workers, and other elements of the work environment interact with stable personal attributes (Wallace & Chen, 2006). GRF represents one's preferred day-to-day regulatory orientation, whereas WRF represents one's regulatory orientation that is adopted in the workplace (Neubert et al., 2008). Thus, work-promotion and work-prevention foci are more likely to change in response to situational factors in the workplace than general foci (Wallace & Chen, 2006). Therefore, this dissertation examines the ability of WRF to predict proactive behaviors rather than GRF as WRF is better suited for predicting work related behaviors (Wallace et al., 2009).

The hypothesized model presented in Figure 1.1 illustrates the pathways linking individual and contextual factors to proactive behavior. In the following sections theoretical evidence is presented to provide rationale for each of the pathways in the model. First, personal characteristics of the subordinate (GRF and proactive personality) have an indirect effect on proactive behavior and generalized compliance through subordinate WRF. Second, the work environment presents several moderators to the relationships between subordinate GRF and subordinate WRF, and between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate WRF. Given that supervisors possess the ability to alter employee perceptions and behaviors in the workplace, supervisor WRF and supervisor proactive personality have moderating roles. Last, the degree of regulatory fit between subordinate GRF and subordinate WRF (intrapersonal fit) and the degree of regulatory fit between subordinate WRF and supervisor WRF (interpersonal regulatory fit) will alter the relationship between subordinate regulatory focus and subordinate work behavior (proactive behavior and generalized compliance).

Personal Attributes Which Relate To Work Regulatory Focus

WRF is shaped by both personal attributes and situational factors within the work environment (Neubert et al., 2008; Wallace & Chen, 2006). WRF assumes that employees adapt to stimuli in order to become more compatible with the work environment (Camacho et al., 2003; Higgins, 2000). Therefore, the model developed for this study examines the effects of two personal attributes that are expected to affect the choice between a work promotion focus and a work prevention focus: general regulatory focus and proactive personality.

General regulatory focus. Factors in the environment can either support or hinder one from using their preferred goal pursuit means. In the workplace, one's WRF comes about as a result of their attempts to adapt to stimuli to become more compatible with or fit better within the work environment (Camacho et al., 2003; Higgins, 2000). Since WRF is a form of situational regulatory focus shaped by the interaction of one's GRF and environmental stimuli, GRF is an antecedent of WRF (Lanaj et al., 2012). If environmental factors do not act as obstacles to one's general regulatory orientation, then one's WRF would be the same as their GRF as the environment does not present any stimuli which require one to adapt. On the other hand, if an employee senses that obstacles are present in the work environment, they may try to adapt to the obstacles by altering their regulatory orientation. Indeed, empirical findings indicate that GRF is a strong predictor of WRF (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 1a: General promotion focus is positively related to work promotion focus.

Hypothesis 1b: General prevention focus is positively related to work prevention focus.

Proactive personality. A second personal attribute which is likely to relate to goal pursuit means in the workplace is proactive personality. Individuals with proactive personalities are typically described as someone who is “relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change” (Bateman & Crant, 1993 p. 105). People high in proactive personality identify opportunities, display personal initiative, and are persistent in their desire to bring about constructive change in their environments (Crant, 1995). The description of a person with a proactive personality is similar to that of someone with a promotion work focus. Individuals with a promotion are motivated by eagerness to achieve success and be recognized. They will pursue their goals by trying out different behaviors and sticking with what works. Individuals using a prevention focus are motivated by a desire to avoid losses or commit errors and therefore are less likely to have a proactive personality. This does not mean that prevention focused individuals are not proactive. In fact, prior research indicates that proactive personality is positively related to both work promotion and work prevention foci (Strobel et al., 2013). In their study, Strobel et al. (2013) reported a positive relationship between proactive personality and both work promotion and work prevention foci. However, in line with Strobel et al.’s (2013) results, proactive personality should be more strongly related to work promotion focus than work prevention focus.

Hypothesis 2a: Proactive personality will be positively related to a work promotion focus.

Hypothesis 2b: Proactive personality will be negatively related to a work prevention focus.

There is considerable overlap among the antecedents of GRF and proactive personality. For example, results from Fuller and Marler's (2009) proactive personality meta-analysis and from two regulatory focus meta-analyses (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012) indicate that the magnitude and direction of the relationships between extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and proactive personality are similar to the relationship between the same Big Five traits and promotion focus. Neuroticism is negatively related to both proactive personality and promotion focus. Further, empirical evidence suggest that personality directly predicts both general and work regulatory foci (Lanaj et al., 2012). Therefore, proactive personality should be an antecedent of GRF. As previously stated people with a high level of proactive personality identify opportunities, display personal initiative, and are persistent in their desire to bring about constructive change in their environments (Crant, 1995). Similarly, a promotion focus is characterized by a concern with advancement, growth, and accomplishment and with the use of eagerness-related means during goal pursuit (Wallace et al., 2016). Just as individuals with a high degree of proactive personality persistent in their desire to bring about constructive change, promotion focused individuals persist in their desire to achieve their goal despite possible risks or experienced failure. It is reasonable to suggest that individuals with a high degree of proactive personality are more inclined to adopt a promotion focus than a prevention focus. A recent study found a positive relationship between proactive personality and work promotion focus ($\beta = 0.25, p < .05$, Strobel et al., 2013). Unfortunately, there are

some limitations to the insight provided by the results. First, the relationship was not hypothesized; rather, proactive personality was included as a control variable. Second, because regulatory focus was measured at Time 1 and proactive personality was measured at Time 2, it was not possible to test if proactive personality predicted regulatory focus. In order to bring about clarity regarding the relationship between proactive personality and regulatory focus, I offer the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: Proactive personality will be positively related to a general promotion focus.

Hypothesis 3b: Proactive personality will be positively related to a general prevention focus.

Situational Influences of Work Regulatory Focus

According to RFT, employee motivation and commitment during goal pursuit are highest when employees are able to pursue goals using their preferred means. Although GRF is thought by some to be the strongest predictor of situational regulatory focus, situational factors may arise during goal pursuits which help sustain or disrupt the use of one's preferred goal pursuit means (Spiegel et al., 2004). In the workplace, supervisors play a crucial role in shaping employee behavior. Therefore, supervisors represent a key contextual factor that may influence employee behavior.

According to social learning theory, behaviors are learned by observation (Bandura, 1977). Individuals will strive to emulate the behaviors of their role models, leaders, and coworkers. In the work domain, supervisors represent an attractive role model because being in a supervisory position suggests that the individual has experienced success either within their career or the organization (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005; Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017). Supervisor behavior serves as a signal to

subordinates as to which behaviors are considered appropriate (Brockner et al., 2004; Neubert et al., 2008). Therefore, subordinates will emulate their supervisor's behavior as they assume it will lead to successful outcomes. For example, Yaffe and Kark's (2011) study provides evidence that leader behavior in the form of OCBs is related to work group OCBs including taking charge behavior.

Supervisors can shape the work environment (and subordinate behavior) through their behavior or through a variety of other means such as: developing high quality exchange relationships with subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), job design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001), and through empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995). Since supervisors have a strong influence on the work environment and their subordinates, supervisors represent a key factor which may impact subordinate regulatory focus. In this study, I posit that supervisor proactive personality and supervisor WRF represent two factors which influence supervisor behavior and in turn shape subordinate WRF.

Supervisor proactive personality. Research indicates that supervisor personality and behavior can affect subordinate proactive behavior. For example, Fuller, Marler, and Hester (2012) found evidence that supervisor proactive personality has a moderating effect on the subordinate proactive personality/in-role performance relationship. It may be that a supervisor with a strong proactive personality expects their subordinates to engage in proactive behavior and that for those who do not engage in proactive behavior "risk lies in not behavior proactively" (Fuller et al., 2012, p. 1065).

A later study by Fuller, Marler, Hester, and Otondo (2015) indicates that supervisor felt responsibility for constructive change (FRCC) has a moderating effect on

the relationship between subordinate taking charge and supervisor rated in-role performance. Under leaders high in FRCC, engaging in proactive behavior resulted in subordinates receiving higher performance evaluations than their less proactive counterparts (Fuller et al., 2015). Under leaders low in FRCC, engaging in proactive behavior resulted in subordinates receiving the same performance evaluations as their less proactive counterparts (Fuller et al., 2015). For some subordinates, the lack of reward or recognition for engaging in proactive behavior might reduce the likelihood of engaging in future proactive behavior.

Results from Nguyen (2013) also support earlier findings and suggest that supervisor proactivity (personality and behavior) affects employee proactive behavior. Nguyen (2013) suggests that perceived supervisor value congruence, the match between an employee's values and those of their supervisor, is positively related to subordinate taking charge and voice behavior. Further, perceived supervisor value congruence is in part determined by the interaction of subordinate proactive personality and supervisor proactive personality. That is, subordinate perceptions of supervisor value congruence represent the degree of alignment between a supervisor's and a subordinate's proactive personality as perceived by the subordinate. Taken together, the results from the three studies elucidate the role of supervisors in shaping subordinate proactive behavior.

Within the person-organization (P-O) fit literature, a strong match or fit between a person and their employing organization increases job satisfaction and job performance and reduces turnover intentions and actual turnover (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). The outcomes associated P-O fit are also seen within other conceptualizations of fit such as person-supervisor (P-S) fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Similar to the idea of P-S fit, proactive subordinates (i.e., those with a high degree of proactive personality and/or those who engage in proactive behaviors) who believe their supervisors value proactive behavior have a stronger motivation to behave proactively as it may lead to more favorable treatment from the supervisor (Nguyen, 2013). Further, evidence suggests that proactive supervisors (i.e., those with a high degree of proactive personality and/or those who engage in proactive behaviors) penalize subordinates who do not engage in or infrequently display proactive behavior (Fuller et al., 2012).

Empirical evidence from studies examining the congruence between supervisor and subordinate proactive personality elucidates the effect of congruence on workplace dynamics. Results from Zhang, Wang, and Shi (2012) indicate that congruence between supervisor and subordinate proactive personality leads to better leader-member exchange (LMX). Additionally, the relationship is stronger when congruence occurs for supervisors high in proactive personality. Last, LMX mediates the relationship between supervisor/subordinate congruence/incongruence and subordinate job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job performance (Zhang et al., 2012).

Earlier, I suggested that employees with a high degree of proactive personality would adopt a work promotion focus and employees with a low degree of proactive personality would adopt a work prevention focus. However, consistent with the P-S fit literature, supervisor proactive personality should moderate the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate WRF. As suggested by Johnson and Chen (2011), leaders may affect subordinate regulatory focus through their own personality traits. For example, consider an employee with a general prevention focus who is low in proactive personality. This person desires safety and security, is concerned

with errors of commission, and will pursue goals using vigilance and care. Under a proactive supervisor, the individual might receive negative performance evaluations because they didn't engage in proactive behavior. From the perspective of the employees, receiving a negative evaluation would be committing an error. Although adopting a promotion focus is not aligned with the subordinate's preferred means of goal pursuit, they might deem it necessary to adopt a promotion focus in order to avoid future negative outcomes.

On the other hand, consider an employee with a general promotion focus who is high in proactive personality. Under a passive supervisor the employee might not be recognized for their efforts. Their supervisor might lack the insight to offer praise or recognition for the employee's efforts. It may be the case that the supervisor even reprimands the employee for making the supervisor look bad in comparison. For this employee, adopting a work prevention focus may be needed in order to maintain a positive standing with the supervisor. In the two scenarios described above, supervisor proactive personality moderates the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and WRF. Thus, the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate WRF described in Hypotheses 2a and 2b has the potential to be modified by supervisor proactive personality.

Hypothesis 4a: Supervisor proactive personality moderates the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and work promotion focus such that the relationship will be stronger when the supervisor has a high level of proactive personality than when the supervisor has a low level of proactive personality.

Hypothesis 4b: Supervisor proactive personality moderates the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and work prevention focus such that the relationship will be stronger when the supervisor has a high level of proactive personality than when the supervisor has a low level of proactive personality.

Supervisor work regulatory focus. Research suggests that leader regulatory focus is related to leader behavior. Specifically, leader promotion focus is related to transformational leadership behaviors and leader prevention focus is related to transactional leadership behaviors (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017). Transformational leaders have high expectations of their follows and in their follower's ability to achieve their goals. Transformational leaders present idealistic visions, value and encourage change, innovation, and goal attainment. The behaviors of transformational leadership overlap with a promotion focus which is characterized with a concerned with ideals, a focus on positive outcomes, and tendency to take risks in order to bring about change (Lieberman et al., 1999). On the other hand, transactional leaders establish clear rules for exchange, emphasize compliance and meeting minimal performance standards, and monitor and correct follower performance (Bass, 1985). Transactional leadership overlaps with a prevention focus which is characterized with a concerned for responsibility and obligation, avoiding negative outcomes, and being risk averse in order to maintain the status quo (Lieberman et al., 1999). Leaders with a promotion focus tend to adopt transformational leadership styles and display transformational leadership behaviors whereas leaders with a prevention focus tend to adopt transactional leadership styles and display transactional leadership behaviors (Hamstra et al., 2009; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017). Since

individuals strive to emulate the behavior of others, in the workplace, leader behavior will serve as a benchmark for prominent follower behavior.

During goal pursuit, subordinates receive feedback from their supervisors. The type of feedback given to a subordinate depends on a supervisor's evaluation of the employee and the method(s) with which the subordinate is pursuing their goal. A supervisor's WRF will likely affect their evaluation of the subordinate's goal pursuit attempts and will determine the type of feedback given to the subordinate. All else being constant, a supervisor is likely to frame work situations to be aligned with their own regulatory orientation (i.e., promotion focus supervisors frame situations as being promotion orientated and prevention focus supervisors frame situations as being prevention orientated). Feedback received by subordinates is used to determine if their current regulatory orientation is appropriate for the workplace or if it needs to change. Positive feedback given to a promotion oriented subordinate should increase motivation, while negative feedback given to prevention oriented subordinate should increase motivation.

Knowing this, supervisors can alter subordinate regulatory focus through situational framing. A supervisor may want a subordinate to engage in more behaviors associated with accomplishment (promotion focus) and suppress vigilant behaviors (prevention focus) so the supervisor may offer a bonus, framed as a gain, to the subordinate (Johnson & Wallace, 2011). On the other hand, if the supervisor wished to encourage a prevention focus, the supervisor could tell the subordinate that if he/she does not meet performance goals, then he/she will lose the opportunity to receive the bonus (bonus framed as a loss).

Further, supervisor behavior is salient to those within the work environment, especially to subordinates. Leaders can affect subordinate behavior by displaying behaviors or emotions that the leader feels their followers should exhibit. A leader experiencing and demonstrating optimism may affect a follower's emotions and subsequent behavior (Johnson & Wallace, 2011). Therefore, supervisor behavior can be interpreted as a cue for subordinates to evoke the same goal pursuit means as the supervisor (Brockner et al., 2004; Neubert et al., 2008). As situations change, supervisors can change their motivation tactics to encourage subordinates to adopt goal attainment strategies that match the situation. Through feedback, leaders can alter subordinate behaviors to be more aligned with the leader's cognitions, emotions, and behaviors (Johnson & Wallace, 2011). The extent to which a supervisor is able to modify a subordinate's regulatory focus is in part determined by the strength of the subordinate's general promotion and prevention foci. That is, the congruence or disparity between the supervisor and subordinate levels of promotion and prevention focus will be related to the ability of the supervisor to alter the subordinate's regulatory focus. Thus, the relationship between subordinate GRF and subordinate WRF described in Hypotheses 1a and 1b has the potential to be modified by supervisory influence.

Hypothesis 5a: Supervisor work regulatory focus moderates the relationship between subordinate general promotion focus and subordinate work promotion focus such that the relationship is stronger when the supervisor has a high level of promotion focus than when the supervisor has a low level promotion focus.

Hypothesis 5b: Supervisor work regulatory focus moderates the relationship between subordinate general prevention focus and subordinate work prevention focus such that the relationship is stronger when the supervisor has a high level of prevention focus than when the supervisor has a low level prevention focus.

Two things should be noted at this point. First, while supervisor WRF may encourage subordinates to adopt a certain regulatory focus in the workplace, it should not be assumed that supervisor behavior can/will change subordinate GRF. The impact of supervisor regulatory focus on subordinate regulatory focus is limited to the work domain. While it is plausible that a supervisor's influence could alter a subordinate's GRF over time, there have been no studies to provide evidence of such an effect. Second, since GRF is a primary driver of WRF it would seem that supervisor GRF would need to be measured in conjunction with WRF. However, since employees typically engage with supervisors within the context of work, the effect of supervisor GRF on subordinates should not be as strong as supervisor WRF. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, only supervisor WRF will be considered.

Predicting Proactive Behavior Using Work Regulatory Focus

Research in the proactive behavior domain identifies numerous individual and contextual factors which are thought to be related to proactive behaviors including the Big Five personality factors (Fuller & Marler, 2009) self-efficacy (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), supervisor/subordinate value congruence (Nguyen, 2013), perceived coworker support (Parker et al., 2010), personal initiative (Glaser et al., 2016), supervisor proactive personality (Fuller et al., 2012), role-breadth self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2006), and

proactive personality (Thomas et al., 2010). Research suggests that personality and other individual traits and processes affect behavior through motivational mechanisms (Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993; Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002; Kanfer, 1990). Proactive personality, role-breadth self-efficacy, and personal initiative are among the most commonly examined motivational mechanism in proactive behavior research. However, regulatory focus theory merits inclusion as a motivational mechanism through which personal and contextual factors relate to proactive behavior.

First, work regulatory focus supersedes other motivational constructs such as role breadth self-efficacy, support from others, intrinsic motivation, and FRCC which serve as “can do” and “reason to” proactive motivational states (Parker et al., 2010). GRF represents a “reason to” motivational state and WRF represents a “can do”. Since GRF has a direct effect on WRF, one’s WRF should reflect both “can do” and “reason to” motivational states. Other proactive motivation constructs only account for a single proactive motivational state. For example, individuals with a FRCC are willing “to put in more effort, as well as to bring about improvement, develop new procedures, and correct broader problems” (Fuller et al., 2006, p. 1092). Individuals with a FRCC try to perform their work duties in a better way rather than just doing them according to established routines. Seeking out new ways of doing things means deviating from the status quo and taking risks. While this would not be appealing to someone using a prevention focus, this type of behavior is characteristic of someone with a promotion focus. Therefore, it is very likely that individuals using a promotion focus already have a FRCC. On the other hand, someone with a prevention focus would be more concerned with not making mistakes and maintaining the status quo (safety) than making changes or seeking out better ways to

do his or her job. However, some evidence exists which suggests that adopting a prevention focus is related to felt responsibility.

Prior research suggests that in negotiation situations, adopting a promotion focus is preferred over a prevention focus as a promotion focus aligned with achievement which should motivate the negotiator to achieve the best possible outcomes (Galinsky, Leonardelli, Okhuysen, & Musseiler, 2005). However, in a recent study, Peng, Dunn, and Conlon (2015) suggest that because a prevention focus is linked to one's ought-self (obligations and duties) and because felt obligation emphasizes one's responsibility or duty to others, felt responsibility for change should be more aligned with a prevention focus rather than a promotion focus. Indeed, results from Peng et al.'s (2015) study suggest that during exchange negotiations, high accountability (perceived by the negotiator) triggers strong feelings of obligation that provoke a prevention focus. High accountability triggers stronger fit perceptions and increased motivation to perform for prevention focused negotiators. In both of their experiments, prevention focused negotiators achieved better joint outcomes than promotion focused negotiators. Peng et al.'s (2015) findings provide support for the argument that when predicting behavior, some motivational constructs, such as FRCC, are only able to account for some of the explained variance in behavior. Therefore, using a multifaceted motivational construct, such as regulatory focus, in models of behavior should result in additional variance explained.

Second, since WRF captures both the personal attributes and the contextual factors that typically affect work behavior, WRF should be a better predictor of proactive behavior than motivational mechanisms which are based solely on personal attributes.

The dichotomous nature of regulatory focus allows for individuals to be categorized as adopting a promotion focus or a adopting a prevention focus. Integrating this categorization with supervisor proactive personality, categorized as being low or high, and supervisor work WRF, categorized as being promotion or prevention, results in a 2x2x2 classification of WRF. In Tables 2.1 and 2.2 different forms of WRF are classified based on strength with box I being the strongest and box IV being the weakest form of work promotion or work prevention focus. Each of the different combinations should be associated with different work behaviors.

Table 2.1: Subordinate General Promotion Focus, Supervisor Proactive Personality and Subordinate Work Promotion Focus for Supervisors High in Promotion Focus.

	Supervisor Proactive Personality Low	Supervisor Proactive Personality High
Subordinate General Promotion Focus	Subordinate Work Promotion Focus (II)	Subordinate Work Promotion Focus (I)
Subordinate General Prevention Focus	Subordinate Work Prevention Focus (IV)	Subordinate Work Promotion Focus (III)

Table 2.2: Subordinate General Prevention Focus, Supervisor Proactive Personality and Subordinate Work Prevention Focus for Supervisors High in Prevention Focus.

	Supervisor Proactive Personality Low	Supervisor Proactive Personality High
Subordinate General Promotion Focus	Subordinate Work Prevention Focus (III)	Subordinate Work Promotion Focus (IV)
Subordinate General Prevention Focus	Subordinate Work Prevention Focus (I)	Subordinate Work Prevention Focus (II)

Since proactive personality is more strongly related to promotion focus than prevention focus, supervisors high in proactive personality should adopt a work promotion focus while supervisors low in proactive personality should adopt a work prevention focus. In boxes II and IV in Tables 2.1 and 2.2 some characteristic in the work environment is preventing congruence between supervisor's GRF and WRF. When this occurs, supervisors may send mixed signals to their subordinates as to what is considered appropriate behavior. If subordinates are getting mixed signals from their supervisors, subordinates will likely revert to a work regulatory orientation which is aligned with their general regulatory orientation. In box II of Tables 2.1 and 2.2, reverting to one's preferred goal pursuit results in interpersonal fit between supervisor and subordinate WRF. However, in box IV of Tables 2.1 and 2.2, reverting to one's preferred goal pursuit means results in misfit between supervisor and subordinate WRF. Because lack of interpersonal fit results in no motivational benefits or decreased motivation during goal pursuit (Lockwood et al., 2002; Sassenberg et al., 2007; Peng et al., 2015), WRF (IV) will have the weakest relationships with proactive behaviors.

Research suggests that a work promotion focus is positively related to helping behavior, OCBs, creativity, and innovation performance (Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008). Individuals with a work promotion focus are motivated by an eagerness to achieve success and be recognized. They will pursue their goals by trying out different behaviors and sticking with what works. Driven by eagerness, promotion focused individuals will engage in proactive behaviors. For example, individuals adopting a promotion focus are more likely to engage in job change negotiations in order to become more effective (Brenninkmeijer & Hekkert-Koning, 2015). Proactive behaviors are

aligned with someone who identifies opportunities, displays personal initiative, and is persistent in their desire to bring about constructive change in their environments (Crant, 1995). Spitzmuller and Van Dyne (2013) suggest that engaging in proactive behavior “should generate positive reputational benefits for helpers” (p. 570). Therefore, adopting a work promotion focus should be associated with proactive behavior.

Individuals using a prevention focus are motivated by a desire to avoid losses or commit errors. Extra role behaviors such as OCB and proactive behavior consume personal resources (e.g., time) and may interfere with one’s progress towards achieving work related goals (Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016). Further, engaging in change related behavior can be risky and is likely to threaten the safety and stability desired by prevention oriented individuals. Instead, individuals adopting a prevention focus are more concerned with their own performance. A prevention orientation is related to strategies that are similar to a conformist behavioral style (Brebels, De Cremer, & Sedikides, 2008) or generalized compliance. Generalized compliance refers to strict adherence to rules, regulations and procedures, which does not necessarily help any specific person, but is indirectly helpful to individuals in the system (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). This type of behavior is reflective of “what a good employee ought to do” (Smith et al., 1983, p. 657). For example, individuals with a prevention focus are less likely to take charge at work or engage in issue selling as these behaviors shift effort away from performing required job tasks. Individuals with a work prevention focus will more likely engage in generalized compliance than risky proactive behaviors (Lanaj et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 6a: Work promotion focus is positively related to proactive behavior.

Hypothesis 6b: Work prevention focus is positively related to generalized compliance.

Regulatory Fit and Work Regulatory Focus

Higgins (2000) argued that it was not reasonable to view situational regulatory focus in isolation. Rather, an individual's preferred goal pursuit means must be compared to their current goal pursuit means. The value from fit hypothesis states that when current and preferred goal pursuit means match, regulatory fit occurs (Higgins, 2000). A large body of research supports the value from fit hypothesis (Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Camacho et al., 2003; Cesario et al., 2004; Higgins et al., 2003; Lee & Aaker, 2004; Sassenberg et al., 2007). In the workplace, fit occurs when general and work foci match. There are two types of regulatory fit: intrapersonal and interpersonal. Intrapersonal fit refers to the alignment between an individual's current and preferred goal pursuit means (Higgins, 2000). On the other hand, interpersonal fit considers the consequences of an interaction partner's regulatory focus on the target individual. Interpersonal fit occurs when an individual perceives "an interaction partner to approach goal pursuit activities with a regulatory orientation that matches the individual's own regulatory orientation" (Righetti et al., 2011, p.721). Both types of regulatory fit lead to an experienced increase in intensity of positive or negative emotions. A high degree of activation stimulates proactive action by increasing the experience of energy which may lead to proactive behavior (Bindl, Parker, & Totterdell, 2012; Bindl & Parker, 2012; Parker et al., 2010).

Therefore, fit leads to feeling energized (“Energized to” motivation) and results in stronger motivation towards goal pursuit which will be visible in an individual’s work behavior.

Intrapersonal Fit and Proactive Behavior

Given the dichotomous nature of regulatory focus, intrapersonal regulatory fit can be represented with a 2x2 table which provides four possible fit categorizations (see Table 2.3). In box I and IV one or more contextual factors is/are prohibiting the individual from using their preferred goal pursuit means and regulatory fit does not occur. However, not all cases of misfit have equal effects on outcomes. In box IV, an individual who desires safety and consistency is forced to move out of their comfort zone and seek out new ways of doing things or expand their work roles. This can occur as a result of supervisor action such as framing tasks as being promotion/prevention oriented (Lieberman et al., 1999), framing outcomes as being promotion or prevention oriented (Crowe & Higgins, 1997), and/or emphasizing ideals and accomplishments or obligations and duties (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Misfit in box I can occur in a work environment in which there is little support for creativity/innovation or one in which workers are discouraged from making changes to processes or procedures (low autonomy). For example, in a highly regulated industry such as banking, federal regulating bodies leave little room for employees to deviate from standard operating procedures. Because failure in a prevention focus is experienced more harshly than a failure in a promotion focus (Halamish et al., 2008; Idson et al., 2000) individuals in box IV will experience a greater decrease in motivational strength than individuals in box one.

Table 2.3: Intrapersonal Regulatory Fit.

	Subordinate Work Prevention Focus	Subordinate Work Promotion Focus
Subordinate General Promotion Focus	Misfit (I)	Fit (II)
Subordinate General Prevention Focus	Fit (III)	Misfit (IV)

Employees in boxes II and III achieve regulatory fit and will experience stronger motivation during goal pursuit. When regulatory fit occurs, individuals will engage in behaviors consistent with their preferred (general) regulatory orientation. In box III, individuals will feel supported in their pursuit of avoiding mistakes and will continue their vigilant behavior displayed as in-role performance (Neubert et al., 2008) or generalized compliance. Feeling supported or encourage in their efforts to seek out the best way, make changes, and improve circumstances, promotion focused individuals will engage in proactive behavior as a means of goal pursuit.

Hypothesis 7a: Subordinate general promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior. Specifically, high subordinate general promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive work behavior, and low subordinate general promotion focus will diminish the effect.

Hypothesis 7b: Subordinate general promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive strategic behavior. Specifically, high subordinate general promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive strategic behavior, and low subordinate general promotion focus will diminish the effect.

Hypothesis 7c: Subordinate general promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive person-environment fit behavior. Specifically, high subordinate general promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive person-environment fit behavior, and low subordinate general promotion focus will diminish the effect.

Hypothesis 7d: Subordinate general prevention focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work prevention focus and generalized compliance. Specifically, high subordinate general prevention focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work prevention focus on generalized compliance, and low subordinate general prevention focus will diminish the effect.

Interpersonal Fit and Proactive Behavior

Findings suggest that for employees with proactive supervisors, there is a positive relationship between proactive behavior and performance (Fuller et al., 2012; Nguyen, 2013). For employees with more passive supervisors, the relationship between proactive behavior and performance is almost nil (Fuller et al., 2012). Fuller et al.'s (2012) findings suggest that proactive fit between supervisors and subordinates has an effect on performance and depending on the degree of fit, different outcomes can be expected. The same effect can be seen in regulatory focus research. Employees who experience intrapersonal fit (fit between general and work regulatory foci) benefit from increased motivation during goal striving (Righetti et al., 2011). The degree of fit between supervisor and subordinate WRF (see Tables 2.1 and 2.2) should affect the types of

behaviors displayed by the subordinate (Hamstra et al., 2014, Peng et al., 2015; Shin et al., 2017).

As situations change, supervisors can change their motivation tactics to encourage subordinates to adopt goal attainment strategies that match leader's cognitions, emotions, and behaviors (Johnson & Wallace, 2011). Depending on the characteristics of the situation, leaders can elicit eagerness or vigilant strategies from subordinates (Wallace & Chen, 2006). Proactive work behaviors are behaviors that focus on taking control of, and bringing about change within the organizational environment (Parker & Collins, 2010). This type of behavior includes taking charge, voice, and innovation behavior. These behaviors are considered risky and engaging in proactive work behavior would likely disrupt the status quo. An individual engaging in this type of behavior would not be concerned with safety but rather nurturance. That is, proactive work behaviors reflect a motivation for achievement or promotion regardless of the costs. Individuals with a promotion focus are more likely than their prevention focus counterparts to engage in proactive work behaviors. Even so, a promotion focused individual maybe hindered by a prevention focused supervisor when trying to engage in proactive work behaviors.

Leadership behaviors can be thought of as goal-directed strategies meant to guide subordinate behavior (Hamstra et al., 2014). Prior research suggests that leader regulatory focus affects followers through its impact on leadership styles (Hamstra et al., 2014; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Sassenberg & Hamtra, 2016). Promotion focus strategies lead to transformational leadership styles which communicate high expectations and confidence in follower ability to achieve desired goals. On the other hand, a prevention focus strategy is related to transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is characterized by

an emphasis on compliance with norms and meeting minimal performance standards (Bass, 1985, 1991). Different combinations of supervisor and subordinate regulatory focus will be related to different outcomes. Interpersonal regulatory fit leads to subordinates feeling valued by the supervisor and will have positive motivational benefits (Hamstra et al., 2014). That is, interpersonal regulatory fit will lead to subordinates evaluating supervisor behavior as being more right which means supervisors will be able to influence subordinate behavior more easily (Sassenberg & Hamstra, 2017).

Under a prevention focused supervisor, a promotion focused subordinate will be less likely to engage in proactive work behaviors as they do not lead to obtaining hits and are more likely to lead to dissatisfaction from lack of hits. However, a promotion focused individual can still engage in certain proactive behaviors under a prevention supervisor. Proactive strategic behaviors include strategic scanning, issue selling credibility, and issue selling willingness (Parker & Collins, 2010). Unlike proactive work behaviors, proactive strategic behaviors focus more on communication of information that can benefit the organization to others so that management can make changes rather than the individual attempting to make the changes themselves. That is, for promotion focused individuals, a lack of interpersonal fit will result in displays of proactive strategic behavior.

Interpersonal fit works the same way for prevention focused individuals as it does for promotion focused individuals, the only difference will be the outcomes of interpersonal fit. Under a promotion focused supervisor, a prevention focused subordinate will likely engage in proactive person-environment fit (PE-fit) behaviors. PE-fit behaviors focus on changing oneself or ones environment to achieve greater

compatibility (Parker & Collins, 2010). Examples include feedback inquiry, feedback monitoring, job change negotiation, and career initiative. While these behaviors involve making adjustments and thereby changing the status quo, they are less risky than proactive strategic behavior and proactive work behavior yet should still please a promotion focused supervisor. On the other hand, interpersonal fit occurs for a subordinate using a prevention focus working under a prevention focused supervisor. When interpersonal fit occurs under a prevention focus, a felt need for change is not present; rather, the best and safest course of action would be to maintain the status quo. This is accomplished through generalized compliance; performing required work roles to the best of one's ability and nothing more. A prevention focused supervisor will likely be content and even encourage the subordinate to avoid errors of commission; this will likely strengthen the subordinate's motivation to achieve their goals using a prevention focus. Therefore, interpersonal fit moderates the relationship between WRF and proactive behaviors such that:

Hypothesis 8a: Supervisor work promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior.

Specifically, high supervisor work promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive work behavior, and low supervisor work promotion focus will diminish the effect

Hypothesis 8b: Supervisor work promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive strategic behavior. Specifically, high supervisor work promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive strategic behavior, and low supervisor work promotion focus will diminish the effect

Hypothesis 8c: Supervisor work promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive person-environment fit behavior. Specifically, high supervisor work promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive person-environment fit behavior, and low supervisor work promotion focus will diminish the effect.

Hypothesis 8d: Supervisor work prevention focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work prevention focus and generalized compliance. Specifically, high supervisor work prevention focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work prevention focus on generalized compliance and low supervisor work prevention focus will diminish the effect.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This chapter presents information regarding the procedures I used to collect and analyze the data for this dissertation. First, information is presented regarding the sampling procedures used to collect data. Next, a detailed description of the measures used to assess each variable is provided. The final section details the statistical techniques used to analyze the research hypotheses.

Data Collection

The sample consists of 133 supervisor/subordinate dyads. Participants were recruited from classes within the College of Business at a large southern university. The participants were informed that to volunteer for the study they must be employed and their direct supervisor must be willing to participate as well. Once consent was received from both the participant and their supervisor, they were sent an email containing instructions on how to complete the survey as well as a link to Qualtrics to complete the survey. The subordinates were assigned a code which they provided to their supervisor. The assigned code was used to match the subordinate and supervisor responses.

Measures

Regulatory Focus

The General Regulatory Focus measure (GRF, Lockwood et al., 2002) was used to assess subordinate general regulatory focus. The GRF is composed of 18 items, nine items measuring prevention focus and nine items measuring promotion focus. Prevention focus items include “In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life” and “I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains”. Promotion focus items include “I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations” and “In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life”. All items are measured using a 9-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Not at all true of me* and 9 = *Very true of me*.

Work Regulatory Focus

The Regulatory Focus at Work scale (RWS, Wallace & Chen, 2005; 2006) was used to assess both subordinate and supervisor WRF. The RWS is composed of 12 items, six items measuring work-prevention focus and six items measuring work-promotion focus. Respondents were asked to rate how often they focus on several thoughts and activities when they are working. Prevention focus items include “following rules and regulations” and “doing my duty at work.” Promotion focus items include “accomplishing a lot at work” and “work activities that allow me to get ahead”. All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Never* and 5 = *Constantly*.

Proactive Personality

The 10-item Proactive Personality Scale (Seibert et al., 2001) was used to assess both subordinate and supervisor proactive personality. A sample item is “I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life”. All items are measured using a 7-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 7 = *Strongly agree*.

Proactive Behavior

Rather than using a scale which measures a single behavior (e.g., personal initiative), several proactive behavior scales were used in order to measure a wider range of subordinate proactive behaviors. Following Parker and Collins (2010) categorization of proactive behaviors, scales were selected in order to provide a well-rounded representation of each of the three categories of proactive behavior. Proactive work behaviors include taking charge and problem prevention. Strategic scanning serves as a proactive strategic behavior. Proactive person-environment fit behaviors include feedback inquiry, feedback monitoring, and career initiative. Taking charge was measured using 10 items from Morrison and Phelps (1999). A sample item is “This person often tries to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department”. Strategic scanning and problem prevention were each measured using three items from Parker and Collins (2010). “Identify long-term opportunities and threats for the company” is a sample item measuring strategic scanning and “Try to find the root cause of things that go wrong” is a sample item measuring problem prevention. Feedback inquiry (three items) and feedback monitoring (four items) were measured using items from Ashford (1986). “Seek feedback from your supervisor about your work performance?” is a sample item measuring feedback seeking. Finally, career initiative

was measured using three items from Tharenou and Terry (1998). A sample item is “I have discussed my aspirations with a senior person in the organization”. Supervisors rated subordinate taking charge, problem prevention, and strategic scanning.

Subordinates rated feedback monitoring, feedback inquiry, and career initiative. All items for feedback seeking, problem prevention, and strategic scanning are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Very infrequently* and 5 = *Very frequently*. Taking charge and career initiative are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

Generalized Compliance

Generalized compliance refers to strict adherence to rules, regulations and procedures, which does not necessarily help any specific person, but is indirectly helpful to individuals in the system (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Smith et al., 1983). Supervisors rated subordinate generalized compliance using an eight item scale. The scale includes three items adapted from the conscientious factor of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter's (1990) organizational citizenship behavior scale and five items from Williams and Anderson's (1991) in-role performance scale. Items were selected to represent behavior that is reflective of behavior that “a good employee ought to do” (Smith et al., 1983, p. 657). “Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching” and “Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description” are sample items. All items are measured using a 7-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 7 = *Strongly agree*.

Regulatory Fit

Intrapersonal fit was determined by comparing the participant's general regulatory orientation and their work regulatory orientation. Fit occurs when there is agreement between general and work regulatory orientations (i.e., general promotion/work promotion, general prevention/work prevention). Interpersonal fit was determined by comparing the work regulatory orientations within supervisor/subordinate dyads. Fit occurs when work regulatory orientations within dyads are aligned (i.e., supervisor work promotion and subordinate work promotion, or supervisor work prevention and subordinate work prevention).

Control Variables

Organization Innovation Climate

Supervisor perception of organization innovation climate was measured using six items from the Organizational Climate Measure (Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson, & Wallace, 2005). Organization innovation climate indicates the degree to which organizations emphasize change, innovation, growth, and adaptation. Employees working in organizations which promote flexibility and creativity are more likely to engage in proactive behavior than employees working in organizations which do not emphasize or support proactivity (Rusetski, 2011). All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

Gender

Employees were asked to report their gender in order to assess if there are any associations with other variables. Prior research indicates that females are more likely to

adopt a general prevention focus than a general promotion focus (Wu et al., 2008).

Further, research indicates that engaging in proactive behavior may be related to gender (e.g., males are more likely to take charge than females; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009).

Tenure

Employees were asked to indicate tenure in number of years. As tenure increases, it is likely that supervisors and subordinates regulatory orientations will gradually align. This is the result of developing knowledge about each other's values and beliefs regarding the way work tasks are performed. Further, prior research suggests that tenure is related to displays of proactive behavior such as taking charge and voice behavior (Tornau & Frese, 2013).

Age

Supervisors and subordinates were asked to indicate their age in number of years. Regulatory focus tends to be stable in adulthood (Higgins & Silberman, 1998) meaning that older workers are more likely to adopt a work regulatory orientation that is aligned with their general regulatory orientation despite the presence of situational factors typically thought to affect regulatory orientations.

Hypotheses Testing

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to test Hypotheses 1a-b, 2a-b, 3a-b, and 6a-b following procedures outlined by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003). Hypotheses 4a-b, Hypotheses 5a-b, Hypotheses 7a-d, and Hypotheses 8a-d were tested using Hayes' (2013) PROCESS Model 1. This procedure uses bootstrapping to provide a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval (CI) which is used to test the conditional effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable at different levels of the moderator.

Hypotheses 4a-b, Hypotheses 5a-b, Hypotheses 7a-d, and Hypotheses 8a-d were tested using a bootstrap sample of 5000. To provide additional support for the moderation Hypotheses, simple slopes tests were performed to determine if the regression slopes were significantly different from zero (Aiken & West, 1991).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. First, an overview of the sample is presented. In the next section, the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix of the variables used in the study are presented. In the final section, results of the hypotheses tests are presented and discussed.

Sample

Data were collected from supervisor/subordinate dyads recruited from college of business classes at a large southern university. A total of 274 completed surveys representing 140 dyads were received. Seven dyads were removed from the sample analysis as either the supervisor or the subordinate did not return their portion of the survey. A final sample consisting of 133 supervisor/subordinate dyads was retained for hypotheses testing.

Demographics

The sample was balanced, consisting of 51% female and 49% male for supervisors and subordinates. The average age of the supervisors is 42 and the average age of the subordinates is 25. Supervisors have an average tenure between 5-9 years compared to between 1-5 years for subordinates.

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Table 4.1 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations among the study variables, and reliability of the measures. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was utilized to determine reliability. Reliabilities for each measure appear along the diagonal. The reliabilities were adequate for most of the variables and ranged from .72 - .94. The reliability for general prevention focus ($\alpha = .72$) is lower than expected. However, the level of reliability is similar to that found in other studies (De Cremer et al., 2009, $\alpha = .66$; Lin & Johnson, 2015, $\alpha = .76$; Lockwood et al., 2002, $\alpha = .75$).

Significant correlations among study variables ranged from -0.30 to 0.78. Strong correlations were found between several of the proactive behavior constructs. The correlation between problem prevention and strategic scanning ($r = 0.62, p < 0.01$) and the correlation between feedback seeking and career initiative ($r = 0.42, p < 0.01$) fall below the level at which discriminant validity is problematic. However, the magnitude of the correlation between taking charge and problem prevention ($r = 0.78, p < 0.01$) is above the 0.70-0.75 level considered to be the maximum level of association at which discriminant validity is problematic (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2012). The proactive behavior categorization developed by Parker and Collins (2010) and used in this dissertation categorizes taking charge and problem prevention as proactive work behaviors and feedback seeking and career initiative as proactive PE-fit behaviors. Thus, the magnitude of the correlation between the two types of proactive behaviors is expected to be high. Further, the correlation between taking charge and problem prevention is similar to the correlations between taking charge and problem prevention reported in prior research ($r = 0.71 - 0.83$, Wu & Parker, 2017).

Table 4.1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations.

Variables	Mean	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. General Promotion Focus	5.83	0.68	(.81)									
2. General Prevention Focus	4.19	1.00	0.19*	(.72)								
3. Work Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	4.02	0.53	0.36**	0.03	(.73)							
4. Work Prevention Focus (Subordinate)	4.46	0.51	0.23**	-0.02	0.49**	(.83)						
5. Work Promotion Focus (Supervisor)	4.06	0.64	0.08	-0.04	0.19*	0.10	(.84)					
6. Work Prevention Focus (Supervisor)	4.68	0.44	0.19*	-0.07	0.13	0.13	0.40**	(.78)				
7. Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	5.44	0.80	0.57**	0.05	0.48**	0.33**	-0.03	0.17	(.89)			
8. Proactive Personality (Supervisor)	5.68	0.76	-0.14	0.01	0.00	0.07	0.31**	0.25**	-0.17	(.89)		
9. Taking Charge	3.47	0.76	-0.08	-0.10	0.12	0.12	0.16	0.20*	-0.09	0.24**	(.90)	
10. Problem Prevention	3.43	0.95	-0.03	-0.12	0.00	0.10	0.16	0.10	-0.09	0.24**	0.78**	(.83)
11. Strategic Scanning	3.12	1.06	0.00	0.05	0.15	-0.03	0.10	0.19*	-0.07	0.34**	0.65**	0.62**
12. Feedback Seeking	3.54	0.75	0.26**	0.16	0.24**	0.08	0.03	0.00	0.23**	0.18*	-0.05	0.02
13. Career Initiative	3.61	1.29	0.22*	0.01	0.03	0.09	-0.02	0.10	0.15	0.09	0.10	0.07
14. Generalized Compliance	6.38	1.09	0.08	-0.05	0.10	0.13	0.11	0.23**	0.09	0.10	0.22*	0.13

Table 4.1: (Continued).

Variables	Mean	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
15. Organizational Innovation	3.15	0.90	0.01	-0.03	0.07	0.00	0.28**	0.32**	-0.05	0.27**	0.25**	0.26**
16. Gender (Subordinate)	0.51	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.30**	0.34**	0.02	0.07	-0.12	-0.05	0.13	-0.03
17. Gender (Supervisor)	0.49	0.50	0.12	0.05	0.14	0.25**	0.10	0.03	0.09	-0.03	-0.06	-0.10
18. Tenure (Subordinate)	0.76	0.79	-0.19*	-0.14	-0.05	-0.09	0.05	-0.16	-0.06	-0.05	0.00	0.04
19. Tenure (Supervisor)	1.83	1.05	-0.07	-0.13	0.01	0.00	-0.06	0.03	-0.06	-0.09	-0.07	-0.08
20. Age (Subordinate)	25.41	9.62	-0.34**	-0.09	0.01	0.14	-0.07	-0.17	-0.07	-0.08	0.17**	0.14
21. Age (Supervisor)	41.91	12.93	-0.10	-0.08	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.00	-0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00

Table 4.1: (Continued).

Variables	Mean	SD	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.
11. Strategic Scanning	3.12	1.06	(.84)										
12. Feedback Seeking	3.54	0.75	0.09	(.81)									
13. Career Initiative	3.61	1.29	0.12	0.42**	(.88)								
14. Generalized Compliance	6.38	1.09	0.16	0.01	0.05	(.94)							
15. Organizational Innovation	3.15	0.90	0.24**	0.14	0.12	0.04	(.89)						
16. Gender (Subordinate)	0.51	0.50	-0.05	-0.03	0.03	-0.09	0.00	-					
17. Gender (Supervisor)	0.49	0.50	-0.03	-0.07	-0.07	0.05	0.07	0.20*	-				
18. Tenure (Subordinate)	0.76	0.79	0.00	-0.19*	-0.02	-0.04	-0.07	0.06	0.02	-			
19. Tenure (Supervisor)	1.83	1.05	-0.22*	-0.20*	0.01	0.07	-0.12	0.02	-0.14	0.19*	-		
20. Age (Subordinate)	25.41	9.62	-0.06	-0.30**	-0.07	-0.05	-0.13	0.25**	0.03	0.61**	0.12	-	
21. Age (Supervisor)	41.91	12.93	-0.11	-0.28**	-0.05	0.06	-0.14	0.04	-0.06	0.19*	0.63**	0.26**	-

Note: $N = 125-131$. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. Gender (0 = female, 1 = male), Tenure (0 = < 1 year, 1 = 1-5 years, 2 = 5-9 years, 3 > 10 years).

The correlation matrix provides initial evidence to support several of hypotheses. General promotion focus is positively correlated with subordinate work promotion focus ($r = 0.36, p < 0.01$) which provides initial support for Hypothesis 1a. Hypothesis 2a and 2b predicted that subordinate proactive personality is positively related to subordinate work promotion focus and subordinate work prevention focus. Subordinate proactive personality is positively correlated with subordinate work promotion focus ($r = 0.48, p < 0.01$) and subordinate work prevention focus ($r = 0.33, p < 0.01$) providing initial support for Hypothesis 2a and 2b. Last, Hypothesis 3a and 3b predicted that subordinate proactive personality is positively related to subordinate general promotion focus and subordinate work prevention focus. Results indicate that subordinate proactive personality is positively correlated with subordinate general promotion focus ($r = 0.57, p < 0.01$) providing initial support for Hypotheses 3a. Hypothesis 6a-b predicted that subordinate work regulatory focus is positively correlated with work behaviors. Results indicate that subordinate work promotion focus is positively correlated with feedback seeking ($r = 0.24, p < 0.01$) providing initial partial support for Hypotheses 6a.

Several of the control variables were significantly correlated with the outcome variables. Subordinate tenure was negatively correlated with general promotion focus and feedback seeking ($r = -0.19, p < 0.05$). While subordinate age was positively correlated with taking charge ($r = 0.17, p < 0.05$) and negatively correlated with general promotion focus ($r = -0.34, p < 0.01$) and feedback seeking ($r = -0.30, p < 0.05$). This suggests that the longer an employee's tenure, the less likely it is for that person to seek out feedback regarding their performance. Further, as employees get older, they are more likely to take

charge to bring about change, but less likely to seek feedback on their performance. Similar correlations exist between supervisor tenure ($r = -0.22, p < 0.05$) and age ($r = -0.28, p < 0.01$) and subordinate feedback seeking.

The final control variable which merits attention is organizational innovation as it's significantly correlated with both predictor and outcome variables. Organizational innovation was positively related to supervisor work promotion focus ($r = 0.28, p < 0.01$), supervisor work prevention focus ($r = 0.32, p < 0.01$), supervisor proactive personality ($r = 0.27, p < 0.01$), taking charge ($r = 0.25, p < 0.01$), problem prevention ($r = 0.26, p < 0.01$), and strategic scanning ($r = 0.24, p < 0.01$). These results support the idea that the work environment plays a significant role in shaping both work regulatory focus and proactive behaviors in the workplace.

Hypothesis Tests and Results

Table 4.2 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analyses used to test Hypotheses 1a and 1b. Results indicate that general promotion focus is moderately related to subordinate work promotion focus ($\beta = 0.41, p < .001$) supporting Hypothesis 1a. However, Hypothesis 1b is not supported as general prevention focus is not significantly related to subordinate work prevention focus ($\beta = -0.03, ns$).

The results of the hierarchical regression analyses testing Hypotheses 2a and 2b are displayed in Table 4.3. Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted that subordinate proactive personality is positively related to subordinate work promotion focus and subordinate work prevention focus. Results indicate that subordinate proactive personality has a strong positive relationship with subordinate work promotion focus ($\beta = 0.53, p < .001$)

and a moderate positive relationship with subordinate work prevention focus ($\beta = 0.42$, $p < .001$). Together, the results support Hypothesis 2a and 2b.

Table 4.2: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Subordinate Work Promotion Focus and Subordinate Work Prevention Focus.

	<u>Work Promotion</u>		<u>Work Prevention</u>	
	<u>Focus</u>		<u>Focus</u>	
<u>Step 1: Control Variables</u>				
Gender (Subordinate)	0.32***	0.29***	0.30	0.30
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.04	-0.05	-0.22	-0.22
Age (Subordinate)	-0.04	0.11	0.19	0.19
Organizational Innovation	0.06	0.07	0.01	0.00
R ²	0.11		0.14	
<u>Step 2</u>				
General Promotion Focus	0.41***			
General Prevention Focus				-0.03
ΔR^2	0.15***			0.00
F-Value (d.f.)	7.94 (123)			3.98 (123)

Note: The first column displays the beta coefficients derived from the first step.

The second column displays the beta coefficients from the final full equation.

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

Table 4.4 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analyses testing Hypotheses 3a and 3b. Hypotheses 3a predicted that subordinate proactive personality is positively related to subordinate general promotion focus. In support of Hypothesis 3a, results indicate that subordinate proactive personality has a strong positive relationship with subordinate work promotion focus ($\beta = 0.65$, $p < .001$). On the other hand, Hypothesis 3b is not supported as the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate work prevention focus ($\beta = 0.03$, ns) is not significant.

Table 4.3: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Subordinate Work Promotion Focus and Subordinate Work Prevention Focus.

	<u>Work Promotion</u> <u>Focus</u>		<u>Work Prevention</u> <u>Focus</u>	
<u>Step 1: Control Variables</u>				
Gender (Subordinate)	0.32***	0.38***	0.30	0.35
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.04	-0.03	-0.22	-0.21
Age (Subordinate)	-0.04	-0.02	0.19	0.20
Organizational Innovation	0.06	0.10	0.01	0.04
R ²	0.11		0.14	
<u>Step 2</u>				
Proactive Personality		0.53***		0.42***
ΔR ²		0.28***		0.18***
F-Value (d.f.)		14.64 (123)		11.06 (123)

Note: The first column displays the beta coefficients derived from the first step.

The second column displays the beta coefficients from the final full equation.

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

Table 4.4: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting General Promotion Focus and General Prevention Focus.

	<u>General Promotion</u> <u>Focus</u>		<u>General Prevention</u> <u>Focus</u>	
<u>Step 1: Control Variables</u>				
Gender (Subordinate)	-0.10	-0.16	-0.10	-0.10
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.03	-0.04	-0.03	-0.02
Age (Subordinate)	-0.04	0.21	-0.04	-0.04
Organizational Innovation	-0.07	-0.05	-0.07	-0.07
R ²	0.02		0.02	
<u>Step 2</u>				
Proactive Personality		0.65***		0.03
ΔR ²		0.37***		0.00
F-Value (d.f.)		15.24 (123)		0.52 (123)

Note: The first column displays the beta coefficients derived from the first step.

The second column displays the beta coefficients from the final full equation.

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

Hypotheses 4a and 4b each predict a moderation effect of supervisor proactive personality on the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate WRF. Hayes' (2013) PROCESS model 1 was used to test the effect of the interaction terms for Hypotheses 4a-b using a bootstrap sample of 5000. Results of the analyses can be seen in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Results of the Interaction between Supervisor and Subordinate Proactive Personality on Subordinate Work Regulatory Focus.

Variable	Work Promotion	Work Prevention
Constant	3.27***	3.99***
Gender (Subordinate)	0.36**	0.26**
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.02	-0.16*
Age (Subordinate)	0.00	0.01*
Gender (Supervisor)	0.04	0.25**
Tenure (Supervisor)	0.05	0.07
Age (Supervisor)	0.00	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.05	0.00
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.39***	0.29***
Proactive Personality (Supervisor)	0.10	0.13
Sup * Sub Proactive Personality	0.15†	0.10
R ²	0.41***	0.40**
F-Value (d.f.)	7.40(105)	5.88(105)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The results of the moderation analysis suggest that the interaction predicting subordinate work promotion is significant ($B = 0.15$, $t = 1.89$, $CI = [.05; .34]$) but the interaction predicting work prevention focus is not ($B = 0.10$, $t = 1.56$, $CI = [-.04; .26]$). In Figure 4.1, the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate work promotion focus was plotted at different levels of supervisor proactive personality (i.e., -1 s.d. below the mean and +1 s.d. above the mean). As depicted in Figure 4.1, when

supervisor proactive personality is low, subordinate proactive personality and subordinate work promotion focus are significantly related ($B = 0.27, t = 2.65, p < .01$). When supervisor proactive personality is high, the relationship became stronger ($B = 0.50, t = 5.64, p < .001$). Thus, the results support Hypothesis 4a, which depicts that high levels of supervisor proactive personality strengthen the relationships between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate work promotion focus. Hypothesis 4b is not supported as the interaction was not significant.

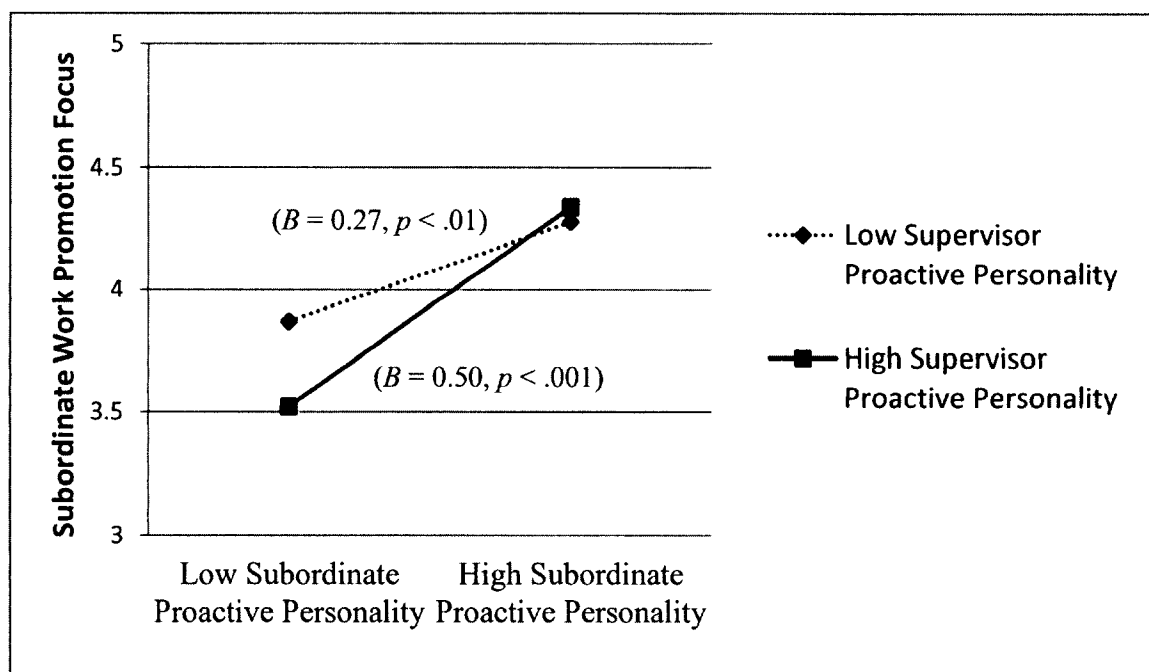


Figure 4.1: Interaction between Supervisor and Subordinate Proactive Personality on Subordinate Work Promotion Focus.

Hayes' (2013) PROCESS model 1 was used to test the effect of the interaction terms for Hypotheses 5a-b using a bootstrap sample of 5000. Results of the analyses can be seen in Table 4.6. A visual depiction of the interaction described in 5b is presented in Figure 4.2. The graphic was created by plotting high and low supervisor WRF values across the range of subordinate general prevention scores for subordinate work prevention focus. Simple slopes tests were performed to determine if the regression slopes were significantly different from zero (Aiken & West, 1991).

Table 4.6: Results of the Interaction between Supervisor Work and Subordinate General Regulatory Focus on Subordinate Work Regulatory Focus.

Variable	Work Promotion	Work Prevention
Constant	1.58*	1.99***
Gender (Subordinate)	0.37**	0.31***
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.03	-0.18*
Age (Subordinate)	0.00	0.01†
Gender (Supervisor)	0.04***	0.28**
Tenure (Supervisor)	0.06	0.08†
Age (Supervisor)	0.00	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.04	0.00
General Regulatory Focus (Subordinate)	0.07	0.04
Work Regulatory Focus (Supervisor)	0.13*	0.03
Sup * Sub Regulatory Focus	0.08	0.14†
R ²	0.42	0.43***
F-Value (d.f.)	6.40(105)	5.17(105)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

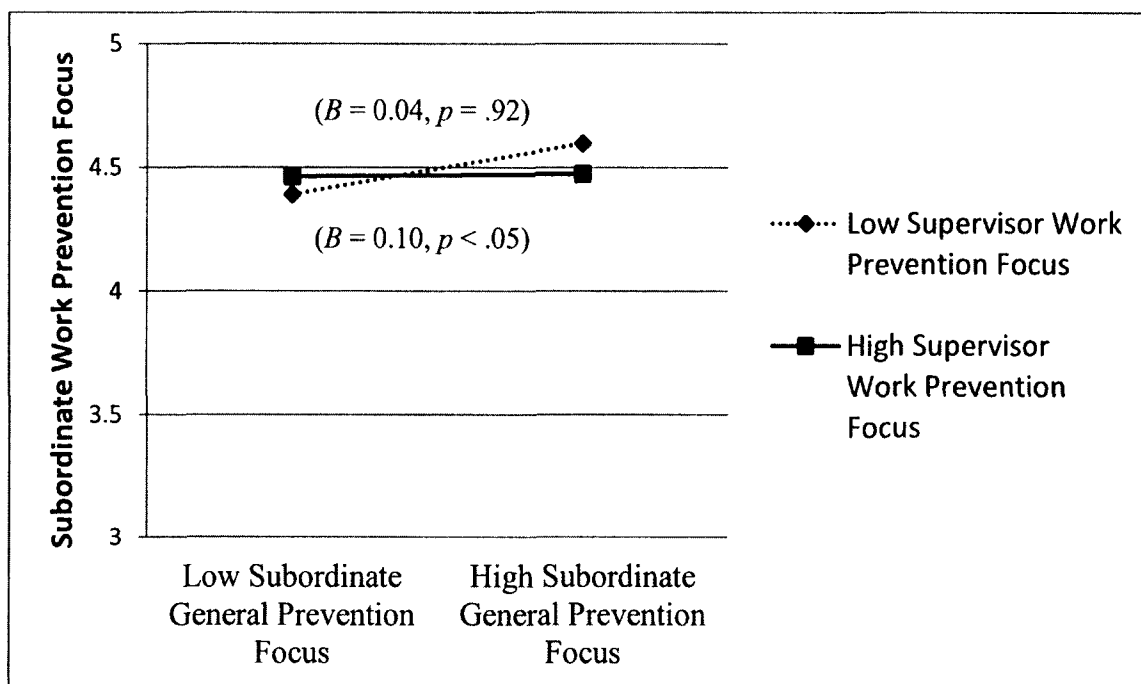


Figure 4.2: Interaction between Supervisor Work Prevention Focus and Subordinate General Prevention Focus on Subordinate Work Prevention Focus.

The results of the moderation analysis indicate that the interaction predicting subordinate work prevention focus is significant ($B = 0.14$, $t = 1.98$, $CI = [.02; .29]$). As depicted in Figure 4.2, the slope for supervisors with low (-1 s.d.) scores in work prevention focus ($B = 0.10$, $t = 2.67$, $p < .05$) is significant but the slope for those with supervisors with high (+1 s.d.) scores in work prevention focus ($B = 0.04$, $t = 0.11$, $p = .92$) is not significant. Although the interaction and one of the main effects is significant, Hypothesis 5b is not supported as the effect was hypothesized to be stronger for supervisors high in prevention focus.

Hypothesis 6a predicts that subordinate work promotion focus will be positively related to proactive behavior. The results of the regression analysis testing Hypothesis 6a are presented in Table 4.7. The first two behaviors in Table 4.7, taking charge and problem prevention, are both types of proactive work behaviors (Parker & Collins, 2010).

Table 4.7: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Proactive Behavior.

	<u>Taking Charge</u>	<u>Problem Prevention</u>	<u>Feedback Seeking</u>	<u>Career Initiative</u>	<u>Strategic Scanning</u>
<u>Step 1: Control Variables</u>					
Gender (Subordinate)	0.06	-0.09	-0.03	0.05	0.01
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.17	-0.09	0.01	0.03	0.04
Age (Subordinate)	0.30**	0.26*	-0.29*	-0.08	-0.05
Organizational Innovation	0.28***	0.29***	0.09*	0.11	0.24**
Proactive Personality	0.63	-0.07	0.11	0.17	0.04
R ²	0.13	0.11	0.15	0.04	0.06
<u>Step 2</u>					
Work Promotion Focus	0.16	0.05	0.21*	0.01	0.16*
ΔR ²	0.02	0.00	0.03*	0.01	0.03*
F-Value (d.f.)	3.41 (123)	2.39 (123)	4.24 (123)	0.99 (123)	2.24 (123)

Note: The first column displays the beta coefficients derived from the first step. The second column displays the beta coefficients from the final full equation. ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

The results suggest that subordinate work promotion focus is not significantly related to taking charge ($\beta = 0.16, p = .15$) or problem prevention ($\beta = 0.05, p = .65$).

The next two behaviors in Table 4.7, feedback seeking and career initiative, represent proactive PE-fit behavior. Subordinate work promotion focus had a moderate positive effect ($\beta = 0.21, p < .05$) on feedback seeking behavior but not on career initiative ($\beta = 0.01, p = .48$). The final proactive behavior Table 4.7, strategic scanning, represents proactive strategic behavior. The results suggest that subordinate work promotion focus had a small positive effect ($\beta = 0.17, p < .05$) on strategic scanning. Taken together, the results provide partial support for Hypothesis 6a. Specifically, subordinate proactive work behavior is positively related to proactive PE-fit behavior (feedback seeking) and proactive strategic behavior (strategic scanning).

Table 4.8 presents the results of the regression analysis testing Hypothesis 6b which predicts that subordinate work prevention focus will be positively related to generalized compliance. The results provide support for Hypothesis 6b, subordinate work prevention focus is positively related to generalized compliance ($\beta = 0.18, p < .05$).

Table 4.8: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Generalized Compliance.

	<u>Generalized Compliance</u>	
<u>Step 1: Control Variables</u>		
Gender (Subordinate)	-0.09	-0.15
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.02	0.02
Age (Subordinate)	-0.01	-0.05
Organizational Innovation	0.03	0.03
Proactive Personality	0.08	0.00
R ²	0.01	
<u>Step 2</u>		
Work Prevention Focus		0.18*
ΔR^2		0.04*
F-Value (d.f.)		3.51 (123)

Note: The first column displays the beta coefficients derived from the first step. The second column displays the beta coefficients from the final full equation.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 7a-d each predicts a moderation effect of intrapersonal fit on the relationships between subordinate WRF and subordinate work behaviors. Hayes' (2013) PROCESS model 1 was used to test the effect of the interaction terms for Hypotheses 7a-d using a bootstrap sample of 5000. The results of the analyses are presented in Tables 4.9 - 4.12.

Hypotheses 7a predicted that intrapersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.9) suggest that the interactions predicting taking charge and problem prevention are not significant ($B = -0.04$, $t = -0.19$, $CI = [-.46; .38]$) and ($B = -0.06$, $t = -0.22$, $CI = [-.61; .49]$) respectively. Therefore, Hypothesis 7a is not supported for either taking charge or problem prevention.

Table 4.9: Results of the Interaction between Subordinate Work Promotion Focus and Subordinate General Promotion Focus on Proactive Work Behavior.

Variable	Taking Charge	Problem Prevention
Constant	2.85**	2.91**
Gender (Subordinate)	-0.02	-0.26
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.18	-0.11
Age (Subordinate)	0.03*	0.03*
Organizational Innovation	0.23**	0.29*
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	-0.13	-0.19
General Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	0.02	0.18
Work Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	0.23	0.07
Work * General Promotion Focus	-0.04	-0.06
R ²	0.15*	0.12*
F-Value (d.f.)	2.47(115)	1.99(115)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 7b predicted that intrapersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive strategic behavior. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.10) suggest that the interaction predicting strategic scanning is not significant ($B = -0.25$, $t = -0.71$, $CI = [-.94; .45]$). Thus, Hypothesis 7b is not supported.

Table 4.10: Results of the Interaction between Subordinate Work Promotion Focus and Subordinate General Promotion Focus on Strategic Scanning.

Variable	Strategic Scanning
Constant	1.99
Gender (Subordinate)	0.00
Tenure (Subordinate)	0.06
Age (Subordinate)	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.29**
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.02
General Promotion Focus	0.08
Work Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	-0.36
Work * General Promotion Focus	-0.25
R ²	0.09
F-Value (d.f.)	1.12(115)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 7c predicted that intrapersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive PE-fit behavior. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.11) suggest that the interactions predicting feedback seeking and career initiative are not significant ($B = 0.14$, $t = 0.67$, $CI = [-.55; .27]$) and ($B = -0.21$, $t = -0.57$, $CI = [-.94; .52]$) respectively. Therefore, Hypothesis 7c is not supported as neither of the interaction effects is significant.

Table 4.11: Results of the Interaction between Subordinate Work Promotion Focus and Subordinate General Promotion Focus on Proactive PE-Fit Behavior.

Variable	Feedback Seeking	Career Initiative
Constant	3.41***	1.91
Gender (Subordinate)	0.00	0.17
Tenure (Subordinate)	0.02	0.04
Age (Subordinate)	-0.02*	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.06	0.17
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.09	0.21
General Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	0.04	0.30
Work Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	0.29†	-0.23
Work * General Promotion Focus	0.14	-0.21
R ²	0.18**	0.07
F-Value (d.f.)	3.40(115)	1.25(115)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 7d predicted that intrapersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work prevention focus and generalized compliance. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.12) suggest that the interaction predicting generalized compliance is not significant ($B = 0.37$, $t = 1.21$, $CI = [-.97; .24]$). Therefore, Hypothesis 7d is not supported.

Table 4.12: Results of the Interaction between Subordinate Work Prevention Focus and Subordinate General Prevention Focus on Generalized Compliance.

Variable	Strategic Scanning
Constant	6.44***
Gender (Subordinate)	-0.30
Tenure (Subordinate)	0.06
Age (Subordinate)	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.01
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.04
General Prevention Focus	-0.09
Work Prevention Focus (Subordinate)	0.40
Work * General Prevention Focus	0.37
R ²	0.07
F-Value (d.f.)	0.85(115)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 8a-d each predicts a moderation effect of interpersonal fit on the relationships between subordinate WRF and subordinate work behaviors. Hayes' (2013) PROCESS model 1 was used to test the effect of the interaction terms for Hypotheses 8a-d using a bootstrap sample of 5000. The results of the analyses are presented in Tables 4.13 - 4.16. Visual depictions of the interactions described in Hypotheses 8a are presented in Figures 4.3 and 4.4. The graphics were created by plotting high and low supervisor work promotion focus values across the range of subordinate work promotion focus scores for subordinate proactive work behavior for Hypotheses 8a-c. In addition, simple slopes tests were performed to determine if the regression slopes were significantly different from zero (Aiken & West, 1991).

In Figures 4.3 and 4.4, the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior was plotted at different levels of supervisor work

promotion focus (i.e., -1 s.d. below the mean and +1 s.d. above the mean). Hypotheses 8a predicted that interpersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.13) suggest that the interaction is significant ($B = 0.47$, $t = 1.96$, $CI = [.11; .41]$). As depicted in Figure 4.3 (taking charge), the slope for supervisors with low (-1 s.d.) scores in work promotion focus ($B = 0.12$, $t = 0.53$, $p = .60$) is not significant. The slope for supervisors with high (+1 s.d.) scores in work promotion focus ($B = 0.47$, $t = 1.87$, $p < .05$) is significant which suggests a main effect of work promotion focus for subordinates with supervisors with high scores in work promotion focus. This suggests that interpersonal fit strengthens the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and taking charge when supervisors are high in work promotion focus.

Table 4.13: Results of the Interaction between Supervisor and Subordinate Work Promotion Focus on Proactive Work Behavior.

Variable	Taking Charge	Problem Prevention
Constant	1.37	0.39***
Gender (Subordinate)	0.08	-0.10***
Tenure (Subordinate)	-0.22	-0.14*
Age (Subordinate)	0.03**	0.03*
Gender (Supervisor)	-0.21	-0.28**
Tenure (Supervisor)	-0.04	-0.06†
Age (Supervisor)	0.00	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.15	0.22
General Promotion Focus	0.16	0.29
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.17	0.21
Proactive Personality (Supervisor)	0.18	0.19
Work Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	0.18	0.02
Work Promotion Focus (Supervisor)	0.02	0.03
Sup * Sub Work Promotion Focus	0.47**	0.51*
R ²	0.23*	0.43***
F-Value (d.f.)	2.08(102)	2.32(102)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

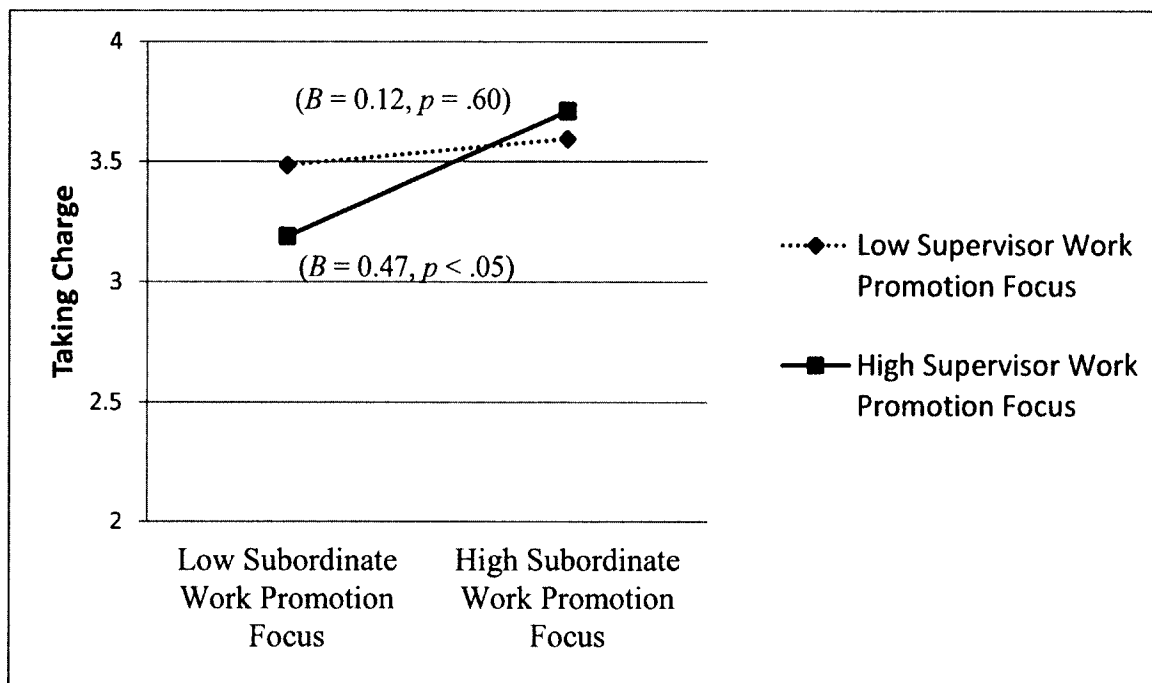


Figure 4.3: Interaction between Subordinate Work Promotion Focus and Supervisor Work Promotion Focus on Taking Charge.

The results of the moderation analysis testing interpersonal fit effects on problem prevention suggest that the interaction is significant ($B = 0.51, t = 2.30, CI = [.16; .56]$). As depicted in Figure 4.4 (problem prevention), the slopes for supervisors with low (-1 s.d.) scores in work promotion focus ($B = -0.31, t = -1.19, p = .24$) is not significant. The slope for supervisors with high (+1 s.d.) scores in work promotion focus ($B = 0.35, t = 2.33, p < .10$) is significant. Thus, the results support Hypothesis 8a, which depicts that high levels of supervisor promotion focus strengthen the relationships between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior.

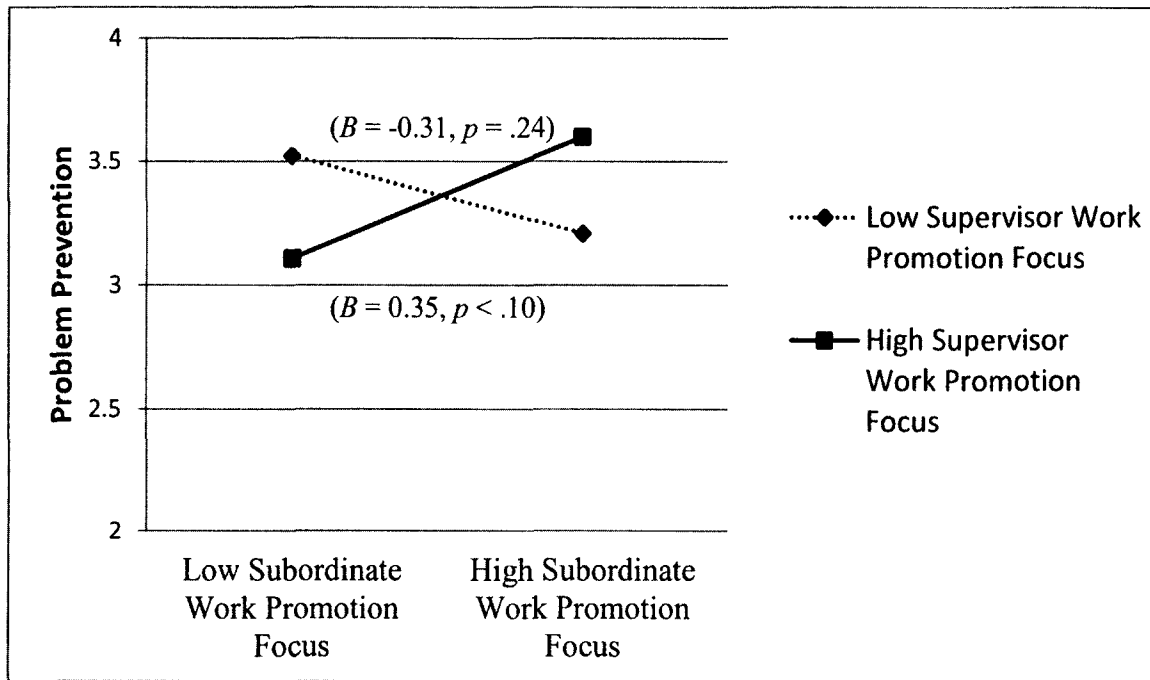


Figure 4.4: Interaction between Subordinate Work Promotion Focus and Supervisor Work Promotion Focus on Problem Prevention.

Hypotheses 8b predicted that interpersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive strategic behavior. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.14) suggest that the interaction is not significant ($B = -0.15, t = -0.42, CI = [-.87; .56]$). Therefore, Hypothesis 8b is not supported.

Table 4.14: Results of the Interaction between Supervisor and Subordinate Work Promotion Focus on Proactive Strategic Behavior.

Variable	Strategic Scanning
Constant	-1.03
Gender (Subordinate)	0.00
Tenure (Subordinate)	0.05
Age (Subordinate)	0.00
Gender (Supervisor)	-0.11
Tenure (Supervisor)	-0.18
Age (Supervisor)	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.20
General Promotion Focus	0.23
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.00
Proactive Personality (Supervisor)	0.40
Work Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	-0.40
Work Promotion Focus (Supervisor)	0.03
Sup * Sub Work Promotion Focus	-0.15
R ²	0.20†
F-Value (d.f.)	1.64(102)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 8c predicted that interpersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive PE-fit behavior. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.15) suggest that the interactions predicting feedback seeking and career initiative are not significant ($B = 0.10$, $t = 0.39$, $CI = [-.40; .59]$) and ($B = 0.28$, $t = 0.35$, $CI = [-.92; .53]$) respectively. Hypothesis 8c is not supported.

Table 4.15: Results of the Interaction between Supervisor and Subordinate Work Promotion Focus on Proactive PE-Fit Behavior.

Variable	Feedback Seeking	Career Initiative
Constant	2.62†	-1.47
Gender (Subordinate)	0.07	0.32
Tenure (Subordinate)	0.05	0.04
Age (Subordinate)	-0.02*	0.00
Gender (Supervisor)	-0.19	-0.26**
Tenure (Supervisor)	-0.06	0.00
Age (Supervisor)	-0.01	0.00
Organizational Innovation	0.02	0.11
General Promotion Focus	0.08	0.40
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.07	0.19
Proactive Personality (Supervisor)	0.21	0.25
Work Promotion Focus (Subordinate)	0.35*	-0.19
Work Promotion Focus (Supervisor)	-0.14	-0.23
Sup * Sub Work Promotion Focus	0.10	0.28
R ²	0.30***	0.11
F-Value (d.f.)	3.27(102)	0.93(102)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 8d predicted that interpersonal fit would strengthen the relationship between subordinate work prevention focus and generalized compliance. The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.16) suggest that the interaction predicting generalized compliance is not significant ($B = 0.18$, $t = 0.26$, $CI = [-.38; .87]$). Therefore, Hypothesis 8d is not supported.

Table 4.16: Results of the Interaction between Supervisor and Subordinate Work Prevention Focus on Generalized Compliance.

Variable	Strategic Scanning
Constant	6.33
Gender (Subordinate)	-0.38
Tenure (Subordinate)	0.01
Age (Subordinate)	0.00
Gender (Supervisor)	0.17
Tenure (Supervisor)	0.05
Age (Supervisor)	0.00
Organizational Innovation	-0.09
General Prevention Focus	-0.05
Proactive Personality (Subordinate)	0.00
Proactive Personality (Supervisor)	0.07
Work Prevention Focus (Subordinate)	0.24
Work Prevention Focus (Supervisor)	0.53
Sup * Sub Work Prevention Focus	0.18
R ²	0.10
F-Value (d.f.)	0.92(101)

Note: Values shown are unstandardized betas.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the findings from the empirical analyses presented in the previous chapter, discuss the contribution of the results of this study to the extant literature, and present possible future research opportunities.

Research Findings

This study was designed to investigate the impact of personal and contextual factors on work regulatory focus (WRF) and work behavior. In doing so, this study adds to the regulatory focus and proactivity literatures by providing a finer grained understanding of the dynamics among leader proactive motivational states (proactive personality and regulatory focus), follower proactive motivational states (proactive personality and regulatory focus), and different forms of work behavior. First, positive relationships were found between subordinate work promotion focus and two types of proactive behavior, proactive person-environment fit behavior (PE-fit) and proactive strategic behavior. By going beyond organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and including proactive behavior, findings from this study expand our understanding of the relationship between regulatory focus and proactive behavior. Further, results indicate that work promotion focus is positively related to proactive PE-fit behavior and proactive

strategic behavior while controlling for proactive personality. This is an interesting finding as prior research has not reported significant relationships between proactive personality and proactive PE-fit behavior or strategic scanning (Parker & Collins, 2010). Together, the findings suggest that regulatory focus theory (RFT) provides incremental understanding of the motivational processes that underlie proactive behavior beyond that of core proactive motivation constructs (e.g., proactive personality).

Further, a positive relationship was found between subordinate work prevention focus and generalized compliance. Prior research reports mixed findings regarding the relationship between prevention focus and generalized compliance. For example, Lanaj et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis reported a negative relationship between work prevention focus and task performance while other studies report positive relationships between prevention focus and maintenance OCB (Shin et al., 2017; Wallace et al., 2009). Findings from this study provide additional evidence to support a positive relationship between prevention focus and generalized compliance (in-role or task performance). That is, individuals adopting a prevention focus are more concerned with avoiding losses than achieving gains (Higgins, 1997; 1998) and will strive for high in-role performance.

Regarding antecedents of WRF, proactive personality was found to be positively related to both work promotion and work prevention foci. Currently, this author is aware of only one other regulatory focus study that has included a measure of proactive personality. Strobel et al. (2013) reported a positive relationship between proactive personality and WRF, both prevention and promotion. Similar to the findings in this study, Strobel et al.'s (2013) results indicate that proactive personality is more strongly related to work promotion focus than work prevention focus. This suggests that even

prevention oriented individuals can be proactive. Being proactive might be necessary in order to avoid losses. For example, part of avoiding losses requires an understanding of what causes losses to occur and being able to actively scan for factors which might lead to loss inducing circumstances.

Similar to prior research investigating the antecedents of WRF (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2012), subordinate general promotion focus was positively related to subordinate work promotion focus. This suggests that, ignoring contextual factors, employees will adopt a WRF which aligns with their general regulatory focus (GRF). Surprisingly, general prevention focus was not related to work prevention focus. One possible explanation for this is that only 5% of the subordinates in the sample were found to have a general prevention focus.

Additionally, this dissertation sought to examine contextual factors which might alter the relationship between the antecedents of WRF and WRF. Specifically, this study explored the moderating roles of supervisor proactive personality and supervisor WRF on the relationship between regulatory focus and work behavior. Supervisor proactive personality was found to moderate the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate work promotion focus; the relationship was stronger for supervisors high in proactive personality. Supervisor proactive personality did not moderate the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and subordinate work prevention focus. This suggests that proactive personality shapes employee cognitive motivational states.

On the other hand, supervisor WRF did not have a significant effect on subordinate WRF. This was unexpected as subordinates tend to emulate their supervisor's

behavior as supervisor behavior serves as a signal to subordinates as to which behaviors are considered appropriate (Brockner et al., 2004; Neubert et al., 2008). There are two things to note regarding these findings. First, 95% of the subordinates were found to have a general promotion focus. Yet, only 16% of the subordinates were found to be higher in work promotion focus than work prevention focus. Although nearly all subordinates reported having a general promotion focus, 84% of subordinates are adopting a work prevention focus. Therefore, something in the work environment is affecting their goal pursuit means. This provides support to the notion that context does matter. Second, only 7% of the supervisors in the sample were higher in work promotion focus than work prevention focus but 58% had high levels of proactive personality. Since subordinate proactive personality was found to be positively related to subordinate WRF in employees, it is possible the same relationship is true amongst supervisors in the sample. A post hoc test suggests that supervisor proactive personality is positively related to supervisor work promotion ($\beta = 0.31, p < .001$) and work prevention ($\beta = 0.27, p < .01$) foci. Thus, it appears that supervisor proactive personality has a stronger influence than supervisor WRF on subordinate motivational states.

The final purpose of this study was to investigate how different forms of regulatory fit (intrapersonal and interpersonal) shape employee work behavior. Prior research indicates that both intrapersonal fit and interpersonal fit will strengthen an individual's motivation towards goal pursuit (Righetti et al., 2011; Shin et al., 2017). However, few studies have examined the effects of both types of fit. Hypotheses 7a-7d predicted that intrapersonal fit (occurs when subordinate GRF and subordinate WRF match) or lack thereof, will differently relate to subordinate work behavior.

Unfortunately, the intrapersonal fit hypotheses were not supported indicating that intrapersonal fit is not related to proactive behavior or generalized compliance. This could possibly be due to the fact that only 18% of the subordinates in the sample experienced intrapersonal fit.

In support of interpersonal regulatory fit theory, results indicate that interpersonal promotion fit predicted proactive work behavior. This finding supports the idea that regulatory fit, in this case interpersonal fit with a supervisor, leads subordinates to experience positive affective states such as “feeling right” (Cesario et al., 2004) and should result in elevated levels of generalized compliance. When taken together, the results of Hypotheses 7 and 8 suggest that interpersonal fit with a supervisor is more influential on subordinate work behavior than intrapersonal fit.

Theoretical Implications and Future Research

This study answers the call for more research investigating the mediating mechanisms through which proactive personality affects proactive behaviors (Thompson, 2005). Regulatory focus theory (RFT) has received little attention in proactive behavior research. However, proactivity researchers appear to be turning to RFT to explain how and why proactive behaviors occur. For example, five chapters from a recently published review of proactivity in the workplace (Parker & Bindl, 2017) refer to RFT (one of the five chapters refers to self-discrepancy theory which is the basis for RFT). In addition, three chapters refer to a concept very similar to promotion focus, future work selves.

Results from this study suggest that regulatory focus is a motivational construct which a) predicts proactive behavior and b) is shaped, in part, by proactive personality. Further, results indicate that regulatory focus predicts multiple higher order categories of

proactive behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010). As one of the few studies to examine proactive personality effects on multiple forms of proactive behavior using Parker and Collins' (2010) categories of proactive behavior, this study provides credence to the robustness of RFT in predicting proactive behavior in the workplace beyond that of core proactive motivation constructs.

Future research could build on these findings by including regulatory focus and other proactive motivational constructs such as felt responsibility for constructive change in models predicting proactive behavior. In addition, since only a few proactive behaviors from each of the three categories of proactive behavior were examined in this study, future regulatory focus research should include other forms of proactive behavior. Ideally, behaviors would be chosen that are theoretically more or less likely to be displayed based on one's regulatory orientation. For example, a domain specific form of proactive behavior, safety proactivity, is a suitable candidate. Safety proactivity refers to behaviors that are anticipatory, self-initiated, change oriented, and intended to enhance safety in the workplace (Curcuruto & Griffin, 2017). Given that research indicates that promotion focus has a small negative effect on safety performance, whereas prevention focus has a large positive effect on safety performance (Lanaj et al., 2012), it is likely that prevention focus will be a stronger predictor of safety proactivity.

The finding that more than half of subordinates in the study do not experience intrapersonal fit at work suggests that future research should focus on other constructs which are likely to have a direct or indirect effect on the relationship between GRF and WRF. One possible construct is self-monitoring, the degree to which people observe and control their self-presentation (Snyder, 1974). High self-monitoring employees may be

more able to pick up on signals regarding appropriate behavior from their supervisors than low self-monitoring employees. At the same time, low self-monitoring employees may not adapt their behavior to match their supervisors, either because they are unable to or they are not motivated to do so. Future, multi-level regulatory focus research would benefit from including self-monitoring as either an independent variable which moderates the relationship between GRF and WRF or at least control for this variable's potential effect.

As mentioned previously, only one other regulatory focus study has included proactive personality (Strobel et al., 2013). However, the present study is the first to examine the effect of both supervisor and subordinate proactive personality on WRF. Further, by including multiple leadership constructs, this study follows the recommendation of Tuncdogan, Acar, and Stam for leadership researchers to “model multiple traits and behaviors simultaneously in order to avoid proliferation of constructs” (2017, p. 58). Given that proactive personality is positively related to both regulatory foci for supervisors and subordinates, future research examining interpersonal regulatory fit and proactive motivational constructs would benefit from measuring constructs for each individual of the dyad.

This study is one of the first to examine the differential effects of multiple forms of fit on employee work behavior. Specifically, results indicate that interpersonal fit is a more critical source of employee motivation than intrapersonal fit in regards to work behavior. It makes sense that regulatory fit between a supervisor and subordinate is more impactful on employee behavior than intrapersonal fit as supervisors have a strong influence on the work environment (Brown et al., 2016). Although interpersonal fit with a

supervisor was found to play a role in shaping employee work behavior, future research should continue to explore multiple forms of regulatory fit but between different interaction partners. For example, interpersonal fit between coworkers might not be as influential as intrapersonal fit since coworkers are not usually imbued with authority over a same level employee whereas supervisors inherently have authority over subordinates. Therefore, the employee would be less likely to change their regulatory focus to match the regulatory focus of a coworker.

Research on family firms has experienced considerable growth in the past decade and research examining interpersonal fit in a family business setting could help fuel continued interest. Family firms are characterized by significant ownership by a single family unit with multiple family members involved in the firm at various levels of authority (Chua, Chrisman, & Sharma, 1999). Family businesses are unique as they are influenced not only by business related activity, but also by the attitudes and values of the controlling family unit (Matherne, Ring, & McKee, 2011; Sundaramurthy & Kreiner, 2008). Thus far, family business research has hardly examined RFT; the few existing studies focus mostly on regulatory focus at the macro level. Specifically, family business research has looked at CEO regulatory focus and how it affects strategy and competitive advantage (see Jaskiewicz & Luchak, 2013; Kammerlander, Burger, Fust, & Fueglistaller, 2015). Researchers should move beyond macro level research and examine regulatory focus at the meso or micro level in family firms.

For example, the strategy of family firm adopted under a family CEO is determined in part by the regulatory fit between the CEO and the collective regulatory orientation of the firm's top-management team (TMT) and/or family member employees.

When ownership control is transferred from one generation to the next, different values and opinions are also likely to exist amongst the firm's TMT (Ling & Kellermanns, 2010). The motivation of the firm's founder is different than that of second-generation family leaders (Birley, 1986). Kellermanns and Eddleston (2006) suggest that younger generations are more likely to favor entrepreneurial initiatives and growth than founding generations. Firm founders typically have an entrepreneurial approach early in the firm's life. But, as the firm matures and the firm's wealth (economic and noneconomic) grows, the founder gradually adopts a more conservative approach as there is more to lose (Carter & Justis, 2009).

The presence of multiple influential generations within family firms makes it a unique context in which to study management phenomena. Regulatory focus theory may be a useful in answering several research questions related to family firms including: how might family members strong personal and long-term relationships shape work behavior when considering regulatory fit?, will the CEO's GRF and/or WRF be more influential if the CEO is a family member?, how does the senior generation's regulatory focus affect the next generation?, and how might it affect partners within the same generation when there are sibling partnerships or cousin consortiums present in the family firm?

Examining the effects of interpersonal fit on attitudes and behaviors amongst family members at different levels of authority could be fruitful area for future research. The insights gained from studying regulatory focus in the family firm context may be generalizable to the larger body of RFT literature because it has the potential to highlight how personal relationship characteristics affect fit. In family firms the relationships

amongst actors can be exceptionally long-term and dynamic which is beneficial for longitudinal studies of interpersonal fit.

From a practical standpoint, this study highlights the importance of matching supervisors and subordinates to achieve the best outcomes. The findings from this study indicate that supervisors need to be aware of their subordinates' regulatory focus. Specifically, different regulatory foci play unique roles in different types of work behavior. The results of the regulatory fit analyses indicate that subordinates should be matched to supervisors based on the organization's desired outcomes. For example, if the organization's goal is to minimize errors (prevention focus), subordinates high in prevention focus can be paired with supervisors high in prevention focus in order to increase subordinate motivation strength to avoid committing errors. Alternatively, to reduce employee risk taking, promotion focus subordinates can be paired with prevention focused supervisors. Interpersonal misfit might not eliminate risky behavior, but it should help curb subordinate behavior so that they engage in less risky proactive behaviors such as feedback seeking.

In addition, as WRF is malleable (Higgins, 1997, 1998; Liberman et al., 1999), supervisors may be able to elicit a preferred WRF from their subordinates. If a prevention focus is desired, supervisors should emphasize responsibilities, obligations, and duties. On the other hand, if supervisors desire a promotion focus, they should emphasize visions of future success or desirable outcomes to achieve (Stam et al., 2010). Prior research indicates that promotion focus is positively related to innovative and change related behavior (Lanaj et al., 2012; Shin et al., 2017), organizational leaders desiring

organizational change or growth can foster a promotion focused culture to help drive employee innovative behavior.

Limitations

In spite of its theoretical and practical implications, this study has some limitations which should be noted. First, proactive personality was not related to strategic scanning, taking charge, or problem prevention which is in stark contrast to prior research findings (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Parker et al., 2006). There are several possible reasons which underlie the lack of a relationship. First, behavior is influenced by the interaction between personal traits and contextual factors (Ajzen, 1991, 2005; Bandura, 1986). In this study, proactive behaviors were assessed using scales which measure proactive behavior in the workplace. The behaviors measured in this study are occurring in the work environment and have already been subjected to environmental influences.

At the same time, most of the supervisors in the sample were higher in work prevention focus than work promotion focus. A supervisor higher in work prevention focus than work promotion focus would emphasize behaviors that are aligned with in-role performance such as generalized compliance. Therefore, employees in this sample were less likely to engage in proactive behavior because these behaviors are not encouraged. Supervisor perceptions of organizational innovation climate were measured in order to control for factors that may affect subordinate WRF other than their supervisor. Employees working in organizations which promote flexibility and creativity are more likely to engage in proactive behavior than employees working in organizations which do not emphasize or support proactivity (Rusetski, 2011). The supervisors in this study reported that innovation was only moderately emphasized in their organizations.

This may partially explain why work prevention focus was more prevalent in this study. Rather than controlling for organization innovation climate, it may have been more beneficial to collect information on the type of organization and/or job type of subordinates. Doing so would have allowed for comparisons of WRF between job types to determine if promotion or prevention foci are more prevalent in certain organizations or job types.

The second issue involves the time frame in which the data were collected. Data were collected from two sources in order to reduce common method variance. However, data were collected at one time. It is possible that supervisor influence on subordinate work behavior develops over time as subordinates develop more intimate knowledge about the behaviors their supervisor desires at work. Scholars posit that individuals “exhibit different levels of proactive behavior over time and as work conditions change” (Crant et al., 2017, p. 200). In this study, the average tenure between supervisors and subordinates was between one and five years. There is a need for research that follows supervisor/subordinate relationships, starting from inception, and tracking changes overtime. This would allow for a more fine grained understanding of how supervisor traits influence subordinates. Therefore, longitudinal studies examining the relationships investigated in this study would be beneficial in further illustrating how supervisor’s influence employee behavior over time.

In addition, there are some concerns regarding the size of the sample used in this study. The sample size used in this study is nearly identical to sample sizes used in recent studies examining proactive behavior and studies examining regulatory focus in dyads published in high quality journals (e.g., Ferris et al., 2013; Strauss, Parker, & O’Shea,

2017). However, based on a power analysis (Appendix C) the sample size used in this study was not large enough to detect smaller effect sizes ($\beta = 0.20$) with adequate statistical significance ($\alpha = .05$). This can be seen in the correlations between study variables which should be significantly related. For example, subordinate proactive personality was positively related to career initiative ($\beta = 0.15$) but the relationship was not significant. General prevention focus was positively related to feedback seeking ($\beta = 0.16$) but again, the relationship was not significant.

Recently, scholars called for research examining the relationship between fit and misfit at different levels of promotion and prevention foci (Shin et al., 2017). One of the purposes of the present research was to examine the differential effects of fit and misfit on work related outcomes. This is one of the first studies to examine intrapersonal regulatory fit in a work environment without using a manipulation to elicit a promotion or a prevention focus. Meaning participant's general and work regulatory foci were measured rather than induced. The methodology used in this study may provide some insight as to why the intrapersonal fit hypotheses failed to receive support. Specifically, only 5% of the subordinates in the sample were found to adopt a general prevention focus. Therefore, the likelihood of subordinates in the sample experiencing intrapersonal prevention fit was marginal at best. Not controlling employee WRF through a manipulation resulted in subgroup sample sizes that were not large enough to conduct meaningful analyses. A larger sample may be needed to obtain a sufficient number of subordinates who adopt a general prevention focus. Such a sample should increase the frequency of intrapersonal prevention fit observed and would allow sufficient testing of the intrapersonal fit hypotheses.

This raised the question of whether or not it is possible to obtain an adequate sample size to allow for subgroup analysis of each of the four intrapersonal regulatory fit combinations (promotion fit/misfit, prevention fit/misfit) without inducing/manipulating work promotion focus. This methodological conundrum is a hindrance to advancing our understanding of the effects of regulatory fit and misfit in the workplace. A possible solution for future researchers is to draw samples from organizations that are likely to be more oriented towards a prevention or a promotion focus. For example, financial institutions such banks would be an ideal source to obtain a sample that is more likely to be work prevention than work promotion. On the other hand, organizations oriented towards sales are likely to have employees which adopt a work promotion focus.

A second methodological issue concerns how regulatory focus is measured. Promotion and prevention focus strategies are not opposite ends of a continuum, “all people possess both systems” (Higgins et al., 1994, p. 277). GRF measures typically assess both promotion and prevention foci; the foci with the highest score is generally considered the dominant or preferred regulatory disposition. While this method is acceptable for measuring GRF, situational (work) regulatory focus is conceptually distinct from GRF. RFT suggests that individuals may alter their regulatory focus as a response to environmental stimuli (Camacho et al., 2003; Higgins, 2000). Situational regulatory focus is less stable than GRF; one’s “dominant” situational focus may change from moment to moment. Like GRF measures, commonly used WRF measures (e.g., Work Regulatory Focus scale, Neubert et al., 2008; Regulatory Focus at Work Scale, Wallace & Chen, 2006) provide scores for both promotion and prevention foci. However, since one’s “dominant” situational regulatory focus may change from situation to

situation, WRF measures are an indication of one's situational regulatory focus at the moment of assessment. Using the focus with the highest score, or calculating a difference score between promotion and prevention foci (see Righetti et al., 2011) as an indication of one's WRF may introduce additional error.

There are a few alternatives available to researchers wishing to examine regulatory focus in the workplace. First, researchers can use an external manipulation to elicit regulatory focus (see Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011). While this might be useful in studies examining regulatory focus at the individual level or in studies which ignore the effects of contextual stimuli on regulatory focus. Multilevel studies or studies examining regulatory fit should be cautious when attempting to elicit regulatory focus. For example, subordinates will emulate their supervisor's behavior as supervisor behavior serves as a signal to subordinates as to which behaviors are considered appropriate (Brockner et al., 2004; Neubert et al., 2008). Manipulating regulatory focus would weaken or possibly nullify the effect of supervisor influence on subordinate work regulatory focus.

Alternatively, in addition to assessing WRF using existing measures, researchers can overtly ask the subject which regulatory focus they adopt most often in the workplace or which regulatory focus is being used at the time of assessment. Rather than researcher(s) having to determine whether an employee is classified as adopting a work promotion or work prevention focus, a comparison of the responses may be used as an indicator of WRF. A final option would be to use implicit measures of regulatory focus either alone or in conjunction with explicit measures (Johnson et al., 2015). According to RFT, "people self-regulate word usage, actions, behaviors, and many other observable artifacts that strongly suggest an underlying regulatory focus" (Johnson et al., 2015,

p. 1521); implicit measures could indicate which regulatory focus an individual is using at the time the “artifacts” are measured. Future WRF research could focus on identifying and classifying actions and behaviors which indicate the use of a promotion or a prevention focus.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study contributes to the extant body of research on regulatory fit by providing unique empirical evidence that interpersonal regulatory fit is a meaningful predictor of subordinate proactive behavior. The findings indicate that employees who are high in proactive personality and adopt a work promotion focus are more likely to engage in various forms of proactive behavior. In this study, 95% of subordinates adopt a general promotion focus. However, only 16% of subordinate adopt a work promotion focus. This suggests that employees are coming to work primed to engage in proactive behaviors but something in the work environment is hindering subordinate potential. Whether it is the supervisor, the work environment, the organization’s culture, or some other factor, something is diminishing employee motivation to engage in desirable workplace behaviors. Supervisors may be able to restore that motivation as results suggest that supervisors can elicit proactive behavior by aligning subordinate regulatory focus to achieve interpersonal regulatory fit.

APPENDIX A
STUDY MEASURES

GENERAL REGULATORY FOCUS MEASURE

(Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002)

All items are measured using a 9-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Not at all true of me* and 9 = *Very true of me*.

1. In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.
2. I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.
3. I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.
4. I often think about the person I am afraid I might become in the future.
5. I often think about the person I would ideally like to be in the future.
6. I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.
7. I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my career goals.
8. I often think about how I will achieve career success.
9. I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me.
10. I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.
11. I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains.
12. My major goal right now is to achieve my career ambitions.
13. My major goal right now is to avoid becoming a career failure.
14. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach my “ideal self”—to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.
15. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to become the self I “ought” to be—to fulfill my duties, responsibilities, and obligations.
16. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.
17. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.
18. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.

REGULATORY FOCUS AT WORK SCALE

(Wallace and Chen, 2005; 2006)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Never* and 5 = *Constantly*.

Rate how often you focus on the following thoughts and activities when you are working.

1. Accomplishing a lot at work
2. Getting my work done no matter what
3. Getting a lot of work finished in a short amount of time
4. Work activities that allow me to get ahead
5. My work accomplishments
6. How many tasks I can complete
7. Following the rules and regulations
8. Completing work tasks correctly
9. Doing my duty at work
10. My work responsibilities
11. Fulfilling my work obligations
12. The details of my work

PROACTIVE PERSONALITY SCALE

(Sibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

To what extent do you agree with or disagree with the following statements.

1. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.
2. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.
3. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
4. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
6. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
7. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others opposition.
8. I excel at identifying opportunities.
9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.
10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.

PROBLEM PREVENTION

(Parker & Collins, 2010)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Very infrequently* and 5 = *Very frequently*.

The following questions should be answered about your subordinate. Rate how frequently he or she displays the following behaviors.

1. Try to develop procedures and systems that are effective in the long term, even if they slow things down to begin with?
2. Try to find the root cause of things that go wrong?
3. Spend time planning how to prevent reoccurring problems?

CAREER INITIATIVE

(Siebert, Crant, & Kraimer 1999)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

Indicate the extent to which you feel the following statements describe your subordinate.

1. I have discussed my aspirations with a senior person in the organization.
2. I have discussed my career prospects with someone with more experience in the organization.
3. I have engaged in career path planning.

TAKING CHARGE

(Morrison & Phelps, 1999)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

Indicate the extent to which you feel the following statements describe your subordinate.

1. This person often tries to adopt improved procedures for doing his or her job.
2. This person often tries to change how his or her job is executed in order to be more effective.
3. This person often tries to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department.
4. This person often tries to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company.
5. This person often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive.
6. This person often makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization.
7. This person often tries to correct a faulty procedure or practice.
8. This person often tries to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures.
9. This person often tries to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems.
10. This person often tries to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.

FEEDBACK SEEKING

(Ashford, 1986)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *very infrequently* and 5 = *very frequently*.

In order to find out how well you are performing in your present job, how FREQUENTLY do you?

1. Observe what performance behaviors your boss rewards and use this as feedback on your own performance?
2. Compare yourself with peers (persons at your level in the organization)?
3. Pay attention to how your boss acts toward you in order to understand how he/she perceives and evaluates your work performance?
4. Observe the characteristics of people who are rewarded by your supervisor and use this information?
5. Seek information from your co-workers about your work performance?
6. Seek feedback from your supervisor about your work performance?
7. Seek feedback from your supervisor about potential for advancement within your company?

CAREER INITIATIVE

(Siebert, Crant, & Kraimer 1999)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

To what extent do you agree with or disagree with the following statements.

1. I have discussed my aspirations with a senior person in the organization.
2. I have discussed my career prospects with someone with more experience in the organization.
3. I have engaged in career path planning.

STRATEGIC SCANNING

(Parker & Collins, 2010)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

To what extent do you agree with or disagree with the following statements.

1. Actively scan the environment to see what is happening and how it might affect your organization in the future?
2. Identify long-term opportunities and threats for the company?
3. Anticipate organization changes that might be needed in the light of developments in the environment (e.g., markets, technology)?

GENERALIZED COMPLIANCE

(Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991)

All items are measured using a 7-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 7 = *Strongly agree*.

To what degree do you feel each of the following statements represents your subordinate's behavior at work?

1. Attendance at work is above the norm
2. Does not take extra breaks
3. Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching
4. Adequately completes assigned duties
5. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description
6. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her
7. Meets formal performance requirements of the job
8. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation

ORGANIZATIONAL INNOVATION CLIMATE

(Patterson et al., 2005)

All items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type response format anchored at 1 = *Strongly disagree* and 5 = *Strongly agree*.

Indicate the extent to which you feel the following statements describe your organization.

1. New ideas are readily accepted here.
2. This company is quick to respond when changes need to be made
3. Management here are quick to spot the need to do things differently.
4. This organization is very flexible; it can quickly change procedures to meet new conditions and solve problems as they arise.
5. Assistance in developing new ideas is readily available.
6. People in this organization are always searching for new ways of looking at problems.

APPENDIX B
SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

Table B-1: Summary of Hypotheses Tests

Hypothesis 1a: General promotion focus is positively related to work promotion focus.	Supported
Hypothesis 1b: General prevention focus is positively related to work prevention focus.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2a: Proactive personality will be positively related to a work promotion focus.	Supported
Hypothesis 2b: Proactive personality will be negatively related to a work prevention focus.	Supported
Hypothesis 3a: Proactive personality will be positively related to a general promotion focus.	Supported
Hypothesis 3b: Proactive personality will be positively related to a general prevention focus.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 4a: Supervisor proactive personality moderates the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and work promotion focus such that the relationship will be stronger when the supervisor has a high level of proactive personality than when the supervisor has a low level of proactive personality.	Supported
Hypothesis 4b: Supervisor proactive personality moderates the relationship between subordinate proactive personality and work prevention focus such that the relationship will be stronger when the supervisor has a high level of proactive personality than when the supervisor has a low level of proactive personality.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 5a: Supervisor work regulatory focus moderates the relationship between subordinate general promotion focus and subordinate work promotion focus such that the relationship is stronger when the supervisor has a high level of promotion focus than when the supervisor has a low level promotion focus.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 5b: Supervisor work regulatory focus moderates the relationship between subordinate general prevention focus and subordinate work prevention focus such that the relationship is stronger when the supervisor has a high level of prevention focus than when the supervisor has a low level prevention focus.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 6a: Work promotion focus is positively related to proactive behavior.	Partial Support
Hypothesis 6b: Work prevention focus is positively related to generalized compliance.	Supported

Table B-1: (Continued)

Hypothesis 7a: Subordinate general promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior. Specifically, high subordinate general promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive work behavior, and low subordinate general promotion focus will diminish the effect.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 7b: Subordinate general promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive strategic behavior. Specifically, high subordinate general promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive strategic behavior, and low subordinate general promotion focus will diminish the effect.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 7c: Subordinate general promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive person-environment fit behavior. Specifically, high subordinate general promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive person-environment fit behavior, and low subordinate general promotion focus will diminish the effect.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 7d: Subordinate general prevention focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work prevention focus and generalized compliance. Specifically, high subordinate general prevention focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work prevention focus on generalized compliance, and low subordinate general prevention focus will diminish the effect.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 8a: Supervisor work promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive work behavior. Specifically, high supervisor work promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive work behavior, and low supervisor work promotion focus will diminish the effect	Supported
Hypothesis 8b: Supervisor work promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive strategic behavior. Specifically, high supervisor work promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive strategic behavior, and low supervisor work promotion focus will diminish the effect	Not Supported
Hypothesis 8c: Supervisor work promotion focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work promotion focus and proactive person-environment fit behavior. Specifically, high supervisor work promotion focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work promotion focus on proactive person-environment fit behavior, and low supervisor work promotion focus will diminish the effect.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 8d: Supervisor work prevention focus will moderate the relationship between subordinate work prevention focus and generalized compliance. Specifically, high work supervisor prevention focus will enhance the effect of subordinate work prevention focus on generalized compliance and low supervisor work prevention focus will diminish the effect.	Not Supported

APPENDIX C
ADDITIONAL TABLES

Table C-1: Determining Needed Sample Size

Probability (α)	0.05	0.05	0.01	0.01
Statistical Power ($1-\beta$)	0.80	0.90	0.80	0.90
Effect Size	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
Sample Needed (N)	193	258	286	364

N = number of supervisor/subordinate dyads.

Numbers based on Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003.

APPENDIX D


HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTER



LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

MEMORANDUM

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

TO: Mr. Brian Waterwall and Dr. Brian Fuller 
 FROM: Dr. Stan Napper, Vice President Research & Development
 SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW
 DATE: September 29, 2016

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

“Understanding the Effects of Regulatory Focus on Proactive Behavior”

HUC 1463

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on September 29, 2016 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond September 29, 2017.* Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-2292 or 257-5066.

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