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Disempowering Defensive Silence: The Role of Empowering Leadership, Sense of Power, and Dyadic Tenure

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RESUMO

O silêncio dos colaboradores é um problema para as organizações, mas não foi um comportamento suficientemente investigado, especialmente o silêncio defensivo, baseado em emoções e de difícil mudança. A liderança desempenha um papel importante na explicação do silêncio, mas, embora seja essencialmente uma construção relacionada com o poder, esse relacionamento não mereceu atenção suficiente por parte da academia desse ponto de vista, ou seja, da liderança empoderadora. Do ponto de vista da teoria da aproximação-inibição, o sentido de poder pessoal é uma variável adequada que descrever o processo psicológico que pode mediar a relação entre liderança empoderadora e o silêncio defensivo. Da mesma forma, como processo, pode levar tempo para ocorrer.

Neste sentido, o presente estudo testa em que medida a liderança empoderadora desempenha um papel relevante na diminuição do silêncio defensivo, por meio do sentido de poder pessoal do colaborador, enquanto variável mediadora. Este estudo contempla o tempo da díade como moderador da mediação, porque em estudos de liderança é importante assumir uma abordagem temporal.

Com uma amostra de 227 colaboradores, os resultados evidenciam o efeito indireto hipotetizado, bem como uma moderação do tempo da díade no efeito direto, onde a liderança empoderadora é contraproducente nas relações diádicas com pouco tempo. Os resultados são discutidos à luz da teoria, sugerindo um novo caminho de mediação que explica uma variação considerável no silêncio defensivo. As implicações para pesquisa e prática são consideradas.

Palavras chave: Silêncio Defensivo; Liderança Empoderadora; Sentido de Poder Pessoal; Tempo da Díade

ABSTRACT

Employees' silence is a problem for organizations, but research has not sufficiently addressed this behavior, especially the hard-to-change emotion-based defensive silence. Leadership plays an important role in explaining silence, but, although it is essentially a power-related construct, this relationship has not deserved enough attention from scholars from a power standpoint, i.e., empowering leadership. From an approach-inhibition theory perspective, sense of power is a suitable variable that depicts the psychological process that may mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and defensive silence. Likewise, as a process, it may require time to take place.

In line with this, the present study tests whether empowering leadership plays a relevant role in decreasing defensive silence, through the subordinate's sense of power, as a mediator. This study contemplates dyadic tenure as a moderator in the mediation because, in leadership studies, it is important to assume a temporal approach.

With a sample of 227 employees, findings show the hypothesized indirect effect as well as a moderation of dyadic tenure in the direct effect where empowering leadership is counterproductive in low tenured dyadic relations. Findings are discussed at the light of theory, suggesting a novel mediational path that accounts for considerable variance in defensive silence. Implications for research and practice are considered.

Keywords: Defensive Silence; Empowering Leadership; Sense of Power; Dyadic Tenure

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AVE – Average Extraction Variance

CFA – Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFI – Comparative Fit Index

CI – Confidence interval

CR – Composite Reliability

DS – Defensive Silence

EL – Empowering Leadership

RMSEA – Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

SP – Sense of Power

SRMR – Standardize Root Mean Square Residual

TLI – Tucker-Lewis Index

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INTRODUCTION

Employee participation has deserved much attention in organizational research ever since Hackman and Oldham (1976) model highlighted its importance in favoring work outcomes. One tacit expression of employee participation is voice. Voice is a discretionary behavior (Morrison, 2011), in which subordinates express to their superiors (upward voice) their concerns, suggestions, and opinions about problems in the work context (Morrison, 2014). When employees engage in voice behaviors, they will have the opportunity to bring information that their leaders do not have access to, in order to contribute to the improvement of the organization's functioning (Butler & Whiting, 2019). A seemingly opposite behavior is employee silence. However, silence is not exactly the opposite of voice because opting not to participate (to voice) can be motivated by a sense of having nothing deemed important to add or by willingly restraining such participation based on concerns of irrelevance, fear, protecting others, or as a power strategy (Knoll et al., 2016). Silence is, therefore, an essential construct in organizational psychology (Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Although silence has a long track of related research in Psychology, namely linked to other phenomena such as Irving Janis' groupthink, Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann's spirals of silence, Jerry Harvey's Abilene paradox, Bibb Latané and John Darley's diffusion of responsibility, or Albert Hirschman's Loyalty and Daniel Farrell's Neglect response to dissatisfaction (Brinsfield, 2014), it has received less attention from researchers than voice. However, it has important implications for individuals, groups, and organizations, such as low job satisfaction and low work engagement (Wang et al., 2020). Defensive silence is a particular type of silence motivated by fear that voicing might bring negative consequences (Knoll & van Dick, 2013; Van Dyne et al., 2003) and it deserves special attention because of its emotional basis (fear) which makes it less prone to behavioral modulation (Pinder & Harlos, 2001).

Extant research on defensive silence is lacking, especially concerning its relationship with leadership that is known to be a central element in explaining silence (e.g., Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2017; Janssen & Gao, 2015; Xu et al., 2015). As an intrinsic power relationship, leader-follower interactions can be approached from a political perspective, but although this is acknowledged as critical (cf. Edmondson, 2003), it has not received much research attention. The approach-inhibition theory of power proposed by Keltner et al. (2003) offers an explanation that highlights how empowerment can promote active strategies and thus favor work outcomes. Empowering leadership (Arnold et al., 2000) is a suitable construct to tackle this power dimension within leadership relations. It focuses on fostering psychological empowerment to favor positive effects (Fong & Snape, 2015). However, psychological empowerment fails to capture the relational nature of power relations, which the construct of sense of power does (Anderson et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2019). From the approach-inhibition theory point of view, sense of power may play an important role in linking leadership to defensive silence, but it has been scarcely studied in relationship to silence (Morrison et al., 2015). This is an important research gap.

This research is intended to fill this gap by testing the mediation role sense of power plays in relating empowering leadership to defensive silence, from an approach-inhibition theory standpoint. Additionally,

in answering the call for including a temporal perspective in the leader-follower relationship (as leadership, as a process, requires time to be established, Shamir, 2011), this study considers dyadic tenure as a plausible moderator.

In doing so, the study offers new insights on how leadership can counter the nefarious effects of defensive silence via the critical psychological variable of sense of power. This has also implications for practice in the sense that organizations may want to refocus their attention on leadership practices to enact employees' voice, or at least, counter this particularly hard to change mode of silence.

To achieve this, the thesis is organized starting with reviewing literature exploring defensive silence, empowering leadership, and sense of power to derive hypotheses that comprehend the conceptual model as a moderated mediation where dyadic tenure is the boundary condition. After showing methodological options made, results from hypotheses testing are depicted to be discussed at the light of the theory. The last section offers conclusions as well as limitations and suggestions for furthering research in this topic.

CHAPTER I

Literature Review

1.1. Defensive silence

Silence is the term generated in Psychology to name an employee's behavior that is characterized by the intentional withholding of information (Johannesen, 1974). Lately, this description added that silence matches withholding information that could potentially be important in a situation where an employee has a concern about a problem or a divergent opinion that could be shared (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). This behavior can occur due to three motivations (Van Dyne et al., 2003): a sense of inability to make a difference (resignation, i.e., keeping to oneself an idea in a meeting – Acquiescent silence), self-protection (fear, i.e., avoiding stating something that can bounce back negatively – Quiescent / Defensive silence), and protecting others (cooperation, i.e., avoiding undisclosed confidential information to protect someone or the organization – ProSocial silence). This classification has received empirical support (Brinsfield, 2013) and a fourth type of silence – opportunistic silence – has been proposed by Knoll and van Dick (2013) as expressing a “strategically withholding work-related ideas, information, or opinions with the goal of achieving an advantage for oneself while accepting harm of others” (p. 352), which was also found to be validly measured (Bormann & Rowold, 2016; Knoll & van Dick, 2013).

Defensive silence is, therefore, a fear-based volitive behavior that is deliberately deployed for self-protection reasons (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). The notion that this behavior has a deliberative, intentional, and conscious nature has been highlighted in the literature (Van Dyne et al., 2003). However, defensive silence can also occur as a non-deliberative behavior where the individual experiences simultaneously high fear intensity and has a short time for response (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). Additionally, these authors classify defensive silence as being schema-driven (as a behavior that is based on cognitive schemata that work as a heuristic to guide the appropriate course of action), deliberative (as a behavior that is strategically adopted, as the individual experiences low fear intensity and has enough time to comply), or habituated (as repeated experiences over time consolidate an orientation towards safety and become the basic response for the individual when threat is perceived).

Opting for remaining in silence has important costs and consequences both for the individual as well as the organizations (Milliken et al., 2003).

Although the effects of silence have been underresearched until fifteen years ago (Bashshur & Oc, 2015), it received more attention lately, and today there is a reasonable understanding of its impacts, mostly negative, upon individuals, groups, and organizations.

Morrison and Milliken (2000) proposed that organizational silence is especially harmful to the decision-making processes and quality. Literature has provided support to that proposition since decision-making and organizational change management benefit from considering multiple sources of information and decision (Kerr & Tindale, 2004) due to the confrontation of diverging opinions and perspectives that

foster critical thinking (Loy et al., 2019). Likewise, being able to freely dissent is instrumental in reducing organizational errors (van Woerkom & Croon, 2008) as evidenced by groupthink (Janis, 1972; Smith, 2016), especially in a time of crisis or continued structural change where defensive silence is known to occur more intensely (Wynen et al., 2020). It is now found that defensive silence leads to employees' emotional exhaustion (Jahanzeb et al., 2018) that increases absenteeism and lowers productivity (Bakker et al., 2014) as well as higher psychological strain, higher turnover intention and lower well-being (Knoll & van Dick, 2013). It is also linked to lower employee creativity (Guo et al., 2018), lower organizational commitment (Dedahanov & Rhee, 2015), and lower affective change commitment, expressed as a diminished desire to support change due to believing it will not bring inherent benefits (Bormann & Rowold, 2016).

The sheer magnitude of consequences, *per se*, motivates research on defensive silence roots and facilitating factors. Brinsfield (2013) reports that defensive silence occurs mainly when the target is upper management or the direct supervisor, which he attributes to potential harm due to their power position, i.e., to the differential power between the employee and the interlocutor. Edmondson (2003) found that healthcare team members voiced more when leaders, namely surgeons, downplayed their power differences in the team.

Leadership has been acknowledged as a central element in explaining silence (e.g., Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2017; Janssen & Gao, 2015; Xu et al., 2015). Transformational (Duan et al., 2017), ethical (Lam et al., 2016), and authentic leadership (Guenter et al., 2017) have been linked to voice, which translates the moral leadership dimension facilitating role in breaking the silence. The power leadership dimension is acknowledged as critical (cf. Edmondson, 2003) but has not deserved so much attention.

A leader behavior that is known to facilitate voice is precisely the solicitation and listening to employees' suggestions (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012). This can be interpreted as an expression of participation ethics and listening ethics (Brown et al., 2005) but, from the political perspective, it is a way to empower employees by giving them a voice (Spreitzer, 2007). So, silence is always linked to how power is exerted, and these approaches highlight precisely the descendent vertical power in relation to followers. Authoritarian leadership is long known to inhibit participation (Chan, 2014). The same holds for many empirical studies on abusive supervision (Wang et al., 2020).

It is less common to read about ascendant vertical power, where followers are incentivized to act as if they are leaders themselves. Shared leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Scott-Young et al., 2019), self-leadership (Stewart et al., 2019), and followership (Bastardoz & Van Vugt, 2019) are possible approaches to this issue. However, the most relevant approach to leadership in understanding followers' power-inhibition may lie in empowering leadership that explicitly states the purpose of enacting bottom-up decision power (Kim & Beehr, 2019).

1.2. Empowering leadership

Empowering leadership is a specific set of leader behaviors that may foster psychological empowerment, and in turn, enhances various desirable work outcomes (Maynard et al., 2012; Seibert et al., 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Empowering leadership operates through three main influence processes, namely power-sharing, motivation support, and development support (Ahearne et al., 2005; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Arnold et al., 2000). The leader behaves to motivate and encourage followers' autonomy by means of delegating authority and responsibility that once were exclusive of leaders (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). It has been defined as a set of behaviors leaders display to foster psychological empowerment intending to subsequently enhance positive work outcomes (Cheong et al., 2019).

Empowering leadership has been found to lead to many consequences. The vast majority of published empirical studies report positive consequences from empowering leadership. A meta-analysis conducted by Kim et al. (2018) found it to foster several outcomes such as more positive evaluations of leaders (e.g., trust in the leader, leader-member exchange), positive attitudes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, work engagement), better performance (job performance, contextual performance, creativity), and higher motivation and more psychological resources (e.g., self-efficacy, role clarity, psychological empowerment). Emotional outcomes such as emotional exhaustion, emotional tension, and cynicism were not significantly related to empowering leadership in this meta-analysis. This can be explained by some findings related to what Langfred and Moye (2004) called the costs of autonomy and by the role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), which may lead to higher job-induced tension (Cheong et al., 2016). Some of these outcomes are also predictors of many other valuable variables to organizations such as job crafting, which was found to be positively predicted by empowering leadership via an indirect effect through trust in the leader (Kim & Beehr, 2018). One outcome that can result from empowering leadership is inhibiting employee silence.

A study by Hassan et al. (2019) found that empowering leadership reduces employee silence via heightened trust in the supervisor, higher job control, and organization identification, but there is an indication of a possible concomitant direct effect in the correlation table. An alternative study by Ju et al. (2019) found evidence that in association with empowering leadership, there is an increase in intrinsic motivation, which in turn is related to a decrease in the silence of subordinates. These authors pointed out three reasons why empowering leadership is able to break the defensive silence, as it a) boosts subordinates' self-efficacy by encouraging them to take the initiative, leading them to share their suggestions and concerns; b) uses delegation and discretion mechanisms that increase subordinate responsibility and hence the felt obligation to improve their organizations break the silence; c) is concerned with the subordinates' thoughts and feelings, making them feel related to their leaders, groups, and organizations and thus feel safer in expressing suggestions or concerns.

Self-determination theory (Deci et al., 1989) helps to understand why empowering leadership favors participation. This theory of human motivation postulates that autonomy, competence, and relationship are the three basic psychological needs that all individuals have and that when satisfied, individuals feel

intrinsically motivated showing well-being and high-quality performance (Deci et al., 2017). A potential way to lead the subordinate to break the silence will be to ensure that their basic psychological needs are met. To this end, the main processes of influence of empowering leadership - power-sharing, motivation support, and development support (Ahearne et al., 2005; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Arnold et al., 2000) fit these needs. Being a voluntary behavior, employees need to feel capable and motivated enough to voice (Morrison, 2014). In short, when the conditions that promote high levels of responsibility and autonomy are not met, in order for subordinates to contribute their opinions, empowering leadership practices can help to induce subordinates to share their opinion and feel that their contribution is important and will be considered in decision making (Pigeon et al., 2017).

Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H1: Empowering leadership is negatively related to defensive silence

1.3. Sense of power as a resource

Leadership effectiveness in preventing defensive silence is judged by its relationship, but the explanation of why it operates lies in the psychological process leaders enact in followers. As empowering leadership puts the power in the center stage of the interaction with followers, power-related constructs or psychological states are reasonably the best explanatory mediating variables. Among these, psychological empowerment (Fong & Snape, 2015) and sense of power (Anderson et al., 2012) are suitable constructs.

Indeed, psychological empowerment has been used in defining empowering leadership itself (e.g., Cheong et al., 2019) and it has been found to mediate between empowering leadership and affective commitment, teamwork-oriented behaviors, and intentions to remain, linking group level constructs to individual and group outcomes (Chen et al., 2011). Another meta-analytical study conducted by Seibert et al. (2011) found that psychological empowerment increases job satisfaction, organizational commitment, task performance (both self-reported and non self-reported), organizational citizenship behaviors (contextual performance, both self-reported and non self-reported), innovation at work, and decreases psychological strain and turnover intentions. Lee et al. (2018) more recent meta-analysis also found psychological empowerment to mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and performance, creativity, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Lately, this mediation to job performance was found again (Kundu et al., 2019). Research is consistently finding evidence of the positive effects psychological empowerment has on individuals, teams, and organizations.

This can be due to the multidimensional nature of psychological empowerment comprehending four important aspects (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990): meaning (fit between work role requirements and personal beliefs, values, and behaviors), competence (self-efficacy at work), self-determination (ability to autonomously initiate or regulate own actions), and impact (ability to influence work outcomes).

Among these composing dimensions of psychological empowerment, only "impact" most closely relates to influence power. However, this dimension's operational definition shows that it targets the overall

follower environment but leaves aside the perceived capability of effectively directing influence power upwards, i.e., their ability to influence leaders. Therefore, findings from this meta-analysis leave out the role that empowering leadership plays in enacting/inhibiting followers' defensive behaviors due to their relationship with their leader. Indeed, psychological empowerment has been conceived as a work-focused construct (Spreitzer, 1996). This construct leaves aside the relational dimension of empowerment (Lin et al., 2019), which has been captured by its cognate construct: personal sense-of-power (Anderson et al., 2012).

Sense of power is defined as the perception one holds about one's own capacity to influence attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes of other individuals, i.e., the ability to influence people (Anderson et al., 2012). Because it can be directed towards the leader, it is a suitable construct to tackle the psychological processes involving leadership. Sense of power, as an alternative explanation, comprehends such vertical relationship (Lin et al., 2019) as sense of power directed towards leadership and is, therefore, a suitable construct to tackle the psychological processes. It has been scarcely studied in relation to employee voice and silence (Morrison et al., 2015).

The link between power issues and defensive silence finds theoretic support in the approach-inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003). These authors state that the psychological experience of possessing or not power over others affects one's emotions, cognitions, and behaviors. When perceived self power is high, the behavioral approach system is activated (e.g., the attention focused on rewards, confidence, positive emotions, and unrestrained behavior). Conversely, when perceived self power is low, the behavioral inhibition system is activated (e.g., attention focused on risk, threats, reduced confidence, anxiety, and other negative emotions, and inhibited social behavior). There are four basic propositions that stem from the approach-inhibition theory (Cho & Keltner, 2020). The first concerns power – emotion relations, where sense of power favors positive emotions experience and hampers negative emotions. The second, attention to rewards versus attention to threats, states that sense of power shifts attention so that powerful individuals pay attention to rewards and less to threats. The third, automatic cognition versus systematic cognition, states that powerful individuals use more heuristics and stereotypes in judging social cues. Lastly, disinhibited driven behavior versus inhibited driven behavior, concerns how much one behaves in a free or more self-controlled way when interacting with others. These authors reviewed more than a decade of empirical research to show all propositions that have been finding support.

The second proposition identified by Cho and Keltner (2020) is of special interest for this study as it pertains to how power relates to threat perception. Departing from the fundamental motivation of defensive silence (fear when facing a threat) it is reasonable to expect the attention shift that co-occurs with a heightened sense of power will inhibit employee silence. This exact result received empirical support by Morrison et al. (2015) based on the approach-inhibition theory.

Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H2: Sense of power mediates the negative relationship between empowering leadership and defensive silence

1.4. Time dependency

Being an interactional process, leadership effects cannot immediately be felt by followers and organizations. Leadership effects evolve across time (Bluedorn & Jaussi, 2008). Some research has shown that mutual trust and expectations between leaders and followers grow stronger with their continuing interaction (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), which means that without consideration for the temporal dimension, the true extent of leadership effects cannot be accounted. Such was acknowledged by Pettigrew (1992) that stressed the importance of a temporal approach to psychosocial phenomena and gave many examples of research designs of the pioneer studies in the 1930s by Muzafer Sherif, in the 1940 Theodore Newcomb, in the 1950s Gordon Allport, among others that implicitly uphold this approach.

A call for the inclusion of this emerging temporal focus on leadership studies was made by Shamir (2011) that explicitly recommended the use of temporal variables in leadership as moderators, i.e., that observed relations between leadership and a given criterion variable of followers might be reinforced or mitigated across time, or that apparently inexistent relationships may become significant when the interaction effect is considered. This can be explained as cumulative minor effects (e.g., small correlations that are seemingly negligible) may cumulate into major effects as observed in Abelson's (1985) study on batting skill.

The use of temporal indicators (e.g., organizational, job, or dyadic tenure) as control variables (e.g., Liao et al., 2019; Qin et al., 2018) does not suffice to account for temporal effects. It merely allows for the extraction of explained variance that is not shared with the temporal indicators. As Shamir (2011) stated, temporal variables should be treated as moderators, and researchers have been progressively introducing them with this status in the research design of leadership dynamics research (e.g., Li et al., 2019; Park et al., 2015). Duarte et al. (1994) found that dyadic tenure was an important moderator in the complex relationship between LMX, objective performance, and several professional outcomes. Harris et al. (2006) used all three types of tenure (organizational, job, and dyadic) in explaining their interaction effect upon the relationship between LMX and follower promotability to find that the interaction effect that accounts for more variance in promotability was precisely the dyadic tenure.

Considering this, it is hypothesized that:

H3: Dyadic tenure moderates the mediated relationship that sense of power has between empowering leadership and defensive silence.

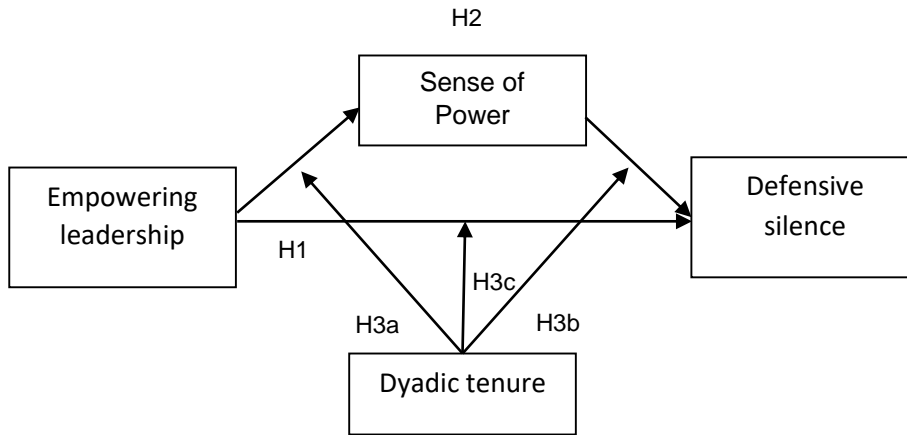
H3a: Dyadic tenure moderates the positive relationship between empowering leadership and sense of power in such a way that the higher the dyadic tenure, the stronger the relationship.

H3b: Dyadic tenure moderates the negative relationship between sense of power and defensive silence in such a way that the higher the dyadic tenure, the stronger the relationship.

H3c: Dyadic tenure moderates the negative relationship between empowering leadership and defensive silence in such a way that the higher the dyadic tenure, the stronger the relationship.

1.5. Model of analysis

Figure 1.1. Proposed Model



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CHAPTER II

Method

2.1. Procedure

This study is comprehended in a larger research project. The questionnaire used for data collection was developed on a digital platform (Qualtrics) in order to be disseminated online. The questionnaire link was disseminated using social networks (Facebook), email, professional networks (LinkedIn), and instant messaging applications (Whatsapp, Messenger) from December 2019 to the end of February 2020, using a snowball approach.

First, the survey begins with a brief introduction, fully informing participants about its purpose, academic nature, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity, as well as the volunteer participation with possible withdraw at any time without any negative consequence. It also included the expected time to fill in and contacts in case of further information need. It stated the requirements to participate, namely to be working under a direct supervisor. Participants would only advance in the questionnaire if they answered affirmatively to these conditions; otherwise, the questionnaire would end. The survey included a section with the variables that compose the conceptual model (defensive silence scale, empowering leadership, and sense of power), as well as another one with the sociodemographic variables also comprehending questions about dyadic tenure and organizational tenure, namely “How many years have you worked with your direct manager?” and “How many years have you worked in your organization?”. These variables were used for descriptive and control purposes, to the exception of dyadic tenure that is comprised in the conceptual model.

Data analysis was conducted with SPSS 25, Macro PROCESS 3.4.1 (Hayes, 2018), and AMOS 25.

2.2. Sample

The sample comprises 227 individuals that validly filled the questionnaire being mostly female participants (79.3%), aged ($M=34.9$, $SD=10.9$) ranging from 19 to 63 years old, mostly educated (81.8% with at least a university degree), working in teams up to 20 people (83.5%), and in medium size (18.8% 50-249 employees) or large organizations (42% over 250 employees). Participants are working on average at 7.5 years in the same organization ($SD=8.9$) and with the same supervisor on average at 4.6 years ($SD=5.8$) and under a stable work contract (66.8%).

2.3. Data analysis strategy

Data analysis started by screening data for invalid cases (e.g., monotonous answers) and focused on testing the psychometric quality of the constructs. For that purpose, the confirmatory factorial analysis was used with AMOS 25 to evaluate fit indices following Hair et al. (2010) guidelines for the number of

observed variables up to 12 and sample size below 250. Namely, by using the following thresholds: χ^2 with a non-significant p -value or with a ratio to degrees of freedom below 3 (although knowing that this index is sensible to sample size), CFI (comparative fit index) over .97; TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index) over .97; RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) below .08; and SRMR (Standardize Root Mean Square Residual) below .08. This analysis was used for the conceptual measurement model but also for scales that showed unacceptable fit indices in order to remove unsuitable items, based on Lagrange Multipliers. Additionally, factors were required to show convergent validity (AVE at least of .500, Fornell & Larcker, 1981) as well as reliability (achieving .70 in Cronbach alpha and Joreskog' r to measure Composite Reliability). The conceptual measurement model was compared to all possible alternative models by using Bollen (1989) χ^2 difference test and Cheung and Rensvold (2002) Δ CFI with a cutoff set at .01, as recommended. Once psychometric validity and reliability were ascertained, hypotheses testing was done with Process Macro, which relies on the bootstrapping technique with 5000 repetitions and bias corrected confidence interval of 95% (Hayes, 2018). The template model that corresponds to the conceptual model under research is the 59, and both direct and indirect effects were judged as significant based on these bootstrapped intervals (when the value zero is not comprehended in the interval, then, the effect is considered meaningful).

2.4. Measures

Empowering leadership was measured with Schilpzand et al. (2018) version of Ahearne et al. (2005) scale. It is a single factor comprehending three items (e.g., "Makes many decisions together with me", "Requests my opinion on work related decisions that may affect me", "Allows me to do my job my way"). In such a case, a CFA would result in a just-identified model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010), which disables interpreting fit indices. As in previous research (e.g., Ribeiro et al., 2011) the significance of each loading was assessed ($p < .001$) which resulted in all loadings being considered significant ($EL_1 = .91$, $EL_2 = .60$, $EL_3 = .77$) being also reliable (Alpha = .79; CR = .81) and with convergent validity (AVE = .595). Participants were requested to signal their option on a frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

Sense of power was measured with Anderson et al. (2012) scale that comprehends eight items (e.g., "I can get him/her to listen to what I say."). CFA showed some items were harming the structure to the point of compromising the model fit ($\chi^2(20) = 157.81$, $\chi^2/df = 7.89$, $p < .001$; CFI = .85, TLI = .79, RMSEA = .17 CI90 [.14; .19] PClose = .00; SRMR = .10) and by using Lagrange Multipliers, 5 items were retained with ensuing acceptable fit indices ($\chi^2(5) = 11.03$, $\chi^2/df = 2.21$, $p = .051$; CFI = .99, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .07 CI90 [.00; .13] PClose = .23; SRMR = .02) as well as showing good convergent validity (AVE = .608) and reliability Cronbach alpha = .88; CR = .88). Participants were requested to signal their option on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

Defensive silence was measured with Van Dyne et al. (2003) scale that showed poor fit indices ($\chi^2(5) = 118.07$, $\chi^2/df = 23.61$, $p < .001$; CFI = .86, TLI = .72, RMSEA = .30 CI90 [.26; .35] PClose = .00; SRMR = .08) due to a single item ("I omit pertinent facts in order to protect myself"). By removing this item, the model

fit greatly improved to acceptance level ($\chi^2(2)=4.68$, $\chi^2/df=2.34$, $p=.096$; CFI=.99, TLI=.98, RMSEA=.07 CI90 [.00; .16] PClose=.24; SRMR=.02). This 4-item factor also shows good convergent validity (AVE=.661) as well as reliability (Cronbach alpha=.87; CR=.88). Participants were requested to signal their option on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

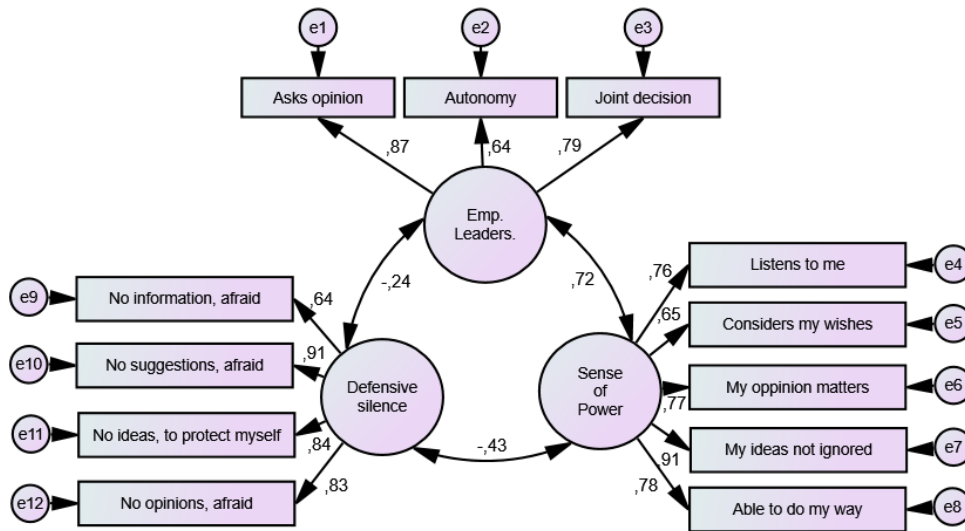
Dyadic tenure was measured with a single item asking the participants to state for how many years they have been working with their direct supervisor, similar to Harris et al. (2006) study.

Control variables included many demographic variables that were found to influence employee silence (Detert & Edmondson, 2011) namely gender (1=Masculine, 2=Feminine), age (in years), education (1=Basic, 2=Secondary, 3=Degree, 4=Master, 5=PhD), organizational size (1= up to 10 employees, 2= 10-49, 3= 50-250, 4= 250+), organizational tenure (in years), contract stability (1=Yes, 2=No) and supervisory role (1=Yes, 2=No).

2.5. Measurement model

The measurement model was tested via a confirmatory factor analysis with empowering leadership, sense of power, and defensive silence showing acceptable fit indices ($\chi^2(51) = 76.57$, $\chi^2/df = 1.50$, $p = 0.012$; CFI=.98, TLI=.98; RMSEA=.05 CI90 [.02; .06] PCLOSE=.65, SRMR = .04), indicating the measurement model is valid (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1. Measurement model



Alternative models were considered, namely the fusion of two factors where model 1 = EL fused with SP; model 2= SP fused with DS; Model 3 = EL fused with DS, Model 4= all latent variables fused in a single factor. Table 2.1 shows that the conceptual model outperforms all alternative models.

Table 2.1. Measurement models comparison

Model	χ^2 (df) p-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	CI90, PCLOSE	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ CFI
Base model	χ^2 (51) = 76.52, χ^2/df = 1.50, p = .012	.98	.98	.05	.02, .06[, PClose = .65	.04	-	-
Model 1 EL+SP, DS	χ^2 (53) = 175.60, χ^2/df = 3.31, p < .001	.93	.91	.09	.08, .11[, PClose = .00	.06	$\Delta\chi^2(2)$ = 99.08*	.06
Model 2 EL, SP+DS	χ^2 (53) = 547.46, χ^2/df = 10.33, p < .001	.71	.63	.19	.16, .19[, PClose = .00	.14	$\Delta\chi^2(2)$ = 470.94*	.28
Model 3 EL+DS, SP	χ^2 (53) = 426.80, χ^2/df = 8.05, p < .001	.78	.72	.17	.15, .18[, PClose = .00	.19	$\Delta\chi^2(2)$ = 350.28*	.21
Model 4EL+SP+DS (single factor)	χ^2 (54) = 652.36, χ^2/df = 12.08, p < .001	.64	.56	.21	.19, .23[, PClose = .00	.15	$\Delta\chi^2(3)$ = 575.84*	.34
Independence model	χ^2 (66) = 256.21, χ^2/df = 3.88, p < .001	.89	.87	.11	.09, .12[, PClose = .00	.23	$\Delta\chi^2(6)$ = 169.14*	.09

* p < .001

Due to the cross-sectional nature of the study, with subjective self-reported measures collected simultaneously, findings are under suspicion of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To verify to which extent this possibility affected data, a single common latent factor was conducted with a CFA, which showed non-significant paths linking the common latent factor to all observed variables in the model. This model ($\chi^2(50) = 76.52, p=.009$; CFI=.98; TLI=.97, RMSEA = .05 CI90 [.02; .07] PClose = .61; SRMR = .04) also failed to improve the conceptual model fit ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = .001, p =.975$; Δ CFI = .001).

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CHAPTER III

Results

This section will start by showing descriptive and bivariate statistics, highlighting both means and correlations that stand out, to move on to hypotheses testing showing findings for each one.

3.1. Descriptive and bivariate analysis

Table 3.1 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations between the variables under study. Regarding descriptive statistics (minimum and maximum, mean and standard deviation), the average value reported by the participants regarding empowering leadership is positioned on the midpoint of the scale [$M = 3.08$, $SD = 1.04$, $t(251)=1.254$, $p=.211$], while sense of power, on average, fell above the midpoint of the scale [$M = 4.11$, $SD = 1.08$, $t(251)=9.000$, $p<.001$]. On the other hand, for defensive silence, the average reported values falls below the midpoint of the scale [$M = 2.06$, $SD = 1$, $t(251) = -22.784$, $p<.001$]. For dyadic tenure, participants reported working with their supervisor, on average, for slightly less than five years ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 5.80$).

Sociodemographic variables correlate significantly only with two model variables, i.e., empowering leadership and dyadic tenure. All sociodemographic variables, to the exception of gender and organizational size, have significant correlations with dyadic tenure where predictably, time-related variables (organizational tenure and age) are positively correlated. Conversely, education ($r = -.248$, $p<.001$), contract stability ($r = -.316$, $p<.001$), and supervisor role ($r = -.163$, $p=.01$) are negatively correlated, meaning more educated participants, with less stable contracts and without supervisor role tend to have lower dyadic tenure. As regards empowering leadership, female participants tend to report lower values, while more educated participants tend to report higher values. Many of these relations can be understood from a time-dependency perspective, as most of them are time-bounded as suggested by the strong negative correlations found with age (ranging from $r = -.187$, $p=.003$ to $r = -.418$, $p<.001$) which are isometrically found for dyadic tenure.

Table 3.1. Descriptives and bivariate statistics

	Scale	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Empowering Leadership	1-5	3.08	1.04	(.798)									
2. Sense of Power (leader)	1-6	4.11	1.08	,635***	(.882)								
3. Defensive Silence	1-6	2.06	1.01	-,213**	-,391***	(.878)							
4. Dyadic Tenure	0-32	4.59	5.80	,024	,107	-,042							
5. Organizational Tenure	0-39	7.50	8.85	-,034	,086	-,063	,622***						
6. Gender	1-2	79% ♀	.	-,185**	-,121	,127	,002	-,043					
7. Age	19-63	34.92	10.95	-,020	,087	-,092	,489***	,681***	-,144*				
8. Education	1-5	82% univ	-	,136*	-,041	-,067	-,248***	-,300**	,043	-,187**			
9. Organizational size	1-4	42% large	-	-,113	-,103	,057	-,081	,164*	-,020	,113	,100		
10. Contract stability	1-2	67% stable	-	-,033	-,082	,065	-,316***	-,360**	,086	-,418***	,231**	-,102	
11. Supervisor role	1-2	79% No	-	-,099	-,037	,043	-,163*	-,179**	,218**	-,260***	,002	-,016	,201**

Cronbach alpha in diagonals. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.2. Hypotheses testing

To obtain the results of the hypotheses test, data from the output tables of the macro PROCESS (Hayes, 2018) were used, which contain the relationship coefficients of all model variables and the respective bootstrapped confidence intervals for 95%.

For hypothesis one, stating that empowering leadership is negatively related to defensive silence ($H1$), the results show a non-significant coefficient ($B= .112$, $p> .05$ CI95 [-.048; .272]), thus not supporting the hypothesis.

The second hypothesis stated that the sense of power operates as a mediator in the relationship between empowering leadership and defensive silence. Results show a significant mediation ($F(8, 218)= 5.98$, $p<.001$) accounting for 17.9% variance. The negative relationship is meaningful ($B= -.279$, CI95 [-.408; -.164]), thus supporting this hypothesis.

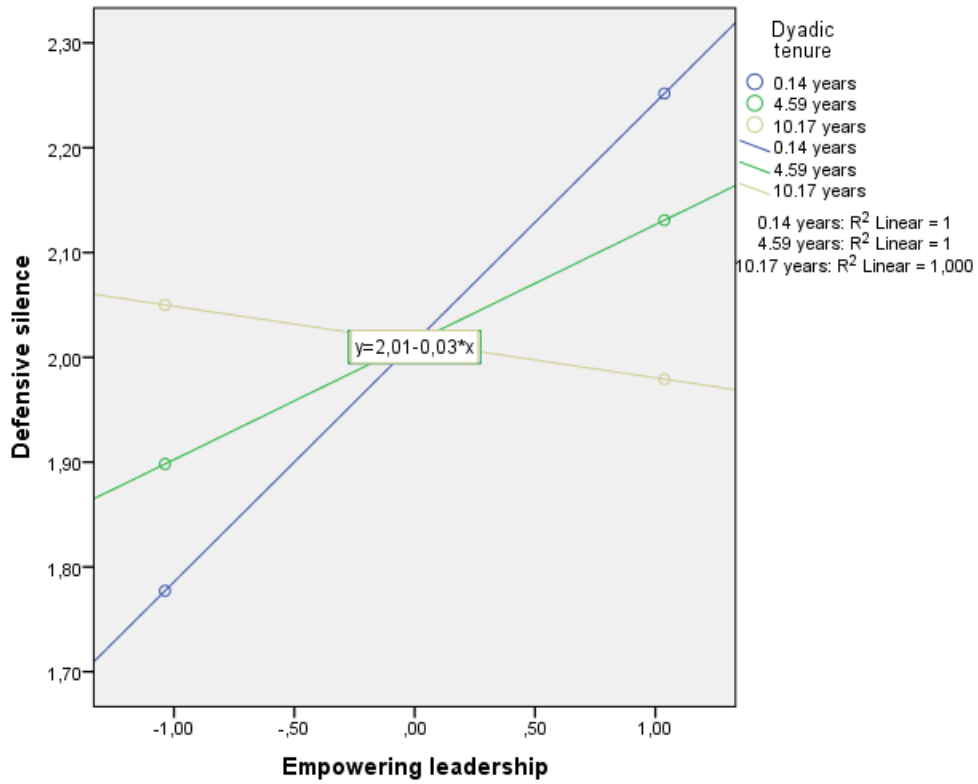
The third hypothesis states that dyadic tenure moderates the mediation established in the previous hypothesis ($H2$) in all the paths, i.e., in the relationship between empowering leadership and sense of power ($H3a$), the relationship between sense of power and defensive silence ($H3b$) as well as between empowering leadership and defensive silence ($H3c$). The conditional effects were not found, neither for $H3a$ ($B= -.011$, $p= .294$ CI95 [-.030; .009]) nor $H3b$ ($B= .022$, $p= .079$ CI95 [-.003; .046]) but the results did show a significant moderation effect for $H3c$ ($B= -.026$, $p=.037$ CI95 [-.051; -.002]) which significantly adds explained variance over the predictor [$F(1, 214)= 4.40$, $p= .037$]. This effect took the dyadic tenure value of 4.59-2.27 ($M=2.3$ years) as the cutoff above which the direct positive effect between empowering leadership and defensive silence is no longer observed (table 3.2 Johnson-Neyman) accounting for 56.8% of cases below.

Table 3.2. Moderator value defining Johnson-Neyman significance region

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator						
DyadTenure	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-4.4511	.2287	.1003	2.2809	.0235	.0311	.4264
-2.8511	.1868	.0900	2.0766	.0390	.0095	.3641
-2.2698	.1716	.0870	1.9711	.0500	.0000	.3432
-1.2511	.1449	.0832	1.7407	.0832	-.0192	.3090
0.3489	.1030	.0810	1.2709	.2051	-.0567	.2627
1.9489	.0610	.0837	.7297	.4664	-.1039	.2259
3.5489	.0191	.0907	.2107	.8333	-.1597	.1980
5.1489	-.0228	.1013	-.2251	.8221	-.2225	.1769
6.7489	-.0647	.1145	-.5656	.5723	-.2903	.1609
8.3489	-.1067	.1294	-.8245	.4106	-.3616	.1483
9.9489	-.1486	.1455	-1.0213	.3083	-.4353	.1382
11.5489	-.1905	.1625	-1.1726	.2423	-.5107	.1297
13.1489	-.2324	.1801	-1.2907	.1982	-.5874	.1225
14.7489	-.2744	.1981	-1.3847	.1676	-.6649	.1162
16.3489	-.3163	.2165	-1.4606	.1456	-.7431	.1105
17.9489	-.3582	.2352	-1.5230	.1292	-.8218	.1054
19.5489	-.4001	.2541	-1.5749	.1167	-.9009	.1007
21.1489	-.4420	.2731	-1.6187	.1070	-.9803	.0962
22.7489	-.4840	.2922	-1.6561	.0992	-1.0600	.0921
24.3489	-.5259	.3115	-1.6883	.0928	-1.1399	.0881
25.9489	-.5678	.3308	-1.7163	.0876	-1.2199	.0843
27.5489	-.6097	.3503	-1.7408	.0831	-1.3001	.0807

The interaction effect suggests the relationship occurs solely when the dyadic tenure is still low (Graphic 3.1).

Graphic 3.1. Moderation of dyadic tenure in empowering leadership on defensive silence



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CHAPTER IV

Discussion and Conclusion

This study aims to understand whether empowering leadership behaviors can create the contextual and psychological conditions necessary to reduce the defensive silence of employees. Most of the literature focuses on voice, paying less attention to silence, although it has negative consequences for organizations. This has received more attention from researchers, but there is still a substantial research gap that requires further studies. Observing this gap between the existing studies on voice and silence, a window of opportunity was created to uncover an “invisible” problem for organizations and individuals.

The invisibility of the problem matches its pervasive nature. Preventing silence from occurring must rely on understanding what determines it. Firstly, voice is an extra-role behavior, and consequently, breaking silence is a voluntary decision (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). Secondly, by having an employee voicing a concern or simply suggesting something, it may trigger negative reactions, either cognitive or behavioral, such as being judged as hostile or receiving worst performance appraisals (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Thus, not being mandatory to voice, employees that opt to remain silent, even when having a saying that could be beneficial to the organization, will be safeguarded from punishment (Ju et al., 2019).

It is, therefore, not possible to demand voicing behaviors because a forceful voice may simply trigger fake or neutral suggestions to avoid displeasing authority (Van Dyne et al., 2003). The only way a voluntary behavior can be fostered is by providing a favorable context to information sharing. The conceptual proposed model establishes a ground to test how such a favorable context can be created by a specific type of leadership: empowering leadership (Arnold et al., 2000).

We expected, due to its characteristics, that this sort of leadership would be able to create these favorable contexts for sharing information, namely by fostering an increased sense of power (Anderson et al., 2012), which nurtures feeling more confident and able to break the silence. As it takes time for any relationship to develop, it was reasonable to include dyadic tenure in this mediation model, as a moderator (Shamir, 2011).

The literature review suggests that the set of hypotheses raised followed a nexus where leadership is treated as the starting point, with ensuing psychological states that hinder defensive mechanisms. The conceptual model, therefore, with regards to *H1*, presents empowering leadership as a reducer of defensive silence. According to the results, contrary to what was expected (e.g., Hassan et al., 2019; Ju et al., 2019), *H1* was not corroborated. In both cases, Hassan et al. (2019), as well as Ju et al. (2019), explored mediators by focusing on employees' reactions by increasing both trust in their supervisor as well as identification with the organization. Hassan et al. (2019) model also proposed direct effects on job design with higher job control given to employees. In line with constructs similar to self-efficacy, Ju et al. (2019) explored the mediating role of intrinsic motivation to find it enacted the indirect effect. The present research opts to focus on another construct that was more closely related to “power” (as the central construct implicit in empowering leadership), i.e., sense of power. It is in the study by Lin et al.

(2019) and the understanding of the approach-inhibition theory of power by Keltner et al. (2003) that we support the sense of power as a better means of acting in reducing the defensive silence. The mediation hypothesis (*H2*) was indeed corroborated showing a significant indirect effect with a magnitude of .37 which compares favorably to those means indirect effects reported by both Hassan et al. (2019) who found the biggest indirect effect magnitude to be of .13 and Ju et al. (2019) who reported an indirect effect of .05 studies. This greatly encourages the future use of this sort of psychological mechanism in bridging empowering leadership with variables in line with defensive silence.

Taking dyadic tenure as a key moderator was shown to be a good option as a significant interaction occurred. This was not observed for the relationship between empowering leadership and sense of power (*H3a*) as well as between sense of power and defensive silence (*H3b*), but the apparently inexistent direct effect (that did not support *H1*) became visible when dyadic tenure was considered, thus supporting *H3c*. This finding is in line with the literature on the importance of time for leadership to take effect (Bluedorn & Jaussi, 2008). Thus, from a theoretical point of view, leadership cannot have immediate effects on defensive silence behaviors, always depending on the time in the leader-led relationship (dyadic tenure) to be effective.

The specific moderation, judged on the conditional direct effect table, was surprising in the sense that it suggests that empowering leadership is counterproductive with employees with less than 2.3 years of dyadic relationship with their supervisors. For the participants that fell below this threshold (as regards dyadic tenure), empowering leadership increased their defensive silence, even after controlling for age, gender, education, organizational size, contract stability, and exerting a supervisory role. This strongly suggests that the commonly assumed notion that empowering people at work is positive might be overstated. In literature, one can find an indication that empowering leadership effects may indeed be counterproductive in certain circumstances. There can be a “Too-Much-of-a-Good-Thing” effect (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013) that states that the effect “occurs when ordinarily beneficial antecedents (i.e., predictor variables) reach inflection points after which their relations with desired outcomes (i.e., criterion variables) cease to be linear and positive. Exceeding these inflection points is always undesirable because it leads either to waste (no additional benefit) or, worse, to undesirable outcomes (e.g., decreased individual or organizational performance)” (p.315). A study by Lee et al. (2017) finds this effect (TMGT) in a curvilinear relationship (inverted U-shape) between empowering leadership and the performance of employees' tasks, which the authors attribute to excess tension. When stating the interaction hypothesis, this mechanism did not seem applicable to defensive silence, as literature converges into highlighting the positive effect of empowerment practices. Our finding can be due to the lack of preparedness from employees to accept taking charge of their own work, where an empowering leader might be taken as a stressor as they may lack the resources (both psychological and technical) to cope with the demands. According to Cheong et al. (2016), who studied the burdening side of empowering leadership, the costs of autonomy by Langfred and Moye (2004) and role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) may explain the reason for this stressor effect on workers produced by empowering leadership. These authors suggest that when an empowering leader increases the workers' autonomy, they can also increase their stress level, leading to negative performance results. For Langfred and

Moye (2004), individuals' refusal to take responsibility is a good cause for linking autonomy to negative results. Likewise, through role theory, Cheong et al. (2016) explain that when empowering leadership induces stress in the worker's role, they may feel work tension. According to this theory, employees look for defense mechanisms and avoid sources of stress when they perceive role stress in order to solve the problem (Kahn et al., 1964), of which defensive silence is a good example.

The lack of significant interaction effects observed in the two paths comprehended in the mediation is also informative. It basically indicates that the mediation is not dependent on the duration of the relationship between leader and team member, which reinforces the idea that sense of power is a stable mechanism linking both constructs. Thus, empowering leaders are immediately able to activate the sense of power in preventing defensive mechanisms, because the sense of power should be a pre-existing potential that only needs to be activated, in this case, by an empowering leader.

In conclusion, the evidence found suggests that empowering leadership may be a good ally for reducing defensive silence. However, it is necessary to pay attention to the counterproductive consequences of misfitting and misapplied empowering behaviors on the part of leaders. This study offers a contribution and application for organizations, allowing us to understand that silence in general and defensive silence, in particular, represents a barrier in accessing relevant information about the organization and how to improve it. This study also helps in furthering the line of research on silence and linking it to the important construct of sense of power.

These contributions must be weighed against the limitations of the study. Albeit gender was controlled as a covariate in the analyses, the sample is mostly composed of female participants, not being gender-balanced. The scales used are self-reported, limiting access to the leader's vision, and although no indication was found of common method bias, self-reported measures can always be considered less rich than crossing several sources. The online data collection for workers in general instead of in loco in organizations does not allow a more detailed analysis of contextual variables, for example, within the same team referring to the same leadership. This study research design leaves outside scrutiny any team level phenomena.

Considering these limitations, we suggest replicating the study with a larger sample, randomly selected, or from a stratified sampling procedure. It is also suggested that the study be replicated, in the field, in organizations with teams of various sizes and at different hierarchical levels from a multi-level model approach. The findings concerning the interaction might deserve a qualitative study aimed to understand how empowering leadership might be counterproductive in team members with varying dyadic tenure.

Additional studies about the types of silence can make an important contribution for organizations to act in an informed manner with effective mechanisms to break the silence and contribute to the development of organizations and employee engagement. It may also be relevant to study other psychological mechanisms (e.g., psychological empowerment) capacity to counter silence in organizations. Finally, defensive silence effects upon individuals themselves may be explored longitudinally with an intention to understand not only its cumulative effects but how defensive silence may evolve into other defensive mechanisms such as disengagement, intention to leave, or output restriction.

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ANNEX A

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.1 *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
 Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 59

Y : Silen4it
 X : Emp3itne
 M : SPL5it
 W : Q26

Covariates:

Q25 Q22 Q23 Q28 Q24 Q29 Q30

Sample

Size: 227

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

SPL5it

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,6706	,4498	,6822	17,6556	10,0000	216,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,0146	,5299	,0275	,9781	-1,0299	1,0590
Emp3itne	,6972	,0550	12,6777	,0000	,5888	,8056
Q26	,0033	,0136	,2415	,8094	-,0235	,0300
Int_1	-,0105	,0100	-1,0519	,2940	-,0302	,0092
Q25	-,0008	,0105	-,0734	,9416	-,0216	,0200
Q22	,0257	,1421	,1806	,8569	-,2544	,3057
Q23	,0076	,0072	1,0534	,2933	-,0066	,0218
Q28	-,0245	,0544	-,4508	,6526	-,1319	,0828

Q24	-,1342	,0717	-1,8723	,0625	-,2755	,0071
Q29	-,0329	,1337	-,2459	,8060	-,2965	,2307
Q30	,1260	,1458	,8641	,3885	-,1614	,4135

Product terms key:

Int_1 : Emp3itne x Q26

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	,0028	1,1065	1,0000	216,0000	,2940

Focal predict: Emp3itne (X)

Mod var: Q26 (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

Emp3itne Q26 SPL5it .

BEGIN DATA.

```
-1,0373 -4,4511 -,7863
,0000 -4,4511 -,0146
1,0373 -4,4511 ,7571
-1,0373 ,0000 -,7232
,0000 ,0000 ,0000
1,0373 ,0000 ,7232
-1,0373 5,5837 -,6441
,0000 5,5837 ,0183
1,0373 5,5837 ,6806
```

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

Emp3itne WITH SPL5it BY Q26 .

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Silen4it

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,4485	,2012	,8499	4,4906	12,0000	214,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,3235	,5916	3,9274	,0001	1,1573	3,4896
Emp3itne	,1121	,0811	1,3825	,1682	-,0477	,2719
SPL5it	-,4006	,0760	-5,2682	,0000	-,5505	-,2507
Q26	,0000	,0155	,0008	,9994	-,0305	,0305
Int_1	-,0262	,0125	-2,0969	,0372	-,0508	-,0016
Int_2	,0215	,0122	1,7594	,0799	-,0026	,0455
Q25	,0023	,0118	,1946	,8459	-,0209	,0255
Q22	,2257	,1586	1,4229	,1562	-,0869	,5383
Q23	-,0070	,0081	-,8725	,3839	-,0230	,0089
Q28	,0373	,0609	,6124	,5409	-,0827	,1572
Q24	-,2074	,0807	-2,5695	,0109	-,3665	-,0483
Q29	,1048	,1493	,7017	,4836	-,1895	,3991
Q30	-,0363	,1633	-,2223	,8243	-,3582	,2856

Product terms key:

Int_1 : Emp3itne x Q26

Int_2 : SPL5it x Q26

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	,0164	4,3970	1,0000	214,0000	,0372
M*W	,0116	3,0956	1,0000	214,0000	,0799

Focal predict: Emp3itne (X)

Mod var: Q26 (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

Q26	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-4,4511	,2287	,1003	2,2809	,0235	,0311	,4264
,0000	,1121	,0811	1,3825	,1682	-,0477	,2719
5,5837	-,0342	,1047	-,3267	,7442	-,2405	,1721

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-2,2698	56,8282	43,1718

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

Q26	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-4,4511	,2287	,1003	2,2809	,0235	,0311	,4264
-2,8511	,1868	,0900	2,0766	,0390	,0095	,3641
-2,2698	,1716	,0870	1,9711	,0500	,0000	,3432
-1,2511	,1449	,0832	1,7407	,0832	-,0192	,3090
,3489	,1030	,0810	1,2709	,2051	-,0567	,2627
1,9489	,0610	,0837	,7297	,4664	-,1039	,2259
3,5489	,0191	,0907	,2107	,8333	-,1597	,1980
5,1489	-,0228	,1013	-,2251	,8221	-,2225	,1769
6,7489	-,0647	,1145	-,5656	,5723	-,2903	,1609
8,3489	-,1067	,1294	-,8245	,4106	-,3616	,1483
9,9489	-,1486	,1455	-1,0213	,3083	-,4353	,1382
11,5489	-,1905	,1625	-1,1726	,2423	-,5107	,1297
13,1489	-,2324	,1801	-1,2907	,1982	-,5874	,1225
14,7489	-,2744	,1981	-1,3847	,1676	-,6649	,1162
16,3489	-,3163	,2165	-1,4606	,1456	-,7431	,1105
17,9489	-,3582	,2352	-1,5230	,1292	-,8218	,1054
19,5489	-,4001	,2541	-1,5749	,1167	-,9009	,1007
21,1489	-,4420	,2731	-1,6187	,1070	-,9803	,0962
22,7489	-,4840	,2922	-1,6561	,0992	-1,0600	,0921
24,3489	-,5259	,3115	-1,6883	,0928	-1,1399	,0881
25,9489	-,5678	,3308	-1,7163	,0876	-1,2199	,0843
27,5489	-,6097	,3503	-1,7408	,0831	-1,3001	,0807

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

Emp3itne Q26 Silen4it .

BEGIN DATA.

```
-1,0373 -4,4511 1,7772
,0000 -4,4511 2,0144
1,0373 -4,4511 2,2517
-1,0373 ,0000 1,8982
,0000 ,0000 2,0145
1,0373 ,0000 2,1308
-1,0373 5,5837 2,0500
,0000 5,5837 2,0146
1,0373 5,5837 1,9791
```

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

Emp3itne WITH Silen4it BY Q26 .

Focal predict: SPL5it (M)

Mod var: Q26 (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

Q26	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-4,4511	-,4961	,0911	-5,4432	,0000	-,6758	-,3165
,0000	-,4006	,0760	-5,2682	,0000	-,5505	-,2507
5,5837	-,2808	,1047	-2,6831	,0079	-,4871	-,0745

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
7,4837	89,4273	10,5727

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

Q26	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-4,4511	-,4961	,0911	-5,4432	,0000	-,6758	-,3165
-2,8511	-,4618	,0820	-5,6328	,0000	-,6234	-,3002
-1,2511	-,4275	,0768	-5,5666	,0000	-,5788	-,2761
,3489	-,3931	,0764	-5,1470	,0000	-,5437	-,2426
1,9489	-,3588	,0808	-4,4391	,0000	-,5181	-,1995
3,5489	-,3245	,0894	-3,6290	,0004	-,5007	-,1482
5,1489	-,2901	,1011	-2,8703	,0045	-,4893	-,0909
6,7489	-,2558	,1149	-2,2263	,0270	-,4822	-,0293
7,4837	-,2400	,1218	-1,9711	,0500	-,4800	,0000
8,3489	-,2214	,1302	-1,7011	,0904	-,4780	,0352
9,9489	-,1871	,1465	-1,2774	,2028	-,4758	,1016
11,5489	-,1528	,1635	-,9345	,3511	-,4750	,1695
13,1489	-,1184	,1810	-,6544	,5136	-,4752	,2383
14,7489	-,0841	,1989	-,4228	,6728	-,4761	,3079
16,3489	-,0498	,2170	-,2292	,8189	-,4775	,3780
17,9489	-,0154	,2354	-,0655	,9479	-,4794	,4486
19,5489	,0189	,2540	,0745	,9407	-,4817	,5195
21,1489	,0533	,2727	,1954	,8453	-,4842	,5907
22,7489	,0876	,2914	,3006	,7640	-,4869	,6621
24,3489	,1219	,3103	,3929	,6948	-,4898	,7336

25,9489 ,1563 ,3293 ,4746 ,6356 -,4928 ,8053
 27,5489 ,1906 ,3483 ,5473 ,5848 -,4959 ,8772

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

SPL5it Q26 Silen4it .

BEGIN DATA.

-1,0885 -4,4511 2,5545
 ,0000 -4,4511 2,0144
 1,0885 -4,4511 1,4744
 -1,0885 ,0000 2,4506
 ,0000 ,0000 2,0145
 1,0885 ,0000 1,5784
 -1,0885 5,5837 2,3202
 ,0000 5,5837 2,0146
 1,0885 5,5837 1,7089

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

SPL5it WITH Silen4it BY Q26 .

***** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

Q26	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-4,4511	,2287	,1003	2,2809	,0235	,0311	,4264
,0000	,1121	,0811	1,3825	,1682	-,0477	,2719
5,5837	-,0342	,1047	-,3267	,7442	-,2405	,1721

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:

Emp3itne -> SPL5it -> Silen4it

Q26	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-4,4511	-,3691	,0902	-,5504	-,1992
,0000	-,2793	,0628	-,4083	-,1639
5,5837	-,1793	,0733	-,3307	-,0419

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

W values in conditional tables are the minimum, the mean, and 1 SD above the mean.

NOTE: One SD below the mean is below the minimum observed in the data for W,
so the minimum measurement on W is used for conditioning instead.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

Q26 Emp3itne SPL5it

NOTE: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output.

Shorter variable names are recommended.

----- END MATRIX -----

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ANNEX B

No âmbito do Mestrado em Psicologia Social e das Organizações, no ISCTE-IUL- Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, foi criada uma equipa de investigação com o objetivo de compreender a relação chefia-colaborador dentro das organizações. Desta forma, vimos pedir a sua colaboração através do preenchimento de um questionário com a duração aproximada de 10 minutos.

As suas respostas sinceras são fundamentais para garantir a qualidade deste estudo.

O preenchimento do questionário garante o total anonimato dos participantes e confidencialidade dos dados. A sua participação é totalmente voluntária e não envolve qualquer despesa e/ou riscos.

Para qualquer esclarecimento por favor contacte: Prof. Nelson Ramalho (nelson.ramalho@iscte-iul.pt)

Agradecemos, antecipadamente, a sua participação.

Santiago Almeida

Neste momento trabalha em alguma organização e tem uma chefia direta? Sim Não

Há quantos anos trabalha com a sua chefia direta (aproximadamente)

E há quantos anos trabalha na sua organização (aproximadamente)

Por favor, responda em que medida concorda ou discorda com as seguintes afirmações.

	DT			CT		
Não apresento sugestões para a mudança porque tenho receio das consequências	1	2	3	4	5	6
Evito expressar ideias de melhoria por forma a proteger-me	1	2	3	4	5	6
Não apresento sugestões para a resolução de problemas porque tenho medo	1	2	3	4	5	6
Omito informação importante porque tenho receio das consequências	1	2	3	4	5	6
Omito factos relevantes de modo a proteger-me	1	2	3	4	5	6

Agora, por favor, pense na sua atual chefia e indique com que frequência cada situação descrita ocorre.

	Nunca			Sempre	
Toma decisões em conjunto comigo	1	2	3	4	5
Pede a minha opinião quando tem que tomar decisões relacionadas com o trabalho e que me vão afetar diretamente	1	2	3	4	5
Permite que eu faça o meu trabalho à minha maneira	1	2	3	4	5
Permite que eu tome decisões importantes por forma a que consiga dar uma resposta rápida aos pedidos que me são feitos	1	2	3	4	5

Agora, pedimos que pense na relação que tem com a sua chefia. Na relação com a minha chefia...

	DT			CT		
Eu consigo que ela oiça o que eu digo	1	2	3	4	5	6
Os meus desejos não são tidos em conta	1	2	3	4	5	6
Eu consigo que ela faça o que eu quero	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mesmo que expresse as minhas opiniões, elas não têm muita influência	1	2	3	4	5	6
Acho que tenho muito poder	1	2	3	4	5	6
As minhas ideias e opiniões são muitas vezes ignoradas	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mesmo quando tento, não sou capaz de fazer com que as coisas corram à minha maneira	1	2	3	4	5	6
Se quiser, sou eu que tomo as decisões	1	2	3	4	5	6

Para terminar, gostaríamos de lhe solicitar alguns dados apenas para questões de tratamento estatístico dos questionários:

1. **Sexo:** Masculino Feminino

2. **Idade:** _____ anos

3. **Escolaridade:** Ensino básico Ensino Secundário Licenciatura
 Mestrado Doutoramento

4. **Vínculo laboral. Corresponde a um contrato de efetivo (sem termo)**

Sim Não

5. **Qual a dimensão da organização?**

< 10 trabalhadores < 50 trabalhadores < 250 trabalhadores >= 250 trabalhadores

6. Exerce funções de chefia? Sim Não

O questionário terminou! Muito obrigado pela sua colaboração preciosa para este estudo.

(por favor, pressione a seta para submeter as suas respostas)

Agradecemos a sua participação neste inquérito. A sua resposta foi registada.