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Can Misfit Be a Motivator of Helping and Voice Behaviors? Role of Leader–Follower Complementary Fit in Helping and Voice Behaviors

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Abstract

This study explores the role of leader–follower complementary fit in predicting followers' helping and voice behaviors. We collected survey-based data from 645 employees in 119 South Korean teams and performed cross-level polynomial regression analyses and response surface tests. The cross-level polynomial regression analyses and post hoc analyses generally endorsed complementary fit effects, such that the levels of helping and voice behaviors were higher when promotion-focused followers interacted with less transformational leaders and when less promotion-focused followers interacted with transformational leaders. On the contrary, we detected a supplementary fit effect for prevention focus. More precisely, followers' helping behavior was more pronounced when their prevention focus was similar to the level of transactional leadership than where there was a mismatch between the two. These findings provide a nuanced perspective for understanding the differential roles of complementary and supplementary fit between transformational and transactional leadership and follower regulatory focus in predicting helping and voice behaviors.

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The increasing complexity of jobs and work environments requires employees to perform beyond their in-role responsibilities and duties. Helping and voice behaviors are two primary forms of *extra-role behavior*, which refers to behavior that goes beyond normal role expectations or job requirements (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). *Helping behavior* is "voluntarily assisting other group members in work-related areas" (Ng & Van Dyne, 2005, p. 515), and *voice behavior* is the "expression of constructive challenge with an intent to improve rather than merely criticize" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 109). According to Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks' (1995) typology of extra-role behavior, helping behavior is conceptualized as affiliative behavior that helps others do their work, whereas voice behavior falls into the category of challenging behavior that pertains to criticizing the inefficiency of the status quo.

Drawing on the regulatory focus literature, helping and voice behaviors are affected by individuals' prevention and promotion foci. Prevention focus (PV), which refers to one's strategic tendency that stresses ought and duties, is related to prosocial behavior that maintains his/her current interpersonal relationships (e.g., Aaker & Lee, 2001; De Cremer, Mayer, van Dijke, Schouten, & Bardes, 2009; Lee, Aaker, & Gardner, 2000). In contrast, promotion focus (PF) pursues hope, ideals, and optimism, tending to drive challenging or risk-taking behavior (Dewett & Denisi, 2007).

Regulatory focus research further theorizes that regulatory focus complementarity between interaction partners determines their attitudes and behaviors (Bohns et al., 2013). The basic assumption of regulatory focus complementarity is that more desirable outcomes accrue when interaction partners' regulatory focus complements each other (Bohns et al., 2013). Given that regulatory focus is crucial in the context of social interactions between leaders and followers (De Cremer et al., 2009), we attend to the role of leader–follower regulatory complementarity in predicting followers' helping and voice behaviors. More precisely, grounded in the reasoning that leader–follower complementarity can be well understood in terms of the relationship between followers' personal traits and leaders' leadership styles (Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011), we attempt to explore the role of complementary fit between followers' regulatory focus and leaders' transformational and transactional leadership (TAL).

Transformational leadership (TFL) refers to leadership qualities that motivate followers through a long-term vision and new ways of working, whereas TAL is known as leadership qualities that protect the status quo and closely

monitor and correct followers' errors (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). The regulatory focus literature has suggested that transformational behaviors pertain to promotion-focused aspects such as directedness at an ideal self (Higgins, 1997), preference for optimism and positive expectations (Higgins et al., 2001), and long-term perspective (Förster & Higgins, 2005). Contrastingly, transactional behaviors are closely associated with prevention-focused aspects such as concern for obligations and responsibilities (Higgins, 1997), preference for stability (Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins, 1999), avoidance of mistakes (Higgins et al., 2001), and short-term perspective (Förster & Higgins, 2005). Thus, research on leader–follower regulatory fit has attended to fit between TFL and follower PF and fit between TAL and follower PV (e.g., Benjamin & Flynn, 2006; Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011).

Research on leader–follower regulatory fit has generally endorsed a supplementary fit perspective, wherein more positive work outcomes occur when promotion-focused followers interact with transformational leaders and when prevention-focused followers work with transactional leaders than when they work with leaders having the opposite orientation (e.g., Benjamin & Flynn, 2006; Kruglanski, Pierro, & Higgins, 2007; Stam, van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010; Venus, Stam, & van Knippenberg, 2013). Supplementary fit refers to occasions when an individual and his/her interaction partner possess similar or matching characteristics, whereas complementary fit exists when an individual's weaknesses or needs are offset by the strength of the interaction partner or vice versa (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Distinct from prior research on leader–follower regulatory fit, this study examines the role of leader–follower fit from a complementary fit perspective for the following reasons.

Complementary fit is pivotal in the domain of helping and voice behaviors because a growing body of research has highlighted the importance of complementary fit in contemporary organizations. Scholars have claimed that an overly emphasis on similarity or conformity can cause negative outcomes such as groupthink, stagnation, and organizational rigidity (Kristof, 1996). In particular, Kristof (1996) maintained that complementary fit promotes rapid adaptation to organizational changes by generating more positive outcomes in an environment that requires a high degree of agility, adaptability, and flexibility.

Furthermore, although supplementary fit can enhance in-role behaviors through uniform interpretations of norms and role expectations, such uniformity might not influence how employees engage in extra-role behaviors, which are primarily based on a person's volition and discretion (Thoits, 1994). Alternatively, difference or misfit from others can prompt individuals to take proactive actions to change their current situations. Therefore, building on dominance complementarity theory (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983), we propose that complementarity between TAL and follower PV and between TFL and

follower PF can serve as a precondition in which employees are motivated to engage in helping and voice behaviors, respectively. Thus, the first objective of our research is to investigate the effects of complementary fit between TAL and follower PV and between TFL and follower PF on followers' helping and voice behaviors, respectively.

Our second objective is to probe the functional form of the relationships among transactional and TFL, follower prevention and promotion foci, and helping and voice behaviors using a cross-level polynomial regression procedure. Because most research on leader–follower regulatory fit has examined a two-way interaction between leader and follower characteristics, prior findings could delineate only linear relationships among the variables. To overcome this limitation, Edwards (1993) recommended the polynomial regression procedure that depicts the relationship among variables in a three-dimensional space. This analysis enables testing of supplementary and complementary fit effects and testing of the functional form of the relationship among variables (Edwards, 1991; Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005; Van Vianen, 2000). Thus, by employing cross-level polynomial regression analysis and response surface plots as analytic tools, we propose and test asymmetric complementary fit effects depending on whether the level of leadership is greater than that of follower regulatory focus or vice versa. In sum, our research derives a novel and sophisticated understanding of the relationships among transactional and TFL, follower regulatory focus, and helping and voice behaviors by taking a complementary fit perspective and exploring asymmetric complementary fit effects according to the levels of leadership and follower regulatory focus. Such asymmetric complementary fit effects are proposed in detail in the following sections.

Theory and hypothesis development

Complementary fit between follower PV and TAL and helping behavior

We draw on dominance complementarity theory (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983) as an overarching theoretical framework for our propositions. According to this paradigm, because people pursue balance in interpersonal relationships (Leary, 1957), when one party is dominant, the other is expected to play a submissive role. However, the equilibrium of interpersonal interactions is disturbed when both parties are dominant or submissive. Early studies on dominance complementarity demonstrated the positive ramifications of complementary fit in work contexts that involve cooperation. For example, Ghiselli and Lodahl (1958) found that groups performed well on a cooperative task when they were composed of one dominant member and two or three less dominant members. Similarly, Smelser (1961) reported that dyads with dominant–submissive traits

were more productive than dyads with similar traits in cooperative problem-solving settings.

Consistent with the findings based on dominance complementarity, research on regulatory focus complementarity suggests that complementary fit in terms of regulatory focus enhances relationship well-being (e.g., Bohns et al., 2013). According to this stream of research, individuals work better when they interact with a partner with complementary strategic preferences (Bohns & Higgins, 2011). When there is a misfit between interaction partners' regulatory focus, they are motivated to work harder to compensate for the strategic shortcomings of the other party. In contrast, similarity in regulatory focus between interaction partners is likely to result in social loafing (Plaks & Higgins, 2000). Building upon this logic, we contend that leader–follower complementarity in terms of PV is a motivator of helping behavior.

Clark and Mills (1993) theorized that exchange and communal orientations are two motives that underlie helping behavior. People with an exchange orientation perceive helping as an exchange and engage in helping behavior to reciprocate benefits they have received from others or future benefits they anticipate from others. In contrast, individuals encompassing a communal orientation help others out of empathic concern and for the pursuit of others' well-being. We contend that a communal orientation is a primary impetus for the helping behavior of prevention-focused followers who work with a leader lacking TAL. Prevention-oriented individuals are prone to maintain harmony and connections with others and fulfill social roles, thereby engaging in more prosocial behavior (De Cremer et al., 2009). When they interact with a leader who is neither concerned about protecting the existing interpersonal relationships nor inclined to help others, prevention-focused followers are likely to engage in more helping behavior to offset their leader's weaknesses (Grant et al., 2011). Therefore, we expect prevention-focused followers to play a dominant role in helping others when they interact with less transactional leaders.

On the other hand, less prevention-focused followers are likely to engage in increased helping behavior when they work with transactional leaders. Unlike prevention-focused followers, those with a low PV are presumed to be mainly affected by an exchange orientation when they assist others. Because followers with a low PV rarely care about maintaining harmonious relationships with others, they remain passive in helping others. However, when they are guided by a transactional leader who is heavily concerned about fulfilling social roles and protecting the status quo, they feel obliged to reciprocate communal interests and prosocial behavior they receive from their leader. Thus, even though they are not replete with prevention-oriented tendencies that drive helping behavior, the gap between their tendencies and that of the leader becomes salient to them, which leads to increased responsibility and obligation to help others (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). On the contrary, when both interaction partners

possess high levels of PV, diffusion of responsibility or social loafing is likely to occur, which reduces helping behavior (Bohns et al., 2013; Kristof-Brown, Barrick, & Stevens, 2005).

Although we propose that followers display more helping behavior when their level of PV differs from that of their leader's TAL, we presume that the effect of complementary fit is asymmetric depending on whether the level of PV is higher than that of TAL or vice versa. Building on communal versus exchange theory (Clark & Mils, 1993) and prior findings on helping behavior (Clark, Mills, & Powell, 1986; Clark, Oullette, Powell, & Milberg, 1987), we argue that the effect of complementary fit will be more profound when followers perform helping behavior based on a communal orientation rather than an exchange orientation. Empirical findings have shown that individuals with a communal orientation exhibit more helping behavior than those with an exchange orientation (Clark et al., 1986). Given that prevention-focused people are inherently eager to help, the baseline level of helping behavior should be higher for prevention-focused individuals than for less prevention-focused ones (Neubert, Kacmer, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). Thus, followers' helping behavior should be greater when their PV is higher than the level of TAL than when their PV is lower than the level of TAL. Taken together, we put forth the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Followers engage in more helping behavior when there is a complementary fit between their PV and their leader's TAL (i.e., the left and right corners of the response surface) than when there is a supplementary fit between the two (i.e., the middle of the response surface).

Hypothesis 2: Followers engage in more helping behavior when their PV is higher than their leader's TAL (i.e., the right corner of the response surface) than when it is lower than the leader's TAL (i.e., the left corner of the response surface).

Complementary fit between follower PF and TFL and voice behavior

Scholars have suggested that deviation from norms or discontent with the present situation can be a source of employee voice behavior (Zhou & George, 2001), which implies that misfit can motivate employees to speak up. We argue that complementary fit between TAL and follower prevention fit is a key driver of helping behavior, whereas complementary fit between TFL and follower promotion fit is more essential to voice behavior. This is grounded in the reasoning that voice behavior represents the challenging dimension of extra-role behavior rather than the affiliative dimension. Because voice behavior encompasses self-enhancing behavior that expresses challenge with an intent to improve (Van Dynn et al., 1995), PF and TFL are more relevant to voice behavior than PV and TAL.

Grounded in dominance complementarity theory, we reason that the pairing of promotion-focused followers with less transformational leaders and the pairing of less promotion-focused followers with transformational leaders leads to an ideal balance that fosters voice behavior. Conversely, when both TFL and follower PF are high or low, the equilibrium is threatened and the interaction parties feel stressed. Ng and Feldman's (2010) meta-analysis showed that because voice behavior consumes resources, individuals engage less in such an action when they experience stress. Therefore, interpersonal imbalance resulting from a lack of dominance complementarity can reduce employee voice behavior.

Regulatory focus research has generally demonstrated that being promotion-focused increases employees' use of voice behavior or change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (Dewett & Denisi, 2007; Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim & Oh, 2017). Because promotion-oriented individuals are driven by ideals and aspirations, they tend to take risks and make future-oriented and constructive suggestions (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 1997). We argue that such individuals are more inclined to speak up when they interact with leaders who rarely initiate changes and take risks. In such a situation, promotion-focused followers feel a strong need to improve the current situation and therefore engage in voice behavior. Our contention is in line with the voice behavior literature, which suggests that employees behave proactively when they work with passive leaders (Grant et al., 2011; LePine & Van Dynn, 1998). In addition, when promotion-focused followers interact with a leader who lacks TFL, the followers' motivation to compensate for the leader's deficiency strengthens. As a consequence, they tend to behave in a more dominant and proactive fashion.

On the contrary, less promotion-focused followers are likely to speak up under the guidance of transformational leaders. Based on the premise of dominance complementarity theory, less promotion-focused followers feel secure in relationships with transformational leaders. Such psychological safety encourages challenging and risk-taking behavior (Detert & Burris, 2007). Furthermore, transformational leaders promote employee voice behavior by communicating the rationale for change and inspiring followers to challenge the status quo (Detert & Burris, 2007). Even though less promotion-focused followers are not active enough to come up with change-oriented ideas or suggestions, transformational leaders' endeavors toward change efforts elicit an exchange orientation in followers with a low PF, which stirs them to feel obliged to reciprocate with proactive behaviors. Thus, felt responsibility and necessity (Detert & Burris, 2007; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006) and social exchange motivation (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008) are key drivers of voice behavior for less promotion-focused followers who work with transformational leaders. In contrast, when both the leader's TFL and the follower's PF are high, both parties tend to expect the other to speak up, which leads to diffusion of responsibility for engaging in voice behavior.

Consistent with the asymmetric complementary fit effect proposed for helping behavior, we predict that the baseline level of voice behavior should be higher in promotion-focused followers than in less promotion-focused ones. Even though less promotion-focused followers display voice behavior in their interactions with transformational leaders, we expect their level of voice behavior to be lower than that of promotion-focused followers who have a strong tendency to take risks for the pursuit of hope and ideals. This line of reasoning leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Followers engage in more voice behavior when there is a complementary fit between their PF and their leader's TFL (i.e., the left and right corners of the response surface) than when there is a supplementary fit between the two (i.e., the middle of the response surface).

Hypothesis 4: Followers engage in more voice behavior when their PF is higher than their leader's TFL (i.e., the right corner of the response surface) than when it is lower than the leader's TFL (i.e., the left corner of the response surface).

Method

Sample and data collection procedure

We selected 30 private companies in Seoul, Korea, via stratified random sampling and invited them to participate in survey-based research. Of the 30 companies we contacted, 16 companies agreed to participate. The participating companies varied in terms of firm size and industry: service (50%), banking/financing (21.4%), manufacturing (14.3%), and other (14.3%). We asked human resource personnel from each company to take charge of randomly selecting respondents and administering surveys to them. The final sample consisted of 645 full-time employees in 119 work teams from the 16 companies. The average team size was 5.5 members ($SD = 2.2$), ranging from 3 to 11 members. The average age of the respondents was 36.2 years ($SD = 7.3$), and 66% were male. Their average tenure in the current organization and team was 8.9 years ($SD = 7.5$) and 2.6 years ($SD = 1.6$), respectively. Most respondents possessed a college degree or above (95.5%), and they held different organizational positions: rank-and-file employee (27.2%), first-level supervisor (19.6%), manager (23.1%), and senior manager (25.7%). The respondents performed various organizational functions: planning/operations (32%), general management (21%), sales/marketing (20%), finance/accounting (13%), and R&D (4%).

Measures

Survey items were constructed via Brislin's (1986) back-translation procedure. Responses were accounted on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*,

5 = *strongly agree*). Except for leadership variables, all the variables were measured at the individual level. To compute the leadership scores of team leaders, we aggregated team members' ratings of their team leader's transactional and TFL to the team level. We report the reliability of our scales and aggregation statistics below.

Prevention focus. To measure follower's PV, we used four items ($\alpha = .86$) derived from work regulatory focus (WRF) scales developed by Neubert et al. (2008). A sample item was "At work, I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities."

Promotion focus. In line with the measure of PV, PF was assessed using three items ($\alpha = .81$) derived from WRF scales (Neubert et al., 2008). A sample item was "I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement."

Transactional leadership. Team leaders' TAL was assessed with three items ($\alpha = .61$, $r_{wg(j)} = .78$, Intraclass Correlation (ICC) (1) = .13, ICC(2) = .45, $F = -$value = 1.83, $p < .001$) derived from the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 1995). A sample item was "My team leader tells me what I should do if I want to be rewarded for my effort."

Transformational leadership. To assess the team leader's TFL, we used 11 items ($\alpha = .95$, $r_{wg(j)} = .95$, ICC(1) = .26, ICC(2) = .66, F statistics = 4.90, $p < .001$) from the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995). An example of the items was "My team leader enables me to think about old problems in new ways."

Helping behavior. To measure the target employee's helping behavior, we used six items ($\alpha = .87$) from Williams and Anderson's (1991) extra-role behavior scale. A sample item was "I help others who have heavy workloads."

Voice behavior. We evaluated voice behavior with seven items ($\alpha = .91$) from Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) scale. An example of the items was "I speak up with ideas for new projects or change in procedures."

Control variables. At the individual level, we considered gender and age dummies as control variables. At the team level, drawing on findings that team contexts and tasks affects team members' regulatory focus (e.g., Dimotakis, Davison, & Hollenbeck, 2012; Shin et al., 2017; Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011) and behaviors (e.g., LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Ng & Van Dyne, 2005), we controlled for team size, average team tenure, and team task types (R&D and finance/accounting). Furthermore, following common practices in regulatory focus and team leadership research (e.g., Hamstra et al., 2011; Neubert et al., 2008; Shin et al., 2017), we used the opposite forms of regulatory focus and leadership as control

variables. Lastly, to mitigate potential common method biases, we measured and controlled for the respondents' social desirability using four items ($\alpha = .76$, Stöber, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Analytic strategy

In the present study, given that employees were nested in teams guided by a team leader, we adopted polynomial regression based on hierarchical linear modeling (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2005; Mullins, Bachrach, Rapp, Brewal, & Beitelspacher, 2015). More precisely, we included the focal follower's gender, age, opposite regulatory focus, and social desirability as Level 1 controls and team size, team average tenure, team task-type dummy variables, and the opposite form of team leader leadership as Level 2 controls. To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, helping behavior was regressed on the control variables and five polynomial terms: the follower's PV, the team leader's TAL, the follower's PV squared (PV^2), the product of the follower's PV and the team leader's TAL ($PV \times TAL$), and the team leader's TAL squared (TAL^2). Similarly, Hypotheses 3 and 4 were tested by regressing voice behavior on the control variables and five polynomial terms: the follower's PM, the team leader's TFL, the follower's PF squared (PM^2), the product of the follower's PF and the team leader's TFL ($PM \times TFL$), and the team leader's TFL^2. To reduce multicollinearity among the variables, we scale-centered lower order terms (i.e., PV, TAL, PM, TFL) prior to calculating higher order terms.

Furthermore, to test the proposed complementary fit effects, we examined the curvature along the incongruence line ($PV = -TAL$) in a three-dimensional graph and performed response surface tests. According to Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2005), a complementary fit effect is manifested in a significantly positive curvature along the incongruence line. In addition, asymmetric misfit effects can be evaluated via the slope of the incongruence line (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998; Cole, Carter, & Zhang, 2013; Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015). A significant, positive slope along the incongruence line demonstrates that the outcome becomes higher as a follower's regulatory focus exceeds a team leader's leadership, whereas a negative slope indicates that the outcome is greater in the region where the follower's regulatory focus falls short of the leader's leadership.

Results

We conducted confirmatory factor analyses to assess the discriminant validity of our study variables. The hypothesized six-factor model exhibited a good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 1506.48$, $df = 390$, comparative fit index = .91, Tucker–Lewis index = .89, root mean square error of approximation = .07). As reported in Table 1, the six-factor model demonstrated a significantly better fit than

Table 1. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses and χ^2 Difference Tests.

Models	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 0. Hypothesized six-factor model	1506.48	390	—	.91	.89	.07
Model 1. Five-factor model 1 (combining PV and PM into a single factor)	2276.42	395	769.94	.84	.81	.09
Model 2. Five-factor model 2 (combining TAL and TFL into a single factor)	2807.59	396	1301.11	.86	.83	.08
Model 3. Five-factor model 3 (combining helping and voice behaviors into a single factor)	2449.55	395	943.06	.83	.80	.09
Model 4. One-factor model	7050.03	406	1453.00	.43	.36	.16

Note: $N = 645$. PV = prevention focus; PM = promotion focus; TAL = transactional leadership; TFL = transformational leadership; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

alternative models, $\Delta\chi^2(df = 5) = 769.94$, $p < .001$ for the five-factor model that combined prevention and promotion foci into a single factor; $\Delta\chi^2(df = 6) = 1301.11$, $p < .001$ for the five-factor model that combined transactional and TFL into a single factor; $\Delta\chi^2$ $(df = 5) = 943.06$, $p < .001$ for the five-factor model that combined helping and voice behaviors into a single factor; and $\Delta\chi^2(df = 16) = 1453.00$, $p < .001$ for the one factor model). Taken together, the factor-analytic results indicate that the study measures possess sufficient discriminant validity.

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are presented in Table 2. Hypothesis 1 predicts that follower helping behavior will be more pronounced when there is a misfit between their PV and their team leader's TAL than when there is a fit. This hypothesis was validated through cross-level polynomial procedures. Table 3 depicts the results of the cross-level polynomial regression as well as the results of the response surface tests. As depicted in Model 2 of Table 3, because at least one of the higher order terms was significant for helping behavior ($\gamma_{61} = .23$, $p < .05$), we further explored a curvature in a three-dimensional graph and performed surface tests. Contrary to our prediction, the curvature along the line of incongruence was significantly negative for helping behavior ($a_4 = -.39$, $p < .001$). Figure 1 illustrates a convex curvature, wherein the level of helping behavior is higher in the middle of the graph than in either the left or right corner, which indicates a supplementary fit effect rather than a complementary fit effect. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations.

	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Individual level[a]									
1. Gender	.66	0.47	—						
2. Age dummy 1	.46	0.49	.01	—					
3. Age dummy 2	.28	0.45	.18***	−.58***	—				
4. Social desirability	3.91	0.60	.09*	−.11**	.09*	—			
5. Prevention focus	4.20	0.60	.13**	−.07	.10**	.45***	—		
6. Promotion focus	3.23	0.78	.16***	.00	.04	.18***	.20***	—	
7. Helping behavior	3.77	0.61	.15***	−.11**	.12**	.46***	.43***	.24***	—
8. Voice behavior	3.52	0.65	.27***	−.06	.21***	.35***	.35***	.46***	.54***
Team level[b]									
1. Team size	5.51	2.17	—						
2. Average team tenure	2.67	1.63	.04	—					
3. Team task-type dummy 1	0.04	0.20	.10	−.07	—				
4. Team task-type dummy 2	0.13	0.34	−.03	−.01	−.08	—			
5. Transactional leadership	3.18	0.40	.08	−.07	−.12	−.12	—		
6. Transformational leadership	3.63	0.52	.02	.10	.08	−.01	.23**	—	

Note: Age dummy 1: 1 = 30 s, 0 = others; age dummy 2: 1 = 40 s, 0 = others; team task-type dummy 1: 1 = R&D, 0 = others; team task-type dummy 2: 1 = finance/accounting, 0 = others.
[a]$N = 645$.
[b]$N = 119$.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Hypothesis 3, which postulates the complementary fit effect between follower PF and TFL on voice behavior, was tested via the same procedure. Model 4 of Table 3 shows that two of the high-order terms significantly predicted voice behavior ($\gamma_{70} = .06$, $p < .05$; $\gamma_{61} = -.15$, $p < .05$). Moreover, a_4 was significantly positive ($a_4 = .31$, $p < .001$), which suggests a complementary fit effect. Figure 2 further demonstrates a concave curvature, wherein voice behavior is higher in either the left or right corner than in the middle of the graph. These findings altogether lend support to Hypothesis 3.

Hypotheses 2 and 4 further propose asymmetric misfit effects, such that follower helping and voice behaviors are greater when their regulatory focus was higher than the team leader's leadership than in the opposite situation. These hypotheses were tested by assessing the significance of a_3, which refers to the

Table 3. Results of Cross-Level Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Test.

	Helping behavior		Voice behavior	
Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Constant (γ_{00})	3.75***	3.75***	3.51***	3.51***
Control variables				
Gender (γ_{10})	.02	.04	.28***	.18**
Age dummy 1 (γ_{20})	−.03	−.03	.10	.07
Age dummy 2 (γ_{30})	.07	.05	.29***	.27***
PV/PM (γ_{40})	.16***	.12***	.25***	.15***
Social desirability (γ_{50})	.41***	.31	.22***	.16***
Team size (γ_{01})	.01	.01	.00	.01
Average team tenure (γ_{02})	−.00	.00	.02	.00
Team task-type dummy 1 (γ_{03})	.21+	.24+	.05	−.02
Team task-type dummy 2 (γ_{04})	.01	.02	−.00	−.03
TAL/TFL (γ_{05})	.24***	.22***	.24**	.17*
Polynomial terms				
PV (γ_{60})		.23***		
TAL (γ_{06})		.07		
PV^2 (γ_{70})		−.04		
PV × TAL (γ_{61})		.23*		
TAL^2 (γ_{07})		−.11		
PM (γ_{60})				.31***
TFL (γ_{06})				.27***
PM^2 (γ_{70})				.06*
PM × TFL (γ_{61})				−.15*
TFL^2 (γ_{07})				.10
R^2	.23	.27	.16	.40
Surface tests				
Slope of PV = TAL line ($a_1 = \gamma_{60} + \gamma_{06}$)		.31***		
Curvature of PV = TAL line ($a_2 = \gamma_{70} + \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)		.08		
Slope of PV = − TAL line ($a_3 = \gamma_{60} - \gamma_{06}$)		.16*		
Curvature of PV = − TAL line ($a_4 = \gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)		−.39***		
Lateral shift of graph ($a_5 = (\gamma_{06} - \gamma_{60})/2(\gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07})$)		−.20**		
Slope of PM = TFL line ($a_1 = \gamma_{60} + \gamma_{06}$)				.58***
Curvature of PM = TFL line ($a_2 = \gamma_{70} + \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)				.01
Slope of PM = − TFL line ($a_3 = \gamma_{60} - \gamma_{06}$)				.04
Curvature of PM = − TFL line ($a_4 = \gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)				.31***
Lateral shift of graph ($a_5 = (\gamma_{06} - \gamma_{60})/2(\gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07})$)				.06

Note: PV = prevention focus; PM = promotion focus; TAL = transactional leadership; TFL = transformational leadership; age dummy 1: 1 = 30 s, 0 = others; age dummy 2: 1 = 40 s, 0 = others; team task-type dummy 1: 1 = R&D, 0 = others; team task-type dummy 2: 1 = finance/accounting, 0 = others. We calculated R^2 according to Snijders and Bosker (1999).
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

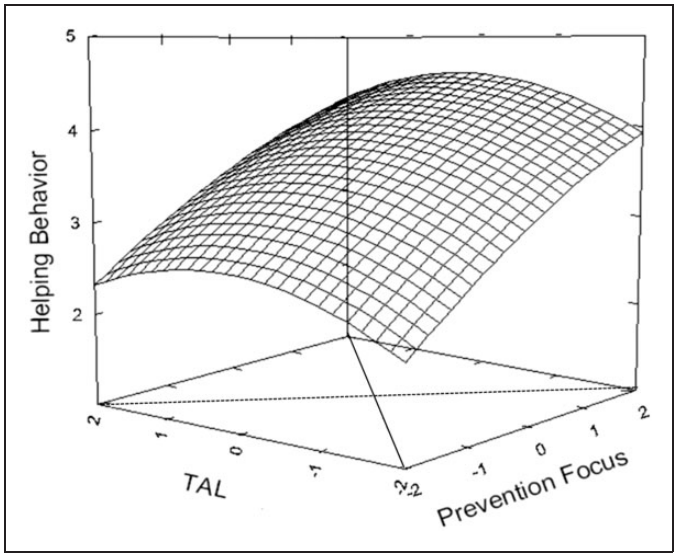

Figure 1. Surface graph of fit between follower prevention focus and team leader transactional leadership in predicting helping behavior.
Note: TAL = transactional leadership; solid line = congruence line (prevention focus = TAL); dashed line = incongruence line (prevention focus = − TAL).

slope of the incongruence line. The significant, positive a_3 in Model 2 of Table 3 ($a_3 = .16$, $p < .05$) indicates that helping behavior is significantly higher in the region when PF is higher than TAL than in the opposite region, providing support for Hypothesis 2. However, there was no significant difference in voice behavior between the region where PM > TFL and the region where PM < TFL ($a_3 = .04$, $p = ns$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was rejected.

Post hoc analysis

Apart from the empirical validation of our hypotheses, we conducted post hoc analyses to test potential complementary fit effects on the opposite dependent variable (i.e., the effect of follower PV − TAL fit on voice behavior and the effect of follower PF − TFL fit on helping behavior). The results of the post hoc analyses are reported in Table 4. When voice behavior was predicted by fit between follower PV and TAL, none of the high-order terms (i.e., PV^2, PV × TAL, and TAL^2) were significant (see Model 2 of Table 4), which prevented us from proceeding to response surface tests. In contrast, when helping behavior was predicted by fit between follower PF and TFL, one of the polynomial terms (i.e., TFL^2) was significant ($\gamma_{07} = .20$, $p < .01$), and the curvature of the incongruence line was significantly positive ($a_4 = .30$, $p < .001$; see Model 4

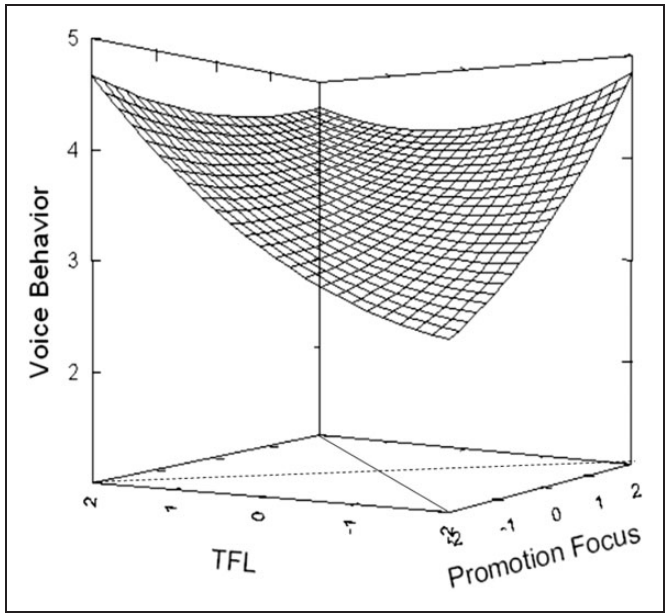

Figure 2. Surface graph of fit between follower promotion focus and team leader transformational leadership in predicting voice behavior.
Note: TFL = transformational leadership; solid line = congruence line (promotion focus = TFL); dashed line = incongruence line (promotion focus = − TFL).

of Table 4). As illustrated in Figure 3, helping behavior is higher when there is a misfit between follower PF and TFL than when there is a fit. Thus, similar to voice behavior, complementary fit between follower PF and TFL was more beneficial to helping behavior than supplementary fit between the two.

Discussion

Our study yielded some key findings. First, contrary to our prediction, followers' helping behavior was more pronounced when there was a supplementary fit between TAL and follower PV than when there was a complementary fit between the two. As expected, helping behavior was higher when follower PV was higher than TAL than when it was lower than TAL. In addition, our complementary fit hypothesis was supported for voice behavior, such that voice behavior turned out to be more profound when there was a complementary fit between TFL and follower PF than when there was a supplementary fit between the two. However, the level of voice behavior did not significantly differ between the paring of promotion-focused followers and less transformational leaders and the paring of less promotion-focused followers and transformational

Table 4. Results of Post Hoc Analyses.

	Voice behavior		Helping behavior	
Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Constant (γ_{00})	3.51***	3.51***	3.75***	3.75***
Control variables				
Gender (γ_{10})	.17**	.18**	.07	.03
Age dummy 1 (γ_{20})	.07	.07	−.03	−.02
Age dummy 2 (γ_{30})	.29***	.28***	.05	.06
PV/PM (γ_{40})	.33***	.29***	.28***	.23***
Social desirability (γ_{50})	.23***	.18***	.34***	.32***
Team size (γ_{01})	.01	.00	.00	.01
Average team tenure (γ_{02})	.01	.02	.00	−.00
Team task-type dummy 1 (γ_{03})	−.08	.01	.31*	.18
Team task-type dummy 2 (γ_{04})	−.05	−.04	.03	−.00
TAL/TFL (γ_{05})	.27***	.24***	.13+	.09
Polynomial terms				
PV (γ_{60})		.16**		
TAL (γ_{06})		.16*		
PV^2 (γ_{70})		−.01		
PV × TAL (γ_{61})		.01		
TAL^2 (γ_{07})		−.02		
PM (γ_{60})				.13***
TFL (γ_{06})				.29***
PM^2 (γ_{70})				.05
PM × TFL (γ_{61})				−.08
TFL^2 (γ_{07})				.20**
R^2	.24	.27	.21	.32
Surface tests				
Slope of PV = TAL line ($a_1 = \gamma_{60} + \gamma_{06}$)		.33***		
Curvature of PV = TAL line ($a_2 = \gamma_{70} + \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)		−.03		
Slope of PV = − TAL line ($a_3 = \gamma_{60} - \gamma_{06}$)		.00		
Curvature of PV = − TAL line ($a_4 = \gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)		−.06		
Lateral shift of graph ($a_5 = (\gamma_{06} - \gamma_{60})/2(\gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07})$)		−.00		
Slope of PM = TFL line ($a_1 = \gamma_{60} + \gamma_{06}$)				.42***
Curvature of PM = TFL line ($a_2 = \gamma_{70} + \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)				.14+
Slope of PM = − TFL line ($a_3 = \gamma_{60} - \gamma_{06}$)				−.16***
Curvature of PM = − TFL line ($a_4 = \gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07}$)				.30***
Lateral shift of graph ($a_5 = (\gamma_{06} - \gamma_{60})/2(\gamma_{70} - \gamma_{61} + \gamma_{07})$)				−.26***

Note: PV = prevention focus; PM = promotion focus; TAL = transactional leadership; TFL = transformational leadership; age dummy 1: 1 = 30 s, 0 = others; age dummy 2: 1 = 40 s, 0 = others; team task-type dummy 1: 1 = R&D, 0 = others; team task-type dummy 2: 1 = finance/accounting, 0 = others. We calculated R^2 according to Snijders and Bosker (1999).
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

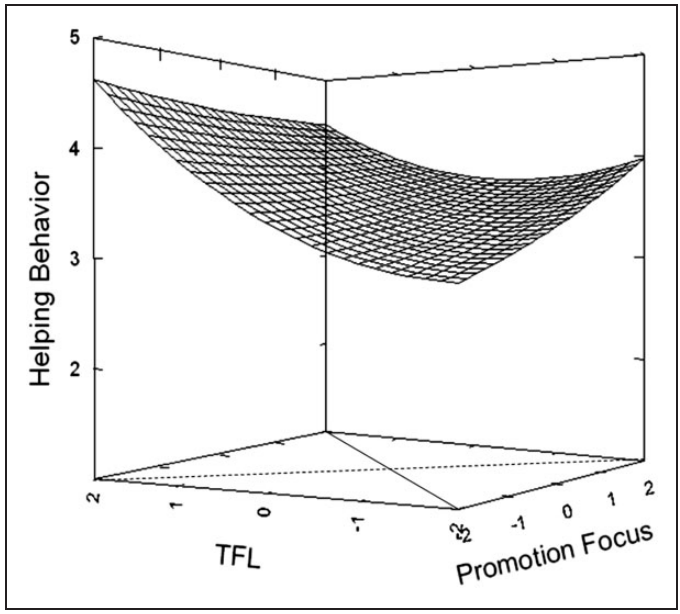

Figure 3. Surface graph of fit between follower promotion focus and team leader transformational leadership in predicting helping behavior.
Note: TFL = transformational leadership; solid line = congruence line (promotion focus = TFL); dashed line = incongruence line (promotion focus = − TFL).

leaders. The post hoc analysis further revealed a complementary fit effect between TFL and follower PF on helping behavior. These findings provide meaningful insights for research on leader–follower fit and regulatory focus.

One notable pattern of results is that the desirable form of fit differed between prevention and promotion foci. That is, helping behavior was more pronounced when there was a supplementary fit between TAL and follower PV, whereas complementary fit between TFL and follower PF was associated with greater helping behavior. Thus, while congruence in terms of PV was a precondition for helping behavior, discrepancy in promotion orientation promoted helping behavior. This may be due to the fact that prevention-focused individuals are heavily concerned about deviating from norms or authority (Higgins, 1997). Because fulfillment of duties and compliance with rules and norms are deemed important to prevention-focused people, they are afraid of deviating from leaders' expectations (Shin et al., in press), thereby exhibiting less helping behavior when there is a misfit between their PV and TAL. This raises the possibility that need for conformity or fear of deviation is a more important motive for the helping behavior of prevention-focused followers than communal or exchange orientation. On the contrary, given that complementary fit between TFL and follower

PF was associated with greater helping behavior, the helping behavior of promotion-focused individuals might be driven by communal orientation that offsets the shortcomings of one's interaction partner or exchange orientation that reciprocates treatment from the partner. As such, by uncovering the differential roles of complementary and supplementary regulatory fit in predicting helping behavior, our study offers sophisticated knowledge of how leader–follower fit enhances helping behavior.

In addition, this study contributes to regulatory fit research, which has been dominated by the interpersonal regulatory fit framework rooted in the notion of supplementary fit. Interpersonal regulatory fit research postulates that when interactional partners' regulatory focus matches each other, they experience a feeling of *right*, which results in enhanced motivation to pursue their goals. Similarly, prior research has shown that more positive work outcomes (e.g., increased performance, decreased turnover intentions) accrue when promotion-focused followers interact with transformational leaders (e.g., Kruglanski et al., 2007; Stam et al., 2010; Venus et al., 2013). Although such a supplementary fit effect was supported in the context of TAL and follower PV, this study also validates a complementary fit framework, wherein motivation to offset the other party's deficiency in PF can lead to increased helping and voice behaviors. Similarity in terms of PV can benefit helping behavior by aligning employees' goal-pursuit strategies and imbuing a feeling of right. In contrast, the effect of fit between PF and TFL on helping and voice behaviors is likely to be rather driven by the necessity of compensating for others. Thus, this study advances regulatory focus research by presenting a novel perspective for understanding the role of leader–follower regulatory fit in employee work behaviors.

Similar to the positive effect of complementary fit in terms of PF on helping, we detected a high level of voice behavior when there was a complementary fit between TFL and follower PF than when there was a supplementary fit between the two. These findings endorse the premise of dominance complementarity theory, which holds that if one party is dominant in an interpersonal relationship, the other party is expected to act submissively to maintain interpersonal balance. Thus, followers with a high PF are motivated to engage in helping and voice behaviors when they work with less transformational leaders, whereas those who lack a PF display more helping and voice behaviors in interactions with highly transformational leaders. Firmly grounded in the notion of dominance complementarity, our findings demonstrate that complementarity in terms of PF can be an impetus for employees' helping and voice behaviors. Hence, by validating dominance complementarity theory as a central framework underlying helping and voice behaviors, this study theoretically contributes to research on helping and voice behaviors.

Although complementary fit effect between TAL and follower PV was not supported for helping behavior, the assessment of the functional form of

relationships revealed an asymmetric effect for helping behavior, such that helping behavior was higher for prevention-focused followers interacting with less transactional leaders than for less prevention-focused followers interacting with transactional leaders. This result is in line with the findings of regulatory focus research indicating that prevention-focused individuals engage in more prosocial behavior than less promotion-focused ones (e.g., Brebels, De Cremer, & Sedikides, 2008; De Cremer et al., 2009). Yet, such an asymmetric effect should be interpreted with caution, given that similarity in PV and TAL yielded greater helping behavior than dissimilarity between the two.

It is noteworthy that we observed no asymmetric complementary fit for voice behavior. The test of functional form showed no significant difference in voice behavior between promotion-focused followers working with less transformational leaders and less promotion-focused followers interacting with transformational leaders. It appeared that followers engaged in more voice behavior as long as their PF deviated from the leader's TFL. One explanation for this finding is that regardless of the levels of PF and TFL, discrepancy between the two qualities itself might have resulted in more voice behavior, which is consistent with the argument that being different from others can trigger the necessity of changing the current situation (Gilson, 2001). Unlike voice behavior, helping behavior occurs in interpersonal relationships and involves dealing with demands from others. Therefore, similarity in terms of tendency to protect current relationships may have served as a strong motivator for helping behavior. These findings altogether generally endorse our assumption that PV and TAL are critical to helping behavior, whereas PF and TFL are more important to voice behavior.

Practical implications

Our study offers valuable practical implications for both leaders and employees. Findings suggest that leaders should take a more nuanced approach to forming relationships with their followers. Depending on the dominant type of regulatory focus that each follower displays, leaders need to pursue either a supplementary or complementary perspective. Given that supplementary fit in terms of PV is conducive to helping behavior, the pairing of transactional leaders and prevention-focused followers can boost the followers' helping behavior. In contrast, alignment in terms of leader–follower regulatory focus is not as critical to PF as to PV. When either the leader or the follower adopts a PF, leaders may need to focus on leader–follower complementarity. To promote employees' helping and voice behaviors, the pairing of transformational leaders and less promotion-focused followers and the pairing of less transformational leaders and promotion-focused followers are desirable. Leaders who manage less-promotion focused followers are advised to acquire and display more TFL qualities. On the

other hand, when followers are highly promotion focused, leaders are anticipated to become more receptive (Grant et al., 2011). In this case, playing a supportive role in their interactions with followers can encourage the followers to engage in more helping and voice behaviors. Likewise, promotion-focused followers who work with less transformational leaders need to take extra initiative to compensate for their leader's lack of strong leadership qualities. All in all, given the growing evidence for the positive ramifications of leader–member complementary fit (e.g., Grant et al., 2011), leaders need to be more open to followers whose characteristics differ from their own and collaborate with them more often to maximize the benefits of leader–follower complementarity.

Limitations and directions for future research

Despite its theoretical and practical implications, this study is subject to several limitations that suggest directions for future research. First, because this study exclusively examined the direct relationship between leader–follower complementary fit and extra-role behaviors, the question of how complementary fit leads to extra-role behaviors remains unanswered. Although we have proposed communal and exchange orientations as plausible mechanisms to explain the relationship between complementary fit and helping behavior, we did not test these mechanisms empirically in this study. Moreover, explanatory mechanisms by which supplementary fit in terms of PV affects helping behavior should be further elaborated and validated in future research. The exploration of mediators and moderators affecting leader–follower complementary and supplementary fit can overcome such limitations.

Second, we acknowledge the use of self-reported measures as a limitation of this study. Researchers warn against the perils of self-ratings for helping behavior because they are vulnerable to rater biases and social desirability. Although we controlled for social desirability in our analyses to reduce these problems, we recommend future researchers to choose more rigorous measures for helping and voice behavior (e.g., supervisor ratings, number of suggestions for organizational improvement).

Finally, the issue of causality inherent in cross-sectional research should be noted. The cross-sectional nature of the present study precludes strong causal inferences between leader–follower complementary fit and helping and voice behaviors. To address this issue, future work could be directed at testing the longitudinal effect of leader–follower complementary fit on extra-role behaviors. Furthermore, given that leader–follower interactions can change over time, longitudinal investigations into the temporal dynamics of leader–member complementary fit in predicting various work outcomes could be an intriguing future research agenda.

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