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Thesis

**APPRAISING PROACTIVE BEHAVIOR: DO SUPERVISORS' ATTRIBUTIONS OF
EMPLOYEES' MOTIVES TO ENGAGE IN PROACTIVE BEHAVIORS MATTER?**

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i. Abstract

In recent proactivity literature, it is recommended to study how supervisors appraise proactive behavior, because of the mixed findings of positive and negative consequences for employees (e.g. Bolino et al., 2010; Grant & Ashford, 2008). The present research responded to this call. Using a sample of 153 supervisor-employee dyads, I explored the influence of attributed motives of supervisors on the appraisal of proactive behaviors of their employees. Findings suggest that the attributed performance-enhancement motive is the most important predictor of supervisor's appraisal. Also, employees' affective organizational commitment as perceived by supervisors was found to significantly explain the appreciation, and supervisors' role breadth self efficacy the desirability of proactive behavior. Implications and limitations of the study as well as future research directions on the study of the appraisal of proactive behavior are discussed.

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1. Introduction

In today's organizations work has become more dynamic and decentralized. Proactive behavior and initiative have therefore become more critical determinants of organizational success (Crant, 2000). Many organizations even view proactive behavior of employees as essential for remaining competitive and relevant in a dynamic environment (Bolino, Valcea, & Harvey, 2010). Being proactive is about "making things happen, anticipating and preventing problems, and seizing opportunities. It involves self-initiated efforts to bring about change in the work environment and/or oneself to achieve a different future" (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010, p.827).

Most research shows an association between proactive behavior at work and positive outcomes. Hacker (1992 in Frese et al., 1996), for example, found that the best workers in a given department are characterized by having a more proactive approach to work than average workers. Thompson (2005), who examined the relationship between proactive personality and job performance, found that proactive employees reap performance benefits by means of developing social networks that provide them the resources and latitude to pursue high-level initiatives. Seibert, Kraimer, and Crant. (2001) developed a model linking proactive personality and career success and found that proactive employees had more promotions, more salary growth, and greater career satisfaction. Crant and Bateman (2000) tested hypotheses regarding the relationship between proactive personality and perceptions of charismatic leadership, and found that proactive personality is positively associated with supervisors' independent ratings of charismatic leadership.

Behaving proactively is thus related to many positive outcomes. Bateman and Crant (1993), however, explicitly stated that not all proactive behaviors are favorable and desirable, and that these behaviors can sometimes lead to negative outcomes. The

possibility of negative consequences of proactive behavior is also mentioned in more recent literature (see e.g. Bolino et al., 2010). Findings suggest that employees who behave proactively at work may also experience higher levels of job stress, role overload, and work-family conflict (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Seibert et al. (2001) studied the consequences of voice behavior and noted that employees who show high proactivity in terms of voice receive fewer promotions and lower salaries than their less proactive colleagues.

These ambiguous results on the consequences of proactive behavior could stem from what is in literature suggested as 'the initiative paradox'; employees are expected to use independent judgment and initiative, but are simultaneously expected to think and act like their bosses (Campbell, 2000). Organizations tend to encourage employees to behave proactively, but frequently punish proactive behavior that they consider inappropriate (Bolino et al., 2010). Because of the mixed findings of negative and positive consequences, it is recommended in literature to study what type of responses proactive behaviors provoke in supervisors and how they evaluate these behaviors (e.g. Grant & Ashford, 2008; Bolino et al., 2010).

Up till now only few researchers responded to this call. However, the studies that do address the evaluation of proactive behavior show some interesting findings. Lam, Hang, and Snape (2007) found that perceived motives for proactive feedback-seeking influence supervisors' objective work performance evaluations. Grant, Parker, and Collins (2009) discovered that employees' prosocial values and affect, when behaving proactively, send signals about their underlying intentions which then influence performance evaluations of the supervisor.

The present research also addresses how leaders perceive and evaluate their employees' proactive behavior. The main research question is: "Do supervisors'

attribution of employees' motives to engage in proactive behaviors influence the appraisal of these behaviors?" The aim of the study is to reveal to what extent the attributed motive of supervisors influences supervisor's evaluation of subordinates' proactive behavior.

The present study expands previous research by classifying four types of perceived underlying motives (namely; organizational concern, prosocial values, impression management, and performance-enhancement motive), which are measured directly by the supervisor. Furthermore, multiple types of proactive behavior are studied at once (voice and taking charge). Findings of the present research are scientifically and practically relevant because they give a more detailed insight on supervisors' evaluations of proactive behavior, and therefore contribute to the debate on the positive and negative effects of the engagement in proactive behavior at work.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 Proactive behavior

In contrast to a more passive, reactive pattern of behavior, proactivity has an action-orientation towards organizational behavior (Crant, 2000). Proactive behavior can be context-specific (e.g. proactive socialization or feedback-seeking) as well as more general. It is important to note that there is a difference between proactive behavior and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCBs are employee behaviors that, "although not critical to the task or job, serve to facilitate organizational functioning" (Lee & Allen, 2002, p. 132). Both OCBs and proactive behaviors are therefore extra-role behaviors. Many different types of OCBs may also qualify as proactive behaviors, but OCBs can also be passive or reactive behaviors (Bolino et al., 2010). Because the field of OCB is to date

more intensively studied than the field of proactive behavior, I sometimes draw upon OCB literature to support my ideas.

In the present study two types of proactive work behavior are studied, namely taking charge and voice. Both types of proactive behaviors can be classified as challenging-promotive extra-role behaviors. Promotive behaviors are proactive; they promote, encourage, or cause things to happen. Challenging behavior emphasizes ideas and issues; it is change-oriented and can damage relationships (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

The concept of voice was introduced by Van Dyne and LePine (1998), and entails innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures; speaking up that is constructive and intended to positively contribute to the organization. An illustrative behavior of voice is an employee who communicates his or her views about work issues to others in the workplace, even if these views differ from others, and others disagree (Parker & Collins, 2010).

The second type of proactive behavior is taking charge, which entails voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). An illustrative behavior of taking charge is an employee who tries to bring about improved procedures in the workplace (Parker & Collins, 2010). Taking charge is considered a more situation-dependent than dispositional behavior. People who engage in this type of behavior make a calculated, deliberate decision in which they weigh anticipated costs against anticipated benefits (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

With both these types of proactive behavior, actors challenge the 'status quo' (Frese & Fay, 2001). In order to do this, employees deviate from their prescribed work-role which can be perceived as threatening to supervisors. Also, they suggest

improvements which can cause tension between employees who are more change-oriented and those who are not. Both behaviors are risky because they could lead to existence losses (e.g. demotion), and related losses (e.g. humiliation) (Detert & Burris, 2007). Supervisors' evaluations of these behaviors are very important because supervisors are often the target of the behavior. Furthermore, their reactions will probably influence the likelihood of the occurrence of the behavior through feedback loops; the success of past efforts to initiate change is taken into account when employees weigh potential costs and benefits for future proactive behaviors (Morisson & Phelps, 1999).

Before supervisors can evaluate proactive behavior, they have to know that their subordinates engage in those behaviors. To my knowledge no study has ever focused on the relationship between self-ratings and supervisor-ratings of proactive behavior. However, results of a meta-analysis of self-supervisor ratings indicate that in general there is only a moderate correlation between self- and supervisor-ratings (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). The following relations are expected:

Hypothesis 1a: There is moderate correlation between self- and supervisor- rated amount of proactive behavior.

Hypothesis 1b: The self-rated amount of proactive behavior has no direct impact on the evaluation of proactive behavior by the supervisor.

2.2 Evaluating work behavior

Most employees are regularly evaluated, based on set targets or their competences. These work evaluations can be obtained from many sources, but supervisors are usually regarded to be the best source to evaluate employee's performance, since the supervisor is often responsible for reward decisions such as pay,

and promotion. He/she must be able to tie effective performance to the employment actions taken (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011). However, every human judgment can lead to rater error, due to heuristics (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973).

Grant and Ashford (2008) argue that observers of proactive behavior (e.g. supervisors) are more likely to make a dispositional attribution for the actor's behavior. According to them, this type of attribution is quite appropriate, because proactive behavior derives from employees' voluntary choice to anticipate, plan, and act in advance and choices are self-implicating. Proactive behavior is voluntarily chosen and initiated from within and employees therefore appear personally responsible for the choice to engage in the behavior. As a result, proactive behavior appears to be an expression and reflection of employees' personal signatures and characteristic style.

As mentioned before, humans rely on cues and heuristics due to their limited cognitive ability. Therefore, they are not able to observe behavior objectively and attributions and evaluation are often biased. In performance evaluation literature three main sources of bias can be distinguished: rater (supervisor) characteristics, ratee (employee) characteristics, and their relationship characteristics. These three sources of bias were also mentioned in a study of De Stobbeleir, Ashford, and Sully de Luque (2010), who examined the subjective evaluation by managers of employees' feedback-seeking and included employee (ratee) and manager (rater) characteristics in their model. They noted that it would be worthwhile to also take relational characteristics into account.

Figure 2.1 displays the research model I designed. It describes the process of how an employee (E) engages in proactive behavior, which is then perceived by the supervisor (S), who attributes the behavior to a certain motive and evaluates and appraises the behavior. The focus of the present research is predominantly on the

attributed motives of supervisors to the proactive behaviors of their employees. However, based upon the advice of De Stobbeleir et al. (2010), I also included theoretically relevant employee (perceived performance level and perceived affective organizational commitment), relational (leader-member exchange), and supervisor characteristics (role breadth self efficacy).

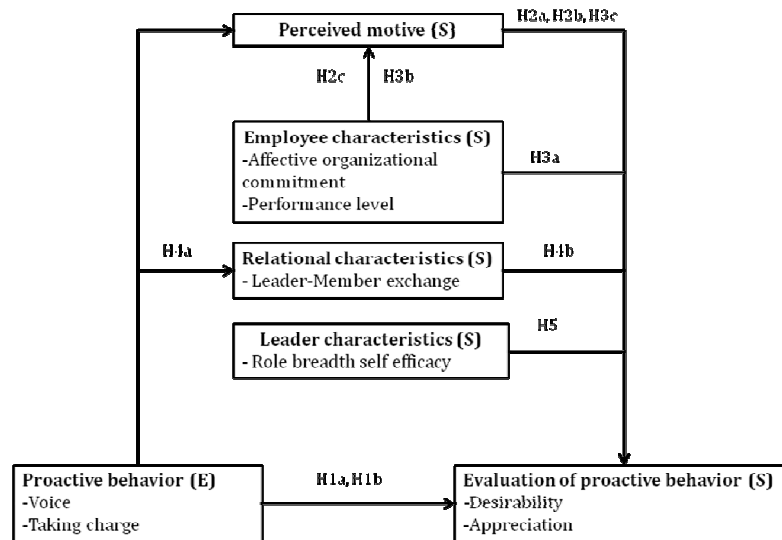


Figure 2.1. Research model.

2.3 Attributed motives

Proactive behavior is rewarded when supervisors are pleased with the behavior, and is punished when they are displeased (Grant & Ashford, 2008). My expectation is that a supervisor's appraisal of the behavior depends on the motive that is attributed to the proactivity of the employee, because it influences how the behavior is interpreted. A motive is an internal state based on a need in a person that differs in intensity, depending on the person and his or her circumstances (Larsen & Buss, 2008).

Rioux and Penner (2001) identified three types of motives to engage in OCB. Two types are relatively selfless motivations and include regard for the organization (referred to as organizational concern) and the desire to help others (prosocial values).

Another, less selfless, motivation is the impression management motive which is driven by the desire to be perceived as helpful in order to acquire specific rewards (Finkelstein, 2006).

After the findings of Rioux and Penner's OCB motives, researchers started studying whether the different types of motives result in a difference in work evaluation. Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, and Turnley (2010) found that performance ratings were related to the employee's motive to engage in OCB, which was then related to supervisor's emotional response. The organizational concern and prosocial values motive were associated with a happy emotional response, which lead to higher performance ratings. The impression management motive on the other hand, was associated with feelings of anger and lead to lower performance ratings. Bolino, Varela, Bande, and Turnley (2006) subdivided the impression management motive into three categories, depended on the focus of the behavior. They found that employees who engage in supervisor-focused tactics of impression management (e.g. ingratiation) are perceived as doing more and better OCB. However, employees who engaged in self-focused tactics of impression management (e.g. act like a model employee when they know their work is being observed) were not viewed as significantly better organizational citizens. Lastly, the more employees engage in job-focused impression management (e.g. self-promotion), the less likely they were seen as good organizational citizens. MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Paine (1999) also studied the impact of OCB on managers' evaluations. They found that employees' OCB with an organizational focus had a stronger impact on managers' evaluation than OCB on an individual level. They argue that these behaviors might be more visible or relevant for managers. All these findings show that an employee's motive indeed influences supervisor's evaluation of the behavior.

Research on motives to engage in proactive behavior has just begun. To my knowledge there are three papers dealing with this topic. The first is a study by Lam et al. (2007), who compare the effect of the impression management motive with the performance-enhancement motive on feedback-seeking behavior. The performance-enhancement motive, is another type of motive, which involves a rational desire to obtain useful information in order to accomplish tasks effectively and enhance performance. This motive is a combination of a selfless and self-enhancing motive. The result of their study was that feedback-seeking behavior was positively related to objective work performance only when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven more by performance-enhancement motives. De Stobbeleir et al. (2010) expanded this research by exploring *why* supervisors attribute a certain motive to the feedback-seeking behavior of an employee. In their model they included employee as well as supervisor characteristics. They found that managers attribute average performers feedback-seeking significantly less to performance-enhancement motives than superior performers feedback-seeking. Furthermore, they found that a manager's implicit person theory¹ interacts in influencing manager's attributions of feedback-seeking. The third paper is of Grant et al. (2009), who argue that employees' values and affect send signals about underlying intentions to engage in proactive behavior. They found that the higher an employee's prosocial values and the weaker the employee's negative affect, the higher the positive association of proactive behavior with performance evaluations.

Grant and Ashford (2008) suggest that proactive behaviors that are perceived as

¹ More information about the implicit person theory and its effect on performance appraisals can be found in the study of Heslin, P.A., VandeWalle, D., and Latham, G.P. (2005) in *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 5, 842-856.

interpersonally or organizational beneficial are linked to reward reinforcements, while behaviors that are perceived as self-serving are linked to punishment reinforcements

Based on previous literature the following four attributed motives are distinguished: (1) the prosocial values motive, which is suggested to stem from a need to be helpful; (2) the organizational concern motive, which results from a desire to help the organization because one identifies with it; (3) the impression management motive, derived from a desire to control how one appears to others in order to acquire rewards; and (4) the performance-enhancement motive, which involves a rational desire to accomplish tasks effectively and enhance performance. The following relations are suggested:

Hypothesis 2a: Proactive behavior that is attributed to the organizational concern, prosocial values or the performance-enhancement motive is positively evaluated by the supervisor.

Hypothesis 2b: Proactive behavior that is attributed to the impression management motive is negatively evaluated by the supervisor.

Besides the effect of the attribution on the evaluation of proactive behavior, it is also interesting to know which factors form the attribution in the first place. De Stobbeleir et al. (2010) found that managers attribute average performers feedback-seeking significantly less to performance-enhancement motives than superior performers feedback-seeking. In the present study this finding is retested:

Hypothesis 2c: Proactive behavior of a high performing employee is more frequently attributed to the performance-enhancement motive than proactive behavior of average or low performing employee.

2.5 Affective organizational commitment

The concept of commitment in organizational research was introduced by Kanter (1968), because commitment is central to the understanding of human motivation. According to Kanter, commitment refers to “the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems” (p. 499). Meyer and Allen (1991) identified three distinct themes in commitment. The present study focuses on affective commitment, which reflects a desire to maintain membership in the organization that develops largely as the result of work experiences that create feelings of comfort and personal competence (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Thus, an employee with high affective commitment commits to an organization because he or she ‘wants to’. Affective organizational commitment has a positive correlation with desirable work behaviors. Employees who score high on commitment found to perform better in their jobs and engage in more OCB’s (Meyer et al., 2001).

Thus, employees with high affective commitment are willing to put in extra effort for an organization and this might suggest higher levels of proactive behavior. However, affective commitment is found to be positively linked with generalized compliance and not with proactive work behavior (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2001). This is in accordance with Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) who found that affective organizational commitment enhances a person’s internalization and acceptance of the organization’s rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes them. Straus, Griffin, and Rafferty (2009), on the other hand, propose two reasons that could explain why affective commitment is in fact important for proactivity. Firstly, organizational commitment promotes a more responsible, long-term focus and motivates individuals to set more difficult and challenging goals. Furthermore, affective commitment is an important

motive for engagement in behavior that will benefit the organization. Den Hartog and Belschak (2007) also come up with two reasons why organizational commitment is likely to be related to personal initiative (another type of proactive behavior). First, the emotional element may enhance affective activation, which energizes and motivates employees to take action to attain desired outcomes. Second, employees might experience a sense of involvement with or attachment to the organization and are therefore more willing to exert themselves on behalf of the goals associated with this organization.

In short, results on the frequency of the engagement in proactive behavior are mixed, but it can be assumed that if a highly affective committed employee engages in proactive behavior, supervisors will perceive it as being motivated by the organizational concern motive. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: Perceived affective organizational commitment is positively related to the evaluation of proactive behavior by the supervisor.

Hypothesis 3b: Perceived affective organizational commitment is positively related to proactive behavior that is attributed to the organizational concern motive.

Hypothesis 3c: Perceived affective organizational commitment is positively related to the evaluation of proactive behavior by the supervisor and this relationship is mediated by the attributed organizational concern motive.

2.6 Leader-Member Exchange

Besides employee characteristics, the relationship between employee and supervisor might also influence how proactive behaviors are appraised. To study this relationship, theory on Leader-Member exchange (LMX) is used. The basic principle of LMX is that leaders develop different types of exchange relationships with their followers and that the quality of these relationships affects important leader and member attitudes and

behaviors (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne 1997). High-quality LMX is characterized by a high level of trust, interaction, support, and formal and informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Ilies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007) conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship between LMX and OCB-behavior and found that LMX was more strongly related to individual-targeted than to organizational-targeted citizenship behavior. Individual-targeted behaviors are those that immediately benefit specific individuals. These individual-targeted behaviors include helping behaviors as well as other positive cooperative behaviors (e.g., altruism and courtesy) and interpersonal facilitation (see Podsakoff et al., 2000). This finding indicates that exchanges are more likely to occur in the interpersonal as opposed to organizational spheres.

The relationship between proactive behavior and LMX has been given attention by Fuller and Marler (2009). They found that people with proactive personalities tend to develop high-quality exchange relationships with their supervisors, because they are likely to try and establish positive social exchange relationships with their supervisors in order to gain information related to emerging problems and opportunities so that they may better perform their jobs. This finding is confirmed by Li, Luang, and Crant (2010), who argue that proactive personality is a dispositional characteristic that influences the development of LMX because it facilitates information exchange and provides a mechanism for achieving goals of self-development and organizational improvement. Hence, they found that the quality of LMX serves as a mediator between proactive employees and job satisfaction,

Derived from these findings, it could be suggested that proactive behaviors of employees with high-quality LMX are evaluated positively by supervisors because their proactive behaviors probably enabled them to establish the high-quality relationship

(Fuller & Marler, 2009; Li et al., 2010). Moreover, LMX functions as a linking mechanism, providing an explanation as to the process by which proactive employees experience greater job satisfaction (Li et al., 2010). If proactive behaviors would be negatively evaluated by supervisors, a negative association with job satisfaction and the quality of LMX would be expected. Lastly, employees with high-quality LMX express proactive behaviors that are aimed at achieving interpersonal exchanges (Ilies et al., 2007). The following relationship is tested:

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived proactive behavior is positively related to leader-member exchange as perceived by the supervisor.

Hypothesis 4b: Perceived leader-member exchange is positively related to the evaluation of proactive behavior by the supervisor.

2.7 Role breadth self efficacy

The last concept that might influence a supervisor's evaluation of proactive behavior of an employee in the present study is the role breadth self efficacy (RBSE) of the supervisor. This concept refers to one's perceived capability and confidence of carrying out a range of proactive activities (Parker, 1998). RBSE is distinct to self-esteem, which is considered to be a global trait reflecting an individual's characteristic and affective evaluation of the self (Strauss et al., 2009). Individuals with high role breadth self efficacy have the confidence that they can contribute to the wider goals of the organization. Role breadth self efficacy is an important predictor of enhanced proactivity at an organization level (Strauss et al., 2009).

As mentioned before, proactive behavior can be difficult for supervisors because these behaviors can be threatening (Frese & Fay, 2001). A supervisor's own level of RBSE could be an important predictor of how he/she evaluates proactive behavior for two reasons. First, Silver, Mitchell, and Gist (1995) found that people with high and low

self efficacy differ in the way they interpret performance feedback. People with high self efficacy make self-serving attributions for unsuccessful performances, while individuals with low-self efficacy make self-effacing attributions. Derived from this principle it might be that supervisor's with high self-efficacy feel less threatened by proactive behaviors of employees, because according to definition he/she has more confidence in his/her work. Second, McLaughlin (1971) reported that the degree of similarity between two people influences their appraisal of attention and attraction towards each other. Tepper, Moss, and Duffy (2011) even found that perceived deep-level dissimilarity between a supervisor and an employee (e.g. dissimilarity of values, attitudes, and personality) results in perceived relational conflict and in lower subordinate performance evaluation. This performance evaluation captures the supervisor's perception that the subordinate meets performance standards on required or in-role tasks. This finding suggests that people with high RBSE, who engage more in proactive behaviors themselves, also like these behaviors from their subordinates. Thus, supervisors with high RBSE are more confident in their own job, and also evaluate behaviors that they are themselves likely to engage in more favorably. This results in the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: A supervisor's RBSE is positively related to the evaluation of proactive behavior by the supervisor.

3. Methods

3.1 Sample and Participants

The data of the present study are obtained from an extensive survey on 'leadership and taking initiative in organizations' executed by the University of Amsterdam. The research was conducted in employee-supervisor dyads. For both the

employee and the supervisor a different questionnaire was developed. Data were collected via two channels; hardcopy and digital.

The hardcopy questionnaires were distributed through the master course Leadership at the University of Amsterdam running from February until May 2011. Students of this course were asked to solicit participation from three participation-dyads each. This resulted in the obtainment of 122 complete dyads. During this period, the questionnaires were also available online through the website www.surveymonkey.com. Employees of diverse branches and companies were invited by email to participate in the research. When invitees responded positively, a conformational email was send containing instructions, two hyperlinks (one for the supervisor and one for the employee questionnaire), and a unique linking code. Anonymity was repeatedly emphasized. Both the invitation as well as the conformation email can be found in the Appendix. 31 couples participated online, resulting in a total number of 153 complete dyads that filled in the survey. The response rate of the hardcopy sample was 40% and of the online sample 21.8%.

Employee respondents' age ranged from 19 to 60 years ($M = 30.2$, $SD = 9.1$), and supervisors' from 23 to 61 ($M = 39.4$, $SD = 8.2$). Tenure ranged from 0 to 31 years ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 4.4$) for employees and from 1 to 34 years ($M = 9.1$, $SD = 6.5$) for supervisors. 49% of the employee and 33% of the supervisors participants were female. Respondents were employed in organizations as diverse as government, catering, accountancy, IT, education, and banking. Most participants of the present research were highly educated; 76.4 % of the employees and 86% of the supervisors had completed higher education or university.

3.2 Measurements

Supervisor questionnaire

Proactive behavior. Before asking supervisors to evaluate proactive behaviors of employees, the definition of proactive behavior was introduced to the supervisors along with some examples of voice and taking charge. Then supervisors were asked to indicate on a scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 7 = *always*, (1) *to what extent they expect such proactive behaviors of employees in general*, (2) *to what extent they expect proactive behavior of this particular employee*, and (3) *to what extent this employee expresses proactive behavior*. I did this to check whether the self-ratings of proactive behavior are in accordance with supervisor's observations.

Motives for proactive behavior. To assess the motives for employees to engage in proactive behavior, a new measure was developed because such a measure did not exist yet. Four types of motives are distinguished in the present study (the prosocial values, the organizational concern, the impression management, and the performance-enhancement motive). Respondents were asked to indicate "To what extent do you think that the proactive behavior of your employee is driven by (motive item)?" (1 = *completely disagree* to 7 = *completely agree*).

The prosocial motive scale consists out of four items. One item is the highest loading and relevant item of a scale developed by Rioux and Penner (2001) for motives to engage in OCB. The other three items were self-developed. Two example of the prosocial motive items are: ... *the desire to help others*, and ... *the desire to let others benefit from my behavior* ($\alpha = .82$).

The organizational concern scale is made up of three items of which two are based on the highest loading and relevant items of the OCB scale developed by Rioux

and Penner (2001). The third item was added. Two statements are: ... *the care to what happens to the organization*, and ... *the desire to improve the organization* ($\alpha = .89$).

The impression management items are used from a scale developed by Lam et al. (2007), who based their scale on five items of Allen and Rush (1998). The scale consists of six items like: ... *the desire to enhance my image*, and ... *the desire to 'show-off' my expertise* ($\alpha = .87$).

The performance-enhancement motive is newly developed and consists out of four items like: ... *the desire to perform better*, and ... *the desire to achieve organizational and team goals* ($\alpha = .79$).

Employee performance. Supervisors were asked to indicate the work performance of their employees on five dimensions (quality of work, the achievement of work goals and the ability to get along with coworkers, to work in teams and to meet deadlines) compared to others in the organization ($\alpha = .883$; 1 = bottom 10%, 9 = top 10%).

Perceived (affective) organizational commitment. To measure how supervisors perceive the (affective) organizational commitment of their employees, a six-item validated Dutch translation of the scale developed by Meyer and Allen was used (1991, De Gilder, Van den Heuvel, & Ellemers, 1997). An example of an item is: *I feel personally attached to this organization*. Normally, the statements are filled out by employees themselves, however because I want to know how supervisors perceive the organizational commitment of their employees, the statements were transformed into: *He/she feels personally attached to this organization* ($\alpha = .87$; 1 = completely disagree to 7 = completely agree).

Leader-member exchange. To assess LMX a measurement of Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell (1993) was adapted for supervisor use. This six-item scale included statements like: *I think that I understand my employee's problems and needs, and I usually let this employee know where he/she stands with me.* Respondents were asked to indicate to what degree they agreed with the statements ($\alpha = .74$; 1 = *completely disagree* to 7 = *completely agree*).

Role breadth self efficacy. RBSE was measured using seven items of Parker's (1998) RBSE scale. Respondents were asked on a seven point scale how confident they would feel if... *they would have to present information to a group of colleagues, or visit people from other departments to suggest doing things differently* ($\alpha = .87$; 1 = *completely not to* 7 = *completely*).

Evaluation of proactive behavior. The evaluation part of the questionnaire was split up into two parts. The first part contains statements about the desirability of the proactive behavior of the employee. Supervisors were asked to indicate how desirable they feel that this proactive behavior is for (1) *the organization*, (2) *the relationship between them and the employee*, (3) *the personal development of the employee*, (4) *the employee's work unit*, and (5) *the relationship between colleagues* ($\alpha = .88$; 1 = *completely not to* 7 = *completely*). Because I felt that these statements might be susceptible to social desirability, I also developed a second scale with statements dealing with the appreciation of the content, the communication and the timing of the proactive behaviors. These statements form sets, of which one is positively formulated and the other is negatively formulated. For example: *the initiatives of this employee are*

thoughtful and valuable, and this employees shows initiative that is not usable ($\alpha = .67$; 1 = completely not to 7 = completely).

Employee questionnaire

Proactive behavior. Self-rated amounts of proactive behavior were measured using two validated measures of taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) and voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). The scale of taking charge consists of ten items and comprises statements as: *I often try to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department, and I often try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company.* Respondents were asked to what extent the statements were applicable to their own work behavior on a 7-point likert scale ($\alpha = .94$; 1 = *completely disagree* to 7 = *completely agree*). The scale of voice consists of five items and comprises statements like *I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in this group even if my opinion is different and others in the group disagree with me* ($\alpha = .85$; 1 = *completely disagree* to 7 = *completely agree*)

Motives for proactive behavior. The focus of the present study is on the attributed motives as indicated by the supervisor. However, employees were also asked to indicate the motive for their proactive behaviors themselves so that these results can be compared. The perceived motives were measured with the same 17-item scale as in the supervisor questionnaire. Only the question was rephrased to: To what extent is your work behavior driven by (motive item)? (1 = *completely not* to 7 = *completely*).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptives:

As expected, proactive behavior is a very important aspect of every job. As much as 81.7% of the supervisors expected their employees in general to often-always engage in proactive behaviors. Furthermore, 88.2% of the supervisors expected the employee they were evaluating to often-always engage in proactive behaviors. Only 70.5% thought that the employee actually often-always engaged in proactive behaviors ($M = 5.0, SD = 1.41$). This is in accordance with the self-rated proactive behaviors of employees, who indicated to participate above average in voice ($M = 4.95, SD = 1.03$) and taking charge behaviors ($M = 4.75, SD = 1.08$).

Supervisors agreed to strongly agreed that the proactive behaviors of their employees are desirable for the department/team (92.8%), the organization (87.6%), the personal development of the employee (86.3%), the relationship between colleagues (79.6%) and the relationship between them and their employees (79.1%). Also their opinions about the proactive behavior of their employees were very positive; supervisors agreed to strongly agreed that the proactive behaviors of their employees were well-thought and meaningful (80.4%), that their employees were able to energize their colleagues for their ideas (70%) and their initiatives prevented problems (58.8%).

When it comes to the attributed motives, the agreement among supervisors ends. Supervisors attributed the following motive as the most important incentive of the proactive behavior: the performance-enhancement motive (26.3%), the prosocial values motive (21.7%), the organizational concern motive (20.4%), and the impression management motive (17.8%). The remaining 14.8% attributed the behavior to a combination of motives ($N = 22$). Employees on the other hand, indicated that the most important motive for their proactive behavior is the performance-enhancement motive (23.2%), prosocial values motive (33.6%), organizational concern motive (22.4%), and impression management motive (20.8%). Interestingly, only 25.8% of the supervisors

indicated the same motive for the behavior as their employee. Means and standard deviations of all measures can be found in Table 1.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of Measures

	M	SD
Voice (E)	4.95	1.03
Taking charge (E)	4.75	1.08
Proactive behavior (S)	5.00	1.14
Performance-enhancement motive (E)	5.19	0.92
Impression management motive (E)	4.80	0.96
Prosocial values motive (E)	5.15	1.03
Organizational concern motive (E)	4.92	1.20
Performance-enhancement motive (S)	5.26	0.85
Impression management motive (S)	4.99	0.94
Prosocial values motive (S)	5.15	0.88
Organizational concern motive (S)	5.05	1.04
General performance evaluation* (S)	6.90	1.12
Affective organizational commitment (S)	4.81	0.96
Leader-Member exchange (S)	5.36	0.70
Role breadth self efficacy (S)	5.64	0.78
Appreciation proactive behavior (S)	4.94	0.95
Desirability proactive behavior (S)	5.64	0.94

Note. Ratings done by employees are indicated with (E) and ratings done by supervisors with (S).

*All scales consist of 7 points, with the exception of the general performance evaluation scale which consists of 9 points.

4.2 Hypotheses testing

In chapter two, five hypotheses about constructs that can influence this evaluation were described. First it is tested whether proactivity rates between employees and supervisor

correspond and whether more proactivity leads to better evaluations. Please recall that the evaluation of proactive behavior consists out of two dimensions; the desirability and the appreciation of the behavior. These measures have a high inter-correlation ($r = .61$, $N = 152$, $p < .01$, two-tailed).

As shown in Table 5 of the Appendix, there is a strong relationship between employee self-indicated voice and taking charge behavior ($r = .58$, $N = 150$, $p < .01$, two-tailed). This finding implicates that employees who report to engage in one type of proactive behavior often engage in the other type of proactive behavior as well. Another interesting finding is the weak correlation between self-indicated amount, and leader-indicated amount of proactive behavior (voice ($r = .26$, $N = 150$, $p < .01$), and taking charge ($r = .24$, $N = 150$, $p < .01$, two-tailed). This means that self-ratings and supervisor-ratings of the amount of proactive behavior do not correspond. Hypothesis 1a is therefore supported. Hence, it is interesting to note that the evaluation of proactive behavior has stronger correlations with the supervisors' rating of employee proactive behavior than employee ratings (e.g. the relationship between the appreciation of proactive behavior and leader-indicated amount of proactive behavior is higher ($r = .55$, $N = 150$, $p < .01$) than with self-indicated behavior (subsequently .22 and .28 with self-indicated behaviors). This finding suggests that a supervisors' perception of an employee's behavior is more important when evaluating behavior than the self-perception of the employee. Results of simple linear regression indeed show that self-ratings of voice and taking charge behaviors insignificantly explain the variance of the desirability of the behavior ($t(146) = 1.053$, $p > .05$) and ($t(146) = 1.909$, $p > .05$). Hence, the ratings explain 8% of the appreciation, with only taking charge as a significant predictor ($t(147) = 2.183$, $p < .05$), and voice is not significant ($t(147) = 1.159$, $p > .05$). Hypothesis 1b is thus supported. As hypothesized the perceptions of the employees

about their proactive behavior is not very relevant when explaining the evaluation of proactive behavior.

In Table 3 and 4 some important correlations between supervisor rated variables are shown; for the sake of clarity Table 3 shows the correlations between the motives and other variables, and Table 4 shows the correlations between the variables and the evaluation of proactive behavior and general performance. An overview of all correlations can be found in Tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 in the Appendix.

Table 3
Correlations Between Motives and Measures

Measure	PEM	IMM	PVM	OCM
Performance-enhancement motive (PEM)	1	0.408**	0.438**	0.551**
Impression management motive (IMM)		1	0.358**	0.330**
Prosocial values motive (PVM)			1	0.514**
Organizational concern motive (OCM)				1
General performance evaluation	0.486**	0.103	0.257**	0.331**
Affective organizational commitment	0.423**	0.332**	0.407**	0.686**
Leader-Member exchange	0.542**	0.167*	0.266**	0.532**
Role breadth self efficacy	0.525**	0.368**	0.226**	0.426**
Appreciation proactive behavior	0.573**	0.302**	0.358**	0.463**
Desirability proactive behavior	0.563**	0.414**	0.447**	0.397**

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01

What is interesting to note about Table 3, is that although the four types of motives correlate moderate to strongly positive with each other, the strongest relationship with the evaluations measures is only found with the performance-enhancement motive. Another interesting finding is the strong positive correlation between the organizational concern motive and affective organizational commitment,

which suggests construct validity of its measurement. Furthermore, the results show that all motives positively correlate with the employee, relational and supervisor variables.

Table 4

Correlations between the evaluation of proactive behavior and measures

Measure	Appreciation (S)	Desirability (S)
Voice (E)	0.223**	0.200*
Taking charge (E)	0.276**	0.246**
Proactive behavior (S)	0.546**	0.415**
Performance-enhancement motive (S)	0.573**	0.563**
Impression management motive (S)	0.302**	0.414**
Prosocial values motive (S)	0.358**	0.447**
Organizational concern motive (S)	0.463**	0.397**
General performance evaluation (S)	0.458**	0.378**
Affective organizational commitment (S)	0.415**	0.275**
Leader-Member exchange (S)	0.424**	0.349**
Role breadth self efficacy (S)	0.383**	0.411**
Appreciation proactive behavior (S)	1	0.610**
Desirability proactive behavior (S)		1

Note. Ratings done by employees are indicated with (E) and ratings done by supervisors with (S).

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01

Table 4 shows that all employee, relational and supervisor variables have moderate to strong positive correlations with the evaluation of proactive behavior. When the motives are disregarded, leader-member exchange correlates the strongest with the appreciation of proactive behavior, while role breadth self efficacy of the supervisor correlates strongest with the desirability of proactive behavior.

When looking at these correlations, it is clear that they mostly seem to offer support for the hypothesized relationships. The concepts also show significant results in explaining the evaluation of proactive behavior when using simple linear regression (see Table 9, Appendix). However, because many of the variables in this research model correlate, they therefore share some of their variance in explaining the dependent variables (see Table 5, 6, 7 and 8, Appendix for an overview of correlations between all variables). Miles and Shevlin (2001) therefore suggest to test all the variables of the research model at once, using multiple regression analysis.

When entering the whole model at once in an multiple regression analysis, the research model explains 38.7% of the appreciation of proactive behavior. Only the performance-enhancement motive is found to significantly contribute to the prediction ($t(137) = 3.644, p < .05$). When entering variables stepwise, the performance-enhancement motive explains 33.5% of the variance. This value is significantly raised to 36.4% by entering the perceived organizational commitment variable.

The research model explains 42.2% of the variability in the desirability of proactive behavior. Only the performance-enhancement motive and the prosocial values motive are found to significantly explain the desirability ($t(137) = 2.451, p < .05$) and ($t(137) = 2.743, p < .05$). Using stepwise multiple linear regression analysis, it is found that the performance-enhancement motive explains 31.7% and the prosocial value motives raises this to 36.7%. Besides motives, only a leader's role breadth self efficacy can significantly raise this value to 38.6%.

These results indicate that hypothesis 2a is supported, indeed proactive behaviors that are attributed to the organizational concern, prosocial value and performance-enhancement motive are positively evaluated. Hypothesis 2b is rejected, even if proactive behavior is attributed to the impression management motive it is

positively evaluated. However, the performance-enhancement motive is evaluated most positively out of all four motives when it comes to the appreciation and desirability of proactive behavior. Therefore, this motive is a very important predictor of the evaluation of proactive behavior. The results mentioned above also might indicate that the general performance evaluation of an employee by the supervisor positively influences the evaluation of proactive behavior and this is mediated by the performance-enhancement motive. Results of a Sobel test indeed show that the performance-enhancement motive is a significant mediator of the evaluation of proactive behavior ($z = 5.304, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3a is partially supported, affective organizational commitment does significantly explain variation in the appreciation of proactive behavior, but it does not explain the desirability of the behavior. Hypothesis 3b is supported, results of an independent sample t-test show that employees, whose proactive behavior is attributed to the organizational concern motive, are significantly perceived as more affectively committed ($t = -3.363, df = 129, p = .001$). Hypothesis 3c is rejected, because the conditions to perform mediation analysis are not met since the organizational concern motive does not explain the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 4a is supported, the perceived amount of proactive behavior by the supervisor is positively related to the perceived amount of leader-member exchange ($r = .35, p < .05$) (Table 7, Appendix). Hypothesis 4b on the other hand is rejected; LMX significantly accounts for 12.2% and 18% of the variance in the desirability and appreciation of proactivity using simple linear regression, but these results are no longer significant when motives are entered into the research model as well.

Hypothesis 5 is partially supported, supervisors' RBSE significantly explains variability in the desirability of proactive behavior, but it does not explain appreciation of the behavior.

5. Discussion

5.1 Research findings and theoretical implications

The main research question of the present study is "do supervisors' attributions of employees' motives to engage in proactive behaviors influence the appraisal of these behaviors?" The study is relevant because proactive behavior is perceived as a critical determinant of an organization's success (Crant, 2000). Also, the evaluation of voice and taking charge behaviors in particular are important to study because negative evaluations could result in the absence of future behaviors due to negative feedback loops (Morisson & Phelps, 1999). A hundred and fifty three supervisor-employee dyads participated in an extensive questionnaire about leadership and taking initiative in organizations.

Results show that proactive behaviors in organizations are perceived as very desirable and are certainly appreciated by supervisors. However, what is notable, is that there is little agreement among supervisors and employees about the amount of proactive behavior that is shown by the employee. Self-ratings of voice and taking charge behaviors have only moderate to low correlations with the amount of proactive behavior indicated by the supervisor. This finding suggests that either supervisors often not notice proactive behaviors of their employees, or that employees over- or underestimate the amount of proactivity they show. Also, only a quarter of the supervisors and employees indicate the same motive to the employee's proactive behavior. This is a strange and important finding, while attributed motives for the

proactive behaviors have an important influence on the evaluation of proactive behavior.

The attributed performance-enhancement motive was found to be the most important predictor for the evaluation of proactive behavior. This result could stem from the work-oriented focus of this motive; proactive behaviors that are motivated by performance-enhancement focus on the direct improvement of work goals and therefore enhance the quality of job requirements. The organizational concern and prosocial values motive also aim to achieve positive outcomes for the organization and colleagues, but are less easily linked to direct performance improvements. What is noticeable, is that the prosocial values motive is also involved in explaining some variability in the desirability, but not in the appreciation, of proactive behaviors. The perceived unselfishness of this motive thus adds something to the performance-enhancement motive when assessing the desirability of proactivity.

Another explanation for the high impact of the performance-enhancement motive can be found in *why* supervisors attribute a certain motive to an employee. It might be that employees who are perceived as high performers (in other words: have a high general performance evaluation) are perceived as employees whose proactive behaviors stems from the performance-enhancement motive, and as a result their proactive behaviors are better evaluated. This assumption of mediation was tested through regression and a Sobel test and the result was indeed significant. This finding corresponds with the findings of De Stobbeleir et al. (2010), who found that managers attribute superiors performers feedback-seeking significantly more to performance-enhancement motives than average performers feedback-seeking.

A theoretical contribution of the finding of the importance of the performance-enhancement motive is that it is an important motive that should be included when

studying OCB or proactive behavior motives, thereby expanding the range of motives from three (prosocial values, organizational concern, and impression management motive) to four. Furthermore, it indicates that it is necessary to understand the process of how a supervisors attributes a certain motive to their employees' proactive behavior, because of the low agreement between employees and supervisors. This research could also take into account the assumption that the performance-enhancement motive is attributed to high performers.

Apart from motives, the study also included some employee, relational and supervisor characteristics which where hypothesized to influence the evaluation of proactive behaviors. These characteristics were found to be less significant than expected because only supervisors' RBSE and perceived organizational commitment influenced the evaluation. What is notable, is that RBSE only influences the desirability of the behavior while organizational commitment influences the appreciation of the behavior. The finding that RBSE only predicts the desirability and not the evaluation of proactive behavior, might be explained with the results of a study of Chan (2006), who found that proactive personality only leads to favorable outcomes for employees with high situational judgment, which is a term he used to refer to individual differences in the general ability to make effective judgments or responses to a situation. It could be that supervisors with high RBSE are more open to the attempts of all their employees to behave in a proactive manner. However, the content and timing of, and the way in which the proactive behaviors are displayed, might only appeal to the supervisors in particular conditions.

Perceived affective organizational commitment on the other hand, explains variance in the appreciation but not in the indicated desirability of supervisors. This result could stem from supervisors' expectation that affective organizationally

committed employees usually comply with the organizations' status quo instead (Parker et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Attempts to change things in an organization might therefore be perceived as surprising and uncomfortable, and might therefore be considered as undesirable. However, if an employee does engage in proactive behavior the content, timing, and the communication of the proactive behaviors are nevertheless appreciated.

These findings implicate that besides motives a supervisors' RBSE is an important predictor of the evaluation of proactive behavior. RBSE of a supervisor could create a setting of openness to proactive behavior and make employees feel safe to be proactive, which are two very important antecedents for voice and taking charge behaviors (Dettert & Buris, 2007). Furthermore, these results indicate that perceived affective organizational commitment might influence a supervisor's expectancy of the behavior and therefore the desirability and the evaluation of the behavior differs.

With exception of RBSE and perceived organizational commitment, the other employee, relational and leader characteristics were found to be almost insignificant in the present study. Although leader-member exchange explained almost 20% of the variability in the evaluation of proactive behavior, this result was no longer significant when other constructs were put into the model as well. Probably, this is the result of overlap in constructs because LMX has high correlations with the performance-enhancement motive and perceived organizational commitment (see Table 6 and 7 in the Appendix). However, it is also possible that the present study has not enough power as a result of a relatively small sample size.

5.2 Limitations and future research

As any study, the present research has strengths and limitations. A strength of the present research is that it brings together multiple types of proactive behaviors and

multiple types of motives. Previous research often only dealt with one particular type of proactive behavior and two types of motives. Furthermore many interesting constructs which have been shown to relate to proactive behaviors were included to explore their influence on the evaluation as well. The present study also has its limitations.

First of all, the study has two common methodological limitations; it is cross-sectional and correlational. It is therefore not possible to decide about the causation of the results. It could for example be that the voice and taking charge behaviors were already hold off by earlier evaluations of supervisors. Such a situation is not captured in this research. Longitudinal research or an experiment is the only way to be confident about the influence of evaluation on the feedback loop of employees.

Another limitation is that the motive scale, which was the most important instrument of the present study has not been validated previously. Although, the four distinctive scales were all based on earlier research and had high internal consistency, the construct validation might not be optimal. The high inter-correlation of the organizational concern motive and perceived organizational commitment is an indication of the validity of the scale. However, before these motive scales are used for other studies, more research has to be conducted to confirm its validity.

Then, a limitation is that the provided answers of the supervisor questionnaire could suffer from social desirability bias due to a very positive introduction about proactive behaviors. This positive introduction could cause supervisors to only access positive examples of their employees' proactive behaviors in their memories causing them to be overly positive about them. Because of this bias, the results in the present study are not normally distributed and should therefore be interpreted with care. Future researchers should consider emphasizing the negative effects of proactive behavior in their description of proactive behavior as well.

Another limitation is that the present study included almost exclusively data of the supervisor questionnaire, which could have resulted in single source bias. Also, as mentioned earlier, supervisors and employees showed little agreement about the amount and the motives related to the proactive behaviors, which means that dependent on the source, a researcher could get a different view of reality. Besides perceptions, also the view about what positive proactive behavior is could differ per source. It could be that the performance-enhancement motive is very important to supervisors because this affects the work performance of an employee, while peers would value proactive behavior that is based on prosocial values more. It would therefore be interesting to study the reactions of peers and/or subordinates to proactive behaviors of colleagues. Also, future proactivity researchers should be very careful when choosing their sources, and with their judgment based on these sources.

Also, the external validation of the study is not optimized because the sample might suffer from homogeneity. First of all, most participants are highly educated. It could be that acting proactively is expected and valued for more for employees in hierarchical higher positions in an organization because proactivity is part of their job description because these employees are involved in determining strategy. Also, high educated employees are often knowledge workers, who work relatively independent as an expert in their field. This is in contrast with jobs lower in an organization's hierarchy, which involve often more operational activities and employees have more prescribed work roles. It would be interesting to study whether proactivity is as expected of and valued as positive for employees with lower education.

Another indication that the external validation is not optimized, is that the employees in this study were all functioning above average, had high levels of LMX and were very proactive according to their supervisors. This could result from selection bias,

because although it was emphasized in the invitation for supervisors to randomly pick an employee it could be that the name of the questionnaire 'leadership and taking initiative' triggered supervisors to invite an employee who they perceived as enterprising. Also, the response rate is relatively low and this could mean the data suffer from non-response bias. It could be that employees who perceive themselves as low on proactivity saw the topic of the questionnaire and did not feel the need to participate, not least because they also had to invite their supervisor to judge this ability (it is not difficult to imagine proactive employees arranging their supervisors to participate while less proactive employees do not). A way to diminish selection bias and non-response bias is to arrange organizations to participate as a whole in a study and let many supervisors rate multiple employees.

5.3 Conclusion and practical implications

The present study provides some interesting practical insights. Results of the present study show that employees who want to receive credits for their proactive behaviors cannot do much to influence this. Findings indicate that supervisors base their evaluations on their own perceptions of the motive of the proactive behavior and the organizational commitment of their employees. However, employees could observe whether his/her supervisor engages a lot in proactive behaviors him or herself. This could be an indication that the supervisor has high role breadth self-efficacy, which means that he/she has the confidence of carrying out a range of proactive activities. This high RBSE positively influences the way in which employees' proactivity is perceived as desirable.

An important finding for supervisors is that they should be very careful when negatively appraising proactive behaviors of their employees. Expressing voice and taking charge are of great importance to an organization, but very risky for employees to

engage in. I would recommend to be careful when punishing a proactive employee, because employees weigh costs and benefits when deciding to act proactively. Earlier punishment therefore might inhibit him/her to behave proactively again. Supervisors should rather express their appreciation for the proactive attempt and provide feedback on the content, timing and communication. Also, supervisors should keep in mind that the motive that they attribute to the behavior of their employees, not necessarily corresponds with the motive experienced by their employees. Supervisors could share their perceptions during informal performance conversations, so employees are able to express their own views as well.

Supervisors who want to enhance the proactivity of their employees, should search their own heart first. When supervisors have high RBSE and behave proactively, they seem more likely to provide a safe and open environment for employees to express themselves as well.

Thus, the present study shows that in general proactive behaviors are indicated as desirable and appreciated behaviors by supervisors. This statement holds when supervisors believe that the proactive behavior is intended by performance-enhancement motives, their employees are perceived as affective organizationally committed, and when their own RBSE is high.

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6. Appendix

7.1 Invitation for online participation

Geachte heer, mevrouw,



Hierbij nodig ik u namens Amsterdam Business School van de Universiteit van Amsterdam uit om deel te nemen aan wetenschappelijk onderzoek naar "**Leiderschap en Initiatief Nemen in Organisaties**".

UNIVERSITEIT VAN AMSTERDAM

Wat is het doel van het project?

Het doel van het project is om inzichtelijk te maken welke factoren een rol spelen bij het tonen en de beoordeling van persoonlijke initiatieven op het werk.

Wat vraagt deelname aan het onderzoek van u?

Het onderzoek wordt in koppels afgenomen (één leidinggevende - één medewerker). Beide deelnemers krijgen een eigen digitale vragenlijst toegestuurd. Het invullen van de vragenlijst door de leidinggevende bedraagt circa 10 minuten. Van de medewerker hebben wij iets meer informatie nodig en daarom duurt het invullen circa 20 minuten.

De vragenlijst van de medewerker en leidinggevende worden achteraf gekoppeld door een unieke code. De antwoorden op de vragenlijsten worden strikt vertrouwelijk en anoniem behandeld en zijn uitsluitend bestemd voor onderzoeksdoeleinden! Alleen het onderzoeksteam krijgt de antwoorden te zien.

U kunt als organisatie meerdere koppels laten deelnemen.

Wat kan deelname aan dit onderzoek voor u betekenen?

Na afronding van het onderzoek ontvangt uw organisatie uiteraard de resultaten van het onderzoek.

Interesse en informatie

Indien u geïnteresseerd bent om aan dit onderzoek deel te nemen, kunt u dit kenbaar maken door op deze email te antwoorden. Geeft u in deze email alstublieft aan hoeveel koppels willen deelnemen. De vragenlijsten en de unieke koppelcode worden binnen twee werkdagen naar u toegestuurd.

Mocht u nog andere organisaties kennen die willen deelnemen, dan kunt u deze email uiteraard aan hen doorsturen.

Met vriendelijke groet,
namens de onderzoeksgroep, olv prof. dr. Deanne den Hartog,

Anne Dijkman BSc

Universiteit van Amsterdam

Faculteit Economie en Bedrijfskunde

T: 06 224 666 14

E: a.dijkman@uva.nl



Geachte heer/mevrouw,

Hartelijk dank voor uw deelname aan het onderzoek ***Leiderschap en Initiatief Nemen in Organisaties***.

Dit onderzoek wordt in koppels afgenomen (één leidinggevende - één medewerker). De vragenlijsten van de medewerker en leidinggevende worden gekoppeld door een unieke code. De antwoorden op de vragenlijsten worden strikt vertrouwelijk en anoniem behandeld en zijn uitsluitend bestemd voor onderzoeksdoeleinden! Alleen het onderzoeksteam krijgt de antwoorden te zien.

Uw unieke koppelcode is: **XXX333**

Leest u onderstaande instructies alstublieft goed door.

U bent leidinggevende:

De leidinggevende vragenlijst kunt u vinden op:

www.surveymonkey.com/s/initiatief_leidinggevende . Het invullen van de vragenlijst bedraagt circa 10 minuten.

Kiest u alstublieft willekeurig een werknemer uit om ook deel te nemen aan het onderzoek (bijvoorbeeld de werknemer die u na ontvangst van deze email het eerste spreekt).

Deze werknemer kan de vragenlijst vinden op

www.surveymonkey.com/s/initiatief_werknemer . Het invullen van de vragenlijst door de werknemer bedraagt circa 20 minuten.

U bent werknemer:

De werknemer vragenlijst kunt u vinden op:

www.surveymonkey.com/s/initiatief_werknemer. Het invullen van de vragenlijst bedraagt circa 20 minuten. Vraagt u alstublieft uw directe leidinggevende om ook deel te nemen aan het onderzoek. Uw leidinggevende kan de vragenlijst vinden op:

www.surveymonkey.com/s/initiatief_leidinggevende . Het invullen van de vragenlijst door de leidinggevende bedraagt circa 10 minuten.

Indien u nog vragen heeft over het onderzoek kunt u uiteraard contact opnemen.

Met vriendelijke groet,

namens de onderzoeksgroep, o.l.v. prof. dr. Deanne den Hartog,

Anne Dijkman BSc
Universiteit van Amsterdam
Faculteit Economie en Bedrijfskunde
T: 06 224 666 14
E: a.dijkman@uva.nl

7.3 Correlations and simple linear regression

Table 5.

Correlations Between Proactive Behaviors and Measures

Measure	Voice (E)	Taking charge (E)	Proactive behavior(S)
Voice (E)	1	0.577**	0.255**
Taking charge (E)		1	0.238**
Proactive behavior (S)			1
Performance-enhancement motive (S)	0.138	0.188*	0.506**
Impression management motive (S)	0.163*	0.201*	0.272**
Prosocial values motive (S)	0.206*	0.268**	0.366**
Organizational concern motive (S)	0.373**	0.328**	0.450**
General performance evaluation (S)	0.328**	0.207*	0.450**
Affective organizational commitment (S)	0.323**	0.412**	0.456**
Leader-Member exchange (S)	0.346**	0.257**	0.347**
Role breadth self efficacy (S)	0.289**	0.240**	0.249**
Appreciation proactive behavior (S)	0.223**	0.276**	0.546**
Desirability proactive behavior (S)	0.200*	0.246**	0.415**

Note. Ratings done by employees are indicated with (E) and ratings done by supervisors with (S).

Note. *p < .050. **p < .01

Table 6.

Correlations Between Motives and Measures

Measure	Performance- enhancement (S)	Impression management (S)	Prosocial values(S)	Organizational concern (S)
Voice (E)	0.138	0.163*	0.206*	0.373**
Taking charge (E)	0.188*	0.201*	0.268**	0.328**
Proactive behavior (S)	0.506**	0.272**	0.366**	0.450**
Performance-enhancement motive (S)	1	0.408**	0.438**	0.551**
Impression management motive (S)		1	0.358**	0.330**
Prosocial values motive (S)			1	0.514**
Organizational concern motive (S)				1
Affective organizational commitment (S)	0.423**	0.332**	0.407**	0.686**
Leader-Member exchange (S)	0.542**	0.167*	0.266**	0.532**
Role breadth self efficacy (S)	0.525**	0.368**	0.226**	0.426**
Appreciation proactive behavior (S)	0.573**	0.302**	0.358**	0.463**
Desirability proactive behavior (S)	0.563**	0.414**	0.447**	0.397**
General performance evaluation (S)	0.486**	0.103	0.257**	0.331**

Note. Ratings done by employees are indicated with (E) and ratings done by supervisors with (S).

Note. *p < .050. **p < .01

Table 7.

Correlations Between Measures

Measure	NA (E)	PA (E)	OC (S)	LMX (S)	RBSE (S)
Voice (E)	-0.064	0.538**	0.323**	0.346**	0.289**
Taking charge (E)	-0.080	0.445**	0.412**	0.257**	0.240**
Proactive behavior (S)	-0.081	0.274**	0.456**	0.347**	0.249**
Performance-enhancement motive (S)	-0.149	0.252**	0.423**	0.542**	0.525**
Impression management motive (S)	0.057	0.070	0.332**	0.167*	0.368**
Prosocial values motive (S)	-0.028	0.197*	0.407**	0.266**	0.226**
Organizational concern motive (S)	0.025	0.321**	0.686**	0.532**	0.426**
Affective organizational commitment (S)			1	0.511**	0.337**
Leader-Member exchange (S)				1	0.505**
Role breadth self efficacy (S)					1
Appreciation proactive behavior (S)	-0.068	0.290**	0.415**	0.424**	0.383**
Desirability proactive behavior (S)	-0.124	0.222**	0.275**	0.349**	0.411**
General performance evaluation (S)	-0.090	0.164*	0.341**	0.483**	0.329**

Note. Ratings done by employees are indicated with (E) and ratings done by supervisors with (S).

Note. *p < .050. **p < .01

Table 8.

Correlations Between Evaluations and Measures

Measure	Appreciation proactive behavior (S)	Desirability proactive behavior (S)	General performance evaluation (S)
Voice (E)	0.223**	0.200*	0.328**
Taking charge (E)	0.276**	0.246**	0.207*
Proactive behavior (S)	0.546**	0.415**	0.450**
Performance-enhancement motive (S)	0.573**	0.563**	0.486**
Impression management motive (S)	0.302**	0.414**	0.103
Prosocial values motive (S)	0.358**	0.447**	0.257**
Organizational concern motive (S)	0.463**	0.397**	0.331**
Affective organizational commitment (S)	0.415**	0.275**	0.341**
Leader-Member exchange (S)	0.424**	0.349**	0.483**
Role breadth self efficacy (S)	0.383**	0.411**	0.329**
Appreciation proactive behavior (S)	1	0.610**	0.458**
Desirability proactive behavior (S)		1	0.378**
General performance evaluation (S)			1

Note. Ratings done by employees are indicated with (E) and ratings done by supervisors with (S).

Note. *p < .050. **p < .01

Table 9.

Regression analysis with the evaluation of proactive behavior as perceived by leaders as the dependent variable

	β	R^2	Significance
DV: desirability of proactive behavior			
Perceived organizational commitment	.275	.076	.001**
Role breadth self efficacy of the leader	.411	.163	.000**
Leader-Member exchange	.349	.122	.000**
DV: appreciation of proactive behavior			
Perceived organizational commitment	.415	.172	.000**
Role breadth self efficacy of the leader	.383	.147	.000**
Leader-Member exchange	.424	.180	.000**

Note. **. significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)

