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Leader Behaviors and Follower Proactivity: Exploring Situational Conditions

상사의 행동이 구성원의 주도적 행동에 미치는 영향

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Leader Behaviors and Follower Proactivity: Exploring Situational Conditions

by

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ABSTRACT

As the work environments become increasingly dynamic and competitive, it is necessary for employees to perform more proactively in order to meet the challenging goals of organizations. Since the core elements of proactivity are self-initiated, change oriented, and future focused, a growing body of research found that proactive behaviors bring positive individual and organizational outcomes. Recognizing the importance of proactivity, the purpose of this study is to examine a comprehensive model of employees' proactive behaviors in organizations. First, the study investigates how leader's empowering or directive behavior may impact followers' proactive behaviors. Second, this study examines the mediating mechanisms of followers' regulatory focus motivations between leader's empowering or directive behavior and followers' proactive behaviors. Third, understanding the important situational conditions, this study selects situational contexts that may increase or decrease risks in engaging proactive behaviors. Organizational politics is examined as a critical boundary factor; while, psychological safety is investigated as an enhancing factor in the relationship between regulatory focus motivation and proactive behaviors. Lastly, this study applies a higher-order structure concept of proactive behaviors. Among various proactive concepts, this study takes a behavior approach and examines a high-order concept of proactive behaviors rather than a single action which were categorized as proactive work behavior.

Hypotheses for this dissertation were tested using data from 215 employees-supervisor dyads. Data were collected primarily through surveys distributed to employees and their direct supervisors located in South Korea. The results supported that empowering behavior shows a significant positive result on proactive behaviors after controlling for directive behavior. Similarly, directive behavior demonstrates a significant negative impact on proactive behaviors after controlling for empowering behavior. Also, the result demonstrated the positive relationship between empowering behavior and promotion focus motivation. Contrary to the prediction, the results did not support the mediating effects of regulatory focus motivations in the relationship between

leader behaviors and proactive behaviors. Also the moderating effects of organizational politics and psychological safety in the relationship between regulatory focus motivations and proactive behaviors were not significant.

The current findings have some important contributions to the existing literatures. First, the study contributes to proactivity literature by examining antecedents of proactive behaviors in a comprehensive way. Second, this study understands the importance of leader behaviors on followers' proactive behaviors. Taking an integrative approach, this study adds insights to leadership literature by producing results on how two types of leader behaviors may affect employees' proactive behaviors in one framework. Lastly, the study has adopted regulatory focus theory to deepen the understanding why individuals may perform challenging natures of proactive behaviors. The non-significant results of mediating effect have implied that regulatory focus may not be a linking mechanism between two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors.

Despite its limitations of a cross-sectional design and limited variables, this study enriches the understanding of proactive behaviors by taking a comprehensive approach, examining two different types of leader behaviors, motivational factors, and situational factors in one framework. This study has revealed that it is not simply leader behavior but empowering behavior, per se, that promotes proactive behaviors in followers; whereas, directive behavior may discourage such challenging behaviors.

Keywords: Proactive behavior, Empowering behavior, Directive behavior, Regulatory focus theory, Promotion focus motivation, Prevention focus motivation, Organizational politics, Psychological safety.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

I. Research Question

As work environments become increasingly dynamic and competitive, it is no longer sufficient for employees to merely fulfill their in-role tasks (e.g., Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). It is necessary for employees to expand their roles broadly and pursue their tasks more proactively in order to meet the challenging goals of organizations (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). Traditionally, organizations did not expect employees to be active in the workplace (Parker et al., 2010). Motivation theories such as expectancy theory, equity theory, and goal setting theory all assume that employees are reactive to the organizational environment (Grant & Ashford, 2008). For example, employees may put their efforts toward acquiring rewards determined by organizations in accordance with expectancy theory. According to equity theory, employees may invest their resources only when they receive fair treatment from their leaders or organization. Goal setting theory assumes that employees do not set their own goals but accept the goals assigned by their leaders.

However, researchers have begun to note that employees are not just submissive to the organizational contexts anymore but often shape, influence, and change their own environment in recent days. Furthermore, as Frese (2008) indicated when he emphasized the importance of proactivity and entitled his article “The word is out: We need an active performance concept for modern work places,” it is now necessary to encourage employees to act more proactively to survive in this competitive and uncertain business environment. Since the core elements of proactivity are “self-starting, change oriented, and future focused” (Parker, & Collins, 2010, p. 828), a growing body of research found that proactive behaviors bring about positive individual and organizational outcomes (e.g., Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Specifically, researchers have reported that there are positive effects from proactive behaviors on career success, innovation, sales performance,

entrepreneurial behaviors, small-firm innovation, and overall performance (Crant, 1995; Grant et al., 2009; Parker et al., 2006; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011).

Although a number of studies have investigated the factors that influence proactive behaviors, gaps still exist in the understanding of proactive behaviors. First, despite proactive behaviors being key determinants of individual performance and organizational effectiveness, previous research has failed to take a comprehensive view and to examine various contextual factors (Parker et al., 2006). Much research has been devoted to examining individual factors as antecedents of proactive behaviors such as personality, knowledge, and ability (Parker & Collins, 2010). Although personality is regarded as a key factor influencing an individual's behavior, contextual factors tend to offer more valuable management implications. Thus, the present study may go beyond the previous research and intends to examine contextual factors in order to deepen the understanding of individuals' who decide to engage in such challenging behaviors. Among many different contextual factors, this study investigates leader behaviors as critical predictors that promote or prevent their followers' proactive behaviors. Since proactive behavior is challenging and risky behavior for each employee, the role of leaders is likely to be critical to determining their employees' proactive behaviors (Parker & Wu, 2014).

Given the influential and powerful position of a leader, the behaviors of leaders are assumed to be important regarding their employees' proactivity (Parker & Wu, 2014). However, as proactivity scholars argue, not all types of leader behaviors may be appropriate for influencing their employees' proactive behaviors due to the future oriented and change focused characteristics of proactive behaviors. Despite the intuitive appeal of the critical role of a leader's behaviors in encouraging their employees' proactive behaviors, previous research has failed to exhibit consistent results between them (Bindl & Parker, 2010). For example, previous studies have noted non-significant, positive, or negative relationships between supportive leadership and a variety of proactive behaviors. Given the risky nature of proactive behaviors, employees may not decide to engage in them unless they are certain that their leaders would encourage such

challenging behaviors. Since providing necessary support does not imply that those leaders accept or encourage risky behaviors, the leader's support may not be a key contextual factor in the promotion of their employees' proactive behaviors. Since proactive behaviors involve unique factors, such as change, future focused, or risk taking orientations, it is not proper to assume that the effect of a leader's behaviors would be the same between proactive behaviors and other job related performances (Parker et al., 2006). Thus, the question should be not whether a leader's behaviors matter but what types of leader behaviors may promote or prevent proactive behaviors in their employees (Parker & Wu, 2014).

Although leaders may demonstrate various behaviors in the workplace, previous studies have not fully investigated multiple types of leader behaviors in one model and have not examined which type of leader behaviors are more influential regarding their employees' proactive behaviors (Parker & Wu, 2014). Leaders may give a greater level of discretion to their employees, offer them an opportunity to participate in the decision-making process, and encourage self-development, which is known as a leader's *empowering behavior* (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002). On the other hand, leaders may clearly define their employees' roles, provide specific guidance, and monitor their employees' tasks in order to prevent risks or errors, which is generally referred to as a leader's *directive behavior* (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002). As constructive behaviors, both empowering and directive behaviors are known to bring about positive work outcomes, but there is a clear distinction between these leader behaviors (Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims, 2013; Martin et al., 2013). For example, empowering behavior is likely to be regarded as a change focused or risky behavior since there is a high probability that employees will make mistakes or incorrect decisions when performing tasks in their own ways. However, those employees may bring organizational changes and innovation in the near future by learning from their mistakes. Directive leaders, however, tend to focus on preventing risks and maintaining current situations by giving employees specific guidelines to follow and frequently monitoring their activities (Martin, Liao, & Campbell-Bush, 2013). Thus, this study has

selected two distinctive leader behaviors (i.e. *empowering* and *directive* behaviors) as the antecedents of employees' proactive behaviors. This study has chosen to examine those behaviors among the various options because they are commonly performed by employees' direct leaders on a daily basis. However, these behaviors may exhibit opposite tendencies toward changes or risks that are likely to be important factors influencing employees' *proactive work behaviors*, which focus on engaging in actions that improve their internal environment (Parker & Collins, 2010). As proactive behaviors may involve changes or risks, employees may decide to perform them when leaders demonstrate behaviors that encourage employees to take on risky but challenging tasks, such as empowering behavior. On the other hand, employees may not perform such challenging behaviors when they perceive that their leaders behave in a manner that emphasizes reducing risks and maintaining the status quo, such as directive behavior.

Second, although research acknowledges the importance of mediating mechanisms to the effectiveness of leader behaviors, it has yet to examine how leader's different behaviors may affect proactive behaviors through the mediating process. Therefore, the next question might involve identifying the mediating mechanisms between leaders' behaviors and their employees' proactive behaviors. In order to deepen the understanding of the process between leader behaviors and proactive employee behaviors, this study suggests that motivational factors are linking mechanisms between leader behaviors and the proactive behaviors. Since proactive behavior is a psychologically risky behavior, examining motivational factors as a mediator may answer the question regarding why employees with different leader behaviors either exhibit or withdraw from proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006). Among different motivational factors, this study aims to investigate regulatory focus motivations as mediating mechanisms between leader behaviors and proactive behaviors, since it appears to represent important parts of human motivation by incorporating different needs, standards, and psychological situations (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Furthermore, regulatory focus motivations may be appropriate factors in explaining how employees

with empowering or directive leaders may view proactive behaviors in different ways through different regulatory focus motivations. Empowering behavior that encourages employees to learn and perform challenging tasks is likely to evoke their promotion focus motivation. In turn, those promotion-focused individuals who pay attention to seeking gains and facing challenges may see proactive behaviors as an opportunity to satisfy their growth needs (c.f. Brockner & Higgins, 2001). On the other hand, directive behavior may induce employees' prevention focus motivation by focusing on preventing mistakes and complying with rules. Those prevention-focused individuals who emphasize loss avoidance may view proactive behaviors as risky and a threat to their security needs (c.f. Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Thus, regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) may provide an explanation regarding how individuals who experience different behaviors from their leaders may increase or decrease proactive behaviors through different regulatory focus motivations. Acknowledging the importance of taking an integrative approach that is emphasized in leadership literature, this study examines how the empowering and directive behaviors of leaders evoke their employees' different regulatory focus motivations, which may promote or prevent proactive employee behaviors. Specifically, this study suggests that a leader's empowering behavior is likely to increase the proactive behaviors of his or her employees by inducing their promotion focus motivation. On the other hand, directive behavior from leaders is predicted to decrease their employees' proactive behaviors by evoking their prevention focus motivation.

Lastly, although previous studies have examined job, group, and organizational characteristics as key factors that influence proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006), researchers have not yet much addressed the role of situational factors in the process of proactive employee behaviors. Thus, the last question might concern identifying the situational conditions that influence the process of proactive employee behaviors. Considering the challenging natures of proactive behaviors, situational factors may become boundaries or enhancing factors that may increase or decrease the risks of engaging in proactive behaviors. When the situational factors increase the risks of

engaging in proactive behaviors, the positive effects of the employees' promotion focus motivations on proactive behaviors are likely to be reduced. On the other hand, when the situational conditions reduce the risks of performing proactive behaviors, employees may decide to increase them, even though their motivations may not encourage such behaviors.

As a boundary factor that may increase the risks of engaging in proactive behaviors, this study selected organizational politics and proposed that it may influence the strength of the relationship between their regulatory focus motivations and proactive behaviors. When employees perceive that an organization is political, they may feel uncertain that their efforts will lead to positive outcomes (Brouer, Harris, & Kacmar, 2011). Furthermore, they may perceive that there is a chance that their proactive behaviors may not be recognized as valuable but seen as political when working within a highly political environment. Thus, employees may view their proactive behaviors as highly risky in the context of a highly political environment regardless of their distinct regulatory focus motivations. Accordingly, it is likely that employees may not decide to put their efforts into proactive behavior, even when they have motivations to perform such activity. In addition, if individuals have high prevention-focused motivation, it is predicted that they will reduce their proactive behaviors even further under a highly political environment, since it may threaten their needs for security and may increase the chances of loss.

As an enhancing factor, this study investigated psychological safety as a moderator since it is predicted to reduce the risk of engaging in proactive behaviors. Employees may perform proactive behaviors when they perceive that such behaviors are likely to be recognized or accepted by their team members in a positive way. Since expressing different opinions and suggesting new ideas are encouraged in environments with high psychological safety, individuals may feel comfortable initiating, taking charge, and speaking out in the workplace (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Thus, a perception of high psychological safety may decrease the risk of engaging in proactive behaviors, which may strengthened the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation

and proactive behaviors and weaken the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and proactive behaviors. Thus, the study intends to address these important questions by investigating different types of leader behaviors, such as empowering versus directive behavior, employees' promotion and prevention focus motivations, organizational politics, and psychological safety, as situational moderators in the relationship between different regulatory focus motivations and proactive behaviors.

II. Purposes of the Study

The purpose of this study is to offer, and empirically test a comprehensive model of proactive behaviors in organizations. Specifically, the study has four purposes. First, this study investigates how leader's empowering or directive behavior may impact followers' proactive behaviors in an opposite way. Second, this study investigates the mediating mechanisms of followers' regulatory focus motivations between leader's empowering or directive behavior and followers' proactive behaviors. Specifically, this study examines how followers' promotion focus motivation mediates the relationship between empowering behavior and followers' proactive behaviors; while, followers' prevention focus motivation is predicted to mediate the relationship between directive behavior and followers' proactive behaviors. Third, understanding the important situational conditions, this study selects situational contexts that may increase or decrease risks in engaging proactive behaviors. Specifically, organizational politics is examined as a critical boundary factor that may weaken the positive relationship between followers' promotion focus motivation and proactive behaviors and may strengthen the negative relationship between followers' prevention focus motivation and proactive behaviors. Moreover, psychological safety is investigated as an enhancing factor that may strengthen the positive relationship between followers' promotion motivations and proactive behaviors and weakened the negative relationship between followers' prevention motivations and proactive behaviors. Lastly, this study applies a higher-order structure concept of

proactive behaviors. Among various proactive concepts including traits, behaviors and process (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010; Parker & Collins, 2010), this study takes a behavior approach and examines a high-order concept of proactive behaviors rather than a single action which were categorized as *proactive work behavior* (taking charge, voice, individual innovation and problem prevention) developed by Parker & Collins (2010).

III. Overview of Chapters

In Chapter 1, the research question, purposes of this research are elaborated on. In Chapter 2, the main theoretical background and concepts will be described. The study first overviews the backgrounds and major research approaches of proactivity. Then, this study thoroughly reviews proactive behavior literatures including antecedents, process and outcomes of proactive behaviors. Furthermore this study specifically examines the studies conducted in South Korea and suggests the implications of proactivity in South Korea context. Then, this study introduces the backgrounds and definitions of leader behavior and regulatory focus. Lastly, the study reviews the literatures of leader behavior and regulatory focus. In Chapter 3, all hypotheses and its rationales are elaborated specifically. The methodological framework which is used to structure the research will be described in Chapter 4. The nature of sample, data collection procedures, measures used, and data analysis tools are discussed in this chapter. Chapter 5 presents the results of all hypotheses. Results of the preliminary analyses (e.g., descriptive statistics) as well as primary analyses involved in hypothesis testing are described. In Chapter 6, the interpretations of major findings are discussed. Following this discussion, the results of post hoc analyses is presented. In Chapter 7, this study presents the contributions in terms of theoretical and practical implications, outlines study limitations, and provides avenues for future research.

Chapter 2. Theoretical Background

This chapter presents theoretical backgrounds and empirical studies that may be helpful to build a foundation to the current study. First, the study starts to introduce the background, major research approaches and definition of proactivity. Then, the study reviews the previous research on proactive behaviors. Second, the study covers the historical overview, different approaches and literature review of leader behavior. Specifically, the review focuses on the literature of empowering and directive behaviors and explains why the study selects empowering and directive leader behaviors as antecedents of proactive behaviors. Lastly, this study describes the definition of regulatory focus and how promotion focus is conceptually different from prevention focus. Moreover, the study discusses how the concepts of regulatory focus are similar or different with other related constructs. Then the literature review of regulatory focus is examined.

I. Proactivity

This section exhibits the overview of proactivity and examines its literature. The first part of this section is to introduce historical background and approaches of proactivity. The second part of this section is to clarify the concept and constructs of proactive behavior. The study provides how proactive behavior is distinct from other constructs. Then, the literature reviews of proactivity are presented. Lastly, the study will discuss the summary of this section.

1. Overview of Proactivity

Early researchers treated proactivity as an individual difference and suggested the concept of proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993). According to Bateman and

Crant (1993), proactive personality is defined in the following way.

> The prototypic *proactive personality*, as we conceive it, is one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change. . . . Proactive people scan for opportunities, show initiative, take action, and persevere until they reach closure by bringing about change. . . . People who are not proactive exhibit the opposite patterns—they fail to identify, let alone seize, opportunities to change things.. . . They passively adapt to, and even endure, their circumstances (p. 105).

Individuals with proactive personality are likely to seek for opportunities and shape current environments by taking initiative in order to bring improvement (Bateman & Crant, 1993). It is not surprising that a growing body of research has demonstrated proactive personality as an important determinant of positive individual and organizational outcomes (Seibert et al., 2001; Thompson, 2005). In particular, proactive personality is positively related to performance (Thompson, 2005), career success (Seibert et al., 2001), entrepreneurship (Becherer & Maurer, 1999), and creativity (Parker et al., 2006). More importantly, proactive personality is a key predictor of proactive behaviors such as proactive socialization (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003); career initiative (Seibert et al., 2001), taking charge, individual innovation, problem prevention, and voice (Parker & Collins, 2010).

Although a trait approach helps us to understand why some individuals exhibit proactive behaviors while others do not, it may not be a useful approach to guide how situational factors may promote or inhibit such behaviors (Parker & Wu, 2014). Initially, Frese and Fay (2001) conceptualized personal initiative as a proactive behavior and defined as ‘‘work behavior characterized by its self-starting nature, its proactive approach, and by being persistent in overcoming difficulties in the pursuit of a goal’’ (p. 133). Taking a behavior approach, more researchers have started to examine a range of proactive behaviors such as proactive socialization (Thompson, 2005), career initiative (Seibert et al., 2001), individual innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and proactive feedback seeking (Ashford, Blatt, & Walle,

2003).

Recently, researchers have been considered proactivity as a process rather than a single behavior (Bindl, Parker, Totterdell, & Hagger-Johnson, 2012; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010). Frese and Fay (2001) classified the redefinition of tasks, information collection and prognosis, plan and execution, monitoring and feedback as core phases of proactivity. Similarly, Grant and Ashford (2008) viewed proactive behavior as a sequence of phases and selected three key phrases such as anticipation, planning, and action directed toward future impact. Parker et al. (2010) proposed goal generation and goal striving as two goal-directed processes for proactive behavior. Bindl and collegues (2012) exhibited how the proactive goal generation (envisioning and planning) and proactive goal striving (enacting and reflecting) are distinctive from each other.

Due to different approaches, the definitions of proactivity may not be identical among researchers (Parker et al., 2006). However, as indicated below in Table 1, researchers commonly emphasize that proactivity involves taking initiative and focusing on future in order to change the current situations.

Table 1. Definition of Proactivity

• "Creates or controls a situation by taking the initiative or by anticipating events (as opposed to responding to them)," and to proact as "to take proactive measures; to act in advance, to anticipate" (Oxford English Dictionary, 1989)
• "Taking initiative in improving current circumstances; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting present conditions" (Crant, 2000, p. 436)
• "Despite different labels and theoretical underpinnings, concepts that relate to individual-level proactive behavior typically focus on self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself." (Parker et al., 2006, p. 636)

- "The key criterion for identifying proactive behavior is not whether it is in-role or extra-role, but rather whether the employee anticipates, plans for, and attempts to create a future outcome that has an impact on the self or environment" (Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 9)
- "As self-directed and future-focused action in an organization, in which the individual aims to bring about change, including change to the situation (e.g., introducing new work methods, influencing organizational strategy) and/or change within oneself (e.g., learning new skills to cope with future demands)" (Bindl & Parker, 2010, p. 4)

2. What is Proactive Behavior?

Among different approaches, this study selects a behavioral approach to discuss proactivity and defines proactive behaviors as concepts that "focus on self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself" (Parker et al., 2006, p. 636). The concepts of proactive behaviors are often confused with other relevant constructs such as OCB, creativity and adaptive behavior (Parker & Wu, 2014).

First, some researchers have argued that proactive behavior could be viewed as a citizenship behavior due to its voluntary nature (Parker & Collins, 2010). However, it may not be appropriate to include proactive behavior as a type of citizenship behavior since employees may perform their citizenship behavior passively such as helping (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). Moreover, employees may perform any role more or less proactively regardless of its voluntary nature (Parker & Collins, 2010). Thus, this study assumes that proactive behavior is not necessarily to be limited to extra role and is distinctive from citizenship behavior (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Griffin et al., 2007). Second, proactive behavior is different from creativity since it is not required to bring novel idea (Parker & Wu, 2014). However, it is necessary to generate both useful and novel ideas to be classified as creativity (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996). Third, proactive behavior

is distinctive from adaptive behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010). In order to be classified as a proactive behavior, individuals may need to initiate changes rather than just be adaptive to changes (Frese & Fay, 2001; Griffin et al., 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010).

Although employees can perform any kinds of tasks in a proactive way, there are several representative behaviors regarded as proactive behaviors such as personal initiative, taking charge, voice and individual innovation (Parker & Collins, 2010). Despite the diverse measures of proactive behavior, researchers identified the core elements of proactivity, self-starting, change oriented, and future focused" (Parker, & Collins, 2010, p. 828). In the beginning, researchers have measured proactive behaviors using a single behavior such as personal initiative or taking charge (e.g., Frese & Fay, 2001). However, as exhibited in Table 2, researchers have begun to develop higher-order proactive behavior categories (e.g., Parker & Collins, 2010) and have selected intended target of impact or intended goal of proactivity as a key factor to classify proactive behavior categories. As a result, the constructs of proactive behaviors are quite different although they share the common features. For example, Griffin and colleagues (2007) classified proactive behaviors based on intended target of impact and have three constructs of proactive behaviors such as individual proactivity, team member proactivity, and organization member proactivity. Parker and Collins (2010) classified three categories of proactive behaviors depending on the goals of proactive behaviors. For example, individuals may take a proactive person-environment fit behavior (feedback seeking, job-role negotiation, career initiative) in order to better fit themselves with their external environment, they may choose proactive work behavior (taking charge, voice, individual innovation, and problem prevention) when they are interested in improving internal environment, they may exhibit proactive strategic behavior (strategic scanning and issue selling) if their goal is to change the organization.

Table 2. Classification of Proactive Behaviors

Author	Classification	Constructs
Parker et al. (2006)	The type of	Proactive idea implementation,

Author	Classification	Constructs
	Behavior	proactive problem solving
Griffin et al. (2007)	Intended target of impact	Individual proactivity, team member proactivity, and organization member proactivity.
Belschak & Den Hartog (2010)	Intended target of impact	Self-oriented, social, and organizational proactive behaviors
Parker & Collins (2010)	Intended goal of proactivity	Proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive person-environment fit behavior
Parker et al. (2010)	The phases of Proactivity	Proactive goal generation, proactive goal striving
Bindl et al. (2012)	The phases of Proactivity	Proactive goal regulation (envisioning, planning, enacting, and reflecting)

Since this study is individual level study and intends to focus on how followers engage in variety of proactive behaviors to improve their internal environment, this study selects *proactive work behavior* developed by Parker and Collins (2010). In Table 3, the definition and illustrative behaviors of *proactive work behavior* are presented. Despite their different labels such as taking charge or voice, all of these four behaviors share common elements such as self-directed, future focused and change oriented characteristics and have common goals of enhancing internal environment (e.g., Parker & Collins, 2010).

Table 3. Proactive Work Behaviors Constructs

Proactive Work Behavior	Category Definition From Original Authors	Illustrative Behavior
Taking charge	Voluntary and constructive efforts to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed; change-oriented behavior aimed at improvement (Morrison & Phelps, 1999)	Try to bring about improved procedures in the work place
Voice	Making innovative suggestions for	Communicate your views

Proactive Work Behavior	Category Definition From Original Authors	Illustrative Behavior
	change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree; speaking up that is constructive and intended to positively contribute to the organization (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)	about work issues to others in the workplace, even if your views differ and others disagree
Individual innovation	Behaviors involved in the creation and implementation of ideas (Scott & Bruce, 1994) including identifying an opportunity, generating new ideas or approaches, and implementing new ideas	Search out new techniques, technologies, and/or product ideas
Problem prevention	Self-directed and anticipatory action to prevent the reoccurrence of work problems (Frese & Fay, 2001)	Try to find the root cause of things that go wrong

Extracted from Parker & Collins, 2010, p. 637

3. Literature Review

3.1 Antecedents of Proactive Behavior

Despite the importance of proactive behavior as a key predictor of organizational effectiveness, there is a paucity of research examining the determinants of proactive behavior in a comprehensive way (Parker et al., 2006). Most of previous studies only examined main effects or individual differences as antecedents of proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006). Furthermore, researchers have adopted proactive behaviors using a single behavior such as taking charge or voice (Parker et al., 2010). In this session, the study intends to examine antecedents of proactive behaviors thoroughly by examining individual characteristics, task characteristics, leader characteristics and group and

organizational characteristics. Previous studies have noted that individual difference, job design, leadership and group and organizational characteristics are likely to influence the level of proactive behaviors (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Dutton, Ashford, O'neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997). I will review each antecedent of proactive behaviors and summarize the findings.

3.1.1 Individual Characteristics

In terms of individual differences, proactive personality and goal orientation have been investigated as critical factors for proactive behaviors (Bindl et al., 2012; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Parker et al., 2010; VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla, & Brown, 2000). Specifically, scholars have found that learning goal orientation is positively related to proactive behaviors; while, performance-avoid goal orientation is negatively related to proactive behaviors (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). Some scholars have examined other personalities such as Big Five, consideration of future consequences, propensity to trust, and exchange ideology as antecedents of proactive behaviors (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Parker & Collins, 2010). Among the Big Five, scholars have noted that Conscientiousness and Extraversion are positively related to voice behavior; whereas, Agreeableness and Neuroticism are negatively related to such behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001).

As motivational states, Parker and colleagues (2010) have suggested the “can do”, “reason to” and “energized to” as key motivational states predictors of proactive behaviors. As “can do” motivations, they propose self-efficacy and control appraisals. Intrinsic motivation, integrated motivation and identified motivation were classified as “reason to” motivation, while positive affect was categorized as “energized to” motivation. Since proactive behaviors involve risks and challenges, it is important to understand when and why individuals may decide to engage in such behaviors (Bindl & Parker, 2010). As noted in Table 4, many scholars have examined self-efficacy, flexible role orientation, control orientation and felt responsibility as important factors that promote proactive behaviors (Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999; Fuller, Marler, & Hester,

2006; Parker et al., 2006).

3.1.2 Task Characteristics

Scholars have noted that job design may influence followers' proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006). For example, previous studies have examined the important role of job autonomy and job complexity as predictors of proactive behaviors (Rank, Carsten, Unger, & Spector, 2007). Since emplyees with a high level of work characteristics (autonomy and complexity) are likely to feel more responsibility and see more opportunities to learn and make their own decisions which may lead to engage in proactive behaviors (Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007). Most scholars have shown consistent results that job autonomy and complexity are positively related to proactive behaviors (Frese et al., 2007; Rank et al., 2007). Parker and colleagues (2006) investigated personality, work environment and cognitive-motivational factors as antecedents of proactive behaviors. They found that proactive personality, job autonomy and coworker trust were significantly related to proactive work behavior via role breadth self-efficacy or flexible role orientation.

3.1.3 Leader Characteristics

Previous studies have noted the role of leader as an important situational context in predicting proactive behaviors (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Rank et al., 2007). In terms of leadership, as shown in Table 4, most scholars have chosen transformational leadership as a determinant of proactive behaviors (Rank, Nelson, Allen, & Xu, 2009). Previous studies have examined the positive relationship between empowering or participative leadership and proactive behaviors (Martin et al., 2013). Ethical and moral leadership also demonstrated positive relationships with proactive behaviors (Neubert, Wu, & Roberts, 2013). Furthermore, scholars have found the negative relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior (Burris et al., 2008) and the negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and voice behavior (Chan, 2014). LMX

has been also examined as an antecedent of proactive behaviors (Aryee et al., 2012). Previous research has noted the positive relationship between LMX and voice (Burris et al., 2008). Despite its positive influence, previous studies have found that the effects of supervisor support on proactive behavior have been mixed which may lead to the conclusion that supportive leadership might not be an effective leadership for proactive behaviors (Axtell et al., 2000; Bindl & Parker, 2010).

3.1.4 Group and Organizational Characteristics

Research has noted that group and organizational characteristics may influence followers' proactive behaviors. Previous studies have shown that positive climate or culture may impact on proactive behaviors (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) Specifically, scholars have examined that psychological safety, participative safety , initiative climate and supportive culture are positively related to proactive behaviors (e.g., Axtell et al., 2000). Also, employees who satisfy with their group or exhibit high team identification are likely to demonstrate high proactive behaviors (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Li et al., 2013). Group norms are positively related to team proactive peformance (Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010). LePine and Van Dyne (1998) have found the positive relationship between self-management team or small group size with voice behavior.

Table 4. Prior Empirical Studies on Antecedents of Proactive Behaviors

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
Individual Characteristics			
Dispositional Variable			
Proactive personality	Tolentino, Garcia, Lu, Restubog, Bordia & Plewa (2014)	Career adaptability	Support (+)
	Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman, & Xie (2013)	Taking charge	Marginally support (moderator): proactive personality × transformational leadership
	Gong, Cheung, Wang & Huang (2012)	Employee creativity	Support (+)
	Kim, Hon, & Lee (2010)	Creativity	Support (+)
	Parker & Collins (2010)	Proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive person-environment fit behavior	Support (+)
	Williams et al. (2010)	Team proactive performance	Support(+): mean level
	Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop (2006)	Job search behavior	Support (+)
Trait personal initiative	Rank et al. (2007)	Proactive service performance	Support (+)
Goal orientation	Tolentino et al. (2014)	Career adaptability	Support (+): learning goal orientation

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
	Li et al. (2013)	Taking charge	Marginally support (moderator): learning goal orientation× transformational leadership
	Belschak & Hartog (2010)	Organizational and interpersonal proactive behavior, personal proactive behavior	Support (+): learning goal orientation, performance-prove goal orientation Support (-): performance-avoid goal orientation
	Parker & Collins (2010)	Proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive person-environment fit behavior	Support (+)
	Janssen & Van Yperen, (2004)	Innovative job performance	Support (+): learning goal orientation Support(-): performance orientation
Traditionality	Li et al. (2013)	Taking charge	Not support (moderator): traditionality × transformational leadership
Consideration of future consequences	Parker & Collins (2010)	Proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive person-environment fit behavior	Support (+)

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
Big Five	Parker & Collins (2010)	Proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive person-environment fit behavior	Support (+): Conscientiousness
	LePine, & Van Dyne (2001)	Voice behavior	Support (+): Conscientiousness and extraversion Support(-): Agreeableness and Neuroticism
Self presentation propensity	Rank et al. (2009)	Innovation	Not support (moderator): self presentation propensity × transformational leadership
Career optimism	Tolentino et al. (2014)	Career adaptability	Support (+)
Propensity to trust	Chiaburu & Baker (2006)	Taking charge	Support(+)
Exchange ideology	Chiaburu & Baker (2006)	Taking charge	Support(-)
Future work self salience	Strauss, Griffin, and Parker (2012)	Proactive career behavior	Support(+)
Value	Grant & Rothbard (2013)	Supervisor ratings of proactivity	Support (moderator): prosocial/security value × ambiguity
Knowledge and ability			
Self-efficacy	Hirschi, Lee, Porfeli & Vondracek (2013)	Proactive career behavior	Support(+): career self-efficacy
	Den Hartog & Belschak (2012)	Proactive behavior	Support(moderator): autonomy ×

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
			transformational leadership × self-efficacy
Self-efficacy	Raub & Liao (2012)	Proactive customer service performance	Support(+)
	Griffin et al. (2010)	Proactivity	Support(moderator): leader vision × role breadth self-efficacy
	Parker & Collins (2010)	Proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive person-environment fit behavior	Support(+)
	Strauss, Griffin, & Raffert (2009)	Proactivity	Support(+)
	Bledow & Frese (2009)	Personal initiative	Support(+)
	Parker et al. (2006)	Proactive work behavior	Support(+): role breadth self-efficacy
	Axtell et al. (2000)	Suggestions, Implementation	Support(+): role breadth self-efficacy
	Frese et al. (1999)	Writing and submitting suggestions	Support(+)
	Morrison & Phelps (1999)	Taking charge	Support(+)
Self-esteem	Rafferty & Restubog (2011)	Prosocial voice behaviors	Not support (+): organization-based self-esteem
	Rank et al. (2009)	Innovation	Support(moderator): transformational

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
			leadership× organization-based self-esteem
	LePine & Van Dyne (1998)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Work experience	Fay & Sonnentag (2012)	Subsequent engagement in proactive behavior	Support(-)
Emotional competence	Kim, Cable, Kim & Wang (2009)	Proactive behaviors (feedback seeking and supervisory relationship development)	Support(+)
Role perception			
Flexible role orientation	Parker et al.(2006)	Proactive work behavior	Support(+)
	Axtell et al. (2000)	Suggestions, Implementation	Support(+)
Attitudes			
Satisfaction with leader	Martin et al. (2013)	Proactivity	Support(moderator): empowering/directive leadership × satisfaction with leader
Affective Commitment	Wang, Weng, McElroy, Ashkanasy, & Lievens (2014)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
	Crawshaw, van Dick, and Brodbeck (2012)	Proactive behavior	Support(moderator): organizational commitment × procedural justice × career development opportunities
	Strauss et al. (2009)	Proactivity	Support(+)
	Den Hartog & Belschak (2007)	Personal initiative	Support(+)
	Rank et al. (2007)	Proactive service	Support(+)

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
		performance	
Psychological detachment	Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu (2008)	Voice	Support(-)
Trust	Gong et al. (2012)	Employee creativity	Support(+)
Justice	Crawshaw et al. (2012)	Proactive behavior, careerist orientation	Support(moderator): procedural justice organizational commitment × procedural justice × career development opportunities
	Rafferty & Restubog (2011)	Prosocial voice behaviors	Support(+): interactional justice,
Career decidedness	Hirschi et al.(2013)	Proactive career behavior	Support(moderator): self-efficacy beliefs × career decidedness
Career development	Crawshawet al. (2012)	Proactive behavior	Support(moderator): organizational commitment × procedural justice × career development opportunities
Information exchange	Gong et al. (2012)	Employee creativity	Not support(+)
Coworker Trust	Parker et al. (2006)	Proactive work behavior	Support(+)
Motivations			
Promotion focus	Neubert et al., (2013)	Extra-role voice behavior	Support(+)

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
Felt responsibility	Parker & Collins (2010)	Proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive person-environment fit behavior	Support(+)
	Bledow & Frese (2009)	Personal initiative	Support(+)
	Fuller et al.(2006)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
	Morrison & Phelps (1999)	Taking charge	Support(+)
Negative context beliefs	Hirschi et al. (2013)	Proactive career behavior	Support(+)
Autonomous goals	Hirschi et al. (2013)	Proactive career behavior	Support(+)
Work engagement	Aryee, Walumbwa, Zhou, & Hartnell (2012)	Innovative behavior	Support(+)
	Salanova & Schaufeli (2008)	Proactive behavior	Support(+)
Control orientation	Frese, Garst, & Fay (2007)	Personal initiative	Support(+)
	Frese et al. (1999)	Writing and submitting suggestions	Support(+)
	Ashford & Black (1996)	Proactive socialization attempts	Support(+)
Control appraisal	Parker et al.(2006)	Proactive work behavior	Not support(+)
Affect and Mood			
Affect	Hirschi et al. (2013)	Proactive career behavior	Support(+)
	Fay & Sonnentag (2012)	time spent on proactive behavior, subsequent engagement in proactive behavior	Support(+): positive state affect and negative trait affect
	Den Hartog & Belschak (2007)	Personal initiative	Support(+): positive affect

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
Mood	Bindl et al. (2012)	Proactive goal regulation (envisioning, planning, enacting, and reflecting), envisioning proactivity	Support (+)
Others			
Stressors	Fay & Sonnentag (2002)	Subsequent changes in Personal initiative (PI)	Support(+)
Gender	Wang et al.(2014)	Voice behavior	Support (moderator): organizational commitment × gender
Task Characteristics			
Job characteristics	Grant & Rothbard (2013)	Supervisor ratings of proactivity	Support (moderator): ambiguity × prosocial value or security value
	Den Hartog & Belschak (2012)	Proactive behavior	Support(moderator): autonomy × transformational leadership × self-efficacy (three-way interaction)
Job characteristics	Salanova, & Schaufeli (2008)	Work engagement, proactive behavior	Not support(+): control, feedback and variety
	Frese et al. (2007)	Personal initiative	Support(+): control and complexity
	Rank et al. (2007)	Proactive service performance	Support(+): complexity & autonomy

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
	Ohly, Sonnentag, & Pluntke (2006)	Creativity, innovation, personal initiative and submission of ideas	Support(+): control
	Parker et al. (2006)	Proactive work behavior	Support(+): autonomy
	Axtell et al. (2000)	Suggestions, Implementation	Support(+): autonomy
	Frese et al. (1999)	Writing and submitting suggestions	Not support(+): control and complexity (negatively significant with having ideas)
Job creativity requirement	Kim, Hon, & Lee (2010)	Creativity	Support(moderator): proactive personality × job creativity requirement × supervisor support (three-way interaction)
Time pressure	Ohly et al. (2006)	Creativity, innovation, personal initiative and submission of ideas	Support(+): curvilinear relationship
Leader Characteristics			
Leadership			
Transformational leadership	Li et al. (2013)	Taking charge	Support(moderator): transformational leader × team identification/ leader prototypical
	Den Hartog & Belschak (2012)	Proactive behavior	Support(moderator): autonomy ×

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
			transformational leadership × self-efficacy
	Belschak & Den Hartog (2010)	Organizational and interpersonal proactive behavior	Support(+)
	Griffin et al. (2010)	Proactivity	Support(moderator): leader vision × role breadth self-efficacy
	Williams et al. (2010)	Team proactive performance	Support(+)
	Rank et al.(2009)	Innovation,	Support(moderator): transformational leadership× Organization-based self-esteem
	Detert & Burris (2007)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Transactional leadership	Rank et al. (2009)	Innovation,	Support(moderator): transformational leadership× organization-based self-esteem
Empowering/Participative leadership	Martin et al. (2013)	Proactivity	Support(+)
	Rank et al. (2007)	Proactive service performance	Support(+)
Ethical leadership	Neubert et al., (2013)	Extra-role voice behavior	Support(+)
	Walumbwa & Schaubroeck (2009)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Moral leadership	Chan (2014)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Directive leadership,	Martin et al. (2013)	Proactivity	Not support(-)

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
Authoritarian leadership	Chan (2014)	Voice behavior	Support(-)
Abusive supervision	Rafferty & Restubog (2011)	Prosocial voice behaviors	Not support (-)
	Burris et al. (2008)	Voice behavior	Support(-)
Leader-Member Exchange			
LMX	Neubert et al., (2013)	Extra-role voice behavior	Support(moderator): LMX × ethical leadership
	Aryee et al. (2012)	Innovative behavior	Support(moderator): LMX × work engagement
	Burris et al. (2008)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Others			
Supervisor support	Kim et al. (2010)	Creativity	Not support(+)
	Ohly et al. (2006)	Creativity, innovation, personal initiative and submission of ideas	Support(+): personal initiative only (negatively related to number of suggestions)
	Parker et al. (2006)	Proactive work behavior	Not support(+)
	Axtell et al. (2000)	Suggestions, Implementation	Support(+): implementation only
	Frese et al. (1999)	Writing and submitting suggestions	Not support (+)
Top management openness/willingness to listen	Detert & Burris (2007)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
	Morrison & Phelps (1999)	Taking charge	Support(+)
	Dutton et al. (1997)	Issue selling	Support(+)
Leader's information sharing behavior	Chan (2014)	Voice behavior	Support(moderator): moral leadership × information sharing

Classification	Study	The Type of Proactive Behavior	Result
Controlling behavior	Chiaburu & Baker (2006)	Taking charge	Support(+): output control Not support(-): process control
Group/Organizational Characteristics			
Climate/Culture			
Psychological safety	Walumbwa & Schaubroeck (2009)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
	Detert & Burris (2007)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Participative safety climate	Axtell et al. (2000)	Suggestions, Implementation	Support(+)
Initiative climate	Raub & Liao (2012)	Proactive customer service performance	Support(+)
Supportive culture	Dutton et al. (1997)	Issue selling	Support(+)
Others			
Satisfaction with the group	LePine & Van Dyne (1998)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Organizational career growth	Wang et al. (2014)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Self-management	Williams et al. (2010)	Team proactive performance	Support(+)
	LePine & Van Dyne (1998)	Voice behavior	Support(+)
Team identification	Li et al. (2013)	Taking charge	Support(moderator): transformational leader × team identification
Group/interpersonal norms	Williams et al. (2010)	Team proactive performance	Support(+)
	Morrison & Phelps (1999)	Taking charge	Nor support(+)
Group size	LePine & Van Dyne (1998)	Voice behavior	Support(-)

3.2 Consequences of Proactive Behavior

Although most of proactivity research has investigated the antecedents of followers' proactive behaviors, researchers have begun to examine the outcomes of proactive behaviors as well (Bindl & Parker, 2010). Previous studies have noted that proactive behaviors are positively linked to attitudes and performance (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Burris, 2012; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). For example, some scholars have reported the positive relationship between proactive behaviors and commitment and satisfaction (Belschak & Hartog, 2010). Other scholars have noted the negative relationship between proactive behaviors and turnover intention (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). Moreover, previous research has found out the positive relationship between proactive behaviors and job related performance (Whiting et al., 2008). Recent meta-analysis reported that employees who engaged in proactivity such as personal initiative, voice, and taking charge are significantly related to performance, satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and social networking. Scholars also have noted that proactive behaviors are positively related to learning and well-being (Cooper-Thomas, Paterson, Stadler, & Saks, 2014).

Table 5. Prior Empirical Studies on Consequences of Proactive Behavior

Classification	Study	The type of proactive behavior	Result
Attitudes			
Commitment	Thomas, Whitman & Viswesvaran (2010)	Proactivity	Support(+): affective commitment
	Belschak & Den Hartog, (2010)	Proactive behavior	Support(+): career commitment,
Job satisfaction	Thomas et al. (2010)	Proactivity	Support(+)
	Ashforth et al. (2007)	Proactive behavior	Not Support(+)
	Ashford, & Black (1996)	Proactive socialization attempts	Support(+)
Organizational identification	Ashforth et al. (2007)	Proactive behavior	Not Support(+)
Social networking	Thomas et al. (2010)	Proactivity	Support(+)
Turnover	McClean, Burris, & Detert (2013)	Voice behavior	Support(moderator): voice × managerial characteristics
	Ashforth et al. (2007)	Proactive behavior	Support(-)
Work engagement	Cooper-Thomas Paterson et al. (2014)	Proactive behaviors	Support(+)
Contextual Performance			
Performance	Burris (2012)	Voice (Challenging voice/Supportive voice)	Support(+): supportive voice Support(-): challenging voice
	Thomas et al. (2010)	Proactivity	Support(+)
	Belschak, & Den Hartog, (2010)	Proactive behavior	Support(+)
	Grant et al. (2009)	Proactive behavior	Support (+)
	Whiting et al.(2008)	Voice behavior	Support(+)

Classification	Study	The type of proactive behavior	Result
	Ashforth et al. (2007)	Proactive behavior	Not support(+)
	Ashford, & Black (1996)	Proactive socialization attempts	Support(+)
Innovation	Ashforth et al. (2007)	Proactive behavior	Support(+)
Others			
Customer satisfaction with service quality	Raub & Liao (2012)	Aggregated Proactive customer service performance	Support(+)
Well-being	Cooper-Thomas et al. (2014)	Proactive behaviors	Support(+)
Learning	Cooper-Thomas et al. (2014)	Proactive behaviors	Support(+)
	Ashforth et al. (2007)	Proactive behavior	Support(+)

3.3 Proactive Behavior in South Korea

This study also reviewed major journals in management and psychology in South Korea and found only 12 studies in proactivity literature. Those studies using samples in South Korea investigated proactivity such as proactive personality, personal initiative and voice behavior. Four studies have noted that proactive personality was positively related to OCB, task performance, creativity, socialization and career success (김동욱, 한영석, & 김명소, 2014; 김윤희, 이인석, & 전무경, 2011; 유지운 & 탁진국, 2012; 은영신, 유태용, & 서학삼, 2012; 이동하 & 탁진국, 2008), while one study explored the relationship between individual initiative and role overload (김동욱 et al., 2014; 김윤희 et al., 2011; 유지운 & 탁진국, 2012; 은영신 et al., 2012; 이동하 & 탁진국, 2008). Among 12 studies, three studies have examined leader related variables such as LMX, ethical leadership and inclusive leadership as antecedents of proactive behaviors (김정식, 박종근, & 백승준, 2013; 이용탁 & 주규하, 2013; 차동옥, 김상수, 이정훈, 방호진, & 문지영, 2013). Specifically, while ethical leadership was positively related to proactivity (김정식 et al., 2013; 이용탁 & 주규하, 2013; 차동옥 et al., 2013), inclusive leadership was positively related to voice behavior through vitality (차동옥, 김상수, 이정훈, 방호진, & 문지영, 2013). Interestingly, LMX did not show a direct relationship with taking charge but demonstrated a marginally negative relationship with voice behavior (김정식 et al., 2013). However, LMX was positively related to taking charge and voice behavior through psychological safety. Three studies have examined the antecedents and consequences of voice behavior (곽원준, 2013; 김정진, 2012; 최선규 & 지성구, 2012). One study investigated the moderating role of proactivity between socialization strategies and socialization outcomes (김상표 & 김태열, 2004).

4. Summary

Considering the risks or challenges involving in proactive behaviors, it is important to investigate when and why individuals may take such behaviors (Parker & Wu, 2014). Despite the importance of proactive behaviors, previous studies have not been much taken a comprehensive view. As noted in Table 4, most studies have examined the individual characteristics such as proactive personality and self-efficacy as antecedents of proactive behavior. Among few studies examining the relationship between leader behaviors and proactive behaviors, most research investigated leader's transformational behavior as a key leader behavior that predicts followers' proactive behaviors. Since leaders tend to possess a great deal of power and influence over followers, it is likely that followers may decide to take risky and challenging behaviors such as proactive behaviors depending on how leaders promote such behaviors (Parker et al., 2006). In other words, the types of leader behaviors may give a different cue how followers should act in organization. Thus, it is important to examine multiple types of leader behaviors and find out the relative importance of leader behaviors in determining followers' proactive behaviors (Parker & Wu, 2014). Furthermore, previous studies have recognized the importance of motivational factors in influencing proactive behaviors (Frese et al., 2007). Thus, it would be beneficial to investigate motivational factors as mediating mechanisms in order to deepen the understanding why certain leader behaviors are linked to proactive behaviors. In addition, despite its dynamic and competitive business environment, proactivity has not been a major research topic in South Korea. Given a high power distance culture of South Korea (Hofstede, 1980), it might be more difficult to promote proactive behaviors in workplace. Since employees from high power distance cultures tend to accept as it is rather than initiate or speak out for changes, the role of leader is likely to be more critical to increase proactive behaviors in South Korea. Thus, it is meaningful to find out which leader behaviors are more useful to promote followers' proactive behaviors using samples in high power distance culture.

II. Leader Behavior

This section exhibits the overview of leader behavior and its literature review. The first part of this section is to introduce historical background and approaches of leader behaviors. The second part of this section is to explain why the study selects empowering versus directive behaviors as antecedents of followers' proactive behaviors among many other leaders' different behaviors. Then, the literature reviews of leaders' empowering and directive behaviors are presented. Lastly, the study will discuss the summary of this section.

1. Overview of Leader Behavior

Although the subjects of leader and his or her influence have been popular for a long time, it has not been investigated rigorously until the twentieth century (Yukl, 2010). After that, researchers and practitioners have started to investigate what determines the effectiveness of leader's influences (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). On the basis of trait approach, some people are born to be leaders (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Early research examined leader's individual characteristics such as demographics, skills and abilities, and personality traits as predictors of leadership effectiveness or emergence (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002; Judge & Cable, 2004; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004). However, starting from early 1950s, researchers realized that the trait approach may have a limitation to understand the leader's effectiveness and began to examine leader's behavior (Yukl, 2010). Specifically, much of research on leader behavior was conducted at two schools, Ohio State University and the University of Michigan. The Ohio State studies classified leader behaviors with two factors such as initiating structure and consideration (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). While the main activities of initiating structure are to define and organizes the role of followers to achieve the goal of organization, leader's behavior in consideration is to support followers by showing concern and respect (Bass, 1990). On

the other hand, Michigan leadership studies present three types of leadership behaviors, task-oriented behavior, relations-oriented behavior and participative leadership (Yukl, 2010). Task-oriented behavior in Michigan leadership studies may include initiating structure while relations-oriented behavior may involve consideration. However, Michigan researchers cover broader behaviors in both categories.

Extended from the classification of Michigan leadership studies, DeRue and colleagues (2011) divided leadership behaviors into four types, task-oriented behaviors, relational-oriented behaviors, change-oriented behaviors, and passive leadership. The representative behaviors of task-oriented include initiating structure, active transactional leader behaviors (contingent reward and management by exception-active) and directive leadership. Although each leader behavior in this category has some differences, most of these behaviors focus on completing the tasks in a given time by providing clear instructions (i.e., directive leadership) or using contingent rewards as a tool to promote the followers' constructive behaviors (i.e., transactional leadership). Compared to task-oriented behavior, relational-oriented behavior emphasizes social interaction and emotional attachment between leader and follower. The examples of relational-oriented behavior are consideration, empowering leadership, participative leadership and servant leadership. Different from task-oriented behavior, leaders who engage in relational-oriented behavior tend to motivate and develop followers by encouraging and supporting them. Also, leaders are likely to promote their followers to perform independent actions and participate in decision-making (Arnold et al., 2000; Conger, 1989; Kahai, Sosik, & Avolio, 1997; Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Lastly, the focus of transformational leadership is to bring change in organization (DeRue et al., 2011). Since the core elements of transformational behavior are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, transformational leaders tend to motivate their followers by emphasizing vision and value (Bass, 1985). Previous studies have found out that transformational leadership is positively related innovation-supporting organizational climate, individual creativity proactive behavior and organizational innovation (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010;

Griffin et al., 2010; Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003; Strauss et al., 2009).

As shown in Table 6 Pearce and colleagues (2003) classified leader behavior into five types aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering based on the research of Sims Jr. and colleagues (Manz & Sims Jr., 1991; Sims Jr. & Manz, 1996; Thomas et al., 2010). Different from other researchers, Pearce and colleagues identified a destructive behavior such as aversive behavior which involves in "engaging in intimidation and dispensing reprimands" using their coercive power (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 173). Although most researchers focus on examining leader's constructive behaviors, leaders do not always exhibit constructive behaviors (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013). Similar with aversive behaviors, leaders often show destructive behaviors using destructive methods or take destructive actions to pursue destructive goals (Krasikova et al., 2013). As noted in Figure 1, the conceptual model of Einarsen and colleagues (2007) captures both constructive and destructive leader behaviors. Specifically, leader behaviors can be divided into four types depending on two dimensions (subordinate and organization oriented behaviors) and two ranges (anti and pro). For example, if the leader exhibits both pro-subordinate and pro-organization behaviors, this behavior is categorized as a constructive behavior. Otherwise, the behaviors are categorized as a destructive behavior and separately labeled as tyrannical, derailed, and supportive–disloyal leadership behavior depending on its dimensions and ranges. This study intends to focus on leader's constructive behaviors, specifically empowering behavior and directive behavior and their impacts on followers' proactive behaviors through different motivational mechanisms.

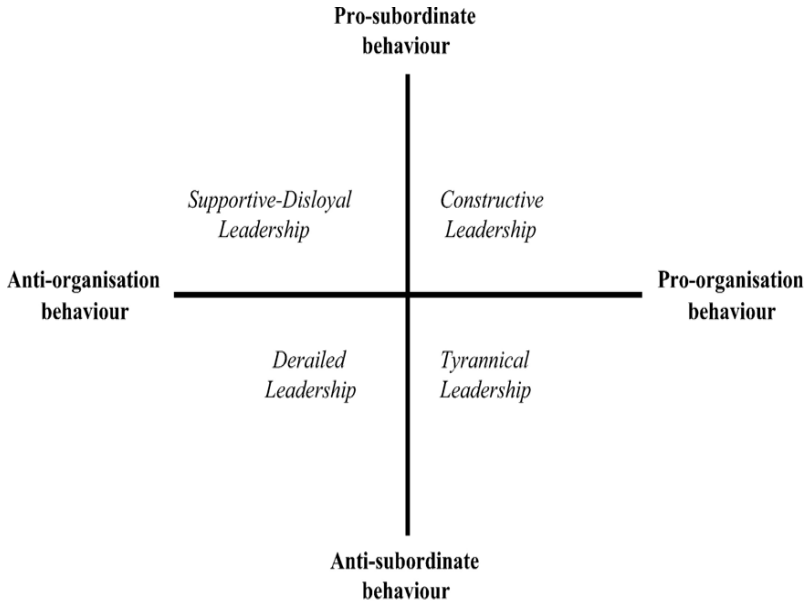
Table 6. Theoretical Bases and Representative Behaviors of Five Types of Leader Behavior

Leader type	Theoretical bases	Representative behaviors
Aversive Leadership	Punishment research (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980)	Engaging in intimidation, Dispensing reprimands
Directive	Theory X management	Issuing instructions and

Leader type	Theoretical bases	Representative behaviors
leadership	(McGregor, 1960), Initiating structure behavior from Ohio State (Fleishman, 1953), Task-oriented behavior from Michigan studies (Bass, 1967)	commands, Assigning goals
Transactional leadership	Expectancy theory (e.g., Vroom, 1964), Equity theory (e.g., Adams, 1963), Path goal theory (e.g., House, 1971), Exchange theory (e.g., Homans, 1958)	Providing personal rewards, Providing material rewards, Managing by exception (active), Managing by exception (passive)
Transformational leadership	Sociology of charisma (e.g., Weber, 1946, 1947) Charismatic leadership (e.g., House, 1977) Transforming leadership (e.g., Burns, 1978) Transformational leadership (e.g., Bass, 1985)	Providing vision, Expressing idealism, Using inspirational Communication, Having high performance expectations
Empowering leadership	Behavioral self-management (e.g., Thoresen & Mahoney, 1974), Social cognitive theory (e.g., Bandura, 1986), Cognitive behavior modification (e.g., Meichenbaum, 1977), Participative goal setting (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990)	Encouraging independent action, Encouraging opportunity thinking, Encouraging teamwork, Encouraging self-development, Participative goal setting, Encouraging self-reward

Extracted from Pearce & Sims Jr. (2002, p. 173).

Figure 1. A Model of Destructive and Constructive Leadership Behavior



Extracted from Einarsen et al., 2007, p. 211.

2. Why Empowering Behavior versus Directive Behavior?

Among many different leader constructive behaviors, this study takes two types of leader behaviors such as empowering and directive behaviors as antecedents of proactive behaviors. As indicated in Table 7, although both empowering and transformational behaviors take future oriented and change focused views that may be helpful to encourage followers' proactive behaviors, the methods and approaches to reflect these views are quite different from each other. While empowering leader tends to offer an opportunity to participate in decision making and provide autonomy which encourage bottom up approach (Arnold et al., 2000), transformational leader tends to take more top down approach and exhibits charismatic behaviors which may result in high dependency on the leader (Fong & Snape, 2015). Kark and colleagues (2003) exhibited in their empirical study that transformational leadership was positively related to followers' dependence on the leader through personal identification. The result of

Kark and colleagues (2003) may imply that there might be a chance that employee may follow their transformational leaders' guidance rather than taking the initiative. Furthermore, since the central focus of transformational leaders is inspiring followers through presenting a vision of the future (Keller, 2006), it is not surprising that transformational behaviors are often observed from high level managers and regarded as team-level leader behaviors (Parker & Wu, 2014). Since the levels or ways of influencing followers are quite different between empowering and transformational leaders, some researchers argue that leaders may demonstrate transformational behaviors in an autocratic way rather than empowering way to achieve organizational effectiveness (Bass, 1997).

Transactional behaviors may share common goals with directive behaviors which are to achieve task completion and to meet performance standards (DeRue et al., 2011). However, transactional behaviors do not necessarily offer specific directions and guidance which may be helpful to meet the compliance (Bass, 1985). Instead, transactional leaders may use contingent rewards as their means to accomplish the work goals, yet the use of contingent rewards and punishments may not be directly linked to influence followers' proactive behaviors. Furthermore, since the focus of transactional behavior is result-based rather than process-based, it may not be appropriate to select transactional behaviors as antecedents of proactive behaviors which emphasize the way of performing tasks. Taken all, since the study intends to target a low level of employees and focuses on when they demonstrate *proactive work behaviors* which describe the specific behaviors that have goals to improve an internal organization at the individual level (Parker & Collins, 2010), it appears to be more appropriate to select leaders' behaviors that are closely related to daily activities such as empowering and directive behaviors.

Although leaders may engage in empowering or directive behaviors to achieve the work goals, not all types of leader behaviors are effective to lead followers' proactive behaviors since the orientations towards risk, methods to achieve work goals and the approaches towards employees are quite different as noted in Table 7. For example,

while leader's directive behavior is more oriented toward short-term task completion, leader's empowering behavior emphasizes on developing followers and focus on long-term performance (Lorinkova et al., 2013). Directive leaders influence their followers by assigning roles of followers and providing a specific guidance how to do their works to prevent errors or risks; whereas empowering leaders foster participation in decision making and encourage followers to do their tasks in their own ways (Lorinkova et al., 2013). Moreover, different from directive behavior, empowering behavior may be regarded as a risky behavior since there is high chance that inexperienced employees may make some mistakes by performing tasks in their own ways or not complete the tasks on time. Considering the change oriented and future focused characteristics of proactive behaviors, the study proposes that empowering behavior is beneficial to increase proactive behaviors; while, directive behavior may decrease such behaviors. By incorporating empowering behavior and directive behavior in the model simultaneously, this study may demonstrate clearly that it is not simply leader behavior that is more beneficial to proactive behavior, but empowering behavior per se.

Table 7. Comparison of Leader Behaviors

Classification		Empowering Behavior	Directive Behavior	Transformational Behavior	Transactional Behavior
Methods		Provide autonomy and opportunities for decision making	Assigning goals, giving clear guidance and instruction	Focus on vision and value	Focus on the proper exchange of rewards
Approach (Direction /Decision)		Encourage bottom up	Top down	Top down	Top down
Proactive Behavior	Future oriented	Yes	No	Yes	No
	Change focus	Yes	No	Yes	No
	Dependency on the leader	Decrease	Increase	Increase	Increase

Source: Kark et al. (2003); Martin et al. (2013); Pearce & Sims Jr. (2002).

3. Literature Review

3.1 Empowerment

Empowerment has received a great attention from practitioners and management scholars over the last three decades. Research reported that more than 70% of organizations have applied some types of empowerment in their workplace (Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). Empowerment was defined as "the process of implementing conditions that increase employees' feelings of self-efficacy and control (e.g. participative decision making), and removing conditions that foster a sense of powerlessness (e.g. bureaucracy)"(Arnold et al., 2000, p. 15). Researchers normally take two approaches to explain empowerment in the workplace (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). First, structural empowerment focuses on "set of practices involving the delegation of responsibility down the hierarchy so as to give employees increased decision-making authority in respect to the execution of their primary work tasks" (Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003, p. 28). A second approach emphasizes the psychological state of empowerment such as meaningfulness, competence, self-determination, and impact (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) Individuals may experience *meaningfulness* when their work tasks align with their own beliefs, values and standards (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). *Competence* is the degree of individuals' belief that they have capability to accomplish their own tasks successfully (Bandura, 1989; Lawler, 1973). *Self-determination* refers to the perception of autonomy or self-determination for their actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Lastly, *impact* is belief that their tasks can affect various organizational outcomes (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Ashforth, 1989).

Recently, scholars have begun to take a structural empowerment as a situational antecedent of psychological empowerment (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Seibert et al.,

2004; Spreitzer, 1996, 2008). Instead of considering it independently, recent meta-analysis has found that structural empowerment which may consist of high-performance management practices, social-political support, positive leadership and work design characteristics was positively related to psychological empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011). Specifically, the leader's positive behavior covers all types of constructive leader behaviors as noted below. Among many different leader's behaviors that may influence employees' psychological empowerment, the scope of this study is limited that it does not discuss psychological empowerment or empowerment process but examines a leader's specific behavior, namely empowering behavior.

Positive leadership included in meta-analysis

- Authentic leadership
- Managerial behaviors
- Autonomy support from leader
- Managerial control (i.e., setting clear priorities for followers)
- Charismatic leadership
- Participative leadership
- Communication with supervisor
- Trust in leader
- Developmental experiences from leader
- Supervisor supportiveness
- Empowering leadership
- Supervisory working alliance
- Leader approachability
- Transformational leadership
- Leader–member exchange
- Leader support

Extracted from Seibert et al., 2011.

3.2 Empowering Behavior

According to Pearce and Sims Jr. (2002), the theoretical bases of leader's empowering behavior are known as behavioral self-management, social cognitive theory, cognitive behavior modification research and participative goal-setting research (Bandura, 1986). Behavioral self-management emphasizes the importance of self-management as a substitute of leadership (Mahoney & Arnkoff, 1978). Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) provides an insight how leader can be a model or good example to influence their followers. Followers may develop their self-leadership skills by learning from their leaders' behaviors. Given the benefits of participative goal setting, the positive outcomes may be expected as a consequence of empowering leadership which also emphasizes the importance of participative decision-making (Erez & Arad, 1986).

Leader's empowering behavior is often confused with the concepts of delegation or leader's participative behavior. Delegation is to assign specific tasks to follower which was formerly performed by leader and to provide them the amount of autonomy for the assigned tasks (Leana, 1986). Leader's empowering behavior, on the other hand is process of sharing power and responsibilities with followers in general (Mills & Ungson, 2003). In addition, the concept of delegation does not necessarily involve the activities of coaching or encouraging their followers (Leana, 1986; Martin et al., 2013). However, these behaviors are emphasized in order to understand the process of empowerment (Ahearne et al., 2005). Similarly, leader's participative behavior has a narrower concept of leader's empowering behavior. In fact, participative decision making is sub-dimension of empowering behavior (Ahearne et al., 2005; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Yukl (2010) also pointed out the difference between delegation and participative behavior. Although delegation can be understood as a type of participative behavior, delegation can be only occurred between leader and follower. Moreover, the reasons for delegation or participative behavior are predicted to be different. For example, leader may delegate their tasks to follower in order to reduce their workload but he or she may not invite

participation with same reason. In a similar vein, leader may not perform empowering behavior to save their time or to get rid of trivial tasks. Although empowering behavior, delegation and participative behavior may have in common, sharing power, Yukl (2010) states that empowering behavior takes the perspective of followers while delegation and participative leadership tend to focus on leader's perspective.

Leader's empowering behavior is often compared with shared leadership since the core element of both behaviors is sharing power (Drescher, Korsgaard, Welpe, Picot, & Wigand, 2014). However, there is difference between empowering behavior and shared leadership. For example, empowering leaders provide employees autonomy and encourage them to develop their self-leadership skills; whereas, shared leadership focuses on having social interactions and influence over each other (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002). Although leader's empowering behavior emphasizes self-leadership skills of employees, it does not imply that empowering leaders or empowered employees accept multiple leaders within team (Drescher et al., 2014). In other words, although leaders may exhibit empowering behavior, they may take a vertical approach rather than a shared approach. In that perspective, empowering behavior is distinctive from shared leadership although both styles of behaviors share some common factors.

Researchers also view empowering behavior as a different construct from transformational behavior (e.g., Martin et al., 2013). Even though both leaders' behaviors may be classified as a relation-oriented leader behavior, there are numbers of factors that may clearly distinguish between leader's empowering and transformational behaviors (Martin et al., 2013). For example, charismatic leader who provides vision and intellectual stimulation support their followers does not necessarily mean that he or she empower their followers.

The key activities of leaders' empowering style of behavior are to share power with followers and develop their self-leadership skills by providing support and fostering participation in decision making (Lorinkova et al., 2013; Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002). It is common that researchers assess leader's empowering behavior with multi-item

subscales. According to Arnold et al. (2000), leader's empowering behavior involves with five main activities such as leading by example, participative decision-making, coaching, informing, and showing concern/interacting with the team. Pearce and Sims Jr. (2002) focus on leader's encouraging behaviors that are helpful to develop followers' self-leadership skills including encouraging independent action, encouraging opportunity thinking, encouraging teamwork, encouraging self-development, using participative goal setting, and encouraging self-reward. On the basis of Conger and Kanungo (1988), Hui (1994), and Thomas & Tymon (1994), Ahearne and colleagues (2005) measured leader's empowering behavior using four subscales: enhancing the meaningfulness of work, fostering participation in decision making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints. Although the numbers and titles of items are different for each measure, the core characteristics are quite similar with each other. All measures include the meaning of autonomy, participation in decision making and leaders' supporting behaviors such as coaching, encouraging or informing (Arnold et al., 2000; Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011; Lorinkova et al., 2013; Pearce et al., 2003; Yun, Faraj, & Sims Jr., 2005).

The antecedents of leader's empowering behavior have not been investigated up to now. Instead, the predictors of delegation and consultation were examined (Leana, 1986; Yukl & Fu, 1999). Using two different types of samples, Yukl and Fu (1999) found the importance of followers' characteristics and the relationship between leader and follower as important predictors of delegation and consultation. Specifically, competence, goal congruence, time together, followers' job level were critical factors for delegation and consultation. As followers are perceived as more competent, showed high goal congruence, had worked longer, and had a favorable exchange relationship, leaders tend to delegate more. Similarly, consultation was related with goal congruence, job level, and quality of the leader and member exchange relationship. Much of research has been conducted to examine the effect of leader's empowering behavior as noted in Table 8 (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007). Previous studies have

noted that leader's empowering behavior is positively related to positive attitudes and behaviors (Chen et al., 2007; Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). For example, employees tend to exhibit high job satisfaction and affective commitment to their team and organization when their leaders engage in empowering behavior (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010). Also these employees are likely to demonstrate higher levels of coordination, collective information processing, knowledge sharing and team efficacy; while they tend to show reduced dysfunctional resistance (Lorinkova et al., 2013; Srivastava et al., 2006; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2002). Moreover, previous researchers have investigated the relationship between empowering behavior and job related performance (Ahearne et al., 2005; Raub & Robert, 2010; Vecchio et al., 2010) Ahearne and colleagues (2005) showed the positive relationship between empowering behavior and sales performance. Raub and Rober (2010) demonstrated how leader's empowering behaviors would have direct effects on in-role and affiliative extra-role behaviors. In addition, their results supported that the relationship between empowering behaviors and challenging extra-role fully mediated by psychological empowerment (Raub & Robert, 2010). Zhang and Bartol (2010) investigated the effect of empowering behavior on intrinsic motivation and creative process engagement through psychological empowerment. Furthermore, the study specifically examines the research conducted in South Korea by reviewing major journals in management and psychology. Seven studies investigated the consequences and mediators of empowering leadership. For example, empowering leadership was positively related to job attitudes, psychological capital, learning and job related performances (e.g., 양필석 & 최석봉, 2012; 이호선, 류은영, 류병곤, & 조현, 2013).

Taken all, as indicated in Table 8, most studies have examined empowering leader behavior as an independent variable and investigated the relationship between empowering behavior and job attitudes and psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment was also explored as a key mediating mechanism in the relationship between empowering behavior and work outcomes (e.g., Fong & Shape, 2015).

Table 8. Prior Empirical Studies on Empowering Behaviors

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
Fong & Shape (2015)	Empowering leadership	Psychological empowerment		Individual attitudes and behaviors
Amundsen & Martinsen (2014)	Empowering leadership			Leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, and turnover intention
Hon, Bloom & Crant (2014)	Resistance to change		Modernity climate, empowering leadership, supportive coworkers	Creative performance
Humborstad, Nerstad, & Dysvik (2014)	Empowering leadership		Goal orientations.	In-role and extra-role work performance
Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl & Prussia (2013)	Empowering leadership, ethical leadership	LMX		LMX, subordinate affective commitment, and perception of leader effectiveness
Humborstad & Kuvaas (2013)	Agree on the level of subordinate empowerment expectation			Subordinates' role ambiguity & intrinsic motivation
Lorinkova et al. (2013)	Directive leadership, empowering leadership	Team learning, team behavioral coordination, team empowerment, team mental model		Performance, team compilation, phase of development

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
		development		
Magni & Maruping (2013)	Improvisation		Empowering leadership	Performance
Martin et al. (2013)	Directive leadership, empowering leadership		Satisfaction with leader	Task proficiency, proactive behaviors
Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, (2012)	Empowering leadership	Individual level cognitive demands and cognitive resources		Follower work engagement, follower cognitive demands, follower cognitive resources
Sagnak (2012)	Empowering leadership	Innovative climate		Innovative behavior and innovative climate
van Dierendonck & Dijkstra (2012)	Empowering leadership			Psychological empowerment
van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer & Van Quaquebeke (2012)	Procedural fairness		Empowering leadership	OCB
Carmeli, Schaubroeck, & Tishler (2011)	Empowering leadership	TMT potency	Environment-al uncertainty	TMT behavioral integration, TMT potency and firm performance
Chen, Sharma, Edinger,	Empowering leadership, relationship	Psychological empowerment, affective	Relationship conflict	Innovative teamwork behaviors,

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
Shapiro, & Farh (2011)	conflict	commitment		turnover intentions
Dewettinck & van Ameijde (2011)	Empowering leadership	Psychological empowerment		Job satisfaction, affective commitment
Gao, Janssen, & Shi (2011)	Leader trust		Empowering leadership	Employee voice
Kuo, Lai, & Lee (2011)	Empowering leadership, task-technology fit, compatibility			Knowledge management system usage, task-technology fit, compatibility
Wallace, Johnson, Mathe, & Paul (2011)	Empowering leadership climate	Psychological empowerment	Felt accountability	Sales and service performance
Xue, Bradley & Liang (2011)	Empowering leadership, team climate			Knowledge-sharing behavior and attitude
Hakimi, Van Knippenberg, & Giessner, (2010)	Leaders' trust in their follower's performance and integrity		Leaders' conscientious-ness	Leaders' empowering behaviour
Raub & Robert (2010)	Empowering leadership	Psychological empowerment	Power values	In-role, affiliative extra-role behaviors, challenging extra-role
Vecchio, Justin & Pearce (2010)	Empowering leadership	Dysfunctional resistance		Performance, satisfaction, reduced dysfunctional resistance
Zhang & Bartol, (2010)	Empowering leadership	Psychological empowerment	Empowerment role identity, leader	Intrinsic motivation, creative process

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
			encouragement of creativity	engagement
Clark, Hartline, & Jones (2009)	Commitment to service quality, directive and participative leadership style			Directive, participative, empowering leadership, shared customer-oriented values, role clarity, job satisfaction, commitment to service quality.
Tekleab, Sims, Yun, Tesluk & Cox (2008)	Empowering leadership			Leader effectiveness, subordinate supervisory satisfaction, subordinate self-leadership
Hmieleski, & Ensley (2007)	Top management team heterogeneity		Empowering leadership, directive leadership	New venture performance
Srivastava, Bartol & Locke(2006)	Empowering leadership			Knowledge sharing, team efficacy, performance
Yun, Cox, & Sims Jr, (2006).	Empowering leadership, directive leadership		Follower need for autonomy	Follower self-leadership
Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)	Empowering leadership	Self-efficacy, adaptability	Empowerment readiness	Customer service satisfaction, sales performance
Yun, Faraj, & Sims Jr, (2005)	Empowering leadership, directive leadership		The severity of patient trauma, the degree of team	Team effectiveness, learning opportunities

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
			experience	
Pearce, & Sims Jr (2002)	Empowering leadership, aversive, directive, transactional, transformational			Team effectiveness
Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, (2000)	Empowering leader behavior	Psychological empowerment		Job satisfaction, organizational commitment
Burpitt & Bigoness (1997)	Empowering leadership			Team innovation

3.3 Directive Behavior

Directive behavior tends to assign goals, sets clear expectations and monitor how each individual is performing in accordance with schedule (DeRue, Barnes, & Morgeson, 2010; Euwema, Wendt, & Van Emmerik, 2007). Directive leaders are likely to direct specifically what should be performed, how it should be processed and when the task should be finished (DeRue et al., 2010). When individuals are not performing in a right direction, directive leaders tend to monitor and correct it immediately (DeRue et al., 2010). On the basis of Pearce and Sims Jr. (2002)'s classification, the theoretical roots of the directive leadership come from Theory X management style, initiating structure types of leader behavior from the Ohio State studies and the task oriented types of leader behavior from the Michigan studies (Fleishman, 1953). While theory X leadership focuses on the leader's desire to direct their followers using positional power, initiating structure by the Ohio State studies and the task oriented leader behavior from the Michigan studies both emphasize the leader's role of planning and clarifying followers' role and responsibilities (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002).

Although leader's directive and transactional behaviors both are normally classified as task-oriented leader behavior, the core interest between directive and transactional

behaviors are different. Since transactional leaders are likely to lead their followers using contingent rewards and punishments, those leaders who engage in transactional behaviors are not necessarily interested in providing clear guidance and instructions (Martin et al., 2013). Different from empowering behavior, directive behavior measures tend to use a single dimension except Pearce and Sims Jr. (2002)'s measure. The measure of directive behavior has two key activities such as issuing instructions and commands and assigning goals. The research of Euwema and colleagues (2007) presents directive behavior focusing on giving clear instructions and supervising closely.

There is no research that directly examines the antecedents of directive behavior up to date. However, recent research demonstrated that politically skilled leaders who have high position power are predicted to engage in both initiating structure and consideration which, in turns, positively related to followers' satisfaction (Blickle et al., 2013). As noted in Table 9, a growing body of research demonstrated the effect of directive behavior on employee attitudes and performance at the individual level (Martin et al., 2013). However, not all effects of directive behavior are positive to the individuals or teams. In fact, many studies reported the negative impact of directive behavior on employee attitudes or extra-role performance; while researchers agree the positive effects of directive behavior on efficiency, core task performance or productivity (Judge, Colbert, et al., 2004; Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002). For example, research found out the positive relationship between directive behavior and participation which in turn, was positively related to performance but negatively related to satisfaction (Kahai, Sosik, & Avolio, 2004). Somech (2006) noted that the relationship between directive behavior and team reflection was strengthened when functional heterogeneity was low. Yun and colleagues (2015) exhibited that directive behavior is likely to bring better results when trauma severity was high or when the team was inexperienced. Recent meta-analytic results uncovered that initiating structure is significantly related to leader job performance and group- organization performance (Judge, Colbert, et al., 2004). Lorinkova and colleagues (2013) investigated the positive relationship between directive behavior and role clarity and responsibilities through their lap study. Martin and

colleagues (2013) demonstrated that directive behavior improved work unit core task proficiency, but not proactive behaviors. However, when work unit showed high satisfaction with a leader, directive behavior exhibited proactivity. Also, there is negative relationship between directive behavior and team cohesiveness (Somech, 2006; Wendt, Euwema, & Van Emmerik, 2009). Investigating the major journals published in South Korea, there was only one study that explored directive leadership and how it was positively related to leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (이도화, 위효외, 이종법, & 박은철, 2011).

In summary, as noted in Table 9, there is not much research examining directive leadership solely. Instead, directive behavior is often examined with empowering behavior or consideration. Also, most studies examining directive behavior exhibited the negative relationship between directive leadership and job attitudes. Up to now, no empirical research has found the significant relationship between directive leadership and proactive behavior.

Table 9. Prior Empirical Studies on Directive behaviors

Study	Independent Variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
Blickle et al. (2013)	Leader position Power	Initiating structure, consideration	Leader political skill	Follower job satisfaction
Lorinkova et al. (2013)	Directive leadership, empowering leadership	Team learning, team behavioral coordination, team empowerment, team mental model development		Performance, team compilation, phase of development
Martin et al. (2013)	Directive leadership, empowering leadership		Satisfaction with leader	Task proficiency, proactive behaviors
Lambert,	Leader	Trust in the		Needed and

Study	Independent Variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
Tepper, Carr, Holt & Barelka (2012)	consideration, initiating structure	supervisor		received on employees' work-related attitudes , OCB
Sauer (2011)	Directive, participative leadership		New leader status	Leadership effectiveness, self-confident, team performance.
DeRue et al. (2010)	Team leader behaviors (directive team leadership, coaching team leadership)	Team member effort	Leader charisma, team member self-efficacy	Team performance
Neubert et al. (2008)	Initiating structure, servant leadership	Regulatory focus motivations		In-role performance, deviant, helping, creative behavior
Euwema, Wendt, & Van Emmerik (2007)	Directive leadership, supportive leadership		Culture	Group organizational citizenship behavior
Hmieleski & Ensley (2007)	Top management, team heterogeneity		Empowering, directive leadership	New venture performance
Keller (2006)	Transformational leadership, initiating structure, subordinate ability, intrinsically satisfying task		Type of R&D	Team performance (technical quality, schedule performance, and cost performance)
Schreiber & Carley (2006)	Knowledge base		Directive, participative leadership	Performance

Study	Independent Variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
Somech (2006)	Functional heterogeneity, team reflection	Reflection	Directive, participative leadership	Team in-role performance, team innovation, team reflection
Yun, Cox, & Sims Jr. (2006)	Empowering leadership, directive leadership		Follower need for autonomy	Follower self-leadership
Somech (2005)	Directive, participative leadership	Empowerment, organizational commitment		Team in-role performance, team innovation
Yun et al. (2005)	Empowering leadership, directive leadership		The severity of patient trauma, the degree of team experience	Team effectiveness, learning opportunities
Judge, Piccolo & Ilies (2004)	Initiating structure, consideration			Follower satisfaction (leader satisfaction, job satisfaction), motivation, leader effectiveness, job performance, group–organization performance
Kahai et al. (2004)	Participative, directive Leadership		Problem structure	Participation, performance, satisfaction
Sagie, Zaidman, Amichai-Hamburger, Te'eni,	Participative decision-making, leader directiveness	Information sharing and exerting effort		Job satisfaction, affective organizational

Study	Independent Variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
and Schwartz (2002)				commitment
Stoker et al. (2001)	Consideration, initiating structure, charisma, participative, coaching, the need for direction, self-efficacy		The need for direction, self-efficacy	Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived team effectiveness, burnout
Sagie (1996)	Leader's communication style (directiveness), participative goal setting		Participative goal setting	Team performance, personal work attitudes (goal commitment, task easiness, task satisfaction)
Keller (1992)	Transformational leadership, initiating structure		Type of R&D	Project quality

3.4 Empowering versus Directive Behavior

Recognizing the distinctive characteristics of both leader behaviors, researchers have started to examine both empowering and directive behaviors simultaneously in one model (Martin et al., 2013). Early researchers have compared leader's directive behaviors with participative behaviors (Sagie, 1996). For example, Sagie (1996) examined the effects of directive and participative behaviors on work attitudes and team performance. Somech (2005) investigated the effect of leader's directive and participative leaderships on in-role performance and innovation. While directive leadership increased the school-staff team in-role performance, participative leadership demonstrated a positive relationship between participative behavior and school-staff team innovation. In addition, the mediating mechanism was also different between

directive leadership and participative leadership. In the directive leadership–performance relationship, organizational commitment was a key mediator, whereas empowerment mediated in the relationship between participative leadership and innovation. Starting from the study of Yun and colleagues (2005), researchers have begun to investigate how empowering behavior or directive behavior may exhibit different impacts on attitudes, performance and leadership effectiveness. Lorinkova and colleagues (2013) found out that leader's directive behavior was effective to lead team in the initial stage. However, as time passes, teams led by an empowering leader exhibited higher performance through higher learning, coordination, empowerment, and mental model development. Recent research indicated the positive effect of empowering leadership on unit core task proficiency and proactivity (Martin et al., 2013). Different from empowering leadership, the effect of directive leadership on proactivity was not significant. Table 10 shows the empirical studies investigating empowering and directive behaviors in one framework.

Table 10. Prior Empirical Studies on Empowering versus Directive Behaviors

Study	Independent Variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
Lorinkova et al.(2013)	Directive leadership, empowering leadership	Team learning, team behavioral coordination, team empowerment, team mental model development		Performance, team compilation, phase of development
Martin et al. (2013)	Directive leadership, empowering leadership		Satisfaction with leader	Task proficiency, proactive behaviors
Sauer (2011)	Directive, participative leadership		New leader status	Leadership effectiveness, self-confident, team performance

Study	Independent Variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
DeRue et al. (2010)	Team leader behaviors (directive team leadership, coaching team leadership)	Team member effort	Leader charisma, team member self-efficacy	Team performance
Hmieleski & Ensley (2007)	Top management team heterogeneity		Empowering, directive leadership	New venture performance
Schreiber & Carley (2006)	Knowledge base		Directive, participative leadership	Performance
Somech (2006)	Functional heterogeneity, team reflection,	Reflection	Directive, participative leadership	Team in-role performance, team innovation, team reflection,
Yun et al. (2006)			Follower need for autonomy	Follower self-leadership
Somech (2005)	Directive, participative leadership	Empowerment, organizational commitment		Team in-role performance, team innovation
Yun et al. (2005)	Empowering leadership, directive leadership		The severity of patient trauma, the degree of team experience	Team effectiveness, learning opportunities
Kahai et al. (2004)	Participative, directive Leadership		Problem structure	Participation, performance, satisfaction
Sagie et al. (2002)	Participative decision-making, leader directiveness	Information sharing and exerting effort		Job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment
Sagie (1996)	Leader's communication style (directiveness),		Participative goal Setting	Team performance, personal work attitudes (goal commitment, task

Study	Independent Variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent Variable
	goal setting (participative goal setting)			easiness, task interest, achievement satisfaction, and task satisfaction).

4. Summary

Despite the important role of leader behaviors on proactivity, previous research has not much paid attention how different types of leader behaviors may promote or inhibit followers' proactive behaviors in one framework. In addition, there are not much research investigating the mediating mechanism in the relationship between empowering or directive behavior and proactive behaviors. Most studies have examined psychological empowerment as a mediator between empowering behavior and outcomes (Fong & Snape, 2015). Moreover, no study has explored the effects of empowering and directive behaviors on proactive behaviors in South Korea.

III. Regulatory Focus Motivation

This section exhibits the overview of regulatory focus and examines its previous studies. The first part of this section is to introduce the definition of regulatory focus and the distinct concepts of promotion focus and prevention focus. Moreover, how promotion focus and prevention focus are different from each other is thoroughly examined. The second part of this section is to compare how regulatory focus is similar and different from other similar constructs such as approach and avoidance temperaments. Then, literature reviews of regulatory focus are presented. Lastly, the study will discuss the summary of this section.

1. Overview of Regulatory Focus

Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) is defined as "the tendencies to adopt either a promotion or prevention focus at the strategic level" (Ferris et al., 2013, p.343). While a promotion focus is referred to "a tendency to emphasize the presence or absence of positive stimuli, satisfaction of nurturance needs, and focus on attaining ideals and advancement, prevention focus is defined as a tendency to emphasize the presence or absence of negative stimuli, satisfaction of safety needs, and focus on safety and responsibility" (Ferris et al., 2013, p. 343). Although a growing body research has applied regulatory focus as a chronic disposition (Wallace & Chen, 2006), scholars have started to examine regulatory focus as a motivational state that can be changed or influenced by situational cues (Friedman & Förster, 2001; Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins, 1999). While situational cues that emphasize the needs for growth, ideal goals and potential goals tend to induce a promotion focus motivation, situational cues that focus on security, rules and responsibility, potential loss are likely to evoke a prevention focus motivation (Gorman et al., 2012; Higgins, 1997, 1998; Johnson & Chang, 2008). Originally, Higgins (1997, 1998) suggested the orthogonal factors of promotion and prevention focus dimensions. As implied in Table 11, although both promotion focus and prevention focus are goal-directed, the goals and psychological situations are quite the opposite (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Individuals with promotion focus pay more attention for the gain and non-gain situations (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Since their need is to achieve growth, the absence of positive outcomes is regarded as a failure (De Cremer, Mayer, van Dijke, Schouten, & Bardes, 2009). On the other hand, individuals with prevention focus care for loss and non-loss situations (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Given their emphasis on security, those individuals may satisfy when they are able to avoid loss situation (De Cremer et al., 2009). Putting together, the opportunity of growth or development is critical to motivate promotion-focused individuals; whereas the assurance of security is crucial for prevention-focus individuals (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). The second part of this section will examine

how regulatory focus is similar and different with other related constructs.

Table 11. Promotion Focus versus Prevention Focus

	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
Needs	Growth	Security
Goals/Standards	Ideal	Ought
Psychological situations	Gain/non-gain situations	Loss/non-loss

Extracted from Brockner & Higgins, 2001.

2. Regulatory Focus and Other Similar Constructs

Similar with regulatory focus theory, approach and avoidance temperaments share approach and avoidance themes (Ferris et al., 2013; Ferris et al., 2011). However, there are several distinctive features between two theories (Elliot & Thrash, 2010). As noted in Table 12, approach and avoidance temperaments are defined as "the existence of biologically based individual differences in sensitivity toward positive or negative outcomes" (Ferris et al., 2011, p.139). Approach and avoidance temperaments are stable since it is rooted in biological bases; whereas regulatory focus motivation can be changed by situational cues (Ferris et al., 2013). While regulatory focus provides specific strategies to achieve goals, approach and avoidance temperaments operate only at the system level (Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012). Different from approach and avoidance temperaments, regulatory focus theory emphasizes different strategic means to accomplish different desired end states (Ferris et al., 2013). Recognizing the common themes of approach and avoidance orientation, Elliot and Thrash (2002, 2010) have classified certain personality traits as indicators of latent approach and avoidance temperaments. According to their research and results of factor analysis (Elliot & Thrash, 2002), behavioral activation system (BAS), learning(LGO) and performance-approach goal orientation(PPGO), positive affectivity, extraversion are characterized by approach temperament, whereas behavioral inhibition system (BIS), and performance-avoidance goal orientation (PAGO), negative affectivity, neuroticism are characterized

by avoidance temperament.

Table 12. Classification between Approach and Avoidance Temperament and Regulatory Focus

	Approach/Avoidance Temperament	Regulatory Focus
Definition	Defined as "the existence of biologically based individual differences in sensitivity toward positive or negative outcomes" (Ferris et al., 2011, P.139).	Defined as "the tendencies to adopt either a promotion or prevention focus at the strategic level" (Ferris et al., 2013, p. 343). While a promotion focus is defined as "a tendency to emphasize the presence or absence of positive stimuli, satisfaction of nurturance needs, and focus on attaining ideals and advancement, promotion focus is defined as a tendency to emphasize the presence or absence of negative stimuli, satisfaction of safety needs, and focus on safety and responsibility" (Ferris et al., 2013, p. 343).
Differences	As rooted in biological bases, approach/avoidance is stable; whereas regulatory focus motivation can be changed by situational cues. Also, while regulatory focus provides specific strategies to achieve goals, approach and avoidance temperaments operate only at the system level (Lanaj et al., 2012).	
Constructs	[Approach Temperament] ・ Behavioral activation system (BAS) ・ Learning goal orientation (LGO) ・ Performance-approach goal orientation (PPGO) ・ Positive emotionality ・ Extraversion [Avoidance Temperament] ・ Behavioral inhibition system	[Approach Orientation] ・ Promotion focus [Avoidance Orientation] ・ Prevention focus

	Approach/Avoidance Temperament	Regulatory Focus
	(BIS) ・ Performance-avoidance goal orientation (PAGO) ・ Negative emotionality ・ Neuroticism	

In Table 13, the differences between each construct of latent approach and avoidance temperaments and regulatory focus are examined separately. Due to its common themes of approach and avoidance orientations, these constructs have some similarities with regulatory focus. However as noted in Table 13, regulatory focus has some distinct features which differentiated this construct from other similar constructs. For example, while BIS and BAS are based on biological structure and focus in general traits, regulatory focus is rooted on socialization and emphasizes on achievement motivations (Elliot & Thrash, 2010). Goal orientation is usually categorized as learning, proving and avoiding which is similar with promotion and prevention focus classification. However, goal orientation is focused on the characteristics of goals individuals select (learning or proving); whereas regulatory focus is concerned with the strategic means used to attain these goals. Thus, individuals with learning goal orientations may perform the tasks with either a promotion or a prevention way (Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier, 2009). Compared to regulatory focus, certain constructs such as positive/negative emotionality and extraversion/neuroticism cover only limited dimensions. Taking an affective approach, positive and negative emotionality are mainly focused on affect; while extraversion and neuroticism as trait adjective approach centrally emphasize on sociability factor (Elliot & Thrash, 2010). Taken together, these constructs share common theme of approach and avoidance orientation with regulatory focus, regulatory focus as a motivational construct has distinctive characteristics and may change or shape by situational cues (Ferris et al., 2013). Recognizing this, recent studies have examined the personality traits of latent approach and avoidance temperaments as antecedents of regulatory focus motivations (Gorman et al., 2012;

Lanaj et al., 2012).

Table 13. Conceptual Differences between Regulatory Focus and Other Similar Constructs

Similar Constructs	Approach	Differences with Regulatory Focus
Behavioral activation(BAS)/ Inhibition system(BIS)	Motivational system approach	BIS and BAS are based on biological structure and have multidimentional constructs (e.g., rewards, drive, fun seeking). Also these items are general in focus. Regulatory focus rooted on socialization and emphasizes on achievement motivations (Elliot & Thrash, 2010).
Goal orientation (LGO, PPGO, PAGO)	Achievement goal approach	Goal orientation is focused on the characteristics of goals individuals select (learning or proving), whereas regulatory focus is concerned with the strategic means used to attain goals. Thus, individuals with learning goal orientations may perform the tasks with either a promotion or a prevention way (Wallace et al., 2009).
Positive/negative emotionality	Affective approach	Affect is a key construct for positive and negative emotionality.
Extraversion/ Neuroticism	Trait adjective approach	Taking trait approach, extraversion and neuroticism focus on sociability factor.

Source: Elliot & Thrash (2010).

3. Literature Review

3.1 Antecedents of Regulatory Focus

Self-regulation which refers to "the process in which people seek to align themselves with appropriate goals or standards" (Brockner & Higgins, 2001, p. 37) is critical to understand the behaviors of individuals. According to Higgins (1997, 1998), individuals have two basic self-regulation systems, a promotion focus and prevention

focus. Since regulatory focus covers central parts of motivations, researchers have examined in various topics such as goal attainment, decision making, creativity, information processing and persuasion, and feedback and motivation (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Recent meta studies have investigated the antecedents and consequences of regulatory focus (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012). As antecedents of regulatory focus, both studies mainly examined the personal traits of approach and avoidance temperaments such as BAS/BIS, goal orientations (LGO, PPGO, PAGO), extraversion/neuroticism and positive/negative affectivity. In addition to that, other relevant traits such as conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness, self-esteem, self-efficacy, anxiety and optimism were examined (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2012). Furthermore, work outcomes and job attitudes were investigated as consequences of regulatory focus examined (e.g., Gorman et al., 2012). However, the relationship between regulatory focus and proactive behaviors are not examined in both meta studies. Please refer to the Figure 2 & 3 for detail.

Figure 2. Lanaj and Colleagues Meta Model

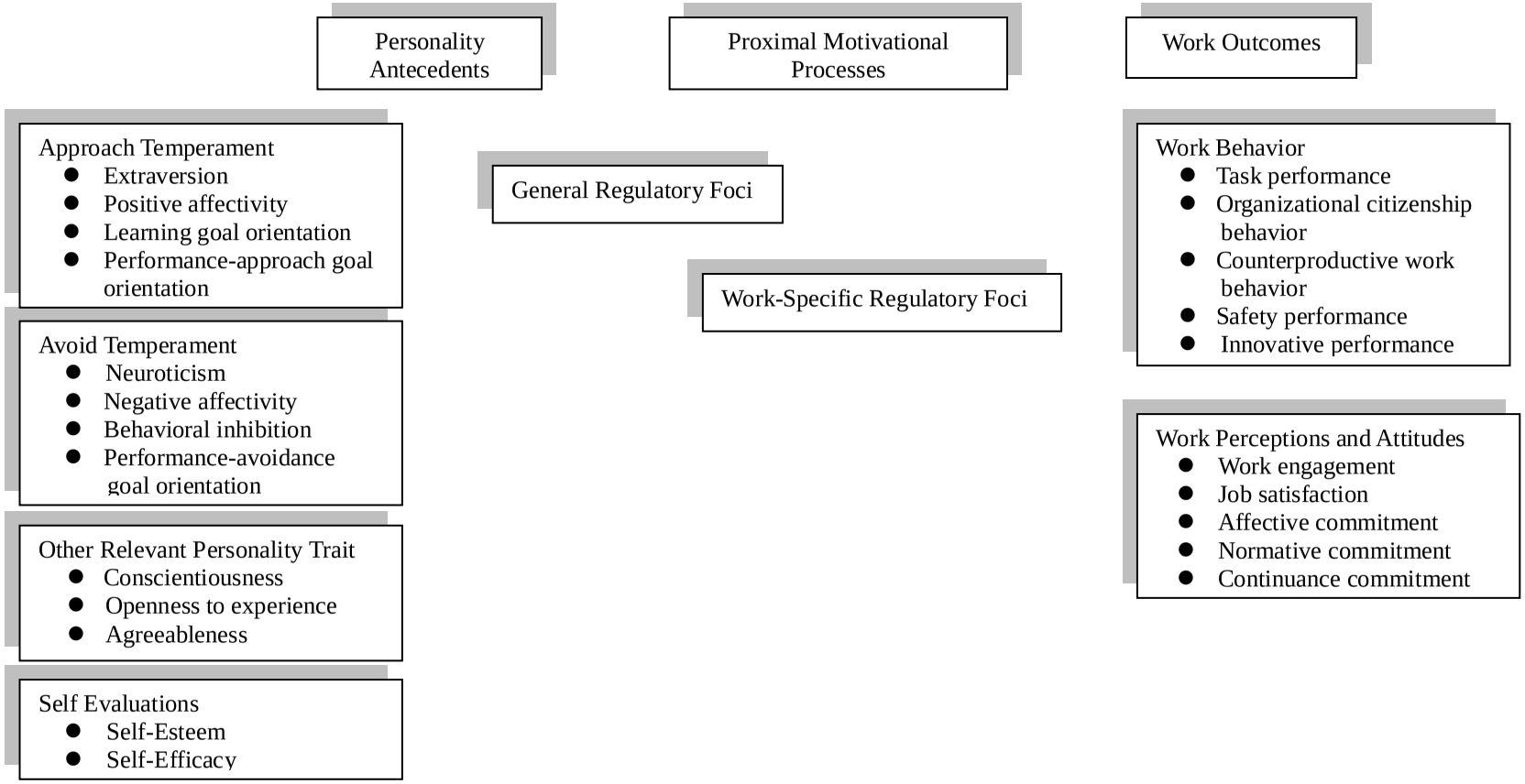
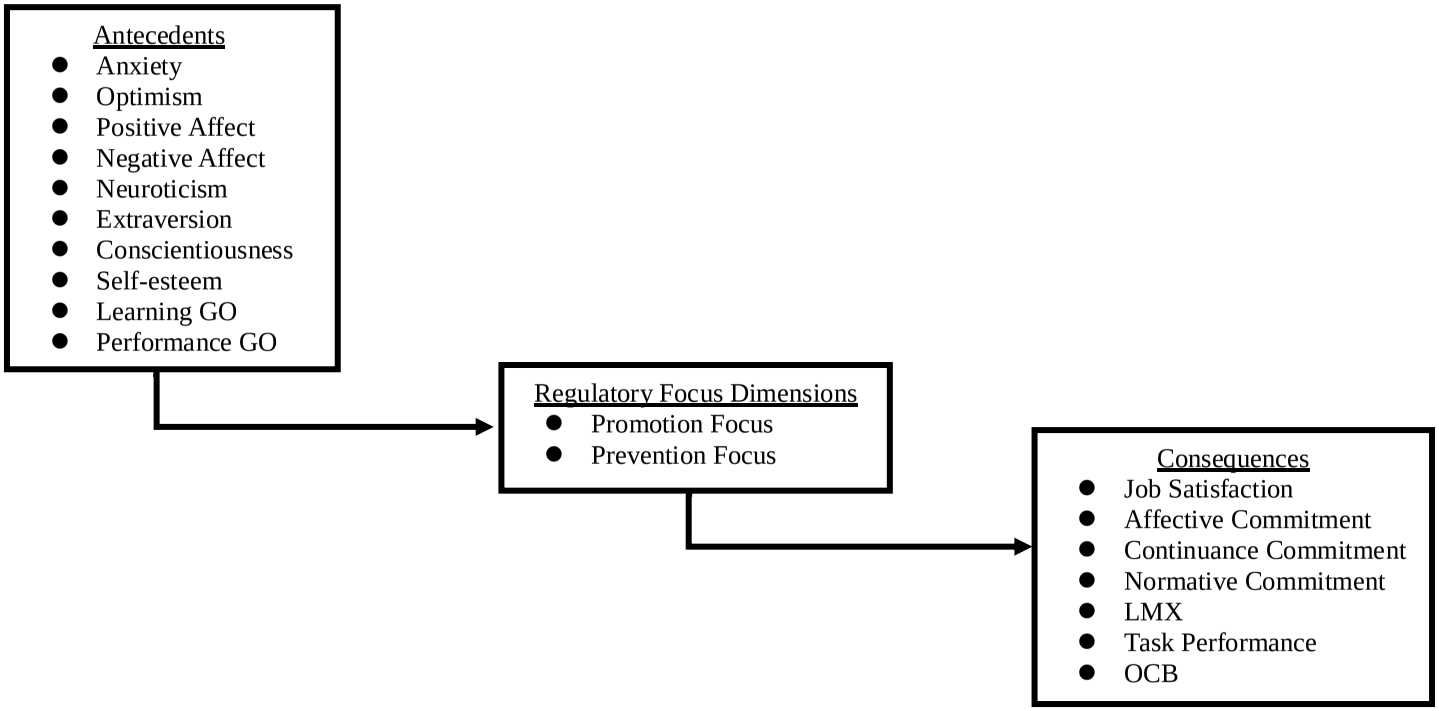


Figure 3. Gorman and Colleagues Meta Model



As noted in Table 14, the personal traits of approach and avoidance temperaments were positively related to promotion focus in general (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012). Specifically, extraversion, positive affectivity, behavioral approach system, learning goal orientation, openness to experience, agreeableness, self-esteem, self-efficacy and optimism were significantly related to promotion focus. On the other hand, neuroticism, negative affectivity, behavioral inhibition system, and anxiety were positively associated with prevention focus. Interestingly, conscientiousness was positively related to both promotion focus and prevention focus in both studies.

Table 14. Antecedents of Regulatory Focus

Variables	Lanaj et al., 2012 Meta		Gorman et al., 2012 Meta	
	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
Behavioral activation system (BAS)	+	N/A	N/A	N/A
Behavioral inhibition system (BIS)	N/A	+	N/A	N/A
Learning goal orientation (LGO)	+	N/A	+	N/A
Performance-approach goal orientation (PPGO)	+	N/A	N/A	+
Performance-avoidance goal orientation (PAGO)	N/A	+	N/A	N/A
Positive emotionality	+	N/A	+	
Negative Emotionality	N/A	+		+
Extraversion	+	N/A	+	-
Neuroticism	N/A	+	-	+
Conscientiousness	+	+	+	+
Openness	+	N/A	N/A	N/A
Anxiety	N/A	N/A	-	+

Variables	Lanaj et al., 2012 Meta		Gorman et al., 2012 Meta	
	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
Optimism	N/A	N/A	+	N/A
Self-efficacy	+	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-esteem	+	-	+	-

3.2 Consequences of Regulatory Focus

Moreover, the consequences of promotion focus and prevention focus are known to be different (Wallace & Chen, 2006). Promotion focus was positively related to work engagement, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and continuance organizational commitment, LMX, task performance, OCB, and innovative performance while it was negatively related to CWB (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012). Whereas, prevention focus was negatively associated with job satisfaction and positively related to safety performance and CWB but the relationships between prevention focus and task performance and LMX were not significant. Please refer to Table 15 for detailed information. Taken all, the findings of both meta studies indicate that promotion focus is generally related to positive work outcomes and job attitudes; while prevention focus is negatively or not significantly related to job related performance except safety performance.

Table 15. Consequences of Regulatory Focus

Variables	Lanaj et al., 2012 Meta		Gorman et al., 2012 Meta	
	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
Task performance	+	Null	+	N/A
Organization citizenship behavior (OCB)	+	N/A	+	N/A

Variables	Lanaj et al., 2012 Meta		Gorman et al., 2012 Meta	
	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus	Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
Counter productive work behavior (CWB)	-	+	N/A	N/A
Safety performance	N/A	+	N/A	N/A
Innovative performance	+	N/A	N/A	N/A
Work engagement	+	N/A	N/A	N/A
Job satisfaction	+	-	+	-
Affective commitment	+	N/A	+	N/A
Normative commitment	+	+	+	+
Continuance commitment	+	+	N/A	+
LMX	N/A	N/A	+	Null

As noted in Table 16, regulatory focus has been studied mostly in organizational psychology field (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). Although scholars have found that individuals may change their regulatory focus motivations by situational cues (Neubert et al., 2008), the understanding of regulatory focus as motivational states in workplace is far limited. Furthermore, given the powerful position and influence of leaders, it is critical to examine the role of leadership in regulatory focus framework. However, there is a paucity of studies integrating regulatory focus theory and leadership literature (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). As indicated in Table 16, there are few studies examining regulatory focus in the leadership literature. For example, Hamstra and collegues (2014) found the importance of regulatory foci fit between leaders and followers in order to make followers feel valued. Specifically, followers with high prevention focus felt more valued when their leaders exhibited transactional behaviors,

while followers with high promotion focus felt more valued when their leaders demonstrated transformational behaviors (Hamstra, Sassenberg, Van Yperen, & Wisse, 2014). De Cremer and colleagues (2009) exhibited that self-sacrificial leadership which emphasizes the duties and obligations is likely to induce the motivations of prevention focused followers to engage in prosocial behaviors. Their findings indicated that the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and prosocial behavior is stronger among followers who are high in prevention focus. Also, researchers investigate leader behaviors as situational cues that induce followers' regulatory focus motivations (Neubert et al., 2008). Based on social cognitive theory, leaders as a influential model are likely to shape followers' regulatory focus motivations (Neubert et al., 2008). Yet, only Neubert and colleagues (2008, 2013) examined how leader's specific behaviors may induce followers' regulatory focus motivations. Their results demonstrated the positive relationship between initiating structure and followers' prevention focus motivation, and the positive relationship between servant leadership and followers' promotion focus motivation. Also, Neubert and colleagues (2013) found that ethical leadership induces both followers' promotion and prevention focus motivations.

Table 16. Prior Empirical Studies on Regulatory Focus

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
Hamstra et al.(2014)	Leader's regulatory focus, transformational leadership, transactional leadership		Followers' regulatory focus (regulatory fit)	Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, feeling of being valued
Beersma, Homan, Van Kleef & De Dreu (2013)	Followers' regulatory focus		Outcome inter-dependence	Work engagement, team performance, error intolerance, coordination
Neubert et al. (2013)	Ethical Leadership	Followers' regulatory	LMX	Extra-role compliance

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
		focus		behavior, normative commitment, affective commitment, extra-role voice behavior
Sacramento, Fay & West (2013)	Challenge stressors		Followers' regulatory focus	Creativity
Steidle, Gockel, & Werth (2013)	Followers' regulatory focus			Perceived importance of work characteristics (existence, relatedness, growth)
Strobel, Tumasjan, Spörrle, & Welpe (2013)	Future focus	Followers' regulatory focus		OCB
de Lange, Bal, Van der Heijden, Jong, & Schaufeli, (2011)	Psychological contract breach (concerning transactional and relational obligations)		Followers' regulatory focus, future time perspective	Work motivation
Hamstra et al.(2011)	Transformational leadership, transactional leadership		Followers' regulatory focus	Turnover intentions
Stam et al. (2010)	Follower-focused visions	Follower ideal self (desired image of the self)	Followers' regulatory focus	Follower performance
Stam et al.(2010)	Leader's vision (promotion/ prevention appeal)		Followers' regulatory focus	Follower performance
De Cremer et	Self-sacrificial		Prevention	Prosocial

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
al. (2009)	leadership		focus	behavior (OCB)
Moss (2009)	Visionary leadership, supportive leadership, self-esteem, avoidant attachment, anxious attachment, personal belief, inspirational communication, personal recognition		Followers' promotion focus	Engagement, promotion focus self-esteem, personal belief, avoidant attachment, anxious attachment
Pierro, Cicero, & Higgins (2009)	Followers' regulatory focus		Leader's group proto-typicality	Satisfaction from work with leader
Tseng & Kang (2009)	Followers' regulatory focus	Transforma-tional leadership		Job satisfaction, uncertainty towards organizational change
Whitford & Moss (2009)	Visionary leadership, personal recognition		Followers' regulatory focus, goal orientation, locations	Job satisfaction, work engagement
Neubert et al.(2008)	Initiating structure, servant leadership	Followers' regulatory focus		In role performance, deviant behavior, helping behavior, creative behavior
Wallace, Little, & Shull (2008)	Followers' regulatory focus		Task complexity	Safety, production
Wu et al. (2008)	Leader's regulatory focus			Creativity
Sassenberg, Jonas, Shah,	Group power		Followers' regulatory	Group value

Study	Independent variable	Mediator	Moderator	Dependent variable
& Brazy (2007)			focus	
Benjamin & Flynn (2006)	Transformational leadership, transactional leadership		Followers' regulatory mode (locomotion/ assessment)	Increasing motivation, eliciting positive evaluations
Moss et al. (2006)	Transformational leadership, corrective-avoidant leadership, emotional management		Followers' regulatory focus	Work attitudes, transformational leadership, corrective-avoidant leadership
Förster, Higgins, & Bianco, (2003)	Regulatory focus influences		Simple tasks, complex tasks	Speed/accuracy decisions
Lockwood et al. (2002)	Followers' regulatory focus		Role model (positive & negative)	Academic motivation
Higgins, Shah, & Friedman (1997)	Emotional responses		Promotion and prevention goal strength	Goal attainment
Crowe & Higgins (1997)	Followers' regulatory focus		Task, (difficulty, alternatives, detection task)	Decision-making

4. Summary

Despite a growing interest in studying regulatory focus, the current literature of regulatory focus has some limitations. First, although a few previous studies have investigated regulatory focus as an independent or moderator in predicting work outcomes, most regulatory focus studies are conducted in laboratory using experimental

design. Second, given the high influential role and authority of leader, leaders may affect the motivational state of followers (Neubert et al., 2008). However, there is a paucity of studies examining how leaders' specific behaviors may induce followers' regulatory focus motivations. Lastly, although promotion and prevention focus are likely to bring different work outcomes, there has not been much research to examine the different effects of regulatory focus motivations on proactive behaviors. Based on social cognitive theory, this study intends to fill the gaps in extant research by investigating how leader's empowering and directive behaviors may evoke different regulatory focus motivations in their followers which in turns, lead to followers' proactive behaviors in workplace.

Chapter 3. Hypothesis Development

This chapter demonstrates the theoretical model that links leader's behaviors and followers' regulatory focus motivations as antecedents of followers' proactive behaviors and the situational conditions in this process. The first part of this chapter depicts the proposed theoretical model taking an interactional perspective (see Figure 4). Then, this section presents the research hypotheses, including (a) the relationship between leader's empowering and directive behaviors and followers' proactive behaviors (b) the mediating roles of followers' regulatory focus motivations in the relationships between empowering or directive behaviors and followers' proactive behaviors, and (c) the situational conditions in which the proposed relationships become stronger or weaker.

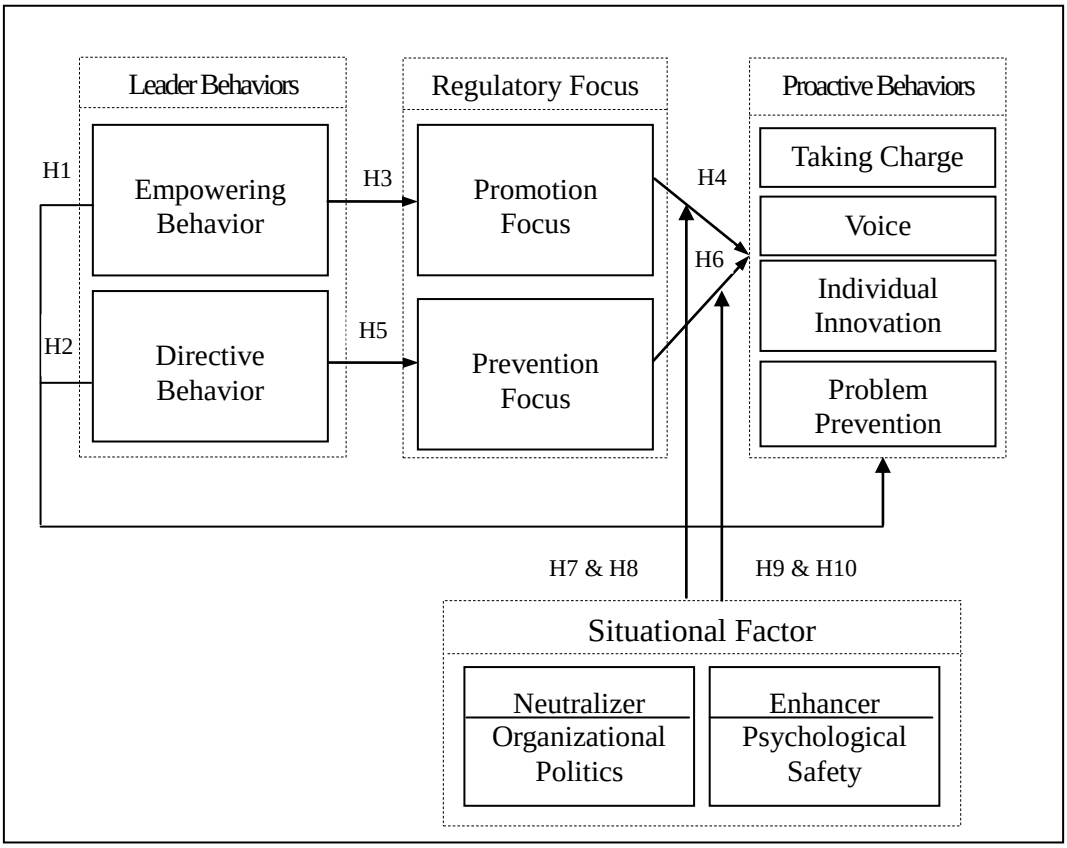
I. Conceptual Framework

Based on prior literature reviews (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Martin et al., 2013; Parker et al., 2010; Parker & Collins, 2010; Yukl, 2010) and my own review of the literatures regarding proactive behaviors and leader behaviors, this study selects leader's empowering and directive behaviors as antecedents of proactive behaviors. Then, the study suggests how empowering and directive behaviors influence the regulatory focus motivations of followers which in turns, may lead to proactive behaviors in different ways. Lastly, the study introduces the situational moderators that influence the effect of regulatory focus motivations on followers' proactive behaviors.

An interactional perspective suggests that it is necessary to examine contextual factors to deepen the understanding of organizational dynamics. Researchers view the value of taking an interactional approach to predict job related performances (Hochwarter, Witt, Treadway, & Ferris, 2006). Although followers' motivations are important factors to predict followers' proactive behaviors, the effects might be changed depending on situational factors such as organizational politics and psychological safety.

In other words, there are situational factors that increase or decrease the risks of engaging proactive behaviors. Yet, there is a paucity of research examining various situational factors that may influence the effects of followers' motivations on proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006). To fill the gap in the literature, this study exhibits a conceptual framework that demonstrates how leader's two types of behaviors and may influence followers' proactive behaviors through followers' regulatory focus motivations and the situational conditions in this process. Figure 4 depicts the conceptual model of this study.

Figure 4. Conceptual Model



II. Hypothesis Development

1. Leader Behaviors and Followers' Proactive Behaviors

1.1 Empowering Behavior and Followers' Proactive Behaviors

As the core elements of proactive behavior indicates, risks and challenges maybe involved in performing proactive behaviors due to the nature of change and future focused features (Ahearne et al., 2005). For example, individuals may perceive a difficulty when trying new methods or expressing their opinions when external control or situational pressure is high (Griffin et al., 2007). Individuals may require adequate conditions or resources to engage in such behavior (Ohly & Fritz, 2007). Given the high power and authority required to make an important decision, such promotion, rewards, and incentives, the behaviors of leaders tend to influence their followers in various ways (Neubert et al., 2008). Compared to leaders who show less empowering behaviors, leaders who demonstrate empowering behavior are likely to promote their followers' proactive behaviors by providing the necessary conditions and resources.

First, a leader's empowering behavior may foster the necessary conditions for proactive behavior by offering autonomy and opportunity to establish their own ways of performing tasks (Martin et al., 2013). Griffin et al. (2007) noted that individuals are likely to perform proactive behaviors in "weak" situations. Under these weak circumstances, individuals have more autonomy and opportunity to set their own goals and achieve them independently, which may be better conditions for the emergence of proactive behaviors (Griffin et al. 2007; Ohly & Fritz, 2007). However, when external control is high and specific guidelines are established for tasks, there is not much room for individuals to take a proactive or innovative approach. Moreover, the literature on proactive behavior emphasizes the importance of flexible role orientation or role breadth self-efficacy as a predictor of proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006). Considering the main activities of empowering behaviors, empowered followers are likely to have more

broad or flexible role concepts since they have more discretion and opportunity to shape their own roles (Martin et al., 2013). As a result, followers who are supervised by empowering leaders are likely to perceive an opportunity to perform more broad tasks, which in turn brings a high level of proactive behaviors.

Second, according to self-determination theory (SDT), the work environment may influence the level of basic needs by providing necessary resources (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Given the critical role of a leader, a leader's specific behaviors are likely to affect how followers satisfy their basic needs (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, & Sels, 2012). Since the key activities of empowering leaders are to provide autonomy, support, and encouragement to their followers, empowered followers are predicted to fulfill their need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness through their leader's empowering behaviors, which in turn may produce intrinsic motivation (Martin et al., 2013). When employees satisfy their basic needs, they are likely to exhibit positive attitudes and outcomes since they are autonomously motivated (Martin et al., 2013). When individuals are internally motivated, they tend to invest their efforts in more challenging behaviors that may help improve the current work situation. (Ohly & Fritz, 2007). Moreover, considering the main focus of empowering behavior is relational-oriented, leaders with empowering behaviors are likely to be emotionally attached to their followers and put effort into maintaining a good relationship with them (Bass, 1990). In addition, leaders with relational-oriented behaviors tend to respect and encourage their followers to feel a sense of confidence when performing their duties (DeRue et al., 2010). Since individuals need to be self-directed to engage in proactive behavior, it might be more useful to receive emotional support and encouragement than direct guidance (Martin et al., 2013). Given all of the above information, a leader's empowering behavior is likely to increase proactive behaviors by offering autonomy and emotional support and fulfilling the employees' basic needs.

H1. Empowering behavior is positively related to followers' proactive behaviors.

H 1a Empowering behavior is positively related to followers' taking charge behavior.

H 1b Empowering behavior is positively related to followers' voice behavior.

H 1c Empowering behavior is positively related to followers' innovative behavior.

H 1d Empowering behavior is positively related to followers' problem prevention.

1.2 Directive Behavior and Followers' Proactive Behaviors

The key activities of directive behavior are to give instructions and clarify the roles and responsibilities of followers (House, 1996). Different from empowering leadership, it is predicted that a leader's directive behavior may inhibit the followers' proactive behavior since it does not provide the proper conditions and resources to encourage it. Since its tight control and guidance of the followers' behaviors may represent a "strong" situation, followers under directive behavior are reluctant to exhibit initiative behavior (Euwema et al., 2007; Wendt et al., 2009). When leaders direct employees by providing specific guidance and expect their employees to follow it, those employees may feel less autonomy and find it difficult to be self-directed, which inhibits proactive behaviors (Martin et al., 2013; Wendt et al., 2009). Since the core elements of proactive behaviors are self-initiated, future focused, and change oriented (Parker et al., 2006), a leader's directive behavior that emphasizes control and compliance may not be appropriate for the promotion of proactive behaviors. In fact, it is likely that directive behavior may reduce the followers' proactive behaviors by undermining their self-initiated activities and focusing on stability and immediate results (Euwema et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2013).

Since the goals of directive leaders are to avoid risk and maintain the status quo, the followers are likely to exhibit more passive behavior in terms of initiating, bringing

change and considering future outcomes (Martin et al., 2013). These employees are likely to focus on following the directions of their leader, complying with the guidelines, and meeting the planned schedules (Lorinkova et al., 2013). In other words, these followers may not have much reason to take on broad roles and perform proactive behaviors. Moreover, there is risk that proactive behaviors might not be viewed as proper or positive in the eyes of a directive leader (Paine & Organ, 2000). Given all of this, directive behavior is predicted to be negatively related to proactive behaviors since it does not give followers much opportunity to initiate and reduces the motivations to exhibit challenging behavior.

H 2. Directive behavior is negatively related to followers' proactive behaviors.

H 2a. Directive behavior is negatively related to followers' taking charge behavior.

H2b. Directive behavior is negatively related to followers' voice behavior.

H2c. Directive behavior is negatively related to followers' innovative behavior.

H2d. Directive behavior is negatively related to followers' problem prevention.

2. Regulatory Focus Motivation

2.1 Empowering Behavior and Promotion Focus Motivation

Manz and Sims Jr. (1987, p. 119) state that the notion of empowering behavior is a "shift in source of control from the leader to the follower." Since the key role of an empowering leader is "to lead others to lead themselves" (Manz & Sims Jr., 1987, p. 119), the growth and development of followers are also a core interest of empowering

leaders. Among many different types of leaders, empowering leaders may give employees opportunities to achieve growth and development by providing autonomy and chances to participate (Lorinkova et al., 2013). If employees cannot make decisions regarding their own tasks and are required to follow a specific direction or order, it may not be beneficial to developing their own skills and abilities (Lorinkova et al., 2013). Although autonomy or participation may provide an opportunity to grow, employees may not necessarily perceive that they can achieve challenging goals unless they perceive themselves as competent and receive encouragement from their leaders (e.g., Arnold et al., 2000). Ideally, the concepts of empowering behavior involve all necessary factors, such as autonomy, encouragement, and coaching, that are helpful to supporting the growth of followers (Arnold et al., 2000; Lorinkova et al., 2013). Thus, a leader's empowering behavior is likely to promote focus motivation in followers.

According to social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), individuals tend to emulate behaviors that they observe and learn from others. As Bandura (1986, p. 19) states, "virtually all learning phenomena, resulting from direct experience, can occur vicariously by observing other people's behavior and the consequences for them." If the role model is influential people, such as leader, it is more likely that they will adopt the behavior and follow it (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Eissa, 2012). Brockner and Higgins (2001) propose that authorities may lead followers' to regulatory focus motivations through role modeling, use of language, and feedback. Since leaders have the power and ability to shape the motivational states of their followers, their followers' regulatory focus motivations are likely to be dependent on leader behaviors. Brockner and Higgins (2001) suggest that transformational behavior is likely to induce a promotion focus in their followers while transactional behavior tends to elicit a prevention focus. When leaders emphasize the importance of growth and development by providing autonomy and necessary resources, employees may be primed to evoke a promotion focus motivation. Thus, this study suggests a relationship between empowering behavior and promotion focus motivation.

H 3. Empowering behavior is positively related to promotion focus motivation.

Since promotion-focused individuals are not afraid of taking risks and challenging goals, they are likely to generate creativity, risk taking, speed, production, and eagerness (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008; Förster, Higgins, & Bianco, 2003; Liberman et al., 1999; Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011; Wallace & Chen, 2006). Since the absence of negative outcomes is not sufficient to fulfill the needs of promotion-focused individuals, they are likely to engage in more challenging behaviors. In addition, since promotion-focused individuals seek ideal goals and growth, they tend to be self-directed and put effort into achieving their difficult goals (Neubert et al., 2008). Since promotion-focused individuals possess all of the core elements of proactivity, they are likely to exhibit a high level of proactive behaviors. Thus, the promotion focus motivation that is induced by empowering leaders may be one of reasons that leaders' empowering behaviors cause high proactive behaviors. Employees who work with empowering leaders are likely to experience promotion focus motivation, which, in turn, leads to proactive behaviors because the motivation aligns with such behaviors. Recent research has noted the mediating mechanism of promotion focus motivation between servant leadership, helping, and creative behavior (Neubert et al., 2008). Taken altogether, this study predicts that empowering behavior is likely to increase the proactive behaviors of followers through promotion focus motivations.

H 4. Promotion focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between empowering behavior and followers' proactive behaviors.

H 4a. Promotion focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between empowering behavior and followers' taking charge behavior.

H4b. Promotion focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between empowering behavior and followers' voice behavior.

H4c. Promotion focus motivation partially mediates the relationship

between empowering behavior and followers' innovative behavior.

H4d. Promotion focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between empowering behavior and followers' problem prevention.

2.2 Directive Behavior and Prevention Focus Motivation

Different from empowering behavior, directive behavior does not provide much opportunity for employees to make their own decisions when undertaking their tasks (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002). Since directive leaders tend to give specific instructions for specific tasks and provide specific schedules, employees feel less autonomy and discretion regarding their roles, which does not motivate them to seek challenging goals and growth (Neubert et al., 2008). Instead, employees under directive behavior are likely to focus on meeting the expectations of their leaders and completing their assignments on time. Given the high position and powerful role of a leader, it is likely that employees observe their leader's behaviors and learn from them based on social cognitive theory (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Considering the main activities of directive behavior, directive leaders are likely to lead their followers to focus on a limited task and emphasize compliance (Kahai et al., 2004; Neubert et al., 2008). When employees recognize that their leader's only concern is for compliance and minimum requirements, employees tend to take a similar approach and focus on what their leaders care about, which induces a prevention focus motivation (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). A recent study also demonstrates that the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and prosocial behavior is stronger for those employees who have a high level of prevention focus since the value that self-sacrificial leaders emphasize matches with the followers' prevention focus motivation (De Cremer et al., 2009). Thus, this study proposes the following.

H 5. Directive behavior is positively related to prevention focus motivation

Prevention focus motivation may provide one of the explanations for why individuals with directive leaders may reduce proactive behaviors. Prevention focus that emphasizes the assurance of security and fulfillment of obligation leads to compliance behavior such as repetitiveness, error avoidance, accuracy, safety, and vigilance (Baas et al., 2008; Förster et al., 2003; Friedman & Förster, 2001; Liberman et al., 1999; Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011; Wallace & Chen, 2006). Since proactive behavior is likely to involve risk and change, such behavior is not aligned with the goals and values of prevention focus individuals (Neubert et al., 2008). In addition, there is a chance that employees may experience loss situations, such as ruining their image, by exhibiting proactive behavior due to its risky and challenging nature (Grant et al., 2009; Parker et al., 2006). Given all, it is predicted that directive behavior evokes a prevention focus motivation, which, in turn, reduces the level of proactive behavior. Recent research has noted the mediating mechanism of prevention focus motivation in the relationship between the initiating structure of in-role performance and deviant behavior (Neubert et al., 2008). This study predicts that employees working for leaders who exhibit directive behavior may reduce their proactive behavior through prevention focus motivation.

H 6. Prevention focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between directive behavior and followers' proactive behaviors.

H6a. Prevention focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between directive behavior and followers' taking charge behavior.

H6b. Prevention focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between directive behavior and followers' voice behavior.

H6c. Prevention focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between directive behavior and followers' innovative behavior.

H6d. Prevention focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between directive behavior and followers' problem prevention.

3. Situational Conditions

Researchers agree that situational factors may change the strength of the relationship between individual characteristics or motivations and proactive behaviors (Bindl & Parker, 2010). In particular, social contexts are important factors in determining whether individuals may engage in risky behaviors, such as taking charge or expressing their opinions. Although researchers have acknowledged that engaging in proactive behaviors can be psychologically risky for individuals (Parker et al., 2006), the literature has not yet investigated much about how different types of situational contexts may limit or enhance the relationships between individual motivations and proactive behaviors. In particular, individuals may not perform proactive behaviors if they perceive risk or uncertainty about how the organization or other members may evaluate or take these behaviors, despite their motivations (Grant et al., 2009). Given the risky and challenging nature of proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006), employees may reduce their level of such behaviors despite their motivations to engage in them in the context of high organizational politics. On the other hand, followers may perform proactive behaviors when they perceive high psychological safety from their team members, even if they are not motivated to perform such behaviors. Thus, to address the question of when followers' motivations may lead to their proactive behaviors, this study selects organizational politics and psychological safety as critical situational factors. These variables may provide valuable insights into how the perception of organization environment or team environment may influence the relationship between regulatory focus motivation and proactive behavior.

3.1 Organizational Politics

Researchers have demonstrated a significant and growing interest in organizational politics since it has become widespread and recognized as a fact of organizational life (Brouer et al., 2011). Organizational politics can be defined as "employees' perceptions

that organizational members' behaviors are motivated by self-interest, with little attention paid to others' well-being" (Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011, p. 635). Examples of organizational politics include working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie, trying to maneuver their way into the "in" group, and stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others (Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, & Johnson, 2003). Thus, organizational politics are regarded as detrimental aspects of the work environment and likely to predict a variety of negative employee outcomes (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006). Recent meta-analysis has noted that organizational politics are negatively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors; these perceptions are positively related to strain and turnover intention (Chang et al., 2009). The negative consequences of organizational politics are often explained by expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964). According to expectancy theory, the individuals' motivations that may lead to high performance are likely to be determined by how they perceive the elements of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy (Brouer et al., 2011). When valence, instrumentality, and expectancy are all high, individuals are likely to believe that if they invest their effort, they may achieve high performance that may lead to desirable outcomes (Brouer et al., 2011; Vroom, 1964). However, in a highly political environment, individuals may not see a clear link between effort, performance, and outcome (Brouer et al., 2011). In other words, employees may not be assured about what is being valued or whether their efforts may lead to desirable outcomes when they perceive a high level of organizational politics (Breaux, Munyon, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2009). Thus, it is not surprising that employees who perceive a high level of organizational politics tend to put less effort into job related performance (Chang et al., 2009).

Furthermore, since how individuals view the political nature of their work environment may influence their behaviors (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997), previous studies have noted the important role of organizational politics as a situational condition (Breaux et al., 2009). For example, organizational politics moderate the relationship

between felt accountability and job satisfaction such that the felt accountability was negatively related to job satisfaction under the conditions of high political perceptions but positively related under the conditions of low political perceptions (Breaux et al., 2009). In addition, scholars exhibited how organizational politics may strengthen the relationship between individual characteristics or motivations and job performance (Hochwarter, Witt, & Kacmar, 2000). Hochwarter and colleagues (2000) examined the moderating role of organizational politics in the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance. Specifically, conscientiousness was related to job performance in the context of high levels of organizational politics but unrelated to performance in the context of low levels of organizational politics (Hochwarter et al., 2000). Zivnuska and colleagues (2004) examined the interactive effect of organizational politics and impression management on supervisor ratings of employee performance and found that the negative relationship between organizational politics and supervisor-rated performance was weaker for those with high impression management motivation than for those with low impression management (Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004). However, their findings may apply to predict only in-role performance. The dynamics of relationships are predicted to be more complicated and complex when the expected behaviors are not mandatory but voluntary. Regrettably, previous studies have not investigated how organizational politics may change the strength of the relationship between individual motivations and proactive behaviors. Thus, the current research addresses the literature gap concerning perceptions of organizational politics.

Since proactive behaviors are psychologically risky behaviors, how individuals may perceive their environments as predictable or unpredictable is important when determining their behaviors. In situations characterized as highly political, employees feel uncertain about their work environments, which makes it difficult to understand how they can enhance their performance or outcomes (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999). In this case, although promotion focus motivations may encourage such challenging behaviors, the political environment may increase the risk of engaging in proactive behaviors. Since individuals have a lack of understanding regarding what is

being expected or valued in an organization, it is difficult to expect followers to perform proactive behaviors. Furthermore, under highly political environments, it is not guaranteed that their efforts and contributions will be fairly evaluated or rewarded (Breaux et al., 2009). Instead, there is a possibility that their proactive behaviors may not be viewed as beneficial but regarded as political. Accordingly, this study expects that the positive relationship between promotion focus motivations and proactive behaviors will be weakened in highly political environments because it is uncertain that engaging in proactive behaviors will be valued by others or fulfill the need for growth.

H 7. Organizational politics moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' proactive behaviors such that the positive relationship is likely to be weakened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 7a. Organizational politics moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' taking charge behavior such that the positive relationship is likely to be weakened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 7b. Organizational politics moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' voice behavior such that the positive relationship is likely to be weakened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 7c. Organizational politics moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' innovative behavior such that the positive relationship is likely to be weakened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 7d. Organizational politics moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' problem prevention such that the positive relationship is likely to be weakened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

Similarly, it is assumed that the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and proactive behaviors will be strengthened in the context of high organizational politics. Since it is important to avoid loss situations and maintain security (De Cremer et al., 2009), individuals with high prevention focus motivation do not perceive any reason for or value in engaging in proactive behavior in the context of high organizational politics. Since individuals perceive high uncertainty in highly political organizational environments, individuals with high prevention focus motivation may feel that engaging in proactive behavior in the context of high organizational politics is risky. Thus, it is predicted that those individuals decrease their proactive behaviors even further when the situation increases the risk of engaging in proactive behaviors. Thus, this study expects the following.

H 8. Organizational politics moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and proactive behaviors such that the negative relationship is likely to be strengthened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 8a. Organizational politics moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and followers' taking charge behavior such that the negative relationship is likely to be strengthened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 8b. Organizational politics moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and followers' voice behavior such that the negative relationship is likely to be strengthened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 8c. Organizational politics moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and followers' innovative behavior such that the negative relationship is likely to be strengthened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

H 8d. Organizational politics moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and followers' problem prevention such that the negative relationship is likely to be strengthened when organizational politics is high rather than when it is low.

3.2 Psychological Safety

Psychological safety is defined as "a shared belief that the team is a safe environment for interpersonal risk taking" (Edmondson, 1999, p. 354). Since individuals working in this type of environment are likely to feel comfortable talking freely and expressing themselves openly, they tend to generate new ideas, suggestions, and divergent opinions (Bradley, Postlethwaite, Klotz, Hamdani, & Brown, 2012). Previous studies have found that psychological safety is positively related to learning behavior, vitality, creativity, engagement in quality improvement work, and subordinate voice (Carmeli & Gittell, 2009; Detert & Burris, 2007; Kark & Carmeli, 2009; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). Moreover, previous studies note the critical role of psychological safety as an enhancing factor (Bradley et al., 2012). For example, psychological safety moderates the relationship between task conflict and performance such that task conflict is positively associated to team performance in the context of high psychological safety (Bradley et al., 2012). When team psychological safety is high, the team's safety priority is more negatively related to the number of reported treatment errors (Leroy et al., 2012). The relationship between process innovations and company performance is positive when psychological safety is high but negative when psychological safety is low (Baer & Frese, 2003). However, previous studies have not examined the role of psychological safety in the relationship between individual motivations and proactive behaviors. According to Kahn (1990, p. 708), when individuals experience psychological safety, they may express themselves without fear of negative consequences to their self-image, status, or career. In this respect, this study proposes that how individuals perceive

psychological safety is particularly critical to changing the strength between regulatory focus motivations and proactive behaviors since proactive behaviors can be regarded as risky.

Proactive behaviors can be beneficial to individuals and organizations if the situation allows individuals to perform such challenging behaviors (Bolino et al., 2010). However, there is a possibility that these behaviors can lead to only personal costs if others do not value or accept them (Grant et al., 2009; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker et al., 2006). As an important situational factor, individuals may decide whether to engage in risky or challenging behaviors or not depending on their perception of psychological safety (Bradley et al., 2012). When psychological safety is in place, individuals may feel free to engage in behaviors that fit with their motivation without being concerned about how such behaviors are viewed by others. On the other hand, individuals may need to consider how others view or evaluate such radical behaviors when in a low psychological safety situation. For example, if they perceive that their proactive behaviors may be welcomed or positively received by others, it is much easier or comfortable for individuals with promotion-focused motivation to take on a challenging goal and perform proactively. Since engaging in proactive behaviors is matched with their promotion focus motivation, which emphasizes growth and opportunity, individuals with promotion focus motivation are likely to increase their proactive behaviors in the context of high psychological safety.

H 9. Psychological safety moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and proactive behaviors such that the positive relationship is likely to be strengthened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 9a. Psychological safety moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' taking charge behavior such that the positive relationship is likely to be strengthened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 9b. Psychological safety moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' voice behavior such that the positive relationship is likely to be strengthened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 9c. Psychological safety moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' innovative behavior such that the positive relationship is likely to be strengthened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 9d. Psychological safety moderates the positive relationship between promotion focus motivation and followers' problem prevention such that the positive relationship is likely to be strengthened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

In a similar vein, the relationship between prevention focus motivation and proactive behaviors is likely to be weakened in the context of a high level of psychological safety environment. Given their nature of being risk adverse and their focus on security rather than growth, individuals with prevention focus motivation may not get involved in risky activity. However, since individuals under a high psychological safety environment do not need to worry about what others think of their new ideas and different opinions, it is less costly and risky to engage in proactive behaviors (e.g., Bradley et al., 2012). Thus, individuals with prevention focus motivation may feel safe enough to engage in proactive behaviors under a high psychological safety situation, which, in turn, leads to an increase in such behaviors.

H 10. Psychological safety moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and proactive behaviors such that the negative relationship is likely to be weakened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 10a. Psychological safety moderates the negative relationship

between prevention focus motivation and followers' taking charge behavior such that the negative relationship is likely to be weakened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 10b. Psychological safety moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and followers' voice behavior such that the negative relationship is likely to be weakened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 10c. Psychological safety moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and followers' innovative behavior such that the negative relationship is likely to be weakened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

H 10d. Psychological safety moderates the negative relationship between prevention focus motivation and followers' problem prevention such that the negative relationship is likely to be weakened when psychological safety is high rather than when it is low.

Chapter 4. Methods

In order to ensure the causal relationship between leader behaviors and proactive behaviors, it would be optimal to conduct longitudinal study and collect data in three waves. At Time 1, participants may answer questions on leaders' empowering and directive behaviors. At Time 2, participants may rate regulatory focus motivations, organizational politics and psychological safety. At Time 3, participants may report on proactive behaviors. The temporally lagged design is considered to be more rigorous method than a cross-sectional design. Also, it would be beneficial to design both an experimental study and a field study to test the conceptual model to increase internal validity and generalizability of the findings. However, this study intends to conduct a field study with a cross-sectional design due to difficulty of collecting samples.

This chapter presents the data collection and analysis methods for this study. First, this study describes data collection procedures. Second, this study presents the information about sample for this study. Lastly, this study introduces measures for each variable included in theoretical model.

I. Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected using questionnaires distributed to employees and their direct supervisors located in South Korea. Surveys were distributed to 276 full-time employees from various industries. Of these 228 were returned, giving a response rate of 83%. However, thirteen questionnaires could not be used in the analyses because either only one partner participated or the answers were not completed in a proper manner. After matching the employee surveys with the supervisor surveys, a total of 215 pairs were used for further analyses.

Every unique supervisor-subordinate dyad received a paper-based survey packet that included a managerial survey and a reply envelope, which participants delivered

after completing the questionnaires. I took a number of steps to ensure that the surveys were completed properly. First, I provided a short training session to the survey coordinators that were assigned from each organization to make sure that they selected the appropriate dyadic and maintained anonymity. During the training session, I emphasized the importance of matching the procedure that employees and their supervisors used to fill out the correct surveys.

Since supervisors in each company often have more than one subordinate, I provided selection criteria to survey coordinators in order to maintain a subordinate-supervisor ratio of one to one. When making a list of supervisor and subordinate pairs, the survey coordinators were informed that supervisor-subordinate dyads had to meet the following criteria. First, supervisors had to be in positions where they could closely observe and accurately evaluate their subordinates' behaviors. Second, supervisors and subordinates should have regular interactions. Lastly, the tenure with supervisors should not be too short. If supervisors and subordinates have not spent a reasonable amount of time together, it might be difficult for them to evaluate each other's specific behavior or performance. If there was a case that more than one subordinate met these criteria, one subordinate was selected randomly. Thus, the study predicted that the pairs of supervisors and subordinates included in this research were in a good position to evaluate each other's behavior or performance.

In order to ensure matched leader–follower dyads, a researcher-assigned identification number was encoded in each questionnaire that matched each employee's responses with their immediate supervisor's evaluations. Leaders were requested to fill out several items regarding the demographic information, such as age, gender, and marital status, of the subordinates whom they were asked to evaluate. During the matching procedure, I checked whether the demographic information of the subordinates reported by the leaders matched the information reported by the subordinates. I found no irregularities in the responses. All respondents were assured that their responses would remain confidential.

II. Sample

As presented in Table 17, in terms of demographic characteristics, 67 percent of subordinates were male. Their average age was 34.36 years (s.d. = 5.56 years), their average organizational tenure was 5.50 years (s.d. = 4.64 years), and their average tenure with their leaders was 2.91 years (s.d. = 2.88 years). 85.1 percent of the employees held a bachelor or higher degree. For leaders, 83.7 percent were male. They had an average age of 42.62 years (s.d. = 6.30), an average organizational tenure of 9.45 years (s.d. = 6.20 years). 89.3 percent of leaders held a bachelor or higher degree. Various industry sectors were represented including 31.6% from banking and finance, 23.7% from IT and communication service, 20.9% from manufacturing, 17.7% from construction, and 6.1% from others. Most of subordinates held office type jobs such as 40% from administrative operation (management), 28.4% from research and development and 16.7% professional works. Table 17 presents the description of sample in the study.

Table 17. Sample Description

Classification		Leader		Follower	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	180	83.7	144	67.0
	Female	34	15.8	71	33.0
	Missing value	1	0.5	-	-
Age	20 ~ 30	-	-	61	28.4
	31 ~ 40	80	37.2	124	57.7
	41 ~ 50	105	48.8	29	13.5
	Over 51	28	13	1	0.5
	Missing value	2	0.9	-	-
Education	High school	4	1.9	8	3.7
	2-year collage	18	8.4	24	11.2

Classification		Leader		Follower	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
	Bachelor degree	119	55.3	144	67.0
	Master degree or higher	73	34.0	39	18.1
	Missing value	1	0.5	-	-
Position	Associate	3	1.4	71	33.0
	Senior associate	12	5.6	47	21.9
	Assistant manager	47	21.9	51	23.7
	Manager	56	26.0	30	14.0
	Senior manager or higher	97	45.1	16	7.4
Organizational Tenure	Less than 5 years	64	29.8	127	59.1
	6 ~ 10 years	72	33.5	53	24.7
	11 ~ 15 years	44	20.5	26	12.1
	More than 15 years	33	15.3	7	3.3
	Missing value	2	0.9	2	0.9
Tenure with subordinates (supervisors)	Less than 5 years	178 (82.8%)			
	6 ~ 10 years	25 (11.6%)			
	More than 10 years	9 (4.2%)			
	Missing value	3(1.4%)			

III. Measures

In our survey, all scale items were translated into Korean and back-translated by two bilingual (English-Korean) speakers to ensure semantic equivalence (Brislin, 1980). Subordinates were asked to rate their leaders' empowering and directive behaviors. Furthermore, they rated their own demographic information, regulatory focus motivations and their perceptions of organizational politics and psychological safety. In order to reduce the concerns for common method bias, their immediate leaders were asked to provide evaluations of the focal employees' proactive behaviors. Specifically, they have rated each type of proactive behaviors including taking charge behavior, voice

behavior, individual innovation and problem prevention which consist of a higher-order category of proactive work behavior. All of the items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree, to 7 = strongly agree) and had a high reliability.

1. Empowering Behavior

Empowering behavior was measured with the 12-item scale developed from Ahearne and colleagues (2005). This measure was rated by subordinates and examples of items are “My manager makes many decisions together with me and My manager allows me to do my job my way”. The measure produced a Cronbach alpha of .95.

2. Directive Behavior

Directive behavior was measured with the 6-item scale developed from Pearce & Sims Jr. (2002). This measure was rated by subordinates and examples of items are “When it comes to my work, my team leader gives me instructions on how to carry it out” and “My team leader gives me instructions about how to do my work”. The measure demonstrated a Cronbach alpha of .94.

3. Regulatory Focus Motivation

As regulatory focus motivations, promotion focus motivation and prevention focus motivation were separately measured with the 9-item scale developed by Neubert and colleagues (2008). This measure was rated by subordinates. An example of promotion focus motivation is “I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success”, while prevention focus motivation is “I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job”. The measures demonstrated Cronbach alpha of .88 for promotion focus motivation and .89 for prevention focus motivation.

4. Proactive Behaviors

Adopting a higher-order category of proactive behavior developed by Parker and Collins (2010), this study measured taking charge, voice behavior, individual innovation and problem prevention as a higher-order category of proactive behavior. Supervisors rated each item of taking charge, voice behavior, individual innovation and problem prevention for employees' proactive behaviors in the study. All 25 items were summed up to construct a higher-order category of proactive behavior. Taking charge was measured with the 10-item scale developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999). An example of taking charge is "I try to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems". Voice behavior was measured with the 6-item scale developed by from Van Dyne and LePine (1998). An example of voice behavior is "Gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in the group". Individual innovation was measured with 6-item scale developed by Scott and Bruce's (1994). An example of individual innovation is "Promotes and champions ideas to others". Lastly, problem prevention was assessed with 3-item developed by Parker and Collins (2010). An example of problem prevention is "try to develop procedures and systems that are effective in the long term even if they slow things down to begin with". The measures demonstrated Cronbach alpha of .96 for taking charge, .92 for voice behavior, .95 for individual innovation, .91 for problem prevention and .97 for a higher-order category of proactive behavior.

5. Situational Conditions

In order to measure situational conditions, this study selects organizational politics and psychological safety. These measures were rated by subordinates. Organizational politics was measured with six-item scale developed by Hochwarter and colleagues (2003). Examples of items for organizational politics are "there is a lot of self-serving behavior going on in my organization" and "people do what's best for them, not what's

best for the organization". Psychological safety was measured with seven-item developed by Edmonson (1999). Examples of items for psychological safety are "if you made a mistake in this team it was often held against you," (Reverse) and "it was safe to take a risk on this team". The measures showed Cronbach alpha of .90 for organizational politics and .92 and .79 for psychological safety.

6. Control Variables

The study controlled employees' age, gender and education to minimize the potential confounding effects that may influence the associations between variables. Age and was measured in years. Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable coded as 1 for male and 0 for female. I measured education on a scale that ranged from "high school" to "master's degree or higher"

IV. Analytical Procedures

1. Preliminary Analyses Procedures

To examine the construct validity of key variables, the study used exploratory factor analysis (EFA) applying principle components with varimax rotation. First, the study expects that two types of leader behaviors (i.e., empowering and directive behaviors) are distinctive factors. Second, the study suggests that promotion focus and prevention focus motivations are different factors. Furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilized to assess construct validity and compare alternative structures. Three major model fit measures are used: Tucker Lewis Index (TLI); comparative fit index (CFI); and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Good fits are indicated by RMSEA values less than .08 and TLI and CFI value greater than .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Cronbach's alpha was used for all variables to demonstrate acceptable levels of inter-item consistency.

2. Testing Hypotheses Procedures

The study conducted hierarchical regression analyses to test the hypotheses. First of all, to test the hypotheses of the main effects between two types of leader behaviors (empowering behavior, directive behavior) and proactive behaviors, the study included control variables (i.e., age, gender and education) in step 1. Next, in step 2, the study included two types of leader behaviors (empowering and directive behaviors). In order to test the hypotheses regarding the mediating role of regulatory focus motivations in the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors, the approach suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was adopted. This mediation test has three important steps. First, the independent variable should be significantly related to the dependent variable. Second, the independent variable should have a significant relationship with the mediator, and finally, the mediator should be significantly related to the dependent variables with the independent variables included in the model. If the first three conditions are satisfied, at least partial mediation is present. If the independent variables have non-significant beta weights in the third step, then complete mediation is present. For the moderating tests in Hypotheses 7 to 10, the control variables (i.e., age, gender and education) were entered in the first step. The predictor variables were entered in step 2, and the interaction term was included in the final step. An incremental change in criterion variance in the last step demonstrates a significant interaction term (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Before creating the interaction term, variables were mean-centered to prevent potential multicollinearity issues (Aiken & West, 1991).

Chapter 5. Results

This chapter outlines the results of data analyses. I begin with a discussion of preliminary analyses and descriptive statistics. I then present the results of the tests of each hypothesis and I conclude with a brief summary of those results.

I. Preliminary Analyses

1. Discriminant Validity

1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

To assess whether the two types of leader behaviors (empowering and directive behaviors), two types of regulatory focus motivations (promotion focus and prevention focus motivations) and various types of proactive behaviors were distinct from each other, the study conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the items using principle components with varimax rotation. As can be seen in Table 18, the variables of empowering and directive behaviors are defined by distinct items. The loadings for the final 2-factor solution, which accounted for 69.2% of the variance. Furthermore, Table 19 showed that the variables of regulatory focus motivations are defined by distinct items. The loadings for the final 2-factor solution, which accounted for 54.7% of the variance.

Table 18. Exploratory Factor Analysis of Leader Behaviors

Items	Mean (S. D.)	Factor	
		Empowering behavior	Directive behavior
1. My leader helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company	5.15 (1.30)	**.69**	.42

Items	Mean (S. D.)	Factor	
		Empowering behavior	Directive behavior
2. My leader helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company	5.20 (1.19)	**.74**	.37
3. My leader helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture	5.25 (1.17)	**.76**	.38
4. My leader makes many decisions together with me	5.24 (1.25)	**.77**	.26
5. My leader often consults me on strategic decisions	5.07 (1.31)	**.73**	.24
6. My leader solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me	5.16 (1.26)	**.76**	.09
7. My leader believes that I can handle demanding tasks	5.29 (1.10)	**.80**	.18
8. My leader believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes	5.19 (1.09)	**.82**	.19
9. My leader expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level	5.13 (1.13)	**.82**	.24
10. My leader allows me to do my job my way	5.25 (1.20)	**.79**	.10
11. My leader makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple	5.04 (1.33)	**.69**	.36
12. My leader allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy customer needs	5.05 (1.26)	**.65**	.34
13. When it comes to my work, my leader gives me instructions on how to carry it out	5.13 (1.20)	.26	**.83**
14. My leader provides commands in regard to my job	5.09 (1.14)	.14	**.86**
15. My leader gives me instructions about how to do my job	4.99 (1.18)	.14	**.88**

Items	Mean (S. D.)	Factor	
		Empowering behavior	Directive behavior
16. My leader establishes the goals for my work	4.99 (1.19)	.38	**.80**
17. My leader establishes my performance goals	4.94 (1.21)	.33	**.83**
18. My leader sets the goals for my performance	4.84 (1.24)	.34	**.82**
Eigen value Variance explained (%)		7.27 40.4	5.19 28.8
Total variance explained (%)		69.2%	

Table 19. Factor Analysis of Regulatory Focus Motivation

Items	Mean (S. D.)	Factor	
		Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
1. I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement.	5.26 (1.17)	.24	**.75**
2. I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success.	4.38 (1.22)	-.09	**.78**
3. If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project I would definitely take it.	5.02 (1.15)	.07	**.74**
4. If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one.	5.34 (1.09)	.14	**.61**
5. A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job.	5.66 (0.99)	.23	**.76**
6. I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement.	5.45 (0.99)	.32	**.71**
7. I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations.	4.70 (1.18)	.10	**.77**

Items	Mean (S. D.)	Factor	
		Promotion Focus	Prevention Focus
8. My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be.	4.50 (1.34)	.09	**.57**
9. At work, I am motivated by my hopes and aspirations.	5.13 (1.12)	.22	**.70**
10. I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security.	5.22 (1.14)	**.70**	.22
11. At work I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities.	5.89 (0.85)	**.70**	.32
12. Fulfilling my work duties is very important to me.	5.85 (0.89)	**.73**	.27
13. At work, I strive to live up to the responsibilities and duties given to me by others.	5.91 (0.88)	**.73**	.21
14. At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security.	4.80 (1.23)	**.60**	.16
15. I do everything I can to avoid loss at work.	5.21 (1.08)	**.75**	.15
16. Job security is an important factor for me in any job search.	5.32 (1.16)	**.72**	-.10
17. I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work.	5.58 (0.98)	**.78**	.14
18. I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work.	5.24 (1.12)	**.75**	-.01
Eigen value Variance explained (%)		4.95 27.5	4.90 27.2
Total variance explained (%)		54.7%	

1.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The study conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to investigate the construct validity of the variables used in the model. As shown in Table 20, the hypothesized model—which included seven factors (empowering behavior, directive behavior, promotion focus motivation, prevention focus motivation, organizational politics, psychological safety and proactive behavior)—, when compared with a series of competing models, revealed that the seven-factor model was significantly superior to other models. The fit indices for the hypothesized model were as follows: χ^2 (149) = 281.70, $p \leq .001$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .95, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .93, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06. In order to test whether two types of leader behaviors (empowering and directive behaviors) were distinct constructs, empowering and directive behaviors were combined in a six-factor model. Next, two types of regulatory focus motivations (promotion focus motivation and prevention focus motivation) were combined in a five-factor model. Furthermore, organizational politics and psychological safety were combined in a four-factor model. Followed by the four-factor model, two types of regulatory focus motivations were combined with organizational politics and psychological safety in a three-factor model. Except for proactive behaviors, all variables were combined in a two-factor model. Lastly, all variables of empowering behavior, directive behavior, promotion focus motivation, prevention focus motivation, organizational politics, psychological safety and proactive behaviors were combined in one-factor model. As summarized in Table 20, the chi-square difference test and multiple indexes (CFI, TLI, and RMSEA) all indicated that the hypothesized model showed the best fit, compared to other alternative models, by showing CFI and TLI greater than .90, and RMSEA less than .08. In conclusion, our hypothesized model demonstrated that all variables in the model are separate constructs.

2. Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

The means, standard deviations, and correlations are displayed in Table 21. Also, the distribution of variables such as skewness and kurtosis are included in Table 21. As seen from Table 21, all variables have high reliabilities, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .79 or higher. The correlations for most variables were in the expected direction. First, empowering leader behavior was significantly correlated with all of the four proactive behaviors and overall proactive behavior (*r*s ranged from .14 to .27); whereas, directive leader behavior was not significantly correlated with all of the four proactive behaviors and overall proactive behavior. Second, promotion focus motivation was significantly correlated with voice behavior (r =.15, $p \leq .05$) and overall proactive behavior (r =.14, $p \leq .05$). Contrary to expectation, prevention focus motivation was positively significantly correlated with three proactive behaviors and overall proactive behavior (*r*s ranged from .15 to .18). Third, as can be seen in Table 22, organizational politics was significantly negatively correlated with three proactive behaviors (taking charge, voice behavior and problem prevention) and overall proactive behavior (*rs* ranged from -.16 to -.19); while, psychological safety was significantly positively correlated with all of the four proactive behaviors and overall proactive behavior (*r*s ranged from .26 to .33). Lastly, all types of proactive behaviors are highly correlated with each other (*r*s ranged from .64 to .95).

Table 20. Comparison of Measurement Models

Model	Description	χ2	Df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Change from Hypothesized model	
							Δ χ2	Δdf
Hypothesized model	Seven-factor model [a]	281.70	149	0.95	0.93	0.06		
Model 1	Six-factor model [b]	404.85	155	0.91	0.88	0.08	123.15	6.00
Model 2	Five-factor model [c]	698.56	160	0.80	0.74	0.12	293.71	5.00
Model 3	Four-factor model [d]	750.47	164	0.78	0.72	0.12	51.92	4.00
Model 4	Three-factor model [e]	954.52	167	0.71	0.63	0.14	204.05	3.00
Model 5	Two-factor model [f]	1356.46	170	0.56	0.46	0.17	401.94	3.00
Model 6	One-factor model [g]	1931.96	171	0.35	0.20	0.20	575.50	1.00

Note. CFI= Comparative Fit Index; TLI= Tucker Lewis Index; RMSEA= root-mean-square error of approximation; *** p≤.001

[a] Seven-factors: Empowering behavior; Directive behavior; Promotion focus motivation; Prevention focus motivation; Organizational politics, Psychological safety; Proactive behaviors.

[b] Six-factors: Empowering behavior and Directive behavior combined; Promotion focus motivation ; Prevention focus motivation; Organizational politics; Psychological safety; Proactive behavior.

[c] Five-factors: Empowering behavior and Directive behavior combined; Promotion focus motivation and Prevention focus motivation combined; Organizational politics; Psychological safety; Proactive behaviors.

[d] Four-factors: Empowering behavior and Directive behavior combined; Promotion focus motivation and Prevention focus motivation combined; Organizational politics and Psychological safety combined; Proactive behaviors.

[e] Three-factors: Empowering behavior and Directive behavior combined; Promotion focus motivation, Prevention focus motivation, Organizational politics and Psychological safety combined; Proactive behaviors.

[f] Two-factors: Empowering behavior, Directive behavior, Promotion focus motivation, Prevention focus motivation, Organizational politics and Psychological safety combined; Proactive behaviors.

[g] One-factors: Empowering behavior, Directive behavior, Promotion focus motivation, Prevention focus motivation, Organizational politics, Psychological safety, and Proactive behaviors.

Table 21. Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Variables	Mean	S. D.	Skewness	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age [b]	34.36	5.56	.31	- .18	.28***													
2.Gender [b]	0.67	0.47	.73	-1.49	.33***	-.13†												
3. Education [b]	3.00	0.67	-.76	1.59	.08	.18**	.01											
4. Empowering behavior [b]	5.19	0.96	-.87	1.32	.06	.12†	.08	(.95)										
5. Directive behavior [b]	5.00	1.06	-.65	.45	.06	.12	.08	.60***	(.94)									
6. Promotion focus [b]	5.05	0.82	-.48	.49	-.09	.18**	.04	.43***	.36***	(.88)								
7. Prevention focus [b]	5.45	0.76	-.36	-.21	.00	-.06	-.10	.41***	.30***	.38***	(.89)							
8. Organizational politics [b]	3.80	1.06	-.01	-.09	-.01	-.20**	.04	-.32***	-.23***	-.10	-.03	(.90)						
9. Psychological safety [b]	4.91	0.83	-.27	-.04	-.02	.11	-.10	.49***	.23***	.32***	.2**	-.34***	(.79)					
10. Taking charge [c]	4.94	1.03	-.31	-.60	.05	-.03	.06	.19**	-.07	.11	.15*	-.17*	.26***	(.96)				
11. Voice behavior [c]	4.88	0.96	-.38	-.34	.04	.08	-.02	.27***	.02	.15*	.18**	-.19**	.33***	.75***	(.92)			
12. Individual innovation [c]	4.41	1.09	-.17	-.29	.00	.07	.07	.14*	-.01	.13†	.10	-.11	.26***	.78***	.66***	(.95)		
13. Problem prevention [c]	4.76	1.07	-.28	-.09	.04	-.03	.00	.24***	.01	.13†	.17*	-.16*	.29***	.77***	.64***	.73***	(.91)	
14. Proactive behavior [c]	4.78	0.93	-.18	-.65	.04	.02	.04	.22***	-.03	.14*	.16*	-.17**	.31***	.95***	.85***	.89***	.84***	(.97)

Note. [a] $N = 215$. Reliabilities are on the diagonal in parentheses. [b] These variables were measured from focal employees. [c] Managerial rating.

†p ≤ .10; * p≤.05; ** p≤.01, *** p≤.001 (two-tailed). Gender is coded such that 0 = female and 1 = male.

II. Hypothesis Testing

1. Leader Behaviors and Followers' Proactive Behaviors

Hypotheses 1-2 postulated that two types of leader behaviors would be related to followers' proactive behaviors. Hypothesis 1 suggested that empowering behavior would be positively related to followers' proactive behaviors; while, directive behavior would be negatively related to followers' proactive behaviors. Specifically, empowering behavior would be positively and directive behavior would be negatively related to followers' taking charge, voice behavior, individual innovation and problem prevention. As noted in Table 22, empowering behavior was significantly positively related to followers' proactive behaviors (β =.38, $p\leq$.001). Empowering behavior was significantly positively related to followers' taking charge behavior (β =.38, $p\leq$.001), voice behavior (β =.40, $p\leq$.001), individual innovation (β =.23, $p\leq$.01) and problem prevention (β = .38, $p\leq$.001). Directive behavior was negatively related to followers' proactive behaviors (β =-.26, $p\leq$.01). Directive behavior was significantly negatively related to followers' taking charge behavior (β =-.30, $p\leq$.001), voice behavior (β =-.23, $p\leq$.01), and problem prevention (β =-.22, $p\leq$.01); while, it was marginally related to individual innovation (β =-.16, $p\leq$.1). Therefore, all of Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

2. Mediating effects of Regulatory focus motivations

Hypothesis 3 proposes the relationship between empowering behavior and promotion focus motivation; while, Hypothesis 5 proposes the positive relationship between directive behavior and prevention focus motivation. As noted in Table 24, empowering behavior was significantly related to promotion focus motivation (β =.23, $p\leq$.001). However, the relationship between directive behavior and prevention focus was not significant (β =.06, *n. s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported; while, Hypothesis

5 was not supported. Hypotheses 4 and 6 predicted that the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors is partially mediated by regulatory focus motivations. As indicated in Table 22, the relationship between empowering behavior and proactive behaviors is not partially mediated by promotion focus motivation. Specifically, the relationships between empowering behavior and each type of proactive behavior and overall proactive behavior were not partially mediated by promotion focus motivation (H4: β = .09, *n. s.*; H4a: β=.09, *n. s.*; H4b: β=.07, *n. s.*; H4c:β=.09, *n. s.*; H4d: β=.08, *n. s.*). Similarly, as can be seen in Table 23, the relationships between directive behavior and each type of proactive behavior and overall proactive behavior were not partially mediated by prevention focus motivation (H6: β = .11, *n. s.*; H6a: β=.09, *n. s.*; H6b: β=.11, *n. s.*; H6c: β=.08, *n. s.*; H6d: β=.10, *n. s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 and 6 were not supported.

3. Moderating Effects of Organizational Politics and Psychological Safety

Hypothesis 7 proposed that organizational politics would have moderating effects on the relationship between promotion focus motivation and proactive behaviors. As can be seen in Table 25, the interaction term between organizational politics and promotion focus motivation on overall proactive behavior was not significant (β=.06, *n. s.*). Specifically, the interaction terms between organizational politics and promotion focus motivation on taking charge behavior (β =.02, *n. s.*), voice behavior (β =.07, *n. s.*), individual innovation (β =.06, *n. s.*) and problem prevention (β =.08, *n. s.*) were not significant. Hypothesis 8 suggested that organizational politics would have moderating effects on the relationship between prevention focus motivation and proactive behaviors. Similarly, the interaction terms between organizational politics and prevention focus motivation on proactive behaviors were not significant on overall proactive behavior (β =-.02, *n. s.*), taking charge behavior (β =.03, *n. s.*), voice behavior (β =-.07, *n. s.*),

individual innovation (β =-.05, *n. s.*) and problem prevention (β =-.01, *n. s.*). Hypothesis 9 postulated that psychological safety would have moderating effects on the relationship between promotion focus motivation and proactive behaviors. As noted in Table 25, the interaction term between psychological safety and promotion focus motivation on proactive behaviors was not significant (β =.02, *n. s.*). Specifically, the interaction terms between psychological safety and promotion focus motivation on taking charge behavior (β =.00, *n. s.*), voice behavior (β =.03, *n. s.*), individual innovation (β =.06, *n. s.*) and problem prevention (β = -.04, *n. s.*) were not significant. Hypothesis 10 suggested that psychological safety would have moderating effects on the relationship between psychological safety and prevention focus motivation on proactive behaviors. Similarly, the interaction terms between psychological safety and prevention focus motivation on overall proactive behavior (β = -.08, *n. s.*), taking charge behavior (β =-.06, *n. s.*), voice behavior (β =-.08, *n. s.*), individual innovation (β = -.10, *n. s.*) and problem prevention (β = -.01, *n. s.*) was not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 7, 8, 9 and 10 were not supported.

Table 22. Multiple Regression Results on Proactive Behavior (Mediating Effect of Promotion Focus Motivation)

	Proactive Behavior			Taking Charge			Voice Behavior			Individual Innovation			Problem Prevention		
Variable b	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3
Step1: Control Variables															
Age	.02	.01	.03	.05	.03	.05	.03	.02	.03	-.04	-.05	-.03	.06	.04	.06
Gender	.01	-.03	-.04	-.05	-.08	-.09	.08	.03	.02	.08	.05	.04	-.05	-.09	-.10
Education	.03	.06	.05	.05	.08	.08	-.04	-.02	-.02	.07	.09	.08	-.01	.01	.01
Step 2: Main effects															
Empowering behavior		.38***	.35***		.38***	.35***		.40***	.38***		.23**	.20*		.38***	.36***
Directive behavior		-.26**	-.28***		-.30***	-.31***		-.23**	-.24**		-.16†	-.17*		-.22**	-.23**
Step 3: Main effects															
Promotion focus motivation			.09			.09			.07			.09			.08
F value	.18	4.42***	3.95***	.50	4.71***	4.16***	.58	5.10***	4.41***	.76	1.93†	1.83†	.26	4.37***	3.84***
R2	-.01	.07	.08	-.01	.08	.08	-.01	.09	.09	.00	.02	.02	-.01	.07	.07
Δ F		10.75***	1.55		10.94***	1.36		11.78***	.99		3.65*	1.35		10.49***	1.18
Δ R2		.09	.01		.09	.01		.10	.00		.03	.01		.09	.01

Note. N=215. [a] Entries are standardized regression coefficients. [b] Variables are standardized variables.
† $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$. Gender is coded such that 0 = female and 1= male.

I conducted regression analyses using Z scores. The results of these analyses were comparable to the results I report here.

Table 23. Multiple Regression Results on Proactive Behavior (Mediating Effect of Prevention Focus Motivation)

	Proactive Behavior			Taking Charge			Voice Behavior			Individual Innovation			Problem Prevention		
Variable[b]	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3
Step1: Control Variables															
Age	.02	.01	.01	.05	.03	.03	.03	.02	.01	-.04	-.05	-.05	.06	.04	.04
Gender	.01	-.03	-.01	-.05	-.08	-.07	.08	.03	.05	.08	.05	.06	-.05	-.09	-.08
Education	.03	.06	.07	.05	.08	.09	-.04	-.02	-.01	.07	.09	.10	-.01	.01	.02
Step 2: Main effects															
Empowering behavior		.38***	.34***		.38***	.34***		.40***	.36***		.23**	.20*		.38***	.35***
Directive behavior		-.26**	-.28***		-.30***	-.31***		-.23**	-.24**		-.16†	-.17*		-.22**	-.23**
Step 3: Main effects															
Prevention focus motivation			.11			.11			.11			.08			.10
F value	.18	4.42***	4.10***	.50	4.71***	4.33***	.58	5.10***	4.64***	.76	1.93†	1.81†	.26	4.37***	3.96***
R2	-.01	.07	.08	-.01	.08	.09	-.01	.09	.09	.00	.02	.02	-.01	.07	.08
Δ F		10.75***	2.38		10.94***	2.30		11.78***	2.18		3.65*	1.24		10.49**	1.86
Δ R2		.09	.01		.09	.01		.10	.01		.03	.01		.09	.01

Note. N=215. [a] Entries are standardized regression coefficients. [b] Variables are standardized variables
† $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$.Gender is coded such that 0 = female and 1= male.

I conducted regression analyses using Z scores. The results of these analyses were comparable to the results I report here.

Table 24. Multiple Regression Results on Regulatory Focus Motivations

	Promotion focus motivation		Prevention focus motivation	
	Model1	Model2	Model1	Model2
Step1: Control Variables				
Age	-.19**	-.20**	.12†	.09
Gender	.25***	.19***	-.15*	-.17**
Education	.11†	.09	-.14*	-.13*
Promotion focus motivation			.42***	.28***
Prevention focus motivation	.40***	.26***		
Step 2: Main effects				
Empowering behavior		.23**		.28***
Directive behavior		.13†		.06
F value	14.66***	14.91***	11.63***	12.10***
R2	.20	.28	.17	.24
Δ F		12.28***		10.85***
Δ R2		.08		.08

Note. N=215. [a] Entries are standardized regression coefficients. [b] Variables are standardized variables
† $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$. Gender is coded such that 0 = female and 1= male.
I conducted regression analyses using Z scores. The results of these analyses were comparable to the results I report here

Table 25. Multiple Regression Results for Proactive Behaviors (Moderating Effects of Situational Conditions)

	Proactive behavior				Taking charge				Voice behavior				Individual innovation				Problem prevention			
Variable[b]	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Step1: Control Variables																				
Age	.02	.01	.03	.02	.05	.03	.05	.04	.03	.02	.03	.02	-.04	-.05	-.04	-.04	.06	.04	.06	.05
Gender	.01	-.03	-.04	-.04	-.05	-.08	-.10	-.10	.08	.03	.02	.03	.08	.05	.04	.05	-.05	-.09	-.10	-.10
Education	.03	.06	.09	.10	.05	.08	.11	.11	-.04	-.02	.02	.02	.07	.09	.12†	.12	-.01	.01	.04	.06
Step 2: Main effects																				
Empowering behavior		.38***	.18†	.17		.38***	.19*	.18†		.40***	.21*	.20*		.23**	.05	.05		.38***	.21*	.18†
Directive behavior		-.26**	-.27**	-.27		-.30***	-.31***	-.31***		-.23**	-.23**	-.23**		-.16†	-.15†	-.16†		-.22**	-.22**	-.22**
Step 3: Main effects																				
Promotion focus motivation			.04	.02			.04	.03			.02	.00			.04	.02			.03	.03
Prevention focus motivation			.12	.12			.12	.12			.11	.13†			.08	.10			.10	.10
Organizational politics			-.11	-.11			-.14†	-.15*			-.09	-.08			-.04	-.03			-.09	-.11
Psychological safety			.22**	.24**			.17*	.18*			.22**	.24**			.23**	.25**			.20*	.21**
Step 4: Interaction																				
Promotion focus motivation * organizational politics				.06				.02				.07				.06				.08
Promotion focus motivation * psychological safety				.02				.00				.03				.06				-.04
Prevention focus motivation* organizational politics				-.02				.03				-.07				-.05				-.01
Prevention focus motivation* psychological safety				-.08				-.06				-.08				-.10				-.01
F value	.18	4.42***	4.47***	3.19***	.50	4.71***	4.33***	3.10***	.58	5.10***	4.64***	3.34***	.76	1.93†	2.48**	1.88*	.26	4.37***	3.92***	2.86***
R2	-.01	.07	.13	.12	-.01	.08	.12	.11	-.01	.09	.13	.12	.00	.02	.06	.05	-.01	.07	.11	.10
Δ F		10.75***	4.19**	.43		10.94***	3.57**	.44		11.78***	3.72**	.52		3.65*	3.08*	.57		10.49***	3.13*	.54
Δ R2		.09	.07	.01		.09	.06	.01		.10	.06	.01		.03	.05	.01		.09	.05	.01

Note. N=215. [a] Entries are standardized regression coefficients. [b] Variables are standardized variables † $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$. Gender is coded such that 0 = female and 1= male.
I conducted regression analyses using Z scores. The results of these analyses were comparable to the results I report here

Chapter 6. Discussion

The study was tested using survey data collected from various companies in South Korea. As Table 26 presents, the main effects of leader behaviors on proactive behaviors were supported (H1 and H2). Also, the relationship between empowering behavior and promotion focus motivation was supported (H3).

Table 26. Summary of Results

No.		Hypotheses	Prediction	Result[a]
H1	1	Empowering behavior → Proactive behaviors.	+	Support
	1a	Empowering behavior → Taking charge behavior.	+	Support
	1b	Empowering behavior → Voice behavior.	+	Support
	1c	Empowering behavior → Innovative behavior.	+	Support
	1d	Empowering behavior → Problem prevention	+	Support
H2	2	Directive behavior → Proactive behaviors.	−	Support
	2a	Directive behavior → Taking charge behavior.	−	Support
	2b	Directive behavior → Voice behavior.	−	Support
	2c	Directive behavior → Innovative behavior.	−	Marginally support
	2d	Directive behavior → Problem prevention	−	Support
H3	3	Empowering behavior → Promotion focus motivation	+	Support
H4	4	Empowering behavior → Promotion focus motivation → Proactive behaviors	Mediation	Not Support
	4a	Empowering behavior → Promotion focus motivation → Taking charge behavior	Mediation	Not support
	4b	Empowering behavior → Promotion focus motivation → Voice behavior.	Mediation	Not Support
	4c	Empowering behavior → Promotion focus motivation → Innovative behavior.	Mediation	Not Support
	4d	Empowering behavior → Promotion focus motivation → Problem prevention	Mediation	Not Support
H5	5	Directive behavior → Prevention focus motivation	+	Not Support
H6	6	Directive behavior → Prevention focus motivation → Proactive behaviors.	Mediation	Not Support
	6a	Directive behavior → Prevention focus motivation → Taking charge behavior.	Mediation	Not support
	6b	Directive behavior → Prevention focus motivation → Voice behavior.	Mediation	Not Support

No.		Hypotheses	Prediction	Result[a]
H6	6c	Directive behavior → Prevention focus motivation → Innovative behavior.	Mediation	Not Support
	6d	Directive behavior → Prevention focus motivation → Problem prevention	Mediation	Not Support
H7	7	Promotion focus motivation × Organizational politics → Proactive behaviors	Interaction	Not Support
	7a	Promotion focus motivation × Organizational politics → Taking charge behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	7b	Promotion focus motivation × Organizational politics → Voice behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	7c	Promotion focus motivation × Organizational politics → Innovative behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	7d	Promotion focus motivation × Organizational politics → Problem Prevention	Interaction	Not Support
H8	8	Prevention focus motivation × Organizational politics → Proactive behaviors	Interaction	Not Support
	8a	Prevention focus motivation × Organizational politics → Taking charge behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	8b	Prevention focus motivation × Organizational politics → Voice behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	8c	Prevention focus motivation × Organizational politics → Innovative behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	8d	Prevention focus motivation × Organizational politics → Problem Prevention	Interaction	Not Support
H9	9	Promotion focus motivation × Psychological safety → Proactive behaviors	Interaction	Not Support
	9a	Promotion focus motivation × Psychological safety → Taking charge behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	9b	Promotion focus motivation × Psychological safety → Voice behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	9c	Promotion focus motivation × Psychological safety → Innovative behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	9d	Promotion focus motivation × Psychological safety → Problem prevention	Interaction	Not Support
H10	10	Prevention focus motivation × Psychological safety → Proactive behaviors	Interaction	Not Support
	10a	Prevention focus motivation × Psychological safety → Taking charge behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	10b	Prevention focus motivation × Psychological safety → Voice behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	10c	Prevention focus motivation × Psychological safety → Innovative behavior.	Interaction	Not Support
	10d	Prevention focus motivation × Psychological safety → Proactive behaviors	Interaction	Not Support

I. Leader behaviors and Followers' Proactive behaviors

The first purpose of this study was to investigate how different types of leader behaviors may affect their followers' proactive behaviors. Specifically, this study proposed that empowering behavior has a positive impact on followers' proactive behaviors; this study also hypothesized that directive behavior has a negative impact on

followers' proactive behaviors. As can be seen in Table 22, the results support the prediction of this study after controlling for other types of leader behaviors. For example, it is noteworthy that empowering behavior shows a significant positive result on proactive behaviors after controlling for directive behavior. Similarly, directive behavior demonstrates a significant negative impact on proactive behaviors after controlling for empowering behavior. Empowering behavior by leaders may foster proactive behaviors from their followers by offering autonomy and fulfilling their basic needs (Martin et al., 2013). On the other hand, this result reveals that leaders' directive behavior may prevent followers' proactive behaviors by tightly controlling them and focusing on fulfilling compliance.

II. Mediating Effect of Regulatory Focus Motivations

This study intended to examine the mediating mechanism of regulatory focus motivations between the empowering or directive behavior of leaders and the proactive behavior of their followers. In order to examine the mediating effects, this study investigated the relationship between leader behaviors and regulatory focus motivations stated in Hypotheses 3 and 5. As can be seen in Table 24, the results support Hypothesis 3 but not Hypothesis 5. Different from the prediction, the relationship between directive behavior and prevention focus was not significant. In Hypotheses 4 and 6, this study proposed that promotion focus motivation partially mediates the relationship between a leader's empowering behavior and followers' proactive behaviors, and it examined the mediating mechanism of followers' prevention focus motivation in the relationship between directive leader behavior and proactive follower behavior. However, the mediating effects of regulatory focus motivations were not supported, as shown in Tables 22 and 23. There might be some plausible reasons for why the mediating effects of regulatory focus motivations did not show significant results in the relationship between these two types of leader behaviors and proactive follower behaviors.

First, it might be that regulatory focus motivations are not be easily changed by

other factors, including leader behaviors. Most previous studies have considered regulatory focus to be a chronic disposition and examined the interactions of employees' regulatory focus and types of leader behaviors (e.g., De Cremer et al., 2009). In line with previous studies, it might be more appropriate to treat regulatory focus as a dispositional factor and examine the interactions of regulatory focus and two types of leader behaviors (i.e., empowering and directive behaviors).

Second, regulatory focus motivations may not be an appropriate mediating mechanism in the relationship between empowering or directive behavior and proactive behaviors. As noted in Table 8, fourteen studies have investigated the mediating effects of the relationship between empowering behavior and outcomes. Among these fourteen studies, seven have noted the mediating effects of psychological empowerment in the relationship between empowering leadership and outcomes (e.g., Fong & Shape). Three studies have investigated team level variables, such as team learning, team coordination, team empowerment, team mental model development, team potency, and innovative climate (Carmeli et al., 2011; Lorinkova et al., 2013; Sagnak, 2012). Hanssan et al. (2013) have found that empowering leadership is positively related to subordinates' affective commitment and perception of leader effectiveness through LMX. Additionally, previous studies have noted the mediating effects of work conditions, self-efficacy, adaptability, affective commitment, and dysfunctional resistance in the relationship between empowering leadership and work engagement (Ahearne et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011; Tuckey et al., 2012; Vecchio et al., 2010). From the findings of previous studies, it might be possible that employees working under empowering leadership may increase their performance because empowering leaders provide better job conditions or help build positive relationships with team members. Since empowering leadership is categorized as a relational-oriented behavior (DeRue et al., 2010), future research should examine affective or relational-oriented variables as mediators in the relationship between empowering behavior and outcomes. For example, employees with empowering leaders may demonstrate high satisfaction with their leader, leader endorsement, or trust in their leader, which may result in a high level of proactive

behaviors. Additionally, those employees may perceive supportive or cooperative team climates or high organizational or team commitment, which may lead to a high level of proactive behaviors. In addition, a positive affect or mood might be a linking mechanism between leaders' empowering behaviors and employees' proactive behaviors. Previous studies have noted the importance of a positive affect or mood as an antecedent of proactive behaviors (Bindl et al., 2012). Since empowering behavior involves encouraging employees and showing concern (Ahearne et al., 2005), employees may perceive a positive affect or mood from their leaders' empowering behaviors, which may lead to a high level of proactive behaviors.

As exhibited in Table 9, previous studies have investigated the mediating mechanism between directive behavior and outcomes (e.g., DeRue et al., 2010). Three studies have investigated team-level variables as mediating mechanisms, while one study has examined organizational commitment as a mediator in the relationship between directive behavior and in-role performance (Somech, 2005). Neubert and colleagues (2008) have discovered the mediating effect of prevention focus motivations between initiating structure and in-role performance. As noted in previous findings, little empirical examination has focused on the linking mechanisms between directive leadership and outcomes. Since directive leadership is categorized as a task-oriented behavior (DeRue et al., 2011), it might be worthwhile to investigate task related variables, such as task competence, role clarity, or goal clarity, as mediating mechanisms in future research. In particular, role clarity might be a potential mediator between directive behavior and proactive behaviors. Grant and Ashford (2008) have proposed that there is a positive relationship between situational ambiguity and proactive behaviors since employees under ambiguity are likely to perform proactive behaviors to reduce uncertainty. It might be possible that employees with directive leaders may perceive high role clarity, which may lead to low proactive behaviors since they do not need to broaden their roles or reduce uncertainty.

Third, the reasons the study failed to support the mediating effects of regulatory focus motivations in the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and

proactive behaviors can be found in the research design of this study. This study was conducted with a cross-sectional design, although a longitudinal design is considered to be more rigorous, to ensure a causal relationship between leader behaviors and proactive behaviors. In particular, measuring leader behaviors, motivations, and proactive behaviors concurrently may not be optimal for testing the true effects of leader behaviors on proactive behaviors through regulatory focus motivations. The mediating results might be different if the study took a more rigorous approach, such as conducting research with a longitudinal design. Future research may incorporate a longitudinal approach with an experimental design, which might be beneficial to supporting the suggested causal sequence.

This study collected different sources of data to reduce the potential of common method bias. For example, subordinates have rated their leaders' empowering and directive behaviors, their regulatory focus motivations, organizational politics, and psychological safety while leaders have evaluated their employees' proactive behaviors. Although proactive behaviors were measured not by self-rating but by supervisor rating to avoid issues of self-deception and social desirability, this might have some disadvantages, such as observational bias and egocentric bias (Grant & Rothbard, 2013). For example, supervisors may give higher ratings for their subordinates' proactive behaviors because employees may perform proactive behaviors when they are being observed or supervisors want to show that their subordinates are proactive. In addition, it may not be feasible that supervisors can fully measure their employees' proactive behaviors. Thus, in future research, it might be more objective to collect data from multiple sources, including self-rating or coworker rating. In particular, coworkers would be a great source to measure employees' proactive behaviors since they tend to spend a large amount of time together and have more chances to observe proactive behaviors than their supervisors.

Lastly, the study has been conducted in an Asian culture, specifically South Korea, where power-distance is higher than in Western culture (Hofstede, 1980). Employees from high power-distance cultures are likely to do what their leaders tell them to do and

tend to be highly influenced by their leaders compared to those in low power-distance cultures. Contrary to the prediction, prevention focus motivation was not a barrier to proactive behaviors in this study. This study has found that prevention focus motivation was not negatively related to proactive behaviors after controlling for promotion focus motivation. Furthermore, the relationship between directive behavior and prevention focus motivation was not significant. Although it was not hypothesized, this study found that empowering behavior was positively related to both promotion and prevention focus motivation. It is possible that prevention focus motivation is more positively interpreted in low power-distance cultures. The tendency toward prevention focus, which emphasizes duties and obligations, may be highly appreciated in low power-distance cultures. Although this study did not develop the conceptual model and related hypotheses based on cultural background, it is worth noting that the results may not be same in low power-distance cultures. In future studies, it might be beneficial to examine how prevention focus shows different outcomes in different cultural contexts.

III. Moderating Effect of Situational Conditions

This study has explored situational contexts that may increase or decrease the risks of engaging in proactive behaviors. This study selected organizational politics as a boundary condition that may increase the risks of performing proactive behaviors. In addition, this study examined psychological safety as a facilitator that may promote followers' proactive behaviors by fostering favorable conditions. Contrary to the prediction, the results showed that the moderating effects of organizational politics and psychological safety in the relationship between regulatory focus motivations and proactive behaviors were not significant. The reasons why organizational politics and psychological safety have failed to show the significant moderating effects in the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors might be explained by the following.

The situational factors, including organizational politics and psychological safety,

may be directly related to proactive behaviors. Although it was not hypothesized, the study has found that organizational politics and psychological safety have strong effects on proactive behaviors. While organizational politics showed a negative impact on proactive behaviors, psychological safety demonstrated a positive impact on them. Thus, it might be appropriate to treat the situational conditions as determinants of proactive behaviors rather than moderators. Previous studies have noted the important role of situational factors as antecedents of proactive behaviors (Parker et al., 2006). For example, participative safety climate, initiative climate, supportive culture, and interpersonal norms are positively related to proactive behaviors (Axtell et al., 2000; Williams et al., 2010). Furthermore, Detert and Burris (2007) have noted the positive effects of psychological safety on voice behavior. As an important situational factor, individuals may engage in challenging proactive behaviors when they perceive high psychological safety (Bradley et al., 2012). The study then built an alternative model after analyzing the initial results, and it made post hoc analyses to explore how the alternative model receives support.

IV. Post Hoc Analyses

The study conducted post hoc analyses to gain additional insight into proactive behaviors. First, the study examined the mediating effect of psychological safety on the relationship between the two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors. In line with previous studies (e.g., Lorinkova et al., 2013), leaders' empowering behaviors are likely to help build up positive team climates, which may lead to a high level of proactive behaviors. Since empowering leaders are likely to encourage their employees to speak up and allow their employees to make their own decisions (Arnold et al., 2000), employees with empowering leaders may perceive high psychological safety, which may lead to their engaging in proactive behaviors. Given the challenging nature of proactive behaviors, it is important that employees have a shared perception or belief that they can express themselves openly and talk freely within their team. On the other hand, directive

leaders who emphasize giving clear instructions, assigning goals, and monitoring their employees' tasks closely may not create a psychologically safe environment. Thus, as an alternative model, the study suggests that psychological safety mediates a positive relationship between empowering behavior and proactive behavior and a negative relationship between directive behavior and proactive behavior. Figure 5 presents this alternative model.

Adopting the mediating test suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), the study is required to investigate the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors as a first step. Resulting from Hypothesis 1 and 2 in this study, the first requirement is fulfilled. Empowering behavior was significantly positively related to followers' taking charge behavior (β =.38, $p\leq$.001), voice behavior (β =.40, $p\leq$.001), individual innovation (β =.23, $p\leq$.01) problem prevention (β = .38, $p\leq$.001) and overall proactive behavior (β =.38, $p\leq$.001). Directive behavior was significantly negatively related to followers' taking charge behavior (β =-.30, $p\leq$.001), voice behavior (β =-.23, $p\leq$.01), problem prevention (β =-.22, $p\leq$.01) and overall proactive behavior (β =-.26, $p\leq$.01); while, it was marginally related to individual innovation (β =-.16, $p\leq$.1). Next, the study needs to examine the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and psychological safety. As noted in Table 28, after all the control variables were entered, the results indicate that empowering behavior was significantly positively related to psychological safety(β =-.54, $p\leq$.001). However, directive behavior was not significantly related to psychological safety (β =-.09, *n. s.*). Thus, the result demonstrated that psychological safety is not the mediating variable in the relationship between directive behavior and proactive behavior. Lastly, in order to meet the requirement of mediation test, the mediator should be significantly related to the dependent variables with the independent variables included in the equation. Table 27 indicates that psychological safety is positively related to each type of proactive behavior as well as overall proactive behavior after controlling for two types of leader behaviors. Specifically, psychological safety is positively related to taking charge behavior (β =.21, $p\leq$.01), voice behavior (β =.24, $p\leq$.001), individual innovation (β =.25, $p\leq$.001), problem prevention (β =.22,

$p \leq .01$), and overall proactive behavior (β =.25, $p \leq .001$). Except for individual innovation, the empowering behavior shows significant beta weights in this step which may imply a presence of a partial mediation (taking charge: β =.27, $p \leq .01$; voice behavior:β =.27, $p \leq .01$; problem prevention:β =.26, $p \leq .01$; overall proactive behavior: β =.25, $p \leq .01$). For individual innovation, the study can conclude that a full mediation is present for the relationship between empowering behavior and individual innovation mediated by psychological safety since the beta of empowering behavior becomes non-significant after including psychological safety in the equation (individual innovation: β =.10, *n. s.*).

Second, the study has explored the moderating role of regulatory focus motivations in the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and psychological safety as an alternative model. Since the study has failed to show the mediating effects of regulatory focus motivations in the relationship between leader behaviors and proactive behaviors, the study suggests the possible moderating role of regulatory focus motivations in the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and psychological safety. Among four different interactions as noted in Table 28, the interaction term between promotion focus and directive behavior on psychological safety was significant (β= -.16, $p \leq .05$). However, the interaction of empowering behavior and promotion focus on psychological safety was not supported as well (β = .06, *n. s.*). Also, the moderating effects of prevention focus motivation were not significant between any types of leader behaviors and psychological safety (empowering behavior: β = -.05, *n. s*; directive behavior*:* β = -.04, *n. s*). To further explore this interaction, the study plotted the results using Aiken & West's (1991) procedure of ±1 SD in Figure 6. As shown in Figure 6, the negative relationship between directive behavior and psychological safety was strengthened when promotion focus was high, rather than when it was low. This result may suggest that employees may not perceive psychological safety when their regulatory focus motivations do not match with the types of leader behaviors. The results of post hoc analyses may imply the importance of congruence between followers' regulatory focus motivations and leader behaviors.

Figure 5. Alternative Model

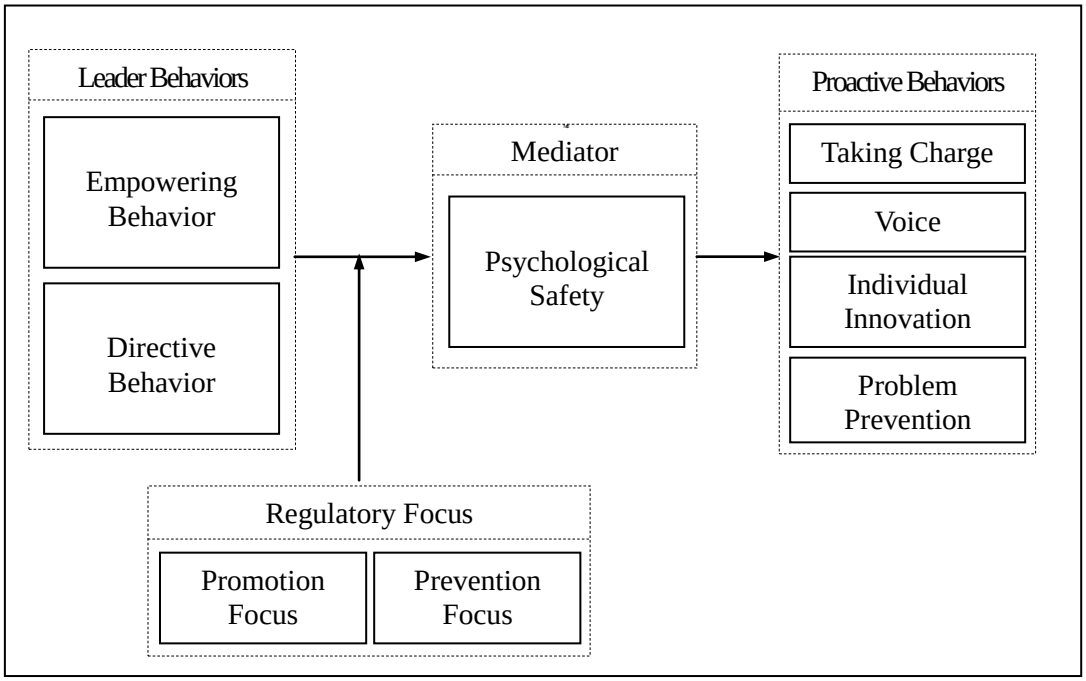


Table 27. Multiple Regression Results on Proactive Behavior (Mediating Effect of Psychological Safety)

	Proactive Behavior			Taking Charge			Voice Behavior			Individual Innovation			Problem Prevention		
Variable[b]	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3
Step1: Control Variables															
Age	.02	.01	.02	.05	.03	.04	.03	.02	.02	-.04	-.05	-.04	.06	.04	.05
Gender	.01	-.03	-.04	-.05	-.08	-.09	.08	.03	.02	.08	.05	.04	-.05	-.09	-.10
Education	.03	.06	.08	.05	.08	.10	-.04	-.02	.00	.07	.09	.11	-.01	.01	.03
Step 2: Main effects															
Empowering behavior		.38***	.25**		.38***	.27**		.40***	.27**		.23**	.10		.38***	.26**
Directive behavior		-.26**	-.24**		-.30***	-.28***		-.23**	-.21*		-.16†	-.14		-.22**	-.20*
Step 3: Main effect															
Psychological safety			.25***			.21**			.24***			.25***			.22**
F value	.18	4.42***	5.83***	.50	4.71***	5.38***	.58	5.10***	6.27***	.76	1.93†	3.45**	.26	4.37***	5.25***
R2	-.01	.07	.12	-.01	.08	.11	-.01	.09	.13	.00	.02	.06	-.01	.07	.11
Δ F		10.75***	11.74***		10.94***	7.97**		11.78***	10.92***		3.65*	10.60***		10.49***	8.82**
Δ R2		.09	.05		.09	.03		.10	.04		.03	.05		.09	.04

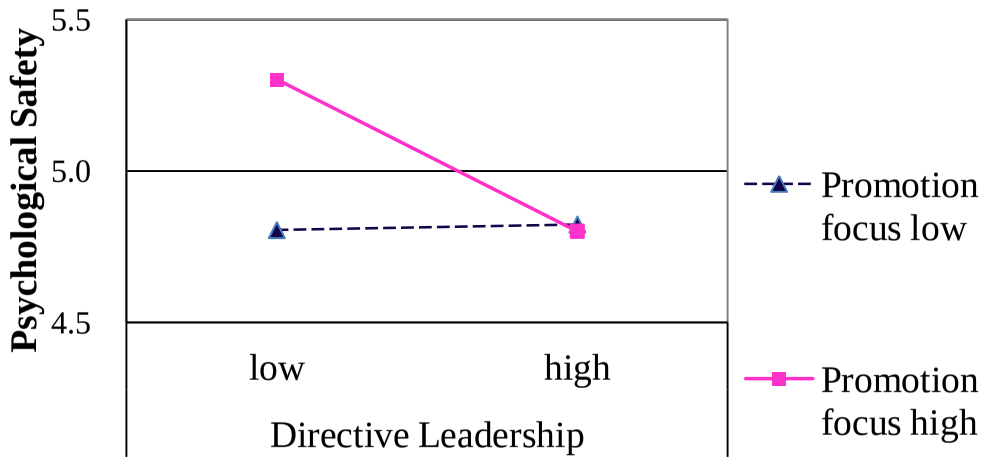
Note. N=215. [a] Entries are standardized regression coefficients. [b] Variables are standardized variables.
† $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$. Gender is coded such that 0 = female and 1= male.

Table 28. Multiple Regression Results on Psychological Safety (Moderating Effects of Regulatory Focus)

	Psychological Safety				
	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model4	Model5
Step1: Control Variables					
Age	-.02	-.04	.00	-.01	-.01
Gender	.12†	.04	.01	.01	.02
Education	-.11	-.09	-.11†	-.10	-.10
Step 2: Main effects					
Empowering behavior		.54***	.50***	.54***	.49***
Directive behavior		-.09	-.11	-.15†	-.13†
Step 3: Main effects					
Promotion focus motivation			.16*	.14*	.16*
Prevention focus motivation			-.04	-.05	-.05
Step 4: Interaction					
Empowering behavior * Promotion focus motivation				.06	
Directive behavior * Promotion focus motivation				-.16*	
Empowering behavior* Prevention focus motivation					-.05
Directive behavior * Prevention focus motivation					-.04
F value	1.74	14.26***	11.09***	9.23***	8.89***
R2	.01	.24	.25	.26	.25
Δ F		32.28***	2.62†	2.24	1.13
Δ R2		.23	.02	.02	.01

Note. N=215. [a] Entries are standardized regression coefficients. [b] Variables are standardized variables.
† $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$. Gender is coded such that 0 = female and 1= male.

Figure 6. Interaction Effect of Directive Behavior and Promotion Focus on Psychological Safety



Chapter 7. Conclusion

I. Summary of Major Findings

The study established ten hypotheses and conducted a survey using sample in South Korea in order to achieve the following four purposes. First, this study has examined how leader's empowering or directive behavior may influence followers' proactive behaviors. The findings indicated that empowering behavior is positively; whereas, directive behavior is negatively related to followers' proactive behaviors after controlling for other behaviors. From the findings, the study has revealed the important role of leader behaviors in influencing followers' proactive behaviors. Despite of its constructive nature, the results suggest that directive behavior may not be appropriate to increase followers' proactive behaviors. Second, this study has selected followers' regulatory focus motivations as a mediating mechanism between leader's empowering or directive behavior and followers' proactive behaviors. However, the results have demonstrated that the relationship between two types of leader behaviors and followers' proactive behaviors may not be mediated by followers' regulatory focus motivations. Third, this study has explored two types of situational contexts as moderators between followers' regulatory focus motivations and proactive behaviors. Specifically, organizational politics was chosen as a critical boundary factor; while, psychological safety was selected as an enhancing factor between followers' regulatory focus motivations and proactive behaviors. Contrary to the predictions, the interactions of followers' regulatory focus motivations and the two types of situational factors on proactive behaviors were not significant. Lastly, the study adopted a high-order concept of proactive behaviors developed by Parker & Collins (2010). The findings of the study demonstrated that each type of proactive behaviors (taking charge, voice, individual innovation and problem prevention) showed similar results with a high-order concept of proactive behaviors.

II. Implications

The current findings have some important theoretical implications regarding the existing literature. First, the study contributes to proactivity literature by examining antecedents of proactive behaviors in a comprehensive way. Recognizing the critical role of leader behaviors in generating proactive behaviors, this study has examined two types of leader behaviors simultaneously. By including multiple types of leader behaviors concurrently, this study has identified what types of leader behaviors may be beneficial to the promotion of proactive behaviors in employees. The results of the study suggest that empowering behavior may increase followers' proactive behaviors while directive behavior may prevent such behaviors. Furthermore, acknowledging the importance of mediating mechanisms, the study has examined the two types of regulatory focus motivations as mediators in the relationship between the two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors. Although these hypotheses were not supported, the results of the post hoc analyses suggest that employees with empowering leaders may increase proactive behaviors because of their perception of psychological safety. This study contributes to proactivity literature by indicating the important role of psychological safety as a linking mechanism between leaders' empowering behavior and followers' proactive behaviors. Moreover, the study has applied multiple types of proactive behaviors within a single study. Considering that most previous studies have used a single behavior, this study is meaningful in that the antecedents of four different types of proactive behaviors and the higher-order structure of proactive behaviors were examined in one study. Specifically, this study has adopted *proactive work behavior* developed by Parker & Collins (2010), which emphasizes the changes within an internal organizational environment. The measurement of proactive work behavior consists of taking charge, voice behavior, individual innovation, and problem prevention. Consistent with the predictions, the relationships between each proactive behavior and the higher-order structure of proactive behavior are highly correlated, as presented in Table 21. Furthermore, the results have also demonstrated similar findings between

leader behaviors and each type of proactive behavior as well as the higher-order structure of proactive behavior, which suggests the usefulness of the high-order structure variable.

Second, this study understands the importance of leader behaviors regarding followers' proactive behaviors. Taking an integrative approach, this study adds insight to leadership literature by producing results regarding how two types of leader behaviors may affect employees' proactive behaviors mediated by regulatory focus motivations in one framework. Specifically, the results suggest that leaders should demonstrate empowering behavior rather than directive behavior to encourage their followers' to engage in proactive behaviors. Previous studies have examined the positive effects of empowering behavior on creativity, OCB, and proactive behaviors (e.g., Martin et al., 2013). The finding of this study is in line with previous research, indicating that leaders' empowering behavior is positively related to each proactive behavior such as taking charge, voice behavior, individual innovation, and problem prevention as well as the high-order structure of proactive behaviors. Furthermore, although previous studies have shown the positive effects of directive behavior on efficiency, productivity, and task performance (Lorinkova et al., 2013), the results of this study have indicated that directive behavior is harmful to followers' proactive behaviors after controlling for empowering behavior. This study is meaningful in that two types of leader behaviors are investigated simultaneously and controlled in the analysis to examine the true effects of specific leader behavior on proactive behaviors. In future research, it might be meaningful to investigate other types of leader behaviors that may promote or stifle proactive behaviors. For example, shared leadership may be positively related to employees' proactive behaviors since it offers greater autonomy and participation among team members. Furthermore, previous studies have noted that abusive supervision and authoritarian leadership are negatively related to voice behavior (Burris et al., 2008; Chan, 2014). Similarly, close monitoring may be negatively related to proactive behaviors. Since leaders' close monitoring behavior is defined as "the extent to which supervisors keep close tabs on their employees to ensure that the employees do

exactly what they are told, perform tasks in expected ways, and do not do things that supervisors might disapprove of" (Zhou, 2003, p. 414), those closely monitored employees are likely to avoid exhibiting any types of challenging or risky behaviors that may decrease proactive behaviors. Previous research has found a negative relationship between leaders' close monitoring and creativity (George & Zhou, 2001). Future research should investigate the various types of leader behaviors that may influence employees' proactive behaviors.

Although it was not hypothesized, as noted in Table 24, this study has found that empowering behavior increases both promotion focus and prevention focus motivations. Contrary to expectation, the relationship between directive behavior and prevention focus motivation was not significant. Similar to empowering behavior, previous research has reported that ethical leadership is positively related to both promotion and prevention focus motivations (Neubert et al., 2013). It might be beneficial to conduct future research investigating how empowering behavior may lead to different outcomes through different regulatory focus motivations. Although the mediating mechanisms of regulatory focus motivations were not supported in this study, the post hoc analyses demonstrates that the positive relationship between empowering behavior and proactive behaviors is mediated by psychological safety. However, the relationship between directive behavior and proactive behaviors was not mediated by psychological safety. Most previous studies have investigated psychological empowerment as a mediating mechanism between empowering behavior and outcomes (Chen et al., 2011). This study suggests that psychological safety is a possible mediating mechanism between empowering behavior and outcomes. Building upon this study, future research may examine how empowering behavior is related to other outcomes mediated by psychological safety. For example, employees under empowering leadership may increase their knowledge sharing behaviors because of psychological safety.

Lastly, this study has adopted regulatory focus theory to deepen the understanding if why individuals may perform challenging proactive behaviors. This study intended to show how empowering or directive leaders influence their followers' proactive

behaviors by inducing different regulatory focus motivations within them. However, the hypotheses were not supported, which may imply that regulatory focus may not be a linking mechanism between the two types of leader behaviors and proactive behaviors. From the findings of the current hypotheses, the study has developed an alternative model, as presented in Figure 5, and conducted post hoc analyses to add value to the existent proactivity literature. As can be seen in Table 28, promotion focus motivation moderated the relationship between directive behavior and psychological safety after controlling for empowering behavior and prevention focus motivation. As indicated in Figure 6, the negative relationship between directive behavior and psychological safety was strengthened when promotion focus motivation was high. This moderating result may imply that promotion-focused followers may feel unsafe about expressing their feelings and opinions when they perceive that their motivations (i.e., promotion focus motivation) do not fit well with their leaders' behavior type (i.e., directive behavior). The moderating result of the post doc analyses is in line with regulatory fit theory, which emphasizes the fit between employees' regulatory focus and the types of leader behaviors. According to regulatory fit theory (Higgins, 2000), employees who experience fit with their leaders are likely to show more positive attitudes and outcomes. Previous research has demonstrated that employees who perceive fit from their leaders are likely to report high performance, leader effectiveness, and low turnover intention (Hamstra et al., 2014; Stam et al., 2010). For example, Hamstra and colleagues (2014) have found out that promotion-focused employees are likely to experience fit when their leaders demonstrate transformational behavior; whereas, prevention-focused employees are likely to feel fit when their leaders show transactional behavior. Their results indicated that employees who perceive fit from their leaders have lower turnover intention. De Cremer and colleagues (2009) have noted that the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and prosocial behavior is stronger among employees with high prevention focus, since the self-sacrificial leadership style matches the goals of prevention-focused employees. Similarly, the results of the post doc analyses suggest that promotion-focused employees may experience misfit when their leaders

demonstrate directive behavior. However, it is not certain whether promotion-focused employees may experience fit when their leaders exhibit empowering behavior, since the interactions between empowering behavior and promotion focus or prevention focus were not significant. Thus, future research should be conducted to investigate how fit or misfit between leader behaviors and follower regulatory focus may influence various types of attitudes and outcomes.

This study also provides valuable practical implications. First, the results of the study provide insights into what types of leader behaviors are beneficial to encouraging proactive behaviors in followers. Although directive behavior may be effective in certain outcomes, it may not be appropriate for promoting proactive behaviors. Recognizing the current findings, an organization should develop a leadership program that is appropriate for influencing their followers' specific behaviors. For example, if the followers' proactive behaviors are particularly critical to increasing organizational effectiveness, the organization should put effort toward developing its leaders' empowering behavior and discouraging directive behavior. In this case, leaders should be trained to give more autonomy and opportunity to their employees. In addition, the employees' participation in the decision making process should be encouraged.

Second, based upon the findings of the post hoc analyses, an organization should note the importance of psychological safety as a valuable linking mechanism between empowering behavior and proactive employee behaviors. In order to encourage proactive behaviors, an organization should find a way to foster a psychologically safe environment. Furthermore, the post hoc analyses may suggest the importance of regulatory fit between the employees' regulatory focus motivations and the leaders' types of behaviors. As the findings exhibit, employees may feel unsafe or uncomfortable about expressing their opinions when they experience misfit between their regulatory focus motivations and their leaders' behavior. Thus, managers should consider this possibility when they set up new teams or change teams, and they should put effort into creating a psychologically safe environment.

Lastly, although it was not hypothesized, the results of this study also found a

negative relationship between organizational politics and followers' proactive behaviors. From the findings, it is important that organizations reduce organizational politics to promote proactive behaviors. Previous research found a negative relationship between feedback and job autonomy and organizational politics (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Thus, it might be beneficial to design job conditions that foster feedback and job autonomy to decrease the perception of organizational politics.

III. Limitations and Future Research

This study is subject to several limitations that should be addressed. First, the study used a cross-sectional design and could not infer causality. Since a reversed relationship between proactive behaviors and the two types of leader behaviors is not likely to occur, a cross-sectional design did not appear to affect the findings of this study much. Furthermore, common method bias might be a concern. The study attempted to reduce this potential problem by collecting data from two different sources: the employees and their supervisors. For example, the followers' proactive behaviors were evaluated by their immediate supervisors. Therefore, it is less likely that the findings are affected by common method bias. Nonetheless, future research needs to take a more careful approach to avoid these potential problems. Longitudinal designs with multiple sources might be beneficial in future research.

Second, the study may not include all of the possible variables that may determine proactive behaviors. Since the study has revealed the important role of leaders in increasing proactive behaviors, it would be worthwhile to consider other types of leader behaviors in future research. Although the study has failed to identify organizational politics and psychological safety as moderators, it might be beneficial to investigate other situational factors in future research. For example, task characteristics and coworker influence appear to be potential situational factors that moderate the relationship between regulatory focus motivations and followers' proactive behaviors. Furthermore, the study has only focused on the antecedents of proactive behaviors. It

might be an interesting research topic to investigate the consequences of proactive behaviors in the future. Specifically, some scholars have noted the possible negative aspects of proactive behaviors (Grant et al., 2009). For example, Grant and colleagues have noted that the relationship between proactive behaviors and performance is likely to be stronger for those employees with high prosocial value or low negative affect. In other words, the relationship between proactive behaviors and performance may not necessarily be positive when employees demonstrate low prosocial value or high negative affect. Future research may need to examine the conditions under which followers' proactive behaviors may result in negative organizational outcomes.

Despite its limitations, this study enriches the understanding of proactive behaviors by taking a comprehensive approach, examining two different types of leader behaviors, motivational factors, and situational factors in one framework. Recognizing the future focused and change oriented characteristics of proactive behaviors, this study has revealed that it is not simply leader behavior but empowering behavior, per se, that promotes proactive behaviors in followers; whereas, directive behavior may discourage such challenging behaviors. Additional research in this area seems to be not only warranted but also critical to deepening the understanding of proactive behaviors.

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SURVEY ITEMS (English)

<Employee Rating>

Empowering behavior

1. My leader helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company
2. My leader helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company
3. My leader helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture
4. My leader makes many decisions together with me
5. My leader often consults me on strategic decisions
6. My leader solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me
7. My leader believes that I can handle demanding tasks
8. My leader believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes
9. My leader expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level
10. My leader allows me to do my job my way
11. My leader makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple
12. My leader allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy customer needs

Directive Behavior

1. When it comes to my work, my leader gives me instructions on how to carry it out.
2. My leader provides commands in regard to my work
3. My leader gives me instructions about how to do my work.
4. My leader establishes the goals for my work.
5. My leader establishes my performance goals.
6. My leader sets the goals for my performance.

Promotion Focus Motivation

1. I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement.
2. I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success.

3. If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project I would definitely take it.
4. If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one.
5. A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job.
6. I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement.
7. I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations.
8. My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be.
9. At work, I am motivated by my hopes and aspirations.

Prevention Focus Motivation

1. I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security.
2. At work I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities.
3. Fulfilling my work duties is very important to me.
4. At work, I strive to live up to the responsibilities and duties given to me by others.
5. At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security.
6. I do everything I can to avoid loss at work.
7. Job security is an important factor for me in any job search.
8. I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work.
9. I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work.

Organizational Politics

1. There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on
2. People do what s best for them, not what s best for the organization
3. People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them
4. People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie
5. Many employees are trying to maneuver their way into the in group
6. Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others

Psychological Safety

1. If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you®
2. Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues
3. People on this team sometimes reject others for being different ®

4. It is safe to take a risk on this team,

5. It is difficult to ask other members of this team for help ®

6. No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts,

7. Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized.

<Leader Rating>

Proactive Behavior

Taking Charge

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.

Voice behavior

1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group

2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group

3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and Others in the group disagree with him/her

4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group
5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group
6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Individual innovation

1. Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.

2. Generates creative ideas.

3. Promotes and champions ideas to others.

4. Investigates and secures funds needed to implement new ideas.

5. Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas

6. Is innovative

Problem Prevention

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?

SURVEY ITEMS (Korean Translation)

<부하용>

리더의 임파워링 행동

1. 나의 상사는 나의 목표와 회사의 목표가 어떻게 연관되어 있는지 이해할 수 있도록 도와준다
2. 나의 상사는 회사 성과에 있어 나의 일이 얼마나 중요한 역할을 하는지 이해할 수 있도록 도와준다
3. 나의 상사는 회사의 전체적인 방향 속에서 나의 일을 이해할 수 있도록 도와준다
4. 나의 상사는 다양한 의사결정에 나를 참여시킨다
5. 나의 상사는 전략적 의사결정을 할 때 나와 자주 의논한다
6. 나의 상사는 나에게 영향을 미치는 의사결정을 할 때 나의 의견을 구한다
7. 나의 상사는 내가 어려운 과업을 잘 수행할 수 있다고 믿는다
8. 나의 상사는 내가 실수를 할 때 조차도, 나의 능력이 나아질 수 있다고 믿는다
9. 나의 상사는 내가 어려운 업무도 수행할 수 있다고 확신을 보여준다
10. 나의 상사는 나의 직무를 내 방식대로 수행할 수 있도록 해준다
11. 나의 상사는 규칙과 규정들을 간소화하여 나의 업무가 보다 효율적으로 진행될 수 있도록 해준다
12. 나의 상사는 업무 달성(또는 고객 만족)을 위하여 나에게 중요한 의사결정을 신속히 내릴 수 있게 해준다

리더의 지시적 행동

1. 나의 상사는 나에게 업무를 어떻게 수행해야 하는지에 대한 지시를 내린다.
2. 나의 상사는 내 업무 목표를 설정해준다.
3. 나의 상사는 나에게 목표를 설정해 준다
4. 나의 상사는 내 업무와 관련된 지시 명령을 내린다.
5. 나의 상사는 나에게 방향을 제시하고 목표를 설정해 준다.
6. 업무에 하는데 있어서, 나의 상사는 어떻게 업무를 수행해야 하는지 지시를 내린다.

향상초점동기

1. 나는 업무에서 성장을 위한 목표를 극대화 하기 위한 기회를 잡으려 한다.
2. 나는 성공을 위해서 위험을 감수하려는 경향이 있다.
3. 만일 위험이 높지만 보상 또한 높은 프로젝트에 참여할 기회가 주어진다면, 나는 반드시 그 기회를 잡겠다.
4. 만일 현재 일이 나의 발전에 도움이 되지 않는다면, 나는 새로운 일을 찾아볼 용의가 있다.
5. 성장의 기회는 내가 일 자리를 선택할 때 중요한 판단요소이다.
6. 나는 내 성장을 가져올 수 있는 과업 달성에 집중한다.
7. 나는 어떻게 하면 내 포부를 달성할 수 있을지 구체적으로 상상하는 데 많은 시간을 쓴다.
8. 나의 업무 우선순위는 내가 무엇을 열망하는지에 의해 결정된다.
9. 직장에서, 나의 소망과 포부는 나를 동기부여 한다.

예방초점동기

1. 나는 고용보장 가능성을 증가시키기 위해 과업을 정확히 수행하려고 노력한다
2. 나는 나에게 주어진 책임을 완수하는데 집중한다.
3. 업무에 대한 책임을 충족시키는 것은 나에게 매우 중요하다.
4. 일을 할 때, 나는 다른 사람들이 나에게 부여한 의무와 책임을 완수하려고 애쓴다.
5. 나는 일을 할 때, 나의 고용보장을 위해 필요한 업무를 달성하는데 주로 신경을 쓴다.
6. 나는 일을 할 때, 실수 및 실패를 피하기 위해서 할 수 있는 모든 일을 한다.
7. 일자리를 찾을 때, 고용보장은 중요한 고려사항이다.
8. 나는 업무에서 실수 및 실패를 피하기 위해서 노력한다.
9. 나는 업무에서 잠재적인 실수 및 실패를 피하기 위해서 매우 조심한다.

조직의 정치적 인식

1. 우리 회사에선 자기 잇속만 차리는 행동이 빈번히 일어난다
2. 우리 회사 사람들은 조직이 아닌 자신에게 좋은 일을 한다
3. 우리 회사 사람들은 자신을 도와줄 수 있는 사람들에게 아첨하는데 많은 시간을 쓴다

4. 우리 회사 사람들은 은밀하게 자신의 이익을 챙기기 위해 일한다
5. 우리 회사의 많은 직원들은 주류가 되기 위해 교묘하게 행동한다
6. 우리 회사 사람들은 다른 사람들에게 잘 보이기 위해 서로 배신한다

심리적 안정감

1. 우리 팀의 구성원들은 다루기 어렵거나 껄끄러운 문제들도 제기할 수 있다
2. 나는 우리 팀에서 큰 걱정 없이 위험을 감수할 수 있다
3. 우리 팀의 구성원들은 내 노력을 고의적으로 깎아 내리는 행동은 하지 않는다
4. 우리 팀에서 나의 독창적인 기술과 재능은 가치 있게 여겨지고 활용된다
5. 내가 만약 팀에서 실수를 저지르면, 그것은 종종 나에게 불리하게 작용한다 ®
6. 우리 팀의 구성원들은 서로가 다르다는 이유로 상대방을 배척한다 ®
7. 우리 팀의 구성원들에게 도움을 요청하는 것은 어렵다®

<상사용>

주도적 행동

책임인식

1. 이 직원은 일을 할 때 개선된 업무절차를 적용하려 노력한다.
2. 이 직원은 업무방식을 효과적으로 개선하려 한다.
3. 이 직원은 우리 팀의 업무절차를 개선시키려고 노력한다.
4. 이 직원은 회사에 더 도움이 되는 새로운 업무방식을 정립하려 노력한다.
5. 이 직원은 비생산적인 조직의 규율이나 정책을 개선하려고 노력한다.
6. 이 직원은 조직 내 운영방식을 개선하기 위해 건설적인 제안을 한다.
7. 이 직원은 잘못된 절차나 제도를 바로잡으려 노력한다.
8. 이 직원은 불필요한 절차들을 간소화하려고 노력한다.
9. 이 직원은 조직의 긴급한 현안에 대한 해결책을 실행하려 노력한다.
10. 이 직원은 업무 효율성 증진을 위해 새로운 기술이나 업무방식을 도입하려고 노력한다.

의견 표명

1. 이 직원은 업무에 영향을 줄만한 문제들에 대한 방안을 모색하고 제시한다.
2. 이 직원은 업무에 영향을 주는 문제들에 대해 말하거나 다른 사람들도 이러한 이슈들에 관여하도록 격려한다.
3. 이 직원은 설령 자신의 의견이 다른 사람들과 다르고 그들이 동의하지 않더라도, 직무와 관련된 문제들에 대해 다른 사람들에게 의견을 개진한다.
4. 이 직원은 그의 의견이 도움이 될 가능성이 있는 이슈들에 대해 잘 알고 있다.
5. 이 직원은 직장 생활의 질에 영향을 끼칠수 있는 문제들에 대해 관여한다.
6. 이 직원은 새로운 프로젝트나 절차상 변화를 위해 본인의 아이디어를 제시한다.

개인의 창의적 행동

1. 이 직원은 새로운 기술, 공정, 기술 및 제품 아이디어를 찾는다.
2. 이 직원은 새로운 아이디어를 산출한다.
3. 이 직원은 새로운 아이디어를 촉진하고 전파한다
4. 이 직원은 새로운 아이디를 실행하기 위해 조사하고 필요한 자금을 확보한다
5. 이 직원은 새로운 아이디어를 실행하기 위해 적절한 계획과 스케줄을 수립한다
6. 이 직원은 창의적이다.

문제점 방지

1. 이 직원은 단기적으로는 시간이 걸릴 수 있으나 장기적으로 효율적인 절차나 시스템을 발전시키려고 노력한다.
2. 이 직원은 무엇이 잘못 되었는지 원인을 밝히려고 노력한다.
3. 이 직원은 어떻게 하면 같은 문제가 발생하지 않을 수 있을지 계획하는데 시간을 보낸다.

국문초록

상사의 행동이 구성원의 주도적 행동에 미치는 영향

서울대학교 대학원
경영학과 경영학 전공
김석영

경영환경이 급변하고 경쟁적인 오늘날, 조직은 구성원들이 보다 주도적으로 업무를 수행할 것을 기대하고 있다. 주도성의 핵심요소는 자기주도성, 변화지향성, 미래지향성이며 선행연구들에 의하면 부하직원의 주도적 행동은 개인과 조직에 긍정적 영향을 가져오는 것으로 밝혀졌다. 부하직원의 주도적 행동이 조직 성과에 중대한 영향을 끼치는 만큼, 본 논문은 조직 내에서 상사의 행동이 부하직원의 주도적 행동에 미치는 영향을 검증하는 것을 목적으로 한다. 구체적으로, 상사의 어떤 행동들이 구성원의 주도적 행동에 영향을 미치며 그 방향성은 어떻게 다른지, 그리고 이 관계를 매개 및 조절하는 요인이 무엇인지를 밝히는 것을 연구목적으로 다음과 같은 4가지 연구과제를 설정하였다.

첫째, 상사의 임파워링 또는 지시적 행동이 구성원의 주도적 행동에 미치는 영향이 어떻게 다른지 실증적으로 검토하고자 한다. 둘째, 상사의 임파워링 행동 또는 지시적 행동과 구성원의 주도적 행동 간의 관계에 내재된 메커니즘의 일부를 밝히고자 한다. 구체적으로 상사의 임파워링 또는 지시적 행동이 부하직원의 조절초점동기를 통해 구성원의 주도적 행동에 어떠한 영향을 미치는지를 파악하려고 한다. 셋째, 구성원의 조절초점동기와 주도적 행동 간의 관계에 영향을 미치는 상황요인들을 검토하고자 한다. 조직과 팀의 대한 전반적인 인식 및 분위기에 따라 개별 구성원의 조절초점동기에 따른 주도적 행동은 강화되기도 하고 혹은 그 영향력이 상쇄되기도 한다. 이에 본 연구에서는 조직의 정치적 인식과 심리적 안정감을 상황적 요인으로 채택하여 그 영향을 검토하고자 한다. 마지막으로, 본 연구에서는 구성원의 주도성을 행동적인 관점을 채택하여 한가지 행동이 아닌 다양한 행동을 포함하고자 한다. 구체적으로, 본 연구에서는 Parker & Collins (2010)가 상위개념(high-order construct)으로 개발한 주도적 업무행동(proactive work behavior)을 사용하여 구성원의 주도적 행동을 검증하고자 한다.

본 연구는 한국에 위치한 다양한 기업을 대상으로 설문조사를 실시하였으며, 설문은 구성원 및 그들의 직속상사로 구성된 쌍에게 배포되었으며 그 중 최종적으로 215 쌍의 자료가 분석에 사용되었다. 위계적 회귀분석을 활용하여 분석한 결과, 상사의 임파워링 행동은 구성원의 주도적 행동과 정적인 관계를 가지는 반면, 상사의 지시적 행동은 구성원의 주도적 행동과 부적인 관계를 가지는 것으로 나타났다. 하지만 구성원의 조절초점동기는 매개로 유의하지 않은 것으로 나타났으며 상황요인으로 설정한 조직의 정치적 인식 및 심리적 안정감의 조절효과도 유의하지 않았다. 따라서, 본 연구에서는 구성원의 심리적 안정감을 매개변수로 그리고 구성원의 조절초점동기를 조절변수로 대안적 모형을 제시하였다. 대안적 모형을 분석한 결과, 상사의 임파워링 행동은 심리적 안정감을 통해 구성원의 주도적 행동을 가져오는 것으로 나타났다. 또한 상사의 지시적 행동과 구성원의 심리적 안정감의 관계에서 구성원의 향상초점동기가 조절하는 것으로 밝혀졌다. 구체적으로, 구성원의 조절초점동기가 향상초점인 경우, 상사의 지시적 행동이 구성원의 주도적 행동에 미치는 부적 영향이 강화되는 것으로 나타났다.

본 연구의 기여점은 다음과 같다. 첫째, 구성원의 주도적 행동에 영향을 미치는 다양한 변수들을 포괄적으로 검증하였다. 둘째, 상사의 임파워링 그리고 지시적 행동과 구성원의 주도적 행동 간의 정적 그리고 부적 관계를 밝힘으로써 리더십 문헌연구에 기여점이 있다. 셋째, 본 연구에서 가설로 설정한 조절초점동기의 매개 기능은 유의하지 않았지만 대안적 모형을 통하여 조절초점동기가 상사의 행동과 심리적 안정감 사이의 조절변수로 유의하다는 것을 밝혔다. 본 연구는 기여점 못지 않게 몇 가지 연구의 한계점을 가지고 있다. 횡단연구로 인해 명확한 인과관계를 주장할 수 없으며 구성원의 주도적 행동에 영향을 미칠 수 있는 다양한 변수들을 고려하지 않았다. 향후에는 이런 한계점을 보완하는 연구가 추가적으로 이루어져 구성원의 주도적 행동에 대한 이해가 한층 더 깊어지기를 기대해 본다.

주요어: 부하의 주도적 행동, 임파워링 행동, 지시적 행동, 조절초점이론, 향상초점동기, 예방초점동기, 조직의 정치적 인식, 심리적 안정감

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