Original Papers

Polish Psychological Bulletin
2024, vol. 55 166–178
DOI: 10.24425/ppb.2024.150366

Elżbieta Biolik

Uniwersytet Śląski, Katowice, Poland

Corresponding author: Elżbieta Biolik, elzbieta.sanecka@us.edu.pl

The role of reward and punishment sensitivity in strengths use and deficit correction in the workplace

Abstract: Within positive organizational psychology, there has been consensus on the role of strengths use in the workplace in predicting work-related outcomes. However, less is known about the importance of individual differences in the expression of strengths use behaviors and contrasting with them deficit correction behaviors in organizations. Based on the Strengths Use and Deficit COrrection (SUDCO) model and the reinforcement sensitivity theory (RST) of personality, this research extends the theoretical framework of strengths use, deficit correction, perceived organizational support (POS) for strengths use, and perceived organizational support (POS) for deficit correction by linking them with reward and punishment sensitivity. Reward sensitivity negatively predicted all aspects of the SUDCO model, whereas punishment sensitivity emerged as a positive predictor of strengths use and POS for strengths use. The interaction effects of reward and punishment sensitivity on the three SUDCO elements were found, as increased reward sensitivity predicted elevated strengths use, deficit correction, and POS for strengths use, but only when punishment sensitivity was also increased. The results demonstrated the differences in temperamental correlates between strengths use and deficit correction, broadening the nomological network of both constructs and bringing some potential implications for organizational theory and practice.

Keywords: *reward sensitivity, punishment sensitivity, strengths use, deficit correction, organizational support*

INTRODUCTION

The concept of strengths use in organizations emerged in the field of positive health psychology under the umbrella of the strengths-based approach. It highlights the use of employee strengths to promote occupational health and indicates the importance of character strengths in work engagement and flourishing in the workplace (Bakker & van Woerkom, 2018). According to this theoretical perspective, recognizing and developing one's character strengths, understood as highly appreciated, malleable positive psychological characteristics or trait-like constructs, is the foundation of positive psychology interventions directed to enhance an individual's well-being and performance (Meyers et al., 2013). Despite some conceptual differences regarding how individual strengths should be defined, there is a joint agreement in positive psychology on their utility in organizations (Biswas-Diener et al., 2016), both at the individual and team levels (van Woerkom et al., 2022). In general, strengths are regarded by organizational practitioners as instruments that can be used to enhance the work performance and well-being of employees. Identifying, using, and developing strengths, recognized as capacities to excel in the working environment, is considered as a basis of the ongoing growth and mastery in the organizations, as those who use their strengths might be more productive and satisfied at work (Biswas-Diener et al., 2016). Indeed, research demonstrated that strengths use in the workplace was associated with different beneficial work outcomes, including productivity (Lavy & Littman-Ovadia, 2017), overall job performance, job satisfaction, work engagement, well-being (Miglianico et al., 2020), and thriving at work (Ding & Chu, 2020). Meta-analytic findings showed

that strengths use was also positively correlated with task performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), positive work affect, work engagement, and self-efficacy (Luan et al., 2023). In addition, given that interventions aimed at promoting and increasing utilizing strengths in organizations over time result in favorable work outcomes (Bratty & Dennis, 2024), strengths use is suggested as a potential instrument in human resource management practice and individual career development (Luan et al., 2023).

Given these widely studied positive, socially desirable work-related outcomes of strengths use, most works in positive organizational scholarship focus on strengths and their application in the workplace, following the salutogenic perspective in positive psychology, which emphasizes the positive aspects of human functioning (Bakker & van Woerkom, 2018). The alternative approach implies that focusing both on personal strengths and weaknesses in organizations is as important as managing only strengths due to the possibility of capturing the whole individual experience at work (Biswas-Diener et al., 2016; Lorenz et al., 2021). In line with this perspective, Marianne van Woerkom and colleagues (2016) proposed the integrative framework linking these contrasting human characteristics – the Strengths Use and Deficits COrrection (SUDCO) model. Besides strengths, defined as positive characteristics enabling people to perform at their best, the model also incorporates deficits, represented by the ways of feeling, thinking, and behaving, which are not natural to the individual but might be trained to achieve competent functioning. In addition, it also distinguishes two types of perceived organizational support for an employee, corresponding with the described favorable organizational behaviors and reflecting the individual evaluation of workplace environment as supporting – organizational support for strengths use and organizational support for deficit correction.

Thanks to its comprehensiveness, the proposed model might be utilized in different areas of organizational research. However, studies on strengths use in organizations dominate, whereas deficit correction, organizational support for strengths use, and organizational support for deficit correction have been studied less (Bakker & van Woerkom, 2018). Moreover, although the positive individual and organizational consequences of strengths use in organizations have been widely investigated (Luan et al., 2023), relatively little is known about the personality, temperamental, and motivational factors predicting strengths use, deficit correction, and perceived organizational support for such behaviors. Therefore, to widen the research perspective on strengths use and deficit correction in organizations, the current research focuses on examining the dispositional traits of reward and punishment sensitivity and their interaction as plausible predictors of the SUDCO model elements. In general, reward and punishment sensitivity, distinguished within the reinforcement sensitivity theory (RST) of personality (Grey & McNaughton, 1982), encompasses two separate motivational systems, reflecting the individual differences in responses to signals of rewards and punishments in the environment (Corr, 2004).

Given that strength use and deficit correction at work might result in potential benefits and penalties from the managers and coworkers, individual sensitivity to rewards and punishments seems to contribute to the willingness to undertake such behaviors. Hence, this study could shed some additional light on the mechanisms of making the decision to engage in using strengths and correcting weaknesses at work by testing their potential temperamental foundations. The obtained findings might be applied in organizational practice, helping to develop more effective strengths- and deficit-based interventions, taking into account the role of individual differences in sensitivity to reward and punishment among employees.

The Strengths Use and Deficits COrrection (SUDCO) model

The SUDCO framework developed by van Woerkom et al. (2016) combines and synthesizes the strengths- and deficit-based perspectives in organizational science to more holistically analyze and describe positive and negative aspects of human functioning at work. The model singles out four constructs, referring to how employees self-develop, enhance their competencies, and improve the incompetencies in the workplace and to what extent the organization supports them in these actions.

Firstly, the SUDCO concept distinguishes two types of proactive and complementary agentic behavior in the workplace: strengths use and deficit correction. Strengths use behavior (SUB) encompasses an employee's initiative to apply his or her strengths at work. In contrast, deficit correction behavior (DCB) refers to the individual initiative to diminish, improve, or eliminate one's weaknesses at work. Both forms of organizational behavior differentiated within this combined approach are regarded as equivalent and beneficial for the employees, enabling optimal functioning in the workplace (Els et al., 2016). Moreover, simultaneously investing in people's strengths and managing their weaknesses might also positively affect organizations, mainly thanks to increased people's job performance (Els et al., 2016; Miglianico et al., 2020). Prior research demonstrated that both strengths use and deficit correction at work were positively related to different positive attitudinal and behavioral work-related outcomes, including the two dimensions of thriving at work (vitality and learning), task performance, contextual performance (Rothmann & Mahomed, 2019), work engagement (van Woerkom et al., 2016), job satisfaction, meaning at work, personal initiative, lower exhaustion and cynicism (Lorenz at el., 2021).

As the organization might give opportunities for strengths use and deficit correction behaviors, the two additional organizational factors are distinguished within the SUDCO framework, namely perceived organizational support (POS) for strengths use and perceived organizational support (POS) for deficit correction. The first one reflects the employees` subjective opinion on whether and to what extent the organization supports their applying

strengths at work. In contrast, POS for deficit correction pertains to the employees` beliefs about the encouragement for correcting their deficits within the organization (van Woerkom et al., 2016). Concerning the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), both aspects of POS are defined in terms of "job resources that are functional in achieving work-related goals, reducing job demands, and stimulating personal growth and development" (van Woerkom et al., 2016, p. 961). Therefore, organizational support helps employees be more competent at work by capitalizing on their strengths and improving their weaknesses, i.e., enabling them to do what they are good at and work on what they are bad at (Kong & Ho, 2016). Previous studies showed that both forms of POS were correlated with advantageous organizational outcomes and employee individual characteristics, including general strengths use, personal initiative, meaning of work (Lorenz et al., 2021), work engagement, learning (representing the dimension of thriving at work), job satisfaction, and diminished turnover intentions (Els et al., 2016). In addition, better-researched POS for strengths use predicted favorable job attitudes and organizational behaviors, such as lower job burnout and higher work engagement (Keenan & Mosert, 2013), job performance, employee well-being, and contextual performance (Meyers et al., 2020). POS for strengths use also reduced the level of employee absenteeism in the presence of job demands, such as high workload and high emotional demands (van Woerkom, Bakker, & Nishii, 2016), and fostered employee thriving at work through job crafting and meaningfulness (Guan & Frenkel, 2020). Furthermore, organizational interventions combining strengths use and deficit correction with job crafting positively affected employees` life satisfaction and seeking challenging job demands immediately after the intervention (Barzin et al., 2021).

Thus, the SUDCO model promotes a balanced view of individual strengths and deficits in the workplace, assuming their equivalence in reducing job demands and promoting professional growth (Els et al., 2018; van Woerkom et al., 2016). However, most researchers in the field of positive organizational psychology support a strengths-based approach rather than a deficit-based one, stressing the role of strength use and organizational support for it in mastering own job by the employee, achieving higher performance and optimal functioning at work (Gradito Dubord & Forest, 2023; Bakker & van Woerkom, 2018). In line with this domineering view, single research suggested that strengths-based organizational interventions might bring better performance and more psychological benefits for the organization and the employee (Biswas-Diener et al., 2016). Similarly, focusing on one's strengths rather than compensating for deficiencies was proposed to be generally more critical for personal growth, as prior results showed that strengths interventions were more effective in enhancing students` hope and personal growth initiative than deficits interventions (Meyers et al., 2015). These results suggest the differences in the attitudinal and behavioral manifestations of strengths use and deficit correction in the organizational context. Accordingly, prior empirical evidence indicates that both proactive organizational behaviors and accompanying forms of organizational support could differ concerning their correlation patterns not only with the work-related outcomes but also with their potential antecedents (Lorenz et al., 2021). These results suggest the existence of separate nomological networks for the strengths-based and deficit-based dimensions distinguished within the SUDCO framework.

However, although the research on the attitudinal and behavioral work-related outcomes of the constructs included in the SUDCO model is pretty often conducted due to their decisive role in establishing the managerial practices and developmental plans in the organizations, the research on the individual predictors of strengths use and deficit correction behaviors as well as POS for strengths use, and POS for deficit correction are still scarce (Gradito Dubord & Forest, 2023). To date, single studies demonstrated that strengths knowledge and some personality traits (such as extraversion, neuroticism, core self-evaluations, and proactive personality) or trait-like variables (i.e., psychological capital) predicted strengths use behaviors (Bakker & van Woerkom, 2018; Lorenz et al., 2021; Luan et al., 2023). However, little is known about the dispositional foundations of the other components of the SUDCO model. In addition, there is lacking research examining the importance of temperamental differences in predicting strengths use and deficit correction, even though these factors might contribute to the employees` behavioral responses to organizational cues, encouraging the development of their competence or improving incompetence at work. Thus, the present study aimed to fill this research gap by focusing on the concept of reward and punishment sensitivity, reflecting the basic temperamental traits, and linking it with the elements of the SUDCO framework.

Reward and punishment sensitivity

The reward and punishment sensitivity constructs stem from Jeffrey Grey's (Grey & McNaughton, 1982) reinforcement sensitivity theory (RST) of personality. The neurobiological approach to personality distinguishes three main systems of emotion that underlie motivated behaviors: the Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS), the Behavioral Activation System (alternatively, the Behavioral Approach System, BAS), and the Fight-Flight-Freeze System (FFFS) (Corr, 2002; Smillie et al., 2006). Two of them – BIS and BAS – were proposed in the original version of Grey's theory (Grey & McNaughton, 1982) as central for regulating human behavior by transforming emotional and motivational reactions to the environmental clues of reward and punishments into actions (Wytykowska et al., 2017). In the "classic" RST theory, BIS was initially considered as representing a punishment system mediating the response to conditioned signals of punishment or frustrated non-reward, leading respectively to passive-avoidance or termination of a response, and is regarded as the basis of anxiety. BAS embodies a reward system, mediating the response to unconditioned appetitive stimuli in the form of signals of reward or relieving non-

punishment, leading to approach behavior or active avoidance, and is regarded as the basis of impulsivity. In turn, FFFS reflects the reaction to perceived fear by mediating responses to unconditioned aversive (or threat) stimuli, resulting in escape or avoidance (flight), defensive aggression (fight), or being immobile (freeze) (Corr & Perkins, 2006; Smillie et al., 2011).

The revised RST (Grey & McNaughton, 2000), among others, stresses the differences between fear and anxiety and recognizes BIS as being in charge of the resolution of the conflicts between the three systems (Corr & Perkins, 2006). In its original version, the RST is widely used as the theoretical framework in the research on the relationships between distinct constellations of BIS/BAS sensitivity and different types of psychopathology (Bijttebier et al., 2009). Regarding the organizational context, Corr et al. (2017) postulate to base the neuroscience research on human motivation in the workplace on the RST. It is recommended as a holistic, dispositional research framework, which could be successfully applied in organizational studies, particularly those on attaining goals at work, organizational behaviors, job attitudes, and job performance. Prior research demonstrated the utility of the RST in investigating different work-related outcomes (e.g., Schreurs et al., 2014; Tremblay et al., 2013; van der Linden et al., 2007). However, more studies are needed to determine the predictive role of reward and punishment sensitivity with regard to different organizational variables, describing how the individual functions at work and how he or she evaluates the organizational context. In particular, there is still lacking research embedded in the positive psychology framework concerning the role of RST subsystems in the occurrence of distinct forms of proactive organizational behaviors, such as strengths use and deficit correction. In addition, no studies were conducted on the temperamental predictors in the form of reward and punishment sensitivity and the employee's perception of the organizational support for his or her self-development. Thus, following the recommendations of Corr et al. (2017), the present study was designed to widen the knowledge about the predictive role of the RST subsystems with regard to positive and negative manifestations of proactive organizational behaviors and the perceived organizational support for them, which are represented within the SUDCO model.

Reward and punishment sensitivity in relation to the SUDCO model elements

Concerning the SUDCO model, as the BIS/BAS systems represent distinct types of goal orientation in the organizations (Corr et al., 2017), they might translate differently into behavioral reactions in the form of strengths use or deficit correction in the workplace as well as POS for strengths use and POS for deficit correction. In prior research on BIS/BAS-goal orientation relations, BAS (corresponding to approach or reward sensitivity) was reported to be related to performance approach and mastery goals (i.e., gaining competence and task mastery), which might reflect the general tendency to attain rewards at work among those high in approach sensitivity. In turn, BIS (encompassing punishment sensitivity) was associated with both avoidance goals (i.e., avoiding incompetence) and approach goals (i.e., gaining competence). These results suggest that individuals high in punishment sensitivity could not only try to prevent being incompetent but also strive for competence, probably due to the possibility of negative feedback when these goals are not achieved (Corr et al., 2017; Elliot & Trash, 2002). Thus, reward sensitivity would be positively related to strengths use in organizations, which might represent the individual's behavioral tendency to attain competence and mastery at work. Those high in reward sensitivity might also be more sensitive to signals of organizational support for strengths use, indicating potential help to attain goals in the workplace settings successfully. However, reward sensitivity could be unrelated to deficit correction, as this form of proactive work behavior might be considered less rewarding than strengths use by highly reward-sensitive employees in the organizational context. Similarly, no relationship was expected between reward sensitivity and POS for deficit correction, given that those high in reward sensitivity might be less oriented and sensitive to the potential signals in the working environment, indicating support for reducing their deficiencies.

In contrast, punishment sensitivity would be positively related both to strength use and deficit correction at work. As employees with strong punishment sensitivity tend to focus on avoiding negative feedback and failure (Corr et al., 2017), they could be more motivated to develop their competencies and improve the areas of incompetence to reduce the risk of possible penalties or lack of rewards in the workplace. Accordingly, individuals high in punishment sensitivity could also be more alert to cues in the organizational context, indicating POS both for strengths use and deficit correction, which facilitates them in diminishing the probability of punishment or non-reward in the workplace.

Besides examining the direct relationships between the RST systems and the SUDCO components, more complex interactive effects of reward and punishment sensitivity were tested on strengths use, deficit correction, and POS for strengths use and deficit correction. Following the joint subsystems hypothesis (Corr, 2004), it is stated that under some conditions, both systems might not be separate, as the classic RST postulates, but interdependent, leading to the joint effects. In line with this concept, reward sensitivity (BAS) generally facilitates the individual's response to appetitive stimuli and antagonizes responses to aversive stimuli. Punishment sensitivity (BIS) plays the opposite role, facilitating response to aversive stimuli and antagonizing the response to the appetitive stimuli. The joint effects of both systems occur when the activation of reward sensitivity by appetitive stimuli is inhibited by punishment sensitivity or the activation of punishment sensitivity by aversive stimuli is inhibited by reward sensitivity. This situation is favored when a weak appetitive or aversive stimulus is used when people with low punishment and reward sensitivities are

examined, the environment contains mixed appetitive or aversive stimuli, and when fast changes in behaviors or attention in response to reinforcement stimuli are needed. Single prior research confirmed the positive role of the BIS/BAS interaction on different aspects of human functioning, including the risk of suicidal attempts, brain activity, impulsive behavior, and emotional labor at work, suggesting that, in particular, competing motives might take part in the activation of multiple systems in the form of BIS and BAS (Bryan et al., 2022; Mortensen et al., 2015; Schreurs et al., 2014).

Concerning the SUDCO model, the joint systems notion might help better understand when the behavioral reaction of strengths use, or deficit correction at work occurs. In particular, as strengths use and deficit correction in the workplace might bring different financial and non-financial benefits (including rewards and lack of punishment), it could be motivated by both reward and punishment sensitivities. For strengths use, these contrasting motives might occur when employees experience the same time anxiety of being punished for displaying an insufficient level of competence at work and desire to receive a reward for gaining the required level of competence. For deficit correction, both reward and punishment sensitivities might be activated when the anxiety of being punished for disclosing incompetence and willingness to be rewarded for reducing incompetence are present together in one person. Likewise, the interactive effects of reward and punishment sensitivities can arise with regard to POS for strengths use and POS for deficit correction. Given that the two constructs constitute the environmental factor signaling the organizational encouragement for organizational behaviors, potentially bringing rewards and enabling the avoidance of non-rewards or punishments, both RST motivational systems might simultaneously contribute to them. Thus, the interactive effects of reward and punishment sensitivity on all elements of the SUDCO model were hypothesized.

THE PRESENT STUDY

The current study aimed at examining the predictive role of reward and punishment sensitivity and their interaction with regard to the strengths and deficit-related constructs distinguished within the SUDCO (Strengths Use and Deficit Correction) framework, including strengths use behavior, deficit correction behavior, perceived organizational support (POS) for strengths use, and perceived organizational support (POS) for deficit correction. All positive psychology-derived concepts representing the SUDCO model apply in the workplace and broaden the research perspective on individual strengths and weaknesses (van Woerkom et al., 2016). Given the previous results on motivational predictors of strengths use and deficit correction in the workplace (Gradito Dubord & Forest, 2023; Kong & Ho, 2016), reward sensitivity was expected to predict strengths use positively. More specifically, prior research on motivational correlates of the SUDCO model showed that autonomous motivation (i.e., the volitional engagement in a given activity), rooted in reward sensitivity, was positively associated with strengths use and POS for strengths use (Gradito Dubord & Forest, 2023). These findings suggest that approach orientation or reward sensitivity might promote strengths use and the evaluation of the working environment as helpful in using strengths through enhancing intrinsic motivation (Ding & Lin, 2020). In contrast, given the predictive role of punishment sensitivity in attaining goals related to developing competence and avoiding incompetence (Corr et al., 2017), it was also assumed that punishment sensitivity might be a positive predictor of strengths use and deficit correction.

Moreover, individual factors, including motivational, personality, or temperamental traits, might be significant for the perception of the POS for strengths use and POS for deficit correction (Ding, You & Li, 2020; van Woerkom et al., 2016). Therefore, reward and punishment sensitivity were tested as predictors of these organizational context variables. Given the results mentioned above of studies on motivational correlates of BIS/BAS systems (c.f., Corr at al., 2017; Elliot & Trash, 2002; Gradito Dubord & Forest, 2023), reward sensitivity was expected as a positive predictor of POS for strengths use, whereas punishment sensitivity as a positive predictor of POS for strengths use and POS for deficit correction. Finally, following the joint subsystems hypothesis (Corr, 2004), assuming the interplay of the RST motivational systems on the human reactions, the interaction of reward and punishment sensitivity on the components of the SUDCO model was examined. In line with the theoretical background of the joint subsystem hypothesis (Corr, 2004) and prior research (Bryan et al., 2022), it has been hypothesized that the interaction effects of RST systems might be more pronounced among those high in reward sensitivity and high in punishment sensitivity. Accordingly, it would be expected that high reward sensitivity would be related to greater strengths use and POS for strengths use among those high in punishment sensitivity.

To sum up, the following hypotheses were posited:

H1: Reward sensitivity is positively related to strengths use and POS for strengths use.

H2: Punishment sensitivity is positively related to strengths use, deficit correction, POS for strengths use, and POS for deficit correction.

H3: Punishment sensitivity moderates the relations of reward sensitivity with strengths use and POS for strengths use in such a way that high reward sensitivity is related to greater strengths use and POS for strengths use among those high in punishment sensitivity.

Participants and procedure

The current study was conducted on a sample of Polish working adults from the general population. The study was anonymous and voluntary and conducted as an online survey as a part of the larger research project. All respondents provided active, written informed consent before the beginning of the study. Then, they delivered basic socio-demographic data and completed self-report

measures. It took about 15-20 minutes. The present research project received the acceptance of the Ethics Committee of XXX (KEUS.69/01.2021).

The research sample was gathered through the nationwide online research platform run by the Biostat company. Only working adults registered on this research panel were invited to take part in the study via e-mail or message in the mobile application. The research was conducted in April 2021 as a part of a more comprehensive research project on strengths use and deficit correction in the workplace, including also other personality and work-related variables (XXX). Respondents were awarded extra points on their accounts in the research panel, for which, after achieving the predetermined number of points, they could receive a small financial reward. The sample included 446 participants after removing from the initial database of 500 persons one case with incorrect data (lack of differentiation of answers through the entire study) and the additional three outliners based on the calculated Cook's and Mahalanobis distance measures and centered leverage indexes. The research sample was representative of the population of working adults in Poland in terms of age and gender (M_{age} = 40.24; SD_{age} = .60; 43.7% women). The mean number of working hours per week was 38.67 (SD = .43), and the average organizational tenure amounted to 9.10 years (SD = .40), ranging from a few months to 48 years. In the present sample, permanent employment contract dominated, with 72.2 % of participants working under it, followed by 13.9% of respondents working under a fixed-time employment contract, 9.2% employed based on a civil law contract, and 4.7 % upon other forms of work. With regard to the current way of working among respondents, 57.18% of them were working onsite (i.e., only from work), 28.7% hybrid (i.e., both from work and home), and 10.54% remotely (i.e., only from home). As the data were collected during the COVID-19 pandemic from March to April 2021, 0.90% of employees reported being sent on unpaid leave, and the remaining 2.61% did not apply to the variants mentioned above.

To test whether the sample size was sufficient to detect the interactive effects, a post hoc power analysis was calculated for moderation with multiple hierarchical regression models in the G*Power software (version 3.1.9.4.). The results of the post hoc power analysis for the linear multiple regression model with three predictors, small effect size ($f2$ = 0.02), α level at 0.05, and total sample size of 446 participants demonstrated that the power of the effects found in the study was 0.846, which exceeds the typical value of 0.80 required for the statistical power (Funder et al., 2014). Thus, the sample size of 446 employees was sufficient to detect the interaction effects using the linear multiple regression analysis with a statistical power of 0.846.

METHODS

Sensitivity to punishment and reward. Sensitivity to punishment and reward was measured using the 24-item Sensitivity to Punishment and Sensitivity to Reward Questionnaire-Short Form (SPSRQ-SF; Cooper, & Gomez, 2008; Polish adaptation: Wytykowska, Białaszek, & Ostaszewski, 2014). The Polish adaptation of the measure had good internal consistency as well as convergent and discriminant validity (Wytykowska et al., 2014). Participants rate diagnostic statements grouped into two subscales, such as sensitivity to punishment (14 items) and sensitivity to reward (10 items), by responding 1 (“yes”) or 2 (“no”) to each statement. Sample items are "Are you often afraid of new and unexpected situations?" for sensitivity to punishment and “Does the good prospect of obtaining money motivate you strongly to do some things?” for sensitivity to reward.

Strengths use and deficit correction in organizations. The Strengths Use and Deficit COrrection (SUDCO) questionnaire (van Woerkom et al., 2016) was used to measure the phenomena related to individual strengths and weaknesses in the workplace. The 24-item measure with a 7-point response rate (from 0 – “almost never” to 6 – “almost always”) includes four dimensions: strengths use behavior (6 items, e.g., “In my job, I make the most of my strong points”), deficit correction behavior (6 items, e.g., “I engage in activities to develop my weak points at work”), perceived organizational support (POS) for strengths use (7 items, e.g.,), and perceived organizational support (POS) for deficit correction (5 items; e.g., “This organization focuses on what I am good at”). The SUDCO had good psychometric properties in the validation studies (van Woerkom et al., 2016). In the present study, the questionnaire was back-translated into Polish with the agreement of the authors. All items from the original English version of the measure were independently translated into Polish by four work and organizational psychologists fluent in English. The commonly agreed Polish version of the SUDCO was then translated into English by a professional translator. The English translation that was obtained was congruent with the original version of the SUDCO. Thus, the translation of the scale into Polish was used in the present study without any further modifications. The Polish translation of the scale is included in the Supplementary material.

Statistical analyses

In the first step, descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations were calculated for the RST and SUDCO components. In the next step, four separate two-step hierarchical multiple linear regression models were constructed to examine the direct relationships and moderation effects of reward and punishment sensitivity to strengths use, deficit correction, POS for strengths use, and POS for deficit correction. In all models, reward and punishment sensitivity were entered as predictors in the first step, where the interaction term between reward sensitivity and punishment sensitivity was added in the second step. The four elements of the SUDCO model served as the outcome variables in particular models. In addition, the collinearity diagnostic statistics were calculated for the four regression models. Given that the variance inflation factor (VIF) did not fall within the range from 5 to 10 and tolerance values

were not lower than 1 to 2 (Kim, 2019), there is no basis for stating multicollinearity in the present study. Data were analyzed using the IBM SPSS Statistics software, version 29.0. In addition, to minimize the I Type error resulting from calculating the four regression models separately, the path analysis was calculated beside the four regression models. In the path model, reward sensitivity, punishment sensitivity, and their interaction were included as exogenous variables, whereas the four SUDCO elements were entered as endogenous variables. The path analysis was computed in the Stata 18 software.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables

Means, standard deviations, Pearson correlation coefficients, and Cronbach's alpha for the study variables are displayed in Table 1. All aspects of the SUDCO model were positively correlated, with the magnitude of correlation being moderate to high. Reward sensitivity was weakly negatively correlated with the four subdimensions of the SUDCO framework. In turn, punishment sensitivity was weakly positively correlated with strengths use and POS for strengths use and did not display statistically significant correlations with deficit correction and POS for deficit correction.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses

Next, the direct relationships of reward and punishment sensitivity with the SUDCO components and the moderating role of reward and punishment sensitivity on the SUDCO elements were examined. Table 2 shows the results of the four hierarchical multiple regression analyses predicting the SUDCO components with reward and punishment sensitivity incorporated in the first step and the interaction term of reward and punishment sensitivity in the second step.

For strengths use as an outcome variable, the first model was significant ($F(2, 443) = 10.22$, $p < .001$) and explained 4% of the variance in strengths use. Reward sensitivity served as a negative predictor of strengths use ($\beta = –.11$, $p = .02$), whereas punishment sensitivity emerged

Table 1. Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlation coefficients for the study variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. RS	14.77	2.42	*.71*					
2. PS	21.76	4.26	.07	*.88*				
3. SUB	26.39	7.09	–.10*	.18***	*.94*			
4. DCB	23.71	7.03	–.14**	.08	.71***	*.89*		
5. POSSU	28.73	9.07	–.12**	.16***	.83***	.64***	*.95*	
6. POSDC	16.81	6.57	–.19***	–.02	.46***	.65***	.53***	*.85*

Note. $N = 446$. RS = reward sensitivity; PS = punishment sensitivity; SUB = strengths use behavior; DCB = deficit correction behavior; POSSU = perceived organizational support for strengths use; POSDC = perceived organizational support for deficit correction. Cronbach`s alpha coefficients are shown in italics on the diagonal.
***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$.

Table 2. Hierarchical regression analyses of reward and punishment sensitivity predicting the SUDCO components

Outcome variable: SUB							
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*	*95%LL*	*95%UL*	Model statistics
1. RS	–.32	.14	–.11	.019	–.59	–.05	$F(2,443) = 10,22$, $p < 0.001$
PS	.31	.08	.19	<.001	.16	.46	$R_{adj}^2 = .04$, $\Delta R^2 = .044$, $p < .001$
2. RS	–.35	.14	–.12	.011	–.61	–.08	
PS	.31	.08	.19	<.001	.16	.46	$F(3, 442) = 8.45$, $p < .001$
RS x PS	–.67	.31	–.10	.030	–1.27	–.06	$R_{adj}^2 = .048$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .05$
Outcome variable: DCB							
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*	*95%LL*	*95%UL*	Model statistics
1. RS	–.42	.14	–.15	.002	–.69	–.16	$F(2,443) = 6.15$, $p < 0.01$
PS	.14	.08	.09	.07	–.01	.30	$R_{adj}^2 = .023$, $\Delta R^2 = .027$, p < .01
2. RS	–.45	.14	–.15	.001	–.71	–.18	
PS	.14	.08	.09	.067	–.01	.29	$F(3, 442) = 5.46$, $p < .01$
RS x PS	–.62	.31	–.09	.046	–1.22	–.01	$R_{adj}^2 = .029$, $\Delta R^2 = .009$, $p < .05$

Table 2 cont.

Outcome variable: POSSU							
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*	*95%LL*	*95%UL*	Model statistics
1. RS	–.51	.17	–.14	.004	–.85	–.17	$F(2,443) = 10.41$, $p < 0.001$
PS	.37	.10	.17	<.001	.17	.56	$R_{adj}^2 = .041$, $\Delta R^2 = .045$, $p < .001$
2. RS	–.54	.17	–.14	.002	–.88	–.20	
PS	.37	.10	.17	<.001	.17	.56	$F(3,442) = 8.28$, $p < .001$
RS x PS	–.77	.39	–.09	.050	–1.55	–.001	$R_{adj}^2 = .047$, $\Delta R^2 = .008$, $p = .05$
Outcome variable: POSDC							
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*	*95%LL*	*95%UL*	Model statistics
1. RS	–.50	.13	–.19	<.001	–.75	–.25	$F(2,443) = 7.91$, $p < 0.001$
PS	–.003	.07	–.002	.96	–.15	.14	$R_{adj}^2 = .03$, $\Delta R^2 = .034$, $p < .001$
2. RS	–.50	.13	–.19	<.001	–.75	–.25	
PS	–.003	.07	–.002	.186	–.15	.14	$F(3,442) = 5.26$, $p < .01$
RS x PS	–.008	.29	–.001	.977	–.57	.56	$R_{adj}^2 = .28$, $\Delta R^2 = .000$, $p > .05$

Note. N = 446. RS = reward sensitivity; PS = punishment sensitivity; SUB = strengths use behavior; DCB = deficit correction behavior; POSSU = perceived organizational support for strengths use; POSDC = perceived organizational support for deficit correction.

as a positive predictor (β = .19, $p < .001$). Adding the interactive term to the model increased the proportion of the explained variance in strengths use by 1% ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .05$). Reward sensitivity (β = –.12, $p < .05$), punishment sensitivity (β = .19, $p < .001$) and their interaction (β = –.10, $p < .05$) were statistically significant predictors of strengths use. The final model was also significant ($F(3, 442) = 8.45$, $p < .001$) and, in general, explained 4.8% of the variance in strengths use. To establish how the interaction between reward and punishment sensitivity is shaped, two separate simple linear models with reward sensitivity as a predictor and strengths use as the outcome variable were calculated in subgroups, separately for those high and low in punishment sensitivity. For low punishment sensitivity, the regression model was statistically nonsignificant ($F(1, 227) = .13$; $p > .05$), and reward sensitivity was unrelated to strengths use (β = –.02, $p > .05$). In contrast, for high punishment sensitivity, reward sensitivity was negatively related to strengths use (β = –.20, $p < .01$), and the model was statistically significant ($F(1, 215) = 9.08$; $p < .01$) and explained of variance 3.6% in strengths use. Figure 1 shows the interaction of reward and punishment sensitivity on strengths use.

When predicting deficit correction, the model constructed in the first step was significant ($F(2, 443) = 6.15$, $p < .01$) and explained 2.3% of the variance in deficit correction. Reward sensitivity served as a negative predictor (β = –.15, $p < .01$). In contrast, punishment sensitivity was unrelated to deficit correction (β = .08, $p > .05$). In the second step, the model was significant ($F(3, 442) = 5.46$, $p < .01$) and explained 2.9% of the variance in deficit correction. Including the interactive term marginally increased the explained variance in deficit correction by 0.9% ($\Delta R^2 = .009$, $p < .05$). Reward sensitivity (β = –.15, $p < .01$) and interactive term

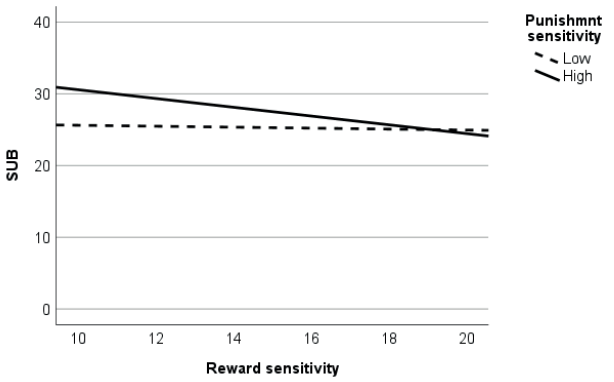

Figure 1. The interactive effects of reward and punishment sensitivity on strengths use behavior

Note. SUB = strengths use behavior.

(β = –.09, $p < .05$) were statistically significant predictors. Punishment sensitivity remained unrelated to deficit correction (β = .09, $p > .05$). To explain the moderation effects, the additional analyses of the relationships between reward sensitivity and deficit correction among highly and lowly punishment-sensitive employees were conducted using the simple linear regression models (see Figure 2). At low punishment sensitivity, the regression model ($F(1, 227) = 1.37$, $p > .05$) and the relationship between reward sensitivity and deficit correction was insignificant (β = –.08, $p > .05$). At high punishment sensitivity, reward sensitivity negatively predicted deficit correction (β = –.21, $p < .01$), and the regression model displayed the statistical significance ($F(1, 215) = 9.84$, $p < .01$), accounting for 3.9% of the explained variance in deficit correction.

For POS for strengths use as a criterion variable, the first step was significant ($F(2,443) = 10.41$, $p < .001$),

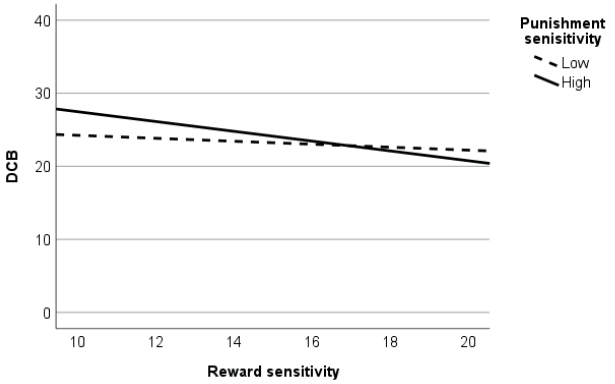

Figure 2. The interactive effects of reward and punishment sensitivity on deficit correction behavior

Note. DCB = deficit correction behavior.

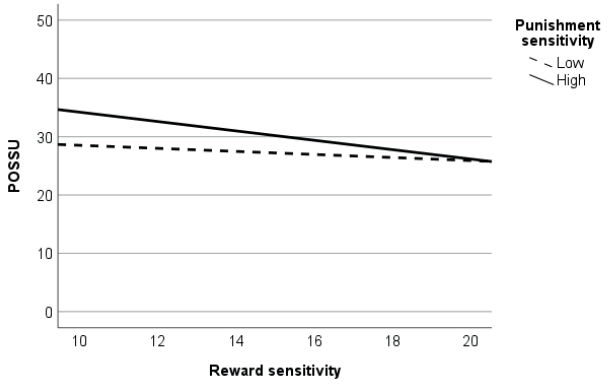

Figure 3. The interactive effects of reward and punishment sensitivity on perceived organizational support for strengths use

Note. POSSU = perceived organizational support for strengths use.

explaining 4.1% of the variance in POS for strengths use. Reward sensitivity served as a negative predictor (β = –.14, $p < .01$) and punishment sensitivity as a positive predictor (β = .17, $p < .001$). In the second step, the full model was significant ($F(3,442) = 8.28$, $p < .001$) and explained 4.7% variance in POS for strengths use. Reward sensitivity remained the negative predictor (β = –.14, $p < .01$), punishment sensitivity was the positive predictor (β = .17, $p < .001$), and the interaction term predicted POS for strengths use at the border of the statistical significance (β = –.09, $p = .05$). Including the interaction term marginally increased the percentage of the explained variance in POS for strengths use ($\Delta R^2 = .008$, $p = .05$). Next, to determine the moderation effects, two simple regression models were built with reward sensitivity as predictor, POS for strengths use as an outcome variable, and punishment sensitivity as moderator. For low punishment sensitivity, reward sensitivity was unrelated to POS for strengths use (β = –.08, $p > .05$), and the regression model was not significant ($F(1,227) = 1.32$, $p > .05$, *Adj.* $R^2 = .001$). For high punishment sensitivity, reward sensitivity was negatively related to POS for strengths use ($\beta = –.20$, $p < .01$). The model was statistically significant ($F(1,215) = 9.06$, $p < .01$) and explained 3.6% of the variance in POS for strengths use. The interaction of reward and punishment sensitivity on POS for strength use is shown in Figure 3.

When predicting POS for deficit correction, the first model was significant ($F(2,443) = 7.91$, $p < .001$), and the explained variance in POS for deficit correction amounted to 3%. Reward sensitivity served as a negative predictor (β = –.19, $p < .001$) and punishment sensitivity was unrelated to POS for deficit correction (β = –.002, $p > .05$). Including the interaction term did not significantly increase the percentage of the explained variance ($\Delta R^2 = .000$, $p > .05$). The final model was significant ($F(3,442) = 5.26$, $p < .01$) and explained 2.8% variance in POS for deficit correction. Reward sensitivity remained the only significant negative predictor (β = –.19, $p < .001$), whereas punishment sensitivity (β = –.002, $p > .05$) and the interaction term (β = –.001, $p > .05$) were unrelated to POS for deficit correction.

Structural model

In the next step, the path model was constructed to test the relationships of reward sensitivity, punishment sensitivity, and their interaction with the four elements of the SUDCO model. The results from the path analysis are reported in Table 3 in Appendix 1. Including all components of the SUDCO framework within the structural model showed that the significance pattern from the previously calculated multiple regression analyses remained. All direct and moderating effects in the path model were analogous to those obtained for the four separate above-mentioned hierarchical regression models, with the path coefficients having the same values as the standardized regression coefficients from the separate regression models. Thus, the path analysis demonstrated that, similarly to the hierarchical regression analyses, reward sensitivity emerged as a negative predictor of all SUDCO elements, punishment sensitivity positively predicted strengths use and POS form strengths use, and the interaction of reward sensitivity and punishment sensitivity was significant when predicting strengths use, deficit correction, and POS for strengths use.

DISCUSSION

The present study combines the two theoretical models derived from different research traditions, namely the RST theory emerging from personality psychology and the SUDCO model rooted in positive organizational psychology. Accordingly, it aimed at investigating the relationships of reward and punishment sensitivity, reflecting BIS/BAS systems, among employees with the elements of the SUDCO conceptual framework, such as strengths use and deficit correction behaviors, and POS for strengths use and POS for deficit correction. Thus, this study fits into and extends prior research on dispositional predictors of strengths use and deficit correction in the workplace.

Contrary to the expectations, the regression and path analyses demonstrated that reward sensitivity negatively predicted all aspects of the SUDCO model, indicating that employees with higher reward sensitivity less frequently

use their strong points and improving deficits at work and perceive their organizations as less supportive of such organizational behaviors. These findings reflect the basic assumptions of the RST theory. At the theoretical level, reward sensitivity (BAS) was initially postulated to originate from the personality trait of impulsivity (Corr, 2004), which within the biopsychosocial approach is defined as "a predisposition toward rapid, unplanned reactions to internal or external stimuli without regard to the negative consequences of these reactions to the impulsive individual or to others" (Moeller et al., 2001, p. 1784). In addition, BAS is linked to low conscientiousness, which is recognized as the opposite of high impulsivity (Furnham & Jackson, 2008), and to high extraversion, which appears to correspond even better than impulsivity with reward-driven, dispositional motivation (Smillie et al., 2006). Accordingly, reward sensitivity could manifest at the behavioral level in a more disinhibited behavior (Corr, 2004) and higher carelessness, impatience, and distractibility, translating into lower performance at work (Furnham & Jackson, 2008). Therefore, in the organizational context, those high in reward sensitivity might devote less time and energy at work to successively develop their strengths and correct deficiencies due to the dispositional tendency to suddenly switch from one activity to another, which might seem to them more attractive. Thus, they may not be able to focus on gradually gaining competence and improving incompetence at work, which requires some level of insensitivity to appetitive stimuli suddenly appearing in the workplace. In addition, they might be less sensitive to the cues indicating organizational support for using their strong points and eliminating deficiencies, as they react based on urgent needs rather than planned decisions, organizational routine, and steadfast competency development. In line with this notion, prior research demonstrated the positive relationship between BAS sensitivity and interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance, suggesting that chronic understimulation and novelty seeking among individuals high in reward sensitivity push them to undertake socially undesirable, risky organizational behaviors, bringing arousal at work (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007). Similarly, reward-oriented employees might seek stimulation by suddenly changing the direction of developing their competencies or even avoiding engagement in behaviors valued at work, such as strengths use and deficit correction. However, further studies are needed to test these assumptions.

In contrast, punishment sensitivity positively predicted strengths use and POS for strengths use, indicating that employees high in punishment sensitivity demonstrate an increased tendency to use their assets at work and are more apt to react to the signals from the working environment, encouraging them to develop their competence. However, punishment sensitivity was unrelated to deficit correction and POS for deficit correction. Although these results contradict the initial expectations, they might reflect the theoretical underpinnings of the construct of punishment sensitivity. Given that anxiety underlies the BIS subsystem of the RST, punishment sensitivity is linked with inhibited behavior, neuroticism, and learning from aversive cues (Corr, 2004). In the workplace, punishment-sensitive individuals are more responsive to potential penalties or threats of penalties, which managers communicate, encouraging the employees to achieve higher job performance (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007). As organizational encouragement to strengths use provide signals indicating that these behaviors increase job performance and are highly appreciated at work, those high in punishment sensitivity might undertake them to avoid future punishment at work. Highly punishment-sensitive employees also seem more attentive to cues of organizational support for strengths use, as it could help them better defend themselves against potential negative consequences of lack of competence at work. In addition, avoidance motivation, a characteristic of high punishment sensitivity, is related to increased arousal, a general view of the word as threatening and experiencing more negative emotions. Therefore, employees with high avoidance motivation tend to be less likely to engage in behaviors deviating from organizational norms to cope more effectively with negative emotions and reduce arousal (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007).

Similarly, those high in punishment sensitivity might follow organizational norms by engaging in strength use to avoid generating additional arousal and negative emotions. In turn, the nonsignificant relationship of punishment sensitivity with deficit correction and POS for deficit correction seems to reflect anxiety, neuroticism, and introversion linkages with punishment sensitivity (Corr, 2004). Punishment-sensitive individuals might experience more negative emotions concerning their actual or perceived weak points and be more afraid of revealing them at work because of possible punishment. Thus, they do not tend to expose themselves to others by undertaking deficit correction behaviors. Accordingly, employees high in punishment sensitivity might ignore organizational signals of support for such behaviors.

Apart from these, in line with the joint subsystems hypothesis (Corr, 2004), the interactive effects of reward and punishment sensitivity on strengths use, deficit correction, and POS for strengths use were found. More specifically, reward sensitivity was negatively related to the above-mentioned aspects of the SUDCO model, albeit only among those high in punishment sensitivity. Such findings are consistent with prior research, indicating that both RST subsystems function interdependently and might be activated simultaneously (Bryan et al., 2022; Keough & O'Connor, 2015) and suggest that the elevated response to rewards (represented by high reward sensitivity) is related to lower levels of the three SUDCO elements for employees exposed for punishment or threat of it (represented by high punishment sensitivity). Consequently, those high both in reward and punishment sensitivity seem to be particularly at risk of withdrawing from activities directed to develop their competencies and minimize incompetence due to being exposed to the conflicting motives underlying these behaviors. In other

words, when experiencing both incentives to engage in strengths use and deficit correction, such employees might cope with the anxiety of being punished at work by not taking development-oriented, proactive behaviors. Such individuals might resign from using strengths and correcting deficiencies at work, as the concern about the possible negative organizational consequences of disclosing their areas of development might be perceived as threatening to them. The tendency to undertake actions motivated by punishment rather than rewards seems to dominate when they feel endangered by potential penalties at work in the situation of revealing to managers and coworkers insufficient levels of competence compared to the organizational requirements. Another explanation of such results is that highly reward and punishment-sensitive individuals are characterized by high anxiety and high impulsivity at the personality level (Corr, 2004), so their behaviors at work might be more disinhibited. Therefore, they could quickly lose interest in self-development, treating strengths use and deficit correction as less rewarding and attractive than other, newly emerging alternative activities at work. These possibilities shed additional light on the conditions under which strengths- and deficit-based interventions in organizations might be more or less effective and also bring some potential managerial implications. In particular, when projecting and shaping the employee evaluation systems and creating development plans, managers should be aware that those simultaneously high in reward sensitivity and high in punishment sensitivity might be less prone to engage in strengths use and deficit correction behaviors. That is also why, during the employee evaluation, managers should rely both on rewards and punishments related to developing subordinate's competencies, stressing the importance of using the employee's full potential in the organization. In addition, it is worth implementing organizational strengths-based practices using a diverse range of methods and tools to make them more attractive to employees who are sensitive both to rewards and punishments.

While the current study helps to clarify the linkages between the SUDCO components and personality factors, it is not free from limitations. Firstly, its correlational character makes it impossible to establish causality. Secondly, as it was based on the self-report data gathered from actually working people who could want to present themselves in a more favorable light, it could be prone to social desirability bias. Thus, it would be worth conducting experimental or longitudinal research on motivational predictors of strengths use and deficit correction in the workplace in the future to eliminate these potential shortcomings. Alternatively, implementing strengths-based interventions based on the RST framework in the working environment would help better understand how BIS/BAS systems shape individuals' motivation to concentrate on their strengths and assets at work. Another limitation of this study stems from examining the limited range of personal factors as predictors of the SUDCO elements, narrowed to BIS/BAS sensitivities. In the subsequent research, other personality, temperamental, motivational, and organizational factors ought to be included as plausible correlates of strengths use and deficit correction at work to broaden our knowledge about the nomological network of these two types of organizational behaviors. Similarly, the present study was based on the original version of the RST theory (Grey & McNaughton, 1982), taking into account only punishment sensitivity (reflecting BIS) and reward sensitivity (corresponding to BAS). Although such a research approach, due to its popularity, could help compare research results, it might omit some aspects of the RST theory addressed in its revised version, in particular those related to the FFFS (c.f., Grey & McNaughton, 2000). Therefore, further studies should involve the major modifications of the RST included in its revision (Wytykowska et al., 2017). Additional shortcomings of this study might be attributable to the SUDCO model itself. In positive health psychology, in line with the salutogenic perspective, concentrating not only on strengths but also on deficiencies is contested (Bakker & van Woerkom, 2018), as the strengths-based approach is reported to be more important for improving employee functioning at work than the deficit-based approach (Gradito Dubord & Forest, 2023). However, regardless of these doubts referring to the theoretical underpinnings of the SUDCO concept, this relatively new model offers a holistic, balanced framework in the studies on positive and negative aspects of an individual's functioning in the workplace (Van Woerkom et al., 2016).

Despite these limitations, the present study shed additional light on the temperamental factors predicting the SUDCO components. In addition, it implements the RST theory into the field of positive organizational psychology by combining it with the strengths-based approach and a more traditional deficit-based approach. Thus, this study offers a broader, theory-driven perspective on the issue of possible correlates of strengths use and deficit correction in the workplace by reference to Grey's neurobiological theory of personality. Thanks to this comprehensiveness of the research background, it seems also to have some practical implications. More specifically, the research findings might help organizational practitioners and managers design strengths-based interventions and practices in the organizational context, considering the temperamental differences in employees. Moreover, the results obtained could also be applied in employee development by facilitating the selection of methods that are aligned with individual BIS/BAS sensitivity. From the managerial point of view, they might contribute to how to project and shape workplace conditions, assign job responsibilities, build teams, and use rewards and penalties in the organizational policy to ensure that these elements in the workplace help bring the best from employees with different temperamental sensitivities.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study combines two theoretical approaches derived from the RST theory and the SUDCO model to test the predictive role of reward and punishment

sensitivity and their interaction with regard to strengths use, deficit correction, POS for strengths use, and POS for deficit correction at work. The research findings showed that reward sensitivity was negatively related to all dimensions of the SUDCO framework, suggesting its key role as a dispositional factor contributing to reduced employee engagement in such proactive organizational behaviors and the formation of less favorable beliefs about organizational support for them. Punishment sensitivity was identified as a temperamental trait that enhances strengths use and POS for strengths use at work. Such results highlighted the differences in the correlation patterns between both motivational subsystems and the SUDCO components, advancing the understanding of the nomological network of strengths use and deficit correction in organizations. In addition, the interaction effects of reward and punishment sensitivity on the three constituents of the SUDCO model were found. These findings suggest that heightened reward sensitivity is related to greater strengths use, deficit correction, and POS for strengths use among those high in punishment sensitivity. The implications of such results for organizational theory and practice were discussed.

COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of XXX (decision number: KEUS.69/01.2021).

REFERENCES

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands-Resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*(3), 309–328. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115

Bakker, A. B., & van Woerkom, M. (2018). Strengths use in organizations: A positive approach of occupational health. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne, 59*(1), 38-46. https://doi.org/10.1037/cap0000120

Barzin, L., Vîrgă, D. M., & Rusu, A. (2021). The Effectiveness of a Job Crafting, Strengths Use, and Deficit Correction Intervention on Employee Proactive Behaviors and Well-Being: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Psihologia Resurselor Umane, 19*(2). https://doi.org/10.24837/pru.v19i2.496

Bijttebier, P., Beck, I., Claes, L., & Vandereycken, W. (2009). Gray's Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory as a framework for research on personality–psychopathology associations. *Clinical Psychology Review, 29*(5), 421–430. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2009.04.002

Biswas-Diener, R., Kashdan, T.B, Lyubchik, N. (2016). Psychological strengths at work. In L.G. Oades, M.F. Steger, A. Delle Fave, & J. Passmore (Ed.), *Handbook of the psychology of positivity and strengths-based approaches at work.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell.

Bratty, A. J., & Dennis, N. C. (2024). The efficacy of employee strengths interventions on desirable workplace outcomes. *Current Psychology,* 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-05607-9

Cooper, A., & Gomez, R. (2008). The development of a short form of the Sensitivity to Punishment and Sensitivity to Reward Questionnaire. *Journal of Individual Differences, 29*(2), 90–104. https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-0001.29.2.90.

Corr, P. J. (2002). J. A. Gray's reinforcement sensitivity theory: Tests of the joint subsystems hypothesis of anxiety and impulsivity. *Personality and Individual Differences, 33*(4), 511–532. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(01)00170-2

Corr, P. J., & Perkins, A. M. (2006). The role of theory in the psychophysiology of personality: From Ivan Pavlov to Jeffrey Gray. *International Journal of Psychophysiology, 62*(3), 367–376. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpsycho.2006.01.005

Corr, P. J., McNaughton, N., Wilson, M. R., Hutchison, A., Burch, G., & Poropat, A. (2016). Neuroscience of motivation and organizational behavior: putting the reinforcement sensitivity theory (RST) to work. In *Recent developments in neuroscience research on human motivation* (pp. 65–92). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Diefendorff, J. M., & Mehta, K. (2007). The relations of motivational traits with workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 967–977. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.967

Ding, H., & Chu, X. (2020). Employee strengths use and thriving at work: The roles of self-efficacy and perceived humble leadership. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 19*(4), 197–205. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000262

Ding, H., & Lin, X. (2020). Exploring the relationship between core self-evaluation and strengths use: The perspective of emotion. *Personality and Individual Differences, 157*, Article 109804. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.109804

Ding, H., Yu, E., & Li, Y. (2022). Core self-evaluation, perceived organizational support for strengths use and job performance: Testing a mediation model. *Current Psychology: A Journal for Diverse Perspectives on Diverse Psychological Issues, 41*(8), 5143–5150. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-020-01029-z

Elliot, A. J., & Thrash, T. M. (2002). Approach-avoidance motivation in personality: Approach and avoidance temperaments and goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*(5), 804–818. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.82.5.804

Els, C., Mostert, K., & Brouwers, S. (2016). Bias and equivalence of the strengths use and deficit correction questionnaire. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 42*(1), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v42i1.1365

Funder, D. C., Levine, J. M., Mackie, D. M., Morf, C. C., Sansone, C., Vazire, S., & West, S. G. (2014). Improving the dependability of research in personality and social psychology: Recommendations for research and educational practice. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 18*(1), 3-12. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868313507536

Furnham, A., & Jackson, C. (2008). Reinforcement sensitivity in the workplace: BIS/BAS in business. In P. J. Corr (Ed.), *The reinforcement sensitivity theory of personality* (pp. 431–452). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511819384.016

Gradito Dubord, M. A., & Forest, J. (2023). Focusing on Strengths or Weaknesses? Using Self-Determination Theory to Explain Why a Strengths-based Approach Has More Impact on Optimal Functioning Than Deficit Correction. *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology, 8*(1), 87-113. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41042-022-00079-x

Grey, J. A., & McNaughton, N. (2000). *The neuropsychology of anxiety. An enquiry into the functions of the septo-hippocampal system.* Oxford Psychology Series. Oxford University Press.

Guan, X., & Frenkel, S. (2020). Organizational support and employee thriving at work: exploring the underlying mechanisms. *Personnel Review, 50*(3), 935-953. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-10-2019-0569

Keenan, E. M., & Mostert, K. (2013). Perceived organisational support for strengths use: The factorial validity and reliability of a new scale in the banking industry. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 39*(1), 1–12. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC136765

Keough, M. T., & O'Connor, R. M. (2015). Interactive Effects of the BIS and the BAS on Trajectories of Alcohol Misuse after University Graduation. *Substance Abuse: Research and Treatment, 9*(Suppl 1), 33–40.

Kim, J. H. (2019). Multicollinearity and misleading statistical results. *Korean Journal of Anesthesiology, 72*(6), 558–569. https://doi.org/10.4097/kja.19087

Kong, D. T., & Ho, V. T. (2016). A self-determination perspective of strengths use at work: Examining its determinant and performance implications. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 11*(1), 15–25. https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2015.1004555

Lavy, S. (2020). A review of character strengths interventions in twenty-first-century schools: Their importance and how they can be fostered. *Applied Research in Quality of Life, 15*(2), 573–596. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-018-9700-6

Lavy, S., & Littman-Ovadia, H. (2017). My better self: Using strengths at work and work productivity, organizational citizenship behavior, and satisfaction. *Journal of Career Development, 44*(2), 95–109. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845316634056

Lorenz, T., Heinitz, K., Beer, C., & van Woerkom, M. (2021). Adaptation and validation of a German version of the Strengths Use and Deficit Correction (SUDCO) questionnaire. *PLoS ONE, 16*(1), Article e0245127. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0245127

Luan, Y., Zhao, G., Xu, L., & Ren, B. (2023). Strengths use in the workplace: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 33*(6), 612–617. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2023.2246274

Meyers, M. C., Kooij, D., Kroon, B., de Reuver, R., & van Woerkom, M. (2020). Organizational support for strengths use, work engagement, and contextual performance: The moderating role of age. *Applied Research in Quality of Life, 15*, 485-502. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-018-9702-4

Meyers, M. C., van Woerkom, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2013). The added value of the positive: A literature review of positive psychology interventions in organizations. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 22*(5), 618–632. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2012.694689

Meyers, M. C., van Woerkom, M., de Reuver, R. S., Bakk, Z., & Oberski, D. L. (2015). Enhancing psychological capital and personal growth initiative: Working on strengths or deficiencies. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 62*(1), 50-62.

Miglianico, M., Dubreuil, P., Miquelon, P., Bakker, A. B., & Martin-Krumm, C. (2020). Strength use in the workplace: A literature review. *Journal of Happiness Studies: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being, 21*(2), 737–764. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-019-00095-w

Moeller, F. G., Barratt, E. S., Dougherty, D. M., Schmitz, J. M., & Swann, A. C. (2001). Psychiatric aspects of impulsivity. *The American Journal of Psychiatry, 158*(11), 1783–1793. https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.158.11.1783

Mortensen, J. A., Lehn, H., Evensmoen, H. R., & Håberg, A. K. (2015). Evidence for an antagonistic interaction between reward and punishment sensitivity on striatal activity: A verification of the Joint Subsystems Hypothesis. *Personality and Individual Differences, 74*, 214–219. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.10.023

Park, N., Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2004). Strengths of character and well-being. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 23*(5), 603–619. https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.23.5.603.50748

Rothmann, S., & Mahomed, F. E. (2019). Strengths use, deficit correction, thriving and performance of academics at universities of technology. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 45*(1), 1–10. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-15787e1c48

XXX

Schreurs, B., Guenter, H., Hülsheger, U., & van Emmerik, H. (2014). The role of punishment and reward sensitivity in the emotional labor process: A within-person perspective. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 19*(1), 108–121. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035067

Smillie, L. D., Pickering, A. D., & Jackson, C. J. (2006). The New Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory: Implications for Personality Measurement. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 10*(4), 320–335. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1004_3

Tremblay, M., Vandenberghe, C., & Doucet, O. (2013). Relationships between leader-contingent and non-contingent reward and punishment behaviors and subordinates' perceptions of justice and satisfaction, and evaluation of the moderating influence of trust propensity, pay level, and role ambiguity. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 28*(2), 233–249. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-012-9275-4

van der Linden, D., Beckers, D. G. J., & Taris, T. W. (2007). Reinforcement sensitivity theory at work: Punishment sensitivity as a dispositional source of job-related stress. *European Journal of Personality, 21*(7), 889–909. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.660

van Woerkom, M., Bakker, A. B., & Nishii, L. H. (2016). Accumulative job demands and support for strength use: Fine-tuning the job demands-resources model using conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(1), 141–150. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000033

van Woerkom, M., Meyers, M. C., & Bakker, A. B. (2022). Considering strengths use in organizations as a multilevel construct. *Human Resource Management Review, 32*(3), 100767. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2020.100767

van Woerkom, M., Mostert, K., Els, C., Bakker, A. B., De Beer, L., & Rothmann Jr, S. (2016). Strengths use and deficit correction in organizations: Development and validation of a questionnaire. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 25*(6), 960-975. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2016.1193010

Wytykowska, A., Białaszek, W., & Ostaszewski, P. (2014). Psychometryczne właściwości polskiej wersji krótkiej skali wrażliwości na kary i nagrody (SPSRQ-SF Cooper i Gomez, 2008). *Studia Psychologiczne, 52*(2), 28-39. https://doi.org/10.2478/v10167-010-0083-6

Wytykowska, A., Fajkowska, M., Domaradzka, E., & Jankowski, K. S. (2017). Construct validity of the Polish version of the reinforcement sensitivity theory-personality questionnaire. *Personality and Individual Differences, 109*, 172–180. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.12.054

Appendix 1

Table 3. Results of the path analysis with reward sensitivity, punishment sensitivity, and their interaction predicting components of the SUDCO model

SUB	***B***	***SE***	***t***	***p***	**β**
RS	–0.35	0.14	–2.54	0.0113	–0.12
PS	0.31	0.08	4.01	0.0001	0.19
RS x PS	–0.67	0.31	–2.17	0.0302	–0.10
constans	24.82	2.55	9.73	0.0000	–
	R^2 = 0.0542, sqrt(1 – R^2) = 0.9725				
DCB	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	β
RS	–0.45	0.14	–3.2	0.0012	–0.15
PS	0.14	0.08	1.84	0.0669	0.09
RS x PS	–0.62	0.31	–2.00	0.0462	–0.09
constans	27.25	2.55	10.68	0.0000	–
	R^2 = 0.0357, sqrt(1 – R^2) = 0.9820				
POSSU	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	β
RS	–0.54	0.17	–3.08	0.0022	–0.14
PS	0.37	0.10	3.70	0.0002	0.17
RS x PS	–0.77	0.39	–1.97	0.0497	–0.09
constans	28.77	3.26	8.82	0.0000	–
	R^2 = 0.0532, sqrt(1 – R^2) = 0.9730				
POSDC	B	SE	t	p	β
RS	–0.50	0.13	–3.95	0.0001	–0.19
PS	–0.00	0.07	–0.05	0.9636	–0.00
RS x PS	–0.01	0.29	–0.03	0.9774	–0.00
constans	24.32	2.39	10.19	0.0000	–
	R^2 = 0.0542, sqrt(1 – R^2) = 0.9725				

Note. N = 446. RS = reward sensitivity; PS = punishment sensitivity; SUB = strengths use behavior; DCB = deficit correction behavior; POSSU = perceived organizational support for strengths use; POSDC = perceived organizational support for deficit correction.

Supplementary material

Kwestionariusz Wykorzystania Mocnych Stron i Korygowania Deficytów
(van Woerkom et al., 2016)

Oceń, w jakim stopniu dane stwierdzenie odnosi się do Ciebie i organizacji, w której aktualnie pracujesz na skali: 0 = prawie nigdy; 1= rzadko; 2 = sporadycznie; 3 = czasami; 4 = często; 5 = zazwyczaj; 6 = prawie zawsze

Postrzegane wsparcie organizacyjne dla wykorzystania mocnych stron

1. Moja organizacja umożliwia mi robienie tego, w czym jestem dobry/dobra.
2. Moja organizacja umożliwia mi wykorzystanie moich zdolności.
3. Moja organizacja dba o to, aby moje mocne strony odpowiadały zadaniom wykonywanym przeze mnie w pracy.
4. Moja organizacja w pełni wykorzystuje moje zdolności.
5. Moja organizacja skupia się na tym, w czym jestem dobry/dobra.
6. Moja organizacja korzysta z moich mocnych stron.
7. Moja organizacja pozwala mi na wykonywanie mojej pracy w sposób, który najlepiej odpowiada moim mocnym stronom.

Postrzegane wsparcie organizacyjne dla korygowania deficytów

8. Moja organizacja zapewnia mi szkolenia mające na celu poprawę moich słabych punktów.
9. Moja organizacja wymaga ode mnie pracy nad własnymi niedociągnięciami.
10. Mój plan rozwoju w organizacji ma na celu niwelowanie moich słabości.
11. W mojej organizacji oceny okresowe odnoszą się do moich obszarów rozwoju.
12. Moja organizacja oczekuje ode mnie, że poprawię to, w czym nie jestem dobry/dobra.

Wykorzystanie mocnych stron

13. W mojej pracy w pełni wykorzystuję moje mocne strony.
14. Organizuję swoją pracę tak, aby dopasować ją do moich mocnych stron.
15. Bazuję na moich mocnych stronach w pracy.
16. Szukam możliwości wykonywania mojej pracy w sposób, który najbardziej odpowiada moim mocnym stronom.
17. W mojej pracy staram się wykorzystywać swoje zdolności w jak największym stopniu.
18. Wykorzystuję moje mocne strony w pracy.

Korygowanie deficytów

19. Angażuję się w działania mające na celu ograniczanie moich słabych stron w pracy.
20. W mojej pracy staram się przezwyciężać własne ograniczenia.
21. W mojej pracy pracuję nad własnymi niedociągnięciami.
22. W pracy szukam możliwości szkolenia, aby pokonywać moje słabości.
23. W pracy poszukuję informacji zwrotnych dotyczących moich obszarów rozwoju.
24. Zastanawiam się, jak mogę w pracy poprawić to, w czym nie jestem dobry/dobra.