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A Conceptual Framework about Employees' Proactive Behavior and Supervisor's Favorable Evaluation: Moderating Effects of Dissimilarity in Supervisors' Cultural Dimensions

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to develop a theoretical model of how supervisor's cultural differences moderate the relationship between proactive behavior of employees and the supervisor's favorable evaluations. We first review the literature and define the constructs. Then, we describe how the relationship between proactive behavior of an employee and the supervisor's favorable assessment level could be moderated by the differences between the models of independent or individualistic culture vs. interdependent or collectivistic culture and the cultural tightness-looseness of the supervisor. The conceptual framework and theoretical models of this relationship and moderating effects are proposed. The theoretical model of this study contributes to the organizational and strategic management literature by proposing the moderating effects of supervisor's cultural differences in assessing different aspects of employee's proactive behavior.

Keywords: proactive behavior, favorable evaluation, individualism, collectivism, tightness-looseness

INTRODUCTION

An increasing number of research studies show evidence of favorable evaluations by supervisors when their employees engage in proactive behavior at work. Employees who develop social networks, display career initiative and innovation, offer help and display high levels of effort are assessed more favorably by supervisors (Joo and Bennett, 2018; Seibert *et al*., 1999; 2001; Thompson, 2005; Van Scotter *et al*., 2000). However, supervisors' cultural differences might strengthen or weaken the level of supervisors' favorable assessments upon the employees' proactive behavior. In particular, the dissimilarity between the independent or individualistic and the interdependent or collectivistic cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1991; Triandis, 1995) including the cultural tightness-looseness (Gelfand *et al*., 2006) of supervisors

could possibly influence the relationship of employees' proactive behavior and the assessments that employees receive from their supervisors.

In this article, a theoretical model of moderating effects of an employee's cultural difference on the relationship between the employee's proactive behavior and the favorable evaluation by the supervisor is developed. Although the extant literature emphasizes the relationship of the employees' proactive behavior and the higher chances of receiving positive evaluations from supervisors because of their proactive behavior (if such proactive behaviors are perceived as being beneficial to the organization), relatively little is known whether the level of favorable assessment or evaluation might be influenced by the effects of cultural differences between employees and supervisors (Grant and Ashford, 2008; Joo and Bennett, 2018; Thompson, 2005; Seibert *et al*., 1999; 2001). A majority of recent proactivity research focused on the relevance of the individual or organizational perspectives over employees' proactive behavior itself. For example, Van Scotter *et al.* (2000) proposed that employees who possess proactive behavior, such as, taking initiative in problem-solving and so forth, should be more impressive, thereby, have better chances of receiving favorable evaluation from their supervisors and obtain rewards and/or promotions.

Therefore, this article intends to address this gap in the current proactivity research literature by proposing how the variations between the individualistic-collectivistic cultural dimensions and cultural tightness-looseness of a supervisor may strengthen or weaken the relationship between employees' proactive action and positive assessments by their supervisors. The proposed model framework is shown in Figure 1.

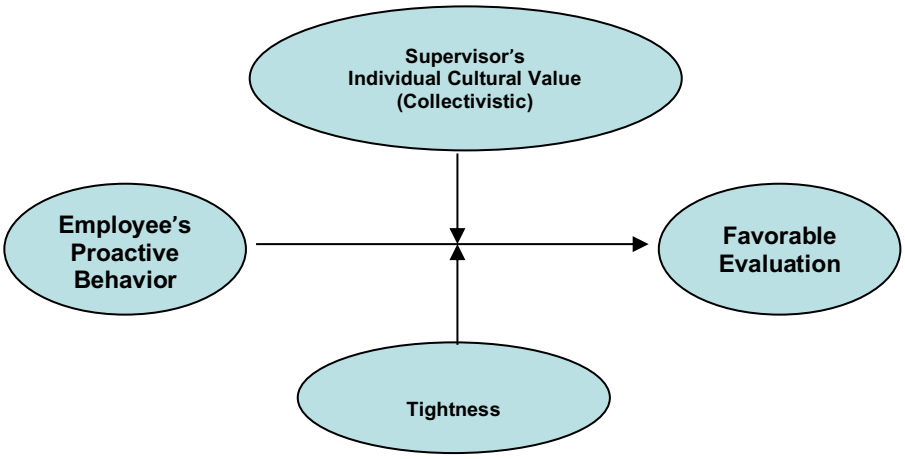


Figure 1. The proposed model framework: Moderators of the relationship between an employee's proactive behavior and favorable evaluation by the supervisor

Additionally, the comprehension of how supervisors' evaluation of employees' proactive actions might be influenced by the dissimilarity in supervisors' cultural dimensions will be of benefit for both researchers and managers. This conceptual framework will strengthen the ability of organizations to improve in management or construct their employees' proactive behaviors in the manner that conforms to the modern competitive environment that includes the organizational objectives and strategic intention. We also assert that the cultural dimensions will have different impacts on the different categories of employees' proactive

behavior. For instance, employees whose proactive behavior are presented in displaying considerable effort, initiatives, persistence, and self-discipline will earn higher levels of favorable evaluations from supervisors whose cultural characteristic are classified in individualistic/looseness model. On the contrary, employees whose proactive behavior are presented in offering help to the others and building social network will receive higher levels of favorable evaluation from the supervisors whose cultural characteristic are classified in collectivistic/tightness model.

Furthermore, the model draws on the comparison between the supervisor's individualistic/collectivistic dimensions and that of the cultural tightness-looseness on such relationship and proposes that the former should have a stronger effect. The preliminary concentration of this study is placed upon the effect of specific individual cultural differences—collectivism/individualism and tightness/looseness—and not on the other dimensions of cultures (e.g., power distance level, uncertainty avoidance, degree of commitment, masculinity/femininity) because the features of cultural value in terms of collectivist-individualist nature could probably overlap, unless already encompassed, with the other perspectives of culture as mentioned before. For example, the collectivist tends to possess the following individual cultural values, e.g., high power distance, risk avoidance, degree of commitment, and femininity, while the individualist tends to possess the opposite end of the dimensions, e.g., low power distance, risk seeking, short term commitment, and masculinity.

Finally, although this study concentrates on the individual level since the proposed model focuses on a direct effect of supervisor's evaluation on the employee's proactivity, it is also interesting to make further investigation on the effect of tightness-looseness in organizational and societal levels on the relationship of employees' proactive behavior and supervisors' positive assessments. Therefore, the potential research implications to consider cultural tightness-looseness at the organizational and societal levels including other new topics for further study are also discussed in the last section of this report.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Employee's Proactive Behavior: Definitions, Contextual Framework, and Consequences

Definition and Dimensions

As competitiveness in the modern business world rises globally, organizations have become more attentive to proactive behavior of their personnel. Many recent studies have found that the current knowledge-based economy which is associated with knowledge intensive operations has determined that both organizations and their members were required to embrace more demands for empowerment, self-determination, opportunity awareness, initiative personality, collaboration (Parker and Wang, 2015; Strauss *et al.*, 2015; Wihler *et al.*, 2017), in order to attain success. Organizations favor employees with proactive manners for the purpose of developing initiation, creative ideas, innovativeness, and advancements in the job tasks. Additionally, they imply that proactivity of personnel will be more appreciated and awarded, due to the change of the business toward the customer-centric paradigm (Campbell, 2000; Frese and Fay, 2001).

Many scholars and researchers have developed and integrated the theory of proactive behavior. Fryer and Payne (1984) defined proactive behavior as behavior where an individual decides to initiate, intercede or perceive situations in a certain sense that allows such a person (agent) to

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act in valued directions instead of responding inertly to change. While Bateman and Crant (1993) defined proactive behavior as actions that affect changes, other researchers assert that proactive behavior is anticipatory and forward looking (Frese, 2006; Frese *et al.*, 1996; Grant and Ashford, 2008). Furthermore, Parker *et al.* (2006) added the favorable traits of proactivity and personal initiative into an integrated conceptualization of proactive behavior. Grant and Ashford (2008) have built their definition of proactivity upon Parker's conceptualization and define proactive behavior as anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments.

By this definition, the unique dimensions of proactive behavior are differentiated from other behaviors in two aspects—proactive behavior is acting in advance and has specific intended impact (Grant and Ashford, 2008). Proactive behavior is future-focused (Frese and Fay, 2001), mindful (Langer, 1989; Sternberg, 2000; Weick and Roberts, 1993), and change-oriented (Bateman and Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). The phases of the proactivity process are shown in Figure 2.

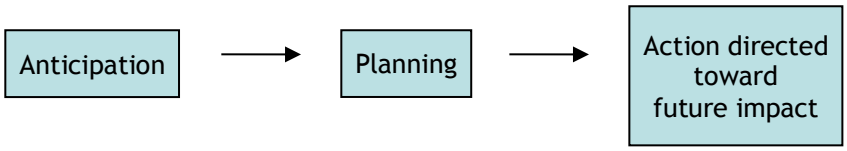


Figure 2. Phases of the Proactivity Process

Contextual Framework of Proactive Behavior

Proactive behavior can be categorized differently according to the form or context in which it is carried out. Crant (2000) integrated and described the contextual framework of employee's proactive behavior in six domains: socialization, feedback seeking, issue selling, innovation, career management, and stress management. On the other hand, other streams of research have studied certain behaviors of proactivity developing in particular disciplines or within a limited domain. Helping (affiliative-promotive) and voice (challenging-promotive) are the two types of proactive behaviors that are described in the work of Van Dyne et al. (1995,1998). They interpreted helping as a collective action that highlights a small act of thoughtfulness and is incontrovertible, and voice was interpreted as a promotive action that highlights expression of beneficial challenge destined to develop instead of mere criticism. In much the same way, Grant and Ashford (2008) proposed two context-specific types of proactive behavior—social network-building (SNB) and feedback-seeking (FSB) behaviors. While SNB refers to anticipatory actions with future focus in building interpersonal ties in a proactive manner and connections with others (Morrison, 1993a, 1993b), FSB refers to voluntary behaviors in which employees engage to obtain information and evaluations (Ashford and Cummings, 1983, 1985). They then concluded that SNB which is the desire to benefit others and often trigger proactive helping is highly possible to be simulated by close interpersonal relationships (Grant, 2007; Rioux and Penner, 2001; Settoon and Mossholder, 2002), whereas FSB which is the intention to improve a person's own performance and often encourage feedback-seeking is likely to be simulated by insufficient information, upcoming evaluations, or promotion opportunities (Ashford et al., 2003).

Hence, since these two types of proactive behavior are distinguishable and will generate various consequences due to the dissimilarity in cultural values and perspectives of the

supervisor, we would categorize the proactive personality of an employee into two noteworthy ways—(1) proactive behavior to offer help and building social network and (2) proactive behavior to display high levels of initiative, persistence, and self-discipline. The first category focuses on creating and maintaining the interpersonal ties and being affiliative while the second one focus on personal improvement and being self-promotive. Moreover, helping is not only constructing and upholding relationship but also emphasizing interactive synchronization (Van Dyne et al., 1995; 1998). The proactive behavior to display high level of initiative, persistence, and self-discipline is initiating innovativeness for development and suggesting advancements to conventional processes even when other parties dissent (Van Dyne et al., 1995; 1998),

Consequences of Proactive Behavior

Today, the chances of dealing with inexplicit and unforeseen matters, that are not prescribed or expected in task descriptions or any other pronouncements or guidance related to assigned jobs, are higher; and therefore, employees are necessitated to be proactive and collaborative (Joo and Benette, 2018). Many research studies have shown that employees who proactively undertake task, by being helpful or taking initiation, will get penalized or rewarded based on how other parties assess their proactive behavior (Ashford et al., 2003; Williams *et al.*, 1999). Generally, if the employee's proactive action is viewed as beneficial to the organization or interpersonal relationships, the reward reinforcement or positive outcomes will result (Grant and Ashford, 2008). Employees who express their proactive behavior by offering help to the others, displaying more effort, initiation, persistence, and self-governing will result in positive outcomes such as higher evaluator ratings, including more rewards and promotions (Van Scotter et al., 2000).

Meanwhile, employees' proactive behavior may receive negative response or even punishment if such behavior is perceived as causing harm to the organization (Elangovan and Shapiro, 1998; Greenberg, 1990, 1997, 2002; Hollinger and Clark, 1983; Holtfreter, 2005; Ivancevich *et al*, 2003). However, since this study focuses on the influence of the supervisors' cultural dimensions on the level of positive evaluation that they may have for their employees' proactive behavior, we verify the effect of proactive behavior that are categorized as being beneficial to the organization.

Supervisor's Favorable Evaluation

Previous studies pointed out that many firms employ either one of objective and subjective measures, or both, in evaluation of employees' performance (Ittner and Larcker, 1998; Ittner, Larcker, and Meyer, 2003; Luft, 2009; Van der Stede, Chow, and Lin, 2006; Dai, Kuang, and Tang, 2016). This study focuses on the subjective assessment measures considering that these measures can be affected by the evaluator's personal values. The subjective evaluation measures are based upon attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of the evaluator (Woods, 2012), while objective measures are independent of the evaluator's personal values as these measures are assessed quantitatively or numerically (Woods, 2012). Moreover, the former evaluation measures are more qualitative and require more evaluator's involvements, such as assessing the employees' performance from fieldwork observations, interviews, etc. (Patton, 1990; Park, Chun and Lee, 2016). Due to the expertise in the related field, supervisors are ones of the most suitable persons to judge over the employees' performance when it comes to field specific evaluation (Hocevar, 1981). The assessments of supervisors are subjective (Park, Chun and Lee, 2016) as it depends on his/her perspectives on the employees' performance. Numbers of past

studies recognized that supervisor's ratings could potentially be influenced or biased by his/her demographic characteristics, preferences, social desirability and other personal values (Madjar et al., 2002; Gilson, Mathieu, Shalley, and Ruddy, 2005). The personal values, such as cultural background, feelings, etc., of supervisors could affect the perspectives over the employees which associate with the subjective evaluation measures. For instance, a conservative supervisor might not be satisfied with the performance results of a progressive employee just because he/she possesses different views and beliefs. Therefore, the supervisor's favorable evaluation in this study refers to the positive supervisor's rating on employees' performance in terms of subjective measures.

The Effect of Cultural Differences: Individual Cultural Values and Cultural Tightness-Looseness

Since large and middle organizations seek business opportunities globally, it is crucial for these organizations to attract personnel from different cultures. Every culture has a variety of environmental impulses, such as a structure of shared perspectives and denotations of value related to customs, rationalities, pragmatics, educational provisions and so forth, which shape the mind of the individual (Yama, 2018). While organizations enter into a global or multicultural environment by employing manpower from various cultures, cultural dissimilarity within an organization is another important factor that warrants our attention. As previously mentioned, the impact of a supervisor's cultural differences that might affect the relationship between the employee's proactive behavior and the supervisor's favorable assessment is little known although the positive relationship between the individual's proactivity and supervisor's evaluation is supported in many studies (Grant and Ashford, 2008; Seibert et al., 1999; 2001; Thompson, 2005). Whereas a primary goal of this article is to extend research on the various effects of individual cultural values—collectivism or individualism—and the cultural tightness-looseness, the definitions of each constructs and how the two individual cultural values and aspect of cultural tightness-looseness are crucial will be discussed in the following section.

Cultural Values: Independence/Individualism and Interdependence/Collectivism

Cultures are distinguished by a cumulative psychological system, the collection of cultural processes and impressions that result in exclusive thinking and observing phenomena (Hofstede, 1980; Yamaguchi, 1993). Not only do cultural values guide the behaviors of group members but they also define the rationality of group standards (Adler, 1997; Buttery and Holt, 2000; Trompenaars, 1993; Ravlin and Meglino, 1987). Cultural value is a construct that is generally used to explicate how people from a certain system of culture would behave in a specific circumstance. According to Hofstede's seminal cultural study framework (1980), collectivist culture is distinguished by its presiding value of culture dominated by interdependency, while individualist culture is distinguished by its presiding value of culture dominated by independency where group requirements acquire less priority and value than individual needs (Hofstede, 1994; Mendenhall et al., 1995). Yama (2018) stated that a person's individualistic or collectivistic cultural distinction has long been proposed as an explanation for different human behaviors. For instance, people from eastern countries, who possess collectivist cultural traits, prefer to be more sociable and interdependent than those from western countries, who possess individualist cultural traits.

Furthermore, the study by Markus and Kitayama (1991) proposed that individuals from different cultures would have notably varied constructs of themselves, of others, and of the interdependency of others. Also, they inserted that these constructs can vary or, in several cases, determine the true essence of the individuals' experiences, including motivation, cognition, and emotion. Thus, they speculate that collectivists will possess a higher sense of belonging and interconnectivity with their social groups, whereas individualists will be less attentive to the social situations and more attentive to personal control, autonomous nature, and a desire to show their internal attributes to develop their uniqueness among other parties. Minkov, et al., (2017) concludes that a key element of dispute over individualism and collectivism in general is the level of societal freedom (e.g., the strength religious paradigms) on the grounds of conformism.

In conformity with various schools of thought, collectivistic or interdependent people consider themselves as an entity or a part of a group and prioritize group objectives over personal objectives, behave in accordance with social paradigms, and focus to build robust ties in the group. In contrast, people with high individualistic natures consider themselves as independent parties and being self-determined, put emphasis on their objectives, proceed on their beliefs and values, prefer to follow their own attitudes instead of social paradigms, and pay more attention to task results (Hofstede, 1991; Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Triandis 1995).

Cultural Tightness-Looseness

Although the majority of cross-cultural organizational research studies focuses attention on the individual cultural values to explain cultural differences (Morris et al., 1998; Smith and Schwartz, 1997), recognition is growing for a new perspective focusing on external norms and constraints; and therefore, a cross-level cultural construct of tightness-looseness, may be needed to supplement this approach (Gelfand *et al*, 2006). The construct of tightness-looseness is considered to be important in differentiating cultures (Chan *et al*., 1996; Pelto, 1968; Triandis, 1989) since it is a crucial yet overlooked dimension of cultural variation (Triandis, 1989) which is established as the strength of social paradigms and the punishment level within a society (Gelfand *et al.*, 2006).

Tightness-looseness is different from individualism-collectivism (Carpenter, 2000; Chan *et al.*, 1996; Triandis, 1989). As mentioned above, the individualism-collectivism cultural value refers to the degree to which the people in societies focus on having robust relationships within groups versus being self-governed and looking after oneself (Hofstede, 1980), and it does not refer to the strengths of social standards—how prevalent social standards are—or to the strengths of sanctioning— the degree of tolerance for variation from standards within societies (Gelfand *et al*., 2006).

In brief, Gelfand *et al.* (2006) propose that individuals who socialize in a loose society will feel less of a sense of accountability; have more of a self-promotion focus; be less attentive to inconsistencies from norms; and tend to enact behavior characteristics of deviance, risk taking, and forthrightness to change. Felt accountability (Frink and Klimoski, 1998, 2004; Tetlock, 1985) is defined as a subjective experience that the actions of a person are subject to evaluation and that there are possible penalties according to these assessments. On the contrary, they also predict that individuals who socialize in a tight society will possess greater levels of felt accountability and a prevention regulatory focus (emphasize on not making mistakes); be more

attentive to inconsistencies from norms; and tend to enact behaviors characteristics of harmony, risk avoidance, and stability seeking. Another related concept of cultural looseness is indulgence, pleasure of basic and natural human motives associated with enjoyment of life and having fun versus cultural tightness with restriction, the oppression and regulation of desire to fulfill the needs rigid social norms (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010); although tightness in culture does not opposed to enjoying life (Uz, 2015).

Although the proposed model in this paper will emphasize the individual level of analysis, the model of tightness-looseness is multileveled by nature. Gelfand *et al.* (2006) explain that a number of underlying meta-theoretical themes become obvious in the model of being tight or loose. Firstly, tightness and looseness are differentiated by the extent of accountability (Tetlock, 1985; 2002) that presents at the societal and organizational levels, and the degree of "felt accountability" (Frink and Klimoski, 1998) that presents at the individual level. Secondly, tightness-looseness is related to the measure of variance at different levels in societies. They suggest that the strength of norms and monitoring in tight societies generally presents itself in higher socially shared cognition and similarity in behavior among individuals, higher culture strength and alignment in organizations, and greater institutional pressures, and hence, similarity within organizations, in comparison to loose-societies. Thirdly, tightness-looseness is assumed to have quasi-isomorphic effects across levels of analysis. While key findings related to tightness include order and effectiveness, harmony, and less change, those related with looseness consist of social disorganization, deviance, innovation, and openness to change. Lastly, a key theme that encompasses the tightness-looseness model is the notion of adaptation—organizations adapting to the society, and individuals adapting to societies and organizations (Gelfand *et al.*, 2006).

A THEORETICAL MODEL OF MODERATING EFFECTS OF INDIVIDUAL'S CULTURAL DIFFERENCE

Moderating Effect of Supervisor's Individual Cultural Values

Provision and perception of proactive behavior in offering help to others and building social network are derived from an individual's extrinsic and intrinsic value of the collectivists (Rakthin, 2015). It is controversial since the action of helping could be perceived as a part of social paradigms, it may be of little intrinsic value and may be viewed as a behavior to implement the employee's responsibilities. Nevertheless, for many generations, the actions of helping and repaying are considered as acceptable actions that will create opportunity for team success and enable groups to uphold social compatibility among people in highly collectivistic nations (e.g., Japan, China, Korea, Thailand). Moreover, since the collectivistic person will possess a strong sense of interconnectedness, the employee who expresses the tendency to engage in building networks in society, creating close interrelations and sense of belonging will likely to be appreciated by the supervisor whose cultural value is collectivistic. Thus, we propose the following:

P1: Favorable evaluation by the supervisor for the employee who offers help to others and builds social network will be stronger if the supervisor's collectivism is high.

On the contrary, provision and perception of proactive actions in showing greater levels of initiative, persistence, and self-discipline should be derived from the individual's extrinsic and intrinsic value of the individualist culture or, in other terms, of the less collectivistic culture (Rakthin, 2015). Markus and Kitayama (1991) pointed out that individualists set themselves as

substantially independent and this philosophy motivates them to strive to show their internal qualities in creating uniqueness from others. Hence, proactive behaviors in showing self-discipline, persistence, and a great initiative level or creativity could be regarded as special qualities of oneself and could be helpful to an organization, thereby increasing the possibility of receiving a positive assessment given by the supervisor. Nonetheless, these actions may be less appreciated if the supervisor or evaluator has a stronger collectivistic cultural value since exposing uniqueness by being persistent or engaging in high self-discipline may also portray a signal of not being consistent with the social paradigms or disjointed from the ingroup. Thus, we offer the following proposition:

P2:Favorable evaluation by the supervisor for the employee who displays high levels of initiative, persistence, and self-discipline will be stronger if the supervisor's collectivism is low.

Moderating Effect of Supervisor's Cultural Tightness-Looseness

According to Gelfand *et al.* (2006), individuals who socialize in tight society will have higher felt accountability and a prevention regulatory focus (focus on not making mistakes), will be more attentive to discrepancies from norms, and tend to enact behavior characteristics of conformity, risk avoidance, and stability seeking. On the other hand, individuals who socialize in a society with lower levels of tightness tend to enact behavior characteristics of deviance from norms, risk seeking, and openness to change. Since the provision of helping each other and building an interpersonal network is an integral part of social norms in tight society, the employee who offers help and builds social network will be valued if the supervisor is socialized in this type of society. The reason is that the supervisor will justify these helping and building networks activities as conforming to social norms. In addition, the supervisors in this case will be assured that if they provide more favorable evaluations to employees who present helping behavior, it is unlikely that they will be punished or sanctioned by their upper executives since these types of proactive behaviors have long been viewed and perceived as acceptable and appropriate actions in tight societies.

Likewise, since the individuals in loose or less tight societies will have lower felt accountability (e.g., low accessibility of normative requirements) and more openness to change, they tend to care less about the impact of deviance from norms (Gelfand *et al.*, 2006). As a result, these individuals tend to establish shared norms that emphasize flexibility, experimentation, and risk taking. With these characteristics comes less fear for potential punishments, the supervisor who is socialized in loose or less tight society is likely to offer more favorable evaluation of employees who proactively present their persistence, self-discipline, and initiative or creativity including other unique contributions to the organization. Thus, the following propositions 3 and 4 illustrate the above-mentioned relationship:

P3:Favorable evaluation by the supervisor for the employee who offers help to others and builds social network will be stronger if the supervisor is socialized in higher tight society.

P4:Favorable evaluation by the supervisor for the employee who displays high levels of initiative, persistence, and self-discipline will be stronger if the supervisor is socialized in lower tight society.

Cross-Dimensions Analysis of Moderating Effects

Although collectivism-individualism and tightness-looseness are likely to be interrelated because of several factors (Triandis, 1989), Gelfand *et al.* (2006) argue that cultural values of collectivism-individualism and tightness-looseness are not identical due to their different antecedents and that the collectivism-individualism model does not refer to how pervasive social norms are or to how much space there is for deviance from social norms (Carpenter, 2000; Chan *et al.*, 1996). Carpenter (2000) also suggests that causal attributions for failure were found to be more external for more collective cultures, but no relationship between failure attributions and cultural tightness was determined. Internal causes are those causes attributed to characteristics of individuals or groups, such as dispositions or personality traits, whereas external causes are those causes attributed to situational constraints or to contextual factors (Carpenter, 2000). According to this rationale, people with higher collectivism than individualism are more likely to associate failure to external causes since collectivists focus on the group and factors external to self while the individualists focus on the self as the origin of behavior (Carpenter, 2000). Furthermore, Carpenter (2000) suggests that since the individual in tight cultures is required to be normative, failures and negative behaviors might be attributed to individuals' or subgroups' choices to engage in nonnormative behaviors; thus, attributions for negative behavior might be more internal than external. Nevertheless, Carpenter's (2000) study summarizes that the relation between failure attributions and cultural tightness is not explicitly presented. With these concepts of relationship between cultural tightness and collectivism and causal attributions for failure as specified above, we propose the following:

P5:Favorable evaluation by the supervisor for the employee who offers help to others and builds social network will be stronger for the supervisor who is more collectivistic and socialized in higher tight society.

P6:Favorable evaluation by the supervisor for the employee who displays high levels of initiative, persistence, and self-discipline will be stronger for the supervisor who is less collectivistic and socialized in lower tight society.

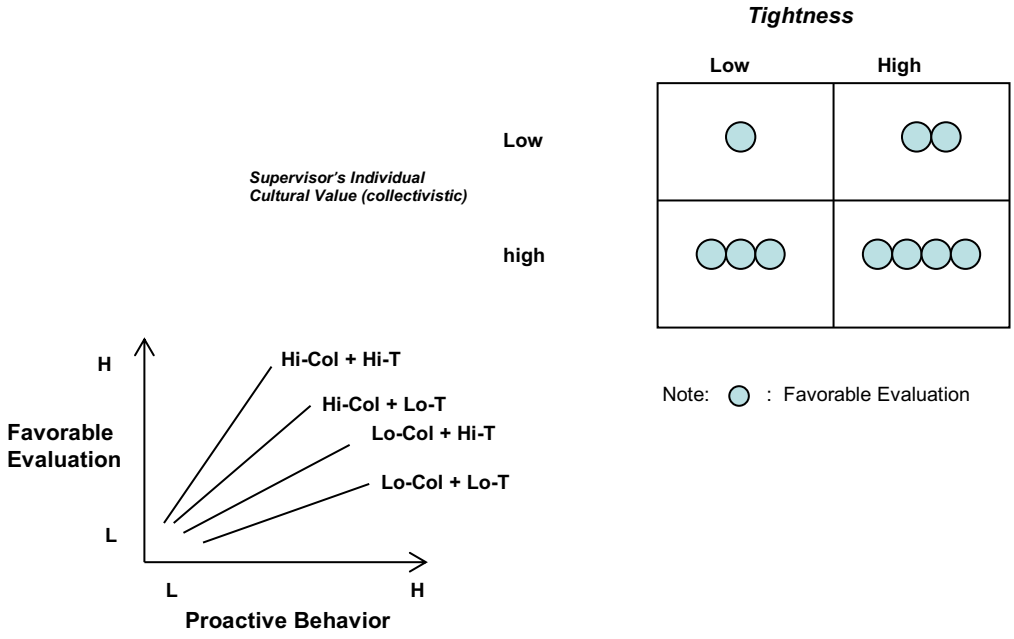
Since the result of supervisors' evaluation on employees' performance is associated with their own potential success or failure as management in their higher executives' viewpoints, the supervisors are likely to be bias towards the behaviors that they feel more comfortable to provide favorable evaluation to avoid negative impact to themselves as capable managers. For example, supervisors who are more collectivistic and socialized in higher tight societies will provide more favorable evaluations for employees who offer help to others and build social networks since these types of behaviors are consistent with their social values and norms and will be less likely to cause negative feedback or any "failure" to their management capability in their executives' perception. Likewise, supervisors who are less collectivistic (or more individualistic) and socialized in less tight (or looser) society will provide more favorable evaluations for employees who display high levels of initiative, persistence, and self-discipline since these types of behavior are consistent with their self-concept values and they have less fear about the impact of deviance from norms. These concepts support Propositions 5 and 6.

However, when comparing the effects of supervisor'' cultural values of collectivism versus cultural tightness on the relation of the supervisors' positive evaluations of employees' proactive behavior, we propose that the collectivism has a stronger impact. Since the result of any favorable or unfavorable evaluations on employees' proactive behavior conducted by

supervisors is also a part of the supervisors' performance indicator as capable managers, it is likely that the cultural values of collectivism will have a stronger effect on supervisors' decisions than cultural tightness would have. According to Carpenter (2000), the intuition that supports this pattern could be that supervisors who are more collectivistic may associate the failure that might happen to their provision of favorable evaluation to employees' proactive behavior with the external factors. Therefore, they will have less fear for potential punishment (from the result of such evaluations) than supervisors in tight cultures.

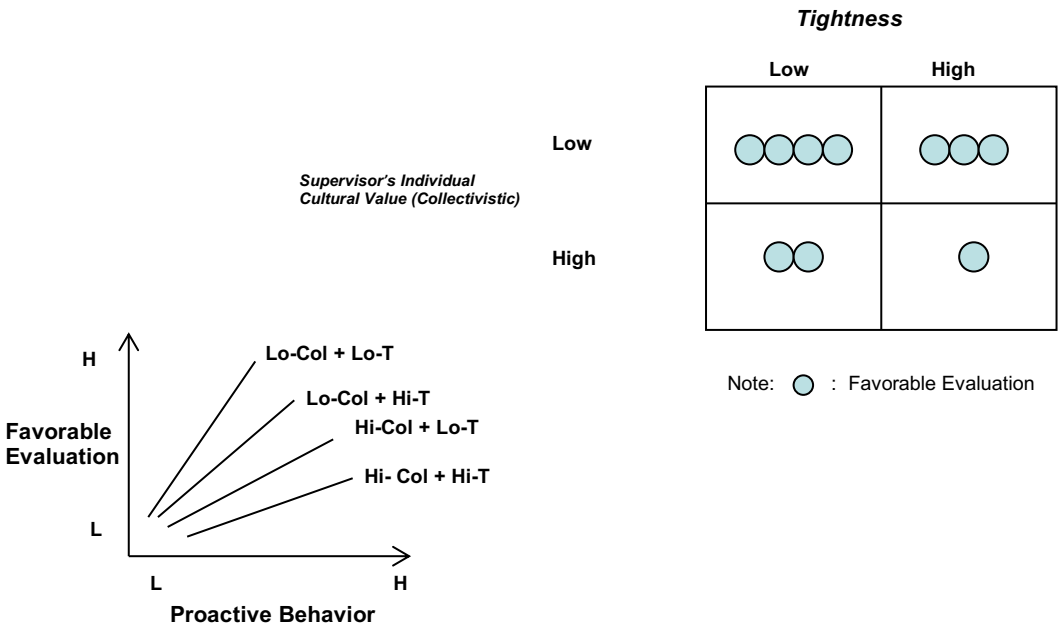
For instance, the supervisor who is individually characterized as collectivistic and tight (i.e., the one who is socialized in Japanese society) may feel more comfortable to provide more favorable evaluation to the employee who offers help than the supervisor who is characterized as collectivistic and loose (i.e., the one who is socialized in Brazilian society). Similarly, the supervisor who is individually characterized as individualistic and loose (i.e., the one who is socialized in U.S. society), may feel more comfortable to provide more favorable evaluation to the employee who displays initiative than the supervisor who is characterized as individualistic and tight (i.e., the one who is socialized in German society). Thus, we propose the following:
P7:The effect of supervisor's cultural values on the relationship between the employee's proactive behavior and favorable evaluation by the supervisor will be stronger than that of the cultural tightness-looseness.

Finally, we show the form of the interaction of the employee's proactive behavior in offering help and cultural values and dimensions on the supervisor's favorable evaluation in Figure 3. The figure shows the relationship between proactive behavior and favorable evaluation when the individual cultural values of collectivism and tightness are high and low.



Note: Col: Supervisor's collectivistic cultural value; T: Tightness; Lo: Low; Hi: High
Figure 3. Interactive effects of proactive behavior in offering help and collectivism/tightness on the favorable evaluation

On the contrary, the form of the interaction of the employee's proactive behavior in displaying initiative and cultural values and dimensions on the supervisor's favorable evaluation is shown in Figure 4. The figure also shows the relationship between proactive behavior and favorable evaluation when the individual cultural value of collectivism and tightness are high and low.



Note: Col: Supervisor's collectivistic cultural value; T: Tightness; Lo: Low; Hi: High
Figure 4. Interactive effects of proactive behavior in displaying initiative and collectivism/tightness on the favorable evaluation

In summary, consistent with Propositions 1, 3, 5, and 7, Figure 3 shows that the relationship between employees' proactive behavior in offering help and favorable evaluation is strongest if the supervisor possesses a high level of collectivism and tightness. Similarly, consistent with Propositions 2, 4, 6, and 7, Figure 4 shows that the relationship between employees' proactive behavior in displaying initiative and favorable evaluation is strongest if the supervisor possesses a low level of collectivism and tightness.

IMPLICATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This article has provided a theoretical model for evaluating the influence of cultural perspectives or dimensions upon the link between employees' proactive behavior and positive evaluations by supervisors. The preliminary focus on the effect of supervisors' cultural difference—collectivism/individualism and tightness/looseness—on such relationships limits the generalizability of the results, which may be applicable for other aspects of cultures (e.g., power distance, uncertainty avoidance, long/short term commitment, masculinity/femininity). Despite the fact that the characteristics of collectivistic/individualistic dimensions may overlap with the other dimensions as previously specified, it is nevertheless intriguing to investigate whether other disparate or combined cultural dimensions may affect the strength of the

relationship between employees' proactive actions and the favorable assessment by supervisors.

In addition, since the objective of the paper is to study the moderating effects on the favorable evaluation which is conducted by supervisors on employees' past or current proactive behaviors, the study does not include the effect of cultural dimensions or other factors on employees' proactive behavior. Despite the fact that this does not cause any impact to the proposed model since this effect is irrelevant to the evaluation made by supervisors, it would be helpful from an organizational behavior aspect to examine the employees' particular behavior concerning their predilection for proactive action that might be prompted by the effect of supervisors' cultural dissimilarity. Since proactive behavior is an anticipatory action, employees' keenness on their proactive action (in the sense of both context and intensity) will be affected by the outcome of supervisors' assessments, which may be biased by their cultural dissimilarity. Therefore, employees may consciously scheme to act proactively in a way that will strategically express their extra-role performances that match the dissimilarity in supervisors' precedence. Moreover, this study is limited to supervisor favorable performance evaluation as the outcome of proactive behavior. Therefore, different outcomes of proactive behavior, such as coworker helping, organizational citizenship behavior, career success, etc., are required to consider in the further studies to be more comprehensive.

Furthermore, since the study concentrated on the individual level even though tightness-looseness is a cross-level dimension of cultural variations, another promising direction for future research would be to determine the effect of tightness-looseness in organizational and societal levels on the relationship between employees' proactive behavior and favorable evaluations by supervisors. For instance, if supervisors who are both collectivistic and socialized in tight societies have been transferred to work in new "loose" organizational and societal environments, will this affect their mindset when evaluating employees' proactive behavior? Will these supervisors still value a "help" behavior over the "initiative" behavior or will they adapt their actions according to the new situational factors? Moreover, gender identity of proactive employers could be another factor to consider in future studies since it might vary the supervisors' perspective on employees and may implicitly affect favorable assessment by supervisors.

In conclusion, this study is a link between an employee's proactivity and the individual cultural dissimilarity of the supervisor. The propositions advise moderating factors on the relation of the employee's proactive behavior and the positive assessment received from the supervisor by establishing various impacts of the supervisor's cultural perspectives on various contexts of employee's proactive action. It is a unique concept and concurrently, it is homogeneous with the intuition of most scholars and with the rational implications of organizations in modern global business management. The propositional inventory of this study depicts a distinct connection between the individual cultural perspectives or values and the extent of the supervisor's positive assessment upon the employee's proactivity. However, the purpose of this study is theory building rather than theory testing. More empirical works need to be conducted. If future empirical findings support the previously stated propositions, the information for practitioners will be more specific. In the other words, comprehension of how supervisors' assessment on employees' proactive behaviors might be distorted by the variation in supervisors' individual cultural perspectives would benefit the organization to efficiently

manage employees' proactive behavior in a way that corresponds to their corporate strategies, goals, and competitive environment.

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