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Original Article

Antecedents and Consequences of Proactive Work Behavior Among Thai Employees

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Abstract

This study aimed to identify antecedents and consequences of proactive work behavior among Thai employees. Three new antecedents (i.e., psychological empowerment, organizational identification, and relationship with supervisor), and two positive work-related outcomes (i.e., work-life balance and career satisfaction) were included in the research model. Moreover, this study tested causal relationships among these variables. The sample consisted of 1,161 persons working in public and private organizations in Bangkok Metropolitan Region and Chiang Mai Province of Thailand. As predicted, psychological empowerment (γ = .54, p < .001), organizational identification (γ = .25, p < .001), and relation with supervisor (γ = .09, p = .002) are related to proactive work behavior as its antecedents. The results indicate that proactive work behavior influences work-life balance (β = .11, p = .017) and career satisfaction (β = .17, p < .001). In addition, proactive work behavior acts as a mediator between these antecedents and work-related outcomes. These findings offer implications for promoting proactivity in organizations including enhancing employees' sense of empowerment at work, facilitating employees' perceptions of organizational identification, and fostering better quality of supervisor-subordinate relationships.

Business organizations nowadays are facing an increasingly dynamic and complex environment which is characterized by volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity (VUCA). This environment demands that organizations must react quickly to ongoing changes that are unpredictable and uncontrollable (Choyon, 2021). In addition, organizations have adopted artificial intelligence and robotic process automation to streamline routine but important tasks to reduce human errors. These new technologies enable increasing organizations' competitiveness and improving financial outcomes (Siderska, 2021).

These rapid changes force organizations to adapt their management strategies in order to maximize organizational efficiency and effectiveness. Organizations must also respond quickly and flexibly to ambiguous and uncertain environments. As a result, a traditional management style that requires employees to obey instructions without question is no more suitable for new business environments. In contrast, a new management style provides opportunities for employees to involve in decision making, create new ideas, and initiate new ways of doing things (Parker & Bindl, 2017). Recent research by the McKinsey Global Institute (Dondi et al., 2021) indicates that in order to thrive in the future of work, employees need to acquire "self-leadership" skills such as driving change and innovation, ownership and decisiveness, and coping with uncertainty. In other words, employees need to exhibit proactive work behavior (PWB) which refers to self-initiated, active, and future-oriented actions that intend to change the current situation before a problem emerges (Parker & Bindl, 2017). Research showed that PWB leads to positive individual and organizational outcomes, such as job performance, career success, team effectiveness, and organizational success (Bindl & Parker, 2011), sales performance (Mallin et al., 2014), and innovation performance (Segarra-Ciprés et al., 2019).

Given the vital role played by PWB, scholars have pursued to indicate its antecedents. Prior studies have identified a number of antecedents related to individual factors, e.g., openness to experiences (Wu et al., 2011), conscientiousness and proactive personality (Tornau & Frese, 2013).

Several contextual factors have also found to influence PWB, for example, organizational climate (Caniëls & Baaten, 2018), leader support (Wu & Parker, 2016), and job control/autonomy (Tornau & Frese, 2013). Furthermore, Bindl and Parker (2011) offered a model that includes mediators (e.g., goals and aspirations, perceived capability) as a linking mechanism between antecedents and PWB. Several studies on PWB have also been conducted in Thailand. Smithikrai and Suwannadet (2018) investigated university staff and found that authentic leadership positively influenced PWB. Another study explored 608 Thai employees working in public and private organizations and found that positive orientation, career satisfaction, attitude toward organization, and work engagement are significant predictors of PWB (Smithikrai, 2019). Furthermore, a recent study also suggested that self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation have positive impacts on PWB of generation Y operational staffs in the automotive industry (Worawattanaparinya, 2020).

Although past research has examined the influence of psychological empowerment (e.g., Zhang et al., 2018), organizational identification (e.g., Chen et al., 2019) and LMX (e.g., Chiaburu et al., 2014) on proactive work behavior and also its influence on work-life balance (e.g., Kumar & Mokashi, 2020) and careers satisfaction (e.g., Joo & Ready, 2012), research has yet to examine a theoretical model that includes these important variables. Furthermore, there remains a critical need to investigate antecedents and consequences of PWB in Thai context. This is because most studies were conducted in western context. Since culture profoundly influences macro and micro-organizational behavior (Boyacigilier & Adler, 1991), and differences in societal culture may affect employees' proactive work behaviors (Urbach et al., 2020). Questions, therefore, remain as to what extent the western findings on relationships between these antecedents and PWB generalize to other cultures. To the best of the author's knowledge, there is no research in Thailand that examines a causal relationship among these variables. Thus, this study will help us to understand the linking mechanism between antecedents and consequences of PWB.

The objectives of the present study, therefore, are to expand previous research in three ways. First, this study aims to identify antecedents and consequences of PWB in Thai context. It investigates three new antecedents of PWB (i.e., psychological empowerment, organizational identification, and relationship with supervisor), and two possible consequences of PWB (i.e., work-life balance and career satisfaction). Second, it studies the patterns of relationships between these antecedents and consequences of PWB among Thai employees. Third, it tests a causal relationship among these variables. The findings will provide implications for human resource management in Thai context, and also contribute to organizational efficiency and effectiveness. Furthermore, knowledge of how these antecedents influence PWB and its consequences might assist organizations in creating new programs and interventions to develop employees' PWB.

Literature Review

Antecedents of Proactive Work Behavior

Proactive work behavior refers to self-initiated, active, and future-oriented behaviors that intend to change and improve the current situation before a problem emerges (Parker & Bindl, 2017). In other words, proactivity is a manifestation of human agency to gain mastery over the environment. Scholars have suggested that PWB is not an 'extra-role' behavior, but rather is an active behavior that involves anticipating and creating a new future (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

In an early review, Crant (2000) identified individual differences (e.g., proactive personality, need for achievement) as well as contextual factors (e.g., organizational culture and norms) as antecedents of PWB. Later, Bindl and Parker (2011) presented a model that takes into account mediation processes in the relationship between antecedents and PWB. They suggested that individual factors (e.g., readiness to change) and situational factors (e.g., job autonomy, leadership) might be antecedents of PWB. They also integrated motivational processes (e.g., perceived capability) as linking mechanism between antecedents and PWB. Recently, on the basis of a review of 95 articles, Parker et al. (2019) identified three categories of factors that influence the effectiveness of PWB: (1) task and strategic considerations (e.g., job autonomy), (2) social and relational considerations (e.g., supervisors' openness to suggestions,), and (3) self-regulatory considerations (e.g., positive self-views).

For the present study, the proactive motivation model (Parker et al., 2010) was used as a theoretical framework. This model proposed that both

individual differences and the work context affect individuals' proactive motivational states (i.e., "can do", "reason to", and "energized to" motivation) which, in turn, affect proactive goal process. The "can do" motivation focused on expectancy, such as self-efficacy and control appraisal ("Can I do it?"). The "reason to" motivation relates to why individuals engage in proactivity ("Why should I do it?"). The "energized to" motivation involves the affect-related states that influence proactive behavior, such as positive feelings of enthusiasm.

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment (PE) should be related to the "can do" motivation. This is because PE represents individuals' active orientation to their work role, in which empowered individuals believe that they can affect work situation by their actions (Spreitzer, 1995). Scholars have defined PE as increased intrinsic motivation manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Congruence between the requirements of a job role and an individual's beliefs, values, and behaviors is referred to as meaning. Competence is an individual's confidence in one's ability to do tasks successfully. Self-determination refers to an individual's sense of autonomy in initiating and continuing work behaviors and processes. The extent to which an individual's work can influence strategic, administrative, or operational outcomes at work is referred to as impact (Spreitzer, 1995). It is suggested that psychological empowerment is a concept that describes individuals' active attitude to their job roles, in which empowered individuals perceive their work environment as something they can alter through their actions (Spreitzer, 1995). Thus, individuals who are psychologically empowered are internally motivated to complete their tasks. Prior research has showed that that PE was positively correlated with job performance and unit effectiveness (Hassan et al., 2018), and work engagement (Gong et al., 2020). Furthermore, researchers have suggested that PE plays an important role in promoting PWB such as innovative behavior (Pieterse et al., 2009), creative process engagement (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), and feedback seeking (Huang, 2012). Thus, the first hypothesis is:

H1: PE will positively predict PWB.

Organizational Identification

Organizational identification (OI) should be related to the "reason to" motivation in the model of proactive motivation. OI occurs when employees perceive oneness with their organization and feel that they belong to it (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). In other words, it indicates to the extent to which employees perceive themselves to be part of a specific organization. Thus, it is likely that employees who identify themselves with their organization will become oneness with the organization such that acting on behalf of the organization is identical to acting on behalf of themselves. Conceptually, OI stems from the social identity perspective which argues that individuals tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories such as organizational membership, political group, and religious affiliation (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Nonetheless, the focus of this study is on the organizational context, which is a type of social identification in which individuals define themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Prior research has suggested that identity cues such as prestige of an organization and distinctiveness of organizational values (Ashforth et al., 2008) can facilitate the development of OI.

According to Hogg and Terry (2000), individuals identify themselves with a specific organization because of two fundamental needs, i.e., uncertainty reduction and self-enhancement. The uncertainty reduction motive represents a person's need for order in the social world and is concerned with how a person creates his or her self-concept in order to understand one's identity. By identifying oneself with a social category, one has a better understanding of how to act and what to expect from the physical and social surroundings in which one finds oneself (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The self-enhancement motive, on the other hand, refers to an individual's attempt to think of his or her social identity in a positive way in order to increase self-esteem. An individual attempts to promote the perception that he or she is a valuable person through the identification process (Ashforth et al., 2008).

Theoretically, OI should have a positive impact on employees' PWB. This is because as employees feel proud to belong to the organization, they are more likely to be proactive in their jobs in order to achieve a higher level of performance and secure future of their organization. Previous research has found that OI positively related to productive

work behaviors, for example, in-role performance and extra-role performance (Lee et al., 2015), PWB (Chen et al., 2019), creativity (Hussain & Shahzad, 2019), job satisfaction and knowledge sharing behavior (Subba, 2019), employee performance and learning behavior (Chughtai & Buckley, 2010), and affective organizational commitment (Lee et al., 2015). Thus, the second hypothesis is:

H2: OI will positively predict PWB.

Relationship with Supervisor

The "energized to" motivation which involves positive feelings of individuals could occur when employees have a positive relationship with their supervisor, in which individuals feel enthusiastic to do their job and inspire to elevate their performance. In this study, relationship with supervisor (RWS) is the concept based on the leader-member exchange theory (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX theory asserts that leaders develop an individualized working relationship with each follower through a series of work-related exchanges, and essentially have different relationship qualities with each of their followers. Within an organizational work unit, followers receive work assignments and role expectations from their leaders. To the extent that followers meet these role expectations, leaders reciprocate by providing job autonomy, work-related resources, and challenging work assignments (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The quality of the leader-follower relationship is, therefore, based on how well subordinates work with their leaders. These leader-follower relationships can range from those based on an employment contract (low-quality exchanges) to those that include the exchange of both material and non-material goods and extend far beyond an employment contract (high-quality exchanges). In high-quality relationships, subordinates receive more information, influence, confidence, latitude, discretion, respect, support, feedback, rewards, career opportunities, and attractive work assignments (Van Breukelen et al., 2006). Scholars suggest that in high-quality leader-follower relationships, subordinates are trusted by their leaders and given more autonomy in their work processes. As a result, employees are more likely to contribute their ideas to the organization and commit their efforts to identifying and resolving problems. (Hammond et al., 2011).

Consequently, high-quality leader-follower relationship create psychological and behavioral resource conditions for employees to engage in their jobs with greater task motivation, more emotional support, and greater job autonomy (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These conditions are favorable for exhibiting proactive behavior. Researchers found that high-quality leader-member exchange produced several positive organizational outcomes, e.g., work engagement (Aggarwal et al., 2020), innovative behavior (Mulligan et al., 2021), safety citizenship behavior (Chen et al., 2021), and PWB (Chiaburu et al., 2014). Consequently, the third hypothesis is:

H3: RWS will positively predict PWB.

Consequences of Proactive Work Behavior

Work-Life Balance

In this study, WLB is defined as an individual's subjective evaluation of the fit between his/her work and non-work activities and life (Brough et al., 2014). This definition also assumes that WLB is a resource that individuals can gain or lose over time, and that assessing this resource is subjective and not always verifiable through external observation (Brough et al., 2014). According to Sturges (2012), an individual can increase WLB by actively crafting the work-life balance (e.g., creating clear distinctions between work and family related situations). Individuals who actively create a balance can fulfil both work and family demands, and they also create more opportunities for recovery, which benefits their well-being. Thus, work-life balance crafting is considered to be self-initiated (Kossek et al., 1999), proactive (Clark, 2000), and goal-oriented behavior (Parker et al., 2010). A recent study has also found that a positive correlation between PWB and WLB (Kumar & Mokashi, 2020). Furthermore, research has also found that active problem-focused coping, in which employees aim to reduce stressful situations (e.g., time management), and resource-increasing coping, in which employees try to find benefits and use proactive coping (e.g., proactive negotiations with one's supervisor or spouse), are both beneficial in reducing work-life conflicts and increasing work-life balance (Mauno et al., 2012). Therefore, fourth hypothesis is:

H4: PWB will positively predict WLB.

Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction (CS) refers to the degree to which employees believe their career progress is

aligned with their goals, values, and preferences (Feldman & Ng, 2007). As a result, CS encompasses individuals' reactions to actual and anticipated career-related achievements over a longer time span than ones' immediate job satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2000). It is likely that individuals with high levels of CS would feel that their works are worthwhile, useful and valuable.

According to Crant (2000), employees who exhibit highly proactive behavior have the ability to adapt, control, and/or create conducive environments. This situation helps employees achieving work-related goals and career success. It is also suggested that individuals who are proactive are more resourceful and are better at networking and leveraging their social capital than those who are less proactive (Thompson, 2005). In addition, because proactive people strive for challenges while working and improve a better person-job fit (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005), they are more likely to be satisfied with their career (Seibert et al., 1999). Empirically, a positive relationship between PWB and CS has been reported in several studies (e.g., Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Joo & Ready, 2012). Thus, the fifth hypothesis is:

H5: PWB will positively predict CS.

The Mediating Role of Proactive Work Behavior

The present study has argued that OI, RWS, and PE promote PWB, which in turn, increases positive work-related outcomes (i.e., WLB and CS). In other words, the present study has implicitly described a model in which PWB mediates relationships among its antecedents and positive work-related outcomes. Prior research has indicated that antecedents of PWB are correlated with various work-related outcomes. For example, it was found that OI was positively correlated with work-to-family enrichment (Zhang et al., 2012), job satisfaction (Carmeli et al., 2007), and extra-role behaviors (Lee et al., 2015). Similarly, RWS has positive relations with WLB (Smithikrai & Phetkham, 2019), CS (Joo & Ready, 2012), and safety citizenship behaviors (Chen et al., 2021). In addition, PE has positive effects on WLB and CS (Smithikrai & Phetkham, 2019).

Nonetheless, these influences of PE, OI, and RWS on work-related outcomes may be transmitted through PWB. It is likely that the more empowered employees feel, the more likely they are more proactive in their jobs. Similarly, employees who identify with their organization are more likely to act proactively in their jobs. In addition, employees with high-quality subordinate-supervisor relationships would feel energetic to do their job proactively. As a result, these employees will be able to create a balance between work and non-work activities, achieve work-related goals, and help their colleague if needed.

Building on these theoretical arguments, the current study proposes that PE, OI, and RWS enables employees to experience oneness with their organization, trust from their supervisor, and sense of autonomy in their jobs and thus begin to develop higher levels of PWB. This, in turn, increases positive work-related outcomes (i.e., WLB and CS). Prior studies have suggested that PWB is a mediator between perceived organizational support and career satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007). Studies also found that the effect of personal resources (i.e., self-efficacy, optimism, and social support) on life satisfaction is transmitted through proactive coping (Stanojević et al., 2013). In addition, Yamak and Eyupoglu (2021) found that the influence of authentic leadership (i.e., leaders who provide support for employees' self-determination) on service innovative behavior is partially mediated by proactive personality. In educational context, Bernabé et al. (2016) found that proactive behavior mediates the relationship between social identity and student engagement. Thus, based on previous empirical studies, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H6a: PWB will partially mediate the effect of PE on WLB.

H6b: PWB will partially mediate the effect of PE on CS.

H7a: PWB will partially mediate the effect of OI on WLB.

H7b: PWB will partially mediate the effect of OI on CS.

H8a: PWB will partially mediate the effect of RWS on WLB.

H8b: PWB will partially mediate the effect of RWS on CS.

Method

Design and Sample

The design of this study was a cross-sectional survey research. Since the emphasis of this study is theoretical, the composition of a sample is irrelevant. Consequently, any participants are qualified as

research subjects for fundamental research and theory testing (Bello et al., 2009). Convenience sampling was, therefore, used and should not produce any detrimental effects on the findings (Sternthal et al., 1994). The G*Power 3.1 program was used to calculate an adequate sample size for the study. The program reveals that a sample size of 174 can estimate medium effect sizes at 99% statistical levels (Faul et al., 2007). In order to recruit participants, contacts were made with a range of public and private organizations, including public schools, police offices, private hospitals, and hotels. Research instruments were distributed in booklet form, along with a cover-letter assuring anonymity and voluntary participation. The data were collected from July to August 2021. The research sample consisted of 1,161 persons working in public and private organizations, i.e., public schools (n=178), police offices (n=377), private hospitals (n=356), and hotels (n=250)) in Bangkok Metropolitan Region and Chiang Mai Province of Thailand. Most of the sample was female (57.50%), with a mean age of 35.98 years. About 52% of the sample worked in private organizations, and the mean employment tenure was 10.71 years. The procedure of this study had been reviewed and approved by the Chiang Mai University Research Ethics Committee (Certificate of Exemption No. 027/64).

Measures

(1) *Proactive work behavior (PWB) scale*. The 13-item scale developed by Parker and Collins (2010) was used to assess PWB. Participants responded to a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items are: "I spend time planning how to prevent reoccurring problems" and "I try to find the root cause of things that go wrong". The coefficient alpha of the scale was .87.

(2) *Psychological empowerment (PE) scale*. This variable was measured with the 12-item scale developed by Spreitzer (1995). Respondents were asked to rate each item on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items are: "The work I do is very important to me" and "I am confident about my ability to do my job". Internal consistency reliability of the scale was .84.

(3) *Organizational identification (OI) scale*. The 6-item scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992) was used. Respondents were asked to rate each item on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items are: "I When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult" and "This organization's successes are my successes". The coefficient alpha of the scale was .72.

(4) *Relationship with supervisor (RWS) scale*. This variable was measured with the LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Respondents were asked to rate 7 items on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items are: "My supervisor understands my job problems and needs" and "My supervisor recognizes my potential". The coefficient alpha for the scale was .87.

(5) *Work-life balance (WLB) scale*. The 4-item scale developed by Brough et al. (2014). was used to assess employees' work-life balance. Participants responded on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items are: "I have difficulty balancing my work and non-work activities" and "Overall, I believe that my work and non-work life are balanced". The coefficient alpha of the scale was .74.

(6) *Career satisfaction (CS) scale*. This 5-item scale was developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). Respondents were asked to rate each item on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items are: "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career" and "I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals". The coefficient alpha of the scale was .85.

(7) *Personal information sheet*. The personal information sheet asked participants to reveal their gender, age, and job tenure.

Data Analyses

Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) with SmartPLS 3.0 (Ringle et al., 2015), which is extensively used in social sciences and business, was used to assess the research hypotheses. Given the non-normal data distribution and exploratory character of the investigation, the PLS-SEM is a suitable technique (Hair et al., 2017). To evaluate the model in PLS-SEM, it is necessary to calculate R-square values of the endogenous variables and effect size, significant levels, and t-values of the structural paths (Fornell & Cha, 1994). In addition, bootstrapping resampling with 5000 samples is performed to test the significance of estimated path coefficients (Hair et

al., 2017). The measurement models were assessed before evaluating the structural model. Recent guidelines for PLS-SEM (e.g., Hair et al., 2017) were also followed in reporting the results.

Results

Measurement Model Validation

First, the author assessed measurement models in order to evaluate their reliabilities and validities. According to Hulland (1999), the loadings (λ) of each reflective measure on its corresponding construct should be greater than the threshold levels of .50. Thus, one item from the PWB measure, three items from the PE measure, and one item from the WLB measure were dropped due to low loading estimates. The remaining items were then used in the following steps of analyses. The results show that Cronbach's alphas (α) of all constructs are greater than .70, and the composite reliability (CR) values are greater than .80, indicating adequate internal consistency for the constructs. The average variance extracted (AVE) values of the constructs are greater than the cut-off value of .50 (Hair et al., 2017) providing convergent validity of the measurement model.

To assess discriminant validity of the constructs, two approaches were used. The first approach is to examine the indicators' cross-loadings, and the result indicated that no indicator loaded higher on any opposing construct. The second approach is to compare the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) with the correlation of latent constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It was found that the square root of each construct's AVE had a greater value than the correlations with other latent constructs. Both analyses, therefore, clearly indicate that all constructs exhibit discriminant validity (Table 1). The measurement model assessment confirms that all the construct measures are valid and reliable. Accordingly, the author proceeded to evaluate the structural model focusing on the hypothesized relationship among the constructs.

Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

First, the analysis aimed to examine the relationships between three antecedents)i.e., PE, OI, and RWS(and PWB)H1, H2 and H3(and between PWB and its consequences)i.e., WLB and CS( )H4 and H5(. Second, the full PLS path model and, more specifically, the effects of the mediator)H6a, H6b, H7a, H7b, H8a, and H8b(were assessed. The predictive validities of the scales)the extent to which a score on a scale predicts scores on some criterion measure(were assessed using the measures of explained variance. The R^2 value of PWB, WLB, and CS are .62, .20, and .39 respectively, indicating that most of them are large effect sizes)Cohen, 1988(. The author also calculated the Q^2 value)Stone, 1974(in order to substantiate the predictive relevance. After running the blindfolding procedure)Henseler et al., 2009(with an omission distance $D = 7$, the Q^2 values of PWB).25(, WLB).13(, and CS).24(indicate the predictive relevance of the PLS path model.

Table 1

Discriminant Validity Assessment

Variable	PWB	PE	OI	RWS	WLB	CS
PWB	**.71**	.75**	.63**	.49**	.43**	.61**
PE	.76	**.71**	.64**	.54**	.49**	.68**
OI	.65	.64	**.71**	.44**	. 37**	.52**
RWS	.51	.54	.47	**.74**	.44**	.58**
WLB	.45	.48	.40	.46	**.81**	.56**
CS	.62	.67	.55	.59	.58	**.79**
M	3.77	3.88	3.81	3.64	3.38	3.74
SD	.45	.49	.51	.62	.75	.65

Note. PWB = proactive work behavior; PE = psychological empowerment; OI = organizational identification; RWS = relationship with supervisor; WLB = work-life balance; CS = career satisfaction. The diagonal elements (in bold) are the square root of the AVEs; Lower half of the diagonal represents latent variable correlations; upper half of the diagonal (in italic) represents correlation coefficients between the constructs. ** $p < .01$

Table 2 presents the estimated path coefficients, *t*-values, R^2, and Q^2 of endogenous constructs. As shown in Table 2, the results confirm all research hypotheses. In particular, the standardized path coefficients for H1 (γ = .54, p < .001, H2 (γ = .25, p < .001, and H3 (γ = .09, p = .002 and for H4 (β = .11, p = .017 and H5 (β = .17, p < .001 confirm the positive relationships between these antecedents and PWB, and between PWB and its consequences. Furthermore, the bootstrapping procedure (1,161 cases, 5,000 resamples) was performed to evaluate the significance of the path coefficients (Hair et al., 2017). Lastly, the author followed Henseler et al. (2016) suggestion that the fit index standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) should be used in the context of PLS in order to estimate the global fit of a PLS path model. A PLS path model would provide a good fit to the empirical data if a SRMR value is below .08. It was found that the SRMR of the present study is adequate (.07). Figure 1 shows all structural relationships.

Table 2

Structural Model Assessment

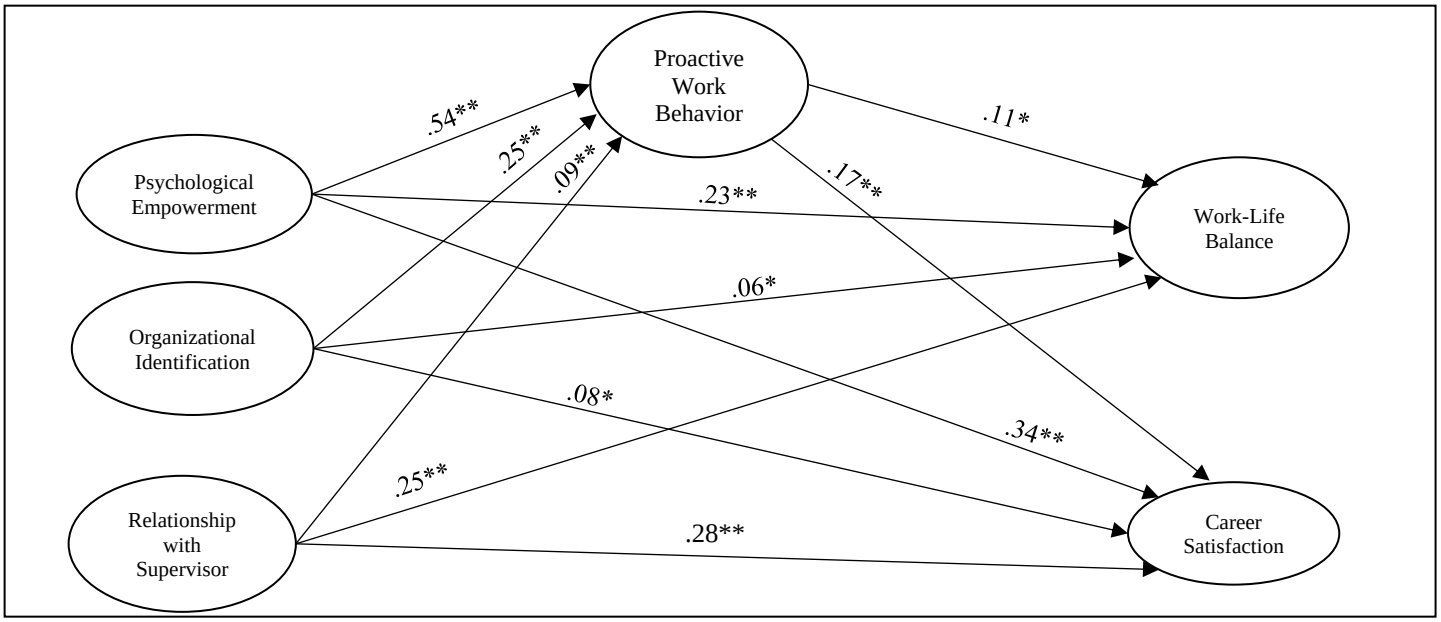
Endogenous construct	R^2	Q^2
PWB	.62	.25
WLB	.30	.19
CS	.55	.34

	Hypothesized paths	Path coefficients	*t*-value	Result
H1	PE →PWB	.54**	17.59	Supported
H2	OI → PWB	.25**	9.22	Supported
H3	RWS → PWB	.09**	3.09	Supported
H4	PWB → WLB	.11*	2.39	Supported
H5	PWB → CS	.17**	4.01	Supported

Note. PWB = proactive work behavior; PE = psychological empowerment; OI = organizational identification; RWS = relationship with supervisor; WLB = work-life balance; CS = career satisfaction. R^2 explains the variance in the endogenous variable explained by the exogenous variable(s). Q^2 is predictive relevance, measures whether a model has predictive relevance or not (> 0 is good). Q^2 is derived from the blindfolding procedure with an omission distance of seven; the p-values are derived from the bootstrapping procedure with 1,161 cases and 5,000 resamples; * p < .05, ** p < .01

Figure 1

Parameter Estimates for the Final Model



Note. The standardized path coefficients were presented. * p < .05, ** p < .01

Table 3
Analysis of Mediating Effects

Antecedent-	DE	IE	TE	VAF)%(	Mediation	Remarks
PE → WLB	.23**	.06*	.29**	20.34	Partial mediation	Support H6a
PE → CS	.34**	.09**	.43**	21.20	Partial mediation	Support H6b
OI → WLB	.06*	.03*	.09*	31.19	Partial mediation	Support H7a
OI → CS	.08*	.04**	.12**	35.24	Partial mediation	Support H7b
RWS → WLB	.25**	.01	.26**	3.81	No mediation	Reject H8a
RWS → CS	.28**	.02*	.30**	5.09	Partial mediation	Support H8b

Note. PWB = proactive work behavior; PE = psychological empowerment; OI = organizational identification; RWS = relationship with supervisor; WLB = work-life balance; CS = career satisfaction. DE = direct effect, IE = indirect effect, TE = total effect, VAF = variance accounted for; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

To analyze the mediation effects, the author follows the general recommendations given by Preacher and Hayes (2008) and Hair et al. (2017). Briefly, two conditions need to be met in testing mediation. First, there must be an effect to be mediated. Second, the indirect effect should be statistically significant in the predicted direction. If the independent variable has no significant effect on the dependent variable when the mediator is controlled; this condition indicates that there is a full mediation. Partial mediation would occur if the magnitude of the effect of the independent variable is reduced but remains statistically significant when the mediator is controlled.

The results in Table 3 indicate that proactive work behavior partially mediates the relationships between PE and WLB, PE and CS, OI and WLB, OI and CS, and RWS and CS. The variances accounted for)VAF(of the partial mediations are between 5.09% and 35.24%. The rule of thumb is if the VAF is larger than 20% and less than 80% could be considered as a typical partial mediation)Hair et al., 2017(, and a VAF above 80% denotes a full mediation. Thus, these mediation analyses provide evidence to support H6a, H6b, H7a, H7b, and H8b. Nonetheless, PWB does not mediate the influence of RWS on WLB, therefore rejects H8a.

Discussion

The main objective of the present study was to investigate antecedents and consequences of proactive work behavior among Thai employees. This study also examined whether PWB acts as a mediator between these antecedents and consequences of PWB. The results supported the research model to a large extent. As predicted, psychological empowerment, organizational identification, and relations with supervisor are related to PWB as its antecedents. The consequences of PWB, on the other hand, are two work-related outcomes (i.e., work-life balance and career satisfaction). An equally important finding was that PWB not only has a direct relationship to these work-related outcomes, but also it partially mediates the relationship between psychological empowerment and work-life balance, psychological empowerment and career satisfaction, organizational identification and work-life balance, organizational identification and career satisfaction, and relationship with supervisor and career satisfaction.

These results add to our understanding of PWB among Thai employees as well as adding to the literature focused on PWB in Asian context. A primary theoretical contribution of the present study is that it extended the proactive motivation model (Parker et al., 2010). This model suggests that there are three conditions associated with PWB: “can do”, “reason to”, and “energized to”. The present study applied this framework and identified three antecedents of PWB, i.e., PE, OI, and RWS. The results illustrate that each antecedent has a unique and significant effect on PWB. The present study also illustrates two positive work-related outcomes as a function of PWB. Specifically, proactive employees not only exhibit self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change the situation, but also tended to create a balance between work and life activities, feel satisfied in their career, and provide assistance to others and organization.

Consistent with the proactive motivation model (Parker et al., 2010) which posits that three motivation conditions enhance PWB, this study found that PE predicts PWB (H1). This is because empowered employees perceive their work

environment as something they can alter through their actions (Spreitzer, 1995). Consequently, they are internally motivated to initiate future-oriented actions in order to change or improve their work processes, such as feedback seeking (Huang, 2012), and creative process engagement (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). This study also found that OI predicts PWB (H2). This is because employees feel proud to belong to the organization, they are more likely to be proactive in their jobs in order to achieve a higher level of performance and secure future of their organization (Chen et al., 2019). In addition, RWS predicts PWB (H3) because employees who are trusted by their supervisors and given more autonomy in their work processes will be more likely to contribute their ideas to the organization and commit their efforts to identifying and resolving problems (Hammond et al., 2011; Volmer et al., 2012).

To explain the linkages between PWB and WLB, and CS (H4 and H5), prior studies have suggested mechanisms by which these effects occur. Employees who are proactive are more likely to be able to create better jobs for themselves in order to achieve work goals that reflect advancements in their careers and satisfying occupations. Research found that proactive actions, such as feedback inquiry and monitoring, lead to increase individual adaptation (Ashford, 1986). Moreover, proactive individuals can make the best at work through actively completing the required tasks, which helps them to maintain work-life balance. A recent study also found that PWB significantly predicts WLB (Kumar & Mokashi, 2020). Job crafting, another form of PWB, has been found to be able to modify employees' meaning of work, as well as work identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Similarly, employees who act initiatively at work are also more likely to negotiate more flexible working conditions with better development opportunities (Hornung et al., 2008). In addition, researchers reported that higher levels of career initiative and individual innovation predicted significant increases in career satisfaction and in actual promotions at work two years later (Seibert et al., 2001). In sum, there is strong evidence that engaging in proactive behaviors is associated with positive work-related outcomes.

The present study also found that PWB both fully and partially mediates the positive relationships between PE, OI, and RWS and most of the work-related outcomes (H6a, H6b, H7a, H7b, and H8b). In other words, when employees report high levels of PE, OI, and RWS, they tend to act proactively. Subsequently, proactivity leads individuals to have a work-life balance, satisfaction with their careers, and good citizenship behaviors. Thus, proactive behavior is an important tie between favorable working conditions and outcomes. Given that proactivity is a process that involves self-starting, change oriented, and future focused, thus, PWB should be viewed as a necessary competency that could be further developed and exercised to help individuals achieve favorable work-related outcomes.

Several practical implications can be made based on the results of the present study. First, it was demonstrated that PE, OI, and RWS positively influence employees' proactivity; organizations, therefore, should enhance their employees' sense of empowerment at work, facilitate employees' perceptions of organizational identification, and foster better quality of supervisor-subordinate relationships. In terms of empowerment, managers can empower their subordinates by granting employees a fair amount of autonomy and discretion over their jobs to enhance their sense of self-determination. To enhance employees' identification with the organization, managers must increase the distinctiveness of the organization, and convey a sense of pride for the organization. Moreover, to improve the quality of supervisor-subordinate relationships, organizations should conduct leadership training for all supervisors emphasizing the importance of coaching, human relations skills, and effective interpersonal communications. A second practical implication is that organizations should consider selecting individuals who are predisposed to work proactively, such as those with a high level of proactive personality since empirical research has suggested a link between proactive personality and PWB (Parker & Collins, 2010). Finally, since employees have been increasingly seeking jobs that are interesting and fulfilling (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009), organizations, therefore, should try to foster an organizational culture that encourages managers to empower their subordinates.

This study focused on the main effects of antecedents on PWB. In future research, it would be interesting to look at factors that moderate the relationship between these antecedents and PWB. For example, conscientiousness might be one of the variables that strengthen the influence of these antecedents on PWB. Additionally, it is also important to identify individual and contextual

antecedents of PWB that are important in both Asian and Western work contexts, for example, growth mindset, intellectual curiosity, organizational climate, etc. Lastly, past proactivity research has assumed that being proactive is a single event rather than viewing this behavior as dynamic processes; thus, future research should examine the processes of employees engaging in various stages of PWB. For example, research may test a goal-regulatory model of proactivity at work (Parker et al., 2010) that includes four processes (i.e., envisioning, planning, enacting, and reflecting).

The present study has some limitations. First, it is based solely on self-report measures. As a result, same-source bias may amplify the relationships between research variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, research on self-report performance suggests that self-report data are valuable in assessing employees' perceptions (Spector, 1994) and are comparable to ratings from other sources (Facteau & Craig, 2001). Second, one might be concerned about respondents' socially desirable responses. Nonetheless, data were collected anonymously, and research participants were assured of confidentiality. Future studies might collect peer or supervisory ratings of PWB in order to overcome problems associated with self-report measures.

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