TAKING CHARGE AS A DOUBLE-EDGED SWORD: UNDERSTANDING ITS BENEFITS AND COSTS FROM A RESOURCE PERSPECTIVE

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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_____ (Signed)

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ABSTRACT

Taking initiative and being proactive can actually backfire. The following situation occurred in a well-known international airline corporation (Campbell, 2000): A business traveler who has to attend an extremely important meeting misses his scheduled flight and anxiously approaches the counter agent of the airline. The agent has been taught by his manager and company that employees should show initiative and be proactive to satisfy their customers. Therefore, the employee goes the extra mile to reschedule the customer's route and eventually assists the customer to arrive in his destination on time. The customer is satisfied, but the agent's manager is not because the act of proactivity cost the company a huge amount of money. Scholars have started to investigate the caveats that individuals should be aware of when engaging in proactive behavior despite the limited number of studies in this area (e.g., Bolino, Valcea, & Harvey, 2010; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009).

This dissertation focuses on one specific type of proactive behavior, that is, taking charge, which involves employees initiating and enacting positive changes in work methods and procedures, and investigates how it acts as a double-edged sword for individuals. Drawing upon conservation of resources theory, I examined the advantages and disadvantages of taking charge in terms of (1) the double-edged effects of taking charge on individual psychological states (i.e., pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and organization-based self-esteem) and turnover intention through vitality and depletion; (2) the three boundary conditions (i.e., controlled motivation, role breadth self-efficacy, and interaction frequency with supervisor) that influence whether taking charge leads to positive or negative consequences; (3) the effects of taking charge on fatigue and subsequent act of such behavior through resource depletion; and (4) the moderating effect of break

on the taking charge–resource depletion–fatigue linkage.

In Study 1 (Chapter 4), I used a sample of 392 supervisor–employee dyads from a group corporation in Mainland China and found that the relationship between taking charge and vitality was significantly positive for employees with high role breadth self-efficacy and low controlled motivation and significantly negative for employees with low role breadth self-efficacy, high controlled motivation, and low interaction frequency with supervisor. Moreover, I found that the relationship between taking charge and depletion was significantly negative when employees were under the conditions of low controlled motivation and significantly positive when employees were under the conditions of high controlled motivation and low interaction frequency with supervisor. Vitality and depletion also mediated the joint effects of taking charge and the three moderators on psychological states. Finally, individuals' psychological states were significantly associated with their intention to leave the organization.

In Study 2 (Chapter 5), I used three laboratory experiments that involved 224 participants and found that participants who had been continuously performing taking charge behavior experienced resource depletion and in turn higher fatigue. Accordingly, fatigued individuals engaged in lower levels of taking charge afterwards. The association between taking charge and fatigue was buffered when individuals took a break after accomplishing such behavior, whereas the association was exacerbated when a break was not taken.

These results demonstrate that taking charge tends to elicit varying and opposing influences on individuals under different conditions, thus suggesting that it can be both a blessing and a curse. The implications of the two studies for theory and practice are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Background

With the increasingly complicated and dynamic work environment, organizations respond by becoming decentralized, redefining the work roles of employees, and relying on behaviors that are not clearly prescribed in role descriptions or requirements (Daft & Lewin, 1993; Kanter, Stein, & Jick, 1992). Managers in organizations not only expect employees to accomplish the assigned jobs effectively but also, more importantly, depend on employees to take anticipatory actions and bring about desired changes in the nature of work and the methods used to implement it (Grant & Parker, 2009). Studies have consistently shown that the willingness and capacity of employees to engage in such change- and improvement-oriented behaviors are pivotal to organizational viability and success (Crant, 2000; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Morrison and Phelps (1999) conceptualize a construct called taking charge to capture these employee behaviors that focus on initiating and enacting positive changes in work methods, policies, and procedures. It "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, p. 403). In practical terms, specific taking charge behaviors include adopting improved procedures for the job, instituting new work methods that are more effective for the company, or correcting a faulty procedure or practice. As discussed above, this type of behavior is important to organizational survival and effectiveness (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Crant, 2000; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Therefore, obtaining a full understanding of taking charge is of interest to both scholars and practitioners.

Indeed, previous research has largely advanced our knowledge of which employees are more likely to perform taking charge behavior and how organizations can encourage this type of employee behavior. Most studies on taking charge focus on this stream, that is, investigating its antecedents, including individual-level and contextual factors. For instance, research findings have shown that individuals who possess high perceived role efficacy (McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007), display high levels of learning goal orientation (Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman, & Xie, 2013), or hold the other-centered trait rather than the self-centered trait (Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi, 2008) are more likely to engage in taking charge. Studies have also demonstrated that perceived organizational justice (Moon et al., 2008), perceived organizational support (Burnett, Chiaburu, Shapiro, & Li, 2013), and leadership style (Li et al., 2013) significantly influence the frequency of taking charge behavior.

Although few, previous studies have suggested the beneficial outcomes of taking charge at work. In uncertain contexts, employees who conduct taking charge behavior rather than passively waiting to be instructed are more likely to acquire performance benefits (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). Subordinates who engage in taking charge are rated more positively in their overall job performance by supervisors, especially if the employees are high in prosocial motivation and low in negative affect or if the supervisors feel responsible for change (Fuller, Marler, Hester, & Otondo, 2015; Grant et al., 2009).

1.2 Research Needs and Thesis Overview

Two major research paradigms exist among studies on taking charge. First, as it is included in a broader category of proactive work behavior, taking charge is viewed as a typical form of proactive behavior and is used, together with other forms,

to investigate general antecedents and outcomes of employee proactive behavior (e.g., Bal, Chiaburu, & Diaz, 2011; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Grant et al., 2009). Second, when researchers investigate the antecedents and contingencies of extra-role behavior, two types of this behavior are generally involved: 1) taking charge as a challenging–promotive extra-role behavior, which is change oriented and focuses on ideas and issues, and 2) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as an affiliative–promotive extra-role behavior, which is interpersonal, cooperative, and noncontroversial (e.g., Li et al., 2013; McAllister et al., 2007). Unfortunately, despite the recognition of the critical role of taking charge in organizations, little research has specifically focused on this behavior and developed frameworks or models particularly based on its unique characteristics. Treating taking charge as a general proactive or extra-role behavior may result in loss of some key information and prevent us from completely understanding how it occurs and what it generates. For example, taking charge and voice are two types of proactive work behavior. The former has more of a behavioral emphasis than the latter, as it not only makes suggestions for change but also tries to make changes happen (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge and OCB are two types of extra-role behavior. The former is considered more difficult to perform than the latter, because it involves employees performing concrete actions to solve the issues they propose and to change the status quo, which can create conflicts and damage relationships (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Surprisingly, it receives less attention than other types of proactive behavior, such as voice and feedback-seeking behavior, and scholars have developed particular frameworks for such proactive behaviors. Therefore, more efforts are required to conduct studies in the area of taking charge.

Researchers have exerted most of their efforts in investigating the

antecedents of taking charge but have not given enough attention to its potential consequences. Being aware of the effects of taking charge on employees and organizations enables us to understand how this type of behavior operates in an organization and in turn how to utilize it to benefit organizational members and the organization itself in the long term. Currently, scholars consistently adopt a positive perspective of taking charge, claiming that performing taking charge behavior is conducive to both individuals (e.g., acquiring performance benefits) and organizations (e.g., increasing viability) (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Griffin et al., 2007; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Although a few studies have empirically examined these positive consequences (Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009), researchers generally presume a positive association between taking charge and work outcomes. Whether bringing positive consequences to both employees and organizations is a must for taking charge remains unclear. We also cannot rule out the possibility that taking charge may be harmful in certain conditions. Unfortunately, the possible negative outcomes have largely been ignored. Given that taking charge deviates from prescribed roles and requires extra effort and resources beyond those required for core job performance, a negative side of performing taking charge may exist (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker, Johnson, Collins, & Nguyen, 2013). Some empirical and theoretical evidence has emerged on the proposition that general proactive behavior in the organization may induce negative consequences for individuals (e.g., Bolino et al., 2010; Chan, 2006). Given that negative events or effects usually have a stronger and more enduring influence on individuals than "good" ones (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001), investigating the negative aspects of taking charge is thus a significant omission.

As it involves behaviors that employees initiatively exert, as well as

constructive efforts to introduce change and improvement in how work is executed, taking charge is regarded as risky and challenging. Aside from energizing individuals, it is also likely to expend more time, energy, or resources than completing the prescribed work. The resource depletion process may result in undesirable outcomes for individuals (e.g., Christian & Ellis, 2011; Quinn, Spreitzer, & Lam, 2012). Therefore, being aware of when and how the negative consequences of taking charge occur are significant for employees, managers, and organizations, especially in environments where individuals are encouraged to step outside the boundaries of their job roles and contribute to organizational development. Examining both resource gain and depletion mechanisms and boundary conditions helps us attain a holistic view of how performing taking charge affects individuals and organizations.

Although scholars have suggested the rationality and usefulness of a resource perspective to investigate personal initiative or proactivity (Bolino et al., 2010; Grant & Ashford, 2008), the resource perspective has not been empirically examined yet. On the basis of the features of taking charge, I expect that the resource perspective can be an appropriate approach to better capture the effects of taking charge on individuals. Given that resource is highly essential to and is valued by individuals (Hobfoll, 1989), comprehending its role in the taking charge behavior of employees is important.

I use conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001) as the overarching theoretical foundation to fulfill the research need in the literature. Drawing upon COR theory, individuals have limited personal resources (e.g., time, physical energy, emotional energy, and attention), and resource investment is necessary to obtain resources. Therefore, some individual behaviors can be considered to both gain and expend resources. Taking charge is a type of

behavior that serves as a potential means by which to acquire resources (Grant et al., 2009) and as a risky expenditure of current resources (Bolino et al., 2010). COR theory suggests salient resource-related factors that can act as boundary conditions in which taking charge is good or bad for individuals. Therefore, I argue that taking charge can be a double-edged sword for individuals based on its resource-building and resource-depleting effects.

Two studies are conducted to test the predictions. The research on the outcome of taking charge focuses on job performance ratings, which is from the supervisor's perspective. We know little about the psychological-level outcomes, both positive and negative, such behavior leads to individuals from the employee's perspective. Meanwhile, the underlying mechanisms have not been investigated. Hence, Study 1 confirms the usefulness of a resource perspective of taking charge and provides support that such behavior can lead to both beneficial and undesirable psychological outcomes for employees. As an extension of Study 1, Study 2 concentrates on the unexplored area of taking charge, that is, its negative effects on individuals, and thus deepens our understanding of the personal costs of taking charge and how we can tackle these negative influences.

Specifically, in Study 1, I aim to provide evidence to support the resource-gaining (i.e., vitality) and resource-depleting (i.e., depletion) effects of taking charge through a field study. On one hand, performing taking charge can energize individuals and help them acquire resources, and thus it promotes beneficial consequences. On the other hand, performing taking charge can deplete the physical and mental resources of employees, and it induces undesirable outcomes in turn. This study focuses on the psychological states of employees (i.e., pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and organization-based self-esteem

(OBSE)) and turnover intention. On the basis of COR theory, I propose three moderators (i.e., controlled motivation, role breadth self-efficacy, and interaction frequency with supervisor) to further understand under what conditions taking charge has positive or negative effects on individuals (see Figure 1.1 for an overview of the conceptual model of Study 1). Simply put, Study 1 aims to present a clear picture of when and how taking charge helps and hurts individuals at work by investigating the positive and negative sides of taking charge.

On the basis of the findings in Study 1, I intend to further explore the negative side of taking charge in Study 2. Using laboratory experiments, I aim to demonstrate that when individuals continuously perform taking charge without an opportunity to reserve or replenish personal resources, such behavior can lead to fatigue through resource depletion. Subsequently, fatigued individuals are less likely to perform taking charge. I also examine the moderating role of break to show how individuals can overcome the draining effect of taking charge and sustain proactivity (see Figure 1.2 for an overview of the conceptual model of Study 2). Therefore, Study 2 validates that taking charge can induce personal costs for individuals based on a resource perspective. It also sheds light on how to deal with the resource-draining effect of taking charge to avoid overburdening and to remain being proactive in the workplace.

1.3 Research Objectives and Contributions

The purposes of this thesis are as follows: (1) to confirm the usefulness of the resource perspective of the taking charge behavior; (2) to explore the double-edged influences of taking charge on individual psychological states and turnover intention; (3) to investigate the mediating roles of depletion and vitality on the relationships between taking charge and individual-level outcomes; (4) to examine how controlled

motivation, role breadth self-efficacy, and interaction frequency with supervisor influence these relationships; (5) to test the effect of taking charge on fatigue through resource depletion; and (6) to understand how taking a break can help individuals to engage in taking charge continuously. Figures 1.1 and 1.2 depict the theoretical models of Studies 1 and 2.

This study has four major contributions. First, this study contributes to the taking charge literature by providing a more refined and comprehensive framework in understanding its benefits and costs for individuals. It offers a relatively new perspective (i.e., the resource perspective) for taking charge and examines its positive and negative sides. Therefore, this study advances our knowledge of how taking charge affects individuals.

Second, this study deepens our understanding of how taking charge leads to positive or negative outcomes by clarifying the mediating mechanisms and processes. Drawing upon COR theory, together with the characteristics of taking charge, I propose two mechanisms, namely, vitality and depletion. On one hand, previous research has suggested that taking charge, or the general proactive behavior, can be beneficial to gain resources for individuals, such as better performance evaluation and fulfillment of the psychological need for competence (Grant et al., 2009; Strauss & Parker, 2013). The resource perspective has not been empirically tested, and we know little about the resource-building or energizing process (i.e., vitality) of the taking charge behavior of employees and how it leads to individual-level outcomes. On the other hand, scholars have begun to explore the negative side of employees being proactive at work (Bolino et al., 2010; Strauss, Parker, & O'Shea, 2013). However, the studies are scarce, and how taking charge may elicit undesirable consequences is beyond our understanding. I speculate that the resource-depleting

mechanism (i.e., depletion) can help us elucidate the "bad" influences of taking charge. Therefore, the present study enriches our understanding of how taking charge can be a double-edge sword for individuals by examining both the vitality and depletion processes.

Third, the study explores the contingencies of the positive and negative effects of taking charge on individuals. That is, we are better aware of the conditions that taking charge is likely to produce positive influences, namely, energizing individuals and yielding benefits, as well as of the conditions that taking charge is likely to produce negative influences, namely, depleting individuals and causing costs. In the field study (Study 1), I propose three moderators, namely, controlled motivation, role breadth self-efficacy, and interaction frequency with supervisor. I also speculate that under different levels of the three boundary conditions, taking charge poses differential and opposite effects on the actors, and that it enables a more developed understanding of the influences of taking charge. In the experimental study (Study 2), I examine the moderating effects of taking a break between two episodes of taking charge behavior and demonstrate the importance of resource reservation or renewal in engaging in sustained taking charge.

Fourth, the study broadens the research of outcomes of taking charge by exploring the psychological states and intention of individuals to leave the organization. The limited existing studies have focused on how taking charge enhances individual performance (Grant et al., 2009; Griffin et al., 2007). Surprisingly, little research has discussed the effects of taking charge from a psychological perspective, that is, how it influences individual feelings and perceptions. More than just considering performance-related outcomes as the achievement of employees, the psychological consequences of taking charge (i.e.,

fatigue, pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE) should also be pursued because these psychological-level constructs have been found to be significantly and positively related to both work and personal life outcomes, such as health and longevity, job satisfaction, and successful social relationship (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Diener, 2012; Diener & Chan, 2011). Intention to leave is also one of the strongest predictors of employee turnover, and it extends our study in terms of how taking charge may influence the organization to some extent.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 presents the introduction. Chapter 2 offers a detailed review of the literature and identifies the research gaps. Chapter 3 illustrates the rationales and theories for the hypotheses and two research models of Studies 1 and 2. Chapters 4 and 5 describe the research method, results, and discussion for Studies 1 and 2, respectively. Study 1 (Chapter 4) tests when and how taking charge helps and hurts individuals. Study 2 (Chapter 5) examines the relationship between taking charge and fatigue through resource depletion and the moderating effect of taking a break in the sustainability of such proactive behavior. Chapter 6 concludes the thesis and provides the theoretical and managerial implications, limitations, and future research directions.

Figure 1.1 Theoretical Framework of Study 1

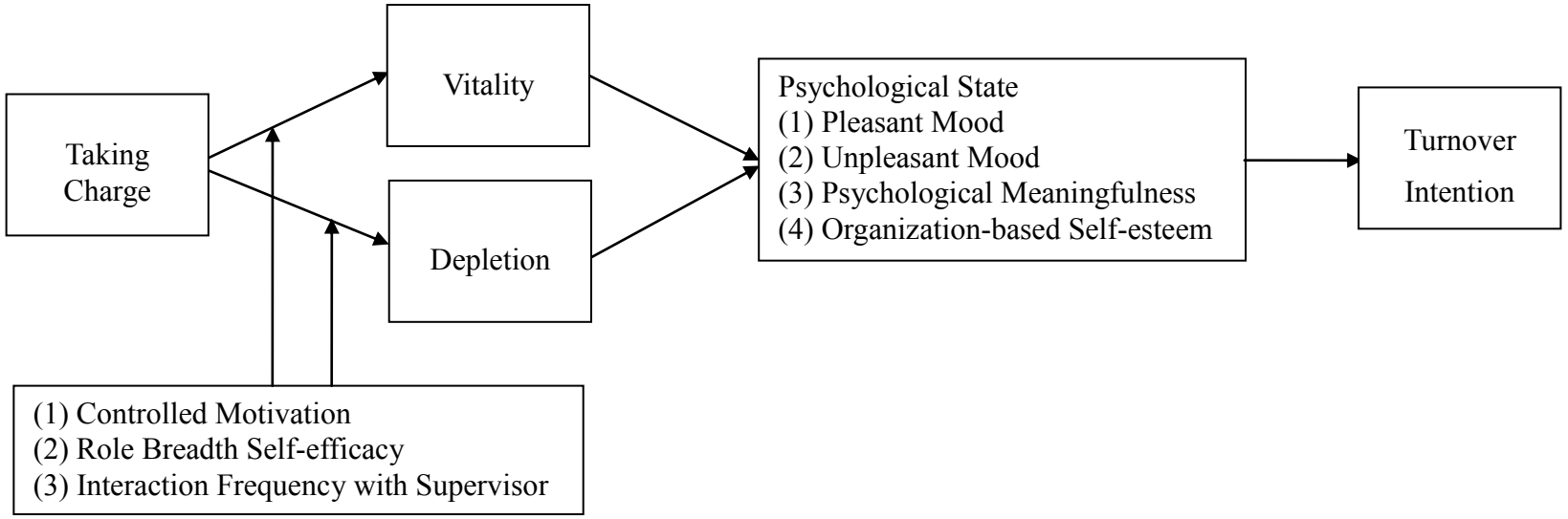
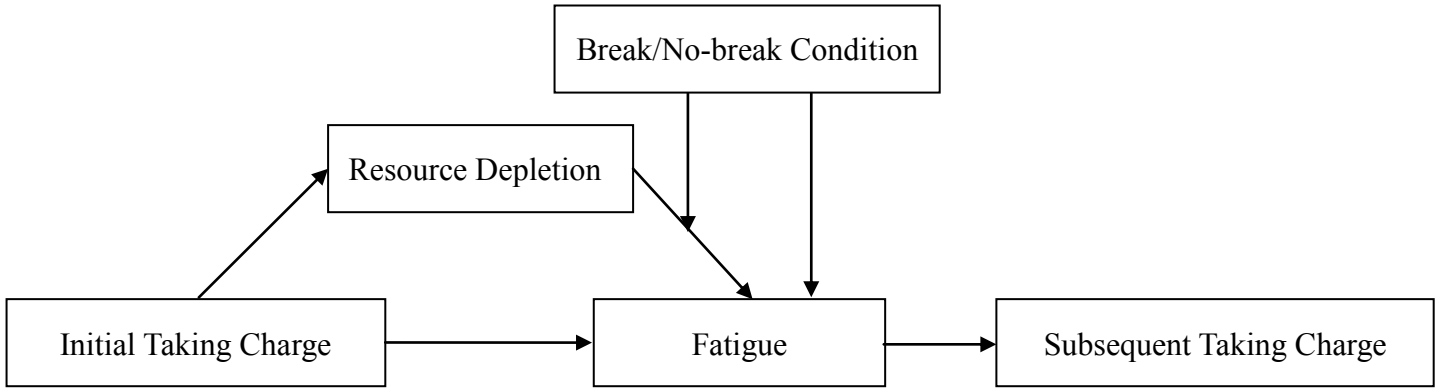


Figure 1.2 Theoretical Framework of Study 2



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I first review the literature of taking charge, including its definition, differences with other relevant constructs, antecedents, and consequences, which operate as the ground for developing the research framework. I then review the literature of COR theory and elaborate on the theoretical foundation of this thesis. Following the propositions and logic of COR theory, I introduce vitality and depletion to capture the resource-gaining and resource-consuming processes underlying the effects of taking charge on individuals.

2.1 Taking Charge at Work

Employees' proactivity has been receiving a surge of interest because this type of research has both theoretical and practical implications on how employees' behavior of taking on an active role contributes to their organizations. Theoretically, the concept of proactivity complements the inadequacy of traditional belief that "assumes that employees ought to follow instructions, task descriptions, and orders" (Frese, 2008, p. 67), which renders more emphasis on individual initiative at work. The perception of the active rather than the passive role of people is supported by many studies on social psychology and organizational behavior (e.g., Bateman & Crant, 1993; Buss, 1987; Grant & Ashford, 2008). These studies facilitate the understanding of the beneficial consequences of being proactive. Practically, with globalization and increased market demands, organizations are characterized by decentralization, fast-paced change, and operational uncertainty, and this condition demonstrates the importance of having initiative and being proactive (Bindl & Parker, 2010). Work careers for employees are becoming increasingly boundaryless, and individuals are required to take charge of their own careers, not just follow the

career planning that is designed by one organization (Mirvis & Hall, 1994).

2.1.1 Definition of Taking Charge

Taking charge is a construct that captures employees' discretionary attempt to take initiative and to enact positive change within the organization. It refers to individual behavior that "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, p. 403). This behavior encourages employees to challenge work routines and step out of job boundaries to bring about constructive changes in the workplace. Specifically, taking charge includes employee behaviors of changing how a job is executed to be more effective, adopting improved procedures for the team or department, or making constructive suggestions for improvement when organizational functioning is deemed less than ideal (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Some scholars have stated that taking charge combines the features of organizational innovation and good citizenship, and that it presents a form of innovative citizenship behavior (Moon et al., 2008). Other researchers call it "good change agent" behavior (Li et al., 2013). Simply put, taking charge is inherently change oriented and aims at improvement within the organization.

2.1.2 Taking Charge and Relevant Constructs

Taking charge conceptually differs from felt responsibility, emergent leadership, OCB, and other proactive-related constructs, such as principled organizational dissent, whistle blowing, voice, issue selling, task revision, role innovation, and personal initiative. To clearly present the construct of employees' taking charge behavior in this research, I highlight the conceptual overlaps and differentiations of these related concepts in the following sections.

Felt Responsibility

Felt responsibility is wildly discussed in the framework of job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The theory claims that felt responsibility is a crucial psychological state reflecting the extent to which "the individual feels personally accountable and responsible for the results of the work he or she does" (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 256). Responsibility can only be voluntarily assumed by the individual rather than being imposed by force (Wynn, 1982). Thus, felt responsibility is voluntary, intentional, and involves individuals' initiative in future achievement (Seiling, 2001). Research suggests that two types of responsibility can be displayed at work: felt responsibility for task performance refers to an employee's responsibility for assigned tasks, while felt responsibility for constructive change is personal responsibility of challenging the status quo and continually redefining one's work (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006). Different from taking charge as a behavioral construct, felt responsibility is a cognitive construct and reflects people's psychological state. Studies have shown that felt responsibility for constructive change is a significant predictor of employee proactive behavior including taking charge, since it keeps individuals vigilant in their job and thus they are more likely to identify opportunities for work-related improvement (Fuller et al., 2006; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker & Collins, 2010).

Emergent Leadership

Since no formal leader is assigned among team members, every member has the opportunity to fulfill leadership functions, thereby resulting in emergent leadership. Schneider and Goktepe (1983) define emergent leaders as group members who exert more influence than other members of the group, although no formal authority has been conferred on them. Studies suggest that team member's

demographic characteristics, personality traits, and emotional abilities and expressions are likely to influence leadership emergence (e.g., Chaturvedi, Zyphur, Arvey, Avolio, & Larsson, 2012; Paunonen, Lönnqvist, Verkasalo, Leikas, & Nissinen, 2006; Walter, Cole, van der Vegt, Rubin, & Bommer, 2012). Empirical findings also show that leadership is awarded to team members who signal their intelligence, coordination, cognitive abilities, and task-related expertise (e.g., Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas, 1993; Melwani, Mueller, & Overbeck, 2012). Therefore, emergent leadership results from team members' possessed characteristics, interpersonal interactions, and observable leadership behaviors. In this way, both emergent leadership and taking charge present employees' initiative and abilities in solving problems. But emergent leadership manifests a broader range of behaviors that enhance team functions, such as facilitating information exchange and developing a positive team atmosphere, while taking charge concentrates on improving work procedures or methods (Lord, Phillips, & Rush, 1980; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

OCB

OCB is defined as "those organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantee or recompense" (Organ, 1990, p. 40). Most of the studies on OCB have focused on helping colleagues, being punctual, not taking excessive breaks, and attending nonrequired work functions, which all refer to "modest, some would even say trivial" behaviors that sustain the status quo (Organ, 1988). These behaviors are opposed to taking charge, which is more challenging and change oriented and aims to help the organization develop, evolve, and improve (Moon, Van Dyne, & Wrobel, 2005). Therefore, researchers differentiate OCB and taking charge,

which are two types of extra-role behavior, by regarding OCB as a form of affiliative–promotive behavior that is interpersonal, cooperative, and noncontroversial, and regarding taking charge as a form of challenging–promotive behavior that relates to change and focuses on ideas and issues (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; McAllister et al., 2007).

Principled organizational dissent and whistle blowing

Principled organizational dissent refers to "the effort by individuals in the workplace to protest and/or to change the organizational status quo because of their conscientious objection to current policy or practice" (Graham, 1986, p. 2). Whistle blowing is the act of reporting illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices to persons or organizations that may induce a remedy (Miceii & Near, 1992). Morrison and Phelps (1999) identify three main differences between these two activities and taking charge. First, principled dissent and whistle blowing are typically motivated by super-organizational interests, and the actors are usually not concerned about whether the change is constructive for organizational development. Conversely, taking charge aims to improve the organization and is not necessarily based on the belief that the current practices or policies are wrong or bad. Second, the primary goal of principled dissent or whistle blowing is to expose, criticize, or eliminate negative aspects within organization, whereas that of taking charge is to implement positive changes. Lastly, unlike principled dissent and whistle blowing, taking charge solely occurs through internal means and organizationally authorized tactics.

Voice

Voice behavior is concerned with speaking up issues that affect the work group of an individual and seeking information about such issues. Specifically, it is defined as "making innovative suggestions for change and recommending

modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 109). Although voice behavior may include activities that can be considered taking charge, such as suggesting new ideas or changes in work procedures, and taking charge and voice are both change oriented, taking charge has more of a behavioral focus than voice (McAllister et al., 2007). That is, taking charge involves not only speaking up for change but also trying to make things happen. Therefore, taking charge is likely to entail more individual efforts than voice because of the further step of implementing actions.

Issue selling

Dutton and Ashford (1993) define issue selling as behaviors that are directed toward affecting others' attention to and understanding of issues. Issue selling influences the formation of a strategy in organizations by making others aware of particular issues, such as key trends, developments, and events that may have implications for organizational performance. Both taking charge and issue selling can enhance the effectiveness of an organization by enacting constructive change. However, a key difference is that issue selling focuses on strategic issues (Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997), whereas taking charge focuses on internal means for fulfilling organizational goals, such as work methods, policies, and procedures (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Moreover, issue selling does not provide suggestions on how to address the proposed issues or opportunities nor does it consume employees' efforts to implement solutions.

Task revision and role innovation

Another two related constructs of taking charge are task revision and role innovation. Task revision includes actions that correct a faulty task or misdirected work role (Staw & Boettger, 1990), and role innovation involves changing or

improving a job role or the procedures of performing that role (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Although the two types of behavior and taking charge aim to actualize improvement of how work is executed, a significant difference is that taking charge can go beyond the scope of the job role of an individual, whereas task revision and role innovation are confined to the job role.

Personal initiative

Personal initiative is defined as "a behavioral syndrome resulting in an individual's taking an active and self-starting approach to work and going beyond what is formally required in a given job" (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996, p. 38). Frese and his colleagues (1996) identify some behavioral examples of personal initiative, some of which can be classified as examples of taking charge (e.g., employees try to reform a work structure) and some reflect more traditional forms of extra-role behavior (e.g., offering suggestions or trying to prevent problems). More importantly, personal initiative is regarded as a relatively stable behavioral tendency (e.g., Crant, 2000) or captures dispositions toward proactive behavior. However, taking charge is likely to vary depending on situations or environmental conditions (e.g., Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

The above discussion describes the conceptual similarities and differences between taking charge and other proactive-related constructs. Further, the study of Parker and Collins (2010) reviews multiple types of proactive behavior, including taking charge, voice, feedback seeking, issue selling, and problem prevention. The findings provide support that these specific types of proactive behavior are empirically distinguishable.

2.1.3 Antecedents of Taking Charge

Researchers have exerted efforts to investigate the potential antecedents of

proactive behavior and have classified them into two categories (e.g., Bindl & Parker, 2010; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). The first category is proactive motivation states that directly influence whether employees will perform proactive behavior, including "can do," "reason to," and "energized to" motivations (Parker et al., 2010). The second category is the distal antecedents, which appear to, at least partly, affect proactivity through motivational processes. In accordance with previous research, I review the motivational processes of taking charge and then analyze the distal antecedents based on individual difference and contextual variables in the following sections.

Motivation states

(1) "Can Do" Motivation

Most studies have focused on the perceived ability to and individuals' willingness to perform proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2010). Self-efficacy refers to the judgment of individuals about their capability to perform particular tasks, and it is a critical work motivation variable (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Individuals who feel capable of performing particular tasks tend to perform them more effectively, persist at them, cope more effectively with change, choose more difficult goals, and adopt more efficient task strategies (Wood, George-Falvy, & Debowski, 2001). Morrison and Phelps (1999) found that employees' general self-efficacy is significantly and positively related to their taking charge behavior. As a specific form of self-efficacy, role breadth self-efficacy refers to one's perceived capability in conducting a range of proactive, interpersonal, and integrative activities that extend beyond the prescribed technical core (Parker, 1998). Role breadth self-efficacy has been shown to be positively associated with taking charge at work (McAllister et al., 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010).

(2) “Reason To” Motivation

The reason to perform proactively is also important, because it deals with why individuals take initiative to challenge the status quo rather than sit still and do nothing. According to utility judgments in expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), the reason to perform explains how well a task related to current and future goals drives individuals’ goal commitment and their determination to reach their goals. Parker and colleagues (2010) also draw on self-determination theory to illustrate that individuals are more likely to set and strive for proactive goals when they find their tasks enjoyable and intrinsically interesting, and that individuals go through a process of identification and internalization or integration that takes in value or regulation as their own. Specifically, felt responsibility for change, which reflects employees’ internalization of values relevant to change, positively predicts taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker & Collins, 2010). Therefore, individuals act proactively to fulfill important life goals or express values that are central to themselves.

(3) “Energized To” Motivation

Besides the aforementioned cognitively-oriented processes of “can do” and “reason to” motivations, good evidence proves that the affect-related motivational state can also influence individuals’ proactive behavior (for a review, Bindl & Parker, 2010). Drawing upon the broaden-and-build model of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001), Parker (2007) proposes two mechanisms by which positive affect may influence proactive behavior: broaden and build. The broaden mechanism indicates that positive affect activates an approach action tendency and broadens individuals’ momentary action–thought repertoires. Through this pathway, positive affect induces more flexible cognitive processes, facilitates the setting of more

challenging goals, and helps individuals engage in a more problematic future (Ilies & Judge, 2005; Oettingen, Mayer, Thorpe, Janetzke, & Lorenz, 2005). For these reasons, positive affect is likely to promote the setting of proactive goals as well as the striving for these goals. The build mechanism refers to the accumulative influence of positive affect of building more enduring aspects of individuals, such as self-efficacy, resilience, and cognitive complexity, and this mechanism in turn shapes individuals' proactive behavior at work (Parker, 2007). Specifically, two empirical studies have provided support for the argument that positive affect promotes taking charge at work. The study of Fritz and Sonnentag (2009) shows that positive affect was positively related to the taking charge behavior on the same and the following workday. Parker and her colleagues (2008) found that high arousal positive affect positively predicted taking charge.

Distal antecedents

Compared with the abovementioned section of proactive motivation states, this section focuses more on distal influences, including individual antecedents, contextual antecedents, and the interactions between the two types of antecedents. According to research (Frese & Fay, 2001; Parker et al., 2006), these antecedents can affect proactive behavior through motivational processes (i.e., cognitively-oriented and affect-related processes).

(1) Individual antecedents

Research has shown that some individual dispositions facilitate a wide range of proactive behavior. For example, a number of studies confirm a consistently positive relationship between proactive personality and various proactive behaviors, including taking charge (Parker & Collins, 2010). Mediation analyses suggest that proactive personality affects proactive behaviors via cognitively-oriented

motivational process, such as role breadth self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2006). Studies also show that individuals with strong openness to change values and learning goal orientation report higher levels of proactive work behavior, including taking charge, which may result from the perception that performing proactive behavior is less risky and more valuable (Escribano & Espejo, 2010; Parker & Collins, 2009).

Research on taking charge has also focused on examining individual-level antecedents of this specific type of behavior. With regard to personal traits, Moon and colleagues (2008) found that the other-centered trait (i.e., duty) was positively related to taking charge, and the self-centered trait (i.e., achievement striving) was negatively related to taking charge. This result indicates that taking charge may be more about "we" (i.e., concern about others) than it is about "me" (i.e., concern about self-interest). The study of Love and Dustin (2012) shows that employees with a higher level of psychological collectivism engaged in more taking charge behavior at work because of the salience of group definition and increased level of cooperation. Individuals' propensity to trust has also been demonstrated to be positively associated with taking charge (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006).

Aside from individual personality, other individual-related factors affect taking charge. Perceived taking charge role breadth and perceived taking charge instrumentality were found to be both significantly and positively related to taking charge (McAllister et al., 2007). The study of Chiaburu and Baker (2006) suggests that employees were more likely to participate in taking charge when they possessed a weak exchange ideology (i.e., open relationships) rather than a strong exchange ideology (i.e., symmetric and quid-pro-quo exchanges). Escribano and Espejo (2010) show that the higher the affective commitment was, the more frequent employees were involved in taking charge.

(2) Contextual antecedents

Coworker support and team–member exchange have been shown to be positively related to taking charge (Love & Dustin, 2012). If individuals feel that their relationship with their colleagues is characterized by trust or support, then they are likely to gain confidence in their own abilities, and this confidence is likely to encourage these individuals to try things beyond the core tasks and enhance their role breadth self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2006). Moreover, leader plays a role in shaping this type of proactive behavior. Studies have suggested that top management openness and supervisors' output control were positively associated with subordinates' taking charge (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Scholars have also found some organizational-level contextual factors that predict taking charge. For instance, Moon and colleagues (2008) show that procedural justice at the organizational level was positively related to taking charge when evaluated by a coworker, and that both procedural and distributive justice were positively related to taking charge when rated by a supervisor. Organizational value for innovation also motivates employees to perform more taking charge behaviors (Escribano & Espejo, 2010).

(3) Interactions between individual and contextual antecedents

A number of studies have examined the interaction effects between individual and contextual antecedents on employee taking charge behavior. On one hand, studies have demonstrated a positive synergy between individuals and work contexts. McAllister and colleagues (2007) show that individuals with both high organizational justice perception and high role breadth self-efficacy perform the highest level of taking charge behavior at work. Chiaburu and Baker (2006) found that individuals' propensity to trust combined with weak exchange ideology

significantly enhance taking charge. Structural support for individuals with lower negative work affect was associated with higher taking charge behavior (Parker et al., 2013). This synergy effect indicates that well-functioning work contexts are likely to stimulate employees' initiative to undertake change- and improvement-oriented actions.

On the other hand, some studies have suggested that individual and situational factors substitute for each other. Li and colleagues (2013) found that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' taking charge was attenuated when followers perceived leaders as prototypical, followers were highly identified with their work groups, or followers presented high levels of proactive personality or learning goal orientation. The study of Burnett and colleagues (2013) shows that employees' anticipated costs related to taking charge moderated the inverted U-shaped relationship between employees' perceived organizational support and taking charge. It suggests that moderate levels of perceived organizational support may be optimal for encouraging employees to take charge, and that it matters more for employees who more strongly anticipate costs for such behavior than for those who anticipate them less. This substitution effect implies that organizations should at least ensure a strong work situation or have employees with beneficial individual characteristics to facilitate taking charge.

In sum, individual and contextual antecedents can independently and interactively shape employees' taking charge. Howerver, we still do not know the conditions in which synergy or substitution effect is more likely to emerge. More research is required for this complicated interaction influence on taking charge.

2.1.4 Benefits and Costs of Taking Charge

Benefits of taking charge

The literature on taking charge focuses on investigating its antecedents, including individual and contextual factors, which motivate employees to execute active efforts to bring about change in work methods, policies, and procedures when they perceive the organization functions imperfectly. Scholars have consistently stated that taking charge behavior is conducive to both individuals and organizations. For example, many studies have emphasized the significant role of taking charge in the continued viability of organizations (e.g., Bindl & Parker, 2010; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker et al., 2013). Researchers also claim that in uncertain contexts, employees who conduct taking charge behavior rather than passively waiting to be instructed are more likely to acquire performance benefits (Griffin et al., 2007). Surprisingly, only two empirical studies have examined the consequence of taking charge. Research findings demonstrate that subordinates who engaged in taking charge were rated more positively in their overall job performance by supervisors when employees were high in prosocial motivation and low in negative affect (Grant et al., 2009) or when supervisors feel responsible for constructive change (Fuller et al., 2015). Altogether, previous research has suggested an energizing influence of taking charge on individuals.

Costs of taking charge

Generally, researchers have currently begun to investigate the potential costs of proactive behavior. According to Grant and Ashford (2008, p. 24): "Insofar as proactive behavior involves expending additional effort, challenging the status quo, and disrupting deviating from assigned tasks, prescribed roles, reified norms, accepted practices, and existing routines, researchers should expect to find mixed effects and unintended consequences for groups, organizations, and employees themselves." Some empirical studies have explored the boundary conditions of the

positive effects of proactive personality on individual-level consequences (Chan, 2006; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005; Harvey, Blouin, & Stout, 2006). Some conceptual studies have suggested the personal costs of proactive behavior. Frese and Fay (2001) argue that proactive behavior may be regarded as an attempt to "rock the boat," and that they could lead to negative responses from colleagues and supervisors. Bolino and colleagues (2010) elucidate the potentially negative implications based on a resource perspective, such as more stress for more proactive employees, decreased proactivity over time, and decreased capacity to develop strong leaders.

Admittedly, the literature overlooks the possible negative outcomes of the taking charge behavior. Morrison and Phelps (1999) propose that taking charge is an effortful and discretionary behavior as it reflects a calculated and deliberate decision process. It is viewed as risky and challenging since taking charge involves behaviors that employees initiatively make constructive efforts to introduce change and improvement in how work is executed. Based on this condition, performing taking charge is likely to make individuals expend much more energy and effort than performing routine work. Morrison and Phelps (1999) suggest that taking charge may also be regarded as threatening by peers or supervisors because it deviates from prescribed roles, thus resulting in disharmony and tension that will jeopardize performance. Therefore, although some theoretical clues exist for understanding the costs of taking charge, empirical studies are highly required to demonstrate clear and robust relationships between taking charge and possible detrimental outcomes.

To sum up, researchers have encouraged employees' taking charge behavior to enhance job performance and organizational effectiveness. However, only a few studies have investigated its beneficial outcomes, and information about its undesirable consequences is limited. To fulfill the research needs, the present study

integrates the positive and negative perspectives of taking charge and examines its outcomes. Unlike other authors who have examined taking charge with other types of proactive behavior or OCB, I solely focus on taking charge and develop a research framework based on its characteristics. This framework advances the knowledge of how taking charge works in organizations. On the basis of the "good" and "bad" sides of taking charge, I propose that it acts as a double-edged sword for individuals. I investigate the underlying mechanisms that lead to its positive and negative consequences and corresponding boundary conditions. This study extends our understanding of how and when taking charge is being helpful or harmful to individuals and organizations. Previous studies have focused more on the performance-related outcomes of taking charge than on the psychological-level outcomes. That is, our understanding of what feelings or perceptions are induced for actors after they take charge is limited. The current study intends to focus on individuals' psychological states (i.e., fatigue, pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE) and behavioral tendency (i.e., turnover intention). Therefore, this research aims to uncover the double-edged-sword effect of taking charge in individual-level outcomes and explore the contingencies of these relationships.

2.2 COR Theory

The literature review on taking charge shows that taking charge induces beneficial outcomes (e.g., better performance ratings and career developments; Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009), and this result tends to build valuable resources for individuals. However, such behavior is likely to consume substantial personal effort and resources that may result in undesirable or harmful consequences (e.g., Bolino et al., 2010; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Therefore, a resource perspective

is conducive to understand the "good" and "bad" sides of taking charge simultaneously. COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998, 2001) is especially useful for determining why taking charge can be a double-edged sword for individuals.

The basic tenet of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) is that humans are motivated to protect their current resources (conservation) and acquire new resources (acquisition). The theory claims that given that resources are scarce for individuals per se, they strive to obtain, retain, protect, and build resources. Resources can be anything that is valued by individuals, including objects, states, conditions, behaviors, personal characteristics, or energy resources (Hobfoll, 2001). The value of resources varies among individuals and relies on their personal experiences and situations. For example, a good relationship with supervisor can be regarded as a valuable resource to one person but not to someone else, or it may even be perceived as a threat to other resources (e.g., coworker support).

Moreover, according to COR theory, when people engage in certain behaviors, the three situations, i.e., available resources, resource gain, and resource loss, are likely to influence their resource states (Hobfoll, 1989). Specifically, available resources refer to whether individuals have resources to use or harness; resource gain represents whether individuals have the opportunity to obtain resources; resource loss describes whether extra resources are spend or threatened to be spend. For example, stress and strain emerges when individuals' available resources are deficient, individuals' resources are actually lost or threatened with loss, or individuals fail to gain sufficient resources following a significant resource investment.

2.2.1 Two Key Principles of COR Theory

Two key principles are taken from the central tenet of COR theory as

previously mentioned (Hobfoll, 2001).

Principle 1: The Primacy of Resource Loss

The first principle of COR theory is that resource loss is disproportionally more salient than resource gain. In other words, given an equal amount of resource gain and loss, loss for individuals induces a significant psychological influence. The primacy of resource loss compared with resource gain has been supported by a number of studies in the fields of cognitive psychology and organizational psychology (e.g., Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999; Stein & Cropanzano, 2011). Research findings also suggest that loss salient occurs because biological, attentional, psychological, or cultural systems find it adaptive, and that it is incorporated in the automatic responding of individuals (Carver & Scheier, 1998). This principle has some important implications in the work context. Losses at work trigger more effect than similar gains. For instance, wage decrease being more harmful than the same wage increase is beneficial. Moreover, when employees perform a specific behavior to build resources, the process of resource loss or expenditure should be simultaneously considered because it is likely to have a profound negative effect. The literature on resource loss mainly focuses on understanding stress or strain (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Hobfoll, 2001). When employees lose resources at work, they are more inclined to experience stress, burnout, or depression (e.g., Kessler, Turner, & House, 1988; Melamed, Shirom, Toker, Berliner, & Shapira, 2006; Shirom, 1989). This principle has a motivational element, which suggests that individuals who experience reduced resources tend to engage in behaviors that avoid further resource losses (Whitman, Halbesleben, & Holmes, 2014).

Principle 2: Resource Investment

The second principle of COR theory is that people invest resources to protect

against resource loss, to recover from losses, and to gain resources. This principle has typically been tested in the context of coping, and it implies that coping entails resource investment to prevent future resource losses (e.g., Ito & Brotheridge, 2003). More importantly, COR theory goes beyond what causes stress and strain to understand motivation following the experience of stress (Hobfoll, 2001). Several studies have investigated how resources are invested following resource loss in organizations. For example, Hochwarter, Laird, and Brouer (2008) found that the effects of hurricane-induced job stress on job satisfaction, job tension, and work intensity were attenuated when high levels of perceived resource exist. It suggests that resource investment plays an important role in neutralizing the negative effect of strain induced by resource reduction. The study of Wheeler and colleagues (2013) shows that after being abused by immediate supervisors and experiencing emotional exhaustion, employees engaged in more abusive actions toward coworkers to mitigate resource loss and impairment. Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) use COR theory to explain interesting findings that emotional exhaustion led to lower in-role job performance but greater investment in OCBs directed at supervisors and coworkers. They speculate that employees, although emotionally exhausted, selectively invest resource by performing OCBs toward supervisors and peers to develop social support as a way to gain resources and in turn slow the process of resource loss.

2.2.2 Resource-gaining and Resource-consuming Processes

Resource in COR theory is considered intrinsic and scarce (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). When individual resource is expended, or even depleted, it must be recovered or regained to maintain the continuous operation of the functional system (e.g., Sonnentag & Niessen, 2008; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). Previous studies

have confirmed that job demands, such as workload and goal-disruptive events, deplete resources (Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003), whereas job resources, such as supervisor support and organizational justice, enhance personal resource reservoir (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). According to these findings, individuals should invest their disposable resources for obtaining valued resources to fulfill job demands or achieve goals. Therefore, resource investments can be viewed as both resource gaining and resource consuming, and the salience of each process may vary because of different situations or conditions.

Both theoretical and empirical studies have supported this proposition of the coexistence of spending and acquiring resources of some individual behaviors at work. For example, research on OCB suggests that this type of behavior contributes to the effective functioning of organizations by creating social capital, increasing efficiency, and enhancing productivity (Moon et al., 2005; Organ, 1988). However, Bolino and Turnley (2005) found that higher levels of individual initiative (a specific type of OCB) were associated with higher levels of employee role overload, job stress, and work–family conflict. This result indicates that performing OCB at work can be both resource depleting and resource building. Ng and Feldman (2012) draw on COR theory and theoretically propose that voice behavior serves as a feasible means to gain new resources and as a risky use of available resources. The study used meta-analytic test and found that individuals voiced up less when their resources were depleted and that engaging in voice behaviors energized individuals and in turn enhanced their in-role performance and creativity.

Taken together, research based on COR theory in the field of organizational behavior has mostly focused on one of the two resource-related processes, that is,

resource gain or resource loss. Unfortunately, no research has examined the two perspectives simultaneously and has investigated how these two processes function and produce individual outcomes. Although a deep understanding of each process is achieved through the existing paradigm, a comprehensive view that involves the two processes is also important. As discussed earlier, theoretical and empirical pieces of evidence exist, although a few show that taking charge at work can be both helpful and harmful for individuals based on a resource perspective. On one hand, taking charge has been shown to be beneficial in building resources for employees, such as better performance evaluation and fulfillment of psychological need for competence (e.g., Grant et al., 2009). On the other hand, researchers have suggested that taking charge may consume more individual effort than accomplishing in-role tasks, and in turn it induces undesirable consequences because it entails not only calculated and deliberate thinking but also endeavor to implement actions (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Hence, when performing taking charge, individuals go through two seemingly opposite processes, namely, energizing and depleting. It fits well with the resource-gaining and resource-consuming aspects of COR theory. Combined with the review of taking charge behavior, the present study uses COR theory as an overarching theory to investigate the double-edged-sword effect of taking charge and to examine the resource gain and loss as two underlying mechanisms of how taking charge leads to positive or negative individual outcomes.

2.3 Vitality as a Resource-gaining Mechanism

I use vitality to represent **the resource-gaining process** based on COR theory. Vitality, also described as positive energetic arousal, vigor, or zest (Kark & Carmeli, 2009), captures the energized states of individuals, and it represents the energy or resource available for individuals to harness or regulate for purposive behaviors (Nix,

Ryan, Manly, & Deci, 1999). Vitality is marked by the subjective experience of feeling alive, fully functioning, and possessing energy or resource. The word "vitality" is derived from vita or life, describing a person who is vital, feels alive, enthusiastic, spirited, and spontaneous. Physically, it refers to feeling healthy, competent, and energetic. Mentally, this state of aliveness enables a person to present positive affect and feel that his/her actions are meaningful (Ryan & Bernstein, 2004). Therefore, vitality can be a combination of physical, emotional, and cognitive resources. Drawing upon COR theory, the three forms of resource are individually possessed and are closely interrelated, with the increase of one enhancing the other two (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). The three energetic resources are also significantly associated with goal-oriented behaviors and are crucial to individual survival and development (Hobfoll, 2002). Therefore, the construct of vitality can exhibit the energizing experience of individuals when they invest resources to perform specific behaviors in the workplace.

Vitality is a concept that can be applied in almost all cultures because of its phenomenal salience (Ryan & Frederick, 1997). For example, vitality in Eastern culture is linked to physical and mental health and is regarded as something that can be actively cultivated or depleted, such as the concepts of Chi (Jou, 1981) and Prana (Cope, 1999). Research on vitality can be traced back to Freud's "economic viewpoint" that energy or resource available to the ego is limited (Freud, 1923). With the following studies in the psychodynamic field, although utilizing different approaches, scholars have converged on the idea that stresses, preoccupations, conflicts, unresolved experiences, and repression occupy or consume available resources, and vitality is a finite resource that can be expended, depleted, or conserved (Ryan & Deci, 2008). In health science, Selye (1975) introduces a

construct called adaptive energy and relates it to physical health. He suggests that adaptive energy is a limited reservoir for individuals, and when it is low, individuals' capability to cope with stress, even their immunological responses to illness, is likely to be compromised. Researchers of health and social psychology have used similar concepts, such as vigor, energy, emotional vitality, and subjective vitality, to capture this personal energized state and to develop valid measures for assessment (e.g., Penninx et al., 2000; Rozanski, 2005; Thayer, 2001). Research findings have highlighted the distinctions with related concepts (e.g., fatigue and negative affect), identified the key antecedents (e.g., somatic and psychological factors), and supported the usefulness of vitality in predicting individual health and well-being.

Individuals with high levels of vitality characterize their life and work as positive, excited, energized, enthusiastic, and vigorous, and they persist in accomplishing their actions or goals wholeheartedly and do not give up halfway. Vitality is a desirable experience for individuals. They try to enhance, prolong, or reenact the contexts that increase their vital energy, and they also tend to eliminate or avoid the circumstances that decrease their vitality (Collins, 1993). In other words, vitality influences how individuals feel physically and psychologically, how they perceive their work and life, and how much effort they are willing to exert in activities. Therefore, being positively energized at work can have a far-reaching effect on employees and organizations.

2.3.1 Antecedents of Vitality

One major focus of vitality research has been on the factors that influence the levels of individual vitality. On the basis of the literature review, I classify these antecedents into two categories and provide details in the following sections.

Individual antecedents

Research has consistently shown that somatic factors, such as diet, exercise, sleep patterns, smoking, being outdoor and other health-related behaviors, are significantly related to vitality (e.g., Ryan & Deci, 2008; Ryan et al., 2010b; Thayer, 2001). The underlying mechanism is partly due to personal energy for controlling their behaviors and restraining impulses partly depend on sufficient levels of blood glucose, which is regarded as a source of self-control (Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007).

Scholars have also proposed that personality and physiological factors tend to affect vitality. For example, Shirom (2007) argues that men are likely to experience higher levels of physical vigor than women because the masculine gender role emphasizes strength, independence, and invulnerability (Eagly & Wood, 1999). He also speculates that individuals high on the personality trait of extraversion (or positive affectivity) are more likely to experience vitality relative to those high on the trait of neuroticism. Nix and colleagues (1999) found that autonomous motivation enhanced the level of vitality, whereas controlled motivation depleted resources.

Another key set of antecedents are individual feelings of competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Studies have shown that activities that can satisfy the basic needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy are associated with greater levels of subjective vitality (e.g., Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Ryan, Bernstein, & Brown, 2010a; Sheldon, Ryan, & Reis, 1996). That is, when people perceive themselves as being capable at work or life, well connected with others, and discretionary in making decisions, they are likely to experience a high level of aliveness and maintain an energized state.

Contextual antecedents

As important as individual-level factors may be, vitality is also strongly

affected by contextual factors.

(1) Job-related factors

Based on the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1974), studies have found different combinations of the five characteristics, namely, task autonomy, significance, feedback, identity, and skill variety, significantly predicted individual vitality (Shirom, 2010; Shraga & Shirom, 2009). For example, jobs with high task identity and positive feedback from supervisor are most likely to enable a vital experience for employees. Research has also shown that employees' agentic work behaviors increase their level of vitality through three possible mechanisms, namely, task focus, exploration, and heedful relating (Moller, Deci, & Ryan, 2006; Niessen, Sonnentag, & Sach, 2012; Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005).

(2) Group-level factors

Research on teams in organizations suggests that group members tend to share emotions, both positive and negative, because of similar socialization experience, task interdependence, and emotional contagion (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Work groups with mutual trust and high social support are inclined to be more cohesive and goal directed, and these characteristics lead to higher employee morale and job-related well-being (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Specifically, the study of Terry et al. (2000) found that group cohesion was positively related to individual vigor, which was measured as a mood state.

Several studies have shown that leadership style or leader behaviors play a key role in energizing subordinates. For example, the theoretical paper of Shirom (2010) proposes that intellectual stimulation, a component of transformational leadership that consists of encouraging followers to think creatively (Avolio, 1999), is likely to have a positive effect on subordinates' cognitive liveliness. Leader

relational behaviors and leader–member exchange were found to enhance employees' feeling of energy (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Carmeli, Ben-Hador, Waldman, & Rupp, 2009).

(3) Organizational-level factors

Although not empirically tested, a review paper of Shirom (2007) proposes that some organizational resources can influence employees' vitality, such as participation in decision making and intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. For instance, he speculates that employee engagement in decision making broadens the access to many sources of information, enhances capacity to adjust to the demands of different role partners, and promotes the development of cognitive skills, which all boost employees' aliveness and functioning. An empirical study further demonstrates that employees' sense of psychological safety within organizations was significantly associated with their feelings of vitality (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003).

2.3.2 Consequences of Vitality

Vitality is robustly associated with both behavioral and objective health outcomes. On one hand, it has been linked to enhance physical and mental health. Studies have suggested that being vigorous can lead to specific configurations of brain activation and positive response mechanisms (e.g., Barrett, Della-Maggiore, Chouinard, & Paus, 2004; Rozanski, Blumenthal, Davidson, Saab, & Kubzansky, 2005). When in vital states, people are more active and spirited, cope better with stress and challenge, and report lower anxiety and depression and higher self-esteem and life satisfaction (Ryan & Frederick, 1997; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Energized individuals are also more resilient to physical and viral stressors and less vulnerable to illness (e.g., Cohen, Alper, Doyle, Treanor, & Turner, 2006; Tremblay, Blanchard, Pelletier, & Vallerand, 2006).

On the other hand, vitality has been associated with job performance and organizational effectiveness. When individuals are vital and feel positive energy, they are highly motivated to be involved in tasks and demonstrate a greater capacity to perform them successfully (Shirom, 2007; Thayer, 1989). Vitality influences the efforts individuals are willing to exert in particular tasks and leads them to endeavor to achieve their goals, thus enhancing their overall performance (Shirom, 2007). Empirical studies have supported these propositions that vitality enhances in-role job performance (Carmeli et al., 2009; Muraven, Gagné, & Rosman, 2008). Energized employees are also found to be more creative at work (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Kark & Carmeli, 2009). Given that individuals with high levels of vitality tend to use new and different perspectives, think about different arrays and combinations of choices and actions, and engage in continued exploration behaviors (Barsade, 2002; Spreitzer et al., 2005), they are more likely to successfully seek out new ideas, think of new inventions, or conduct novel ways to perform tasks at work.

2.4 Depletion as a Resource-consuming Mechanism

I use depletion to represent **the resource-consuming process** that is discussed in the review of COR theory. The concept of resource depletion originates from self-regulatory resource theory. This theory proposes that individual behaviors that involve self-regulation deplete the limited self-regulatory resources of individuals. These resources are inner personal resources similar to strength and energy (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; Muraven, Tice, & Baumeister, 1998). Consistent with this theory, evidence links regulatory resources to physiological sources of energy, that is, blood glucose (e.g., Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007; Gailliot et al., 2007). For example, Gailliot and colleagues (2007) used the level of glucose as an indicator of participants' available

resources, and one of the findings suggests that consuming a glucose drink enhanced individuals' self-regulatory ability. These resources have also been suggested to be related to the emotional and cognitive resources of individuals (e.g., Baumeister & Vohs, 2003; Christian & Ellis, 2011; Schmeichel, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2003). For instance, Wagner and colleagues (2013) establish the linkage between resource depletion and cognitive control using functional neuroimaging. Other studies consistently show that depletion impaired individuals' cognitive processing abilities (e.g., Schmeichel et al., 2003; Vohs, Baumeister, & Ciarocco, 2005). The study of Christian and Ellis (2011) demonstrates that resource depletion significantly affected personal experience and the expression of negative emotions, such as irritability, hostility, and anger. The established measure of resource depletion further reflects the energy-, emotion-, and cognition-related components of resources (Christian & Ellis, 2011; Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Twenge, Muraven, & Tice, 2004). Sample items include "I feel worn out," "I need something pleasant to make me feel better," and "I feel mentally exhausted." Resource depletion accordingly represents the consuming or draining of people's physical, emotional, and cognitive resources. It also suggests that resources are finite and can be consumed and restored. Therefore, the construct of depletion can be applied to display the exhausted experience of individuals described in COR theory. It should be noted that depletion differs from emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is defined as "feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources" (Maslach, 1993, pp. 20-21). It is the core dimension of burnout and focuses on individuals' emotional resources (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

Given that the concept of depletion is based on the resource depletion theory of self-regulation, I briefly review this theory and relevant research. Self-regulation,

which is an essential ability of humans, refers to the capacity of the self to override or alter his/her own thoughts, emotions, responses, and behaviors (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003). This valuable asset, which differentiates human beings from other species, enables individuals to act properly under various situational demands or social norms, such as resisting to eat dessert when on a diet, staying focused during a boring meeting, and avoiding unethical behavior to attain career success. In other words, in the process of self-regulation, the self is an active and involved role rather than a passive and unresponsive entity (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), and it ensures that the situation is under control or develops in a right direction. Specifically, the individual searches and filters information, makes determination from comparable options, enacts the selection, and is responsible for the selection and action.

Self-regulatory resource theory (Baumeister et al., 1994; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; Muraven et al., 1998) proposes that individuals manage their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors using finite and consumable resources that resemble energy. This self-regulatory resource is an "energy" reservoir for all forms of self-regulation, and it determines the executive function of the self to control desires, emotions, impulses, and actions. Resource operates like strength that it is limited and is temporally depleted through exertion. Owing to the features of "limited" and "strength," the self-regulatory resource theory is also called the limited-resource model of self-regulation or strength model of self-regulation.

According to self-regulatory resource theory, self-regulation activities decrease the performance of subsequent similar behaviors because of the resource depletion of the former activities. Studies that examined the relationship between self-stopping and temporary energy expenditure initially support this strength model of self-regulation (e.g., Gilbert, Krull, & Pelham, 1988; Gross & Levenson, 1997).

Based on the findings of Gailliot and colleagues (2007), self-regulation appears to deplete the energy supply of the human body. They found that acts of self-regulation reduced blood glucose levels. Glucose is the primary source of energy for brain activities. When the level of glucose to the brain is low, cerebral functioning is impaired (Siesjo, 1978). A variety of poor behaviors, such as increased impulsivity, aggression, and criminal behaviors, are linked to a lower level of blood glucose (for review, see Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007). A low level of blood glucose caused by experimental manipulation of self-regulation is negatively related to participants' capability in a subsequent self-regulation task (Gailliot et al., 2007). Consuming a glucose drink also eliminated the decreasing effect; that is, the performance of the self-regulation test improves after having a glucose drink compared with a non-glucose one (Gailliot et al., 2007). Intriguingly, the studies of Molden and colleagues (2012) and Sanders and colleagues (2012) found that rinsing rather than digesting a glucose drink can also enhance the ability of self-regulation. They propose a motivational explanation that glucose offsets self-regulation impairment by activating brain zones related to reward and in turn strengthens the participants' motivation without increasing the metabolic energy level of glucose.

A number of experimental studies have examined self-regulatory resource theory (e.g., Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Schmeichel et al., 2003; Vohs et al., 2008). A two-task paradigm is mostly applied in the experiments. That is, participants first engage in a task (e.g., behavioral, emotional, or cognitive control task) that is proved to deplete self-regulatory resource, and then they are required to perform a different self-regulation task (e.g., persistence in unsolvable puzzles, eating behavior, and active responding). The latter task performance is evaluated to test the resource depletion and self-regulation impairment. The

consistent findings of these experiments demonstrate that the subsequent self-regulatory behaviors are impaired as a result of the initial act, implying a common and finite resource pool for self-regulation behaviors (for a review, see Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007). These studies further broaden the empirical implications that self-regulation is required for different activities in human life, including active initiative, eating behavior, suppressing emotions, persistence in tackling problems, making determined choices and decisions, and social interactions (e.g., impression management behaviors, being kind to partner's bad behaviors, and interracial interactions) (e.g., Baumeister et al., 1998; Baumeister et al., 2007; Schmeichel et al., 2003; Vohs et al., 2008).

Organizational scholars have also recently begun to draw on this resource-depletion perspective. In studies on employee interaction with customers and subsequent customer service performance, Trougakos and colleagues (2008) propose that resource depletion is the mechanism that explains the finding that taking a respite break between activities enabled camp counselors to exhibit positive affective displays with campers. Wang, Liao, Zhan, and Shi (2011) argue that resource depletion can be the mediator of the relationship between mistreatment by customers and employees' sabotage against customers. However, the construct of resource depletion is conceptualized but not actually measured in these two studies. The depleting experience of individuals has also been invoked to interpret unethical behavior. Gino and colleagues (2011) used a series of laboratory studies and found that the depletion of self-control resources was associated with reduced moral awareness, which contributed to cheating. Similarly, sleep deprivation was related to unethical conduct and workplace deviance (Barnes, Schaubroeck, Huth, & Ghumman, 2011; Christian & Ellis, 2011).

As previously mentioned, increasing the blood glucose level is one approach to restore the resource for self-regulation (Gailliot et al., 2007). Relevant studies have shown other possible ways to replenish executive function, such as viewing scenes of nature (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989), taking a short rest (Tyler & Burns, 2008), experiencing positive mood (Tice, Baumeister, Shmueli, & Muraven, 2007), having a food break (Danziger, Levav, & Avnaim-Pesso, 2011), and motivational incentive (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Muraven & Slessareva, 2003). Given that the strength model conceptualizes self-regulation as operating like a "muscle," scholars have speculated whether regular exercises could lead to self-regulation improvement. Research findings suggest that repeated exercises of self-control tasks and regular physical exercise enhance self-regulation capacity (Baumeister, Gailliot, DeWall, & Oaten, 2006; Muraven, Baumeister, & Tice, 1999; Oaten & Cheng, 2006). Therefore, although exerting self-regulation induces short-term fatigue and subsequent performance impairment, it can lead to improvement or strengthening in the long run (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000).

Generally, the resource model of self-regulation is reasonably supported, and it indicates that self-regulation behaviors consume a common and limited resource, including physical, emotional, and cognitive resources. After conducting self-regulation, individuals' self-regulatory ability even in unrelated domains is temporarily impaired. However, this capacity can be enhanced or replenished through interventions.

As discussed above, vitality refers to individual's subjective feeling of alive and having resources available to the self, and depletion refers to their subjective feeling of reduced resources to engage in purposive behaviors. The two constructs represent two different resource-related phenomena, regarded as resource-gaining

and resource-consuming processes of taking charge that occur simultaneously. Specifically, an increase in vitality does not absolutely mean a decrease in depletion and vice versa. When an individual is at the medium level of depletion, he or she can still present a high level of vitality. Moreover, in the literature of self-control and self-regulation, studies consistently show that self-regulatory activities lead to depletion. Building on these findings, Ryan and Deci (2008) draw upon self-determination theory to propose that self-controlling regulation behaviors results in depletion, whereas autonomous self-regulation behaviors results in vitality. In this perspective, vitality and depletion are treated as two outcomes of self-regulation. In summary, vitality and depletion are two distinct concepts related to individuals' resource states, and they are not totally opposite to the other.

2.5 Conclusion

Based on the literature review in this chapter, four research gaps are identified. First, although scholars acknowledge the importance of the taking charge behavior in organizations, it has not received sufficient attention compared with other desirable employee behaviors, such as voice and feedback seeking. Research on its consequences to individuals, including both beneficial and harmful outcomes, is also lacking, and this situation presents an incomplete image of taking charge. Second, based on COR theory, personal behaviors can be both resource gaining and resource consuming. Studies focus on either how personal resources are expended or how resources can be enhanced or recovered. Limited research has investigated these two processes simultaneously. Thus, our holistic view of the fluctuation of personal resources is blocked. Third, previous studies have implied that a resource perspective can be an optimal approach to integrate both positive and negative aspects of taking charge and to understand its potential "good" and "bad" outcomes (Bindl & Parker,

2010; Bolino et al., 2010; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). However, this perspective has not been empirically tested. Drawing upon COR theory, determining how this type of behavior influences individuals, not only in favorable but also in undesirable ways, can be achieved by adopting a resource angle to examine the double-edged effects of taking charge. Fourth, another unknown but important question is under what conditions taking charge is likely to induce positive or negative outcomes for individuals. Exploring significant contingencies has theoretical and practical implications for scholars and practitioners.

To address these research gaps, I investigate four key issues by drawing upon COR theory. First, I propose a double-edged-sword effect of the taking charge behavior; that is, it can facilitate individuals' resource gaining and deplete personal resources (Study 1) at the same time. Second, I speculate that vitality and depletion are the mechanisms that lead taking charge to beneficial or harmful outcomes for individuals (Study 1). Third, on the basis of Study 1, I further investigate the negative effects (i.e., resource depletion and fatigue) of taking charge (Study 2). Fourth, I explore the salient boundary conditions (i.e., controlled motivation, role breadth self-efficacy, and interaction frequency with supervisor in Study 1 and break in Study 2) on the abovementioned relationships. This exploration is helpful in understanding when taking charge is functional or dysfunctional. The research framework and the development of the hypotheses are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

The abovementioned literature review supports the idea that performing taking charge behavior can both consume and build resources for individuals, thus leading to beneficial or undesirable outcomes. Therefore, I intend to address the following research issues in this study: (1) the resource-gaining (i.e., vitality) and resource-consuming (i.e., depletion) effects of taking charge (Study 1); (2) the mediating effects of vitality and depletion on the relationship between taking charge and individual psychological states, namely, pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE (Study 1); (3) the moderating effects of controlled motivation, role breadth self-efficacy, and interaction with supervisor on the abovementioned relationships (Study 1); (4) whether each psychological state is related to turnover intention (Study 1); (5) whether performing taking charge continuously depletes individual resources and leads to fatigue, which in turn decreases the possibility of engaging in the subsequent taking charge behavior (Study 2); and (6) the moderating role of taking a break in the sustainability of taking charge (Study 2). The theoretical rationales for the hypotheses are presented in this chapter.

3.1 A Resource Perspective of Taking Charge

As described in the literature review, this study relies on a resource perspective to investigate the consequences of employees' taking charge at work based on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). It should be noted that drawing upon the principle of COR theory that individuals need to invest resources to gain new resources (Hobfoll, 2001), this research focuses on the dual-pathway resource-related mechanisms of taking charge, that is, resource-building and resource-

consuming processes. The study aims to examine how the two mechanisms operate for individuals under various conditions rather than which mechanism is more salient than the other.

This perspective is useful in the following ways. First, in the organizational context, employees use resources to meet task demands or achieve goals; deploy resources when facing stress, uncertainty, or challenge; and accumulate resources by accomplishing prescribed or unspecified jobs. Similarly, organizations depend on employees' personal resources for viability, development, and success. Therefore, resources play a significant role for both individuals and organizations.

Second, scholars have claimed that mixed effects of proactive behavior should exist for employees based on the characteristics of this type of behavior, such as challenging the status quo and deviating from assigned tasks, prescribed roles, and existing routines (Grant & Ashford, 2008). However, only a few studies have explicitly shown the mixed influences of employee proactive behavior. More importantly, an appropriate perspective is necessary to examine this issue. As shown in the review of taking charge, on one hand, performing taking charge can gain resources for employees and make them feel alive, energized, and fully functioning (e.g., Grant et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2010a). On the other hand, taking charge is regarded to consume more personal resources than routine work because it initiates changes in how work is executed, which is likely to entail risky and challenging behaviors, and it involves not only making suggestions but also implementing solutions (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Therefore, a resource perspective of taking charge enables us to integrate and investigate its positive and negative aspects simultaneously and enlightens us to explore under what conditions it produces helpful or harmful outcomes for individuals.

In sum, given the importance of resources for both individuals and organizations and the resource-gaining and resource-depleting processes of taking charge, a resource perspective is adopted to examine the potential consequences of taking charge. This research links the advantages and disadvantages of taking charge together and explores how taking charge affects individuals in conducive and detrimental ways.

3.2 Taking Charge, Vitality, and Depletion (Study 1)

3.2.1 Taking Charge and Vitality

According to the resource perspective, taking charge can be regarded as a positive work event that is helpful to obtain resources and energizes individuals, and it leads to the personal state of vitality. Employees take charge at work to bring about constructive changes and fulfill challenging goals of improving team or organizational effectiveness. They invest their "hands, heart, and head" when taking charge. To perform taking charge successfully, employees are required to envision a desirable consequence, conduct preparation work, implement solutions, and reflect on the process for improvement (Bindl & Parker, 2009). This condition indicates that individuals should highly believe in their competence, be able to decide whether to take the action, and be capable of interacting with coworkers and supervisors to obtain their support. These characteristics of taking charge can build psychological resources for individuals by fulfilling humans' basic need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). Specifically, competence refers to people's desire to feel capable and effective; relatedness refers to individuals' feeling of being close and connected to significant others; autonomy refers to the desire to behave in terms of their own interests, to make their own choices, and to initiate their own behavior. Achieving a goal, for example, is a way to

fulfill the need for competence. Being supported by coworkers or supervisor is a feasible approach to meet the need for relatedness. Moreover, individuals determine whether or how improving their work methods could be beneficial for their need for autonomy. Therefore, taking charge can satisfy the basic need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy, and these needs have been consistently shown to be positively related to vitality (e.g., Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013; Reis et al., 2000; Ryan et al., 2010a).

Moreover, when performing taking charge, individuals take initiative, are purposeful, take risks, and explore innovative approaches to help themselves and organizations to stretch and grow through improved methods or procedures. This behavior can be regarded as an exploration activity that means reaching out in new directions at work (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). Research has shown that exploration increases vitality, since individuals are likely to stimulate their curiosity and feel energetic when exploring new ways of working (Niessen et al., 2012; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Moreover, exploration enables employees to encounter and generate novel ideas at work; this exposure to novelty can provide and replenish energy and resources (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989). In sum, taking charge appears to have a resource-building function for individuals, and it leads to enhanced levels of individual vitality.

3.2.2 Taking Charge and Depletion

Based on COR theory, individuals are inclined to expend more personal resources in perform taking charge behavior than in accomplishing jobs within role descriptions because taking charge demands deliberation in advance and enforces action to address problems. Specifically, Bindl and colleagues (2012) found individuals with initiative may go through envisioning, planning, enacting, and

reflecting when performing proactively. Envisioning refers to the process of setting goals and identifying ways to achieve the goals, planning represents the preparation work to fulfill an individual's envisioned future, enacting is the actual engagement of performing proactive behavior, and reflecting refers to the process of individuals understanding the consequences or implications of the enacted proactive behavior. Bindl and colleagues reveal that not all types of proactive behavior involve the four processes. Nevertheless, taking charge could be one such behavior that includes envisioning, planning, enacting, and reflecting. Unlike other types of proactive behavior, such as voice and issue selling, taking charge not only makes suggestions for improvement within teams or organizations but also practically takes action to bring about constructive changes (e.g., Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, & Lawrence, 2001; McAllister et al., 2007). Therefore, individuals who take charge should first detect potential problems of the current work procedure and think of approaches to solve these problems and improve work productivity (i.e., envisioning). They should then consider and compare various possible approaches and choose an optimal scheme rather than take action with no plan in mind (i.e., planning). After determining the way to solve the problem, employees put the plan into practice to actually improve the work methods (i.e., enacting). Finally, whether the changes are effective or not is evaluated by employees, and this evaluation provides information for further use (i.e., reflecting). The detailed process illustration supports the proposition that taking charge consumes substantial personal resources, such as physical and mental resources.

As shown in the literature review, resource depletion represents the consuming or draining of people's physical, emotional, and cognitive resources (e.g., Baumeister & Vohs, 2003; Christian & Ellis, 2011; Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007). It

exhibits the exhausted experience of individuals described in COR theory. Studies have suggested that the process of arriving at a decision and the enactment of that decision are effortful and depleting, especially when uncertainty is high (Johnson et al., 2014; Milkman, 2012). As previously mentioned, taking charge is inherently a demanding and resource-intensive undertaking. It is also likely to encounter high risk and ambiguity, negative feedback, failure, or even punishment (Bindl & Parker, 2010). Therefore, based on the unpredictability of the outcomes of taking charge and the resource-consuming feature of taking charge, this type of behavior is likely to drain employees' energy- and mental-related resources, and thus results in resource depletion.

3.2.3 Taking Charge as a Double-edged Sword

Taking charge not only energizes but also depletes individuals. I draw upon COR theory to examine this seemingly paradoxical puzzle. I do not predict that taking charge has a main effect on vitality or depletion; instead, I argue that taking charge poses differential effects on vitality and depletion under different conditions. COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that when engaging in certain behaviors, three situations tend to influence the outcomes on resource states: (1) available resources, that is, whether individuals have resources when performing a specific behavior; (2) resource gain, that is, whether individuals act upon the opportunity to acquire resources; and (3) resource loss, that is, whether additional resources are expended or threatened to be expended. Therefore, I consider three moderators in the relationships between taking charge and vitality and depletion, and propose a series of crossover interactions that states differential and opposite relationships depending on the different levels of conditions.

3.2.4 Available Resources: The Moderating Role of Role Breadth Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy describes the "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Wood & Bandura, 1989, p. 408). Research findings have shown that self-efficacy stimulates individuals to set more challenging goals (Locke & Latham, 1990), enables them to perform tasks more persistently and effectively (Barling & Beattie, 1983; Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1987), and enhances their coping effectiveness when confronting changes (Hill, Smith, & Mann, 1987). When studying proactive behavior, scholars mostly adopt the concept of role breadth self-efficacy introduced by Parker (1998). This concept refers to employees' perceived capability of performing a range of proactive, interpersonal, and integrative activities that extend beyond the prescribed technical requirements. Compared with generalized self-efficacy, role breadth self-efficacy focuses on a range of tasks within a specific situation, that is, employees' work role, which is relevant and points to employees' proactive behaviors. Specifically, researchers have shown that role breadth self-efficacy is positively associated with outcomes, such as proactive work performance (Griffin et al., 2007), and a range of proactive behaviors, including taking charge (McAllister et al., 2007), voice (Axtell et al., 2000), and problem solving (Parker et al., 2006).

On the basis of studies on role breadth self-efficacy, I propose that role breadth self-efficacy can act as one type of available resource for individuals who engage in taking charge to affect the relationships between such behavior and vitality or depletion. Role breadth self-efficacy represents one's judgment in his/her ability to act proactively. As previously mentioned, taking charge involves several regulatory processes, such as envisioning, planning, enacting, and reflecting (Bindl

et al., 2012). Role breadth self-efficacy accordingly exhibits how competent the actors perceive themselves to be in accomplishing these behaviors. Given that taking charge is a relatively demanding and not a simple or routine job for employees, the self-perceived competence should be a critical resource for them to regulate such behavior. Specifically, individuals with high levels of role breadth self-efficacy consider themselves highly competent to take charge, and this perception is likely to boost their intrinsic motivation to be involved in taking charge, assist in adopting efficient strategies, and enhance the overall task effectiveness (e.g., Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Richter, Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Baer, 2012; Wood et al., 2001). High role breadth self-efficacy also uplifts individuals' feeling of control and perceived likelihood of success (Bandura, 2012). Consequently, when possessing cognitive resources in the form of high role breadth self-efficacy, employees who perform taking charge can undergo a positive experience, feel animated, and minimize their resource expenditure in completing this type of behavior. By contrast, when role breadth self-efficacy is low, employees lack the confidence to take charge and feel uncertain about the outcomes, and this condition tends to consume more effort and resources and frustrate individuals (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). As such, engaging in taking charge with high role breadth self-efficacy leads to higher levels of vitality and lower levels of depletion, whereas engaging in taking charge with low role breadth self-efficacy leads to lower levels of vitality and higher levels of depletion.

> *Hypothesis 1: Role breadth self-efficacy moderates the relationship between taking charge and vitality, such that the relationship is (a) positive for individuals with higher role breadth self-efficacy and (b) negative for those with lower role breadth self-efficacy.*

Hypothesis 2: Role breadth self-efficacy moderates the relationship between taking charge and depletion, such that the relationship is (a) negative for individuals with higher role breadth self-efficacy and (b) positive for those with lower role breadth self-efficacy.

3.2.5 Resource Gain: The Moderating Role of Interaction Frequency with Supervisor

Interaction frequency with supervisor describes the interpersonal dyadic interactions between the supervisor and the subordinate, and it refers to the frequency that the subordinate or supervisor initiates work-related, informal, or social interactions with each other (McAllister, 1995). Studies on supervisor–subordinate communication have illustrated the contents of communication that are typically exchanged in supervisor–subordinate interactions, such as job-related information, procedures and practices within the organization, feedback about the subordinate's work, and information on how to accomplish tasks (e.g., Jablin, 1979; Katz & Kahn, 1966). Generally, the two parties share meaningful and timely information with each other. Interaction with supervisor has been shown to be a key component to foster employees' trust in the supervisor and organizational commitment (McAllister, 1995; Zeffane, Tipu, & Ryan, 2011). More importantly, the significance of interaction frequency has been highlighted in the literature of leader–member exchange relationships (e.g., Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Fairhurst, 1993; Gajendran & Joshi, 2012). Research findings suggest that frequent interactions between employees and supervisors can reinforce the positive interpersonal relationships between the two interactive parties and provide employees with valuable information to improve job performance (Gajendran & Joshi, 2012; Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003). Hence, interaction frequency with supervisor can be

regarded as an actual or potential resource gain for employees when they engage in taking charge.

Specifically, when employees engage in taking charge and concurrently communicate with their supervisors frequently, they have a high chance to be offered opportunities to seek feedback or support regarding the issues involved in taking charge from their supervisors in a positive and safe atmosphere. Additionally, employees can influence the supervisor's decision making on the issues that employees are working on through the interactions (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). These interactions induce a sense of control for employees over their work behaviors. Further, the frequent interactions can symbolically convey the message that this employee matters to the supervisor, and this situation strengthens the employee's motivation to perform taking charge and willingness to contribute to the team or organization (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981). All these conditions can facilitate the implementation of taking charge and increase the likelihood of success, and they tend to invigorate individuals and decrease the usage of personal resource, as previously argued. Therefore, with high interaction frequency with supervisor, taking charge should increase employees' vitality and reduce depletion. However, when the interaction frequency between employees and supervisors is low, the relationship between the dyadic pairs appears to be relatively weak. Employees lack the opportunity to seek information or support from their supervisors and are less likely to be involved in their supervisors' decision-making process. That is, taking charge is likely to be more costly because individuals cannot acquire resources (e.g., feedback, support, and information) from their supervisors. Therefore, vitality resulting from taking charge should be lower and depletion should be higher when interaction frequency with supervisor is low.

Hypothesis 3: Interaction frequency with supervisor moderates the relationship between taking charge and vitality, such that the relationship is (a) positive for individuals with higher interaction frequency with supervisor and (b) negative for those with lower interaction frequency with supervisor.

Hypothesis 4: Interaction frequency with supervisor moderates the relationship between taking charge and depletion, such that the relationship is (a) negative for individuals with higher interaction frequency with supervisor and (b) positive for those with lower interaction frequency with supervisor.

3.2.6 Resource Loss: The Moderating Role of Controlled Motivation

Controlled motivation refers to "acting with a sense of pressure, a sense of having to engage in the actions" (Gagné & Deci, 2005, p. 334), and it is contingent on its consequences. People with controlled motivation are stimulated by extrinsic factors, such as obligation and rewards. Researchers have argued that controlled motivation can be a driving force of employees' proactive behavior, which should not be ignored (Bolino et al., 2010; Campbell, 2000; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005). When applied to proactive behavior, controlled motivation corresponds to the introjected and extrinsic motivation of proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2010). For example, employees may take charge because they may feel guilty if they stay still and do nothing (i.e., introjected motivation), or they regard the behavior as instrumental in leading to rewards, such as bonuses, promotion, or good image (i.e., extrinsic motivation).

When individuals are stimulated by controlled motivation, they may undergo a sense of obligation and pressure. Therefore, taking charge is perceived as threatening rather than challenging (Hobfoll, 1989). It implies that employees may

consume extra resources to cope with setbacks and frustrations. Engaging in taking charge with controlled motivation demands additional effort to focus on current activities, and thus attentional effort and cognitive resources are spent (Kanfer, 1996). Research findings support that the process of accomplishing tasks with controlled motivation is resource depleting for individuals (Muraven, 2008; Muraven et al., 2008). Moreover, drawing upon self-determination theory, Strauss and Parker (2013) propose that proactive behavior driven by controlled motivation is likely to be less effective. Based on this condition, taking charge becomes more demanding than energizing as a consequence of ineffectiveness (Strauss et al., 2013). Therefore, when controlled motivation is high, performing taking charge is associated with lower levels of vitality and higher levels of depletion. By contrast, when controlled motivation is low, employees do not feel pressured to engage in taking charge and do so because of their intrinsic motivation. Moreover, such behaviors are likely to be viewed positively and more fulfilling (Gagné & Deci, 2005), and result in higher levels of vitality and lower levels of depletion. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 5: Controlled motivation moderates the relationship between taking charge and vitality, such that the relationship is (a) negative for individuals with higher controlled motivation and (b) positive for those with lower controlled motivation.

Hypothesis 6: Controlled motivation moderates the relationship between taking charge and depletion, such that the relationship is (a) positive for individuals with higher controlled motivation and (b) negative for those with lower controlled motivation.

3.3 The Mediated Moderation Mechanisms between Taking Charge and Psychological States (Study 1)

3.3.1 Taking Charge and Psychological States

The current study focuses on the individual psychological outcomes of taking charge. These outcomes have been ignored by researchers, although these outcomes should be equally important for employees compared with performance-related ones. Four psychological outcomes are examined: pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE.

According to previous research (e.g., Brunstein, 1993; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Judge & Locke, 1993), pleasant and unpleasant moods are used to represent individuals' subjective well-being, and they refer to people's cognitive and affective evaluations of their lives (Diener, 2000). When experiencing high levels of pleasant mood and low levels of unpleasant mood, individuals tend to enjoy high subjective well-being and feel satisfied with their lives. Being involved in intriguing and fulfilling activities is likely to induce a pleasant rather than an unpleasant mood (Diener et al., 1999). In this sense, researchers have proposed that work-related activities could significantly influence subjective well-being if it could generate adequate stimulation that individuals perceive as enjoyable and meaningful and to give a sense of identity (Bowling et al., 2010; Czikszentmihalyi, 1990).

Psychological meaningfulness refers to the value of a work goal or purpose, and it is judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards (Renn & Vandenberg, 1995). It has been recognized as an important psychological state or condition for employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; May, 2003). The experience of being able to seek meaning at work tends to promote individual growth and work motivation. Low levels of meaningfulness can decrease individuals' passion and

induce disengagement from their work. Researchers have found that job characteristics, role fit, and interpersonal relationships are significantly associated with psychological meaningfulness (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004).

OBSE refers to the degree to which an individual believes himself/herself to be capable, significant, and worthy as an organizational member (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989). Individuals with high OBSE perceive themselves as occupying a crucial and meaningful role in their organizations, and they believe that "I count around here" and "I can make a difference in this place" (Hui & Lee, 2000). Research has shown that successful task or work experiences can enhance employees' OBSE.

Taken together, the four psychological-level outcomes are all significantly associated with employees' positive or negative work experience. As argued earlier, taking charge presents a double-edged-sword effect on individuals, and it results in vitality and depletion depending on the three proposed conditions. Therefore, taking charge is viewed as a mixed, both positive and negative, personal experience for employees. For instance, a positive experience involves improving work procedures, being supported by coworkers and supervisors, and achieving challenging goals of bringing about change within the organization (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). A negative experience includes being fatigued, exhausted, or stressed when taking charge (Bolino et al., 2010). Taking charge appears to promote, as well as weaken, the individual-level psychological consequences. Therefore, I do not propose direct positive or negative relationships between taking charge and psychological outcomes. However, on the basis of Hypotheses 1–6, I expect that vitality and depletion explain the interactive effects of taking charge and the three moderators (i.e., role breadth

self-efficacy, interaction frequency with supervisor, and controlled motivation) on these psychological outcomes.

3.3.2 The Mediating Role of Vitality

Vitality presents the energized states of individuals, namely, feeling alive, fully functioning, and possessing abundant energy or resource (Nix et al., 1999). Vitality is a desirable and positive experience for employees because employees who are energized, enthusiastic, and vigorous are more likely to exert effort and engage in work, insist on pursuing goals, and explore beyond routine jobs (Ryan & Bernstein, 2004). Therefore, vitality influences how employees feel physically and psychologically and how they perceive and accomplish their work.

Specifically, the resource-building process of taking charge involves individuals achieving challenging and fulfilling goals, experiencing positive emotions, and being supported or identified by peers or superiors (e.g., Aspinwall, 2005; McAllister et al., 2007; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). These factors have been shown to enhance employees' subjective well-being, and employees experience high levels of pleasant mood and lower levels of unpleasant mood (e.g., Bowling et al., 2010; Diener et al., 1999). These factors are also likely to promote individuals' psychological meaningfulness because they activate personal positive response mechanisms, stimulate employees seeking out new ideas or ways regarding their work, enhance their general self-esteem, and foster a sense of connectedness with team members or others (e.g., Carmeli et al., 2009; Spreitzer, 1995). Moreover, after taking charge induces an energetic experience for individuals, they tend to perceive themselves as competent, important, and valuable organizational members (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). They believe that they could improve how work is executed and

contribute to the organization. In this sense, OBSE is cemented by the vitality function of taking charge (Pierce et al., 1989).

From the resource-gaining perspective, taking charge can produce a fulfilling experience, pleasant emotions, goal actualization, and other satisfying feelings for individuals. However, in consideration of its resource-draining aspect, taking charge is not expected to have main effects on individual psychological outcomes (i.e., subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE). Moreover, in investigating the beneficial outcomes of taking charge, vitality, as an energizing mechanism, is an important intervening variable that may influence one's physical and psychological resources. Vitality exhibits the positive experience of taking charge, and energetic employees are suggested to have a high level of subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE, as previously discussed. However, without the vigorous state, taking charge cannot ensure these desirable outcomes. Therefore, based on the interactive effects of taking charge and the three proposed moderators on vitality, taking charge produces beneficial or undesirable psychological outcomes for individuals under different conditions. Specifically, when role breadth self-efficacy is high, interaction frequency with supervisor is high, and controlled motivation is low, taking charge peps up individuals and leads to higher vitality, which in turn facilitates their subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE. By contrast, when role breadth self-efficacy is low, interaction frequency with supervisor is low, and controlled motivation is high, performing taking charge discourages individuals and induces lower vitality, which in turn undermines individuals' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE. Therefore, I predict a mediated moderation, as shown in the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7: Vitality mediates the interactive effects of taking charge and role breadth self-efficacy on (a) pleasant mood, (b) unpleasant mood, (c) psychological meaningfulness, and (d) OBSE.

Hypothesis 8: Vitality mediates the interactive effects of taking charge and interaction frequency with supervisor on (a) pleasant mood, (b) unpleasant mood, (c) psychological meaningfulness, and (d) OBSE.

Hypothesis 9: Vitality mediates the interactive effects of taking charge and controlled motivation on (a) pleasant mood, (b) unpleasant mood, (c) psychological meaningfulness, and (d) OBSE.

3.3.3 The Mediating Role of Depletion

Depletion refers to the exhausted states of individuals, namely, feeling fatigue, being mentally drained, or undergoing negative emotions (Christian & Ellis, 2011; Johnson et al., 2014). Depletion is regarded as an unfavorable and negative experience for individuals, as resource depletion has been shown to be related to increased impulsivity, reduced self-control ability, deviant behaviors, and poorer performance on self-regulation tasks (e.g., Barnes et al., 2011; Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007; Wang et al., 2011). Therefore, depletion affects employees' feelings both physically and psychologically, as well as how they take action at work.

According to the features of taking charge, engaging in such behavior requires higher-than-average energy and resources than other extra-role behaviors, such as helping colleagues in trivial tasks and providing suggestions to improve work efficiency. The resource-depleting effect of taking charge may lead to harmful outcomes. Specifically, when personal resources are deficient because of taking charge, an unfavorable status occurs (Vohs & Heatherton, 2000). Employees' self-control capability, which plays a significant role in people's life and work (e.g.,

Baumeister et al., 2007; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000), decreases. This condition implies that employees are more likely to view things and respond negatively, act more impulsively, express negative emotions, and perform negatively in in-role or extra-role behaviors (Hagger, Wood, Stiff, & Chatzisarantis, 2010; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). All these negative experiences are not likely to promote individuals' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, or OBSE because they cannot produce desirable feelings, such as being fulfilled, satisfied, competent, and worthy. Additionally, with resource depletion, employees will not take initiative to be creative or explore beyond their prescribed tasks. They tend to maintain, rather than challenge, the status quo. Therefore, depletion weakens employees' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE.

Based on the resource-draining perspective, taking charge can produce physical tiredness, unpleasant emotions, mental exhaustion, and decreased self-control capacity. Moreover, taking charge is not expected to have main effects on individual psychological outcomes (i.e., subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE), as beneficial outcomes can be obtained when the resource-building function of taking charge is considered. When examining the detrimental outcomes of taking charge, depletion, as a resource-exhausting mechanism, is an important intervening variable that may affect the available physical and psychological resources of individuals. Depletion reveals the negative effect of taking charge, and depleted employees are suggested to have a low level of subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE, as previously mentioned. However, without including the depletion construct, predicting these undesirable outcomes of taking charge is less possible. Therefore, based on the interactive effects of taking charge and the three proposed moderators on depletion,

taking charge produces beneficial or undesirable psychological outcomes for individuals under different conditions. Specifically, when role breadth self-efficacy is high, interaction frequency with supervisor is high, and controlled motivation is low, taking charge is likely to expend less personal resources and cause lower depletion, which in turn increases individuals' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE. By contrast, when role breadth self-efficacy is low, interaction frequency with supervisor is low, and controlled motivation is high, additional resources are required to take charge and result in higher depletion, thus threatening individuals' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE. Accordingly, I speculate a mediated moderation with the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 10: Depletion mediates the interactive effects of taking charge and role breadth self-efficacy on (a) pleasant mood, (b) unpleasant mood, (c) psychological meaningfulness, and (d) OBSE.

Hypothesis 11: Depletion mediates the interactive effects of taking charge and interaction frequency with supervisor on (a) pleasant mood, (b) unpleasant mood, (c) psychological meaningfulness, and (d) OBSE.

Hypothesis 12: Depletion mediates the interactive effects of taking charge and controlled motivation on (a) pleasant mood, (b) unpleasant mood, (c) psychological meaningfulness, and (d) OBSE.

3.4 Psychological States and Turnover Intention (Study 1)

The last hypothesis focuses on the outcome of the four specific psychological states (i.e., pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE), that is, turnover intention. Turnover intention, also known as intention to leave, is a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization and search

for alternatives (Tett & Meyer, 1993). It is often assessed with reference to a specific interval (e.g., within the next 12 months). A large number of studies have focused on turnover and turnover intention, and research findings show a range of antecedents of intention to leave, such as job satisfaction, job performance, job insecurity, organizational commitment, and workplace deviant behaviors (e.g., Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Glambek, Matthiesen, Hetland, & Einarsen, 2014; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Past meta-analysis studies have demonstrated that intention to leave is one of the strongest predictors of employee turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Steel & Ovalle, 1984), and it may work as an underlying mechanism of turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). High turnover intention has also been suggested to be associated with other important organizational behaviors beyond turnover, such as OCBs and job performance (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Therefore, examining employees' turnover intention in the research model can shed some light on the influences of taking charge to the organization.

Subjective well-being captures individuals' general cognitive and affective evaluations of their lives, and it represents whether they are satisfied with their current lives (Diener, 2000). People tend to possess high subjective well-being when they undergo enjoyable and fulfilling experiences, feel important, and have a sense of identity (Bowling et al., 2010; Czikszentmihalyi, 1990). Subjective well-being is likely to affect how individuals collect and recall information about their jobs. Employees with high levels of subjective well-being may store, evaluate, or recall job events differently than those with low levels of subjective well-being (Judge & Locke, 1993). Psychological meaningfulness is "the feeling that one is receiving a return on investments of one's self in a currency of physical, cognitive, or emotional

energy" (Kahn, 1990, p. 703). Being able to seek meaningfulness and feel worthwhile, useful, and valuable at work is a critical psychological state for individuals. Lack of meaningfulness has shown to link to the feeling of low expectancy of their selves and little room for growth, and it influences how they invest themselves in tasks and roles (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; May, 2003). OBSE reflects individuals' self-perceived value as organizational members (Pierce et al., 1989). Employees with high OBSE perceive themselves as significant, worthwhile, meaningful, and capable within the organization. Researchers have consistently shown that OBSE leads to positive attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, improved job performance, and increased citizenship behavior (e.g., Chan, Huang, Snape, & Lam, 2013; Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2005; Hui & Lee, 2000; Judge & Bono, 2001).

In accordance with previous research, I speculate that when employees experience high subjective well-being (i.e., high pleasant mood and low unpleasant mood), psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE, they are more likely to remain positive about their work and life, be passionate about and engage in the job, and be willing to invest resources to contribute to the organization to further demonstrate their worth and value. Therefore, their intention to leave the organization is low. By contrast, when individuals' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE are low, they are more inclined to respond and act negatively, detach themselves from work, and withhold their efforts in performing tasks or extra-role behaviors that may benefit the organization. Therefore, their intention to leave the organization is high. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 13a: Pleasant mood is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 13b: Unpleasant mood is positively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 13c: Psychological meaningfulness is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 13d: OBSE is negatively related to turnover intention.

3.5 Taking Charge, Resource Depletion, and Fatigue (Study 2)

The existing research area of taking charge focuses on investigating which individual-level and contextual factors motivate or demotivate employees to perform taking charge. Although scholars have consistently stated that taking charge is conducive to individuals and organizations, as well as implied that this type of behavior may result in some undesirable outcomes for individuals (e.g., Morrison & Phelps, 1999), only two empirical studies have examined its positive effect on employees' job performance rated by supervisors (Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009). Moreover, no research has been conducted to explore its possible negative consequences. In other words, the idea that employees' taking charge behavior could have a negative effect on themselves has largely been ignored. Therefore, based on Study 1, Study 2 focuses on looking into the "black box" of the dark side of taking charge. Drawing upon COR theory, this study proposes that taking charge is likely to increase employees' levels of fatigue, which refers to individuals' subjective feelings of physical and mental well-being (Chalder et al., 1993).

Rather than passively accepting and reacting, taking charge implies mindfully planning, calculating, and taking action to improve work methods, policies, and practices (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). For example, employees who have the initiative question the effectiveness of the current work procedure and aim to bring about change. To take charge, employees are required to undergo the following processes: identify the problems of the current procedure, develop plans for improvement, compare these plans and make decisions, and implement solutions for

improvement. This type of behavior is not included in the job description and is regarded as an extra-role behavior of employees. It goes beyond the specified role scope, and it challenges the status quo (McAllister et al., 2007). Therefore, based on its risky and challenging nature and its requirement of deliberation and action, employees' taking charge tends to consume more resources, such as time, physical energy, and mental effort, than their prescribed tasks. Experimental studies have provided preliminary support that people who engage in tasks that require mindfulness, attention, or self-regulation tend to be more tired and have a higher level of some physiological indicators of fatigue (e.g., blood pressure response and heart rate variability) (Baumeister et al., 1998; Finkel et al., 2006; Wright et al., 2007). Therefore, I argue that engaging in taking charge strengthens the level of fatigue.

Hypothesis 14: Taking charge is positively related to fatigue.

As argued in Study 1, taking charge expends more personal effort and resources of employees than routine jobs. Given that COR theory states that resources are scarce for individuals and resource loss is salient for individuals (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001), performing taking charge is likely to accelerate the resource-consuming process and to decrease the volume of personal resources, thus leading to resource depletion (e.g., Baumeister & Vohs, 2003; Christian & Ellis, 2011). Cameron (1973) suggests that individuals experience fatigue when energy is depleted or when mental resources are overtaxed. Therefore, I predict that resource depletion mediates the relationship between taking charge and fatigue.

Hypothesis 15: Resource depletion mediates the relationship between taking charge and fatigue.

3.6 Fatigue and the Subsequent Taking Charge Behavior (Study 2)

As argued, individuals experience a lack of available resources and become fatigued after engaging in taking charge, as such behavior expends personal resources beyond employees' prescribed roles. As suggested by COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), people tend to become sensitive when losing resources, given that individuals' resources are finite and resource loss is stressful. Those who lack resources are more vulnerable to ongoing resource loss. This condition implies that when confronting resource loss, individuals reconsider and reallocate the remaining resources to minimize further resource loss. Moreover, COR theory claims that individuals are more likely to adopt a defensive strategy to conserve resources (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). Research findings support this proposition. Studies have shown that resource-depleted individuals are more inclined to act in denial rather than invest effort and resources to conserve their resource reservoir (e.g., Carver, 1993; Schönpflug, 1985). Research on close relationships has also shown that employees who have undergone loss in the period of relationship development are less willing to invest resources in new relationships (e.g., Boon & Griffin, 1996; Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Therefore, after executing taking charge, resource-depleted individuals may be inclined to temporarily cease the resource-consuming process to conserve resource-in-use.

I further draw on the studies on self-regulation for support. Research findings have consistently demonstrated that the performance of a subsequent self-regulatory activity will be impaired because of the resource expenditure involved in accomplishing the first self-regulatory task (e.g., Baumeister et al., 1998; Baumeister & Vohs, 2003; Schmeichel et al., 2003). This result indicates that the resources that remain in the resource pool determine individuals' subsequent capacity for engaging

in self-regulatory activities, such as resisting temptation, making effortful decisions, and taking initiative (Vohs et al., 2008). As previously discussed, taking charge depends on individuals' initiative taking, deliberate decision making, mindful thinking and planning, and anticipatory acting (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). It shares the characteristics of self-regulatory activity, which suggests a self-regulatory nature of the taking charge behavior. Hence, following the findings in the area of self-regulation, performing taking charge may jeopardize individuals' ability to do so again immediately following the completion of the first action.

Taken together, I argue that fatigued individuals with a lack of resources tend to perform lower levels of taking charge.

Hypothesis 16: Fatigue is negatively related to subsequent taking charge.

3.7 The Moderating Role of Taking a Break (Study 2)

Taking a break is a vital component of our lives to balance human energy and maintain effective functioning (Spreitzer, Lam, & Quinn, 2011). Studies on ergonomics and work recovery suggest that taking breaks is helpful in fighting the effects of fatigue and increasing individual productivity and well-being. For example, Dababneh and colleagues (2001) found that providing workers in the production line four 9-minute breaks evenly distributed over the workday improved their discomfort ratings for the lower extremities. Henning and colleagues (1997) found that eye, leg, and foot comfort and productivity all improved when a three-minute break from work each hour was introduced to computer operators. Studies by Trougakos and colleagues (Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, & Beal, 2014; Trougakos et al., 2008) have suggested that employees' relaxation experiences during within-workday breaks improve their well-being and performance. Finally, the series of Sonnentag's studies has consistently shown a positive association between recovery experiences during

end-of-day breaks and individual well-being (e.g., Sonnentag, 2001; Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). These studies generally present that taking a break is able to relieve individuals from resource-demanding activities. Hence, breaks are conducive to preventing individuals from experiencing further resource depletion and aid in resource reservation.

Research in the area of self-regulation has suggested that after an episode of self-regulation, the negative influence on subsequent self-regulatory capacity is temporary if appropriate interventions are applied (e.g., Danziger et al., 2011; Tyler & Burns, 2008). For example, Danziger and colleagues (2011) found that judges showed an increased tendency to rule in favor of the status quo when they made repeated rulings, but this trend was overcome by taking a break to eat a meal. This result implies that a meal break can help replenish mental resources. Tyler and Burns (2008) investigated how individuals replenish their self-regulatory resources after depletion. Depleted participants who were provided a short rest or relaxation period performed just as well on subsequent tasks as non-depleted participants. Similarly, this body of literature indicates that taking a break or briefly relaxing in between performing two self-regulatory tasks can replenish individuals' depleted resources and in turn boost their ability to engage in subsequent self-regulation.

On the basis of this reasoning, I predict that individuals who do not take a break are more likely to possess higher levels of fatigue and thus decrease their subsequent levels of taking charge behavior than those who take a break after performing initial taking charge. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 17: Taking a break moderates the relationship between taking charge and fatigue through resource depletion, such that the mediated

relationship is weakened under the condition of taking a break after performing initial taking charge.

Hypothesis 18: Compared with those who take a break after performing initial taking charge, individuals who do not take a break decrease their subsequent levels of taking charge.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 1: TAKING CHARGE AS A DOUBLE-EDGED SWORD: EXAMINING WHEN AND HOW IT HELPS AND HURTS INDIVIDUALS AT WORK

4.1 Overview of Study 1

Study 1 aims to investigate when and how taking charge helps and hurts individuals at work, including the following issues: (1) how role breadth self-efficacy, interaction frequency with supervisor, and controlled motivation act as boundary conditions on the relationship between taking charge and vitality; (2) how role breadth self-efficacy, interaction frequency with supervisor, and controlled motivation act as boundary conditions on the relationship between taking charge and depletion; (3) how vitality and depletion mediate the joint effects of taking charge and the three moderators on individuals' psychological states (i.e., pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE); and (4) the relationships between psychological states and turnover intention.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Sample and Procedures

Data were collected from full-time employees and their supervisors of a chemical supply chain group corporation located in Southern China. The corporation provides services and products, including supply chain service system, distribution and sales agents, transportation and warehousing service, and supply chain finance and consultation. Each employee in the company had an immediate supervisor who worked in the same unit. Thus, the supervisor could observe each employee's taking charge behavior. Two sets of questionnaires were used in this study: one for the employees and another for their immediate supervisors. Paper-and-pencil surveys

were distributed to the employees and their supervisors separately. I visited all of the respondents in person (sessions with supervisors and subordinates were conducted separately) to brief them about the objectives of the study and to explain how to complete the questionnaire. Each respondent received a cover letter that explained the study, the questionnaire, and a return envelope. Each questionnaire was coded with a researcher-assigned identification number to match the employees' responses with their immediate supervisors' evaluations. To ensure confidentiality, the respondents were instructed to seal the completed questionnaires in the envelopes and return them directly to the researchers on site.

The data were collected at three different points with a one-month interval for each wave. The respondents were offered a coupon worth RMB 20 (or roughly USD 3.23) for each survey completed to encourage participation. Time 1 questionnaires were distributed to 491 employees and 103 supervisors. Eliminating surveys with incomplete or invalid data resulted in usable responses from 439 employees and 96 supervisors. After one month, Time 2 questionnaires were distributed to these 439 employees and 96 supervisors, and I used the same procedure to obtain usable responses, with 402 employees and 90 supervisors remaining. After one month, I conducted the Time 3 survey. The final data set consisted of responses from 392 employees and 90 supervisors, with a response rate of 79.8% and 87.4% for the employees and supervisors, respectively. Among the employees, 73.7% were male, and 54.0% obtained a college education or above. Mean age and organizational tenure were 30 and 2.5 years, respectively. Among the supervisors, 82.4% were male, and 47.2 % obtained a college education or above. Mean age and organizational tenure were 36.3 and 5.9 years, respectively. The average length of the supervisor–subordinate relationship was 1.4 years.

4.2.2 Measures

The survey instrument was administered in Chinese. As the original scales used were developed in English, all of the items underwent a back-translation process (Brislin, 1986). The items were first translated to Chinese by one bilingual scholar and then translated back to English by another to ensure a high degree of clarity and accuracy.

Taking charge. A 10-item scale developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999) was used to assess taking charge. Taking charge was measured at Time 1 by the supervisors. I asked the supervisors how frequently their subordinates had engaged in the listed behaviors in the past month. Sample items are "This subordinate tried to adopt improved procedures for doing his/her job" and "This subordinate tried to change how his or her job is executed in order to be more effective" (1 = *not at all*; 7 = *very frequently*). The Cronbach's alpha was .95.

Role breadth self-efficacy. Role breadth self-efficacy was measured using a seven-item scale developed by Parker (1998) at Time 1. Employees were asked how confident they felt when carrying out a range of tasks. Sample items are "presenting information to a group of colleagues" and "designing new procedures for my work area" (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha was .75.

Interaction frequency with supervisor. Employees were asked to assess their interaction frequency with their supervisors by using a four-item scale developed by McAllister (1995) at Time 1. Sample items are "My supervisor initiates work-related interaction with me" and "I interact with my supervisor informally or socially at work" (1 = *not at all*; 7 = *very frequently*). The Cronbach's alpha was .87.

Controlled motivation. I measured employees' controlled motivation using a three-item scale developed by Wrzesniewski and colleagues (1997) at Time 1. A

sample item is “I expect to be in a higher level job in five years” (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach’s alpha was .85.

Vitality. Vitality was measured using a five-item scale developed by Carmeli (2005) at Time 2. Employees were asked to indicate the extent to which the items capture how they felt in the past month. Sample items are “I was most vital when I was at work” and “When I was at work, I felt mentally strong” (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach’s alpha was .90.

Depletion. Depletion was measured using a five-item scale of Johnson and colleagues (2014). The employees assessed their feelings in the past month at Time 2. A sample item is “I felt drained” (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach’s alpha was .88.

Pleasant and unpleasant moods. I measured employees’ subjective well-being (i.e., pleasant and unpleasant moods) by asking them to rate the extent to which they experienced the following moods during the past month at Time 3: happy, joyful, pleased, and confident for pleasant mood; sad, depressed, frustrated, and anxious for unpleasant mood (1 = *not at all*; 7 = *very frequently*) (Diener & Emmons, 1984). The Cronbach’s alpha values were .95 and .94 for pleasant and unpleasant moods, respectively.

Psychological meaningfulness. Employees’ psychological meaningfulness was assessed using a six-item sale developed by May and colleagues (2004) at Time 3. Sample items are “The work I do on this job is very important to me” and “My job activities are personally meaningful to me” (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach’s alpha was .94.

OBSE. OBSE was measured using a 10-item scale of Pierce et al. (1989) by the employees at Time 3. Respondents were asked to think about the messages they

had received from the attitudes and behaviors of their managers and supervisors. Sample items are "I count around here" and "I can make a difference" (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha was .90.

Turnover intention. Employees' turnover intention was rated by employees at Time 1 and 3. It was measured by a three-item scale based on the study of Tsui and colleagues (1997). A sample item is "I am likely to leave this organization within the next 12 months" (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha values were .82 and .86 for Time 1 and Time 3, respectively.

Control variables. I controlled for the demographic variables, including gender, age, education, and organizational tenure, since they could influence people's resource states at work (e.g., Kark & Carmeli, 2009; Ryan et al., 2010a; Ryan & Deci, 2008). I also controlled for employees' proactive personality which has been shown to be associated with proactivity at work (for a review, see Strauss & Parker, 2013). Additionally, I controlled for employees' objective job performance provided by the company at Time 1 and turnover intention at Time 1 when analyzing the relationships between psychological states and turnover intention. Studies have suggested that job performance is a salient predictor of employee turnover intention (Jackofsky, 1984).

4.2.3 Statistical Analyses

I conducted hierarchical regression analyses to test our hypotheses. The data analysis consisted of the following steps: First, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the moderating effects of role breadth self-efficacy, interaction frequency with supervisor, and controlled motivation on the relationships between taking charge and vitality or depletion (i.e., Hypotheses 1–6). Second, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test the mediating effects of vitality and

depletion (i.e., Hypotheses 7–12). Lastly, the relationships between psychological states and intention to leave were examined (Hypothesis 13).

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Before testing the hypotheses, I conducted confirmatory factor analyses to evaluate the discriminant validity of constructs that were rated by employees using AMOS 21.0. For the two mediators (i.e., vitality and depletion), the results suggested that the two-factor model (CFI = .97, TLI = .96, RMSEA = .08) yielded a better fit than the one-factor model (CFI = .59, TLI = .47, RMSEA = .27), with a change in chi-square ($\Delta \chi^2 = 830.41$, Δ df = 1, $p < .001$). For the three moderators (i.e., role breadth self-efficacy, interaction frequency with supervisor, and controlled motivation), the results showed that the three-factor model (CFI = .98, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .04) yielded a better fit than the one-factor model (CFI = .29, TLI = .11, RMSEA = .33), with a change in chi-square ($\Delta \chi^2 = 1830.48$, Δ df = 3, $p < .001$). For the four psychological states and turnover intention, the results indicated that the five-factor model (CFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .08) yielded a better fit than the one-factor model (CFI = .48, TLI = .43, RMSEA = .19; $\Delta \chi^2 = 3319.55$, Δ df = 10, $p < .001$) and the two-factor model in which the four psychological states were combined into one factor (CFI = .54, TLI = .50, RMSEA = .189; $\Delta \chi^2 = 2838.44$, Δ df = 9, $p < .001$). Lastly, another confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to distinguish statistically the 11 key variables in the model of Study 1 as shown in Figure 1.1. The results suggested that the 11-factor model (CFI = .90, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .06) yielded a better fit than the one-factor model (CFI = .28, TLI = .25, RMSEA = .15), with a change in chi-square ($\Delta \chi^2 = 10817.35$, Δ df = 55, $p < .001$). Thus, the results provided evidence that further examination of the hypothesized

model was warranted.

4.3.2 Descriptive Statistics

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 present the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the key variables. As shown, taking charge did not have main effects on vitality, depletion, and the four psychological states as predicted. Vitality (depletion) was positively (negatively) related to subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE, which were significantly associated with turnover intention.

Table 4.1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables (Study 1)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Gender	0.74	0.45	—														
2. Age (Year)	30.31	8.96	-.20***	—													
3. Education	2.70	1.06	.32***	-.45***	—												
4. Tenure (Year)	2.47	2.26	-.19***	.50***	-.25***	—											
5. PP	5.25	0.74	-.23***	.08	-.06	.16**	(.84)										
6. TC (T1)	4.38	1.21	.02	.09	.00	.16**	.05	(.95)									
7. CM (T1)	4.68	1.46	.05	-.27***	.10*	-.11*	.06	-.04	(.85)								
8. IFS (T1)	5.47	1.00	-.12*	.00	.04	-.02	.34**	.16**	-0.09	(.87)							
9. RBSE (T1)	5.59	0.81	-.11*	-.03	-.05	.12*	.45**	.09	-.06	.34***	(.75)						
10. VIT (T2)	5.59	0.92	-.12*	.19***	-.15**	.09	.37**	.06	-.19**	.45***	.36***	(.90)					
11. DEP (T2)	2.99	1.28	-.11*	.01	-.15**	.02	-.02	-.04	.22**	-.20***	-.13**	-.29***	(.88)				
12. PM (T3)	5.16	1.14	-.05	.02	-.04	.05	.29**	.04	-.08	.31***	.21***	.49***	-.26***	(.95)			
13. UPM (T3)	2.69	1.15	.15**	-.15**	.12*	-.02	-.17**	.04	.14**	-.18**	-.20***	-.39***	.38***	-.38***	(.94)		
14. PsyM(T3)	5.31	1.09	-.10*	.16**	-.14**	.06	.22**	.05	-.15**	.33***	.18**	.49***	-.18***	.45***	-.35***	(.94)	
15. OBSE (T3)	5.30	0.78	-.08	-.03	.08	.04	.39**	.04	-.02	.42***	.28***	.43***	-.22***	.48***	-.30***	.57***	(.90)

Note. $N = 392$.
Gender: Female = 0, Male = 1.
Education: Junior high school or below = 1, high school or equivalent = 2, college or associate's degree = 3, bachelor degree = 4, master degree = 5, Ph.D. degree = 6, others = 7.
PP = Proactive personality; TC = Taking charge; CM = Controlled motivation; IFS = Interaction frequency with supervisor; RBSE = Role breadth self-efficacy; VIT = Vitality; DEP = Depletion; PM = Pleasant mood; UPM = Unpleasant mood; PsyM = Psychological meaningfulness; OBSE = Organization-based self-esteem.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 4.2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables (Study 1, continued)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	0.74	0.45	—										
2. Age (Year)	30.31	8.96	-.20***	—									
3. Education	2.70	1.06	.32***	-.45***	—								
4. Tenure (Year)	2.47	2.51	-.19***	.50***	-.25***	—							
5. Intention to leave (T1)	3.79	1.45	.00	-.23***	.17***	-.05	(.82)						
6. Job performance (T1)	3.10	0.91	-.01	-.01	-.03	-.05	-.04	—					
7. PsyM (T3)	5.22	1.16	-.07	.15**	-.05	.01	-.44***	.02	(.94)				
8. OBSE (T3)	5.25	0.81	-.05	.04	.06	.03	-.17**	-.01	.50***	(.90)			
9. PM (T3)	5.17	1.10	-.04	.19***	-.08	.08	-.37***	-.02	.52***	.52***	(.95)		
10. UPM (T3)	2.70	1.11	.17**	-.22***	.19***	-.08	.34***	.01	-.32***	-.26***	-.55***	(.94)	
11. Turnover Intention (T3)	3.82	1.36	.09	-.30***	.20***	-.04	.64***	-.03	-.47***	-.22***	-.40***	.35***	(.86)

Note. $N = 392$.
Gender: Female = 0, Male = 1.
Education: Junior high school or below = 1, high school or equivalent = 2, college or associate's degree = 3, bachelor degree = 4, master degree = 5, Ph.D. degree = 6, others = 7.
PsyM = Psychological meaningfulness; OBSE = Organization-based self-esteem; PM = Pleasant mood; UPM = Unpleasant mood.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

4.3.3 Hypothesis Testing

Tests of moderating effects

Tables 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5 present the results for Hypotheses 1–6, which predicted the moderating effects of role breadth self-efficacy, interaction frequency with supervisor and controlled motivation on the relationship between taking charge and vitality and the relationship between taking charge and depletion. As shown in Table 4.3 (Models 3 and 6), the interactive effect of taking charge and role bread self-efficacy was significant on vitality (B = .09, p < .05), but insignificant on depletion (B = -.06, *n.s.*). Figure 4.1 plot the interactive effect of taking charge and role breadth self-efficacy on vitality, following the procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991) for testing simple slopes. As predicted, when employees were at high levels of role breadth self-efficacy, taking charge was positively related to vitality (B = .10, p < .05). By contrast, when employees were at low levels of role breadth self-efficacy, taking charge was negatively related to vitality (B = -.10, p < .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was fully supported, but Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 4.4 (Models 3 and 6) shows that the interactive effects of taking charge and interaction frequency with supervisor were significant on vitality (B = .14, p < .01) and depletion (B = -.10, p < .05). Following Aiken and West (1991), I plotted the interactive effects of taking charge and interaction frequency with supervisor on vitality (Figure 4.2a) and depletion (Figure 4.2b). Under the condition of low interaction frequency with supervisor, taking charge was negatively associated with vitality (B = -.20, p < .01) and positively associated with depletion (B = .11, p < .05). However, under the condition of high interaction frequency with supervisor, taking charge was not significantly related to vitality and depletion. Hence, Hypotheses 3

and 4 were partially supported.

Table 4.5 (Models 3 and 6) presents the moderating effects of controlled motivation on the relationships between taking charge and vitality/depletion. The interactive effects of taking charge and controlled motivation were significant on vitality (B = -.11, p < .05) and depletion (B = .13, p < .01). Similarly, following Aiken and West (1991), I plotted the interactive effects of taking charge and controlled motivation on vitality (Figure 4.3a) and depletion (Figure 4.3b). Under the condition of low controlled motivation, taking charge was positively related to vitality (B = .12, p < .05) and negatively related to depletion (B = -.12, p < .05). However, under the condition of high controlled motivation, taking charge was negatively related to vitality (B = -.11, p < .05) and positively related to depletion (B = .14, p < .05). Therefore, Hypotheses 5 and 6 received full support.

Table 4.3 Results of the Moderating Effect of Role Breadth Self-Efficacy (Study 1)

Variables	Vitality			Depletion		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**
Control variables Gender	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.10	-.10	-.10
Age	.14*	.17**	.16**	-.06	-.09	-.09
Education	-.07	-.07	-.08	-.16**	-.16**	-.16**
Tenure	-.10	-.12*	-.13*	.00	.02	.02
Proactive personality	.36***	.26***	.27***	-.12*	-.05	-.04
IV Taking charge (TC)		.00	.01		-.02	-.02
Moderator Role Breadth Self-Efficacy (RBSE)		.20***	.20***		-.17**	-.17**
Interaction TC * RBSE			.09*			-.06
R^2	.16	.19	.22	.05	.06	.06
R^2 change		.03***	.01*		.01*	.00

Note. $N = 392$. Entries are standardized regression coefficients.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 4.1 Interactive Effect of Taking Charge and Role Breadth Self-Efficacy on Vitality (Study 1)

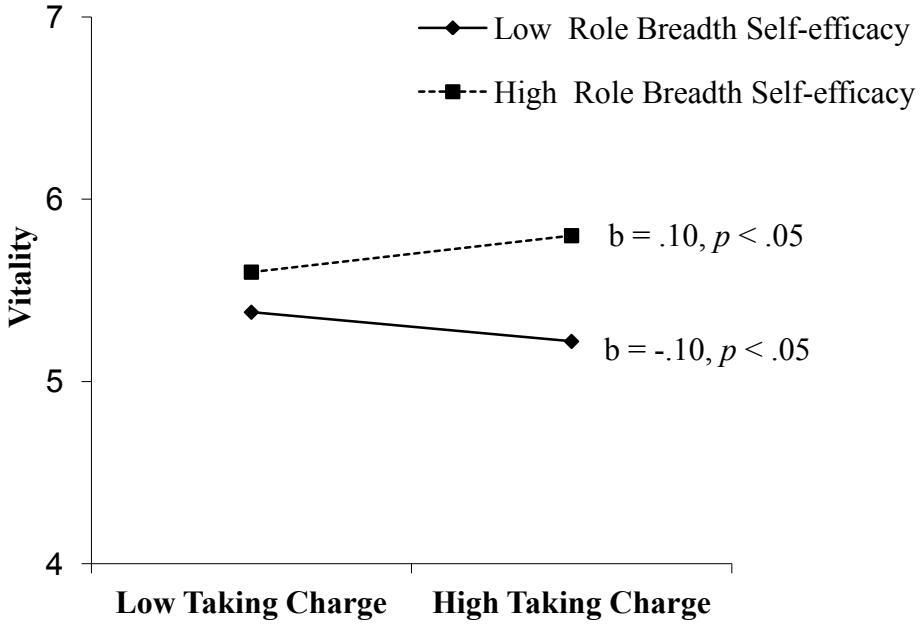


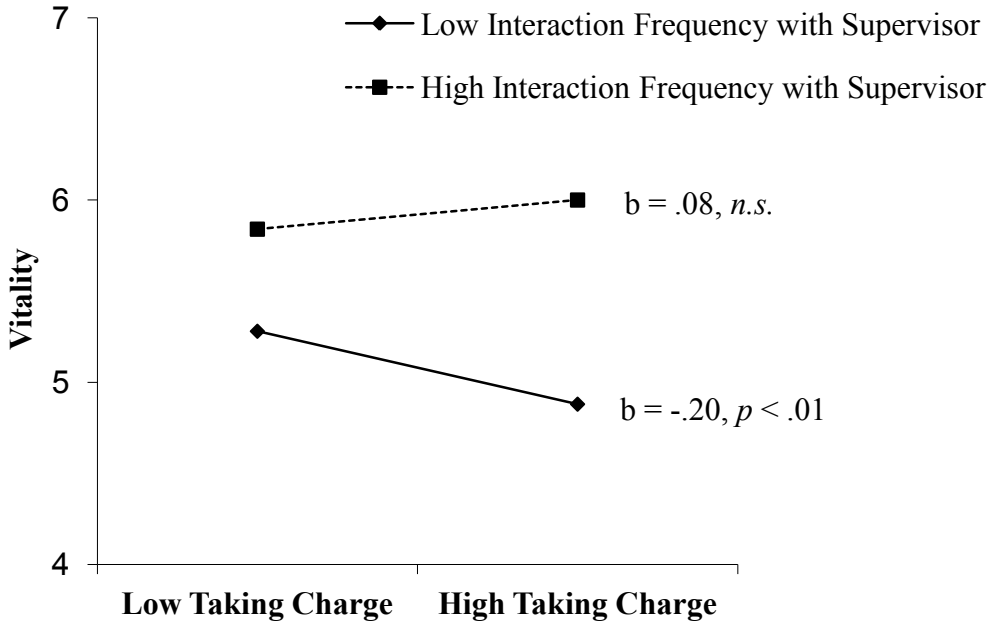
Table 4.4 Results of the Moderating Effect of Interaction Frequency with Supervisor (Study 1)

Variables	Vitality			Depletion		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**
Control variables Gender	-.04	-.00	-.01	-.10	-.10	-.10
Age	.14*	.12*	.12*	-.06	-.08	-.07
Education	-.07	-.11*	-.11*	-.16**	-.16**	-.16**
Tenure	-.10	-.05	-.05	.00	-.01	-.01
Proactive personality	.36***	.23***	.22***	-.12*	.02	.02
IV Taking charge (TC)		-.05	-.06		.00	.01
Moderator Interaction Frequency with Supervisor (IFS)		.38***	.42***		-.20***	-.22***
Interaction TC * IFS			.14**			-.10*
R^2	.16	.29	.31	.05	.08	.09
R^2 change		.13***	.02**		.03***	.01*

Note. $N = 392$. Entries are standardized regression coefficients.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 4.2 Interactive Effects of Taking Charge and Interaction Frequency with Supervisor on Vitality and Depletion (Study 1)

4.2a



4.2b

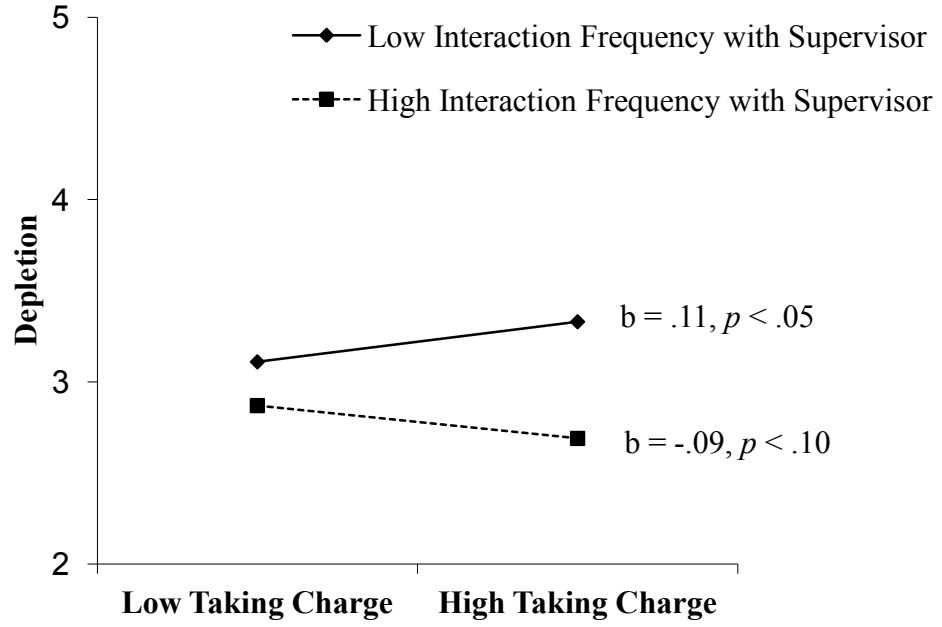


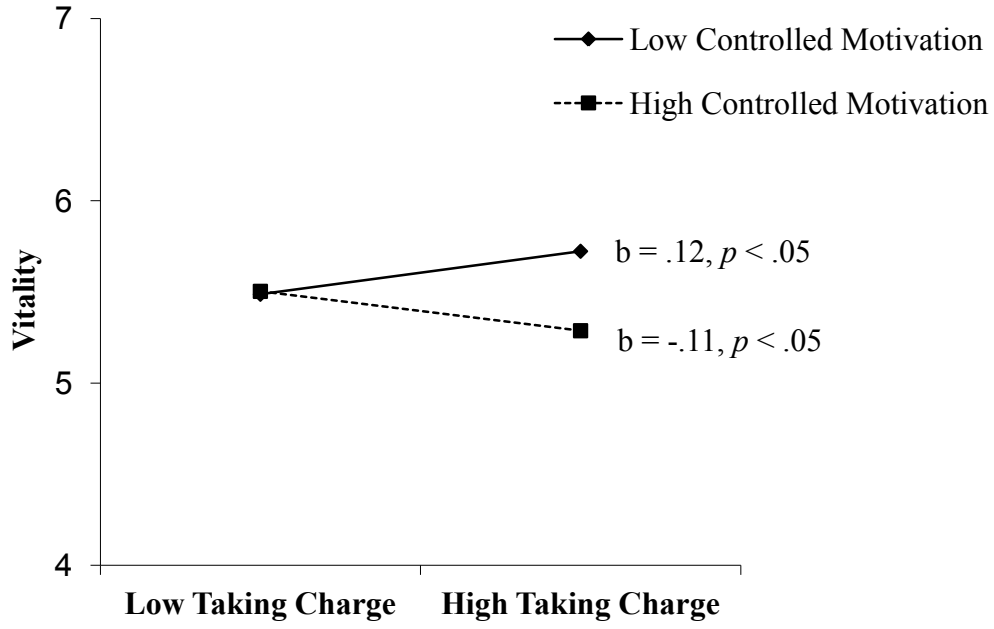
Table 4.5 Results of the Moderating Effect of Controlled Motivation (Study 1)

Variables	Vitality			Depletion		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**
Control variables Gender	-.04	-.04	-.06	-.10	-.11*	-.09
Age	.14*	.10	.11*	-.06	-.01	-.02
Education	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.16**	-.15**	-.16**
Tenure	-.10	-.10	-.10	.00	.00	.00
Proactive personality	.36***	.37***	.36	-.12*	-.14**	-.13*
IV Taking charge (TC)		.01	.01		.00	.01
Moderator Controlled motivation (CM)		-.12*	-.11*		.20***	.18***
Interaction TC * CM			-.11*			.13**
R^2	.16	.18	.19	.05	.08	.10
R^2 change		.02*	.01*		.03***	.02**

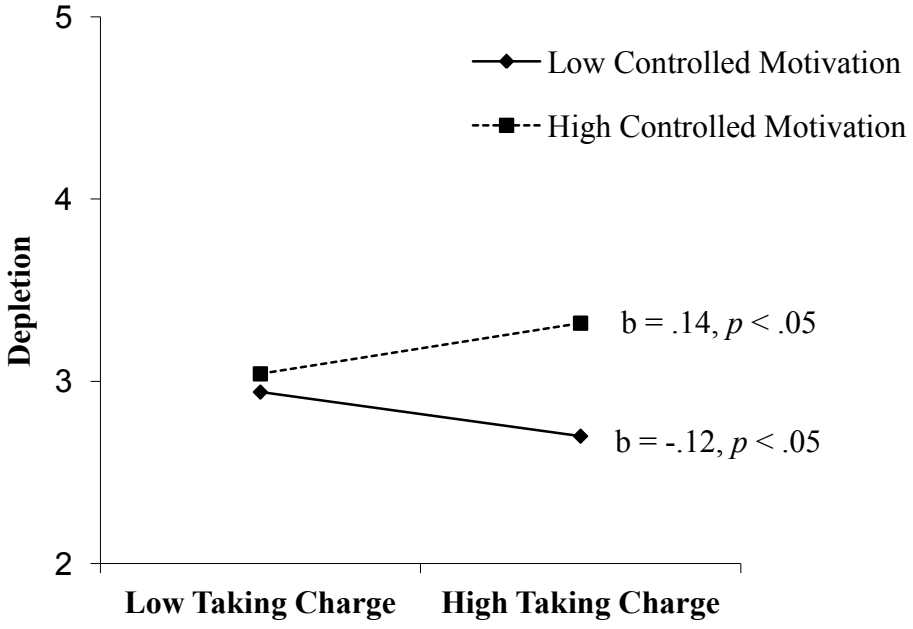
Note. $N = 392$. Entries are standardized regression coefficients.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 4.3 Interactive Effects of Taking Charge and Controlled Motivation on Vitality and Depletion (Study 1)

4.3a



4.3b



Tests of mediated moderation effects

Hypotheses 7–12 predicted that vitality and depletion mediated the joint effects of taking charge and the three moderators on psychological states. Tables 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8 present the results of hierarchical regression analyses. In these analyses, taking charge and the specific moderator were entered first, followed by the interaction term and lastly by the two mediators. I also used the path analytic approach advocated by Edwards and Lambert (2007) and the Monte Carlo method (Preacher & Selig, 2012; Selig & Preacher, 2008) to support these mediated moderation relationships (Tables 4.9, 4.10, and 4.11).

As shown in Table 4.6, vitality was significantly related to pleasant mood (B = .42, p < .001), unpleasant mood (B = -.23, p < .001), psychological meaningfulness (B = .43, p < .001), and OBSE (B = .33, p < .001) when including role breadth self-efficacy as a boundary condition of the model. Depletion was significantly related to pleasant mood (B = -.13, p < .01), unpleasant mood (B = .34, p < .001), and OBSE (B = -.09, p < .05). Combined with the results of the moderating effects of role breadth self-efficacy on the relationship between taking charge and vitality/depletion (Table 4.3), I conducted the mediated moderation analysis and computed the 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects based on 20,000 simulated samples. Table 4.9 shows that vitality, not depletion, mediated the joint effects of taking charge and role breadth self-efficacy on psychological states. Specifically, under the condition of high role breadth self-efficacy, taking charge enhanced subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE through vitality, whereas under the condition of low role breadth self-efficacy, taking charge decreased subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE through vitality. The indirect interactive effects of taking charge and role breadth self-efficacy on each

psychological state were plotted in Figure 4.4. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was fully supported, but not Hypothesis 10.

Table 4.7 shows that vitality was significantly related to pleasant mood (B = .40, p < .001), unpleasant mood (B = -.26, p < .001), psychological meaningfulness (B = .37, p < .001), and OBSE (B = .23, p < .001) when including interaction frequency with supervisor as a boundary condition of the model. Depletion was significantly related to pleasant mood (B = -.13, p < .01) and unpleasant mood (B = .34, p < .001). Similarly, together with the results of the moderating effects of interaction frequency with supervisor on the relationship between taking charge and vitality/depletion (Table 4.4), the mediated moderation analysis was conducted and the 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects were calculated based on 20,000 simulated samples. As shown in Table 4.10, vitality mediated the joint effects of taking charge and interaction frequency with supervisor on the four psychological states, and depletion only mediated the joint effect of taking charge and interaction frequency with supervisor on unpleasant mood. Specifically, under the condition of low interaction frequency with supervisor, taking charge undermined pleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE through vitality and induced unpleasant mood through vitality and depletion. Conversely, taking charge was not significantly related to the psychological states under the condition of high interaction frequency with supervisor. I plotted these moderated indirect effects in Figure 4.5. Hence, Hypotheses 8 and 11b were supported, but Hypotheses 11a, 11c, and 11d were not supported.

As suggested in Table 4.8, vitality was significantly related to pleasant mood (B = .41, p < .001), unpleasant mood (B = -.22, p < .001), psychological meaningfulness (B = .36, p < .001), and OBSE (B = .29, p < .001) when controlled

motivation acted as a moderator in the model. Depletion was significantly related to pleasant mood (B = -.13, p < .01), unpleasant mood (B = .33, p < .001), psychological meaningfulness (B = -.13, p < .01), and OBSE (B = -.13, p < .01). Moreover, I conducted a mediated moderation analysis and computed the 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects based on the results shown in Tables 4.5 and 4.8. The results are presented in Table 4.11. The results suggested that vitality and depletion mediated the joint effects of taking charge and controlled motivation on psychological states. Specifically, under the condition of low controlled motivation, taking charge boosted subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE through vitality and depletion. Conversely, taking charge impaired subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE through vitality and depletion under the condition of high controlled motivation. Similarly, the indirect interactive effects of taking charge and controlled motivation on psychological states were plotted in Figure 4.6. Hypotheses 9 and 12 were thus fully supported.

Table 4.6 Results of the Mediated Moderation Effects of Role Breadth Self-Efficacy, Vitality, and Depletion (Study 1)

Variables	Pleasant Mood			Unpleasant Mood			Psychological Meaningfulness			OBSE		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**	**Model 7**	**Model 8**	**Model 9**	**Model 10**	**Model 11**	**Model 12**
Control variables Gender	.02	.02	.01	.08	.08	.10*	-.00	-.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.02
Age	.01	.01	-.09	-.17**	-.17**	-.09	.16**	.16**	.06	-.01	-.01	-.09
Education	.00	-.00	-.01	.04	.04	.09	-.06	-.06	-.06	.12*	.11*	.11*
Tenure	-.02	-.02	.03	.12*	.12*	.08	-.09	-.09	-.05	-.00	-.01	.03
PP	.25***	.25***	.15**	-.08	-.08	-.03	.17**	.17**	.06	.34***	.34***	.26***
IV TC	.01	.01	.00	.06	.06	.07	.03	.03	.02	.01	.02	.01
Moderator RBSE	.10	.10	-.03	-.17***	-.17**	-.06	.11*	.12*	.00	.13*	.13*	.03
Interaction TC * RBSE		.04	.03		.01	.03		.05	.05		.05	.05
Mediators Vitality			.42***			-.23***			.43***			.33***
Depletion			-.13**			.34***			-.06			-.09*
R^2	.09	.09	.28	.09	.09	.27	.09	.09	.25	.18	.18	.29
R^2 change		.00	.19***		.00	.18***		.00	.16***		.00	.11***

Note. $N = 392$. Entries are standardized regression coefficients. PP = Proactive personality; TC = Taking charge, RBSE = Role breadth self-efficacy, OBSE = Organization-based self-esteem.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 4.7 Results of the Mediated Moderation Effects of Interaction Frequency with Supervisor, Vitality, and Depletion (Study 1)

Variables	Pleasant Mood			Unpleasant Mood			Psychological Meaningfulness			OBSE		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**	**Model 7**	**Model 8**	**Model 9**	**Model 10**	**Model 11**	**Model 12**
Control variables Gender	.04	.04	.01	.06	.07	.11*	.03	.02	.00	.02	.02	-.00
Age	-.01	-.02	-.09	-.14*	-.14*	-.08	.14*	.13*	.08	-.04	-.05	-.08
Education	-.03	-.03	-.01	.07	.07	.09	-.10	-.10	-.07	.08	.07	.08
Tenure	.02	.02	.03	.09	.09	.08	-.05	-.04	-.03	.05	.05	.06
PP	.22***	.21***	.12**	-.11*	-.11*	-.06	.11*	.11*	.04	.29***	.27***	.23***
IV TC	-.02	-.03	-.01	.07	.07	.05	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.03	-.05	-.04
Moderator IF	.25***	.27***	.05	-.15**	-.16**	.05	.30***	.33***	.14*	.34***	.39***	.26***
Interaction TC * IF		.11*	.08		-.04	-.00		.12*	.10*		.19***	.17***
Mediators Vitality			.40***			-.26***			.37***			.23***
Depletion			-.13**			.34***			-.06			-.08
R^2	.14	.15	.28	.09	.09	.27	.15	.17	.26	.27	.30	.34
R^2 change		.01*	.13***		.00	.18***		.02*	.09***		.03***	.04***

Note. $N = 392$. Entries are standardized regression coefficients. PP = Proactive personality; TC = Taking charge, IF = Interaction frequency with supervisor, OBSE = Organization-based self-esteem.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 4.8 Results of the Mediated Moderation Effects of Controlled Motivation, Vitality, and Depletion (Study 1)

Variables	Pleasant Mood			Unpleasant Mood			Psychological Meaningfulness			OBSE		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**	**Model 7**	**Model 8**	**Model 9**	**Model 10**	**Model 11**	**Model 12**
Control variables Gender	.02	.01	.00	.08	.11*	.13**	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.01	-.04	-.04
Age	-.04	-.03	-.08	-.11	-.12	-.08	.08	.09	.06	-.06	-.04	-.08
Education	.02	.02	.00	.03	.03	.09	.00	.00	-.01	.14**	.15**	.13**
Tenure	.00	-.01	.02	.10	.10	.08	-.06	-.07	-.04	.02	.01	.03
PP	.27***	.26***	.12**	-.14*	-.13*	-.05	.12*	.12*	.01	.35***	.34***	.25***
IV TC	.02	.01	.01	.04	.05	.05	.03	.03	.02	.02	.01	.01
Moderator CM	-.09	-.08	.01	.11*	.09	-.03	-.09	-.08	-.01	-.05	-.02	.05
Interaction TC * CM		-.10*	-.06		.20***	.14**		-.12*	-.09		-.19***	-.16***
Mediators Vitality			.41***			-.22***			.36***			.29***
Depletion			-.13**			.33***			-.13**			-.13**
R^2	.10	.12	.28	.09	.13	.30	.20	.22	.31	.20	.24	.32
R^2 change		.02*	.16***		.04***	.17***		.02*	.11***		.04***	.08***

Note. $N = 392$. Entries are standardized regression coefficients. PP = Proactive personality; TC = Taking charge, CM = Controlled motivation, OBSE = Organization-based self-esteem.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

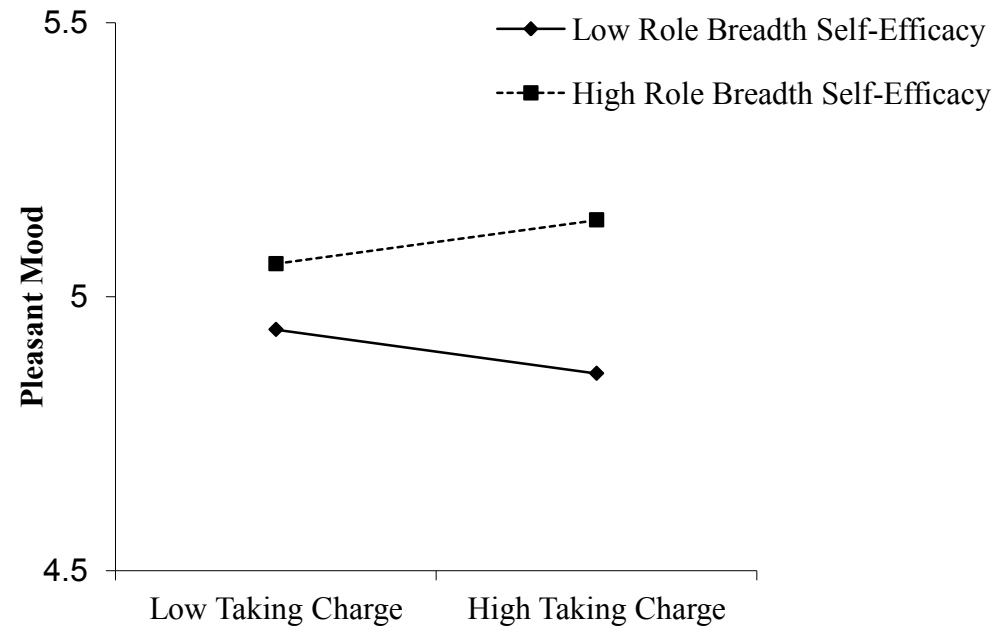
Table 4.9 Indirect and Total Effects of Taking Charge on Psychological States through Vitality and Depletion at Low and High Levels of Role Breadth Self-Efficacy (Study 1)

Dependent variable	Role Breadth Self-efficacy	Taking charge → Vitality	Taking charge → Depletion	Vitality → Dependent variable	Depletion → Dependent variable	Indirect effect via Vitality	Indirect effect via Depletion	Direct effect	Total effect
Pleasant mood	High	**.10***	-.08	.42***	-.13**	**.04* (.001, .095)**	.01 (-.004, .031)	.00	.05
	Low	**-.10***	.04	.42***	-.13**	**-.04* (-.095, -.000)**	-.01 (-.023, .010)	.00	-.05
Unpleasant mood	High	**.10***	-.08	-.23***	.34***	**-.02* (-.058, -.001)**	-.03 (-.067, .009)	.07	.02
	Low	**-.10***	.04	-.23***	.34***	**.02* (.000, .057)**	.01 (-.017, .046)	.07	.10
Psychological meaningfulness	High	**.10***	-.08	.43***	-.06	**.04* (.001, .097)**	.00 (-.004, .019)	.02	.06
	Low	**-.10***	.04	.43***	-.06	**-.04* (-.099, -.001)**	-.00 (-.015, .006)	.02	-.02
Organization-based self-esteem	High	**.10***	-.08	.33***	-.09	**.03* (.001, .074)**	.01 (-.002, .021)	.01	.05
	Low	**-.10***	.04	.33***	-.09	**-.03* (-.075, -.001)**	-.00 (-.016, .007)	.01	-.02

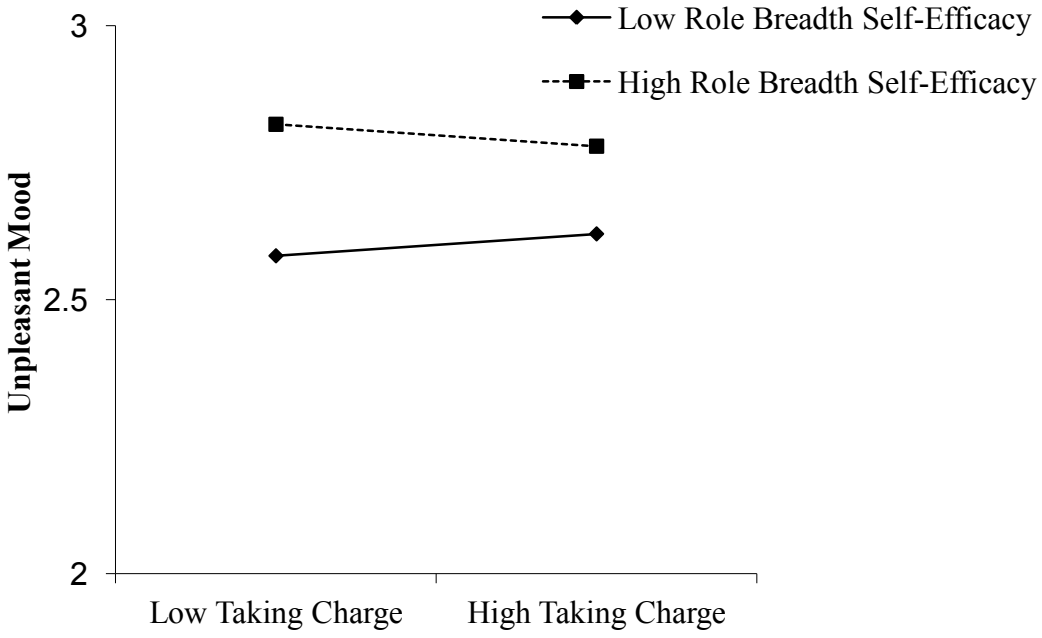
Note. $N = 392$. Coefficients in bold are significantly different across high and low role breadth self-efficacy levels.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 4.4 Indirect Interactive Effects of Taking Charge and Role Breadth Self-Efficacy on Psychological States (Study 1)

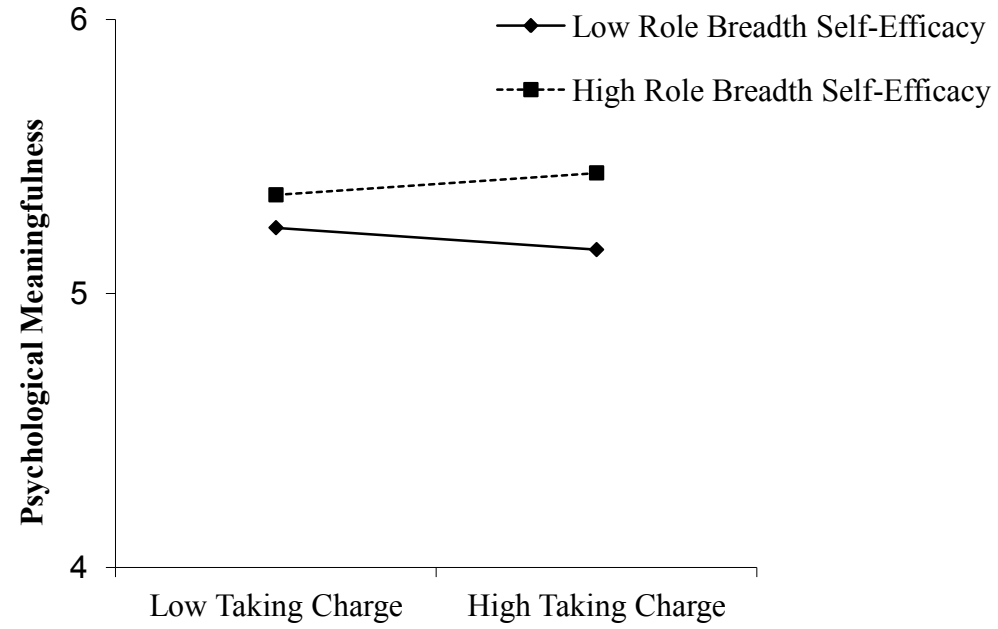
4.4a



4.4b



4.4c


6
5
4
Psychological Meaningfulness
Low Role Breadth Self-Efficacy
High Role Breadth Self-Efficacy
Low Taking Charge
High Taking Charge

4.4d

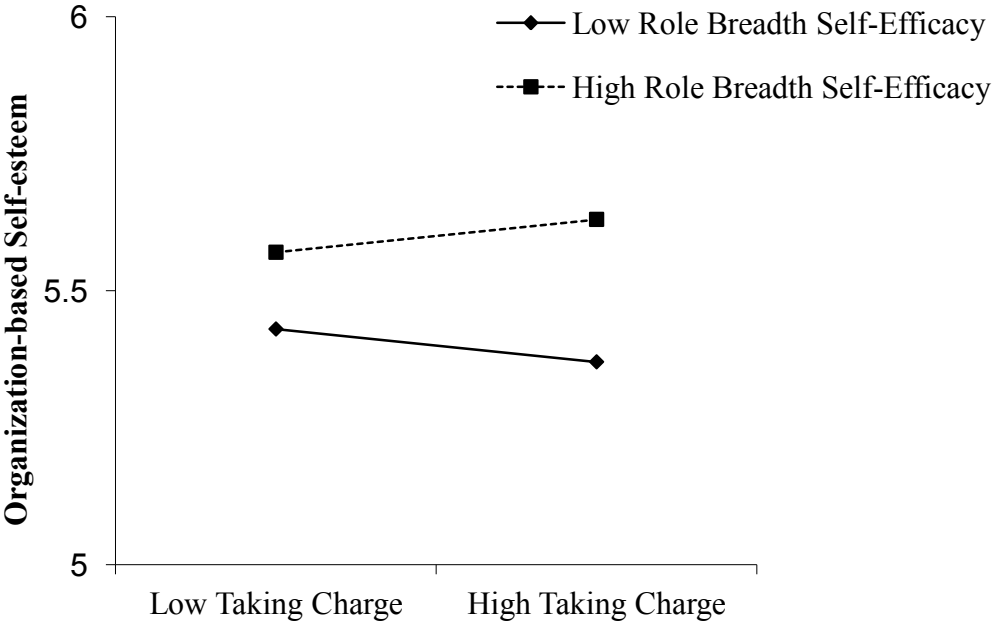

6
5.5
5
Organization-based Self-esteem
Low Role Breadth Self-Efficacy
High Role Breadth Self-Efficacy
Low Taking Charge
High Taking Charge

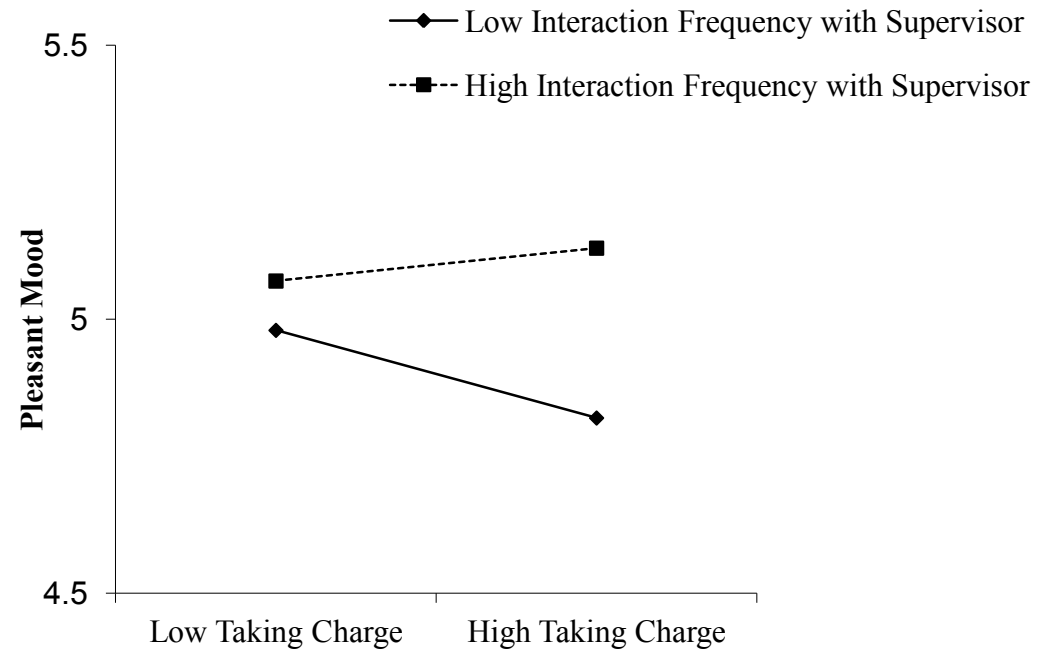
Table 4.10 Indirect and Total Effects of Taking Charge on Psychological States through Vitality and Depletion at Low and High Levels of Interaction Frequency with Supervisor (Study 1)

Dependent variable	Interaction Frequency with Supervisor	Taking charge → Vitality	Taking charge → Depletion	Vitality → Dependent variable	Depletion → Dependent variable	Indirect effect via Vitality	Indirect effect via Depletion	Direct effect	Total effect
Pleasant mood	High	**.08**	**-.09**	.40***	-.13**	**.03 (-.018, .086)**	.01 (-.002, .033)	-.01	.03
	Low	**-.20****	**.11***	.40***	-.13**	**-.08** (-.141, -.029)**	-.01 (-.036, -.000)	-.01	-.09
Unpleasant mood	High	**.08**	**-.09**	-.26***	.34***	**-.02 (-.059, .011)**	**-.03 (-.064, -.001)**	.05	-.01
	Low	**-.20****	**.11***	-.26***	.34***	**.05** (.016, .099)**	**.04* (.001, .079)**	.05	.14
Psychological meaningfulness	High	**.08**	**-.09**	.37***	-.06	**.03 (-.015, .079)**	.01 (-.004, .021)	-.01	.03
	Low	**-.20****	**.11***	.37***	-.06	**-.07** (-.131, -.027)**	-.01 (-.023, .005)	-.01	-.09
Organization-based self-esteem	High	**.08**	**-.09**	.23***	-.08	**.02 (-.010, .050)**	.01 (-.002, .021)	-.04	-.01
	Low	**-.20****	**.11***	.23***	-.08	**-.05** (-.082, -.016)**	-.01 (-.023, -.000)	-.04	-.10

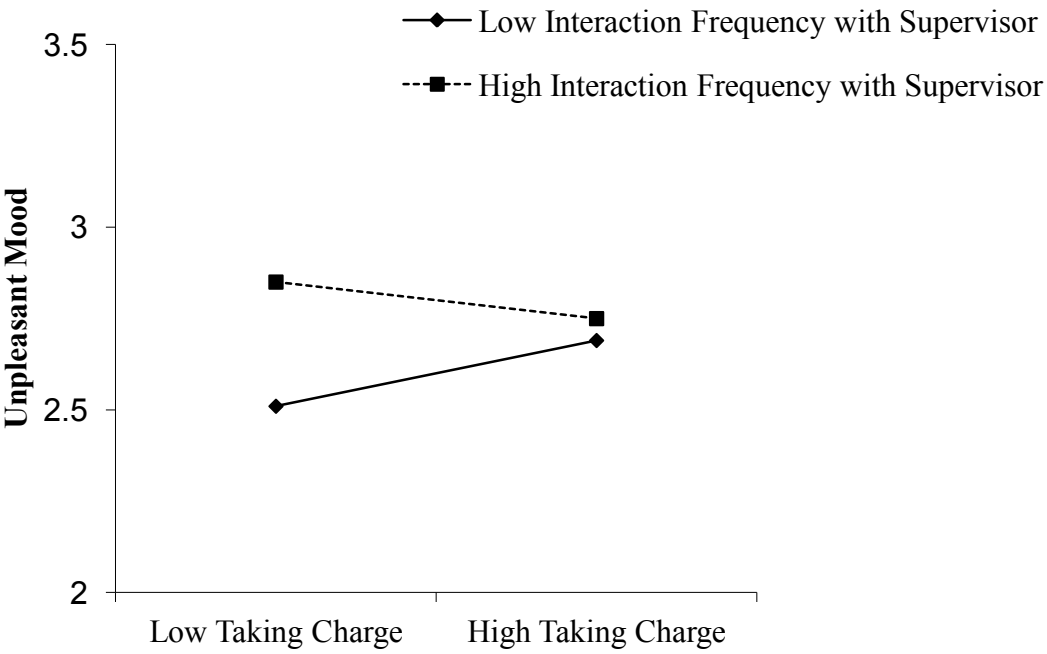
Note. $N = 392$. Coefficients in bold are significantly different across high and low levels of interaction frequency with supervisor.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 4.5 Indirect Interactive Effects of Taking Charge and Interaction Frequency with Supervisor on Psychological States (Study 1)

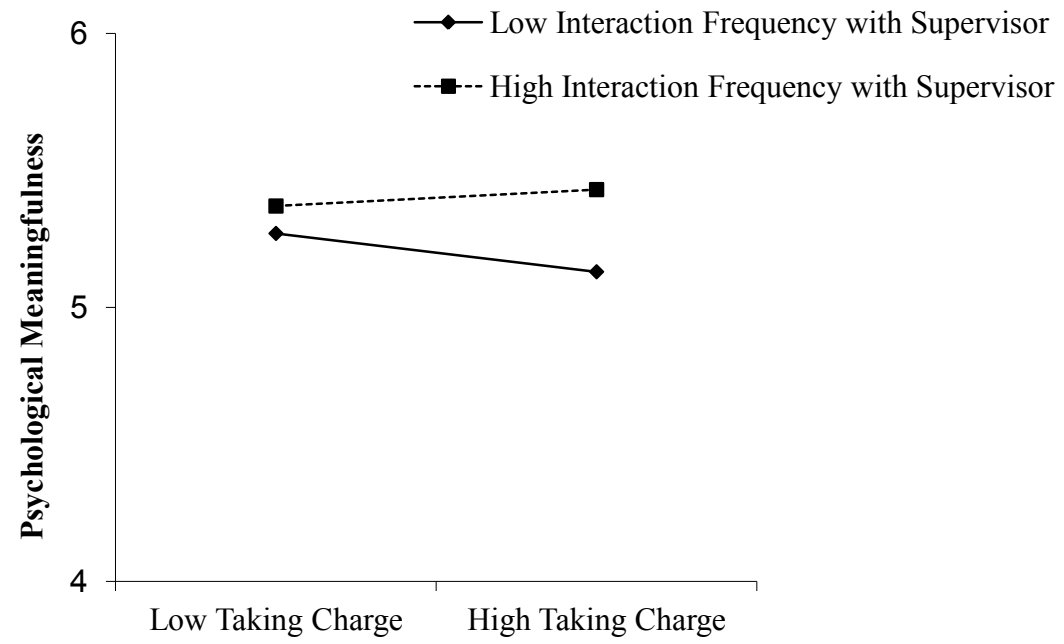
4.5a



4.5b



4.5c


Low Interaction Frequency with Supervisor
High Interaction Frequency with Supervisor
Psychological Meaningfulness
6
5
4
Low Taking Charge
High Taking Charge

4.5d

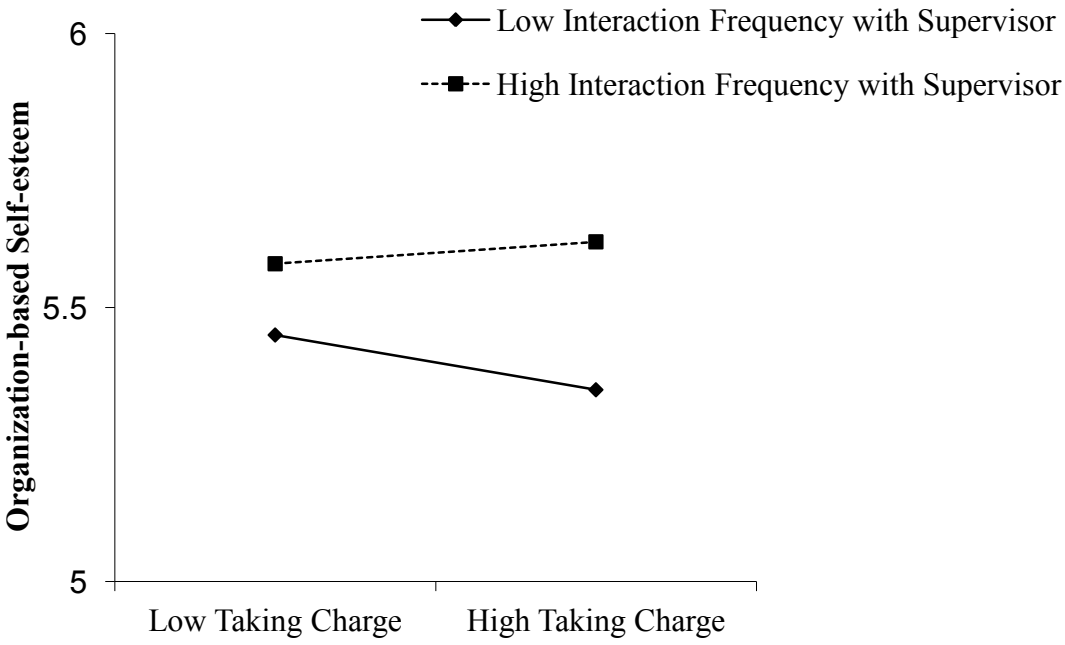

Low Interaction Frequency with Supervisor
High Interaction Frequency with Supervisor
Organization-based Self-esteem
6
5.5
5
Low Taking Charge
High Taking Charge

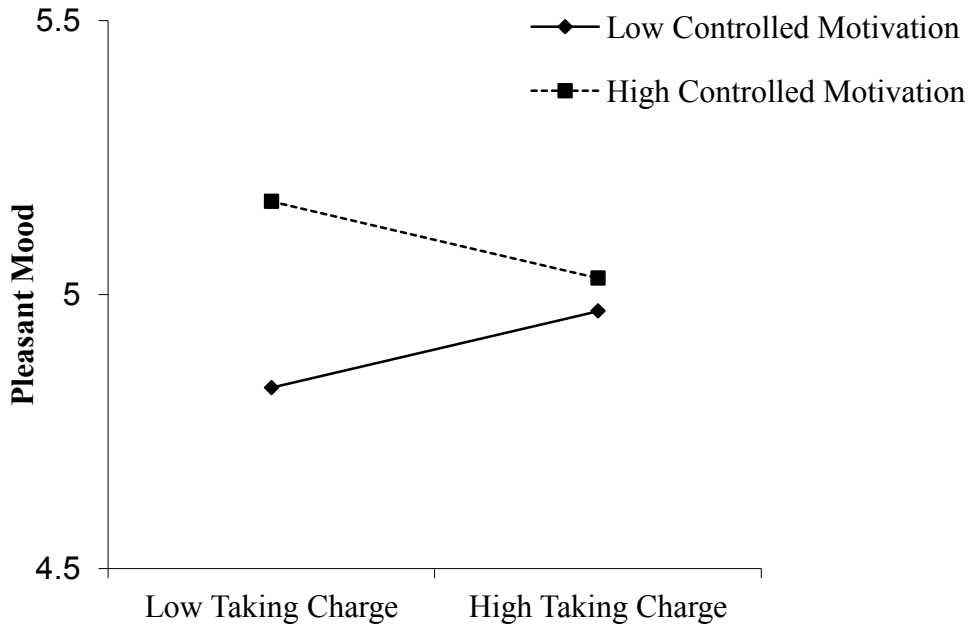
Table 4.11 Indirect and Total Effects of Taking Charge on Psychological States through Vitality and Depletion at Low and High Levels of Controlled Motivation (Study 1)

Dependent variable	Controlled Motivation	Taking charge → Vitality	Taking charge → Depletion	Vitality → Dependent variable	Depletion → Dependent variable	Indirect effect via Vitality	Indirect effect via Depletion	Direct effect	Total effect
Pleasant mood	High	**-.11***	**.14***	.41***	-.13**	**-.05* (-.088, -.003)**	**-.02* (-.045, -.001)**	.01	-.06
	Low	**.12***	**-.12***	.41***	-.13**	**.05* (.009, .095)**	**.02* (.001, .032)**	.01	.08
Unpleasant mood	High	**-.11***	**.14***	-.22***	.33***	**.02* (.003, .046)**	**.05* (.010, .083)**	.05	.12
	Low	**.12***	**-.12***	-.22***	.33***	**-.03* (-.056, -.004)**	**-.04* (-.071, -.001)**	.05	-.02
Psychological meaningfulness	High	**-.11***	**.14***	.36***	-.13**	**-.04* (-.079, -.002)**	**-.02* (-.039, -.001)**	.02	-.04
	Low	**.12***	**-.12***	.36***	-.13**	**.04* (.007, .085)**	**.02* (.002, .036)**	.02	.08
Organization-based self-esteem	High	**-.11***	**.14***	.29***	-.13**	**-.03* (-.063, -.001)**	**-.02* (-.041, -.001)**	.01	-.04
	Low	**.12***	**-.12***	.29***	-.13**	**.03* (.005, .071)**	**.02* (.001, .038)**	.01	.06

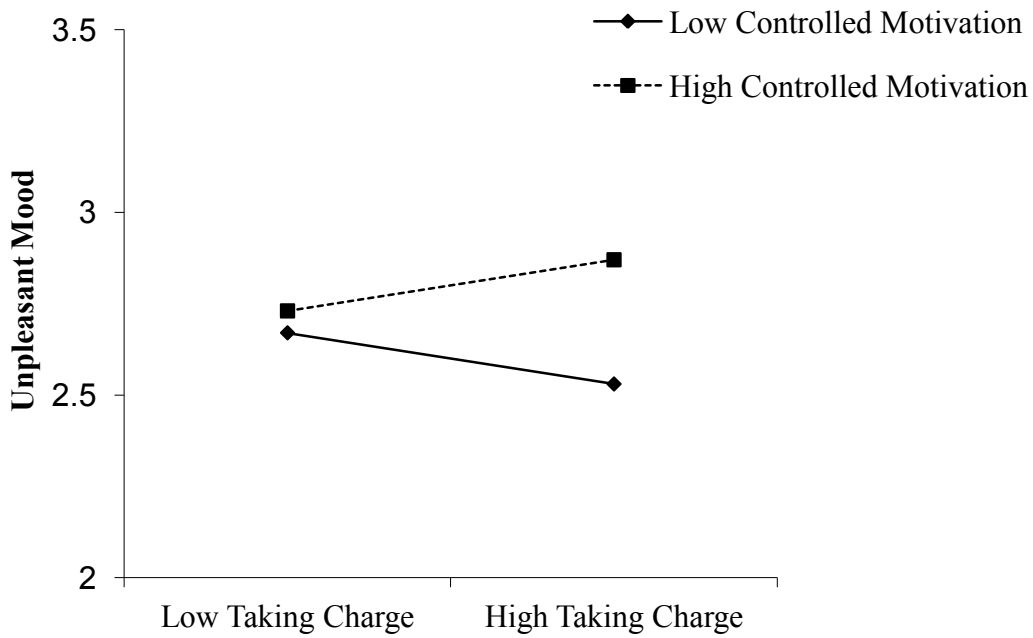
Note. $N = 392$. Coefficients in bold are significantly different across high and low controlled motivation levels.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 4.6 Indirect Interactive Effects of Taking Charge and Controlled Motivation on Psychological States (Study 1)

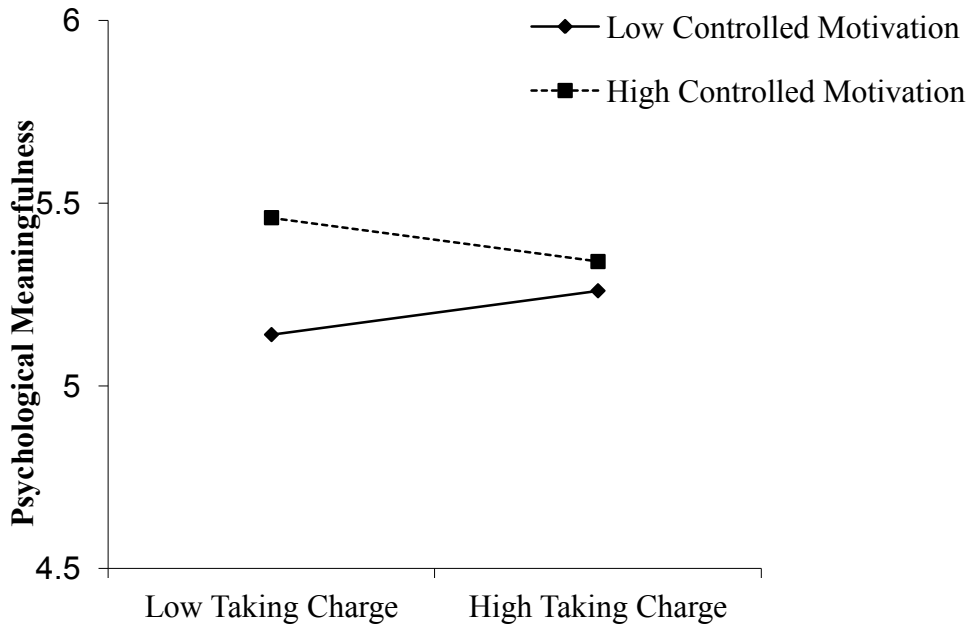
4.6a



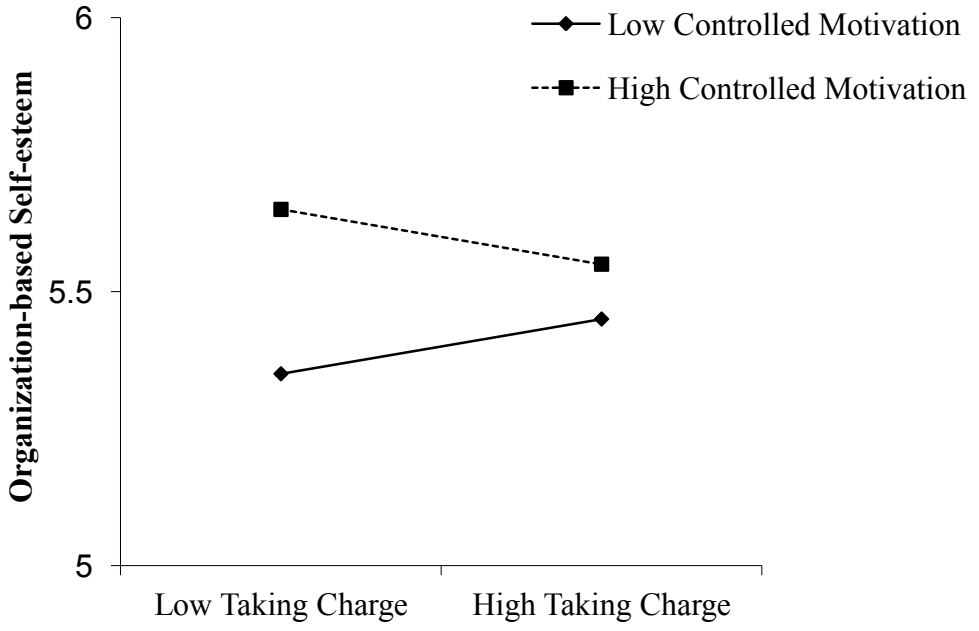
4.6b



4.6c


6
5.5
5
4.5
Psychological Meaningfulness
Low Controlled Motivation
High Controlled Motivation
Low Taking Charge
High Taking Charge

4.6d


6
5.5
5
Organization-based Self-esteem
Low Controlled Motivation
High Controlled Motivation
Low Taking Charge
High Taking Charge

Tests of the relationships between psychological states and turnover intention

Hypothesis 13 predicted that pleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE were negatively related to intention to leave, and unpleasant mood was positively related to intention to leave. As argued above, I controlled for employees' intention to leave and job performance in Time 1. Table 4.12 showed that, as predicted, pleasant mood (B = -.24, p < .001), psychological meaningfulness (B = -.30, p < .001), and OBSE (B = -.15, p < .01) decreased employees' turnover intention, and unpleasant mood increased employees' turnover intention (B = .17, p < .01). Further, the R square changes were all significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 13 received full support.

Table 4.12 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Turnover Intention (Study 1)

Variables	Turnover Intention					
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**
Control variables Gender	.13	.22	.15	.19	.20	.17
Age	-.05***	-.03***	-.03***	-.03***	-.03***	-.03***
Education	.10	.03	.06	.05	.04	.02
Tenure	.09**	.07**	.06*	.06**	.06**	.06**
Turnover Intention (Time 1)		.81***	.69***	.79***	.73***	.76***
Job performance (Time 1)		-.01	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.01
Independent variables Pleasant mood			-.24***			
Unpleasant mood				.17**		
Psychological meaningfulness					-.30***	
Organization-based self-esteem						-.15**
R^2	.11	.45	.48	.46	.49	.46
R^2 change		.34***	.03***	.01**	.04***	.01**

Note. $N = 392$. Entries are standardized regression coefficients.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

4.4 Discussion

Study 1 challenges the prevailing assumption that being proactive is beneficial for individuals. I speculate that individuals are likely to experience resource gain and resource loss simultaneously when performing taking charge. However, whether taking charge leads to positive or negative outcomes depends on different conditions. Simply put, Study 1 aims to unravel when and how taking charge helps and hurts employees.

Using a sample of 392 supervisor–employee dyads collected from a group corporation in China, I found that the relationship between taking charge and vitality was significantly positive when employees possessed high levels of role breadth self-efficacy and low levels of controlled motivation, whereas the relationship was significantly negative when employees possessed low levels of role breadth self-efficacy, low levels of interaction frequency with supervisor, and high levels of controlled motivation. Moreover, the relationship between taking charge and depletion was significantly negative when employees were under the condition of low controlled motivation, whereas the relationship was significantly positive when employees were under the conditions of high controlled motivation and low interaction frequency with supervisor.

For the mediated moderation model, I found that vitality mediated the joint effects of taking charge and the three moderators on psychological states, such that taking charge had positive (negative) indirect effect on psychological states through vitality under the conditions of high (low) role breadth self-efficacy, high (low) interaction frequency with supervisor, and low (high) controlled motivation. Depletion mediated the joint effects of taking charge and two out of the three moderators (i.e., interaction frequency with supervisor and controlled motivation) on

psychological states, such that taking charge had a positive (negative) indirect effect on psychological states through depletion under the conditions of low (high) controlled motivation and a negative indirect effect on psychological states through depletion when employees did not frequently interact with their supervisors. Therefore, under different conditions, taking charge tends to elicit different and opposing influences on individuals through two resource states, that is, vitality and depletion. This result suggests that taking charge can be a double-edged sword.

The findings also indicate that individuals' psychological states were significantly associated with their intention to leave the organization. Specifically, pleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE alleviated the turnover intention, and the experience of unpleasant mood strengthened it. This result broadens the research model on how taking charge may eventually influence the organization.

Responding to the calls of researchers for studying the negative side of proactive behavior (e.g., Bindl & Parker, 2010; Bolino et al., 2010), this study provides empirical evidence that engaging in taking charge can be costly for individuals. It also examines a resource-based model of how taking charge can be a double-edged sword. Therefore, this study offers a more balanced and realistic view of this type of employee behavior.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 2: TAKING CHARGE AND FATIGUE: THE MODERATING ROLE OF TAKING A BREAK FROM A RESOURCE PERSPECTIVE

5.1 Overview of Study 2

Based on the findings of Study 1, the purposes of Study 2 are as follows: (1) to examine how taking charge is related to fatigue, (2) to understand whether resource depletion mediates the relationship between taking charge and fatigue, (3) to investigate how fatigue is related to individuals' subsequent taking charge behavior, and (4) to explore how taking a break plays a role in the sustainability of taking charge. Three laboratory experiments were conducted in Study 2. Experiment 1 investigated whether performing taking charge increased the fatigue of participants through resource depletion (Hypotheses 14 and 15). Experiment 2 examined whether taking a break after performing initial taking charge behavior influenced the levels of subsequent taking charge (Hypothesis 18). Experiment 3 replicated the results in Experiments 1 and 2 and tested the theoretical model in Figure 1.2 (Hypotheses 14–18).

5.2 Experiment 1

5.2.1 Method

Participants and procedures

Undergraduate students from a university in Hong Kong were recruited as experimental participants. As an incentive to engage in the experiment, each participant was offered a HKD100 (roughly USD12.89) coupon. Given that the data of taking charge were acquired through observation during the experiment (details are discussed below), each session of the experiment was composed of three participants to ensure the accuracy of the data. The participants were recruited in the

form of three-person groups with no discipline limit, and they were told that they would receive the incentive only when all three students attended the experiment on time. To recruit enough participants, a combination of recruitment methods was used. First, the snowballing technique was used. A student helper, an undergraduate student in the university, approached her classmates and friends with information about the experiment, and these students in turn advertised this experiment to students they knew. Second, I recruited the participants during the break of undergraduate courses or after tutorial sessions after obtaining the approval of the lecturers. Students who wanted to participate in the experiment could contact me to reserve their preferred time slot. I reminded the participants of their sessions through SMS the day before the experiment. Each session was scheduled for one hour, and all participants completed the experiment within the allotted time. The final sample consisted of 81 students (35.0% were male) with an average age of 21.2 years.

On the basis of previous studies that adopted laboratory experiments to investigate proactivity or active initiative (Grant & Rothbard, 2013; Vohs et al., 2008), I created a task in which objectively measuring the participants' levels of taking charge behavior was possible. As the one-time taking charge behavior is not expected to deplete individual resources and enhance fatigue, the Lego modeling task was used to give the participants four opportunities to engage in taking charge. Specifically, the participants were first asked to complete a questionnaire to measure their positive and negative affect states. After they completed the questionnaire, the experimenter briefed them about the procedure of the Lego task. They were told to build a Lego model following the instruction book. The model was divided into five phases based on the instruction, and the pieces for each phase were placed in a Ziploc bag for convenient distribution. After completing each phase from Phase 1 to

Phase 4, the participants held up the sign "Phase Completed," and then the experimenter distributed the pieces of the next phase to them. After completing the last phase (i.e., Phase 5), the participants held up the sign "All Completed." The participants completed another questionnaire after the Lego model, including the measures of the perceived difficulty of the Lego task, the participants' levels of resource depletion and fatigue, and their basic demographic information such as age and gender.

Measures

Taking charge. According to the literature review of proactive behavior, a few studies have used laboratory experiments to objectively capture proactivity. Grant and Rothbard (2013) used a laboratory study to measure proactivity by intentionally including definitional and grammatical errors in the concepts the participants were working on. As the participants were asked to write illustrative sentences about each concept, proactivity was assessed by whether they took action to improve the glossary by correcting the errors. Another experimental study of Vohs and colleagues (2008) examined the participants' active initiative by asking them to watch a rigged video that showed static with faint images. The response time, that is, the duration of time that passed before the participants alerted the experimenter of the problem, was adopted to indicate active initiative. On the basis of the two laboratory studies and the characteristics of the taking charge behavior, I developed a Lego modeling task to objectively measure the levels of taking charge in Experiment 1.

As previously mentioned, the Lego modeling task provided the participants with four opportunities to perform taking charge behavior, as the one-time taking charge behavior is not expected to exhaust individuals' resources. From the second to fifth phases of the task, I intentionally changed the piece they were required to use

at the beginning of each phase to the one with the right shape but with the wrong color (i.e., wrong color piece). As the task was to complete the Lego model, the participants would finish the model construction with the four wrong color pieces. Alerting the experimenter about the issue of the wrong color pieces and asking for the right color pieces constitutes discretionary attempts to show initiative and enact improvement in the task. This condition is consistent with the research on taking charge, such as improving existing procedures, identifying strategies for implementing solutions, and taking action (e.g., Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Moreover, one key component of taking charge is that individuals take initiative to improve the current situation (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The concept of "initiative" could be displayed by how much time passes between individuals identifying the problem and individuals taking actions to report or solve the problem (Vohs et al., 2008). Hence, to capture the objective level of taking charge, I recorded the response time, that is, the duration of time between the piece distribution and the participants notifying the experimenter of the error and asking for the right color pieces. If the participant had not alerted the experimenter, the response time would be the time that they used to build the corresponding phase of the task. Thus, each participant had four response times that matched with the four phases that contain the wrong color pieces. As the modeling speed of each participant (i.e., the total amount of time taken to construct the model) would affect how quick they would discover the wrong color pieces, I calculated the quotient of the sum of the four response times divided by the total time taken to accomplish the task. The smaller the quotient, the higher the level of the taking charge behavior. To obtain more straightforward results, I reversed the quotient by subtracting it from 1, so that the higher value indicates the higher levels of taking charge.

Resource depletion. Resource depletion was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Johnson and colleagues (2014). A sample item is "I feel drained" (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha was .86.

Fatigue. Fatigue was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Chalder et al. (1993). A sample item is "I feel sleepy or drowsy" (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha was .88.

Control variables. I controlled for the participants' positive and negative affect states that could be associated with individuals' tendency to engage in taking charge behavior (Parker et al., 2010). The two variables were measured using the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The Cronbach's alphas for the positive and negative affect states were .75 and .91, respectively. I also controlled for the perceived difficulty of the Lego model as rated by the participants using one item, "How difficult is the Lego model task for you?" (1 = *very easy*, 7 = *very difficult*), because it might influence the time used to complete the task.

5.2.2 Results

Confirmatory factor analyses

Before testing the hypotheses, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the discriminant validity of resource depletion and fatigue rated by the participants using AMOS 21.0. The results suggested that the hypothesized two-factor model (CFI = .98, TLI = .96, RMSEA = .10) yielded a better fit than the one-factor model (CFI = .77, TLI = .61, RMSEA = .31), with a change in chi-square ($\Delta \chi^2 = 50.53$, Δ df = 1, $p < .001$).

Descriptive statistics

Table 5.1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the key variables. As shown, taking charge was positively related to resource depletion ($r = .29$, $p < .01$) and fatigue ($r = .27$, $p < .05$), and resource depletion was positively related to fatigue ($r = .63$, $p < .001$).

Table 5.1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Experiment 1 of Study 2)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Fatigue	2.95	1.35	(.88)					
2. Resource depletion	2.51	1.17	.63***	(.86)				
3. Taking charge	0.70	0.23	.27*	.29**	—			
4. Positive affect	4.70	0.57	-.18	-.13	.20	(.75)		
5. Negative affect	3.03	1.06	.15	.23	-.24*	-.07	(.91)	
6. Perceived difficulty of Lego	2.56	1.28	.21	.31**	-.12	.02	.07	—

Note. $N = 81$. Taking charge = 1 – sum of the four response times/total time taken to accomplish the task.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Test of mediation

We conducted a hierarchical regression analysis to test the relationship between taking charge and fatigue and the mediating role of resource depletion. Table 5.2 presents the results. After entering all the control variables, taking charge was positively related to fatigue afterwards ($B = .26$, $p < .05$), thus lending support to Hypothesis 14. Therefore, the individuals whose response time in the Lego task was shorter (and who thus engaged in higher levels of taking charge) experienced greater fatigue after accomplishing the task.

Hypothesis 15 predicts that resource depletion mediates the relationship between taking charge and fatigue. The results in Model 1 show that taking charge was positively related to resource depletion ($B = .28$, $p < .01$). After entering resource depletion into Model 4, the positive relationship between taking charge and fatigue became insignificant. The R square change between Models 3 and 4 was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .26$, $p < .001$). Following the recommended procedure suggested by Selig and Preacher (2008), I tested the indirect effect of taking charge on fatigue through resource depletion using the Monte Carlo method. The indirect effect was significant with a 95% confidence interval of [.06, .56]. Hence, Hypothesis 15 was supported.

Table 5.2 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Fatigue (Experiment 1 of Study 2)

Variables	Resource Depletion	Fatigue		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**
Control variables				
Positive affect	-.06	-.10	-.12	-.09
Negative affect	.17	.01	.09	.01
Perceived difficulty of Lego	.33**	.02	.24*	.04
Independent variables				
Taking charge	.28**		.26*	.10
Mediator				
Resource depletion		.61***		.58***
ΔR^2			.26***	

Note. $N = 81$. Standardized regression coefficients are reported.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

5.2.3 Discussion

Experiment 1 provides evidence that fatigue significantly increased when the participants continued performing taking charge behavior during the task (Hypothesis 14), and that resource depletion mediated the relationship (Hypothesis 15). This result validates the findings of Study 1 that engaging in taking charge expends individuals' valued resources. More importantly, when individuals perform such behavior without resource renewal, their resource pool is likely to be depleted, and they feel more fatigued. Therefore, in Experiment 2, I created a condition in which the participants could reserve their resources (i.e., take a break) to examine how this intervention influences their subsequent proactivity (Hypothesis 18).

5.3 Experiment 2

5.3.1 Method

Participants and procedures

Undergraduate students from a university in Hong Kong were recruited as experimental participants. Each participant was offered a HKD100 (roughly USD12.89) coupon as an incentive to involve in the experiment. The approach of recruiting participants was the same as that in Experiment 1. Each session of the experiment was scheduled for 90 minutes, and all participants completed the experiment within the allotted time. The final sample consisted of 64 students (21.9% were male) with an average age of 21.1 years.

Experiment 2 required the participants to complete two Lego modeling tasks. The participants in one subgroup were allowed to take a 10-minute break between the two tasks, and those in the control group were not. The conditions were randomly assigned to the participants, with 32 participants taking a break and 32 participants not being offered one. The participants were told that the two tasks belonged to two

different research projects so that they would not connect the tasks and their performance in each task would be independent.

Specifically, the participants were first asked to build a Lego model based on the instruction book provided. This task is the same as that in Experiment 1. After finishing the first Lego model, the participants in the short break group were provided a 10-minute break before commencing the second task. The participants assigned to this group were not allowed to communicate with one another or use their cell phones during the break. They were provided some water and could listen to some light music in the laboratory to help them relax. After the break, these participants were asked to complete another Lego modeling task. The participants in the control groups did not receive a break and were required to start on the second Lego task as soon as they had completed the first one. After finishing the second task, the participants were asked to fill in some basic demographic information.

Measures

Taking charge. I used the same objective measure of taking charge as in Experiment 1 to indicate the participants' initial taking charge.

In the second Lego task, the participants were asked to build a Lego model within five minutes and in strict accordance with the instructions. After distributing the Lego pieces, the experimenter told the participants that another experimenter in charge of the second task would come into the room with the instruction books. In the meantime, the participants were asked to click the "start" button of a countdown timer on the computer that had been preset to five minutes to remind them how much time they had to finish the task. However, nobody would actually come in to distribute the instructions. Given that the task was to complete the Lego model, the participants alerting the experimenter of the instruction book involved taking

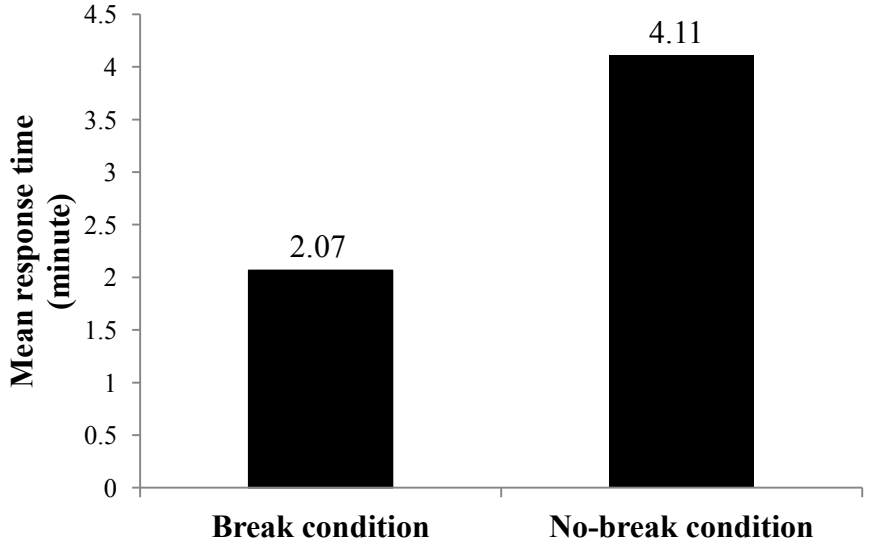
initiative to improve the task and prevent potential problems. It is consistent with the existing research on taking charge, such as improving the existing procedures, identifying strategies for implementing solutions, and taking action (e.g., Grant et al., 2011; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Similarly, to capture the objective level of taking charge, I used the response time, which is the time elapsing between the participants clicking the start button and alerting the experimenter of the instruction book, as an indicator of the participants' subsequent taking charge. If the participant had not alerted the experimenter, the response time would be five minutes, which is the prescribed time for the second task. The shorter the response time is, the higher the level of subsequent taking charge behavior.

5.3.2 Results

T tests were used to examine the differences between the two experimental conditions in terms of gender, age, and degree major. The results indicated no significant difference between the two conditions (for gender, t (62) = -.597, p = .553; for age, t (59) = -.958, p = .342; for major: t (59) = 1.245, p = .218). I also examined whether the level of initial taking charge was different across the two conditions. The t test showed no significant difference (t (62) = 1.041, p = .302).

Then, I tested for differences in the response time in the second task between the break condition and the no-break condition. As shown in Figure 5.1, response time during the second task was significantly longer in the no-break condition than in the break condition (t (62) = 6.258, p = .000; for no-break condition, M = 4.11 (minute), SD = 1.24, for break condition, M = 2.07 (minute), SD = 1.37). That is, compared with those who take a break after performing initial taking charge, individuals who do not take a break decrease their subsequent act of such behavior. Therefore, Hypothesis 18 was supported.

Figure 5.1 Mean Response Time of the Two Conditions in the Second Task (Experiment 2 of Study 2)



Note. $N = 64$.
The shorter the response time is, the higher the level of subsequent taking charge.

5.3.3 Discussion

Experiment 2 supports the prediction that when individuals do not have a break after initial taking charge, they are less likely to engage in such proactive behavior afterwards. This result confirms that taking a break is conducive for individuals to fight the resource-draining effect of taking charge and helps reserve remaining resources, thus resulting in sustainable taking charge behavior. To present a holistic picture of the negative effects of taking charge and the role of taking a break, I conducted Experiment 3 to examine the theoretical model of Study 2 (Figure 1.2) by adopting a different approach to assess taking charge.

5.4 Experiment 3

5.4.1 Method

Participants and procedures

Undergraduate students from a university in Hong Kong were recruited as experimental participants. The participants received a HKD50 (roughly USD6.45) coupon for their participation. More participants were included for each session, as the experiment was set up on Qualtrics, and the participants completed the experiment using laptops provided in the laboratory. The maximum number for each session was 10. The participants were recruited through an online research participation system of the university. The participants who engaged in Experiments 1 and 2 were excluded based on their student ID number. Each session was scheduled for 90 minutes. Except for the three participants who did not complete the experiment because of computer breakdown, all the other participants finished within the allotted time. The final sample was 79 students (36.7% were male) with an average age of 21.8 years.

In Experiment 3, I developed a scenario-based in-basket task to measure taking charge to enhance robustness and strengthen the generalizability of the research findings. Specifically, the participants were first asked to fill in a questionnaire that included the measures of the positive and negative affect states. They were then asked to complete an in-basket task in which they responded to three work-related messages, such as emails, memos, and phone messages, as a manager of an organization. After completing the task, they answered a questionnaire measuring the levels of resource depletion and fatigue. The participants were then randomly assigned to two conditions: the 10-minute break condition ($N = 36$) and the no-break condition ($N = 43$). Similar to Experiment 2, the participants in the break condition were not allowed to communicate with one another or use their cell phones during the break. They could listen to some relaxing music that was auto-played when it was time for a break. This function was provided by Qualtrics. After the break, their levels of fatigue were measured again, and they were asked to complete a similar in-basket task that required them to respond to another set of three work-related messages. The participants in the no-break group did not receive a break and were required to finish the two tasks continuously. Lastly, the participants filled in a questionnaire on basic demographic information.

Measures

Taking charge. In Experiment 3, the participants were required to complete two in-basket tasks. The tasks were based on the same scenario. That is, the participant is a middle manager of an organization called OneShore Groups, and one main task is to respond to different types of messages, including emails, memos, and phone messages. In each task, the participants were required to reply to three work-related messages to provide suggestions or procedures for the issue brought up by

the senders. To capture the participants' taking charge behavior, two raters that had been provided with the basic knowledge of the taking charge behavior assessed the participants' responses to each massage. The two raters were blind to the conditions to which the participants were assigned. All the six messages in the two tasks present certain existing or future problems in the job, the department, or the organization. On the basis of the suggestions or procedures proposed by the respondents, the raters evaluated to what extent the responses reflect the participants' active initiative for positive change and improvement, such as adopting improved procedures, changing how the job is performed to be more effective, or preventing the occurrence of further problems (1 = *very low level of taking charge*, 5 = *very high level of taking charge*) (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The raters did not focus on whether or how well the issues brought up in the messages were solved, but concentrated on whether the participants took a further step to think ahead, bring about changes, and improve the situation. This practice ensured that participants' taking charge behavior not task performance was assessed. The interclass correlation coefficient was acceptable with $ICC_1 = .85$, which indicates that the two raters had a high agreement about the levels of the participants' taking charge manifested in their responses.

Resource depletion. Resource depletion was measured using the five-item scale of Johnson and colleagues (2014) that was used in Study 1. The Cronbach's alpha was .81.

Fatigue. Fatigue was measured using the same measure as in Experiment 1. Additionally, I added two more items from the scale of Xu and colleagues (2012). The two items are "I feel tired" and "I have a lot of energy" (R) (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's alpha was .89.

Control variables. I controlled for the participants' positive and negative affect states as in Experiment 1. They were measured using 10 items ("upset," "nervous," "afraid," "distressed," "scared," "alert," "active," "inspired," "interested," and "excited") from the PANAS (Watson et al., 1988). The Cronbach's alphas for the positive and negative affect states were .82 and .89, respectively.

5.4.2 Results

Confirmatory factor analyses

As in Experiment 1, before testing the hypotheses, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the discriminant validity of resource depletion and fatigue using AMOS 21.0. The results suggested that the hypothesized two-factor model (CFI = .95, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .09) yielded a better fit than the one-factor model (CFI = .91, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .12), with a change in chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2 = 15.65$, Δ df = 1, $p < .001$).

Descriptive statistics

Table 5.3 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the key variables. The table shows that the initial taking charge was positively related to resource depletion ($r = .26$, $p < .05$), fatigue ($r = .27$, $p < .05$), and the subsequent taking charge ($r = .34$, $p < .01$). Resource depletion was positively related to fatigue ($r = .57$, $p < .001$).

Table 5.3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Experiment 3 of Study 2)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Positive affect	2.44	0.80	(.82)						
2. Negative affect	1.69	0.78	-.08	(.89)					
3. Initial taking charge	2.32	0.54	.06	-.13	—				
4. Resource depletion	2.81	0.64	-.10	.34**	.26*	(.81)			
5. Break/No-break condition	0.46	0.50	.16	.08	.08	-.00	—		
6. Fatigue	3.07	0.83	-.04	.25*	.27*	.57***	-.21	(.89)	
7. Subsequent taking charge	2.08	0.63	.05	-.09	.34**	-.02	.57***	-.11	—

Note. $N = 79$. Break/No-break condition: Break = 1; No-break = 0.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Hypotheses testing

Hierarchical regression analysis was applied to test the hypotheses. The results are presented in Table 5.4. After entering the control variables, the participants' initial taking charge was positively related to fatigue that was measured before the second task ($B = .23$, $p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 14. Hypotheses 15 and 17 collectively suggest a moderated mediation model, that is, break moderated the relationship between the initial taking charge and fatigue through resource depletion. The results of Model 2 showed that the initial taking charge was positively associated with resource depletion. The results of Model 6 indicated that the interaction between resource depletion and the break/no-break condition was significantly and negatively related to fatigue ($B = -.28$, $p < .01$). As predicted, the relationship between resource depletion and fatigue was strongly and significantly positive under the no-break condition ($b = .65$, $p < .001$) but was insignificant under the break condition ($b = .25$, *n.s.*). Based on the simple slope effects, I plotted the moderating effect of break in Figure 5.2. It indicates that taking a break weakened the draining effect of taking charge, thus resulting in lower levels of fatigue. Moreover, the relationship between the initial taking charge behavior and fatigue became insignificant in Model 6. And the R square changes among Models 4, 5 and 6 were significant ($\Delta R^2 = .25$ and $.03$, $p < .05$).

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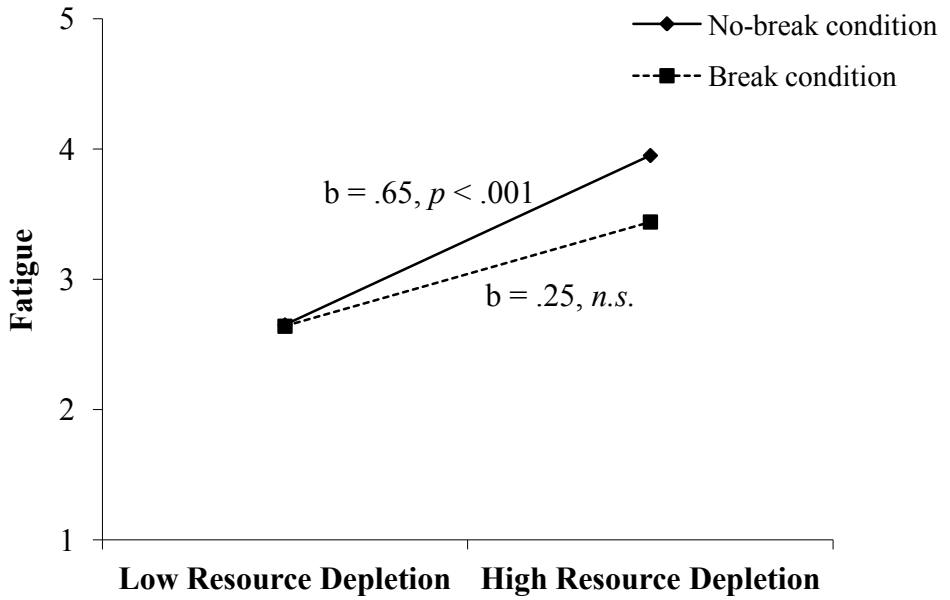
Table 5.4 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Fatigue (Experiment 3 of Study 2)

Variables	Resource depletion			Fatigue		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**
Control variables						
Positive affect	-.04	-.02	-.10	-.07	-.03	-.04
Negative affect	25**	.22**	.28*	.23*	.10	.11
Independent variable						
Initial taking charge		.22*		.23*	.16	.15
Mediator						
Resource depletion					.48***	.67***
Moderator						
Break/No-break condition					-.22*	-.26**
Interaction						
Resource depletion * Break/No-break condition						-.28*
Adjusted R^2	.09	.13	.05	.09	.34	.37
Δ Adjusted R^2		.04*		.04*	.25*	.03*

Note. $N = 79$. Standardized regression coefficients are reported.
Break/No-break Condition: Break = 1; No-break = 0.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 5.2 Interactive Effect of Resource Depletion and the Break/No-Break Condition on Fatigue (Experiment 3 of Study 2)



To test the hypothesized moderated mediation model, I used the Monte Carlo method (Preacher & Selig, 2012; Selig & Preacher, 2008) to compute the 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects based on 20,000 simulated samples. The results are presented in Table 5.5. The effects of the initial taking charge on fatigue through resource depletion vary across the two conditions (break and no-break conditions). Under the no-break condition, the indirect effect of initial taking charge on fatigue through resource depletion ($\gamma_{MX} * \gamma_{YM} = .14$, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.27]) was significant. By contrast, under the condition of taking a break, the indirect effect ($\gamma_{MX} * \gamma_{YM} = .06$, *n.s.*, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.16]) was not significant. *T* test further suggests that the two indirect effects of the initial taking charge on fatigue under the no-break condition versus under the break condition were significantly different ($t = 7.22$, $p < .001$). I plotted the moderated indirect effect in Figure 5.3.

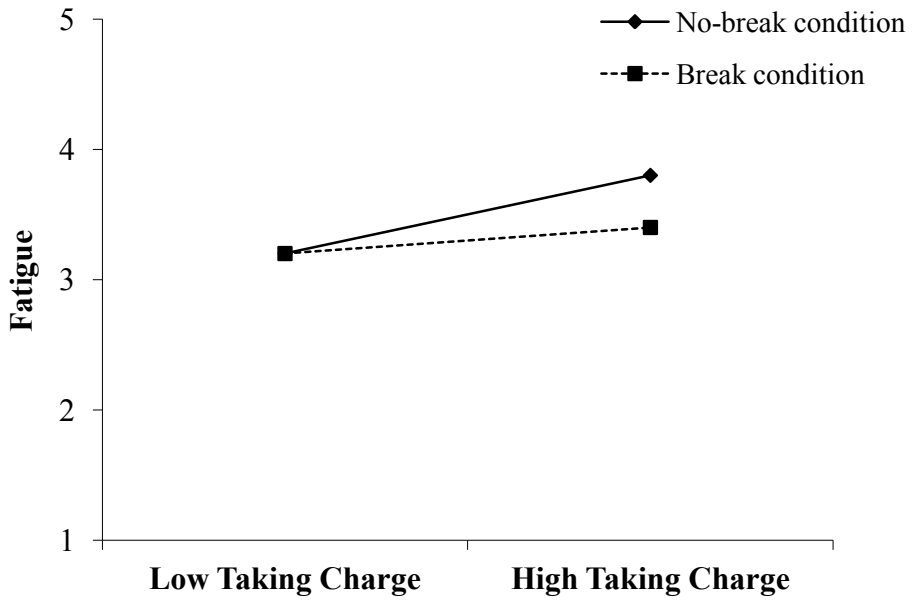
Thus, on the basis of the hierarchical regression analyses and the Monte Carlo tests, I found that the mediated relationship between initial taking charge and fatigue through resource depletion was moderated by break on the second-stage, such that the mediated relationship was weakened under the condition of taking a break after performing initial taking charge. Hypotheses 15 and 17 were supported.

Table 5.5 Moderated Mediation Results of Direct and Indirect Effects of Taking Charge on Fatigue through Resource Depletion (Experiment 3 of Study 2)

	Variables	Resource Depletion	Fatigue
	Coefficient of taking charge (γ_{MX})	.22*	.15
	Coefficient of resource depletion (γ_{YM})	—	.65***
No-break condition	Indirect effect of proactive behavior via resource depletion	—	.14*
	95% confidence intervals for the indirect effect	—	(.04, .27)
	Coefficient of resource depletion (γ_{YM})	—	.25
Break condition	Indirect effect of proactive behavior via resource depletion	—	.06
	95% confidence intervals for the indirect effect	—	(-.02, .16)

Note. $N = 79$. Significance tests for the indirect effects were derived from 20,000 bootstrap estimates. Indirect effect = $\gamma_{MX} * \gamma_{YM}$.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 5.3 Indirect Interactive Effect of Taking Charge and the Break/No-Break Condition on Fatigue through Resource Depletion (Experiment 3 of Study 2)



To test Hypothesis 16 regarding the negative relationship between fatigue and subsequent taking charge, I conducted a hierarchical regression analysis by controlling for the participants' initial level of taking charge and their positive and negative affect states (Table 5.6). As shown in Model 2, fatigue was negatively related to the subsequent taking charge behavior (B = -.24, $p < .05$). The R square change between Models 1 and 2 was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 16 received full support.

Additionally, I examined the differences between the levels of initial and subsequent taking charge among the participants taking a break and those not taking a break, as well as the differences between the two conditions. The results are presented in Table 5.7. I used analysis of variance tests (ANOVA) to examine the differences. The results showed that no significant difference for the initial taking charge existed between the individuals in the two conditions (F = .88, *n.s.*), whereas a significant difference was found for the level of subsequent taking charge (F = 42.11, $p < .001$). Moreover, I used paired sample t-test to compare the participants' levels of initial and subsequent taking charge. As shown in Table 5.7, the levels of taking charge for the individuals in the break condition remained stable (t = 1.13, *n.s.*), whereas the levels of taking charge for the individuals in the no-break condition significantly decreased (t = 6.45, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 18 was supported.

I summarized the results of Experiment 3 in Figure 5.4, which shows that all the hypotheses were supported.

Table 5.6 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Subsequent Taking Charge (Experiment 3 of Study 2)

Variables	Subsequent Taking Charge	
	Model 1	**Model 2**
Control variables		
Positive affect	.07	.05
Negative affect	-.02	-.08
Initial taking charge	.34**	.40***
Independent variable		
Fatigue		-.24*
Adjusted R^2	.08	.12
Δ Adjusted R^2		.04*

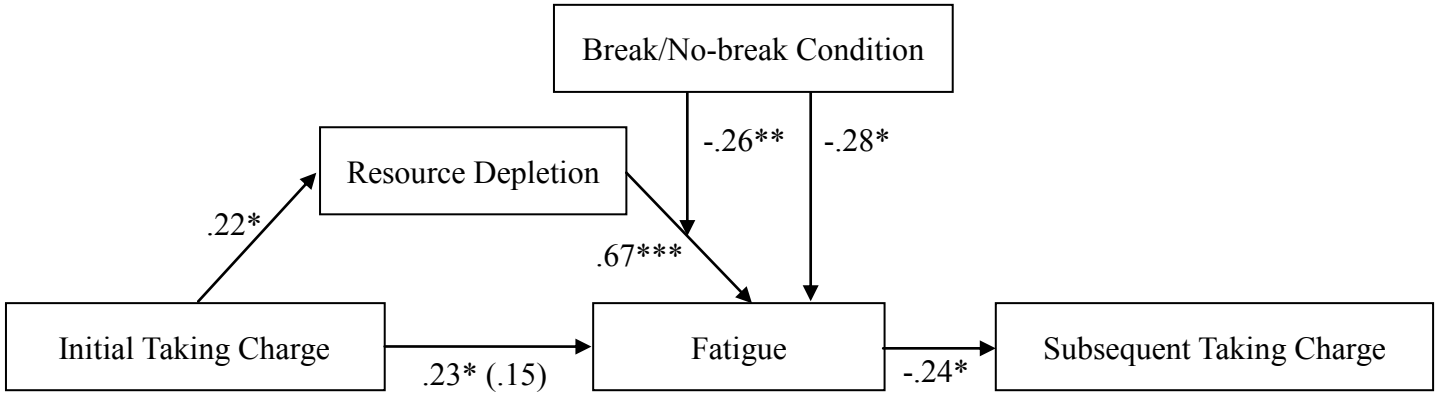
Note. $N = 79$. Standardized regression coefficients are reported.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 5.7 Difference Tests on the Levels of Initial and Subsequent Taking Charge (Experiment 3 of Study 2)

	Break Condition	**No-break Condition**	**Difference**
Initial taking charge	2.39	2.28	$F = .88$, *n.s.*
Subsequent taking charge	2.51	1.75	$F = 42.11$, $p < .001$
Difference	$t = 1.13$, *n.s.*	$t = 6.45$, $p < .001$	

Note. N = 79. N (break condition) = 36; N (no-break condition) = 43.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Figure 5.4 Overall Results of the Theoretical Model of Study 2 (Experiment 3 of Study 2)



Note. $N = 79$. Break/No-break condition: Break = 1; No-break = 0.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

5.4.3 Discussion

Experiment 3 replicated the findings of Experiments 1 and 2 by adopting a different measurement of taking charge behavior. The results of Experiment 3 show that when engaging in taking charge behavior continuously, individuals depleted their resources and felt higher levels of fatigue. As a result, they were less likely to perform subsequent taking charge. However, this resource-draining effect of taking charge only existed for individuals who did not take a break between the two tasks in which taking charge was conducted.

5.5 General Discussion

The findings of Study 1 confirm those of prevailing studies that demonstrate the beneficial outcomes of taking charge (Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009). However, taking charge can also elicit undesirable outcomes, such as experiencing unpleasant mood and intending to leave the organization, under certain conditions. Compared with the bright side, the dark side of taking charge, more generally, proactive behavior, is a relatively unexplored area (e.g., Bindl & Parker, 2010; Bolino et al., 2010). To enrich our understanding of the personal costs of this type of employee positive behavior, Study 2 aims to focus on the resource-draining effect of taking charge and investigate how to tackle the negative influences.

Using three laboratory experiments that involved 224 participants, I found that the participants who had been continuously performing taking charge behavior experienced resource depletion and in turn higher levels of fatigue (Hypotheses 14 and 15). As a result, these fatigued individuals engaged in lower levels of taking charge afterwards (Hypothesis 16). Further, the association between taking charge and fatigue was buffered when individuals took a break after accomplishing such behavior, whereas the association was exacerbated when not taking a break

(Hypothesis 17). The participants without a break accordingly behaved less proactively afterwards than those with a break (Hypothesis 18).

Study 2 confirms the resource-consuming effect of taking charge and points out that if individuals immerse themselves in taking charge, they may exhaust their energy or resources and be tired out. It also suggests that when an individual's resource-in-use is insufficient, a low probability exists that this individual will continue to initiate taking charge behavior. Therefore, the level of taking charge is likely to fluctuate rather than remain stable, which provides some preliminary evidence for the area of dynamics of proactivity (Grant & Ashford, 2008). More importantly, the current study clearly shows a feasible approach, that is, having the opportunity to reserve or replenish personal resources, to relieve proactive actors from the resource-draining effect of taking charge. It provides a practical tactic for both employees and employers to maintain a stable level of taking charge and earn benefits, not costs.

I will discuss the theoretical implications, managerial implications, limitations, and future research directions in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The driving force of this dissertation is the frequently overlooked costs of being proactive at work. Although researchers have called for the investigation of the negative side of proactivity (e.g., Bindl & Parker, 2010; Bolino et al., 2010; Grant & Ashford, 2008), the literature has mainly focused on its antecedents and benefits. Admittedly, the research area of the negative aspects of proactive behavior is in its infancy, and this situation hinders us from obtaining a complete understanding of such behavior. To respond to the research needs, I focused on one typical example of proactive behavior, that is, taking charge. Drawing upon COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001), I adopted a resource perspective to look into the benefits and, more importantly, the costs of taking charge. I anticipated a resource-draining effect of taking charge, which is likely to enhance individuals' feeling of fatigue and decrease the subsequent level of such behavior. I also speculated that taking a break could buffer these negative effects. Furthermore, I expected that under different conditions, taking charge could induce opposite effects on individuals' resource states (i.e., vitality and depletion), which in turn could affect their psychological states and turnover intention. To systematically investigate these relationships, I conducted a field study (Study 1) and an experimental study (Study 2), the details of which are reported in the preceding chapters. In what follows, I provide an overview of the results and a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications. I then discuss the limitations of the research and end with suggestions for future research and an overall conclusion.

6.1 Overview of the Results

In Study 1 (Chapter 4), I collected data from full-time employees and their

direct supervisors. I examined how taking charge relates to individuals' psychological states and intention to leave the organization, as well as the moderating effects of three boundary conditions. As predicted, taking charge did not have main effects on individuals' resource states (i.e., vitality and depletion) and psychological states (i.e., pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE), since individuals acquire and expend resources simultaneously when taking charge. I speculate that the positive or negative effects of taking charge depend on the levels of three contextual factors based on COR theory.

The first boundary condition is role breadth self-efficacy, which represents individuals' available resources when engaging in taking charge. Taking charge was positively related to vitality for employees with high role breadth self-efficacy, whereas it was negatively related to vitality for employees with low role breadth self-efficacy. Vitality mediated the joint effects of taking charge and role breadth self-efficacy on the four psychological states. The findings show that if employees perform taking charge and perceive themselves as highly capable of this type of behavior, they will feel energized and encouraging, and their subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE will be enhanced. By contrast, if employees perceive themselves as incompetent when engaging in taking charge, they will experience being inanimate and uninspired, and their subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE will be undermined.

The second boundary condition is interaction frequency with supervisor, which indicates potential resource gain when performing taking charge. Taking charge was negatively related to vitality and positively related to depletion when employees did not frequently interact with their supervisors. However, these

relationships became insignificant if employees frequently communicated with their supervisors. Vitality and depletion jointly mediated the interactive effects of taking charge and interaction frequency with supervisor on the psychological states. The results suggest that if employees do not frequently communicate with their supervisors when performing taking charge, the employees may lose their chance to obtain resources (e.g., feedback and support) from their supervisors. Under this condition, taking charge is more likely to increase depletion and decrease vitality, which in turn sabotage the actors' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE.

The last boundary condition is controlled motivation, which implies the actual or threatened resource loss when conducting taking charge. Taking charge was positively related to vitality and negatively related to depletion for employees with low controlled motivation, whereas it was negatively related to vitality and positively related to depletion for employees with high controlled motivation. Vitality and depletion collectively mediated the joint effects of taking charge and controlled motivation on psychological states. It demonstrates that if employees participate in taking charge because of controlled motivation, this behavior will be more depleting and less energizing, and employees' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE will weaken. By contrast, if employees conduct taking charge intrinsically rather than extrinsically, such behavior will be more invigorating and less exhausting, and their subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE will be enhanced.

In Study 1, I also examined the relationships between psychological states and turnover intention. The results support my predictions that subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE reduced employees' intention to leave the

organization. It extends our theoretical model to illuminate how taking charge influences the actors and the organization.

In Study 2 (Chapter 5), I conducted three experiments. I confirmed the resource-draining effect of taking charge found in Study 1 and showed that taking charge leads to fatigue through this mechanism (i.e., resource depletion). The result suggests that aside from being beneficial, taking charge can also be an inherently demanding and resource-intensive undertaking. When taking charge, individuals go beyond their prescribed jobs, mindfully plan and calculate, and take action to make things happen (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). These behaviors consume more personal resources than routine jobs, and they tend to deplete people's resource pool and influence their well-being. Moreover, I found that if individuals did not have adequate remaining resources, they were less likely to perform taking charge. It indicates that available resources determine whether individuals participate in taking charge behavior. Furthermore, I demonstrated that taking a break could alleviate the negative effects of taking charge. Specifically, for the participants who took a break after the task in which they performed taking charge, they felt lower levels of fatigue and performed proactively afterwards. However, for those who did not rest, they were more fatigued and exhibited lower levels of proactivity in the subsequent task. Taking a break stops the resource-consuming process, helps individuals reserve resources, and prevents them from immediate resource depletion. The findings highlight the importance of resources for individuals to be consistent in performing taking charge, and thus resource loss or resource deficiency can be one salient factor that leads to this fluctuation of proactivity.

Viewed together, these findings suggest that taking charge could be a double-edged sword for individuals, and they clearly show the positive and negative effects

under different levels of boundary conditions. In addition, I investigated the underlying mechanisms on how taking charge relates to individuals' subjective well-being, psychological meaningfulness, OBSE, and turnover intention. As will be discussed below, these results extend knowledge by exploring the dark side of taking charge and demonstrating the mediation and moderation mechanisms that account for the positive and negative effects of taking charge. These results also have practical contributions by providing clues for managers to alleviate the negative influences of taking charge and to maintain the engagement of employees in taking charge over time. This topic will be discussed further in the managerial implications section.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

The first theoretical implication is that the two studies indicate that taking charge can induce personal costs for individuals. Although the negative implications of taking charge, more generally, proactive behavior, have recently begun to receive more academic attention, the field is in its infancy. The existing yet limited studies mainly focus on the beneficial aspect of taking charge regarding individual performance (Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009). The potential dark side of this behavior is a "black box" with many questions unanswered. First, using a resource perspective, the two studies consistently demonstrate the undesirable consequences of taking charge, which offers a useful counterpoint to the perspectives of proactivity that have been largely positive (for a review, Bindl & Parker, 2010). The two studies answer the call for "mixed effects and unintended consequences" of proactive behavior in a timely manner (Grant & Ashford, 2008, p. 24), thus advancing the current knowledge of such behavior by empirically showing that engaging in taking charge could backfire on the actors. Second, given that the literature on the outcomes

of taking charge focuses on performance, the present study also extends the scope of interest to psychological-level constructs (i.e., fatigue, pleasant mood, unpleasant mood, psychological meaningfulness, and OBSE) and turnover intention. As psychological states significantly influence how individuals behave in their life and work (Bowling et al., 2010; Diener, 2012; Diener & Chan, 2011), and intention to leave is one of the strongest predictors of employee turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000), investigating these outcomes is valuable. The results show that engaging in taking charge can jeopardize actors' well-being and eventually strengthen their turnover intention under certain conditions. Although this type of behavior may benefit employees' job performance or career, it may also be detrimental to their well-being and the organization. Therefore, the two studies enrich the research field and provide a more balanced view of this positive organizational behavior.

The second theoretical implication mainly stems from Study 1. Study 1 investigates the bright and dark sides of taking charge simultaneously, providing a more comprehensive framework in understanding its benefits and costs. First, previous studies have tended to examine the outcomes of taking charge (Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009), and no study has ever empirically investigated its underlying mechanisms. Drawing upon COR theory, I argue that individuals can obtain, as well as expend, personal resources by engaging in taking charge. Study 1 provides empirical evidence that vitality and depletion jointly mediate the positive or negative effects of taking charge on individuals' psychological states. As such, it offers a resource-based model to enrich our understanding of the processes of taking charge. Second, Study 1 identifies three contingencies of the positive and negative effects of taking charge, and it suggests that taking charge is not only a blessing but also a curse for individuals. As predicted, the findings indicate no main effect of

taking charge on vitality, depletion, or psychological states. Whether taking charge is beneficial or undesirable depends on contextual factors, which yields more nuanced knowledge of how taking charge impacts individuals. Under the conditions of low controlled motivation, high role breadth self-efficacy, and high interaction frequency with supervisor, taking charge is more likely to lead to favorable outcomes. Conversely, under the conditions of high controlled motivation, low role breadth self-efficacy, and low interaction frequency with supervisor, taking charge is more likely to cause harmful results. These findings further our understanding of when taking charge is good and when it is bad. Taking charge has been regarded as an evident means of enhancing employee performance and organization viability (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), yet few researchers have worked at the possibility that it could fail to produce expected outcomes or even cause harm. The current study suggests that adopting a balanced and realistic view of such behavior is more reasonable, as trade-offs occur when people decide to take charge in the workplace.

The third theoretical implication is that the two studies highlight the importance of resource to the taking charge behavior and shed light on how to maintain a stable level of such behavior while enjoying its benefits and minimizing its costs. First, people may be unsure of whether or not they should engage in taking charge at work based on its negative effects. Rather than suggesting that employees stop being proactive, I agree that such behavior has a number of benefits and should be generally encouraged. However, on the basis of the results of the two studies, I contend that proactive actors should consider their experience and the environmental factors that influence their balance of resources and that these appraisals influence both feelings of vitality and depletion and more distal psychological outcomes. Generally, Study 1 suggests that taking charge becomes beneficial when employees

possess available resources, have access to gain additional resource, and do not experience extra resource loss. However, it can cause damage when employees lack resources, cannot acquire additional resources, and experience substantial resource loss. The current study helps us to recognize a complete set of resource-related boundary conditions to look into the positive and negative aspects of taking charge. Second, researchers have shown an intraindividual variability in proactive behavior across time (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Sonnentag, 2003). Nevertheless, previous studies have not examined why the fluctuation exists and how employees could remain being proactive. Study 2 furthers our understanding of this important issue by demonstrating that resource depletion is one explanation for the unstable level of taking charge. More importantly, I found that implementing a short break or period of relaxation after performing taking charge is one way in which employees can maintain their proactivity in the workplace. Through this means, the negative aspects of taking charge can be counteracted, and engaging in taking charge constantly will not overburden individuals. The findings are consistent with previous work that shows that breaks are helpful in conserving resources and fighting fatigue (e.g., Dababneh et al., 2001; Henning et al., 1997). This study adds value to the proactive behavior literature by providing new insights into the resource-based mechanism that explains the dynamics of individual proactivity and by suggesting feasible approaches to display a stable level of proactivity.

6.3 Managerial Implications

The findings also offer important practical implications for the management of taking charge, more generally, proactive behavior in the workplace. Given the increasingly crucial role of employees' taking charge in both individuals and organizations (for a review, Bindl & Parker, 2010), understanding the potential

negative consequences of this type of behavior is vital. Alongside the existing strand of research on the personal costs of being proactive, this study shows a range of undesirable outcomes of taking charge. Unfortunately, a reduction in employees' well-being and an increase in turnover intention eventually affect organizational performance as well (e.g., Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Therefore, managers should realize that encouraging employees to be continually and excessively proactive is not always appropriate, since the well-being of individuals and even the organization as a whole may be damaged by too much focus on this area.

As shown in Study 1, taking charge did not exert significant effects on individuals' vitality, depletion, and psychological states. However, such behavior results in rewarding or undesirable consequences for individuals under different circumstances. Although taking charge apparently does not affect employees, it can benefit or harm particular groups of employees in the light of the boundary conditions. Managers and employees therefore should be fully aware of the potential advantages and disadvantages of taking charge. In this sense, they are able to get prepared to take feasible actions to strengthen the positive effects of taking charge and alleviate its negative effects.

Furthermore, as shown in the findings, effective measures can be taken to enhance the energizing effect and attenuate the depleting effect of taking charge. On one hand, the findings of the two studies underscore that resource plays a crucial role in employees' taking charge behavior. Following this rationale, organizations can introduce several well-designed short breaks or relaxation periods for employees to maintain and replenish their resources during the working day to motivate the act of taking charge. In accordance with work recovery research, detachment from work

can assist relaxation and is regarded as beneficial for resource restoration (e.g., Fritz, Yankelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010; Sonnentag & Binnewies, 2013). Studies have shown that detachment can be trained, such as doing exercises (Carlson & Hoyle, 1993), initiating flow experiences during leisure time activities (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989), and engaging in activities in which individuals can easily forget about work (Hahn, Binnewies, Sonnentag, & Mojza, 2011). On the other hand, managers can provide work-related training and offer a supportive environment for employees, encourage supervisor–subordinate interactions, and stimulate employees' intrinsic motivation to behave proactively to highlight the benefits of taking charge. Although these ideas are not necessarily new, the findings provide empirical support for these practices grounded in these ideas. Therefore, these methods will enable employees to gain benefits and avoid being hurt by participating in taking charge.

6.4 Limitations

This study has several limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the generalizability of the findings may be a concern. As Study 1 collected data from one organization in China, the generalizability of the findings to different work settings, organizations, industries, and cultures has yet to be established. Although the data were collected at three time points and from multiple data sources, different results could be found in other settings. Certainly, future research will benefit from replicating this investigation in different organizations, industries, and cultures. Further, Study 2 was conducted in a laboratory setting with undergraduate students as participants. Therefore, the extent to which the findings can be generalized to the population of employees may be questionable. In the experimental study, I designed the Lego model task (Experiments 1 and 2) and the scenario-based in-basket task (Experiment 3) based on the features of the taking charge behavior and previous

laboratory studies on proactive behavior (Grant & Rothbard, 2013; Vohs et al., 2008). Additionally, the participants' taking charge was measured objectively in Experiments 1 and 2 to avoid the measurement biases of a questionnaire survey. The results of Experiments 1 and 2 were replicated in Experiment 3 using a different measure of taking charge. Therefore, I am optimistic that this study captures the key characteristics of taking charge, and its findings can be generalized to a wider group of employees.

Second, the findings of Study 1 should not be interpreted as unambiguously indicating causality. Although the hypotheses were developed on a strong theoretical foundation, some parts of the results were replicated in a laboratory experiment (Study 2). Spurious relationships based on unmeasured third variables could still lead to the findings, as is common in field studies. Moreover, I used self-report measures (e.g., vitality, depletion, and psychological states) that could introduce the common method bias. However, the data were collected at three different time points, and confirmatory factor analyses suggested good statistical discriminant validity for the self-reported variables. Nevertheless, this thesis acknowledges the need for further evidence based on data from different raters and data measured at different time points to claim causality.

Third, by measuring vitality and depletion with self-report approach, I assume that the two variables well capture the resource-building and resource-consuming processes, respectively. Researchers suggest that depletion may be better assessed by using physiological tests, such as blood glucose test (e.g., Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007; Gailliot et al., 2007; Quinn et al., 2012). Unfortunately, it was difficult to obtain the consent of the research participants for blood tests. Although the subjective feeling of resource depletion provides reasonable evidence, future

research using physiological tests could help validate my findings. Moreover, resource is regarded as a broad concept in this research, including physical, cognitive, and emotional resources that are valued by individuals. Vitality and depletion respectively represent the gaining and draining of people's physical, cognitive, and emotional resources. I did not specifically examine the three types of resources. It is possible that taking charge is likely to consume more cognitive resources, since it is more involved with identifying and solving problems, while such behavior tends to build varying levels of physical, cognitive, and emotional resources (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). By clarifying the relationships between taking charge and the three types of resources, we can obtain more nuanced results regarding how taking charge influences human energy. For example, the research of Christian and colleagues (2015) elaborated how pain affects various types of resources and in turn individuals' discretionary behaviors. Hence, future efforts could be invested in studying the roles of specific types of resources.

6.5 Future Research Directions

The present study suggests several avenues for future research. First, this thesis focuses on the consequences of taking charge behavior using a resource perspective. Under different individual resource conditions (i.e., available resources, resource gain, and resource loss), taking charge can result in positive and negative effects on individuals (Study 1). The findings further provide evidence that resource-in-use is likely to determine individuals' decision of whether to proactively take charge or not (Study 2). Following this reasoning, developing a resource-based model to examine the antecedents of taking charge is worthwhile. For example, job stressors (De Jonge & Dormann, 2006), interpersonal interactions (Brinberg & Castell, 1982), and organizational-level policy and practice (Parker et al., 2013) tend

to influence individuals' perception of their resource conditions, which in turn determine whether to take charge or not. Investigating the antecedents will undoubtedly extend our understanding of taking charge. More interestingly, considering the resource-gaining and resource-draining processes of taking charge, an apparent paradox may emerge when people lack resources. On one hand, less resource-in-use will decrease the tendency to act proactively to conserve resources; on the other hand, individuals may be motivated to acquire additional resources by taking charge. Therefore, future research could attempt to resolve this apparent paradox by identifying third factors that affect individuals' decision of whether to reserve or gain resources. For instance, organization culture and supervisors' attitude towards proactivity can influence employees' benefit–cost analysis of performing taking charge (Crant, 2000).

Second, the two studies focus on one specific type of proactive behavior, that is, taking charge. Since different proactive behaviors may manifest some distinct characteristics, researchers could attempt to theorize and test other proactive behaviors, such as voice behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), feedback-seeking behavior (Ashford, 1986), and issue selling (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). Although researchers have suggested adopting a resource perspective for proactive behavior, whether the resource perspective applies to other forms of proactive behavior, and how, remains unknown. For example, Ng and Feldman (2012) adopted a resource perspective to summarize the literature of voice behavior by conducting a meta-analysis and found a negative relationship between workplace stress and voice and a positive relationship between voice and performance outcomes. Researchers can extend this model by investigating the underlying mechanisms of how voice leads to better performance evaluations. For example, through voice, employees are likely to

manage their impressions before their supervisors and peers, obtain tangible and intangible resources, and gain influence and respect, which are all helpful in receiving higher performance ratings (Fuller, Barnett, Hester, Relyea, & Frey, 2007). Drawing upon other perspectives or theories to explain the consequences of voice behavior is also possible. Proactive employees may threaten and upset their peers by voicing up suggestions intended to promote changes, and doing so may intensify interpersonal tension and conflict (Bolino et al., 2010). Hence, a relationship-based perspective could be applied to unravel the potential negative outcomes of voice.

Third, investigating other candidates that may be the mediators and moderators of the relationships between taking charge and individual outcomes is worthwhile. For example, one possible mediating variable is organizational commitment. When engaging in taking charge, employees involve themselves in improving work methods or procedures. During the implementation of taking charge, employees are concerned with the organization and become more attached to it, and this attachment could enhance their organizational commitment (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Organizational commitment has been examined to be significantly related to various outcomes, such as better performance and psychological well-being (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002). In addition, the perceived organizational support for proactive behavior could be a salient moderator. When individuals feel supported by the organization, they can obtain tangible and intangible resources from the employer. Therefore, they experience high vitality and low depletion, thus leading to favorable consequences. However, when individuals who engage in taking charge lack organizational support, a resource loss for going beyond the prescribed job is more likely to occur, which may induce undesirable outcomes (Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015). It is also interesting to investigate other moderators under which

taking charge is both positively or negatively associated with vitality and depletion; accordingly, it is feasible to compare which mechanism is more salient than the other. Further, the theoretical model could be extended by including some behavioral constructs as outcomes, such as job performance. The model could be more thorough by incorporating both psychological- and behavioral-level consequences.

Fourth, in the experimental study, I only focused on the resource-draining effect of taking charge and tested one intervention (i.e., break). Scholars can use laboratory experiments to investigate the resource-gaining and resource-draining effects simultaneously and replicate, or extend, the results of Study 1. Additionally, other types of intervention can be examined. The work recovery literature demonstrates that different types of off-job activities can have significant effects on employees' performance and well-being (e.g., Demerouti, Bakker, Geurts, & Taris, 2009; Sonnentag et al., 2008). For example, physical activities are consistently found to be beneficial to individuals' resource recovery, mood, and well-being (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag & Natter, 2004). Future research may benefit from examining possible approaches by which individuals can replenish resources and thus act proactively without burden.

Fifth, the findings of the current research indicate that the level of employee proactive behavior fluctuates over time, consistent with previous studies (e.g., Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Sonnentag, 2003). Given the high importance of proactive behavior to both employees and employers, exploring how individuals' day-level proactivity changes and how to maintain a stable high level of proactivity is worthwhile. Fritz and colleagues (2009) investigate how job stressors and positive affect during the workday influence day-level proactive behavior. Sonnentag (2003) examines how off-job experiences affect day-level proactivity through work

engagement. Following these studies, this research area can be enriched in several directions. Exploring the daily proactivity trajectory to obtain a complete picture of the fluctuation is interesting. Similar to off-job experience, scholars can investigate the influences of different types of off-job activities, including household and child-care, physical, social, low-effort, and work-related activities (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006). These proposed directions could provide practical recommendations to employees on how to properly manage their off-job time to remain proactive over time. Further, examining the processes of these effects can broaden our knowledge to explain the complexity and richness of the phenomenon. Therefore, in this sense, the literature on proactive behavior can be extended by combining the work and non-work fields to explore the relationships and the associated mediating processes between off-job experiences and sustaining proactivity.

6.6 Concluding Remarks

I began this dissertation by noting that the dark side of taking charge has not acquired deserved attention from organizational researchers. The results of this study clearly demonstrate that taking charge is a double-edged sword for individuals. This research clarifies the underlying processes through which taking charge leads to positive and negative effects. This study further identifies the boundary conditions in which this type of behavior induces positive or negative influences. Moreover, I demonstrate possible ways to enhance the favorable outcomes and to alleviate the undesirable outcomes of taking charge. Taken together, these findings not only contribute to the scholarly understanding of the benefits and costs of taking charge but also provide strong motivation for researchers to explore the negative side of proactive behavior. I hope to have provided practitioners with some practical implications with which they can better manage employees' proactive behavior in

the workplace. This research shows the need to take a more balanced view of taking charge, or proactive behavior, beyond the current one that presumes proactivity is mostly beneficial. If this thesis is regarded as a good starting point for studies that intend to examine the negative side of proactive behavior and stimulate future research and practice, then all efforts will be worth it.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Time 1 Supervisor Questionnaire for Study 1

(Chinese Version)

组织行为调查问卷

主管问卷

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您好！首先，衷心感谢各位参与此项研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计的，旨在研究组织行为。**所有调查资料只作科学研究，并将严格保密。研究结果只呈现群体现状，不涉及任何个人资料，调查资料不会提交给您所在单位及上级部门**。

研究结果的可信度取决于您对问题的认真和客观的回答。请您在填写问卷时，细心阅读每个问题，并**真实地表达您的感受**。您所提供的资料对我们的研究会有很大的帮助。

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最后，再次对您的参与及帮助表示衷心的感谢！

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以下部分，请以下列指定的您的直接下属作为填写问卷的对象。

您的直接下属的姓名为：

您作为该下属的直接上级有多久了？_____（年）____（个月）

第一部分：以下各项描述了**该下属过去一个月的一些工作行为表现**，请您根据行为发生的频率填写？请仔细阅读以下问题，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	**从来没有**	**很少**	**偶尔**	**有时**	**较多时候**	**经常**	**总是**
1. 该下属尝试采用改进了的程序来做他/她的工作。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 该下属尝试改变，以使他/她的工作更有效。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 该下属尝试为工作单位或部门引入改进的程序。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. 该下属尝试制定使公司更有效的新工作方式。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. 该下属尝试改变公司的不利于生产或与生产背道而驰的规章制度。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. 该下属提出有助于改善公司运作的意见。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. 该下属尝试修正部门(公司)的办事程序或常规。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. 该下属尝试修正不必要的办事程序。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. 该下属尝试解决公司所出现的问题	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. 该下属尝试引入提高效率的新想法、技术或方法。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的**所有资料只供研究所用，绝对保密**，并且只做整体分析。请放心回答。请在每题后面合适的选项上打勾“√”，或在横线上填写。

1. 性别： □男 □女

2. 您的年龄：_____（周岁）

3. 您的教育程度：□初中 □高中或中专 □大专 □大学本科
□硕士 □博士及以上 □其它（请注明）

4. 您接受正规教育的年限为：_____（年）

5. 您在**本公司**工作多久了：_____（年）_____（个月）

6. 您在**本岗位**上工作多久了：_____（年）_____（个月）

7. 您**直接领导目前这个工作小组**多久了：_____（年）_____（个月）

本问卷至此全部结束，请您亲自将问卷封装进所附的信封中，
我们将直接带回大学进行整体的数据处理。
谢谢您的合作！

Appendix 2: Time 1 Subordinate Questionnaire for Study 1

(Chinese Version)

组织行为调查问卷

员工问卷

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邮件 kathryn.ouyang@

您目前的**直接上级**是：

第一部分：以下各项是对**您与您目前的直接上级的关系**的描述。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	**从来没有**	**很少**	**偶尔**	**有时**	**较多时候**	**经常**	**总是**
1. 该上级和我进行与工作有关的交流。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 我主动与该上级进行和工作有关的交流。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 在工作中，我与该上级进行交流。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. 在工作中，我与该上级进行非正式的（或社交性的）交流。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

第二部分：以下是一些员工在工作中可能会遇到的任务。请想一下，当您做下面这些事时,您感到的**自信程度**，在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**不能确定**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 向同事们提供信息。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 协助制定我的工作小组的工作目标。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 为我的工作小组设计新的工作方法。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. 联系公司外部的人（比如客户）来讨论问题。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. 分析一个长期性的问题并找出解决方案。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. 代表我的工作小组与高层管理人员会面。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. 拜访其他部门的人，以便能够提出新的做事方法。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

第三部分：以下问题是关于**您对自己的看法**。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**不能确定**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 我不断地寻找新的方式来改善生活。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 不管事情出现的可能性有多大，只要我相信，就一定能使这件事发生。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 只要是我相信的想法，没有什么可以阻碍我把它变成现实。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. 任何时候，我都具有强大的建设性改革动力。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. 我经常寻求更好的方法来做事情。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. 对于我来说，没有什么比看着我的想法变成现实更令我兴奋。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. 如果看到不喜欢的东西，我会设法纠正它。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. 尽管要力排众议，我总想自己的意见被采纳。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. 我擅长发现机遇。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. 我总比别人早一步发现好的机会。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

第四部分：以下问题有关**您对工作的看法**。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**不能确定**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 我期望在五年内获得更高职位的工作。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 对现在的工作，我主要把它看成是获得其它工作的跳板。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 我不期望在五年之中，我还是在做同样的工作。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

第五部分：以下问题是关于**您对自己的看法**。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**不能确定**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 我可能会在 12 个月之内离职。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 我可能会在三年之内离职。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 如果可以得到高一些的收入，我可能会跳槽。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

最后，请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的**所有资料只供研究所用，绝对保密**，并且只做整体分析。请放心回答。请在每题后面合适的选项上打勾“√”，或在横线上填写。

1. 性别： □男 □女

2. 您的年龄：____（周岁）

3. 您的教育程度：□初中 □高中或中专 □大专 □大学本科
□硕士 □博士及以上 □其它（请注明）

4. 您接受正规教育的年限为：____（年）

5. 您在**本公司**工作多久了：____（年）____（个月）

6. 您在**本岗位**上工作多久了：____（年）____（个月）

7. 您加入**目前的工作小组**多久了：____（年）____（个月）

8. 您在**目前的直接上级**的领导下工作有多久了：____（年）____（个月）

本问卷至此全部结束，请您亲自将问卷封装进所附的信封中，
我们将直接带回大学进行整体的数据处理。
谢谢您的合作！

Appendix 3: Time 2 Subordiante Questionnaire for Study 1

(Chinese Version)

组织行为调查问卷

员工问卷

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您好！首先，衷心感谢各位参与此项研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计的，旨在研究组织行为。**所有调查资料只作科学研究，并将严格保密。研究结果只呈现群体现状，不涉及任何个人资料，调查资料不会提交给您所在单位及上级部门**。

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邮件 kathryn.ouyang@

您目前的**直接上级**是：

第一部分：以下问题有关**您自己过去一个月的感受**。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答，不要漏答。	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**不能确定**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 工作时，我很有活力。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 工作时，我充满正能量。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 公司让我感到开心。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. 工作时，我感到体力充沛。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. 工作时，我感到意志坚定。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

第二部分：以下问题有关**您自己过去一个月的感受**。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答，不要漏答。	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**不能确定**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 我感到筋疲力尽。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 我的思想不能集中。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 我需要很努力才能集中精神。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. 我不能理解任何信息。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. 我感到自己缺乏意志力。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

本问卷至此全部结束，请您亲自将问卷封装进所附的信封中，
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再次感谢您的合作！

Appendix 4: Time 3 Subordinate Questionnaire for Study 1

(Chinese Version)

组织行为调查问卷

员工问卷

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第一部分：以下问题有关**您自己的感受**。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。

在过去的一个月内,在多大程度上，您觉得自己处于下列状态:

	完全没有	极少这样	较少这样	有时这样	较多这样	极多这样	总是这样		完全没有	极少这样	较少这样	有时这样	较多这样	极多这样	总是这样
1. 高兴的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	5. 难过的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 欢喜的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	6. 沮丧的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 满意的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	7. 挫败的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 自信的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8. 焦虑的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第二部分：以下各项是对**您工作**的描述。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 这份工作是值得做的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的工作对我来说是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 这份工作对我很有意义。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 我觉得我的工作是有价值的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分：想象一下**您在这个工作小组里的感受**，回答对以下表达的认同程度。	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我在公司里有影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 大家对我是认真的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我是重要的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 大家信任我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 大家对我有信心。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我与众不同。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我有价值。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 我对大家有用。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 我的效率高。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 我容易与他人合作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分：以下问题是关于**您对自己的看法**。请您仔细	非		有	不	有	同	非

阅读以下句子，并在右边相应的数字上画圈作答,不要漏答。	常不同意	不同意	点不同意	能确定	点同意	意	常同意
1. 我可能会在 12 个月之内离职。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我可能会在三年之内离职。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 如果可以得到高一些的收入，我可能会跳槽。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

本问卷至此全部结束，请您亲自将问卷封装进所附的信封中，
我们将直接带回大学进行整体的数据处理。

再次感谢您的合作！

Appendix 5: Questionnaires for Experiment 1 of Study 2 (Chinese Version)

第一部份問卷 **No.** _____

以下問題是有關您自己現在的感受和情緒。請仔細閱讀以下問題，并在右邊相應的數字上畫圈作答，不要漏答。

您覺得自己現在的感受和情緒在多大程度上符合下列的狀態:	非常不符合	比較不符合	基本不符合	不確定	基本符合	比較符合	非常符合
1.有興趣的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.興奮的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.堅強的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.熱情的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.自豪的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.機警的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.有靈感的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.果斷的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.專注的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.主動的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

您覺得自己現在的感受和情緒在多大程度上符合下列的狀態:	非常不符合	比較不符合	基本不符合	不確定	基本符合	比較符合	非常符合
11.憂慮的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.心煩意亂的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.內疚的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.害怕的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.懷有敵意的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.不耐煩的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.羞愧的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.焦慮的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.緊張不安的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.擔心的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

填寫完畢後請將該問卷放入桌上的啡色公文袋中，然後安靜等候。

第三部份問卷 **No.** _____

一、以下問題是有關您自己現在的感受和情緒。請根據您自己的實際情況進行評判，並在右邊相應的數字上畫圈作答，不要漏答。	**非常不同意**	**比較不同意**	**基本不同意**	**不確定**	**基本同意**	**比較同意**	**非常同意**
1. 我需要休息。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. 我感到昏昏欲睡。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. 我感覺身體缺少能量。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. 我不能集中注意力。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. 我感到筋疲力盡。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. 我需要努力才能集中精神。	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

二、您認為實驗中拼砌的樂高模型的難度是：

☐ 難度非常小　☐ 難度比較小　☐ 難度小　☐ 難度適中

☐ 難度大　☐ 難度比較大　☐ 難度非常大

三、最後，請回答下列有關您個人情況的問題。您提供的所有資料只供研究，不會告訴其他人員, 請放心回答。

1. 性別：　☐ 女　☐ 男

2. 年齡：_____（周歲）

3. 就讀專業：☐ 工商管理專業　☐ 應用科學及紡織專業　☐ 建設及環境專業

☐ 工程專業　☐ 醫療及社會科學專業　☐ 人文專業

☐ 設計專業　☐ 酒店及旅遊管理專業

填寫完畢後請將該問卷放入桌上的啡色公文袋中，然後安靜等候。

Appendix 6: Qualtrics Survey for Experiment 3 of Study 2

Welcome to Our Study

This study consists of two parts in which we look at different issues. In Part 1, you are required to answer a questionnaire; in Part 2, you are required to complete several tasks.

This study is entirely voluntary. All your responses will be kept confidential and your personal identity will remain anonymous. If any of the questions make you uncomfortable, you are free to withdraw from this study at any time for any reason.

Please answer all the questions carefully and in order. There is no right or wrong answer; we just need your true opinions. You are recommended to put on the headphone at your station to help you concentrate on the study.

Please indicate your consent to participate in this study by clicking on "Yes" below:

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

Part 1

Please indicate to what extent you feel the following emotions RIGHT NOW:

	Not at all		Moderate		Extremely
Afraid	1	2	3	4	5
Scared	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Upset	1	2	3	4	5
Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
Alert	1	2	3	4	5
Excited	1	2	3	4	5
Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
Active	1	2	3	4	5
Interested	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2

Now, you will be performing several work tasks as if you are operating on a typical day on the job. In these tasks, you will be assuming the role of a middle manager at an organization called OneShore Groups.

OneShore Groups has been in existence for three years. Although only in existence for a short period of time, it currently operates 150 pharmacies in North America. This year is an important year for OneShore Groups,with the goal of setting up another 150 pharmacies. It also manufactures a line of medical equipment that isused by the biggest hospitals in North America. OneShore Groups has always had the vision of providing accessible and quality healthcare to individuals. The general structure of OneShore Groups is as follows:

CEO/President: David Williams
General Manager: Debbie Black
***Middle Manager Eastern Region: You**
Middle Manager Western Region: Adam Liu
Middle Manager Central: Tyler Lee

You are required to deal with various tasks as though you are on the job. You will have 60 minutes to complete all tasks.

There are several messages waiting for you in your in-basket. These are emails, memos, and phone messages that have been waiting for your response since the beginning of the workday today, at 8am.

You must respond to each message detailing the procedure you want the person contacting you to take in order to appropriately, effectively, and efficiently deal with the issue identified in the email. Please type your responses to each message on the computer.

You will be evaluated on your ability to: a) recognize the problem, b) sort through possible alternatives, c) make quality decisions in selecting the best alternative, and d) clearly communicate your intentions to theperson who has contacted you in your responses to them.

Task 1 Memo

To: Middle Manager Eastern region
From: Sheila Lee
Re: Promotion of Steven Thompson

I hope this message finds you well.

As we discussed two weeks ago when we met with Steven Thompson, Telecommunication Specialist, Steven has requested a promotion after having worked in the company for 14 months. The system requires employees working for the company for at least two years to get a promotion. However, I think this may partly result inthe turnover of several competent employees recently. Steven has been a hard worker and has adapted to his position quickly. He has been proactive in his role. He has been a team player and has played an important role in training new staff in the department. However, he has in the

past made several indications that his family responsibilities take priority over his work responsibilities. Should he be promoted to the head of the telecommunication department, he will need to assume a lot more responsibility and take more of a leadership role that includes working longer hours and possibly various weekends each month. Please advise me on how to proceed.

Best regards,
Sheila
Human Resource Management

Please reply to the memo below.

Task 2 Email

To: Middle Manager Eastern Region
From: Lisa Wade
Re: Request for leave of absence

I would like to request a one month leave of absence to care for my two children. I realize this is coming at an inconvenient time. However, my husband, a junior high school principal, cannot take time off work and we are unable to find a suitable babysitter to care for our children who require special assistance. We also do not have relatives that live nearby.

Please reply to the email below.

Task 3 Phone message

To: Middle Manager Eastern Region
From: John Salgado
Re: Breakdown of equipment

I just got in to work and it seems that overnight, we experienced a mechanical breakdown, damaging about 35% of our equipment. I don't know what the source of it is, and staffs are trying to figure it out as I speak. I left a message with insurance to ask how to proceed with claims, and am about to figure out how to do repairs and what that will cost us. For now, the production line is at a standstill. Until this problem is solved, I am not hopeful that we will be able to meet the 400 units that are required by Friday. Your attention is required immediately.

Please reply to the phone message below.

We would like to know how you feel right now.

Please indicate the extent to which you feel the following right now:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel drained.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My mind feels unfocused.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It would take a lot of effort for me to concentrate on something.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can't absorb any information.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel like my willpower is gone.	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate the extent to which you feel the following right now:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel weak.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I need to rest more.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel sleepy or drowsy.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel tired.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have a lot of energy.	1	2	3	4	5

[For break condition]

Now, you will have **a 10-minute break**.

During the break, you CANNOT communicate with other participants, use your mobile phone, or leave your seat. We have relaxing music for you during the break. **Please be reminded that you CANNOT continue the tasks until the break is over. When the break is over, you will be automatically directed to continue with your tasks.**

***Please put on the headphone at your station. ***

When you are ready, click Next to enter the music page!

[Next screen]

Please click play to enjoy the music and relax!

[Next screen]

The break is over. You are required to complete another three tasks. Please click Next to continue.

The break is over. We would like to know how you feel right now.

Please indicate the extent to which you feel the following right now:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel drained.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My mind feels unfocused.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It would take a lot of effort for me to concentrate on something.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can't absorb any information.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel like my willpower is gone.	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate the extent to which you feel the following right now:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel weak.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I need to rest more.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel sleepy or drowsy.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel tired.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have a lot of energy.	1	2	3	4	5

You have another three tasks to complete. Please click Next to continue.

Task 4 Phone message

To: Middle Manager Eastern Region
From: Sonya James
Re: Conflict

I am furious at Debbie Reynolds [co-worker with Sonya in the department]. For the last several months she has been telling coworkers lies about me behind my back. Once, I overheard her in the copy room telling Danny how I am incapable of handling several tasks at once. In another instance, Emilie told me she questioned the way I was handling orders from two pharmacies. Now, she has started to belittle me in front of others. This is harassment, and it is absolutely undeserved. As I cannot find an official, suitable way for filinga complaint, I am asking you for help and suggestions.

Sonya

Please reply to the phone message below.

Task 5 Memo

Note to Self
Re: Sale of one of our businesses

One of our subsidiary companies is up for sale. There are two bids which have been offered for the business: Bid "A" comes from an investor banking group, Bid "B" comes from a large firm in the same line of business as the one up for sale.

The investor banking group (bid A) is known for purchasing companies and then liquidating their assets. Inother words, I expect that if the investor banking group purchase the company, all employees working therewill be out of their jobs and the company will be sold off in bits. The other bid, bid B, is from a large firm in the same industry. If the business is sold to them, most of the employees will likely retain their jobs. It is my responsibility to decide who to sell the business to.

The investment bankers have made an offer that is 2 percent higher than the similar firm's bid. Bid A is for $918,000, while bid B is for $900,000. Because of a larger commission for me for any amount over $900,000, with bid A I get $10,500 for commission and with bid B I get $4,500. Many of these employees have alwaysfelt they were secure in their jobs since the corporation has never mentioned any plans to sell. Many of the managers and workers in this business for sale have treated me fairly in our transactions.

Please outline your decision below, as well as the reasons why you make this decision.

Task 6 Email

To: Middle Manager Eastern Region
From: Hugh Kine
Re: Productivity level down in sales of medical equipment

I have a concern I wanted to bring to your attention and get your advice on how to handle a particular situation. I notice productivity levels among our sales team have been low as of the last quarter. Sales have been down 5%, which is not normal for such a strong team. I'm not sure if it's the weather, the recent exit of afavored member of the team to join our competitor's organization, or whether it's just low morale. I tried toassign bonuses to boost productivity and encourage them with a motivating speech. So far nothing is doing the trick. We need to get sales back up or we risk suffering a huge loss.

Please reply to the email below.

A few final questions

Your gender:

- Male
- Female

Your age:

Your major:

- Business
- Construction and environment
- Applied science and textiles
- Engineering
- Health and social sciences
- Humanities
- Design
- Hotel and tourism management

Your ethnicity:

- Arab/West Asian (e.g., Armenian, Egyptian, Iranian, Lebanese, Moroccan)
- Black
- Chinese
- European (e.g., French, Italian, Greek, Macedonian)
- Filipino
- Japanese
- Korean
- Latin American
- South Asian
- South East Asian
- White (Caucasian)
- Other (please specify)

Thank You for Participating in Our Study!

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