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# Starting a Proactive Workday by Reattaching to Work: How Reattachment and Supervisor Support for Self-Management Prompt Daily Proactivity

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## ABSTRACT

Proactive behavior is important in today's organizations. To mobilize psychological resources needed for proactive motivation, employees benefit from reattaching to work at the start of the workday. Reattaching to work is a daily mental process that enables employees to transition smoothly between nonwork and work periods. Integrating the literatures on proactivity and reattachment, we develop a model in which morning reattachment to work initiates employees' daily proactive behavior via proactive motivational states—high-activated positive affect (*energized to motivation*), autonomous motivation (*reason to motivation*), and organization-based self-esteem (*can do motivation*). We further identify perceived supervisor support for self-management as a cross-level moderating factor strengthening the association of reattachment with proactive motivational states and subsequently proactivity. Building through two 10-day experience sampling studies with Chinese (Study 1) and US (Study 2) samples, we found support for our model in which morning reattachment promoted high-activated positive affect and autonomous motivation and consequently led to more daily proactive behavior. Supervisor support for self-management strengthened the associations of reattachment with these proactive motivational states. We advance the research on proactivity by integrating the emerging literature on reattachment to work to delineate a process through which reattaching to work represents an effective cognitive strategy connecting nonwork and work periods to generate proactivity on a daily basis.

## 1 | Introduction

Employee proactive behavior is important in contemporary workplaces (Strauss and Parker 2018). Such proactive behavior—defined as self-initiated, change-oriented, and future-focused actions (Griffin et al. 2007)—is facilitated by specific motivational states (Parker et al. 2010) and requires significant psychological resources. These resources are needed to identify issues requiring attention beyond core job duties, to develop solutions for problems detected and to remain persistent in case

of difficulties (Bindl et al. 2012; Frese and Fay 2001). Thus, to be proactive on a given day, employees need psychological resources to approach their work with proactive motivational states.

Previous research that examined day-specific proactive behavior has focused either on factors that originate from leisure-time experiences (Ouyang et al. 2019; Sonnentag 2003) or that emerge during the day at work (Ohly and Fritz 2010; Tsai 2023). In our research, we suggest that the period when

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employees initially cross the boundary between nonwork and work roles is an important time that sets employees up for being proactive during the day at work. Specifically, we argue that reattachment to work before actually starting work (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016) assists employees in mentally preparing for the upcoming workday. Reattachment to work is “the process of mentally reconnecting to one’s work after a nonwork period” (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016, 380) which mobilizes psychological resources that, in turn, translate into proactive motivational states.

Integrating theories of proactive motivation (Parker et al. 2010) with the emergent literature on reattachment (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016), the current research addresses *how* and *when* employees’ reattachment to work initiates daily proactive behavior through a motivational process. Specifically, the model of proactive motivation identifies *energized to*, *reason to*, and *can do* motivational states preceding proactive behavior (Parker et al. 2010). *Energized to* represents affective response tendencies associated with high-activated positive affect (Bindl et al. 2012; Parker et al. 2010), reflecting activated states of enthusiasm, alertness, and inspiration that fluctuate within-person from one day to the next (Sessions et al. 2021; Tepper et al. 2018). *Reason to* represents self-determined states aligned with autonomous motivation (Parker et al. 2010), a motivational state fluctuating within-person day-to-day (Converse et al. 2019; Lin et al. 2019), in which an individual pursues goals with a deep sense of willingness, choice, and volition (Deci et al. 2017). *Can do* represents perceived impact aligned with positive self-evaluations, reflected in organization-based self-esteem (OBSE; Sherf et al. 2021), which refers to an individual’s sense of worth and competence in the organization (Pierce et al. 1989). Research also indicates that OBSE fluctuates daily within-person (Ferris et al. 2012; Xanthopoulou et al. 2009).

Supervisors play an important role for proactive behavior (Hu et al. 2018; Schmitt et al. 2016). Supervisors’ supportive behaviors represent a supportive leadership style, which is stable over time and transcends a given organizational context (Kossek et al. 2023; Oreg and Berson 2019; Parker et al. 2006). As such, we conceptualize perceived supervisor support as a cross-level moderator of the daily reattachment process, capturing employees’ typical support experiences. As supportive behaviors can come in various forms (e.g., Carmeli et al. 2009; Parker et al. 2006; Shanock and Eisenberger 2006), we consider behaviors that facilitate employees’ self-direction and self-management (Manz and Sims 1987). Supervisor support for self-management reflects the extent to which supervisors generally encourage employees to self-initiate work-relevant goals, set high expectations, and hold awareness of their own performance (Manz and Sims 1987; Parker et al. 2006). The general perception of having a supervisor that supports one’s self-management supplements the resource mobilization process of reattachment for proactivity, compared to “traditional” supervisory behaviors, such as suggesting solutions to unforeseen problems, which may inadvertently encourage passivity (Parker et al. 2006, 640). As such, we consider supervisor support for self-management as an external driver that signals where employees can direct their reattachment-mobilized resources to achieve a proactive workday.

Our work makes a number of contributions to the literatures on proactivity and reattachment to work. First, given its self-motivated nature, in which employees cannot be formally required to be proactive (Griffin et al. 2007), understanding within-person factors that drive this resource-intensive behavior is paramount (e.g., Binnewies et al. 2009; Ouyang et al. 2019; Sonnentag and Starzyk 2015). While informative, past research on daily proactive behavior has considered non-work and work contexts in isolation, overlooking how employees can strategically leverage the period before the official start of the workday to assemble resources for daily proactivity. Reattaching to work in the morning facilitates employees’ cognitive shift from a nonwork to a work period, thus answering calls to identify “what an individual can do to enhance the likelihood of success when embarking on proactivity” (Parker et al. 2019, 235).

Second, reattachment research has, to date, focused on work engagement as the predominant outcome of interest (Schleupner et al. 2023; Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016; Vogel et al. 2021) and anticipated task focus and positive affect as core mechanisms (Fritz et al. 2021; Sonnentag et al. 2020). In alignment with theoretical arguments from the model of proactive motivation (Parker et al. 2010), we establish proactivity as a central outcome of a reattachment process, capturing how factors that mobilize the resources to be proactive can be found as early as the start of the workday. Meanwhile, we extend knowledge about the psychological processes that can result from reattachment in affecting proactivity (Schleupner et al. 2023). Explicating the specific work motivations underlying the within-person reattachment-proactivity relationship provides a degree of precision in unraveling how reattachment to work in the morning fosters proactive behavior each day.

We also extend the theoretical breadth of the reattachment literature by introducing supervisor support for self-management, a contextual work resource with theoretical relevance to proactive motivational states (Parker et al. 2010), as a defining boundary condition of the impact of daily reattachment to work on high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, and OBSE, and subsequently on proactive behavior. Delineating the role of supervisors in reinforcing the within-person effect of employees’ reattachment on proactive motivational states and, in turn, on proactive behavior contributes to a deeper understanding of how supervisors can meaningfully support employees in engaging in daily proactive behavior.

## 2 | Theory and Hypotheses

### 2.1 | Reattachment To Work And Proactive Behavior

Reattachment to work is the process of mentally reconnecting back to work after a nonwork period (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016). Typically occurring in the morning before starting work, reattachment reflects a cognitive process in which employees generate resources before the beginning of billable hours and actually starting to work on one’s tasks (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016). Reattachment varies within person day in and day out (Sonnentag et al. 2020; Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016). For

instance, on some days, employees may have enough time and energy to mentally reconnect with their work tasks before starting their official duties. However, on other days, they may rush into work without the opportunity to take a moment to engage in reattachment.

Reattachment may include some degree of planning and mental simulation of the upcoming workday, although planning and mental simulation are not necessary components of a reattachment process (Sonnentag et al. 2020). For example, on days when an employee reattaches to work, they may spend a few minutes that morning thinking about their upcoming workday, the tasks that must be completed, and potentially think through any challenges they may face in striving toward their work goals (Sonnentag et al. 2020). Mentally drafting an email while commuting to work can be a typical aspect of a reattachment process. In this reattachment process of switching back to work mode, anticipating tasks, and mentally preparing for the day, work-related goals are activated (Sonnentag et al. 2020). Notably, although reattachment will foster proactive behavior, reattachment is not synonymous with proactive behavior because at its core, reattachment does not focus on bringing about change (Parker et al. 2010). In support of this, we conducted an exploratory study on the content of reattachment cognitions, finding that it seldom explicitly includes thoughts about proactive actions or deliberately planning proactive behavior (see online Supporting Information for more details).

On days when an employee reattaches to work in the morning, this sets the tone for the rest of the workday, influencing various aspects of an employee's behavior. Building on reattachment and proactivity research (Parker et al. 2010; Sonnentag et al. 2020), we expect that the morning reattachment process plays a crucial role in promoting daily goal initiation and pursuit (Sonnetttag et al. 2020), as reattaching to work in the morning helps employees set clear goals and actively work toward achieving them on that day. Since daily proactive behavior represents a goal-directed process that initiates change in the workplace (Schilpzand et al. 2018), on days when employees reattach to work, they activate daily work goals (Sonnetttag et al. 2020) that involve generating and pursuing proactive goals. Moreover, resource mobilization resulting from the morning reattachment process serves as a daily catalyst for generating proactive goals, maintaining persistence in the face of challenges, and sustaining motivation during goal striving (Sonnetttag et al. 2020; Sonnetttag and Kühnel 2016). During nonwork periods, employees may mentally disconnect from work, which can leave them feeling unprepared or disengaged when returning to work (Ouyang et al. 2019). The morning reattachment process helps employees mentally transition back to work on that day, reactivating important psychological resources such as energy (Fritz et al. 2021; Sonnetttag et al. 2020). These resources are key drivers of daily proactive behavior (Schmitt et al. 2017). As reattachment to work and proactive behavior have been shown to fluctuate on a daily basis (Ouyang et al. 2019; Sonnetttag and Kühnel 2016), we expect that, on days when employees reattach to work each morning, this serves as a powerful enabler of daily proactive behavior.

**Hypothesis 1.** *On a daily basis, reattachment to work is positively related to proactive behavior.*

### 2.1.1 | Reattachment to Work, Proactive Motivation, and Proactive Behavior

Our theoretical grounding in the model of proactive motivation (Parker et al. 2010) and the reattachment literature (Sonnetttag and Kühnel 2016) suggests that reattachment initiates proactive behavior through a motivational process. Parker et al. (2010) have proposed three motivational drivers of proactive behavior, including activated positive affect to foster proactive behavior (an *energized* to pathway), a desire to bring about proactive behavior (a *reason* to pathway), and feeling capable of engaging in proactive behavior (a *can do* pathway) (Raub and Liao 2012).

### 2.1.2 | Reattachment to Work, High-Activated Positive Affect, and Proactive Behavior

Although reattachment to work does not in and of itself carry an affective tone and can include neutral, positive, or negative thoughts about the upcoming workday (Sonnetttag and Kühnel 2016), we assert that reattachment to work is likely to lead to high-activated positive affect. First, from a resource perspective, on days when an employee engages in reattachment to work, it facilitates effective mobilization and allocation of psychological resources (Sonnetttag and Kühnel 2016; Völker et al. 2024), leading to stronger feelings of energy and enthusiasm on that day. Past research has suggested that, when employees reattach to work, they mentally prepare for the day ahead, summoning energy even before the workday begins (Sonnetttag and Kühnel 2016). This preparatory action for taking on the day ahead can cultivate positive self-evaluations and prompt high-activated positive affect (Sonnetttag et al. 2020). Second, reattachment involves thinking about work-related goals and adopting resource-oriented strategies (e.g., prioritizing, listing, and planning). These initial steps toward achieving work goals foster a sense of goal progress (Sonnetttag et al. 2020), which predicts positive affect (Carver and Scheier 1990; Scott et al. 2010). Indeed, reattachment research has indicated that morning reattachment is associated with an increase in high-activated positive affect on the same day due to work goal activation (Sonnetttag et al. 2020).

High-activated positive affect is further expected to promote daily proactive behavior (Parker et al. 2010). High-activated positive affect, in contrast to low-activated positive affect characterized by inaction and lethargy (Russell 2003), represents an energetic state that mobilizes efforts toward proactive action (Parker et al. 2010). As an energized state of activated positive affect broadens and builds individuals' resources (Fredrickson 2001; Quinn et al. 2012), this enlarged resource repertoire yields *energized* motivation for initiating and sustaining proactive efforts (Bindl et al. 2012). Prior research has indicated that, on days employees experience high-activated positive affect, they possess the energy for proactive actions on that day (Ouyang et al. 2019). Taken together, we expect that, on days when employees mentally reattach to work, they are more likely to feel high-activated positive affect and subsequently enact proactive behavior.

**Hypothesis 2a.** *On a daily basis, reattachment to work is positively related to high-activated positive affect.*

**Hypothesis 2b.** *On a daily basis, high-activated positive affect is positively related to proactive behavior.*

**Hypothesis 2c.** *On a daily basis, high-activated positive affect partially mediates the relationship between reattachment to work and proactive behavior.*

### 2.1.3 | Reattachment to Work, Autonomous Motivation, and Proactive Behavior

Reattaching to work in the morning is also expected to initiate autonomous motivation. First, reattachment involves shifting one's attentional resources from nonwork issues to work-related tasks, resulting in absorption in one's work (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016). Being absorbed in one's work resembles a state of "flow" or optimal experience marked by focused attention, altered perception of time, and intrinsic enjoyment (Czikszentmihalyi 1990; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), with intrinsic enjoyment being a crucial aspect of autonomous motivation (Gagné et al. 2015). Indirect empirical evidence has indicated that reattachment boosts work engagement at the day level (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016), considered an indicator of intrinsic motivation (Salanova and Schaufeli 2008). Second, thinking about the workday ahead allows employees to anticipate potential obstacles, enabling them to prepare solutions and allocate resources to handle foreseeable challenges (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016). This process of planning ahead and the willingness to allocate resources signifies employees' judgments of expectancy and instrumentality, or the belief that their efforts will effectively achieve planned goals (Schmidt and Dolis 2009). These beliefs foster an internal desire to succeed, enhancing their sense of volition.

Reattachment to work, in initiating daily autonomous motivation as a *reason for* motivation, further steers planful behavior for proactively achieving one's volitional work goals. The model of proactive motivation maintains that a primary reason to be proactive is "autonomous motivation [that] can drive proactive goal processes" (Parker et al. 2010, 837). Because proactive behavior is self-initiated, initiators tend to have a strong internal commitment to the goal that acts as a catalyst for proactive action (Parker et al. 2010). When employees are autonomously motivated at work, they are inherently self-determined and driven to set and strive for proactive goals (Salanova and Schaufeli 2008), encouraging proactive behavior that day. Autonomous motivation, comprised of intrinsic motivation and identified motivation, captures a broader set of internal motivators that allow for greater applications to how work can be carried out proactively. For instance, learning new work skills and initiating changes to existing work routines may not be inherently enjoyable (intrinsic motivation), but they are crucial for the effective and efficient implementation of work processes that contribute to organizational functioning (identified motivation).

When an employee identifies with the value behind their work tasks, they are more inclined to take risks in setting proactive goals and devote more resources to reaching those goals (Wu and Parker 2017). Since individuals who are autonomously regulated use fewer psychological resources than those driven

by controlled motivation, they have more resources at their disposal to successfully make changes during a proactive goal episode and to maintain high levels of proactivity over time (Strauss and Parker 2014). Extending previous research showing that autonomous motivation promotes proactive behavior at the between-person level (Wu and Parker 2017), we expect that this relationship also exists at the within-person level, as both autonomous motivation and proactive behavior have been shown to vary on a daily basis (Lin et al. 2019; Ohly and Fritz 2010). Put together, we propose that on days when employees reattach to work, they are more likely to be autonomously motivated and subsequently enact proactive behavior.

**Hypothesis 3a.** *On a daily basis, reattachment to work is positively related to autonomous motivation.*

**Hypothesis 3b.** *On a daily basis, autonomous motivation is positively related to proactive behavior.*

**Hypothesis 3c.** *On a daily basis, autonomous motivation partially mediates the relationship between reattachment to work and proactive behavior.*

### 2.1.4 | Reattachment to Work, OBSE, and Proactive Behavior

While Parker et al. (2010) have discussed *can do* motivational factors such as self-efficacy, control appraisals, and perceived costs of action, we propose that OBSE is a foundational element of these factors. By emphasizing OBSE as a *can do* motivation during the reattachment to work process, we underline the importance of self-perception in proactive motivational states. Day-level studies have noted day-to-day fluctuations of OBSE (Ferris et al. 2012; Xanthopoulou et al. 2009). We expect reattachment to work in the morning to generate perceptions of OBSE at the day level based on the resource mobilization feature of reattachment (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016). First, when employees anticipate their daily tasks during reattachment, they can visualize what they need to accomplish and apply their resources toward completion. In this process of connecting their current state with future work selves and mobilizing resources to reduce the current-future discrepancy, employees experience work meaningfulness (De Boeck et al. 2019), which increases their OBSE (Cohen-Meitar et al. 2009). Second, reattaching to work entails mobilizing energy, directing attentional resources back to work roles, and allocating resources (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016), which boosts the availability of psychological resources at work (Yuan et al. 2021). Past research has suggested that the accumulation of psychological resources reinforces employees' faith in their capability at work and enhances OBSE (Dhir et al. 2024).

OBSE, as a *can do* motivation, is reflective of an individual's perceived capability to make a difference within their workplace (Pierce and Gardner 2004), which can activate proactive behavior (Chen and Aryee 2007; Liu et al. 2013). Unlike external factors such as job control, OBSE is an internal sense of worth and competence in the organization (Pierce et al. 1989) and affects an employee's assessment of their influence over their environment and their capacity to exert control over work



behavior (Liang et al. 2012; Sherf et al. 2021), corresponding to the control appraisal aspect of *can do* motivation (Parker et al. 2010). Empirical evidence demonstrating the relationship between OBSE and proactive behavior comes from between-person research: employees with high perceptions of OBSE view themselves as having behavioral control, which can initiate proactivity (Liang et al. 2012). Applying this reasoning to the within-person level, we suggest that daily perceptions of OBSE are related to proactive behavior occurring on the same day.

In addition, OBSE reflects a psychological resource (Filosa and Alessandri 2024; Gordon and Hood 2021). As daily proactive behavior can be highly consuming of psychological resources (Ouyang et al. 2019), employees with a larger resource pool on specific days are more confident in investing resources for daily proactive behavior to cope with possible challenges. In contrast, on days with insufficient resources, employees may consider it unwise to initiate proactive behavior (Parker et al. 2019). As such, on days when employees reattach to work, they are more likely to perceive higher OBSE and feel they *can* engage more proactively with their work that day.

**Hypothesis 4a.** *On a daily basis, reattachment to work is positively related to OBSE.*

**Hypothesis 4b.** *On a daily basis, OBSE is positively related to proactive behavior.*

**Hypothesis 4c.** *On a daily basis, OBSE partially mediates the relationship between reattachment to work and proactive behavior.*

## 2.2 | Reattachment, Supervisor Support for Self-Management, and Proactive Behavior

We further extend our theoretical model to consider the role of supervisor support for self-management in strengthening the effect of reattachment on proactive behavior through proactive motivational states (*energized to*, *reason to*, and *can do*). We build upon proactivity research noting the futility of investing limited personal resources in the enactment of proactive behavior without broader support for proactivity (Lee et al. 2019). The proactive motivation model holds that support from one's supervisor is a key contextual variable that interacts with individual factors to influence proactive motivational states (Parker et al. 2010). We expect that employees' general perception of having a supportive and encouraging supervisor who fosters self-expectations for goal setting and achievement will reinforce the reattachment process.

Building on the proposition that reattaching to work triggers activated positive affect by enabling employees to mobilize resources for work and achieve work goals more effectively, we expect this relationship to be amplified for employees with higher (versus lower) perceived supervisor support for self-management. Employees who perceive strong (versus weak) supervisor support for self-management have more autonomy to allocate their resources in work preparation, amplifying the positive impact of reattachment on activated positive affect (Lemos et al. 2017). When supervisors encourage self-set goals rather

than goals set by the organization, employees are more likely to derive energy and enthusiasm from their own goal setting during the reattachment process (Welsh et al. 2020).

Moreover, supervisor support for self-management is expected to moderate the partial mediation of reattachment to work on daily proactive behavior via high-activated positive affect. Employees who perceive greater supervisor support are more likely to experience a stronger emotional impact, specifically heightened activated positive affect (Cole et al. 2006) on days when reattaching to work. This activated positive affect broadens and builds employees' resources (Fredrickson 2001), such as motivation, energy, and willingness, to pursue proactive actions during the workday. Put together, on days employees reattach to work, high-activated positive affect is intensified, strengthening proactive actions when supervisor support for self-management is higher (versus lower).

**Hypothesis 5a.** *Supervisor support for self-management moderates the relationship between reattachment to work and high-activated positive affect, such that this positive relationship is amplified for employees with higher (versus lower) levels of supervisor support for self-management.*

**Hypothesis 5b.** *Supervisor support for self-management moderates the partial mediation between reattachment to work and proactive behavior via high-activated positive affect, such that this positive mediation is amplified for employees with higher (versus lower) levels of supervisor support for self-management.*

Supervisor support for self-management is expected to strengthen the relationship between reattachment to work and autonomous motivation. When employees reattach to work in the morning, those who perceive high (versus low) levels of support from their supervisor to manage their own work can better allocate their resources toward tasks and goals that align with their interests and values without being overly preoccupied with potential obstacles or threats (Carmeli et al. 2010; Wu and Parker 2017), strengthening the effect of reattachment on autonomous motivation. Perceiving low levels of supervisor support, in contrast, may orient employees' resources mobilized by reattachment toward tasks and goals that feel externally imposed. In addition, perceiving higher (versus lower) supervisor support represents a type of job resource that employees can mobilize from the environment during reattachment (Munc et al. 2017; Sonnentag et al. 2020). With a greater store of job resources to harness in the reattachment process, employees are more inclined to experience autonomous motivation (De Cooman et al. 2013).

Supervisor support for self-management is also expected to moderate the partial mediation of reattachment to work and daily proactive behavior via autonomous motivation. For employees who perceive greater (versus weaker) supervisor support for self-management, autonomous motivation increases on days in which they reattach to work, such that their discretion in independently managing tasks serves as an influential driver of self-initiated proactive actions in the workplace (McAllister et al. 2007; Parker and Wu 2014). Employees who perceive higher (versus lower) supervisor support for self-management develop greater interest and a stronger sense of identity on days

with high reattachment, which motivates them to take risks to set proactive goals and persist in achieving those goals during these days (Wu and Parker 2017). In addition, although proactivity consumes resources, supportive supervisors foster psychological safety (Singh et al. 2018), encouraging employees to take risks without fear of negative consequences. Such support signals encouragement and the availability of resources, which further bolsters autonomous motivation by making the proactive goal striving process less depleting and more feasible and rewarding (Strauss et al. 2017). This inspires employees to invest effort in self-initiated proactive actions. As such, on days employees reattach to work, autonomous motivation is a more powerful driver of proactive behavior when supervisor support for self-management is higher (versus lower).

**Hypothesis 6a.** *Supervisor support for self-management moderates the relationship between reattachment to work and autonomous motivation, such that this positive relationship is amplified for employees with higher (versus lower) levels of supervisor support for self-management.*

**Hypothesis 6b.** *Supervisor support for self-management moderates the partial mediation between reattachment to work and proactive behavior via autonomous motivation, such that this positive mediation is amplified for employees with higher (versus lower) levels of supervisor support.*

Supervisor support for self-management is also expected to strengthen the relationship between reattachment to work and OBSE, as it can enhance the mobilization of psychological resources during reattachment toward performing tasks that demonstrate employees' competence. Employees who perceive greater (versus weaker) support from their supervisors for setting their own goals and having high expectations are likely to feel recognized for their capabilities and entrusted with significant responsibilities (Su et al. 2022). When employees reattach to their work, perceiving higher (versus lower) supervisor support encourages employees to allocate resources to complete challenging goals, reinforcing their sense of value and competence in the organization (Kirkman and Rosen 1999; Manz and Sims 1987). In contrast, when employees perceive lower levels of supervisor support for self-management, employees' resource mobilization during reattachment may be underutilized, weakening the impact of reattachment on OBSE.

Supervisor support for self-management is further expected to moderate the partial mediation of reattachment to work on daily proactive behavior via OBSE (Ferris et al. 2009; Scott et al. 2014). For employees who perceive that their supervisors trust and support their abilities to manage their work effectively, psychological resources are enhanced (Munc et al. 2017), which are critical for proactive engagement. Specifically, when employees have a supportive supervisor, their sense of confidence, worth, and competence (Bowling et al. 2010) is reinforced on days with high reattachment, making them more receptive to approaching their work proactively on this day. Higher supervisor support for self-management also signals to employees that their efforts and initiative are valued (Bowling et al. 2010). On days when reattachment is high, these signals from a supportive supervisor boost employees' *can do* motivation to seize opportunities to initiate and persist in proactive

actions. On days employees reattach to work, the impact of OBSE is higher, leading to more proactive actions when supervisor support for self-management is higher (versus lower).

**Hypothesis 7a.** *Supervisor support for self-management moderates the relationship between reattachment to work and OBSE, such that this positive relationship is amplified for employees with higher (versus lower) levels of supervisor support for self-management.*

**Hypothesis 7b.** *Supervisor support for self-management moderates the partial mediation between reattachment to work and proactive behavior via OBSE, such that this positive mediation is amplified for employees with higher (versus lower) levels of supervisor support for self-management.*

### 3 | Overview of Studies

We progressively test our model across two 10-day experience sampling studies. In Study 1, we test our driving research question around how daily reattachment relates to proactive motivational states and behavior (Hypotheses 1–4). In Study 2, we replicate Study 1 (Hypotheses 1–4) and extend the theoretical model by including the role of supervisor support for self-management as a conditioning factor bolstering the effects of reattachment (Hypotheses 5–7). We also seek to examine, in an exploratory manner, the external validity of our model across Eastern (Study 1) and Western (Study 2) contexts, to determine whether reattachment unfolds in a generally similar manner across cultures.

## 4 | Study 1: Method

### 4.1 | Participants and Procedure

We recruited participants from five medical device companies and from these employees' networks in Hong Kong and Mainland China. HR directors disseminated our information sheet to employees. In total, 110 participants (93 from the medical device companies and 17 from employee networks) completed the baseline survey. One week later, participants completed three daily online surveys, including morning, midday, and end-of-workday surveys, for two consecutive work weeks (Monday to Friday). The baseline survey indicated that employees typically worked standard working hours (9 a.m. to 5 p.m.). Accordingly, we sent the morning survey at 9:00 a.m., the midday survey at 1:00 p.m., and the end-of-workday survey at 4:00 p.m. We used electronic timestamps to record the exact time of data submission. Participants received up to ¥75 (approximately \$11 USD) for completing the study.

A total of 108 participants proceeded with the daily portion of the study. From the 108 participants, we received 860 responses to morning surveys, 851 responses to midday surveys, and 819 responses to end-of-workday surveys. We then matched the morning, midday, and end-of-workday surveys to form a "full day" of cases. To test our model with as many cases as possible and provide more unbiased estimates of parameters and standard errors, we retained cases from days on which the

participant completed both morning and midday surveys, and we allowed missing data in the end-of-workday surveys following recent experience sampling method (ESM) research (e.g., Baer et al. 2022; Gabriel et al. 2023; Sessions et al. 2023). This procedure resulted in 829 “full day” cases from 104 participants, out of a maximum of 1040 (104 participants  $\times$  10 daily responses), yielding an overall response rate of 79.71%. Our final sample size was 104 participants (65% female), who were on average aged 33.63 years ( $SD=6.05$ ), had an average of 4.77 years ( $SD=3.84$ ) in organizational tenure, and worked 44.26 hours ( $SD=10.46$ ) on average per week. Of the 104 participants, 79.81% held a bachelor's degree or above. These participants held a range of occupations (e.g., sales manager and accountant).

## 4.2 | Measures

We translated all measures into Chinese based on Brislin's (1980) translation-back translation procedures. We invited two bilinguals who were blind to our research objective and hypotheses to conduct the translation-back translation of our study measures. As a first step, one bilingual translated all items into Chinese. Second, another bilingual translated the Chinese items back to English. Finally, one of the authors checked all items in Chinese and English and resolved any inconsistencies through discussion. Unless otherwise stated, all items were rated on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*).

### 4.2.1 | Reattachment to Work

In the morning survey, we measured reattachment using Sonnentag and Kühnel's (2016) five-item reattachment scale, with the stem “before I started work this morning.” A sample item is: *I thought about what I wanted to achieve at work today*. Using Geldhof et al.'s (2014) Mplus code, we calculated the within-person omega. The coefficient within-person omega was 0.81.

### 4.2.2 | High-Activated Positive Affect (Energized to Motivation)

We captured high-activated positive affect in the morning survey, as emotional experiences have a sharp rise time and limited duration (Schwarz 2012). High-activated positive affect was measured using three items from Mackinnon et al. (1999). To evaluate the extent to which the shortened three-item measure converges with the full five-item measure, we conducted a scale validation study (see online Supporting Information). Participants reported the extent to which they felt each affect “right now” (1 = *Not at all* to 5 = *A very large extent*): *inspired, alert, enthusiastic*. Coefficient within-person omega was 0.60.

### 4.2.3 | Autonomous Motivation (Reason to Motivation)

In the midday survey, we measured autonomous motivation with Hewett and Conway's (2016) four-item scale (e.g., *Today, I put my time or effort into my work tasks because the task or*

*activity was of personal significance to me*). Coefficient within-person omega was 0.77.

### 4.2.4 | OBSE (Can Do Motivation)

In the midday survey, we measured OBSE with three items from Ferris et al.'s (2012) daily scale using the stem “right now.” We performed a scale validation study (see online Supporting Information) to confirm convergence with the full five-item daily measure (Ferris et al. 2012). Participants reported the extent of agreement in response to the statements: *I count around the organization, I am taken seriously in the organization*, and *There is faith in me in the organization*. Coefficient within-person omega was 0.58.

### 4.2.5 | Proactive Behavior

In the end-of-workday survey, we measured proactive behavior using the stem “today” with six items from Griffin et al. (2007) (1 = *Not at all* to 5 = *A very large extent*). Sample items are: *I initiated better ways of doing my core tasks* and *I suggested ways to make my work unit more effective*. Coefficient within-person omega was 0.85.

## 4.3 | Control Variables

We controlled for previous-day proactive motivational states and proactive behavior to account for autoregressive effects of our endogenous variables (e.g., Gabriel et al. 2021; Scott and Barnes 2011). To account for time trends involved in ESM data (Beal and Weiss 2003), we modelled day of the week and sine and cosine of the day. Prior daily research has shown that employees' positive affect, motivations, and performance have weekly cycles, showing a decreasing trend from Monday to Friday (Dust et al. 2022).

## 4.4 | Analytical Approach

We conducted multilevel path analyses in Mplus version 8.7 (Muthén and Muthén 1998–2021). Missing data on our dependent variable—proactive behavior—were addressed using full-information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation (Newman 2014). To test whether our data met the assumption that data were missing at random, we created a dummy variable by coding missingness of our dependent variable as 1 and nonmissingness as 0 (Yoon et al. 2021). We regressed the dummy variable on our predictors, including reattachment and proactive motivational states. Results indicated nonsignificant relationships between reattachment and missingness ( $\gamma=0.01$ ,  $SE=0.01$ ,  $p=0.518$ ), between high-activated positive affect and missingness ( $\gamma=-0.02$ ,  $SE=0.01$ ,  $p=0.222$ ), between autonomous motivation and missingness ( $\gamma=0.01$ ,  $SE=0.02$ ,  $p=0.703$ ), and between OBSE and missingness ( $\gamma=0.00$ ,  $SE=0.01$ ,  $p=0.937$ ), justifying the use of FIML to ensure unbiased estimates of parameters and standard errors.

To remove between-person variances, we group-mean centered the Level-1 predictor, mediators, and controls (Enders

and Tofghi 2007). In line with ESM best practices (e.g., Chawla et al. 2020; Lanaj et al. 2019), hypothesized paths were modelled with random slopes, and control paths were modelled with fixed slopes. We also allowed the three proactive motivational states to covary and allowed all random slopes to covary to account for unmeasured common causes (Barnes et al. 2023; Gabriel et al. 2023; Lee et al. 2016). To test partial mediation effects, we generated 95% confidence intervals (CIs) using 20,000-iteration Monte Carlo bootstrapping (Selig and Preacher 2008). The bootstrapping method utilized path coefficients, as well as their asymptotic variances and covariances, to generate random draws from the joint distributions of paths (Selig and Preacher 2008). The data and code for the analyses in Studies 1 and 2 can be found at: [https://osf.io/tjcaz/?view\\_only=66b699c91b094c7ca333cd1c8dc5ef81](https://osf.io/tjcaz/?view_only=66b699c91b094c7ca333cd1c8dc5ef81).

## 5 | Study 1: Results

### 5.1 | Preliminary Analysis

To ensure the appropriateness of within-person modelling for data analysis, we first estimated a null model that contained only intercepts and no predictors. Results of the null model indicated that the percentage of within-individual variance in each Level 1 variable was sufficiently high (reattachment to work: 34.46%; high-activated positive affect: 31.99%; autonomous

motivation: 33.53%; OBSE: 24.48%; proactive behavior: 31.29%), justifying within-person modelling for data analysis (Podsakoff et al. 2019).

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics, between- and within-person correlations, and reliabilities of all study variables. We examined the discriminant validity for the self-reported scales by conducting multilevel confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs). The CFA results are summarized in Table 2. Following recent ESM research (e.g., Schoellbauer et al. 2022), we compared the model fit using the Satorra–Bentler (SB) scaled chi-square difference (Asparouhov and Muthén 2010; Satorra and Bentler 2010). In line with prior ESM research (Gabriel et al. 2021; Lin et al. 2020), items were centered around person means. Model 1 distinguishing between reattachment to work, high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, OBSE, and proactive behavior showed better fit than alternative models. While a CFI and TLI value of 0.90 or above is generally considered an indicator of good model fit, this is not an absolute standard. It is recommended that fit decisions be made through a comprehensive evaluation rather than relying on CFI or TLI (West et al. 2012). The values in Model 1 (CFI = 0.85 and TLI = 0.84) were considered acceptable, as they were better than the fit indices for all alternative models. Moreover, the RMSEA and SRMR values in our model suggested good fit. Model 1 also exhibited fit measures commensurate with other ESM studies where the CFI value was below 0.90 but were superior to

**TABLE 1** | Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities (Study 1).

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Reattachment to work	3.97	0.79	<b>(0.81)</b>	0.65***	0.76***	0.69***	0.48***
2. High-activated positive affect	3.34	0.88	0.36***	<b>(0.60)</b>	0.75***	0.74***	0.75***
3. Autonomous motivation	3.58	0.82	0.16**	0.35***	<b>(0.77)</b>	0.79***	0.60***
4. OBSE	3.43	0.80	0.14*	0.20**	0.24***	<b>(0.58)</b>	0.66***
5. Proactive behavior	2.99	0.98	0.11*	0.28***	0.25***	0.21**	<b>(0.85)</b>

Note: Level 1  $N = 829$ , Level 2  $N = 104$ . Within-person correlations are presented below the diagonal, and between-person correlations are above the diagonal. Within-person omega is presented in parentheses along the diagonal.

Abbreviation: OBSE, organization-based self-esteem.

\* $p < 0.05$ .

\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

**TABLE 2** | Results of confirmatory factor analyses (Study 1).

Model	$\chi^2$	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR within	scr	$\Delta df$	$\Delta SB \chi^2$
<b>Model 1</b>	690.89***	200	0.85	0.84	0.05	0.05	1.25		
<b>Model 2</b>	989.68***	204	0.76	0.76	0.07	0.07	1.25	4	279.70***
<b>Model 3</b>	1306.04***	204	0.67	0.66	0.08	0.09	1.29	4	258.83***
<b>Model 4</b>	874.47***	204	0.80	0.79	0.06	0.06	1.26	4	130.48***
<b>Model 5</b>	1125.33***	207	0.72	0.72	0.07	0.07	1.27	7	306.39***

Note: Model 1 (the five-factor model) included reattachment, high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, OBSE, and proactive behavior. Model 2 (a four-factor model) combined reattachment and high-activated positive affect. Model 3 (a four-factor model) combined reattachment and autonomous motivation. Model 4 (a four-factor model) combined reattachment and OBSE. Model 5 (a three-factor model) combined high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, and OBSE. Abbreviations: CFI, comparative fit index; OBSE, organization-based self-esteem; RSMEA, root mean square error of approximation; scr, scaling correction factor; SRMR, standardized root mean square residual; TLI, Tucker–Lewis index;  $\Delta SB \chi^2$ , Satorra–Bentler scaled chi-square difference.

\* $p < 0.05$ .

\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .



alternatives (Dimotakis et al. 2023; Koopman et al. 2020; Rosen et al. 2020). Therefore, the CFA results confirmed the discriminant validity of the measures used in our study.

## 5.2 | Hypotheses Testing

Unstandardized coefficients from the multilevel path analyses appear in Table 3. Key results are summarized in Figure 1.

Hypothesis 1 posited that reattachment to work is positively associated with proactive behavior. To test the direct effect between reattachment to work and proactive behavior, we established a model excluding the mediators (see Model 1 in Table 3). Results indicated that reattachment to work was positively related to proactive behavior ( $\gamma=0.15$ ,  $SE=0.05$ ,  $p=0.004$ ), supporting Hypothesis 1. To test the partial mediation effects of proactive motivational states, we extended Model 1 by incorporating high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, and OBSE as mediators (see Model 2 in Table 3). Hypothesis 2a posited that reattachment to work is positively related to high-activated positive affect. Results indicated that reattachment to work had a positive relationship with high-activated positive affect ( $\gamma=0.31$ ,  $SE=0.06$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), supporting Hypothesis 2a.

Hypothesis 2b proposed a positive relationship between high-activated positive affect and proactive behavior. Results revealed that the relationship between high-activated positive affect and proactive behavior was significant ( $\gamma=0.17$ ,  $SE=0.05$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), supporting Hypothesis 2b. Hypothesis 2c posited that high-activated positive affect partially mediates the relationship between reattachment to work and proactive behavior. In support of Hypothesis 2c, the partial mediation of reattachment to work on proactive behavior via high-activated positive affect was significant ( $\gamma=0.05$ , 95% CI = [0.021, 0.095]).

Hypothesis 3a posited that reattachment to work is positively related to autonomous motivation. Supporting Hypothesis 3a, reattachment to work positively related to autonomous motivation ( $\gamma=0.13$ ,  $SE=0.05$ ,  $p=0.005$ ). Hypothesis 3b proposed a positive relationship between autonomous motivation and proactive behavior. Results showed that this relationship was significant ( $\gamma=0.19$ ,  $SE=0.06$ ,  $p=0.001$ ), offering support for Hypothesis 3b. Hypothesis 3c posited that autonomous motivation partially mediates the relationship between reattachment to work and proactive behavior. In support of Hypothesis 3c, the partial mediation between reattachment to work and proactive behavior via autonomous motivation was significant ( $\gamma=0.02$ , 95% CI = [0.005, 0.048]).

**TABLE 3** | Multilevel path analytic results (Study 1).

Predictors	Model 1		Model 2							
	Proactive behavior		High-activated positive affect		Autonomous motivation		OBSE		Proactive behavior	
	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE
Intercept	2.99***	0.08	3.34***	0.07	3.61***	0.07	3.45***	0.07	2.99***	0.08
Within-person level										
Day of the week	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.02	-0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.02
Sine	-0.01	0.03	0.01	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.03	-0.03	0.04
Cosine	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.03	-0.03	0.03	0.00	0.03
Previous-day high-activated positive affect			0.00	0.04						
Previous-day autonomous motivation					0.11*	0.06				
Previous-day OBSE							0.00	0.05		
Previous-day proactive behavior	0.07	0.06							-0.02	0.04
Reattachment to work	0.15**	0.05	0.31***	0.06	0.13**	0.05	0.12**	0.04	0.06	0.05
High-activated positive affect									0.17***	0.05
Autonomous motivation									0.19**	0.06
OBSE									0.08	0.06
Residual variance	0.28***	0.03	0.18***	0.02	0.19***	0.02	0.13***	0.01	0.23***	0.03
Pseudo- $R^2$ at Level 1	0.06		0.26		0.18		0.17		0.24	

Note: Level 1  $N=829$ , Level 2  $N=104$ . The estimates are unstandardized coefficients. We calculated Level 1 pseudo- $R^2$  based on Bryk and Raudenbush's (1992) formula  $[(\sigma_{null}^2 - \sigma_{predicted}^2) / \sigma_{null}^2]$ .

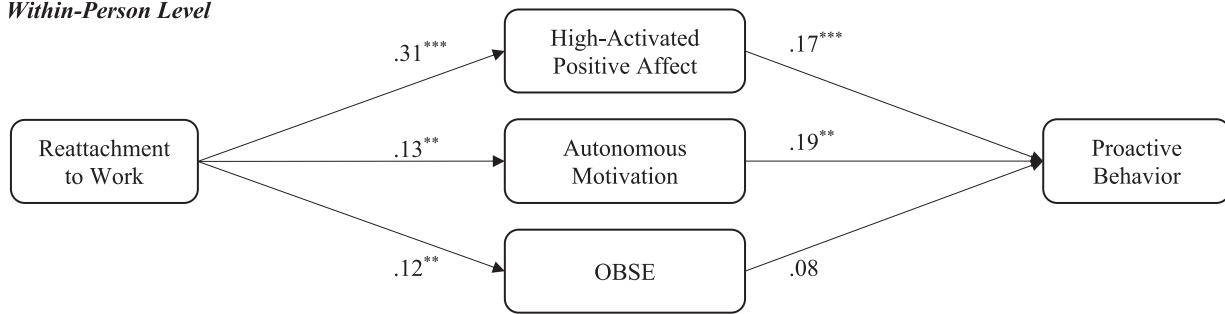
Abbreviation: OBSE, organization-based self-esteem.

\* $p<0.05$ .

\*\* $p<0.01$ .

\*\*\* $p<0.001$ .

# Within-Person Level



**FIGURE 1** | Multilevel path analysis results of the research model (Study 1). *Note.* Level 1  $N=829$ , Level 2  $N=104$ . The estimates are unstandardized coefficients. For clarity, control variables (previous-day proactive motivational states, previous-day proactive behavior, day of the week, and sine and cosine of the day) are not pictured. OBSE, organization-based self-esteem. \* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

Hypothesis 4a posited that reattachment to work is positively related to OBSE. Results revealed that reattachment to work was significantly related to OBSE ( $\gamma = 0.12$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ), supporting Hypothesis 4a. Failing to support Hypothesis 4b, which hypothesized a positive relationship between OBSE and proactive behavior, OBSE was not related to proactive behavior ( $\gamma = 0.08$ ,  $SE = 0.06$ ,  $p = 0.211$ ). Hypothesis 4c, which posited that reattachment to work is positively related to proactive behavior through OBSE, was not supported. The partial mediation effect of reattachment to work on proactive behavior via OBSE was not significant ( $\gamma = 0.01$ , 95% CI =  $[-0.005, 0.029]$ ).

To check the robustness of our findings, we conducted two additional analyses. First, we excluded control variables from the model and found hypothesized relationships remained significant. Second, we excluded the direct paths when testing partial mediation effects and our results remained significant.

## 6 | Discussion

Study 1 provided initial support for most of our hypotheses. Specifically, reattachment to work was positively related to proactive behavior, and this relationship was explained by *energized* motivation (i.e., high-activated positive affect) and *reason* motivation (i.e., autonomous motivation), but not *can do* motivation (i.e., OBSE). This suggests that, on days employees engaged in reattachment to work prior to starting their workday, they were more proactive that day, due to heightened proactive motivational states manifested in high-activated positive affect and feeling autonomously motivated.

There were several limitations to Study 1. First, our sample was conducted in a Chinese context, which may limit the generalizability of our findings. Second, while we captured high-activated positive affect in the morning due to its fleeting nature (Schwarz 2012), it would be valuable to examine whether morning reattachment predicts midday positive affect. Third, we assessed high-activated positive affect and OBSE with abbreviated scales. The low within-person omegas of these scales might reflect the nonhomogeneity of the three items in positive affect and OBSE states (Brose et al. 2020). Fourth, we did not control for “third variables” that may have impacted our model, including (a) factors that happen outside of work prior to the workday (e.g., sleep) and (b) factors that occur during the

course of the workday (e.g., job autonomy). As such, we conducted Study 2 to strengthen our model and to address these limitations.

## 7 | Study 2: Method

### 7.1 | Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited from the Prolific survey platform. Qualified US participants based on a pre-screening survey who satisfied each of the following criteria: (a) 100% approval rate on Prolific, (b) US nationality, (c) at least 18 years old, and (d) full-time employment status were invited to complete an online baseline survey, of which 187 participants provided demographic information and their perceptions of supervisor support for self-management. One week following the baseline survey, participants started the daily portion of the survey for a period of two consecutive work weeks (Monday to Friday). We sent participants a morning survey (8:30 a.m.), a midday survey (12:30 p.m.), and an end-of-workday survey (5:30 p.m.) each day. We used electronic timestamps to record the exact time of data submission. Participants received up to £20 (approximately \$25 USD) for completing the study.

From the 187 participants completing the baseline survey, a total of 168 participants completed the daily survey portion. We collected 1150 responses for morning surveys, 1106 responses for midday surveys, and 1039 responses for end-of-workday surveys from the 168 participants. We combined the surveys to create a “full day” of cases. Same as Study 1, to ensure we had the maximum number of cases to test our model and provide more objective estimates of parameters and standard errors, we retained data from days when participants completed both morning and midday surveys and allowed missing data in the end-of-workday surveys. Consequently, our final sample size was 140 participants and 1075 full daily observations out of a possible 1400 (140 participants  $\times$  10 days; response rate = 76.79%). The 140 participants (39% female) had an average age of 34.57 years ( $SD = 8.01$ ), an average organizational tenure of 7.45 years ( $SD = 6.88$ ), and average weekly work hours of 41.33 ( $SD = 7.68$ ). The majority (75%) held a bachelor's degree or above. Participants worked in a range of industries such as manufacturing, health care, and financial services and held various job titles such as program coordinator and software manager.

## 7.2 | Measures

We assessed reattachment to work (“Before I started my work this morning”; coefficient within-person  $\omega=0.83$ ) in the morning survey, high-activated positive affect (“Right now”; coefficient within-person  $\omega=0.83$ ), autonomous motivation (“Since the last survey I completed”; coefficient within-person  $\omega=0.77$ ), and OBSE (“Since the last survey I completed”; coefficient within-person  $\omega=0.80$ ) in the midday survey, and proactive behavior (“Since the last survey I completed”; coefficient within-person  $\omega=0.89$ ) in the end-of-workday survey. We used the same scales as in Study 1, incorporating additional items for high-activated positive affect (*excited; determined*) and OBSE (*I was trusted in the organization; I made a difference in the organization*) to leverage full scales.

### 7.2.1 | Supervisor Support for Self-Management (Baseline Survey)

We measured supervisor support for self-management with Manz and Sims (1987) four-item scale. Participants reported their degree of agreement with each item (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 5 = *Strongly agree*). Sample items are: *My leader encourages us to expect a lot from ourselves* and *My leader encourages us to set targets for our team performance*. Coefficient between-person  $\omega$  was 0.86.

### 7.2.2 | Control Variables

We included the same control variables at the within-person level as in Study 1. In addition, prior research has shown that sleep is positively associated with reattachment (Völker et al. 2024) as well as with proactive motivational states and behavior (Bouwman et al. 2017; Schleupner et al. 2023; Schmitt et al. 2017). Accordingly, sleep is a potential “third variable” that affects both our predictor and outcome variables (Antonakis et al. 2010). As such, we controlled for sleep quality and quantity that could confound the relationships between the key variables in our research model. We assessed sleep quality and quantity in the daily morning survey, with the items *How would you rate the overall sleep quality last night* (1 = *Very bad* to 5 = *Very good*), and *How many hours of actual sleep did you get last night (this may be different than the number of hours you spent in bed)*, from the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (Buysse et al. 1989).

We also controlled for job autonomy, which has been demonstrated to be a dynamic job characteristic that exhibits daily fluctuations (Oerlemans and Bakker 2018; Sonnentag et al. 2020). Previous studies have found that job autonomy is associated with high-activated positive affect (Saavedra and Kwun 2000), autonomous motivation (Malinowska et al. 2018), OBSE (Gardner 2020), and proactive behavior (Ohly and Fritz 2010; Parker et al. 2006; Sonnentag and Spychala 2012). Accounting for daily job autonomy ensures that the subsequent workplace experiences of proactive motivational states and behavior were driven by reattachment rather than perceived job autonomy at the beginning of the workday. We captured job autonomy in

the daily morning survey (Ohly and Fritz 2010) and assessed it using Spreitzer's (1995) three-item scale (e.g., *Right now, I have significant autonomy in determining how to do my job*; coefficient within-person  $\omega=0.76$ ).

## 7.3 | Analytical Approach

We used FIML to deal with missing data on our outcome variable (e.g., Baer et al. 2022; Gabriel et al. 2023; Sessions et al. 2023). To examine whether our data were missing at random, we created a dummy variable to indicate missingness of our dependent variable, coded as 1 or 0 based on whether data on proactive behavior were missing or not (Yoon et al. 2021). We then regressed the dummy variable on the predictors, including reattachment and proactive motivational states. Results showed nonsignificant relationships between reattachment and missingness ( $\gamma=-0.01$ ,  $SE=0.01$ ,  $p=0.302$ ), between high-activated positive affect and missingness ( $\gamma=-0.01$ ,  $SE=0.01$ ,  $p=0.596$ ), between autonomous motivation and missingness ( $\gamma=0.00$ ,  $SE=0.02$ ,  $p=0.767$ ), and between OBSE and missingness ( $\gamma=-0.01$ ,  $SE=0.02$ ,  $p=0.411$ ), supporting our use of FIML to ensure unbiased estimates of parameters and standard errors.

The analytical approach was the same as Study 1. In addition, we tested a cross-level moderator (i.e., supervisor support for self-management) and grand-mean centered it (Enders and Tofighi 2007). Moreover, we adopted the Johnson–Neyman (J-N) technique to identify the regions of significance for the moderation effects and moderated mediation effects (Bauer and Curran 2005; Dawson 2014).

## 8 | Study 2: Results

### 8.1 | Preliminary Analysis

Results of a null model that contained only intercepts and no predictors indicated that the within-person variance was considerable (reattachment to work: 41.03%; high-activated positive affect: 27.66%; autonomous motivation: 24.92%; OBSE: 29.18%; proactive behavior: 30.62%; sleep quality: 65.96%; sleep quantity: 57.82%; and job autonomy: 34.76%), supporting multilevel modeling for data analysis (Podsakoff et al. 2019).

Descriptive statistics, between- and within-person correlations, and reliabilities of all variables are shown in Table 4. We conducted multilevel CFAs to evaluate the discriminant validity of our measures. The results of the CFAs are presented in Table 5. We followed previous research to center within-person items around their person means and center between-person items around their grand means (Gabriel et al. 2021; Lin et al. 2020). Model 1 distinguishing our predictors (i.e., reattachment to work, high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, and OBSE), control variables (i.e., sleep quality, sleep quantity, and job autonomy), outcome (i.e., proactive behavior), and moderator (i.e., supervisor support for self-management) revealed better fit than alternative models. As such, the CFA results supported the discriminant validity of our measures.

**TABLE 4** | Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities (Study 2).

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Between-person level											
1. Supervisor support for self-management	3.80	0.84	<b>(0.86)</b>	0.06	−0.17*	0.19*	0.23**	0.30***	0.35***	0.25**	0.29**
Within-person level											
2. Sleep quality	3.67	0.90		—	0.29***	0.35***	0.27**	0.47***	0.24**	0.31***	0.12
3. Sleep quantity (hours)	6.94	1.29		0.49***	—	0.10	0.01	−0.07	−0.08	0.03	−0.01
4. Job autonomy	4.00	0.69		0.10*	0.03	<b>(0.76)</b>	0.22**	0.34***	0.23**	0.45***	0.13
5. Reattachment to work	3.51	0.88		0.19***	0.10	0.16*	<b>(0.83)</b>	0.63***	0.59***	0.48***	0.42***
6. High-activated positive affect	2.87	1.04		0.24***	0.13**	0.12*	0.25***	<b>(0.83)</b>	0.70***	0.58***	0.56***
7. Autonomous motivation	3.29	0.97		0.10	−0.02	0.21**	0.31***	0.39***	<b>(0.77)</b>	0.54***	0.58***
8. OBSE	3.88	0.70		0.06	0.06	0.15**	0.20**	0.29***	0.33***	<b>(0.80)</b>	0.36***
9. Proactive behavior	2.80	0.99		0.13***	0.06	0.05	0.14*	0.28***	0.25***	0.23***	<b>(0.89)</b>

Note: Level 1  $N = 1075$ , Level 2  $N = 140$ . Within-person correlations are presented below the diagonal, and between-person correlations are above the diagonal. For supervisor support, the coefficient shown in parentheses along the diagonal represents between-person omega. For other variables, the coefficients in parentheses along the diagonal indicate within-person omega.

Abbreviation: OBSE, organization-based self-esteem.

\* $p < 0.05$ .

\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

**TABLE 5** | Results of confirmatory factor analyses (Study 2).

Model	$\chi^2$	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR within	SRMR between	scr	$\Delta df$	$\Delta SB \chi^2$
Model 1	1253.27***	411	0.87	0.86	0.04	0.04	0.03	1.54		
Model 2	2268.11***	418	0.72	0.70	0.06	0.07	0.03	1.58	7	422.62***
Model 3	1877.34***	418	0.78	0.76	0.06	0.07	0.03	1.56	7	317.84***
Model 4	2257.56***	418	0.72	0.70	0.06	0.08	0.03	1.54	7	657.66***
Model 5	2585.82***	424	0.67	0.66	0.07	0.08	0.03	1.58	13	755.37***

Note: Model 1 (the nine-factor model) included sleep quality, sleep quantity, job autonomy, reattachment, high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, OBSE, proactive behavior, supervisor support. Model 2 (an eight-factor model) combined reattachment and high-activated positive affect. Model 3 (an eight-factor model) combined reattachment and autonomous motivation. Model 4 (an eight-factor model) combined reattachment and OBSE. Model 5 (a seven-factor model) combined high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, and OBSE.

Abbreviations: CFI, comparative fit index; OBSE, organization-based self-esteem; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; scr, scaling correction factor; SRMR, standardized root mean square residual; TLI, Tucker–Lewis index;  $\Delta SB \chi^2$ , Satorra–Bentler scaled chi-square difference.

\* $p < 0.05$ .

\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

## 8.2 | Hypotheses Testing

Table 6 and Figure 2 present unstandardized coefficients from our multilevel moderated mediation model.

To examine the direct relationship between reattachment to work and proactive behavior, we constructed a model without the

inclusion of the mediators (see Model 1 in Table 6). The results revealed a significant, positive relationship between reattachment to work and proactive behavior ( $\gamma = 0.10$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.016$ ), providing support for Hypothesis 1. To examine the partial mediation effects of proactive motivational states, we extended Model 1 by including high-activated positive affect, autonomous motivation, and OBSE as mediators and including supervisor support



**TABLE 6** | Multilevel path analytic results (Study 2).

Predictors	Model 1		Model 2							
	Proactive behavior		High-activated positive affect		Autonomous motivation		OBSE		Proactive behavior	
	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE	$\gamma$	SE
Between-person level										
Intercept	2.86***	0.08	2.87***	0.07	3.29***	0.07	3.85***	0.05	2.86***	0.08
Supervisor support for self-management			0.33***	0.08	0.37***	0.09	0.19*	0.08		
Within-person level										
Day of the week	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.03*	0.01	0.01	0.02
Sine	0.00	0.04	0.06	0.03	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.02	−0.01	0.04
Cosine	−0.02	0.03	−0.01	0.03	0.02	0.03	−0.04	0.02	−0.02	0.03
Previous-day reattachment										
Previous-day high-activated positive affect			−0.08	0.05						
Previous-day autonomous motivation					−0.02	0.04				
Previous-day OBSE							−0.01	0.04		
Previous-day proactive behavior	0.14*	0.07							0.11	0.07
Sleep quality	0.08*	0.03	0.12***	0.03	0.04	0.03	−0.02	0.03	0.05	0.04
Sleep quantity (hours)	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.03	−0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	−0.01	0.03
Job autonomy	0.04	0.06	0.10*	0.05	0.16**	0.05	0.11**	0.03	−0.02	0.07
Reattachment to work	0.10*	0.04	0.21***	0.04	0.20***	0.04	0.12***	0.03	0.02	0.06
Reattachment to work × supervisor support for self-management			0.10*	0.04	0.08*	0.03	0.08*	0.03		
High-activated positive affect									0.17***	0.05
Autonomous motivation									0.10*	0.05
OBSE									0.17	0.10
Residual variance	0.28***	0.03	0.22***	0.02	0.18***	0.02	0.11***	0.02	0.25***	0.04
Pseudo- $R^2$ at Level 1	0.08		0.26		0.28		0.28		0.17	

Note: Level 1  $N = 1075$ , Level 2  $N = 140$ . The estimates are unstandardized coefficients. We calculated Level 1 pseudo- $R^2$  based on Bryk and Raudenbush's (1992) formula  $[(\sigma_{null}^2 - \sigma_{predicted}^2) / \sigma_{null}^2]$ .

Abbreviation: OBSE, organization-based self-esteem.

\* $p < 0.05$ .

\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

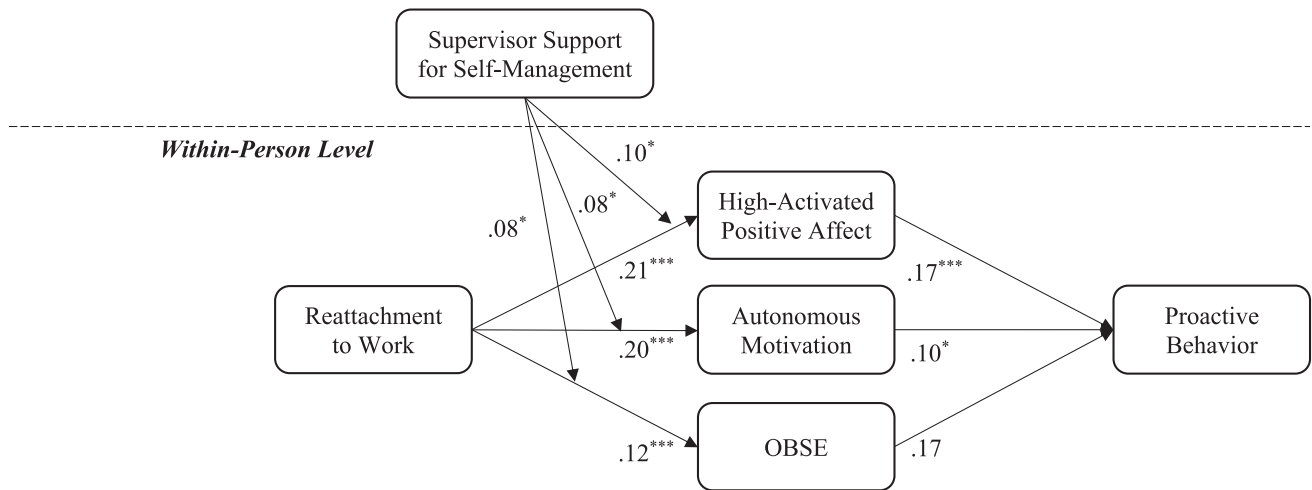
\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

for self-management as a moderator (see Model 2 in Table 6). Supporting Hypothesis 2a, reattachment to work was significantly related to high-activated positive affect at midday ( $\gamma = 0.21$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). In support of Hypothesis 2b, there was a significant positive relationship between high-activated positive affect and proactive behavior ( $\gamma = 0.17$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The partial mediation relationship between reattachment and proactive behavior via high-activated positive affect was significant ( $\gamma = 0.04$ , 95%  $CI = [0.015, 0.063]$ ), supporting Hypothesis 2c.

We found support for Hypothesis 3a: reattachment to work was significantly related to autonomous motivation ( $\gamma = 0.20$ ,

$SE = 0.04$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The results also indicated a significant positive relationship between autonomous motivation and proactive behavior ( $\gamma = 0.10$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.040$ ), providing support for Hypothesis 3b. In support of Hypothesis 3c, the partial mediation between reattachment to work and proactive behavior via autonomous motivation was significant ( $\gamma = 0.02$ , 95%  $CI = [0.001, 0.041]$ ).

In line with Hypothesis 4a, reattachment to work was significantly related to OBSE ( $\gamma = 0.12$ ,  $SE = 0.03$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Yet, contrary to Hypothesis 4b, OBSE did not show a significant relationship with proactive behavior ( $\gamma = 0.17$ ,  $SE = 0.10$ ,

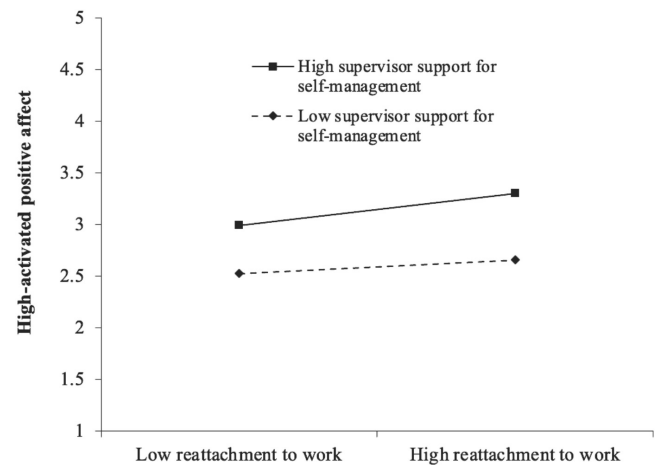


**FIGURE 2** | Multilevel path analysis results of the research model (Study 2). *Note.* Level 1  $N=1075$ , Level 2  $N=140$ . The estimates are unstandardized coefficients. For clarity, control variables (previous-day proactive motivational states, previous-day proactive behavior, day of the week, sine and cosine of the day, sleep quality and quantity, and job autonomy) are not pictured. OBSE, organization-based self-esteem. \* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

$p = 0.086$ ). Thus, the partial mediation between reattachment to work and proactive behavior through OBSE was not significant ( $\gamma = 0.02$ , 95% CI =  $[-0.003, 0.049]$ ), failing to support Hypothesis 4c.

We posited that supervisor support for self-management moderates the relationships of reattachment on: high-activated positive affect (Hypothesis 5a), autonomous motivation (Hypothesis 6a), and OBSE (Hypothesis 7a). The cross-level interaction term (i.e., reattachment to work  $\times$  supervisor support for self-management) was significant in predicting high-activated positive affect ( $\gamma = 0.10$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ), autonomous motivation ( $\gamma = 0.08$ ,  $SE = 0.03$ ,  $p = 0.017$ ), and OBSE ( $\gamma = 0.08$ ,  $SE = 0.03$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ). To facilitate interpretation, we used simple slope tests to graph the moderating effect of supervisor support on the relationship between reattachment and high-activated positive affect at high (mean + 1SD) and low (mean - 1SD) levels of the moderator in Figure 3. The interaction plots for the other two moderating effects look virtually identical to the one depicted in Figure 3.

Additionally, using the J-N technique, we analyzed the regions of significance across the centered range of supervisor support  $[-2.80, 1.20]$  (corresponding to the original range  $[1, 5]$ ). The results indicated that when the centered score of supervisor support was above  $-1.17$  (raw score = 2.63), there was a significant and positive relationship between reattachment and high-activated positive affect. The positive simple slope was not significant when supervisor support was low, specifically below a centered score of  $-1.17$ . Thus, the positive relationship observed at higher levels of supervisor support provided support for Hypothesis 5a. Supporting Hypothesis 6a, when the centered score of supervisor support exceeded  $-1.30$  (raw score = 2.50), the relationship between reattachment and autonomous motivation was positive and significant; when the centered score fell below  $-1.30$ , the relationship was positive but not significant. In support of Hypothesis 7a, results indicated that when the centered score of supervisor support was higher than  $-0.59$  (raw score = 3.21), the relationship between reattachment and OBSE



**FIGURE 3** | Moderating effect (Study 2). *Note.* The moderating effect of supervisor support for self-management on the relationship between reattachment to work and high-activated positive affect.

was positive and significant. Yet, the positive relationship was nonsignificant when the centered score of supervisor support dropped below  $-0.59$ .

Hypotheses 5b, 6b, and 7b predicted overall moderated mediating relationships. Applying the J-N technique, we observed that the moderated mediation relationship of reattachment on proactive behavior through high-activated positive affect was positive and significant at high levels of supervisory support, specifically when the centered score of supervisor support exceeded  $-1.12$  (raw score = 2.68). In contrast, this relationship was nonsignificant at low levels of supervisory support, specifically when the supervisor support centered score was below  $-1.12$ . Therefore, Hypothesis 5b was supported. Supporting Hypothesis 6b, the J-N technique-derived regions of significance suggested that when the centered score of supervisor support was above  $-0.33$  (raw score = 3.47), the partial mediation of reattachment on proactive behavior

through autonomous motivation, moderated by supervisor support, was positive and significant. In contrast, when the supervisor support centered score was lower than  $-0.33$ , there was a nonsignificant moderated mediation between reattachment and proactive behavior via autonomous motivation. The conditional mediation of reattachment on proactive behavior through OBSE under both high and low levels of supervisor support was not significant. As such, Hypothesis 7b did not receive support.

We performed two additional analyses to ensure the robustness of our results. First, we tested the hypothesized paths by removing control variables, including previous-day proactive motivational states and behavior, time trends, sleep quality and quantity, and job autonomy. All paths remained consistent with the model that included control variables, except for the path between OBSE and proactive behavior. This path was significant without control variables ( $\gamma=0.17$ ,  $SE=0.05$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) but did not reach the conventional significance level after adding control variables ( $\gamma=0.17$ ,  $SE=0.10$ ,  $p=0.086$ ). Second, we examined the hypothesized relationships by not modelling the direct relationship of reattachment with proactive behavior. All path analytic results remained consistent with the model that included the direct relationships, except for the path between OBSE and proactive behavior. This path was significant without the direct relationship ( $\gamma=0.17$ ,  $SE=0.08$ ,  $p=0.042$ ) but became nonsignificant after adding the direct relationship ( $\gamma=0.17$ ,  $SE=0.10$ ,  $p=0.086$ ). In conclusion, our additional analyses confirmed the robustness of most hypothesized paths and suggested the relationship between OBSE and proactive behavior was influenced by other factors in the model.

## 9 | Discussion

In Study 2, we replicated the findings of Study 1 while addressing its limitations. The relationships between daily fluctuations in reattachment and proactive behavior via proactive motivational states were consistent across both Chinese and Western samples (see online [Supporting Information](#) for moderation analyses of cultural influence). Specifically, the results of Study 2 supported that, at the within-person level, reattachment to work was positively and significantly associated with proactive behavior through high-activated positive affect and autonomous motivation, but not through OBSE. Study 2 also indicated that supervisor support for self-management acted as a significant cross-level moderator on the within-person relationship between reattachment to work and the three proactive motivational states. Regarding the moderated mediation effects, Study 2 found that under higher (versus lower) levels of supervisor support for self-management, daily reattachment to work was more strongly related to proactive behavior via high-activated positive affect and autonomous motivation, but not via OBSE.

## 10 | General Discussion

Leveraging the literatures on proactive motivation (Parker et al. 2010) and reattachment to work (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016), the current research establishes a model in which

morning reattachment supports daily proactive behavior via high-activated positive affect and autonomous motivation, but not OBSE. Perceiving supervisor support for self-management reinforces employees' experiences of these proactive motivational states occurring after reattachment. These results suggest that perceiving high supervisor support for self-management strengthens employees' daily reattachment process, particularly in fostering high-activated positive affect and autonomous motivation that promote proactivity. Notably, we found consistent results across both a Chinese (Study 1) and a Western (Study 2) context.

### 10.1 | Theoretical Contributions

Our research significantly enriches existing literature on proactivity at the within-person level. While daily proactive behavior has a substantial impact on employee and organizational performance and success (Cangiano et al. 2019), it is resource-intensive, requiring a considerable daily investment of employee psychological resources (Ouyang et al. 2019). By elucidating how daily morning reattachment to work effectively harnesses resources to enact daily proactive behavior, our research advances understanding of how employees adeptly utilize transitions between nonwork and work periods to improve daily work outcomes. In conjunction with previous reattachment studies, we illustrate that the resource mobilization function of reattachment not only enables employees to feel less exhausted and achieve better task performance (Völker et al. 2024; Yuan et al. 2021) but also promotes them to perform more proactively at work on days in which they reattach to work.

This work also presents a theoretical expansion of the developing literature on reattachment (Fritz et al. 2021; Sonnentag et al. 2020; Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016) by introducing a model that unfolds the mechanisms underlying how morning reattachment stimulates proactive behavior and outlines the role of perceived supervisor support for self-management as a conditioning factor that reinforces the reattachment process. First, we integrate the model of proactive motivation (Parker et al. 2010) with theoretical underpinnings of reattachment (e.g., Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016) to define the motivational mechanisms through which daily reattachment promotes proactive behavior. Previous research on reattachment has primarily focused on work engagement as the main outcome, making our exploration of proactive behavior as a consequence of reattachment a valuable contribution to the literature. By linking daily proactive behavior to reattachment to work, we broaden the theoretical scope of the benefits of reattachment, particularly in relation to the mobilization of resources supporting a work-related behavior benefitting employees and organizations (Parker et al. 2019).

Additionally, we add to the existing literature, which has primarily examined the affective and cognitive mechanisms of reattachment (Fritz et al. 2021; Sonnentag et al. 2020), by shedding light on the motivational processes that contribute to proactive behavior in the context of reattachment. Of note, these motivational states are likely most relevant for proactive behavior because task-related consequences of reattachment identified in earlier reattachment research (e.g., anticipated

task focus; Sonnentag et al. 2020) are less relevant for proactive behavior than for on-task behavior. Across Studies 1 and 2, we identified *energized to* (i.e., high-activated positive affect) and *reason to* motivational states (i.e., autonomous motivation) as the driving forces that link daily reattachment to daily proactive behavior. Notably, high-activated positive affect was a mediator, irrespective of whether it was measured in the morning (Study 1) or at midday (Study 2). This pattern of findings might imply that morning reattachment has both an immediate impact and a delayed effect on high-activated positive affect. It could also be that high-activated positive affect stimulated by morning reattachment persists for some hours.

Interestingly, in both Studies 1 and 2, OBSE was not a significant mediator underpinning the within-person relationship between reattachment and proactive behavior. This indicates that daily proactive behavior does not increase or decrease based on OBSE levels. On days when individuals perceive lower OBSE, they may lack the confidence or resources to engage in such behavior. On days when individuals perceive higher OBSE, they may feel confident and perceive access to needed resources for proactive behavior (Liang et al. 2012; Nahum-Shani et al. 2014), though this does not necessarily mean employees will allocate these resources toward proactive behavior. Instead, they may prioritize conserving their resources for tasks that are more directly tied to their roles or immediate goals, rather than engaging in resource-intensive and risky proactive efforts (Parker et al. 2019).

Our preliminary exploration of cultural influences on reattachment and proactive behavior highlights the need for more in-depth research in this area. While limited research exists on the cultural aspects of reattachment, the support for our research model across both Eastern and Western cultures indicates that reattachment to work can be viewed as a cognitive strategy that transcends cultural boundaries in promoting proactive behavior. This supports the idea that reattachment to work can serve as a valuable strategy for enhancing proactive motivational states and behavior among employees in different cultural contexts.

Nonetheless, our findings prompt inquiries into the potential impact of specific cultural dimensions, such as individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and power distance, on how reattachment influences proactive motivational states and behavior. For instance, cultures that emphasize individualism may promote risk-taking proactive behavior that challenges the status quo, while cultures with high uncertainty avoidance and power distance may encourage a more cautious or “wise proactivity” that considers relational and self-regulatory factors (Parker et al. 2019; Urbach et al. 2021). In light of these nuances, future research should delve deeper into the interplay between culture, reattachment to work, and proactive behavior to offer valuable implications for organizational practices and interventions tailored to diverse cultural contexts.

The findings of this study also highlight the critical role of supervisor support for self-management in shaping the relationship between reattachment and proactive motivation, as well as its downstream effects on proactive behavior. Specifically, the results demonstrate that high levels of supervisor support for self-management amplify the positive within-person effects of

reattachment on three proactive motivational states: *energized to*, *reason to*, and *can do*. Conversely, low levels of supervisor support for self-management nullify these effects, suggesting that reattachment alone, without the presence of supportive supervisors, may be insufficient to mobilize needed resources to drive motivational outcomes. This underscores the importance of the organizational context, particularly the quality of the employer–employee relationship, in aiding employees’ resource mobilization that strengthens the benefits of reattachment practices. From a theoretical perspective, these findings extend existing research on reattachment by introducing supervisor support for self-management as a key boundary condition guiding resource mobilization for employees to reap the benefits of the reattachment process. These findings also align with prior proactivity research, which has suggested that supportive supervisors bolster employees’ positive orientation toward change (Parker et al. 2006).

## 11 | Practical Implications

Our findings also have repercussions for practice. First, our findings are informative for employees, as we identify reattachment to work as a process for effectively transitioning across nonwork and work periods, further promoting proactive behavior. Employees are encouraged to allocate a few minutes each day during their morning routine thinking about their upcoming work to anticipate various tasks that day. This cognitive process eases the daily shift to work following evening or weekend activities, facilitates a planful process that mentally prepares for the day ahead (Sonnentag and Kühnel 2016), and protects them from exhaustion (Völker et al. 2024). Organizations that want employees to use reattachment as a daily habit could take some specific additional measures. For instance, they could implement reattachment prompts within the organizational messaging system or encourage employees to design their own personal prompts. Moreover, managers might refrain from scheduling meetings during early morning hours so that employees may find a few minutes to reattach to work. Instead, managers could act as role models for reattachment, sharing the benefits of their personal reattachment process with team members.

Second, our research has highlighted the critical importance of supervisor support for self-management. It is essential for organizations to prioritize leadership training that focuses on developing supervisory behaviors that empower employees to lead themselves. This can include encouraging employees to set their own performance goals (Manz and Sims 1987; Parker et al. 2006). Interestingly, providing leadership training that equips employees with the skills to take charge of their work can yield significant benefits, such as saving leaders’ time, which more than offsets the initial investment (Corsey 2021).

## 12 | Limitations and Future Directions

We acknowledge the limitations of the current research. First, all measures were self-reported, potential concerns of which are common method variance (CMV; Podsakoff et al. 2003) and limited causal conclusions. Given the heavy burden for



participants, self-reporting is pervasive in ESM studies, particularly in providing self-perceptions on daily work experiences (Gabriel et al. 2019). To minimize concerns pertaining to CMV, we created time lags between our predictor, mediators, and outcome (Podsakoff et al. 2003), allowed the three proactive motivational states to covary (Gabriel et al. 2021; Lee et al. 2016), and controlled for autoregressive effects of endogenous variables and time trends. Further, to rule out threats caused by third variables to the valid inference about the relationship between our predictors and outcome variables (Antonakis et al. 2010), we included sleep quality, sleep quantity, and job autonomy as relevant third variables in our analyses. Nevertheless, future research should consider additional remedies including alternative third variables that may have simultaneously caused reattachment, proactive motivational states, and proactive behavior, as well as capturing other reports. Future research could also explore within-person field experiments that promote morning reattachment through an intervention (Vogel et al. 2021), such that, for example, employees are prompted to engage in morning reattachment on a daily basis in the experimental week, compared with a control week in which they do not receive such prompts. Such an intervention approach would allow for a rigorous examination of the effects of morning reattachment on employee outcomes.

Relatedly, there was some variance in measurement stem and measurement periods, such as for high-activated positive affect, which was measured in the morning in Study 1 given its fleeting nature (Schwarz 2012), and at midday in Study 2. Autonomous motivation was assessed with the stem “today” in Study 1 and with the stem “since the last survey I completed” in Study 2; OBSE was assessed using the stem “right now” in Study 1 and the stem “since the last survey I completed” in Study 2. Proactive behavior was assessed with reference to the whole workday in Study 1, and with reference to the period following midday proactive motivational states in Study 2. While our consistent findings across two studies strengthen the validity of our conclusions, future research could explore the most effective measurement periods for capturing the ongoing process of reattachment to work on a daily basis. Consistent with meta-analytic findings that demonstrate a positive correlation between the number of items in a scale and its reliability (Cortina et al. 2020), the reliabilities of the abbreviated scales for high-activated positive affect and OBSE in Study 1 were lower than ideal, while the full daily scales in Study 2 showed enhanced reliability. Therefore, to the extent possible, we advocate for the use of full scales in future daily research to improve measurement reliability.

As the understanding of reattachment to work is still in its early stages, it is important for future research to investigate the impact of different types of leader behaviors on this process. By identifying specific leader behaviors at both the within- and between-person levels that support employees' transitions between nonwork and work periods, actionable recommendations can be provided for managers to better support their employees during these critical transitions.

Lastly, considering the significance of reattachment in facilitating employees' adjustment across nonwork and work periods, it would be beneficial to explore factors that promote this mental process (Schleupner et al. 2023; Völker et al. 2024). As per the conceptualization of reattachment, “such a process does not

take place automatically; instead, it requires a significant investment of resources” (Shah and Huang 2022, 520). In the future, scholars could extend research on sleep as a resource generator (Henderson and Horan 2021) and on recovery activities and experiences from the previous day (Sonnentag and Fritz 2007). One intriguing avenue is the role of detachment in the reattachment process. While detachment is a restorative recovery experience (Sonnentag and Fritz 2007), which may provide resources for reattachment, excessive detachment may impede the ability to switch back to work mode (Ouyang et al. 2019). Examining how these potentially opposing effects affect employees' capacity to reattach to work could enhance comprehension of reattachment. Another possibility is to examine how daily supervisor support can foster reattachment activities and their subsequent impact on various outcomes beyond proactivity, contributing to a deeper understanding of the role supervisors play in employees' transitions between nonwork and work periods.

### 13 | Conclusion

Proactive behavior is a critical workplace behavior that contributes to the success of organizations. However, it is resource-intensive. Our research sheds light on the importance of morning reattachment to work as a process that facilitates the transition between nonwork and work periods and stimulates daily proactivity at work by mobilizing resources that trigger high-activated positive affect and autonomous motivation. The reattachment process is further strengthened by supervisor support for self-management, which offers direction to employees in terms of helping them allocate resources mobilized through reattachment, while calling attention to the crucial role of supervisors in facilitating employees' intrapersonal work shifts.

#### Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

#### Data Availability Statement

Data are available upon request.

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### Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section. **Table S1:** Culture as a first-stage moderator. **Table S2:** Culture as a second-stage moderator. **Figure S1:** Impact of reattachment scores on proactive motivational states controlling for proactivity-related reattachment cognitions.