

---

Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository

---

6-16-2014 12:00 AM

## Employee Voice and Recipients' Appraisals/Reactions: The Effects Of Speech Style, Voice Type, and Voicer Status

Yongsuhk Jung  
*The University of Western Ontario*

Supervisor  
Dr. Alison Konrad  
*The University of Western Ontario* Joint Supervisor  
Dr. Charlice Hurst  
*The University of Western Ontario*

Graduate Program in Business  
A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Doctor of Philosophy  
© Yongsuhk Jung 2014

Follow this and additional works at: <https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd>



Part of the [Business Administration, Management, and Operations Commons](#), [Human Resources Management Commons](#), [Industrial and Organizational Psychology Commons](#), and the [Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Jung, Yongsuhk, "Employee Voice and Recipients' Appraisals/Reactions: The Effects Of Speech Style, Voice Type, and Voicer Status" (2014). *Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository*. 2141.  
<https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/2141>

This Dissertation/Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by Scholarship@Western. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository by an authorized administrator of Scholarship@Western. For more information, please contact [wlsadmin@uwo.ca](mailto:wlsadmin@uwo.ca).

EMPLOYEE VOICE AND RECIPIENTS' APPRAISALS/REACTIONS:  
THE EFFECTS OF SPEECH STYLE, VOICE TYPE, AND VOICER STATUS

(Thesis format: Monograph)

by

Yongsuhk Jung

Graduate Program in Business Administration

(Richard Ivey School of Business)

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

The School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies

The University of Western Ontario

London, Ontario, Canada

© Yongsuhk Jung 2014

# Abstract

The purpose of this research was to investigate the consequences of employee voice (i.e., the expression of information, ideas, or concerns for organizational development), primarily focusing on voice assertiveness (i.e., the extent of voicing individuals' assertive expressions) and its influences on perceptual appraisals and reactions of voice recipients. Based on a literature review, I proposed a process model that described the influential mechanisms of voice assertiveness. I also defined moderating conditions that may guide the nature of the influence processes, such as voice type (promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice), voicer status (subordinate vs. peer), and recipient core self-evaluations. From two experimental studies (Study 1: a scenario-based experiment, Study 2: a laboratory experiment), I found that it is valuable to consider the role of voice assertiveness in order to understand why certain voice behaviors are responded to more favorably than others. Results demonstrated that tentative voice, relative to assertive voice, was more effective in eliciting recipients' positive reactions to the voice (e.g., endorsement) and to the voicer (e.g., higher performance evaluation and helping intention), because recipients appraised it as less threatening (in particular, threats to their social value and decision-making freedom) and more constructive. Furthermore, these two appraisal dimensions appeared to comprise a serial, rather than parallel, process wherein the content-level appraisal of message constructiveness would result from the relationship-level appraisal of personal threats. On the other hand, I also found that the impact of voice assertiveness was contingent upon the type of voice and the status of voicers. Specifically, the constructiveness perception of tentative voice recipients was significantly stronger when the voice was framed with prohibitive contents than when it was framed with promotive

contents. In addition, voice from assertive peers, than assertive subordinates, more easily activated recipients' threat perception in terms of their decision-making freedom, eventually leading to their reactance. Finally, implications, limitations, and future research issues were discussed.

## Keywords

Employee Voice, Voice Assertiveness, Appraisals of Voice Behavior, Reactions to Voice Behavior, Workplace Communication, Promotive Voice, Prohibitive Voice, Voicer Status, Core Self-Evaluations, Experiment

## Acknowledgments

Many people have given me great support during the pursuit of my doctoral degree. First, I would like to thank my supervisors. Dr. Charlice Hurst has been not only a good advisor but also an exceptional collaborator. Her guidance has made this a thoughtful and rewarding journey. Co-supervisor, Dr. Alison Konrad provided me great support and encouragement whenever I faced challenging circumstances. In addition, I would also like to acknowledge and thank my examiners – Dr. Lynn Imai, Dr. Jane Howell, Dr. Ann Peng, Dr. Paul Tremblay, and Dr. Rangaraj Ramanujam – for their constructive feedback. My sincere gratitude also goes to Dr. In-Sue Oh who has been my best mentor from the beginning to the end of my doctorate. This list is incomplete without acknowledging his support and inspiration for me. Special thanks needs to be directed to the Republic of Korea Air Force and Air Force Academy for giving me the chance to study in the excellent doctoral program at the Ivey Business School of Western University. Moreover, I am extremely grateful to my family, especially my lovely wife, Eunkyeong, who prayed for me every day, and my wonderful kids, Hansoul, Hanbyoul, and Onyou. Their love and support gave me the energy to successfully pursue my doctorate. I would also like to express my deepest appreciation to my parents and parents-in-law for their caring and sacrifices that helped me to achieve my goal. Finally, I would like to thank God. Without His blessings, I would not be where I am today.

# Table of Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgments.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of Tables .....	viii
List of Figures .....	ix
List of Appendices.....	x
Chapter 1.....	1
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Chapter 2.....	7
2 LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT.....	7
2.1 Overview.....	7
2.2 Employee Voice.....	8
2.2.1 Conceptual Definitions.....	8
2.2.2 Determinants of Voice Emergence .....	12
2.2.3 Outcomes of Employee Voice.....	19
2.2.4 Conclusion.....	28
2.3 Assertive Speech (Voice Assertiveness).....	29
2.3.1 Conceptual Definition .....	29
2.3.2 The Ambivalence of The Impact of Voice Assertiveness .....	32
2.3.3 Conclusion.....	35
2.4 Mediators: Perceived Voicing-Message Effectiveness and Perceived Personal Threats 35	
2.4.1 Two levels of interpersonal communication .....	36
2.4.2 The content-level appraisal of voice: Perceived effectiveness (i.e., constructiveness) of the voice message.....	38
2.4.3 The relationship-level appraisal of voice: Perceived personal threats.....	41
2.4.4 Conclusion.....	47
2.5 Moderating Conditions .....	48
2.5.1 Moderating condition 1: Status of the voice provider (subordinates vs. peers) ...	48

2.5.2	Moderating condition 2: Core Self-Evaluation of voice recipients .....	52
2.5.3	Moderating condition 3: Type of the voice content (i.e., voice type: prohibitive voice vs. promotive voice) .....	58
2.6	Summary of the Research Model .....	63
Chapter 3.....		65
3	STUDY 1: A Scenario-Based Experiment .....	65
3.1	Overview .....	65
3.2	Participants .....	66
3.3	Procedures and Scenarios.....	66
3.3.1	Manipulations of voicer status .....	67
3.3.2	Manipulations of voicing messages: voice assertiveness × voice type.....	69
3.4	Measurement.....	71
3.4.1	Initial survey.....	71
3.4.2	Dependent measures.....	72
3.5	Pilot study .....	74
3.6	Results of Study 1.....	76
3.6.1	Manipulation check for voicing messages .....	76
3.6.2	Examination of the measurement model (Confirmatory Factor Analyses) .....	78
3.6.3	Descriptive analyses.....	79
3.6.4	Hypothesis Tests .....	82
Chapter 4.....		91
4	STUDY 2: A Laboratory Experiment .....	91
4.1	Overview .....	91
4.2	Participants .....	91
4.3	Procedure.....	92
4.3.1	Manipulation of voicer status .....	95
4.3.2	Manipulations of voicing messages: voice assertiveness × voice type.....	95
4.4	Measurement.....	96
4.4.1	Initial survey.....	96
4.4.2	Dependent measures.....	97
4.5	Results.....	99

4.5.1	Manipulation check for voicing messages .....	99
4.5.2	Examination of the measurement model (Confirmatory Factor Analyses) .....	100
4.5.3	Descriptive analyses.....	101
4.5.4	Hypothesis Tests .....	103
Chapter 5.....		116
5	SUMMARY of HYPOTHESIS TESTS.....	116
Chapter 6.....		119
6	MODEL MODIFICATION (Parallel-Appraisal Model vs. Serial-Appraisal Model) .....	119
6.1	Overview .....	119
6.2	Study 1 .....	120
6.3	Study 2 .....	124
Chapter 7.....		128
7	DISCUSSION .....	128
7.1	Summary of Findings.....	128
7.1.1	Voice assertiveness and its influential mechanisms.....	128
7.1.2	Moderating conditions.....	129
7.2	Theoretical Implications.....	132
7.3	Practical Implications .....	136
7.4	Limitations and Future Research .....	137
7.5	Conclusion.....	140
REFERENCES.....		141
APPENDICES .....		154

## List of Tables

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables (Study 1).....	81
Table 2. Summary of cell-means of response variables across experiment conditions (Study1) .	84
Table 3. Results of MRA for the unconditional mediation model with multiple mediators and dependent variables (Study 1).....	88
Table 4. Summary of significant mediation effects (Study 1). .....	90
Table 5. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables (Study 2). .....	102
Table 6. Summary of cell-means of response variables across experiment conditions (Study 2). .....	105
Table 7. Results of MRA for the unconditional mediation model with multiple mediators and dependent variables (Study 2).....	109
Table 8. Summary of significant mediation effects (Study 2). .....	112
Table 9. Summary of significant moderated-mediation effects (Study 2). .....	115
Table 10. Summary of significant mediation effects (the serial-appraisal model, Study 1). .....	123
Table 11. Summary of significant mediation effects (the serial-appraisal model, Study 2). .....	127
Table 12. Summary of significant moderated-mediation effects (the serial-appraisal model, Study 2). .....	127

## List of Figures

Figure 1. Research model. ....	64
Figure 2. Summary of significant results in the multivariate regression analyses (Study 1). ....	87
Figure 3. Interaction effect of voice assertiveness and voice type on perceived voice constructiveness. ....	106
Figure 4. Interaction effect of voice assertiveness and voicer status on perceived threat to decision-making freedom. ....	106
Figure 5. Summary of significant results (Study 2). ....	111
Figure 6. Summary of significant results of the serial-appraisal model (Study 1). ....	122
Figure 7. Summary of significant results of the serial-appraisal model (Study 2). ....	126

## List of Appendices

Appendix 1. Scripts of the Manipulated Voicing Messages (Study 1)	154
Appendix 2. Introduction to Park Project (Study 2)	162
Appendix 3. The Park Model Selection Task (Study2)	163
Appendix 4. Scripts of the Manipulated Voicing Messages (Study 2)	166
Appendix 5. Hayes's (2012) Process Model 8 (p. 35)	174
Appendix 6. Ethics Approval	175
Appendix 7. Curriculum Vitae	176

## Chapter 1

### 1 INTRODUCTION

Given that formal work systems cannot encompass all work processes in organizations, discretionary engagement in extra-role behaviors by organizational members is critical to the successful functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Most previous studies on discretionary efforts of employees have focused on affiliative and altruistic behaviors such as helping and courtesy (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). However, in current organizational environments characterized by uncertainty, complexity, and interdependence, innovation and continuous improvement have become key components of the organizational success. For this reason, researchers have begun to highlight the value of proactive behaviors that challenge current systems and initiate changes beyond simply supporting the status quo (Crant, 2000; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007).

*Employee voice*, one's expressing and sharing information, ideas, or concerns for organizational development (Greenberg & Edwards, 2009), is one such proactive and change-oriented discretionary behavior (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Parker & Collins, 2010; Van Dyne, et al., 1995). To date, researchers have paid great attention to voice occurrence processes and the reasons why employees speak up or remain silent (Morrison, 2011). Various antecedents of employee voice have been investigated including not only workplace environmental factors (e.g., leadership, work group characteristics, and organizational climate) and voicing individual's dispositional traits (e.g. Big Five

personality traits) but also psychological mechanisms of employees' decision to engage in voice (for a detailed review, see Chapter 2).

Despite their contributions, however, we are still left with limited knowledge about voice recipients' reactions (voice response processes). More importantly, the existing literature offers inconsistent or even contradictory arguments regarding voice recipients' responses. For instance, several researchers have proposed that employees are compensated for speaking up because their extra inputs make the receiving managers feel obligated to reciprocate their involvement in organizational development (e.g., Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2000). On the contrary, due to the challenging properties of voice, voicing individuals may encounter potentially negative results including being branded as trouble makers, damaged interpersonal relationships with voice-receiving persons, and negative performance evaluations (e.g., Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003).

The inconsistencies regarding the outcomes of exercising voice suggest that the nature of the voice–outcome linkage deserves further scrutiny. Specifically, investigations into mechanisms such as processes and moderating conditions of effective [or ineffective] employee voice are required in order to address the question of *why do certain voice behaviors produce favorable responses while others do not?* (Morrison, 2011). Recently, researchers have begun to give their attention toward this issue. For instance, employee voice has been found to have a stronger relationship with supervisor appraisal when the voicing employees have more prosocial value and less negative emotional traits (Grant, et al., 2009). Another study has demonstrated that helping behavior is a necessary condition for positive outcomes of voice behavior (Mackenzie,

Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). In addition, characteristics of the voice message, voice provider, and the situations in which voice was being conveyed have been found to influence responses by voice recipients (Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012). Furthermore, Burris (2012) claimed that managers' responses to employee voice rely on the content of voice. According to him, challenging voice content, relative to supportive content (i.e., supportive remarks for the current state), is likely to induce lower acceptance and lower performance appraisal by the managers.

Although they offer useful insights into the nature of effective employee voice, several issues still remain unclear and require further investigation. Most of all, as pointed out by Morrison (2011), communicational components such as methods of transmission and expression, voicers' characteristics, and recipients' characteristics should receive more attention. Employee voice is fundamentally a certain type of communication between the voicer and the recipient. From this perspective, voice phenomena can be interpreted as outcomes of the complex mixtures of numerous communicational components rather than simply a function of the content of the voicing message (Baskin & Aronoff, 1980). Nevertheless, to the best of my knowledge, only limited research has dealt with communicational factors associated with effective voice behavior (see an exception by Whiting et al., 2012). In particular, despite vital roles of the transmission method of messages in interpersonal communication (Norton, 1978), effects of voicers' expression styles on voice recipients' reactions have barely been explored.

Moreover, more research needs to focus on the mechanisms of the relationship between voicing events and reactions of voice recipients. Even though voice recipients' reactions are the immediate outputs that voice behavior produces and may regulate subsequent outcomes, research on the mechanisms of such reactions is still in its early stage. Even the existing studies were unsuccessful at balancing two core, yet potentially conflicting, underlying mechanisms in voice reaction processes; that is, appraisal of the voice content (i.e., perception of voice content utility) and appraisal of the personal meaning of receiving voice (i.e., perception of personal impact). As noted earlier, voice behavior aims at conveying constructive content for the workplace; however, at the same time, voice-receiving managers may be displeased because voice behavior is disruptive and often challenges voice recipients and their current systems. Thus, it is important to consider these potentially conflicting appraisal dimensions of voice incidents in order to properly understand the voice response mechanism. Furthermore, it is also necessary to understand what conditions activate or attenuate these voice response processes. In some conditions, positive evaluations of voice behavior may outweigh negative assessments; however, in other conditions, negative evaluations may override positive perceptions of voice.

The primary purpose of this dissertation is to examine the impact of voicers' expression style on voice recipients' reactions to voice behavior. In particular, I will investigate how voice receiving managers or coworkers respond to the assertively or tentatively expressed voice of employees. Voice may elicit different reactions depending on how *strongly/assertively* or *mildly/tentatively* voice content is conveyed. Although the influence of the assertive speech style, as compared to the tentative style, has been

investigated in various communication settings, (e.g., in a courtroom, Erickson, Lind, Johnson, & O'Barr, 1978), its role in the context of employee voice has not been investigated, even though researchers have suggested its value in voice research stressing that “speech style will affect how others view an employee who is voicing” (Morrison, 2011, p. 403) and that “style of communication ... which manifests either powerful speech ... less powerful styles of speech ... might change how receptive managers are to employee suggestions” (Burris, 2012, p. 870).

Another purpose of this research is to unfold the mechanisms – mediating processes and moderating conditions – in which the voice expression style elicits recipients’ reactions. The effect of voice assertiveness on voice recipients’ reactions will be examined in terms of two potentially contrasting appraisal processes. Specifically, based on Watzlawick, Bevelas, and Jackson’s (1967) metacommunication axiom, I propose that assertive voice expression will affect the reactions of recipients to the voice and the voicer via two appraisal dimensions: perceived effectiveness of the voice message (appraisal at the content level) and perceived personal threat (appraisal at the relationship level). In addition, this research examines several conditional factors that may strengthen or weaken these appraisal processes. Specifically, I propose that the effect of voice expression style on perceived effectiveness of the voice message and perceived personal threat will differ depending on contextual factors of the voice communication, such as status of voicing individuals (subordinates vs. peers), dispositional traits of voice recipients (core-self evaluations), and content types of voicing messages (promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice). Several theoretical perspectives such as expectation state theory (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch Jr., 1972;

Correll & Ridgeway, 2003) and behavioral plasticity theory (Brockner, 1988) will help account for these moderation effects.

To accomplish these research purposes, first, I will review the literature pertinent to focal constructs of the study, such as employee voice, assertive/tentative speech style, mediating factors such as perceived voice message effectiveness and perceived personal threat, and moderating factors such as voicer status, recipient CSE, and promotive/prohibitive voice. Then, I will develop hypotheses based on the literature review. For the empirical investigation of the research model, I will develop two experimental studies: a scenario-based experiment and a laboratory experiment. Finally, results of data analyses will be interpreted, and findings, limitations, and future issues will be discussed.

In the present dissertation research, I will limit the scope of the investigation to an examination of discretionary voice behavior that employees intentionally perform for the organizational improvement. So far, multiple forms of workplace voice have been individually investigated across research fields. Particularly in organization studies, researchers dealt with workplace voice as either a formally offered voicing system (e.g., grievance system, whistle blowing, employee survey, and suggestion box) or an informal, discretionary, and proactive behavior (Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012). The present research will focus on the latter.

## Chapter 2

# 2 LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

### 2.1 Overview

In chapter 2, I will develop a research model building upon a series of literature reviews on the focal concepts of the present dissertation research. The first part of the review will include detailed summaries of previous studies of the main topic of this research, employee voice, with a particular focus on two issues: what predisposes individuals to participate in voice (i.e., the antecedents of voice behavior) and what employees' voice participation produces (i.e., the outcomes of voice behavior) as well as the conceptual definition of employee voice. Second, the literature on assertive expression style will be reviewed. Conceptual meanings and potentially contrasting properties of assertiveness will be discussed. Next, two major dimensions of the voicing communication will be discussed primarily based on Watzlawick et al.'s (1967) metacommunication axiom and appraisal theory of emotion (Arnold, 1960; Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Lazarus, 1993). Finally, I will review the literature associated with potential conditional factors that may moderate the impact of voice assertiveness on recipients' responses, including characteristics of the voicer (social status) and the recipient (CSE). Finally, hypotheses and a conceptual research model will be suggested.

## 2.2 Employee Voice

### 2.2.1 Conceptual Definitions

The concept of voice traces back to Hirschman's (1970) discussion of voice, exit, and loyalty. According to him, dissatisfaction arising from the decreased quality of a situation may cause either voice (i.e., change efforts) or exit of individuals in that situation. He noted that the decision to voice or exit depends on individuals' loyalty to the organization. When individuals have high loyalty toward the organization, they tend to conduct voice by confronting the current situation and providing information for development; however, when they have low loyalty, they tend to physically or psychologically exit the situation. His discourse on voice provided a basis for understanding employees' voice behavior in workplaces.

Recent work on employee voice has conceptualized voice as a type of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Van Dyne and colleagues, for example, distinguished challenging OCB, such as voice behavior, from affiliative and cooperative OCB, such as helping, courtesy, and sportsmanship (Van Dyne, et al., 1995; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). As a challenging type of OCB, researchers commonly defined voice as a discretionary and constructive verbal expression, the so-called 'improvement-oriented voice', although they used slightly different definitions (e.g., Burriss, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Detert & Burriss, 2007; Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011). For instance, Morrison et al. (2011) defined voice behavior as "the discretionary verbal communication of ideas, suggestions, or opinions with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning" (p. 183). This is in line with Van Dyne, Soan, and Botero's (2003) prosocial

voice with cooperative motivation as well as Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) definition of "expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than criticize" (p. 109). Although voice is constructive and improvement-oriented behavior, these definitions also imply that it may be perceived as challenging and disruptive since it often demands change in the current state (Bettencourt, 2004; Choi, 2007).

While the initial investigations regard voice as unidimensional, it has recently been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct (Brinsfield et al., 2009). With respect to the content of voice, while the initial conceptualizations of voice considered improvement-oriented content as a conceptual core without specifying its dimensions, Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012) suggested two different content dimensions, prohibitive voice – namely, "expressions of concern about existing or impending practices, incidents, or behaviors that may harm the organization" and promotive voice – that is, "expressions of ways to improve existing work practices and procedures to benefit the organization" (pp. 71-72). In the same vein, Lebel, Wheeler-Smith, and Morrison (2011) proposed that voice can be divided into three different content dimensions (cited from Morrison, 2011): suggestion-focused voice – "the communication of suggestions or ideas for how to improve the work unit or organization," problem-focused voice – "an employee's expression of concern about work practices, incidents, or behaviors that he or she regards as harmful, or potentially harmful, to the organization," and opinion-focused voice – "communicating points of view on work-related issues that differ from those held by others" (Morrison, 2011, p. 398). Suggestion-focused and problem-focused voice are comparable to Liang et al.'s promotive and prohibitive voice, respectively.

Moreover, motivation can also be a crucial component in differentiating types of voice. As noted above, most voice studies define voice as improvement-oriented prosocial behavior, but Van Dyne, Soon, and Botero (2003) claimed that individuals may actually have one of three different motives in mind when expressing or withholding important information and ideas, such as other-orientation (prosocial voice), self-protection (defensive voice), and disengagement (acquiescent voice). Employees may engage in voice because they want their suggestions, opinions, or concerns to help organizational developments and successes. However, they may perform voice in order to protect themselves from any feared and negative consequences. For example, they may suggest ideas that would help them avoid blame, justify themselves, or turn the other's attention to different objectives. Finally, employees may invest the least effort into providing their opinions when they feel that their voice behaviors are useless, merely following the status quo and offering some disengaging or supportive remarks.

The latest conceptualization of Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) broadened the concept of voice behavior by adding various different types of employee expressions to influence organizational functioning. Based on two dimensions of voice behavior, (1) change orientation: preservation (i.e., voice to keep the status quo) vs. challenge (i.e., voice to change the status quo) and (2) underlying motivation: promotive (i.e., voice to encourage organizational development) vs. prohibitive (i.e., voice to hinder or harm organizational development)<sup>1</sup>, they categorized four different forms, including

---

<sup>1</sup> Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) conceptualized promotive and prohibitive voice behaviors based on the underlying intentions or expected results (i.e., positively intended/constructive vs. negatively intended/destructive). Conversely, Liang et al. (2012) defined these behaviors as differently framed voicing contents (i.e., promotive voice: providing suggestions of developmental ideas that focus on

constructive voice (challenging and promotive voice), destructive voice (challenging and prohibitive voice), supportive voice (preserving and promotive voice), and defensive voice (preserving and prohibitive voice). In addition to challenging promotive expressions of employees, which were the most widely accepted conceptualization of employee voice, the researchers incorporated non-challenging affiliative expressions and even harmful expressions into considerable voice behaviors in the organization.

When it comes to the target of the voice, the focus of previous studies has been mostly on speaking-up toward leaders or managers at higher positions in organizations (Morrison et al., 2011). However, voice behavior may be directed not only at higher-ups (i.e., speaking-up) but also colleagues (i.e., speaking-out). These distinct voice flows may have their own unique attributes. For example, given that the power structure between the voice-giver and the voice-taker would be a critical factor for the emergence of voice behaviors, voice between peers and voice between a follower and a leader may be explained by different mechanisms (Ashford, Sutcliffe, & Christianson, 2009). Additionally, voice appears to be target-sensitive whereas affiliative citizenship behaviors (e.g., courtesy, sportsmanship) do not. Liu, Zhu, and Yang (2010) demonstrated, with MBA students in Chinese universities, that speaking-up and speaking-out are not only perceived differently but also influenced by identifications with different organizational entities such that organizational identification was related to lateral voice while personal identification with the leader was associated with upward voice.

---

achieving ideal states vs. prohibitive voice: providing concerns about potential problems and losses that focus on preventing negative outcomes).

In sum, the concept of voice can be understood in various ways. In this research, however, I follow the conventional definition of employee voice as employees' improvement-oriented challenging expressions toward internal members of the organization that can be conveyed by a variety of forms such as developmental opinions, new ideas, and concerns about possible problems and harms (e.g., Liang et al., 2012). As Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) argued, other types of voluntary expressions of employees, such as supportive remarks and destructive bad-mouthing, might be valuable to understanding employee voice. However, these types of verbal behaviors are out of the scope of this research project. Most of the literature review on voice behavior and the empirical study design in this research is based on the conventional definition of voice.

## 2.2.2 Determinants of Voice Emergence

Earlier studies of voice behavior placed much attention on the determinants of voice and the mechanisms of their influence on the voice participation of employees in response to the question of why employees convey or withhold important information, ideas, and opinions that would help effective organizational functioning. They have suggested a range of contextual and personal determinants that may explain employees' participation in voice. I will first describe these factors, then discuss the psychological underpinnings that individuals cognitively or emotionally experience when deciding whether to voice or remain silent.

### 2.2.2.1 *Environmental Factors*

Leaders or managers have received much attention from researchers as one of the crucial contextual factors of would-be voicers. Morrison and Milliken (2000) pointed out

that senior managers at the top of the organizational hierarchy play important roles in employees' engagement in voice. According to them, when managers have negative implicit beliefs regarding employee voice behavior (e.g., that subordinates' voice behaviors are self-interested, that managers know the best, and that organizational unity is better than dissent), these beliefs lead the organization to create organizational systems and practices (e.g., centralized decision-making systems) that are conducive to creating an organizational climate of silence. Morrison and Milliken (2000) also argued that when managers fear that they will receive negative feedback from their subordinates, they are likely to try to avoid "embarrassment, threat, and feelings of vulnerability or incompetence" (Morrison & Milliken, 2000, p.708). Thus, the fear of negative feedback from below also contributes toward the development of a negative organizational climate for employees' voice behaviors.

Immediate supervisors or middle managers may also have an impact on subordinates' voice participation. When leaders develop high-quality relationships with subordinates (Botero and Van Dyne, 2009; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011; Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008), and when leaders possess favourable leadership behavior for voice such as leaders' consultation (i.e., voice soliciting and listening) and openness, transformational leadership, and ethical leadership (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu et al., 2010; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), employees have been found to be more likely to perform voice behaviors. This is because such leaders tend to make employees feel obligated to reciprocate the better treatment they received (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Dyne et al., 2008). Moreover, such immediate leaders allow subordinates to develop perceptions of psychological safety (Detert &

Burris, 2007; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), sense of influence (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012), and attachment to the leader and the organization (Liu et al., 2010), which in turn contribute to employees' voice engagement. Furthermore, not only immediate supervisors but also skip-level leaders who are at two to five levels above them may play significant roles in employees' voice behaviors. They may give signals to employees about relevance of voice behavior in the work place via direct interactions (Liu, Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2013) or indirect ways like symbolic stories about how the leaders responded to voice of subordinates (Detert & Trevino, 2010).

Beyond leadership and managerial factors, various other contextual factors have also been suggested to predict employee speaking-up. For example, industrial stability and organizations' efficiency-focused strategies may have negative associations with voice in organizations (Morrison & Milliken, 2000) whereas strong organizational vision is positively related to employees' constructive inputs (Choi, 2007). Additionally, the perception that their work environments provide them either absolutely high or absolutely low personal control (i.e., autonomy and impact) is likely to allow them to perform more voice (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). At the group level, work group characteristics such as small group size and self-management (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998) and social support from other group members (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003) enhance the likelihood of the employee voice.

Among environmental factors, workplace climate, which is defined as "shared and enduring perceptions of psychologically important aspects of a particular work environment" (Morrison & Milliken, 2000, p. 714) should be the most proximal contextual determinant of employee voice or silence. In particular, climate is regarded as

important because it can explain not only individual-level voice but also voice at the collective level. Morrison and Milliken (2000) argued that climate of silence, which leads to organizational-level silence, arises from two shared beliefs among organizational members: first, that ‘voice is not worth the effort’; and second, that ‘voice is dangerous’. Similarly, Morrison et al. (2011) also introduce the concept of ‘voice climate,’ which emerges from the common belief of group members that voice is safe (i.e., group voice safety belief) and that they can effectively convey voice and will be taken seriously (i.e., group voice efficacy) (p. 184). In their empirical study, Morrison et al. (2011) found that the voice climate best predicts individual members’ voice behaviors.

#### *2.2.2.2 Dispositional Factors*

Because voice engagement is discretionary and requires employees to engage in extra efforts, researchers have taken into consideration individuals’ dispositional traits as essential antecedents of voice behavior (Klaas, et al., 2012). In a laboratory study on the relationship between individual difference factors and several dimensions of job performance, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) demonstrated that such Big-Five personality traits as extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and agreeableness have significant associations with both types of OCB – cooperative behavior and voice behavior. However, they also found that agreeableness showed bidirectionality in which it enhances cooperative behavior but diminishes voice behavior. In addition, Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, and Gardner’s (2011) meta analyses of the relationship between the Big-Five personality traits and different types of OCB indicated that extraversion and openness are strong predictors of verbal and nonverbal change-related OCBs including voice. Meanwhile,

self-esteem and motivational factors (e.g., learning goal-orientation, psychological empowerment) have also been found to have a relationship with voice behavior (Bettencourt, 2004; Choi, 2007; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998).

### 2.2.2.3 *Psychological Underpinnings of Voice Engagement*

Even though factors have been proposed as important determinants of voice, researchers have also paid ample attention to unfolding the fundamental psychological underpinnings that proximally and directly influence the voice participation decision and/or serve as intermediate mechanisms that explain the predictor–voice association. Basically, underlying mechanisms, such as social exchange (Blau, 1964) or felt reciprocity, which accounts for the affiliative form of citizenship behaviors like helping, can also be applied to voice given the discretionary nature of both types of contextual performance (Liu et al., 2010). However, in that voice is potentially disruptive, unique accounts of the psychological processes of voice engagement have been provided. These can be categorized into a cognitive approach and an emotional approach.

Two cognitive judgements have been argued as essential when deciding to engage in voice: judgement about utility [futility] of the voice (i.e., whether one’s voice will be effective and taken seriously); and judgement about potential safety or risk of the voice (i.e., whether negative outcomes will override the benefits) (Burris et al., 2008; Detert & Trevino, 2010; Milliken et al., 2003). To determine their actual performance of speaking-up, employees anticipate these two dimensions on the basis of social cues such as leader behavioral characteristics, organizational structure, management practices, and symbolic stories about voice (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Deteret & Trevino, 2010). These

evaluative processes can take place either via heuristic processing based on surface-level information or accurate systematic processing based on central information (Chiaburu et al., 2008). When these cognitive judgements about voice are aggregated at the collective level, it indicates voice (or silence) climate (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morrison et al., 2011).

Recently, some researchers have begun to argue that cognitive processes related to whether or not to engage in voice are automatic and effortless rather than accurate or deliberative calculation processes (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009). Through the repeated (direct and indirect) experiences of voice events from early in life, Detert and Edmondson insist, people develop taken-for-granted beliefs (i.e., implicit voice theories) about speaking-up. Those implicit theories are schema-based knowledge structures of voice, and they develop as a result of life-events from early ages rather than as a result of the influences of certain specific contextual factors. Thus, they are relatively fundamental and stable sources of silence or voice behaviors, and it is difficult to claim that they mediate the effects of any specific contextual factors on voice or silence. In Detert and Edmondson's (2011) empirical studies, these implicit voice theories have incremental predictive validity for both employee silence behavior and voice behaviors above and beyond other potential individual and contextual factors.

Some researchers have focused on emotional processes related to the emergence or withholding of voice behavior as another essential psychological underpinning (Detert & Edmonson, 2005; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). First of all, negative emotions are crucial to would-be voicers. When people feel or anticipate fear, sadness, and/or anxiety about their

voice engagement, they may not tend to speak up and may remain silent. These negative emotions would stem from the assessment of the risk of facing negative outcomes. But even without the accurate evaluative judgement of negative outcomes, people tend to have deeply rooted fear about challenging others, particularly up-hierarchies (Detert & Edmonson, 2005), because “raising issues with leaders ... can be inherently intimidating and fear-provoking” (Detert & Trevino, 2010, p. 263), and “[E]ven in a work environment ... where one generally feels safe speaking up, the deep-rooted fear of challenging authority is not erased” (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009, p. 175). In short, fear of challenging others can be an automatic (biological) or schema-based (structured) process as well as a result of deliberative assessment of risk (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009).

Fear of voice often arises from power difference. According to Morrison and Rothman (2009), if there is a high level of asymmetry in power between leaders and subordinates, leaders may not be willing to listen to subordinates’ speaking-ups (i.e., lack of openness) and may pay little attention to the potentially high-handed attitudes (i.e., lack of self-monitoring) of the voice providers. In addition, when people believe that superiors have strong power and that dissenting their practices are bad, they may feel afraid, uncomfortable or worried about raising contrary views (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009), even if they do not expect any specific negative outcome. Lateral interactions with peers as well as vertical interactions with leaders would also be a source of fear of voice because one’s unique opinion might cause fear of isolation from one’s colleagues unless the voicing content has obtained substantial social support in advance of the voice behavior (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003).

## 2.2.3 Outcomes of Employee Voice

In terms of the outcomes of employee voice, most previous studies have focused on three kinds of outcomes: the unit-level effectiveness that employee voice creates, the effects of voice engagement on the voicer's attitudes and perceptions, and the reactions of voice recipients.

### 2.2.3.1 *Unit-level performance*

Employees' voice has been found to be related to collective-level (organizations or work groups) outcomes such as organizational learning and unit-level performance. First of all, due to the influences of voice behavior on information flows (e.g., new or alternative ideas, constructive feedback, messages about hazards or errors) from one to another, effectiveness in organizational learning has been argued to be one of the most prominent unit-level outcome of employee voice (Milliken & Lam, 2009). For example, in Edmonson's (2003) qualitative field study based on interviews, active voice behaviors among members of cardiac surgery teams were found to foster successful implementation of new surgical practices. Additionally, in group-level study, Stern, Katz-Navon, and Naveh (2008) demonstrated that voice in work groups contributed to decreased medical treatment errors of resident physicians, particularly when the working groups placed emphasis on learning behaviors and improvement (i.e., high situational learning orientation).

So far, only two studies, to my knowledge, have empirically explored the relationship between voice behavior and unit-level task performance. These studies showed that voice can be either beneficial or harmful for the unit performance depending

on the context of voice behavior. With survey and archival data from 150 fast food restaurants in the United States, Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Podsakoff (2011) tested the relationship of group-level voice behavior and group task performance and, in turn, the outcomes of the restaurants. Their findings indicated that the voice–outcome linkage is much more complex than the simple linearity assumption (i.e., the more voice, the better the outcomes). Group-level voice showed an inverted U-shaped relationship with group task performance, suggesting that change-oriented behavior like voice has positive impact only up to a certain level of the behavior. After the optimal level, those behaviors had a more detrimental impact on group task performance, allegedly because they may cause interpersonal conflict and reduce trust above and beyond their positive influence as an innovative input. They also found that affiliative behaviors such as helping moderate the effect of voice on group task performance such that having more affiliative behaviors in groups make the members more receptive of one another's challenging behaviors. On the other hand, Detert, Burris, Harrison, and Martin (2013) claimed that the association between employee voice and group-level performance is contingent upon the type of voice flow. They specified four patterns of voice flow: 1) upward flow (from subordinates to formal leader of the work group); 2) inbound flow (from subordinates of other groups to the formal leader of the work group); 3) lateral flow (between peers within the work group); and 4) outbound flow (from subordinates of the work group to leaders in other groups). Using a mixed methods design, Detert et al. found that upward and inbound flows were positively and lateral and outbound flows were negatively related to the performance of the focal group. They argued that the two former voice flows, relative to the later ones, were higher in instrumentality because group leaders, the

recipients of these types of voice, have power to control resources and decision processes required to handle the issues that are spoken. These voice flows are also high in information value because the leader-targeted voice issues are likely to be general or significant issues in the organization; therefore, they are well prepared before conveyed, although the later types of voice tend to be less valuable and more costly (Detert et al., 2013).

### 2.2.3.2 *Job attitude*

Previous studies argued that having and losing opportunities to voice are closely related to employee attitudes (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). For instance, lack of voice has been found to be negatively related with the exchange relationship with leaders (LMX), trust in managers, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Farndale, Van Ruiten, Kelliher, & Hope Hailey, 2011; Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). Similarly, in the justice literature, it has been argued that merely having voice opportunities influences individuals' justice perceptions. Related to this, Brinsfield, Edwards, and Greenberg (2009) noted two types of voice effects (Brinsfield, et al., 2009; Lind & Kulik, 2009). First, when people believe that they can engage in voice about the issues that impact them, they perceive that they can control the process and exercise an influence on decision-making. The perception of having instruments (voice) to influence their outcomes increases their procedural justice perception (i.e., instrumental approach). On the other hand, some researchers insist that, even without the perception of instrumental influence, the mere availability of voice opportunities may lead individuals to perceive that the organization values their inputs and treats them with a sense of worth, and that this recognition results in the perception of procedural justice (i.e., group-value model or

value expressive approach) (Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990). These voice effects appeared to be stronger particularly when individuals received negative outcomes, when they continued the relationship with the decision-maker, and when they were under uncertain or anxious situations (Lind & Kulik, 2009). Additionally, high self-esteem and social dominance orientation of individuals were found to strengthen effects of voice (Brockner, et al., 1998; De Cremer, Cornelis, & Van Hiel, 2008). Again, in this area of literature, voice is often conceptualized as organizational practices (e.g., suggestion program) or voice opportunities, rather than discretionary verbal behaviors of employees (Van Dyne et al., 2003, p. 1369); thus, it is unclear that these voice effects would occur when individuals willingly increase or decrease their voice participation.

### 2.2.3.3 *Task performance*

Another issue in voice outcomes is whether one's voice behavior would help one to perform better in one's jobs. As with the voice–collective-level performance relation, inconsistent results have been achieved regarding the voice–personal outcome association.

On the one hand, voice was found to have a positive relationship with task performance. For instance, Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) longitudinal study across two waves (6 months interval) revealed that voice has predictive validity for individual performance rated by supervisors, although the effect was not strongly significant. In the study, peer-rated voice behaviors at time 1 showed a tendency toward a positive relationship (significant relationship at  $p < 0.1$ ) with individual performance at time 2. Also, supervisor-rated voice showed a significant relationship with job performance.

With respect to the reason of the positive impact of voice behavior on task/in-role performance, researchers pointed out the instrumentality of voice behavior. Fuller, Barnett, Hester, Relyea, and Frey (2007) insisted that voice can be an instrumental behavior that helps employees develop a positive impression in workplaces. With a sample of a health service organization, they found that employees high in voice received greater promotion recommendations from the supervisor than those low in voice behavior, especially when the employees have a high self-monitoring disposition. Similarly, Ng and Feldman (2012) argued that voice behavior is a resource acquisition process, claiming “voice behavior might aid in-role job performance because it helps employees accrue additional tangible and intangible resources ... it might garner greater status and respect ... from supervisors and peers” (p. 223). Their meta-analyses showed a positive correlation between voice behavior and observer-rated in-role performance ( $r = .37$ ).

On the other hand, the positive perspective on the contribution of voice behavior to the voicer’s effectiveness in performing jobs is often questioned. A basic debate occurs concerning the costs of participation in voice behavior. Time spent for the extra verbal input may impede the completion of in-role tasks as Bolino, Turnley, and Niehoff (2004) noted, “In reality, ... it is likely that many citizenship behaviors occur at the expense of in-role behaviors” (p. 239). Engaging in voice behavior may demand that the voicer collect extra information and research new ideas, additional tasks, and new ways of conducting tasks. It may also cause overt workload and work stress of not only the voicing individuals but also interdependent workers, thereby producing conflict in work (Spychala & Sonnentag, 2011). Furthermore, differently from the argument that voice behavior enhances positive impression and social respect, voicers may gain negative

impressions such as being labeled as troublemakers or, in extreme cases, as traitors (Frese & Fay, 2001; Milliken et al., 2003). These social impressions will result in the loss of social resources needed to perform tasks better.

#### 2.2.3.4 *Reactions of voice recipients*

At this point, I narrow the discussion of the voice–outcome association down to the voicer–recipient dyad. Responses of voice recipients to voice behavior should be another important factor in understanding outcomes of voice. Recipients’ reactions are worthy of attention because they arise as an immediate output of voice behavior. The direction in which voice recipients respond to voice (e.g., accepting the spoken opinion or defending the current state) should determine not only whether the voicer can obtain positive outcomes as a result of the behavior but also whether voice behavior will actually be able to contribute to organizational development.

Again, as the individual and unit-level outcomes of voice behavior have both constructive and destructive aspects, voice recipients also may show conflicting reactions. On the one hand, voice recipients may react to employee voice in a positive manner. Managers may regard voice as constructive and helpful for enhancing the effectiveness of the workplace, and they may also interpret voicers’ voluntary efforts as signals of their positive attitudes and motivations toward the organizational success (Podsakoff et al., 2000; 2009). For this reason, managers may feel obligated to pay back voicing employees for their constructive inputs and extra efforts (Blau, 1964).

On the other hand, due to its challenging and disruptive nature, voice arguably has the potential to cause negative reactions. Bateman and Crant (1999) highlighted politics

as one of the core sources of negative outcomes of proactive performance like voice. Voice may be resisted by recipients since it is likely to ask the receiving individuals to change something that they might currently be satisfied with. Also, voice behavior may be interpreted by the receiving individuals as negative feedback of their achievement (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Alternatively, voice recipients may regard the speaking-up as a personal offense (Burriss, Detert, & Romney, 2013; Fast, Burriss, and Bartel, in press; Frese & Fay, 2001). Finally, voice may be seen “as being driven by personal ambition” (Bateman & Crant, 1999, p. 67); so, recipients may devalue the utility of the spoken message. When voice behavior is directed at powerful leaders, resistance may become more critical than when it is directed at peers or subordinates. Morrison and Milliken (2000) argued that power holders in the organization often tend to implicitly believe that employees’ voice is self-interested, less valuable, and harmful to unity. Therefore, they are likely to be less open to voice and may simply ignore it or provide a negative response to the employee’s voice (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morrison & Rothman, 2009).

Accordingly, in consideration of the positive and negative aspects of reactions to voice, recent studies attempted to uncover third factors that impact the direction of the reactions of voice recipients. As Grant et al. (2009) noted, “rather than merely assuming that proactive behaviors are always associated with higher performance evaluations, it is important to examine the conditions under which supervisors evaluate proactive behaviors as contributing” (p. 34).

Some researchers focused on personal characteristics of voicers and recipients to understand reactions to voice. For instance, Grant et al. (2009) insisted that recipients

may be inclined to read the underlying motive of voice behavior based on emotional traits and values of the voicing individuals. According to them, when supervisors judge the voicing individuals as being high in negative emotions and low in prosocial values, they are likely to interpret the voice behavior of these employees as self-serving and/or counterproductive behavior, a burden, or a bad attitude. Similarly, Whiting et al. (2008) imply that voice recipients may consider other dimensions of voicers' behaviors when deciding their response to the voice. According to their experimental investigation with undergraduate students using scenarios, participants appraised voice behavior less positively when the voicer was lack of both helping and in-role behaviors. The more voicing individuals helped others or performed tasks well, the more their voice behavior received favorable evaluation from participants. Although they did not specify the reasons for this in the study, it may be because voice recipients probably attribute voice behavior of weak performers in other areas as self-serving behavior or an expression of dissatisfaction rather than prosocial behavior. Meanwhile, Fast et al.'s (in press) latest research turned our attention to managers' internal characteristics – specifically, manager self-efficacy. Based on a field study and a scenario experiment, they found that managers with low self-efficacy are less likely to solicit and welcome subordinates' voice behavior (i.e., voice aversion). It was because, according to them, managers' ego attempts to secure their self-worth (i.e., ego defensiveness). They claimed that threatened ego is the underlying mechanism to explain the defensiveness of managers low in self-efficacy. Despite the theoretical strength of this argument, they did not actually measure the threat voice receiving managers may experience. So, it has a limitation to specifying how voice recipients may feel threatened in voicing situations.

Another group of studies investigated characteristics of voice behavior and contextual factors as the determinants of responses to voice. According to Burris (2012), whether speaking-up conveys challenging or supportive content plays an important role in how recipients respond to it. Combining results from multiple methods, he argued that challenging voice content caused negative reactions of recipients (less endorsement and unfavorable performance appraisal), whereas supportive remarks generated positive reactions. Moreover, he found that the relationship between voice and recipients' reactions was mediated by perceived threat (i.e., the extent to which the voice behavior threatens the receiving leader) and perceived loyalty of the voicer (i.e., intentions to benefit the organization rather than the self). Although most previous studies about recipients' reactions selected their performance evaluation of voicing employees as a criterion variable, this research directly examined recipients' endorsement of the voice as well. However, it was a limitation of this research that it considered only the content type of voice (challenge vs. support) as an antecedent of recipients' reactions. On the contrary, Whiting, et al. (2012) demonstrated the significant roles of several communication factors such as the characteristics of the message content, voice provider, and voicing context in evaluations of voice behavior. In their experiments, participants rated video-taped voice behaviors that incorporated manipulated characteristics of the voice events. They found that voice-provider trustworthiness and solution-incorporating voice messages were the strongest communication factors that elicit positive reactions. Participants gave more favorable evaluation to the voicers who were trustworthy and who suggested specific solutions. Moreover, voice in the early stages of decision-making received more positive evaluations than late-timed voice. Furthermore, these

communication factors were mediated by the perception of constructiveness, liking the voicer, and prosocial motives. Although the authors paid attention to the roles of communicational factors in voicing situations, they did not consider the impact of expression style of voicers despite its significance in interpersonal communication (see the next session for details). Additionally, they did not measure the responses of voice receiving individuals. Participants were asked to evaluate performance of the voicer in the video, regarding themselves as observing employees rather than voice recipients. Thus, it is not certain that their findings would be applicable to comprehending voice recipients' reactions.

#### 2.2.4 Conclusion

A wide range of research has been conducted regarding why employees engage in voice behavior; however, several unresolved issues remain (e.g., lateral influence on voice behavior; the integration of different mechanisms of voice emergence such as deliberative cognitive judgment, schematic and automatic cognitive processes, and emotional processes). Even though the outcomes of voice behavior have not been fully identified, researchers have recently turned their attention toward this issue. The extant literature associated with voice outcomes suggests that we should be aware of the following two issues. First, the voice-outcome relationship is more complex than expected. Previous findings show that voice behavior can produce either positive or negative outcomes, or both, at the individual, interpersonal, and unit levels. They also suggest that there can be various conditions that regulate the favourable or unfavourable results of voice. These conditions may include characteristics related to voice behavior

itself, participants of voice communication, and tasks and workplace environments. Second, in addition to the first issue, how voice recipients react to voice behavior from others should be the fundamental consideration in grasping the mechanisms of the relationship between voice behavior and workplace effectiveness. It is because of the fact that employee voice is a form of interpersonal interaction between voicing individuals and voice receiving individuals in which the action–reaction procedure takes place. There is still much to be learned about voice recipients’ reactions, above and beyond the influences of the degree of voice behavior and the type of voice content (e.g., support vs. challenge). In particular, the impact of the way in which voice is expressed or voicers’ expression style on recipients’ reactions remains to be explained.

In the next section, I will review the literature pertinent to potentially important communication style in voicing situations.

## 2.3 Assertive Speech (Voice Assertiveness)

### 2.3.1 Conceptual Definition

Communication style is a critical component of interpersonal communication (Anderson, 1972). Communication style means “the way one verbally or paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood” (Norton, 1978, p. 99). Expression style depends primarily on the way the content is verbally (e.g., words and tone) and non-verbally (e.g., eye contact, facial expression, gesture) coded. As individuals vary in expressing the self (Schütz, 1998), voicing employees may also differ in their expression style. In particular, how assertively or tentatively the voicer expresses

the voicing content would be one possible dimension of expression characteristics of voice behavior. Some may express their voicing opinions in a direct and confident manner while others may be cautious and careful in expressing them.

Assertiveness does not have a certain universal definition and has been used differently in various academic fields (Weeks & Lefebvre, 1982). In clinical and social psychology, where it originated, assertiveness was conceptualized as rights assertion (asserting one's rights) like "saying 'no' and 'getting your own way' (Smith, 1975) or 'stand[ing] up for your rights' and 'get[ting] where and what you want in bed, at work, on the social scene, and at home' (Baer, 1976)" (Rakos, 1991, p. 1). In this regard, assertiveness is often referred to as refusal behavior, as opposed to submissive behavior, against unreasonable requests (Smith-Jentsch, Salas, & Backer, 2006), like magazine subscriptions forced by a salesperson (Baldwind, 1992) and interpersonal aggression (e.g., Gruber & Smith, 1995). Researchers and practitioners have considered assertiveness as an object of social skill training, assuming "expression of one's right in a problematic interpersonal situation will produce positive outcomes" (Wilson, Lizzio, Whicker, Gallois, & Price, 2003, p. 363).

However, from the perspective of interpersonal communication, it has often been used as a construct that represents 'a speech or language-usage style' (e.g., Carli, 1990, 2002; Leaper & Ayres, 2007; Reid, Palomares, Anderson, & Bondad-Brown, 2009). As an expression style, assertiveness or assertive speech style, in contrast to tentativeness, refers to a *direct, confident, and pressure-laden* fashion in expressing one's thoughts (Hollandsworth, 1977; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976; Leaper & Ayres, 2007; Zuker, 1983). When individuals assertively express their thoughts, their expression is likely to be firm

and forceful, leaving others little room to underrate or verify their ideas (Fragale, 2006; Korsgaard, Roberson, & Rymph, 1998; Wilson & Gallois, 1993). Individuals using an assertive speech style tend to directly convey their ideas without using tentative language like disclaimers (e.g., I may be wrong, I am not sure, or I guess), hedges (e.g., sort of, kind of, or maybe), and tag questions (e.g., “Aren’t they?,” “Isn’t it?,” or “Right?”) (Carli, 1990; Erickson, et al., 1978; Reid, et al., 2009).

Relative to assertive speech style, tentative speech is a non-forceful and mild style of conveying messages. It is characterized as *other-oriented*, *uncertain*, and *hesitant* (Reid et al, 2009). Tentative expression may signal that the delivered content could be wrong and leave room for evaluation by the recipient while assertive expression may not. Explicitly aggressive voice will obviously cause negative responses by the other communicant. However, it seems not certain whether appropriately-delivered assertive voice and less assertive voice (tentative voice) would result in positive or negative responses by the voice recipient.

Assertiveness and aggression are distinguishable from one another. Aggressiveness is a disrespectful, assaultive, and emotionally inappropriate behavior whereas assertive behavior is not defined as a hostile behavior that is intended to convey these negative properties (Hollandsworth, 1977). Assertive expression would be regarded as a self-oriented and narcissistic behavior, but it is not an harmful or maladaptive narcissistic behavior by definition (Watson, McKinney, Hawkins, & Morris, 1988; Wilson & Gallois, 1993). Nevertheless, it should also be noted that, regardless of the original intention, when voicers express their ideas in a pressure-laden manner, they could be perceived to be aggressive, depending on the communication context (Fornell & Westbrook, 1979).

For this reason, assertiveness is sometimes understood as a similar concept to aggressiveness (Norton-Ford & Hogan, 1980). Furthermore, in their comprehensive research on meanings of assertiveness, Wilson and Gallois (1993) argued that it is unrealistic to assume that a perfect balance exists in the interpretation of the meaning of assertiveness between the sender of the assertive expression and its recipient because the assertive expression style is likely to “challenge an established pattern of dominance” (p. 63). They argue that some assertive expressions are relatively controlling, dominant, and coercive while others are softened and balanced between ones’ self-expression and others’ rights by adding, for instance, tentative or empathic expressions.

### 2.3.2 The Ambivalence of The Impact of Voice Assertiveness

Previous studies found mixed results with respect to the outcomes of assertive speech style. In general, though, it appears that the positive and negative dimensions of assertive expression are distinguishable from each other. Specifically, previous studies demonstrated that when people assertively engage in interpersonal communication, they are perceived by others as ‘self-promoting,’ ‘competent,’ ‘regulating self and other,’ and ‘influential’ (Bradac, Hopper, & Wiemann, 1989; Carli, 1990; Gibbons, Busch, & Bradac, 1991; Hosman, Huebner, & Siltanen, 2002; Kern & Paquette, 1992). For instance, in an experimental study based on a courtroom testimony setting, Erickson et al. (1978) examined subjects’ reactions to a witness’s speech style and found that the assertively speaking witness was evaluated as more credible, attractive, and influential than the tentatively speaking witness. In addition, using a sample of college students, Holtgraves and Lasky (1999) exhibited that participants who listened to a speech using assertive

language showed greater agreement with the implementation of a new comprehensive examination than those who heard tentative language.

However, other studies have argued that assertiveness creates negative outcomes too. These studies examined socio-emotional aspects of assertive expression and found that people tend to regard assertive communication as ‘relationship threatening’, ‘self-oriented’, ‘undesirable’, ‘controlling others’, ‘unfavorable’, and ‘dislikable’ (Kelly, Kern, Kirkley, Patterson, & Keane, 1980; Kern, 1982; Hosman & Siltanen, 2006; Watson, et al., 1988; Wilson, et al., 2003). Particularly, when negative messages (e.g., opposite and conflicting opinions) are delivered assertively, they are likely seen “as more assertive and less socially acceptable than positive ones (Wilson & Gallois, 1985, p. 125).

The mixed results of assertiveness can be attributable to communication contexts in which one’s expression is assertive or tentative. Indeed, many researchers have recognized that the effectiveness of assertive communication style is context-sensitive. Specifically, researchers in social psychology found that the effectiveness of assertive style is contingent on the gender of communication participants (e.g., Kern, 1982; Levin & Gross, 1984; Reid et al., 2009), the message type (e.g., Cotler & Guerra, 1976; Wilson & Gallois, 1985), and the power and relationship between communicators (e.g., Bryon & Gallois, 1992; Hosman, 1989; Scudder, 2009). In workplace settings, studies also showed that assertive speech style produces different results depending on the specific communication contexts. For instance, assertive speakers were more likely to be successful at job interviews (Parton, Siltanen, Hosman, & Langenderfer, 2002), and received fairer treatments in organizations than less assertive individuals (Korsgaard, et al., 1998).

However, Fragale (2006) argued that assertively speaking employees can be evaluated negatively in workplaces depending on the specific contexts where the communication takes place. Fragale (2006), in her experimental studies of the association between speech style and social status conferral, found that speech style has an interaction effect with task interdependence on employees' attainment of social status. Individuals who have assertive speech style obtained higher status in independent work groups whereas those who use tentative speech style gain higher social status in interdependent work groups. Consequently, these findings support that assertive speech style is not always valued in workplaces. In addition, they also suggest that outcomes of assertive/tentative speech style in voicing contexts may be idiosyncratic.

Investigation of assertive speech in employees' voicing contexts would be valuable because voice communication entails unique characteristics that may be different from other communication situations. First of all, in voice situations, the voicer and the voice recipient tend to be fundamentally in a hierarchical relationship (in speaking-up cases). Hierarchical power plays critical roles in the voicer-recipient relationship (Morrison & Rothman, 2009). Thus, one's assumptions about the other's behavior in voice situations may be different from that in other communication situations that have different power structure. Furthermore, one's voicing behavior may influence receiving individuals' current states and well-being. Whether voice is about prohibitive concerns or promotive suggestions, it basically questions and requires changes of present states that may be under the control of voice-receiving individuals. Therefore, compared to other types of communication situations (e.g., private conversations between colleagues, compliments from coworkers, communication between a salesman and a customer), in voicing

situations, the message recipient may be more sensitive to the personal impact of the communication incident. These characteristics of voicing interactions imply that the effect of assertive/tentative speech style in voice contexts may differ from other communication contexts.

### 2.3.3 Conclusion

Assertive expression style has been investigated in various social contexts including a courtroom, persuasion situations, and close interpersonal relations; however, no study has been conducted in voicing contexts, which are probably quite different from the situations mentioned above. Assertive expression style has been found to achieve mixed results. These findings imply that, despite the advantage of assertive voice expression, employees' voice behavior that incorporates assertive styles may also cause negative reactions among recipients.

In the following sections, I will review the literature related to influential processes and moderating conditions in which assertive voice impacts recipients' reactions.

## 2.4 Mediators: Perceived Voicing-Message Effectiveness and Perceived Personal Threats

In voice recipients' reactions, two contrasting mechanisms are prominent. In other words, when encountering others' voice, voice recipients may experience two different levels of communication processes: content-level process and relationship-level process (Watzlawick, et al., 1967). At the content level, recipients assess the value of the voice

content (e.g., constructiveness); whereas, at the relationship level, they appraise the personal meaning of the voice event. These two appraisals may be fundamental process indicators in the voice-reaction relationship as explained in greater detail below.

#### 2.4.1 Two levels of interpersonal communication

As noted earlier, voice behavior aims to convey improvement-oriented content (e.g., developmental ideas, concerns, or suggestions) to a voice recipient(s). Therefore, if only the content were at work in voicing situations, employee voice might be thought of by the recipients as having utility and value, to a greater or lesser extent. However, Watzlawick et al. (1967) claims that interpersonal communication is more complex than this.

Watzlawick et al. (1967), in their seminal book titled “Pragmatics of Human Communication”, discussed the nature of human communication to address the problems embodied in social interactions. They believed that interpersonal problems are likely to arise from communication that mediates the sender-receiver relation. They introduced fundamental axioms of interpersonal communication that are required to accurately understand the interpersonal or behavioral nature (pragmatics) of communication.

They assumed that there are two levels in interpersonal communication (the second axiom). According to them, we cannot fully understand interpersonal communication just by the content of the communication, and the content-only approach may lead us to misunderstand the communication phenomenon. For this reason, they suggested that we consider two levels simultaneously while analyzing interpersonal communications: *a*

*content (denotation) level* and a *relationship (metacommunication<sup>2</sup>) level*. In other words, in communication situations, not only can the semantic code of the content flow between the sender and the receiver, but also another type of messages at the relationship level that might convey information different from the message content.

Receivers' interpretation of the communication varies according to how receivers integrate perceived messages at these two different levels. According to Watzlawick et al., the interpretation of the content-level information is a conscious process whereas the relationship-level perception is less likely to be conscious and deliberate but rather emerges from the influences of non-content factors and contextual factors in communication situations. They stressed the importance of relationship-level communication as a primary source of disturbance in communication. Even with the same content, depending on other contextual factors that may trigger the activation of the relationship-level communication, the interpretation of the communication message might vary substantially. If there are few factors that activate the relationship-level perception, then the interpretation of the communication may mainly rely upon the literal meaning at the content level. Conversely, if there are significant factors that may stimulate the relationship-level communication, the possibility that the receiver may interpret the meaning of the message differently from the denotative meaning increases.

For instance, suppose a mechanic is speaking up to a supervisor with the content that "The worn-out part of the machine should be replaced." At the denotative level, it conveys the literal meaning of the content, "There is an old part" and "It needs to be

---

<sup>2</sup> Watzlawick et al. (1967) called the relationship-level communication 'metacommunication' since it is communication about communication (i.e., syntactical and semantic communication) (p. 36).

changed”. It might also contain a relational message like “You made a mistake” and “I am superior to you.” Thus, although there is no conflict in terms of the value of the message content at the content level, disagreement may still remain at the relationship level. According to Watzlawick et al., the disagreement would elicit emotional reactions like anger, hurt, or sarcasm of the supervisor unless s/he accepts the complementary relational definition with the voicing subordinate (e.g., “Yes, he is the right person to tell me that”).

#### 2.4.2 The content-level appraisal of voice: Perceived effectiveness (i.e., constructiveness) of the voice message

At the content level of voice communication, voice recipients may judge whether the content of the voiced message is effective or not before showing specific reactions to the voice. The content-level perception of voice behavior is more likely to be direct, conscious, and even calculative than the relationship-level perception. In the appraisal process of the voice message, recipients may evaluate the quality of the suggested opinion focusing on how sound, valuable, and, eventually, constructive the message content is (Dillard, Shen, & Vail, 2007; Hosman & Siltanen, 2011). Thus, *perceived effectiveness of the voicing message*, which refers to the degree to which voice recipients judge the message content of voice to be constructive, will be considered as a critical indicator that captures voice recipients’ interpretation of voice communication at the content level. Interestingly, to date, perceived effectiveness of voice message has barely been examined as a dependent variable of voice behavior despite its potential importance in voice communication. Only one study, Whiting, et al. (2012), to the best of my

knowledge, has dealt with message effectiveness (constructiveness perception) as a judgement of voice behavior that leads to recipients' performance appraisal. In Whiting et al.'s model, constructiveness was found to have a significant mediation effect between several communicational components, primarily voicer trustworthiness and degree of solution, and performance appraisal of the voice sender. It is noteworthy that, in that study, constructiveness was demonstrated to be a stronger mediator than prosocial motive, which has been treated as a pivotal determinant of recipients' reactions to voice behavior (e.g., Burris, et al., 2012; Grant, et al., 2009). Whiting et al. (2012) revealed that perceived prosocial motive was not a significant mediator when it was simultaneously included with perceived constructiveness whereas constructiveness perception remained significant. This suggests that perceived message effectiveness should be considered as an important dimension in the investigation of recipients' reactions.

When voice senders assertively express their voicing messages, the message is likely to be interpreted by recipients as more effective than when they express tentatively. Assertively expressed voicing messages would be less ambiguous and clearer than tentatively conveyed messages since assertive expression is straightforward and lacks unnecessary information like tag questions, disclaimers, and hedges. The clarity of a communication message is closely related to communication effectiveness since it reduces confusion about the message (BA, 2010). Numerous studies have demonstrated that the assertive or tentative speech style is closely related to perceived message effectiveness. For instance, tentative language tends to interrupt message processing in communication, probably causing confusion and ambiguity (Blankenship & Holtgraves, 2005). Moreover, assertive language was demonstrated to enable listeners to recognize

the expressed message as having less negative information (Hosman et al., 2002) and better quality (“sound, well-reasoned, strong, and logical”) (Holtgraves & Lasky, 1999; Hosman & Siltanen, 2011, p. 344).

On the other hand, the perception of message effectiveness may influence the message receiver’s responses. According to Dillard et al.’s (2007) survey and experimental investigation on persuasion, when people perceive persuasive messages as effective, they are likely to have positive attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the message (i.e., successful persuasion). In their in-depth examinations on causality, Dillard et al. found that the perceived effectiveness of the message was an antecedent of actual effectiveness (i.e., persuasion) rather than vice versa. Moreover, Whiting et al.’s (2012) study on the results of voice behavior, which was mentioned earlier, also provided consistent evidence. They found that perceived constructiveness of voicing messages was positively related to the evaluation of the voicer’s performance. Likewise, I expect that the perceived effectiveness of assertive voicing messages may elicit recipients’ positive reactions not only to the voice (e.g., endorsement of the voice) and but also to the voicing individual (e.g., positive performance evaluation and intention to help). Given that voice assertiveness is likely to affect perceived voicing-message effectiveness, I also expect that perceived effectiveness may mediate the relationship between voice assertiveness and voice recipients’ reactions to the voice and the voicer.

Therefore, I provide the following hypotheses.

*Hypothesis 1.* Voice assertiveness will have a positive effect on perceived effectiveness (i.e., constructiveness) of the voicing-message content.

*Hypothesis 2.* Perceived constructiveness will have positive relationships with recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement of the voice, (b) performance evaluation of the voicer, and (c) helping intention (i.e., intention to help the voicer).

*Hypothesis 3.* Perceived constructiveness will mediate the relationships between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention.

### 2.4.3 The relationship-level appraisal of voice: Perceived personal threats

Despite reacting well to the content of assertive messages, voice receiving individuals may perceive personal threats at the relationship level of voice communication. As noted above, the relationship-level interpretation arises primarily from factors surrounding the voicing incident above and beyond the literal meaning of the voice content. Thus, the recognition of voice at the relationship level, rather than at the content level, may be more susceptible to how and/or in what contexts the voice was conveyed.

The mechanism of the relationship-level appraisal of voice behavior is inclined to be social and affective in nature. The appraisal theory of emotion (Arnold, 1960; Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Lazarus, 1993) provides theoretical background to understand why the relational interpretation and the personal meaning perception at the relationship level of

voice communication are likely to induce recipients' affective reactions. The appraisal theory of emotion has been recognized as one of the most effective and analytic accounts for individuals' affective responses to environments (Scherer, Schorr, & Johnstone, 2001). Appraisal theory initially sought to explain how people cope with stressful situations, but it expanded its accounts to more general social situations, including interpersonal interactions in which affective reactions arise (Lazarus, 1991; Parkinson, Fischer, & Manstead, 2004). The essential argument of appraisal theory is that it is the individuals' subjective appraisal of an event that determines the individuals' affective reactions to the event (Arnold, 1960). In other words, when people encounter an event, they first perceive and evaluate the situational information, and then affective reactions arise as products of their subjective appraisal. The subjective appraisal is primarily about the *personal meanings* of the event – specifically, whether the event is associated with their personal goals and well-being (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Lazarus, 1993). Depending on the personal meaning appraisal, individuals shape their reactions to the event in pleasant or unpleasant ways (Lazarus, 1991; Parkinson et al., 2004; Smith & Lazarus, 1993).

The affective reactions do not necessarily mean specific emotions (feelings). They may emerge as several forms of behavioral reactions including action tendencies and physiological change (i.e., changes in bodily conditions and facial expressions) (Frijda & Zeelenberg, 2001; Lazarus, 1991). Parkinson et al. (2004) explained that, even if we do not capture specific emotions as results of personal meaning appraisal, emotional reactions are already reflected in the individuals' behaviors that take place after the appraisal process, citing Averill and Nunley's (1992) figurative explanation – “emotion

may be more like an onion; you can keep peeling away, but all there is to it are the layers themselves” (p. 19).

In addition, appraisals and subsequent emotional reactions may vary depending on personal factors such as values and dispositional traits as well as environmental factors such as physical and social-cultural characteristics (Forgas, 1982; Lazarus, 1991). In other words, personal-meaning appraisal is “a conjunction of an environment with certain attributes and a person with certain attributes, which together produce the relational meaning” (Lazarus, 1991, p. 90).

Consequently, appraisal theory implies that affective reactions of voice recipients, such as biased, distorted, or less rational responses to voice (e.g., disagreement with the valuable voice, retaliations against the voicer by means of negative performance evaluation or insufficient help) may result from the recipient’s personal-meaning appraisal of the voicing event that emerges at the relationship level of the voice communication. Indeed, this is consistent with Morrison and Milliken’s (2000) statement that managers are often defensive against employee voice because they appraise or anticipate that their experiencing of voice may involve “embarrassment, threat, and feelings of vulnerability or incompetence” (p.708).

Assertive speech of the voicer would be an influential factor that activates the relationship-level personal meaning appraisal. Earlier studies suggest that assertive expression entails attributes that may render relational messages to be detected by voice recipients. Researchers have argued that the powerful or pressure-laden characteristic is one of the strong images that assertively speaking individuals convey to listeners (Bradac

et al., 1989; Gibbons et al., 1991; Hosman et al., 2002; Hosman & Siltanen, 2006). For instance, in a simulation of a courtroom testimony setting, Hosman and Siltanen (2006) found that people who listened to a defendant using assertive language reported that the assertive speaker was knowledge-competent. However, they also saw the assertive speaker as controlling others as well as the self; this impression was closely associated with lower positive inference for personal characteristics and the testimony of the speaker. Their contradictory findings suggest that, although people may regard assertive expressions as credible in terms of the conveyed message content, they also have negative interpretations against power and control embodied in the assertiveness (p. 43).

Given the power and control images of assertive speaking, voice recipients may perceive personal threat from assertively expressed voice messages. *Perceived personal threat (shortly, perceived threat)* can be defined as the voice recipient's appraisal of potential harms and damages that the voice event may cause to his or her personal well-being at the relationship level of the voiced communication. Threat perception may be important to consider, particularly in voicing situations, because voice recipients are generally those who have something to lose (e.g., formal or informal status, self-worth, decision-making authorities) from their receiving voice (Fast et al., in press; Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Here, I propose three potentially critical dimensions of threat perception of voice recipients as follows. First, as Burris (2012) demonstrated, voice recipients may consider *threat to personal achievement* (e.g., receiving unfavorable performance evaluation from supervisor when the supervisor knows of the voice) while experiencing certain types of voice behaviors. Burris claimed that the more challenging the voice behavior, the more

likely it will be perceived as threat to achievement. Assertive voicers, relative to tentative voicers, are straightforward (Wilson & Gallois, 1993); therefore, are more likely to be perceived as challenging and, in turn, threatening to the recipient's personal achievement.

Second, managers may also perceive a threat regarding the potential loss of their positive images or social value by receiving voice from others (i.e., *perceived threat to social value*). For example, the voice receiving manager's positive image or social value within the organization, which is often termed as face too (i.e., "the desired social image that one creates for oneself through interactions with others" , Cupach & Carson, 2002, p. 444; the social value one possesses based on socially consented characteristics, Goffman, 2003), can be threatened when a colleague directly and strongly speaks up no matter how important the voicing issue may be for the organization. According to Cupach and Carson (2002), individuals tend to experience threat to their desired social value when they recognize that others' complaints challenge, criticize, or disgrace them. Brown (1977) also reported that individuals become very sensitive about the potential loss of their social value when they realize that interaction partners are hostile toward them. Likewise, because the powerful expressions of change-oriented messages can be perceived as interpersonal control and dominance (Hosman & Siltanen, 2006), they may be interpreted as attempts at a hostile influence and threats to the recipient's social value.

Finally, voice recipients may perceive threats to their freedom to make their own decisions on issues or practices for which they have the authority and responsibility (i.e., *perceived threat to decision-making freedom*). Voice recipients may think that subordinates' voice behaviors may restrict their freedom to make decisions, particularly when voicing messages are conveyed assertively. According to Brehm et al., pressure-

laden statements, such as assertive voice, allow the receiving individuals to experience threats to their freedom of decision-making that, in turn, may cause psychological reactance such as anger and disagreement with the suggested idea in an effort to retrieve their freedom (J. W. Brehm, 1966; S. S. Brehm & Brehm, 1981).

In sum, voice recipients are likely to understand voice as threat to a range of personal dimensions (e.g., personal achievement, social value, and decision-making freedom) to the extent that voicing individuals use assertive expression style. As assumed by appraisal theory, perceived personal threats may create negative reactions to the eliciting voice behavior (e.g., endorsement) and to the voicing individual (e.g., positive performance evaluation and intention to help). In light of these considerations, we can expect that perceived threat mediates the effect of voice assertiveness on recipients' reactions, in line with the assumption of appraisal theory that personal meaning appraisal is a central process that intermediates social events and affective reactions (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Lazarus, 1993).

*Hypothesis 4.* Voice assertiveness will have positive effects on perceived personal threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom.

*Hypothesis 5.* Perceived personal threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – will have negative relationships with recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention.

*Hypothesis 6.* Perceived personal threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – will mediate the relationships between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention.

#### 2.4.4 Conclusion

In this section, by combining the literature on principles of human communication, appraisal theory in emotion, and assertive communication, it is argued that voice assertiveness may provide information at two different communication levels (i.e., content level and relationship level) and that perceived effectiveness of voice content message and perceived threat are key appraisals in which voice receiving individuals may engage at the content level and at the relationship level, respectively. Based on these, the mediation effects of perceived voice message effectiveness and threat perception in the relationship between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions are hypothesized.

Incidentally, given that the outcomes of voice assertiveness are complex and situation-sensitive (Fragale, 2006; Reid, et al., 2009; Wilson, et al., 2003), the relationship of voice assertiveness with recipients' responses may vary depending on contextual factors associated with voice communication situations. The next section will discuss this issue.

## 2.5 Moderating Conditions

Recall that, when voice is assertively expressed, recipients are likely to recognize contrasting communicational messages at the content level and at the relationship level, respectively. The relative degree of activation of the content-level and relationship-level voice communication may change depending on several contextual factors in voice situations. Therefore, third factors that regulate the two conflicting voice processes may allow one process to outweigh the other. Here, characteristics of voice providers (status), voice recipients (CSE), and voice content (promotive vs. prohibitive) will be proposed as conditional factors in voice situations.

### 2.5.1 Moderating condition 1: Status of the voice provider (subordinates vs. peers)

Voice can be raised from various sources. In particular, as mentioned above, previous studies distinguished between two different types of voice behavior in terms of its source: speaking-up (i.e., voice from subordinates) and speaking-out (i.e., voice from peers) (Ashford, et al., 2009; Liu, et al., 2010). In this categorization, voice sources hold different statuses (i.e., the amount of “prominence, respect, and influence” one possesses within a group, Anderson, John, Keltner, and Kring, 2001, p. 117; “the relative ability, competence, or value of different members of the group”, Carli, 1990, p. 941). Since both giving and receiving voice are sensitive to the hierarchical structure that exists between voice providers and voice recipients (Detert & Edmondson, 2005; Detert & Treviño, 2010; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009), the difference in voice providers’ status between

speaking-up and speaking-out may lead voice recipients to have different reactions to assertively delivered voice.

Expectation states theory (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch Jr, 1972; Bunderson, 2003; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006) suggests that the different reactions may arise due to different performance expectations that people have of other members corresponding to their status in groups. According to expectation states theory, individuals in groups have their own status characteristics, and the status characteristics create expected behaviors of individuals within groups (Berger et al., 1972). For instance, those who have high status are expected to exercise more control over decision-making, to contribute more to group performance, and to exhibit assertive self-presentation whereas those in low status are expected to be less decisive and more tentative (Berger, et al., 1972; Correll & Ridgeway, 2003). Their behaviors can obtain legitimacy when they follow these social expectations. If they break the expectations, however, they lose the legitimacy of their behaviors and thus are neither accepted nor positively evaluated (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986; Ridgeway, 2001; Wilson et al., 2003).

Although expectation states theory was mainly mentioned in relation to macro social issues like gender inequality in society, it would be also applicable to face-to-face work group settings (Anderson, Srivastava, Beer, Spataro, & Chatman, 2006; Berger, Wagner, & Zelditch Jr., 1985; Bunderson, 2003; Fragale, 2006). In workplaces, official hierarchical status in the organizational structure is the most salient status information that contributes to create the expectation states of individual organizational members. Particularly in voice situations, expectation states theory suggests that employees (managers) may suppose that their peers can be more assertive when providing

suggestions and concerns to them than their subordinates can. However, they may assume that, compared to peers, subordinates who possess lower status should propose concerns and suggestions in a tentative and less assertive way. Nonetheless, if subordinates actually mount forceful tone in their speaking-up, their behaviors could be interpreted as inappropriate conduct and violations of social expectations or norms, resulting in recipients' negative responses to the voice.

In particular, the violation of expectation deriving from an inappropriately spoken voice would impact the relationship-level voice communication, as opposed to content-level, because leaders may perceive subordinates' inappropriate voice behaviors as a personal threat. For example, when receiving assertive speaking-up, leaders may think that their social values or face can be damaged by the unexpectedly assertive voice behavior of subordinates. Although there is no empirical study, to my knowledge, about the threat perception of leaders arising from the norm-violating behaviors of subordinates, empirical studies in interpersonal interactions provide supportive evidence for this assumption. For example, Liao and Bond (2011), in their survey study on interpersonal harm, found that the violation of interpersonal norms (i.e., implicit social expectations of appropriate and desirable behaviors) in one's behavior affects the interaction partner's perception of threat to their social value. In addition, according to Fragale, Overbeck, and Neale's (2011) experimental studies, the perceived power of a high-status person is judged as warmth (e.g., cooperation and respectfulness, p. 768); however, the perceived power of a low-status person is interpreted negatively as coldness and hostility. Although they operationalized power as holding resources, given that assertive speakers tend to be

viewed as powerful and other-controlling, this finding also implies that assertive speakers with low status (i.e., subordinates) may be considered cold and hostile too.

Consequently, I expect that, when subordinates in work groups raise their voice assertively, voice recipients may perceive more personal threat than when peers express voice assertively.

*Hypothesis 7.* Voicer status will moderate the relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived personal threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom, such that the positive relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived threats will be stronger when voice providers are subordinates than when they are peers.

Given that the status of the voice provider moderates the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived threat, it will also impact the strength of the negative indirect effect of voice assertiveness on reactions of voice recipients, through perceived threat. Therefore, I propose the following moderated mediation hypothesis.

*Hypothesis 8.* Voicer status will moderate the mediation effects of perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3)

perceived threat to decision-making freedom – between voice assertiveness and recipients’ reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the negative mediation effects of perceived threats will be stronger when voice providers are subordinates than when they are peers.

### 2.5.2 Moderating condition 2: Core Self-Evaluation of voice recipients

Core Self-Evaluations (CSE) is defined as a fundamental evaluation that individuals have of themselves (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Judge et al. (1997) claimed that every individual has bottom-line self-evaluation that widely influences his/her evaluations of specific situations. They compared CSE to a tree, saying “Just as the nature of the tree determines the kinds of leaves and branches it will grow, the nature of individuals’ core evaluations affects all their other, lesser evaluations” (Judge et al., p. 157). CSE was argued to have impact on human behavior over interpretations of situations, reactive behaviors, and also general emotional tendency across situations (Judge et al., 1997; 1998).

In fact, many of the currently existing dispositional traits already contain this conceptual property. Specifically, Judge et al. (1997, 1998) argued that CSE is reflected in several core dispositional traits such as self-esteem (i.e., evaluation about one’s own value or worth), general self-efficacy (i.e., judgement of one’s capability to manage critical life events), neuroticism (i.e., judgement of one’s emotional adjustability), and locus of control (i.e., judgement about one’s capacities to control environments and

outcomes). The individual core traits have been investigated separately before CSE was introduced, and have sometimes yielded inconsistent findings (Judge et al., 1998; 2002). The broad dispositional trait (CSE), however, demonstrates that these are highly related to one another and can be aggregated into a common concept. The initial studies on CSE reported advantages of the broadness of CSE – the higher order latent construct of the four core traits – over the individual core traits. For example, researchers demonstrated that the four core traits have high convergent validity by revealing, for instance, strong correlations among the traits (average correlation: .60, Judge, Erez, Thoresen, & Bono, 2002) and a substantial amount of factor loadings of the individual traits on the common latent factor – CSE (Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge et al., 2002). Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2011) argued that isolated examination of the individual traits would also be valuable particularly when specification is the main issue in the research model, such as specific and unique relationships between components of individuals' dispositions and criterion variables. Judge et al. (2002) mentioned, however, that we need to “wonder how much of the effort is overlapping and redundant” (p. 693). By using a broad construct, CSE, we can enhance parsimony, which is one of the essential academic principles, and consistency of dispositional explanations for employees' organizational behaviors.

Even though researchers have examined CSE in various ways, two findings seem most prominent. First, CSE of individual employees has been demonstrated to contribute to increasing the explanatory power of dispositional traits on important organizational outcomes of employees, such as job satisfaction and job performance. Researchers argued that individuals' CSE not only directly influences their job satisfaction because of the generally positive emotional tendency of those high in CSE, but also indirectly

through positive perception of the work environments (e.g., more challenging, complex, significant, autonomous) and their actual selection of the positive work environments (Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; Judge, et al., 1998; Srivastava, Locke, Judge, & Adams, 2010). In addition to job satisfaction, CSE also has appeared to be a strong predictor for job performance. People high in CSE not only have abilities to effectively control performance situations (e.g., social facilitation skills) but also are motivated to achieve desirable work performance (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998). For example, CSE has been reported to have strong associations with motivational factors such as goal-setting behavior, goal commitment, persistence, job engagement, and approach/avoidance orientation that, in turn, promote job performance (Erez & Judge, 2001; Ferris et al., 2011; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010).

Secondly, CSE has been found to play critical roles in individuals' interplay with their external environments. Individuals high in CSE were found to benefit more from environments and cope better with negative environmental impact. Specifically, past studies demonstrated that, under beneficial environments, employees high in CSEs get more from the situations than negative core self-evaluators. For example, Judge and Hurst (2007) found that while having the same parental advantages and early academic advantages, individuals with high CSE capitalize more on those early advantages; thus, they tend to earn more income later in adulthood than those with low CSE. On the other hand, under stressful environments, positive core self-evaluators less often perceive and are less affected by negative situations such as interpersonal and role conflicts (e.g., work-family conflicts) (Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009; Karatepe, Haktanir, & Yorganci, 2010).

This second property of CSE is perhaps closely related to differences of individual voice recipients in reacting to voice situations. Given the critical roles of CSE in individuals' responses to their external contexts, in voice receiving situations, the recipients may show different reactions to assertively/tentatively expressed voice of others depending on the level of the recipient's CSE. On the one hand, at the content level of voice communication, CSE of voice recipients may have an impact on the way in which voice recipients filter the incoming information of voice messages. Specifically, CSE will motivate voice recipients to interpret the assertively expressed voice message in a positive manner allowing them to pay more attention to positive information of the voice message. Bono and Colbert (2005) provided supportive evidence for this argument. They investigated the roles of CSE in feedback-taking situations. According to their study with MBA students receiving feedback about their leadership, participants high in CSE showed more commitment toward their development goals after receiving feedback from others than those low in CSE. In addition, individuals with high CSE took the feedback more constructively even when they received less positive appraisal from others than they had expected. Likewise, voice recipients with high CSE are more likely to seek positive and constructive information incorporated in the assertively expressed voice than those with low CSE. For instance, they may interpret voicing messages expressed assertively (vs. tentatively) as more credible and informative than those low in CSE.

At the relationship-level of voice communication, CSE of voice recipients will attenuate the effect of voice assertiveness on threat perception. In general, high-CSE people believe that they are capable and competent to deal with stressful events (Judge et al., 1997). According to behavioral plasticity theory (Brockner, 1988), people with low

self-esteem (one of the core traits) tend to be more impacted by external factors than those with high self-esteem. In this way, when low-CSE people face negative or stressful situations like poor social support and negative role conditions (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload), they tend to be more reactive and to experience negative emotional responses (Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, & Cummings, 1993). In contrast, high-CSE individuals are less affected by negative events and more flexible in accepting the negative events. For instance, Grant and Sonnentag (2010) found that positive self-evaluators experience positive job performance and less emotional exhaustion (i.e., burn-out). Kammeyer-Mueller et al.'s (2009) research by meta-analyses and an experience sampling method also echoed the behavioral plasticity of low-CSE individuals. Their studies demonstrated that individuals with high CSE are less likely to recognize stressors and to feel strained than those with low CSE. They also reported that high-CSE individuals deal with stressful situations effectively by choosing constructive coping strategies like more problem-solving coping (i.e., reducing the actual stressors) and emotional coping (i.e., cognitively adjusting the stressful situation to reduce the strain). Considering all of these arguments and findings, it would be possible to expect that voice-receiving individuals with high CSE are less likely to interpret an assertive voice as a personal threat than those with low CSE.

*Hypothesis 9.* CSE of voice recipients will moderate the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness of the voicing-message content, such that the positive relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived

constructiveness will be stronger when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.

*Hypothesis 10.* CSE of voice recipients will moderate the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom, such that the positive relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived threats will be weaker when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.

In that CSE of voice recipients moderates the association between voice assertiveness and perceived voice message effectiveness [perceived threat], it will also strengthen [weaken] the specific positive [negative] indirect effect of voice assertiveness, through perceived voice message effectiveness [perceived threat], on voice recipients' reactions. Based on these, I provide the following moderated mediation hypotheses.

*Hypothesis 11.* CSE of voice recipients will moderate the mediation effects of perceived constructiveness between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the positive mediation effects of perceived constructiveness will be stronger when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.

*Hypothesis 12.* CSE of voice recipients will moderate the mediation effects of perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – between voice assertiveness and recipients’ reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the negative mediation effects of perceived threats will be weaker when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.

### 2.5.3 Moderating condition 3: Type of the voice content (i.e., voice type: prohibitive voice vs. promotive voice)

As noted earlier, depending on the focal dimension of the content, employee voice can fall into two different content types: prohibitive voice and promotive voice (Liang, et al., 2012). Prohibitive voice primarily contains concerns that attempt to stop and prevent the existing or potential harm of the status-quo, whereas promotive voice mainly comprises suggestions and ideas that lead to the occurrence of organizational improvement. Given the problem-centric framing, prohibitive voice may present disruptive images of the voicing situation or voice providers despite its benevolent intention. On the other hand, the development-centric properties of promotive voice may project positive impressions of the voicing situation in that it is primarily about progress, achievement, or construction of the current state rather than confrontation and impediment.

The problem-centric and development-centric framing embedded in the two voice types, respectively, would create different psychological conditions of voice-receiving individuals. In particular, past studies demonstrated that prohibitive and promotive stimuli are closely related to individuals' emotional experiences. For instance, Zohar, Tzischinski, and Epstein (2003) argued that inhibitive events and promotive events tend to generate different emotional states in individuals. Specifically, they demonstrated that goal-disruptive work feedback is related to negative emotions of employees who received the feedback, whereas goal-enhancing work feedback is related to their positive emotions. Similarly, Belschak and Den Hartog (2009) found, by multiple methods including scenario experiments and a retrospective survey study using samples of German workers and students, that receiving feedback in terms of negative dimensions of performance from supervisors caused negative emotions in participants, whereas feedback of positive performance caused positive emotions. They also demonstrated that these emotions, in turn, played critical roles in determining subsequent organizational behaviors of individuals. These findings imply that receiving prohibitive voice that underlines problems and interruptions of the status quo is more likely to shape the negative emotional nature of voice recipients than promotive voice that emphasizes developments and occurrences of positive states, and vice versa. This is consistent with what Liang et al.'s (2012) discussion about implications of the two voice types. They pointed out that promotive voice is "expected to bring about improvements that will ultimately benefit the whole community" whereas "prohibitive voice may induce conflict and negative emotions among coworkers and supervisors, upsetting the interpersonal harmony within a work unit" (pp. 75-76).

The positive/negative nature of promotive/prohibitive voice may determine voice recipients' attention that they place when interpreting voice behavior from others. Indeed, studies in cognitive psychology reported that positive affect steers actors' attention to a wide range of positive components of stimuli, whereas negative affect narrows their attention down to the negative factors of stimuli (Wadlinger & Isaacowitz, 2006). In addition, it is reported that positive emotional states are more likely to help actors endure stressful stimuli than negative emotional states (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). Moreover, in changing situations, actors under positive emotional conditions are believed to focus more on positive expectations and less on negative results of the change (Sekerka & Fredrickson, 2008). Furthermore, more closely related to this study, Bryan and Gallois (1992) demonstrated through a scenario experiment that subordinates' negative feedback to supervisors caused significantly more unfavorable evaluations of the subordinates than positive feedback. Specifically, study participants assessed the subordinates' negative feedback-giving to supervisors as causing more negative work outcomes and weakening interpersonal relationships more than the positive feedback-giving situation. In this study, participants evaluated the feedback-giving scenarios as observers, not recipients of the feedback, and did not evaluate the effect of the assertive or tentative speech style on subject reactions; instead, they treated all feedback-giving behaviors as assertive behavior.

Although no research has investigated the interaction between assertive speech and message content types in voice situations, these findings suggest that when perceiving assertive voice, which may contain positive signals at the content level (e.g., competent, clear, credible) and negative signals at the relationship level (e.g., other-controlling, influencing), voice recipients who encounter development-centric voice may pay more

attention to positive signals embedded in assertive voice at the content level (e.g., trustworthiness, importance), whereas those who receive problem-centric voice may pay more attention to negative signals of assertive voice at the relationship level (e.g., forcefulness, offensiveness). For this reason, I expect that voice assertiveness may have a stronger positive relationship with voicing-message effectiveness perception when the voice contains promotive contents such as developmental suggestions and potentially positive outcomes than prohibitive contents such as problems and negative outcomes. Voice assertiveness, however, may have a stronger positive relationship with personal threat perception when the voice is about promotive contents than prohibitive contents.

*Hypothesis 13.* Voice type will moderate the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness, such that the positive relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness will be stronger under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice.

*Hypothesis 14.* Voice type will moderate the relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom, such that the positive relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived threats will be weaker under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice [stronger under prohibitive voice than under promotive voice].

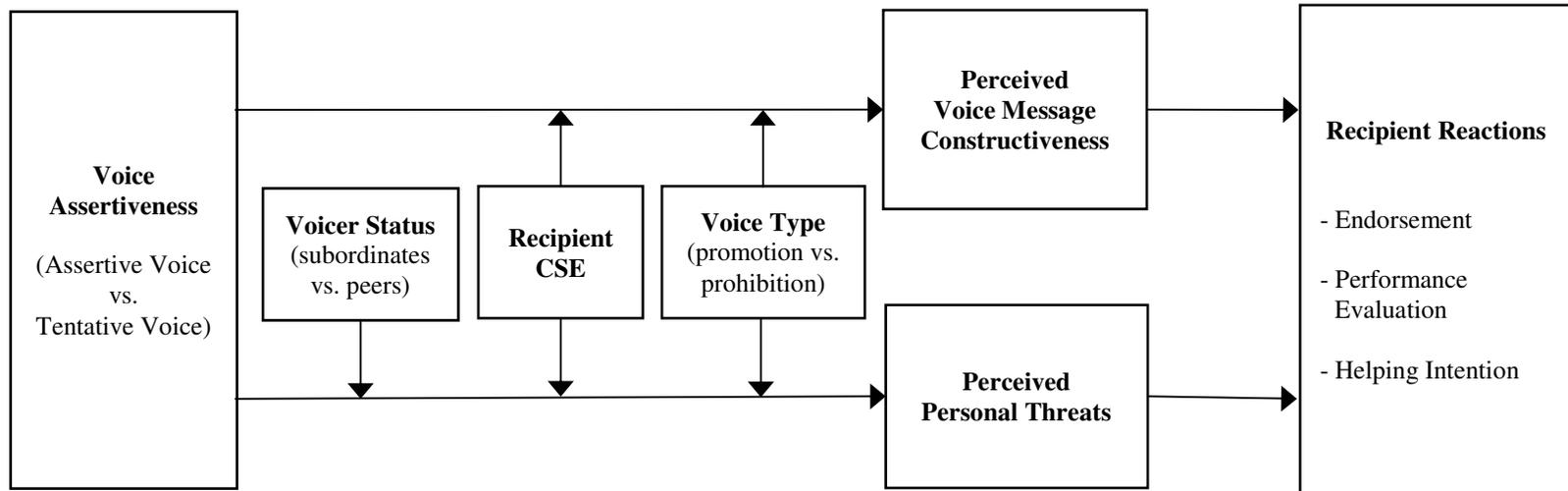
Assuming that the type of voice content moderates the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived voice message effectiveness [perceived threat], the voice content type will also strengthen [weaken] the specific positive [negative] indirect effect of voice assertiveness, via perceived voice message effectiveness [perceived threat], on voice recipients' reactions. Therefore, I suggest the following moderated mediation hypotheses.

*Hypothesis 15.* Voice type will moderate the mediation effects of perceived constructiveness between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the positive mediation effects of perceived constructiveness will be stronger under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice.

*Hypothesis 16.* Voice type will moderate the mediation effects of perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the negative mediation effects of perceived threats will be weaker under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice.

## 2.6 Summary of the Research Model

The research model developed based on the hypotheses is presented in Figure 1. This model specifies two parallel and ambivalent appraisal mechanisms at the content level (constructiveness perception) and at the relationship level (personal threat perception) through which voice assertiveness influences reactions of voice recipients to the voice. In addition, it also specifies the conditions, such as voicer status, recipient CSE, and voice type, that may mitigate or facilitate the appraisals of those receiving assertive voice and, in turn, their reactions.



**Figure 1. Research model.**

## Chapter 3

### 3 STUDY 1: A Scenario-Based Experiment

#### 3.1 Overview

In Study 1, I conducted a scenario experiment online. I used this research method for several important reasons. First, fundamentally, experimental methods are a good way to reveal the causality between variables of interest by ruling out alternative explanations through the use of well-controlled idiosyncratic research settings (Chalmers, 1999). Second, because online experimentation allows researchers to access the sample of a regionally dispersed focal population (Charness, Haruvy, & Sonsino, 2007), it will help to recruit potential participants (managerial-level workers) across regions, industries, and organizations. Finally, scenarios are relatively efficient methods to examine social phenomena that vary event-by-event because scenarios allow researchers to easily create various unique social events, such as assertive and tentative voicing situations.

In this scenario experiment, I manipulated voicers' speech style (i.e., voicer assertiveness), voicer status, and voice content type (i.e., voice type) using a 2 (voice assertiveness: assertive voice vs. tentative voice)  $\times$  2 (voice type: promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice)  $\times$  2 (voicer status: subordinate voice (speaking-up) vs. peer voice (speaking-out)) between-subjects design.

## 3.2 Participants

I recruited working adults who have supervisor experience via Qualtrics panels. 249 participants took part in the online experiment. Thirty-two percent of the participants was female, and the average age was 45.76 years ( $SD = 10.65$ ). All of them had substantial experience as supervisors ( $M = 12.83$ ,  $SD = 8.64$ ). Seventy-nine percent was Caucasian, 5% African American, 7% Hispanic, and 6% Asian. These demographics were not significantly different over experimental conditions except that participants in peer voice conditions were a little older ( $M = 46.50$ ,  $SD = 10.67$ ) than those in subordinate voice conditions ( $M = 44.45$ ,  $SD = 10.59$ ) by about two years,  $F(1, 238) = 4.21$ ,  $p < .05$ .

## 3.3 Procedures and Scenarios

Participants received an email linked to an online survey system. Upon accessing the online survey system, they first read an overview of the study. Then, they were led to an initial survey that contained measures of individual differences like CSE and demographics. After completing the survey, participants were randomly assigned to one of the eight treatment conditions and read the description of the scenario.

For this experiment, I developed a set of scenarios relevant to this research. As in Burris (2012), the scenario employed the framework of ‘voice about a decision made by the voice recipient’. In the scenario, participants were instructed to regard themselves as either a manager (i.e., subordinate voice) or an employee (i.e., peer voice condition) of a professional service company, HSHB. The focal person (the participant) in the scenario is involved in a renovation committee as a committee leader or a peer member to improve

the work-process efficiency of the company. The focal person should suggest one of two potential renovation items – 1) changing the current closed-office design to a team-based open-office plan and 2) upgrading the old computer-network system to a new one – to the committee members, and the committee decided to follow the suggestion. A few weeks later, however, in the middle of the renovation planning, one of the committee members provides voice toward the focal person in one of four different ways – Assertive-Promotive (AsPm), Tentative-Promotive (TnPm), Assertive-Prohibitive (AsPh), and Tentative-Prohibitive (TnPh) during a committee meeting. After reading a randomly assigned script for one of the above-mentioned voicing-message conditions, the participant (voice recipient) answered questions that measure the mediators and dependent variables. It should be noted that this experiment allowed participants to make their own decisions about the renovation item out of two alternatives because their perceptions of and reactions to the voice about what they actually selected could be different from those to the voice about the decision they did not actually make but were just given.

### 3.3.1 Manipulations of voicer status

As stated earlier, each participant took a role of a voice recipient in the scenario. In the subordinate voice condition, participants were asked to regard themselves as a leader of the renovation committee. They encountered voice from a subordinate in the scenario. On the other hand, in the peer voice condition, participants were instructed to think of themselves as an employee attending the renovation committee with other colleagues who have similar status in the organization. They encountered voice from a peer member.

The specific scenarios are as follows.

### **Subordinate-voice scenario**

You are *a managing director* (a member of the top management team) of HSHB, a medium-sized professional service company. Your company has been struggling with a continuous decrease in net profit over the last three years. After exploring its causes, top management learned that this decrease resulted from internal reasons, particularly inefficiency in work processes, rather than from external reasons like unfavorable market conditions. To solve this issue, the company decided to invest funds in the renovation of work environments relating to process efficiency and to form a committee to plan and carry out the renovation project. The renovation committee consists of *a committee leader* (You, *the managing director*) and five subordinates selected from different departments. The committee collected information about the workplace renovation and found two major items that may be helpful to improve work efficiency. The first item was changing the current closed-plan office system, where one or two employees work in separate small offices, to a team-based open floor plan, where employees from each department work together in an open space to enhance interpersonal workflow. The second item was upgrading the current computer and network system (hereafter, computer system) to one that uses the latest technology to promote efficiency of virtual work spaces. Although both items are valuable to consider, because of budget limitations, you, as the leader of the renovation committee, should select and suggest one of the two alternative items. Which one would you prefer and suggest to the other committee members concerning the two renovation options? There is no right answer, but you can choose the renovation project that you believe would be more helpful for organizational development. Please click one of the following items corresponding to your decision. ....

Sounds good! It looks like you think the company should have open-concept offices [a new computer system] to solve the current issue and improve performance. At the first meeting of the renovation committee, you explained to the other committee members the importance of establishing the new open-plan office system [upgrading the computer system]. After your explanation and discussion among the members, the committee members generally agreed with your suggestion. Therefore, by consulting a building remodeling company, the committee is about to develop a specific schedule for the renovation. Today, there is another renovation committee meeting. As soon as the meeting starts, *one of your subordinates* on the committee raises a hand and begins talking to you.

### **Peer-voice scenario**

You are *an employee* of HSHB, a medium-sized professional service company. Your company has been struggling with a continuous decrease in net profit over the last three years. After exploring its causes, top management learned that this decrease resulted from internal reasons, particularly inefficiency in work processes, rather than from external reasons like unfavorable market conditions. To solve this issue,

the company decided to invest funds in the renovation of work environments relating to process efficiency and to form a committee to plan and carry out the renovation project. The renovation committee consists of *six employees selected from all departments including you and five colleagues* who are at the same level as you in the company. The committee collected information about the workplace renovation and found two major items that may be helpful to improve work efficiency. The first item was changing the current closed-plan office system, where one or two employees work in separate small offices, to a team-based open floor plan, where employees from each department work together in an open space to enhance interpersonal workflow. The second item was upgrading the current computer and network system (hereafter, computer system) to one that uses the latest technology to promote efficiency of virtual work spaces. Although both items are valuable to consider, because of budget limitations, the renovation committee should select one of the two alternative items. If you, as a member of the committee, can suggest one of them to the other members, which one would you prefer to suggest? There is no right answer, but you can choose the renovation project that you believe would be more helpful for organizational development. Please click one of the following items corresponding to your decision.

.....

Sounds good! It looks like you think the company should have open-concept offices [a new computer system] to solve the current issue and improve performance. At the first meeting of the renovation committee, you explained to the other committee members the importance of establishing the new open-plan office system [upgrading the computer system]. After your explanation and discussion among the members, the committee members generally agreed with your suggestion. Therefore, by consulting a building remodeling company, the committee is about to develop a specific schedule for the renovation. Today, there is another renovation committee meeting. As soon as the meeting starts, *one of your peer members* on the committee raises a hand and begins talking to you.

### 3.3.2 Manipulations of voicing messages: voice assertiveness × voice type

Four types of voicing messages were created to manipulate the combination of voice assertiveness (assertive voice vs. tentative voice) and voice type (promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice): AsPm, TnPm, AsPh, and TnPh. Because there were two item categories (i.e., renovation items) participants could select, two different sets of scripts for the four message conditions were developed.

The extent of voice assertiveness was manipulated by tentative language usage as in previous studies on assertive speech (e.g., Carli, 1990; Fagale, 2006; Reid et al., 2009). In assertive voice conditions, voicing messages involved little tentative language, such as disclaimers (e.g., *I may be wrong, I don't know exactly, I suppose, I guess*), hedges (e.g., *you know, probably, maybe, kind of, like*), and tag questions (e.g., *what do you think about this?, don't you think?, you know what I mean?, right?*). On the other hand, in tentative voice conditions, the above-mentioned tentative words and phrases were frequently used in the voicing messages.

Prohibitive voice and promotive voice were manipulated following Liang et al.'s (2012) conceptual definitions of prohibitive and promotive voices. In prohibitive voice conditions, the voicing messages expressed concerns and potential problems with the renovation item that the participant selected, calling attention to preventing the harmful factors. In promotion voice conditions, however, the messages focused on expressing new ideas and developmental suggestions and called attention to emergence of better outcomes.

In order to hold the gender of the voicing individual constant, I included no clues regarding the voicer's gender. In addition, I balanced the number of tentative language usages between the tentative prohibitive condition and the tentative promotive condition to keep the level of assertiveness across the two different voice content types. Please refer to Appendix I for details of the voicing messages.

## 3.4 Measurement

### 3.4.1 Initial survey

**CSE.** CSE was measured by a 12-item CSE scale developed by (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). There are several ways to measure CSE, but generally two methods are most common: indirect measurement by four core traits and direct measurement via CSE scale (CSES) (Judge et al., 2003). Judge et al. (2003) found that various indices revealed the reliability (i.e., internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and inter-rater reliability) and validity (i.e., convergent validity and discriminant validity) of CSES. Moreover, they also showed that CSES has an incremental validity beyond a single factor of the four core traits. In addition, CSES demonstrated construct validity in different national contexts, such as Spain and the Netherlands (Judge et al., 2003) and Germany (Stumpp et al., 2010). Finally, the broad measure of CSES is efficient and appropriate unless the study considers the unique structures of specific core traits in the theoretical and empirical aspects (Judge et al., 2002, Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Sample items are “I am confident I get the success I deserve in life,” “Sometimes I feel depressed,” and “When I try, I generally succeed.” The items were assessed on a 5-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

**Demographic variables.** Several demographic variables such as gender, age, ethnicity, supervisor experience were measured.

### 3.4.2 Dependent measures

***Perceived constructiveness of the voicing message.*** Participants were asked to assess the voicing messages they received from the voice provider. Perceived constructiveness is a core concept in the appraisal of voicing message effectiveness (Van Dyne & LePine, 1997; Whiting et al., 2012). Two items from Whiting et al. were used to measure perceived constructiveness: “This person’s comments were constructive” and “This person’s comments are likely to enhance the performance of the company.” They were rated by a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

***Perceived threats.*** Participants appraised three facets of perceived threat. First, perceived threat to achievement was assessed by three items: “This person’s comments are likely to make my superiors question my ability to perform the task if my superiors heard them”, “This person’s comments are likely to make me lose the chance to achieve better performance in my task”, and “This person’s comments are likely to make me receive worse evaluations from my superiors if they heard this person’s comments.” The first two items were adapted from Burriss’s (2012) measure of threat, and the last item was created for this study. Second, threat to social value was assessed by four items of Goldsmith’s (2000) positive face threat scale: “This person’s remarks show that s/he thinks highly of my abilities”, “This person’s remarks make me feel good about myself”, “This person’s remarks make me feel liked and accepted”, and “This person’s remarks show that s/he can really identify with me.” Finally, threat to decision-making freedom

was assessed by four items adapted from Miller et al. (2013)<sup>3</sup>: “This person threatens my freedom to choose”, “This person tried to manipulate me”, “This person tried to make a decision for me”, and “This person tried to pressure me.” Because the original items were written based on general human communications, they were contextualized to the voice situation of this research. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5) was applied.

***Endorsement.*** Endorsement was measured by four items adopted from Burris (2012) to assess the level of voice recipients’ agreement with voicing messages. Items are “How likely is it that you will support this person’s comments when talking with your supervisors?”, “How likely is it that you will support this person’s comments when talking with your supervisors?”, “I think this person’s comments should be implemented”, and “I agree with this person’s comments.” A 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5) was used.

***Performance evaluation.*** Participants evaluated the performance of the voicer based on their observation. Two items, the intention to recommend the person for promotion and for pay raise, were used. The scale ranged from “absolutely not recommend” (1) to “absolutely recommended” (5).

***Helping Intention.*** Intention to help the voicing person was measured by seven items adapted from the interpersonal citizenship behavior scale developed by Williams

---

<sup>3</sup> Not only Miller et al.’s (2013) scale, which was used for this study, but also Goldsmith’s (2000) negative face scale, which evaluates potential losses of one’s autonomy, was appropriate for the measurement of perceived threat to decision-making freedom. Because their measurement properties were not examined sufficiently, I included both scales to compare their validity in this study. However, internal consistency reliability of Goldsmith’s scale was found to be very low (Chronbach’s alpha = .38) while that of Miller et al.’s scale was satisfactory (Chronbach’s alpha = .93). Therefore, only Miller et al.’s scale was used in subsequent analyses and investigations.

and Anderson (1991). I rephrased the items to appropriately capture the participant's intention to help the specific voicing person. Sample items are "I am willing to help this person when he/she has heavy workloads", "I am willing to take time to listen to problems and worries of this person", and "I am willing to pass along information to this person." The scale ranged from "absolutely not recommend" (1) to "absolutely recommended" (5).

### 3.5 Pilot study

Because the voicing messages were created for this study, I first conducted a pilot study with a sample of forty-eight working adults in the United States (average age = 36.23 (SD = 10.55), 192 females (50%) and 192 males (50%)) to check the relevance of the voicing messages. For this, 2 (voice assertiveness: assertive voice vs. tentative voice)  $\times$  2 (voice type: promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice)  $\times$  2 (item category: voice about the new computer system vs. voice about the new office design) within-subject design was applied (N = 384). Specifically, participants read four different kinds of voicing messages for two item categories – eight scripts in total, which were provided in a random order. They were asked to suppose that they were receiving voice from their colleagues. After reading each of them, participants filled out questions to measure voice assertiveness and voice type of the script. The degree of voice assertiveness was rated by a single item, "The speech style of this person is assertive". Meanwhile, voice type was measured by two items, "This person raises a constructive suggestion(s) for the improvement of the company" and "This person speaks up with problems that might cause damage to the

company” for the degrees of promotive voice and prohibitive voice, respectively. Seven-point Likert scales (1: strongly disagree ~ 7: strongly agree) were used for these items.

Three-way within-subjects ANOVA (repeated-measures ANOVA) supported the successful manipulation of voice assertiveness. The analysis of the main effect revealed that participants rated assertive voice as being significantly more assertive ( $M = 3.44$ ,  $SD = 1.59$ ) than tentative voice ( $M = 5.85$ ,  $SD = 0.77$ ),  $F(1, 46) = 93.89$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .67$ . There were no significant interaction effects, ensuring that this voice assertiveness manipulation was not different across the levels of each/both of the other two factors (i.e., two-way/three-way interactions), promotive vs. prohibitive voice and voice about the new computer system vs. voice about the new office design.

Meanwhile, contrary to the linear property of voice assertiveness (i.e., tentative voice as the reverse of assertive voice), promotive voice and prohibitive voice are regarded as individual dimensions of voice behavior that may arise even simultaneously (for instance, Liang et al. (2012) found that they have highly positive, not negative (which means opposite), correlation ( $r = 0.61$ ) (p. 82)). For this reason, I measured both degrees of promotive voice and prohibitive voice to check the relative strength of them (i.e., composite value: the degree of prohibitive voice subtracted from the degree of promotive voice; positive value (+): relative strength of promotive voice to prohibitive voice, negative value (-): relative strength of prohibitive voice to promotive voice) as well as each of them in promotive and prohibitive voice conditions. Three-way within-subjects ANOVA with each of the promotive and prohibitive voice scores as a dependent variable indicated that participants rated promotive voice as significantly more promotive ( $M = 5.46$ ,  $SD = 0.84$ ) and significantly less prohibitive ( $M = 4.23$ ,  $SD = 1.45$ ) than

prohibitive voice (promotive voice score:  $M = 4.53$ ,  $SD = 1.33$ ; prohibitive voice score:  $M = 5.48$ ,  $SD = 0.86$ ),  $F(1, 46) = 24.14$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .34$  and  $F(1, 46) = 31.61$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .41$ , respectively. Another ANOVA with the composite score as a dependent variable also indicated a significant difference in the composite value between promotive voice ( $M = 1.26$ ,  $SD = 1.48$ ) and prohibitive voice ( $M = -0.92$ ,  $SD = 1.57$ ),  $F(1, 45) = 33.66$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .43$ . For these dependent variables, there were no significant two-way/three-way interaction effects of the voice type manipulation with the voice assertiveness manipulation and two item categories, ensuring that the voice type manipulation is not different across the levels of the other factors.

## 3.6 Results of Study 1

### 3.6.1 Manipulation check for voicing messages

Although the pilot study verified the successful manipulations of the voicing message scripts, I double-checked whether participants of Study 1 were primed as intended by using another set of manipulation-check items. As stated earlier, eight scripts of voicing messages were created to manipulate voice assertiveness (assertive voice vs. tentative voice) X voice type (promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice) for the two different item categories (voice about the new office design vs. voice about the new computer system). First, the manipulation of voice assertiveness was found to be successful. The degree of voice assertiveness was evaluated by a single item, "This person states his/her views in a pressure-laden manner". The main effect analysis using three-way ANOVA revealed that the voice assertiveness rating was significantly higher in assertive voice ( $M = 3.33$ ,  $SD =$

1.02) than in tentative voice ( $M = 2.92$ ,  $SD = 1.24$ ),  $F(1, 245) = 9.66$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.04$ . This manipulation was not different depending on voice type and/or the two item categories as neither two-way nor three-way interaction effects of voice assertiveness with these design factors were found to be significant.

On the other hand, voice type was also successfully manipulated. I adopted two promotive voice items, “This person suggests new or alternative ways which are beneficial to the outcomes of the project” and “This person voices out development-oriented suggestions that help our project group reach its goals” ( $\alpha = 0.89$ ), and two prohibitive voice items, “This person advises others against undesirable decisions that would hamper the overall outcome of the project” and “This person speaks up with problems that might cause damage to the project” ( $\alpha = 0.66$ ), which I believe are most appropriate for this study, from Liang et al. (2012). Original items were slightly adjusted relevant to the context of this study.

According to main effect analyses, the degree of promotive [prohibitive] voice was significantly higher [lower] in the promotive voice condition ( $M = 3.93$ ,  $SD = 0.77$  [ $M = 3.20$ ,  $SD = 1.08$ ]) than in the prohibitive voice condition ( $M = 2.81$ ,  $SD = 1.23$  [ $M = 3.94$ ,  $SD = 0.67$ ]),  $F(1, 245) = 79.43$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.25$  [ $F(1, 245) = 41.06$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.14$ ]. Additionally, the composite value (i.e., relative strength of voice type = the degree of promotive voice – the degree of prohibitive voice) was positive ( $M = 0.73$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ) for promotive voice and negative ( $M = -1.13$ ,  $SD = 1.44$ ) for prohibitive voice; the mean values were significantly different,  $F(1, 245) = 130.52$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.35$ . Neither two-way nor three-way interaction effects emerged between voice type and the other factors (voice assertiveness and content category) on any of the

degree of promotive voice, the degree of prohibitive voice, and the composite score, indicating that voice type manipulation was not different over the other design factors. All in all, in line with the pilot study, the voicing message scripts appeared to appropriately manipulate voice assertiveness and voice type.

### 3.6.2 Examination of the measurement model (Confirmatory Factor Analyses)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) demonstrated that the hypothesized measurement model of eight factors, including CSE, four mediators, and three dependent variables, fits the data well ( $\chi^2(601) = 1472.23$ ,  $p < .01$ , CFI = .86, RMSEA = .08). However, factor loadings of two CSE items, “I determine what will happen in my life” and “I am capable of coping with most of my problems” were found to be insignificant at the level of .05, so they were removed.

I reran a separate CFA with the measurement model of several dimensions of threat perception to check whether they would converge on a second order factor (a reflective model) for an overall threat perception. For this, I compared the three factor model having freely estimated correlations between the three latent factors with the nested model having the latent factor correlations fixed at 1. The nested model (second-order common factor model) was a much worse fit ( $\chi^2(44) = 1292.63$ ,  $p < .01$ , CFI = .51, RMSEA = .34) than the parent model (three-factor model) ( $\chi^2(41) = 148.49$ ,  $p < .01$ , CFI = .96, RMSEA = .10), implying that it is not appropriate to aggregate the three dimensions of threat perception to a reflective common factor and that, rather, it is reasonable to investigate the specific dimensions individually or to consider a formative

model in which the overall factor is the composite outcome of unique facets of perceived threat (e.g., principal component analysis, composite latent factor model) if their aggregation is required (MacKenzie, P. M. Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2003).

### 3.6.3 Descriptive analyses.

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) of variables in this study. Correlation analyses show that the more supervisory experiences participants had, the less likely they were to perceive personal threats to achievement ( $r = -.26, p < .01$ ) and to decision-making freedom ( $r = -.23, p < .01$ ) after encountering voice. However, those high in supervisor experience are less likely to endorse what the voicer said ( $r = -.18, p < .01$ ). In addition, participants' age as well as their supervisor experience also indicated similar patterns. Interestingly, however, the relational directions of age with perceived threat to achievement ( $r = -.19, p < .01$ ) and with perceived threat to social value ( $r = .19, p < .01$ ) was opposite, indicating that although seniors, relative to young people, are less likely to regard receiving voice as a threat to their achievement, they are sensitive about the negative impact of receiving voice from others on their social value in the group. Next, voice assertiveness had significant correlations with constructiveness perception ( $r = -.23, p < .01$ ) and threat perception (perceived threat to social value:  $r = .24, p < .01$ ; perceived threat to decision-making freedom:  $r = .28, p < .01$ ). Moreover, these appraisals of voice, particularly, perceived constructiveness and perceived threat to social value tend to have strong

correlations with participants' reactions to the voice (i.e., endorsement) and the voicer (performance evaluation).

**Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables (Study 1).**

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
<b>1. Supervisor experience (year)</b>	12.83	8.64	—													
<b>2. Age (year)</b>	45.76	10.65	.63**	—												
<b>3. Gender (Male=0, Female=1)</b>	0.32	0.47	-.01	.16*	—											
<b>4. CSE</b>	3.84	0.54	.29**	.14*	.01	(.80)										
<b>5. Voicer Status (Peer=0, Subordinate=1)</b>	0.56	0.50	-.08	-.11	-.04	.04	—									
<b>6. Voice Assertiveness (Tentative=0, Assertive=1)</b>	0.51	0.50	.06	.11	.02	-.05	.04	—								
<b>7. Voice Type (Prohibitive=0, Promotive=1)</b>	0.50	0.50	.00	-.02	.01	.01	-.04	.11	—							
<b>8. Perceived Constructiveness</b>	3.67	0.82	-.01	-.06	.04	.02	-.01	-.23**	.22**	(.73)						
<b>9. Perceived Threat to Achievement</b>	2.41	1.07	-.26**	-.19**	-.18**	-.40**	.02	.09	.00	-.04	(.93)					
<b>10. Perceived Threat to Social value</b>	2.97	0.92	.06	.19**	.02	.03	.04	.24**	-.09	-.45**	-.06	(.93)				
<b>11. Perceived Threat to Decision-Making Freedom</b>	2.55	1.12	-.23**	-.12	-.17**	-.40**	.00	.28**	.01	-.23**	.71**	.01	(.93)			
<b>12. Endorsement</b>	3.46	0.74	-.18**	-.20**	.04	-.04	-.06	-.21**	.03	.66**	.01	-.58**	-.09	(.80)		
<b>13. Performance Evaluation</b>	3.48	0.76	.00	-.10	.02	.05	.01	-.05	.12	.52**	.02	-.48**	-.07	.57**	(.86)	
<b>14. Helping Intention</b>	3.90	0.60	.08	.01	.11	.18**	-.02	-.09	-.05	.40**	-.15*	-.29**	-.18**	.45**	.49**	(.88)

Note. N = 242 ~ 249, \* p < 0.05 \*\* p < 0.01, values in brackets represent Chronbach's alphas of multiple-item measures.

### 3.6.4 Hypothesis Tests

#### 3.6.4.1 *Strategy for hypothesis tests*

In order to test the hypotheses, I applied a two-step approach. First, I conducted multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to examine the effect of voice assertiveness on each combination of multiple mediators and multiple dependent variables. For MANOVA, including univariate analyses, sum of squares were calculated by type III sum of square (i.e., partial sum of square) given its advantage for both balanced and unbalanced data (i.e., data having different sample sizes across comparison groups). Because type III SS-based analysis evaluates the effect of a factor after controlling for the other factors in the model, main effects need to be examined without interaction terms that may cause changes in main effects when modeled together (Aiken & West, 1991; Gelman & Hill, 2007). Second, on the basis of the preliminary examination of the model by MANOVA, I performed multivariate regression analysis (MRA) with dummy coding for the design factors (voice assertiveness - assertive voice: 1 and tentative voice: 0, voice type - promotive voice: 1 and probative voice: 0, voicer status - subordinate: 1 and colleague: 0) to evaluate not only specific hypothesized relationships but also mediation and moderated-mediation effects.

ANOVA tends to be preferred for the analysis of experiment data. However, MRA would be more suitable for this study since it makes it possible to investigate all of the specific relationships of interest simultaneously in a model that contains multiple mediators and dependent variables together whereas ANOVA evaluates individual relationships separately for each response variable. More importantly, MRA is good for

the analysis of mediation and moderated-mediation effects of complex process models like this study. Finally, it is convenient to conduct model comparisons with MRA. Mediation effects and moderated-mediation effects were examined following regression-based (un)conditional indirect effect analyses suggested by Hayes and colleagues (Hayes, 2013; Preacher, Hayes, and Rucker, 2007).

Because results of the manipulation check and hypothesis tests were not different between voice about the public art park and voice about the family park, data from these two different item categories were pooled in all analyses..

#### 3.6.4.2 MANOVA

MANOVA revealed that the combination of the four mediators (perceived constructiveness and three dimensions of perceived threat) and also the combination of three dependent variables (endorsement, performance evaluation, and intention to help) were significantly different between assertive voice and tentative voice,  $F(4, 240) = 10.50, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .15$  and  $F(3, 245) = 4.35, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .05$ , respectively (refer to Table 2 for the summary of the mean scores of response variables across manipulated conditions). Differently from the expectation, however, voice assertiveness did not present any interaction effect with voice type ( $F(4, 238) = 1.20, p = .31$ ), voicer status ( $F(4, 238) = 1.26, p = .29$ ), and CSE ( $F(4, 238) = 1.48, p = .21$ ) on the combination of recipients' perceptions of voice. The interaction effects did not occur even on individual variables of recipients' perceptions according to univariate analyses.

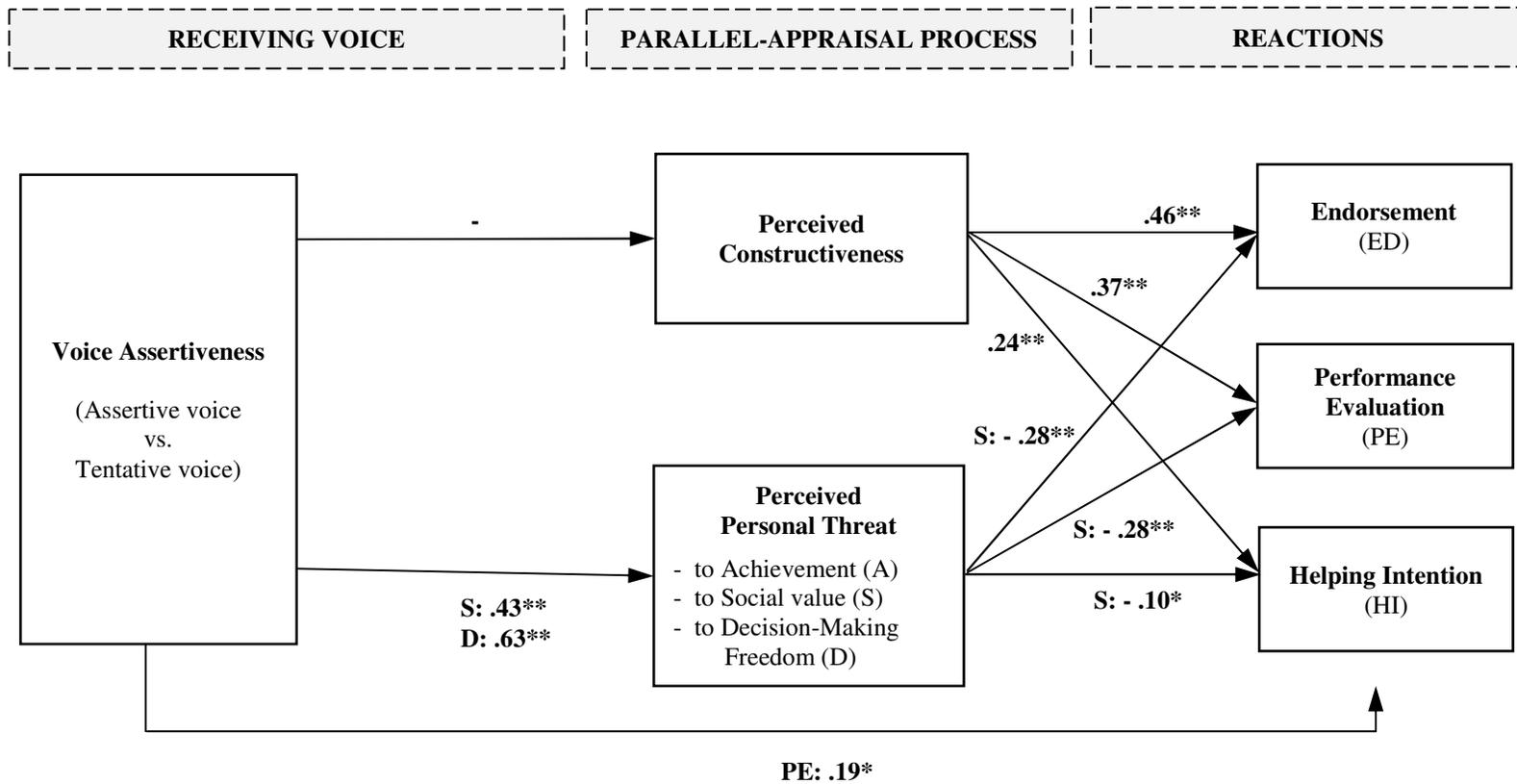
**Table 2. Summary of cell-means of response variables across experiment conditions (Study1).**

		Tentative Voice				Assertive Voice				
		Prohibitive Voice		Promotive Voice		Prohibitive Voice		Promotive Voice		
		Peer	Subordinate	Peer	Subordinate	Peer	Subordinate	Peer	Subordinate	
<b><i>Constructiveness</i></b>		Mean	3.73	3.72	3.80	4.23	3.43	3.06	3.72	3.72
		SD	0.78	0.64	0.65	0.65	0.90	0.92	0.69	0.85
<b><i>Threat to Achievement</i></b>		Mean	2.43	2.41	2.31	2.04	2.11	2.54	2.54	2.58
		SD	1.35	1.11	0.99	0.99	1.27	0.98	0.75	1.03
<b><i>Threat to Social value</i></b>		Mean	2.77	2.90	2.83	2.47	2.99	3.54	3.14	3.04
		SD	0.59	0.97	0.88	0.60	0.87	0.95	0.93	1.07
<b><i>Threat to Decision Freedom</i></b>		Mean	2.21	2.45	2.36	1.81	2.56	2.86	2.93	2.88
		SD	1.21	1.04	1.04	1.12	1.23	0.93	0.97	1.08
<b><i>Endorsement</i></b>		Mean	3.73	3.49	3.52	3.76	3.38	3.14	3.34	3.36
		SD	0.70	0.66	0.64	0.72	0.73	0.85	0.64	0.82
<b><i>Performance Evaluation</i></b>		Mean	3.56	3.32	3.51	3.71	3.44	3.25	3.36	3.68
		SD	0.88	0.71	0.75	0.65	0.72	0.77	0.65	0.83
<b><i>Helping Intention</i></b>		Mean	4.03	3.86	3.91	4.03	4.04	3.83	3.75	3.86
		SD	0.55	0.62	0.57	0.71	0.67	0.61	0.43	0.62

### 3.6.4.3 *Multivariate Regression Analysis (MRA)*

Next, I investigated specific hypothesized relationships and mediation effects using MRA. Because MANOVA indicated the absence of the interaction effects of voice type, voicer status, and CSE, I just examined the unconditional process model with multiple mediators, but not the conditional model with moderation and moderated-mediation effects. Table 3 and Figure 2 present results of the analysis. First, it was found that voice assertiveness had a significant effect on perceived constructiveness,  $B = -.37$ ,  $p < .01$ . The direction, however, was the opposite of Hypothesis 1. Although I expected a positive effect, the result revealed that voice assertiveness has a negative effect on constructiveness perception. Specifically, participants who encountered assertive voice appraised the voice as less constructive ( $M = 3.49$ ,  $SD = 0.88$ ) than those who encountered tentative voice ( $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 0.71$ ) by the mean difference of  $-0.37$  (the unstandardized regression coefficient ( $B$ ) of the dummy-coded independent variable). In addition, in support of Hypothesis 4, voice assertiveness had positive influences on threat perception, particularly perceived threat to social value (Mean Difference ( $B$ ) =  $.43$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and perceived threat to decision-making freedom (Mean Difference ( $B$ ) =  $.63$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Participants who received assertive voice reported more perceived threat to social value ( $M = 3.18$ ,  $SD = 0.98$ ) and to decision-making freedom ( $M = 2.86$ ,  $SD = 1.04$ ) than those who received tentative voice (perceived threat to social value:  $M = 2.75$ ,  $SD = 0.80$ ; perceived threat to decision-making freedom:  $M = 2.23$ ,  $SD = 1.11$ ). However, perceived threat to achievement was just marginally different between assertive voice ( $M = 2.51$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ) and tentative voice ( $M = 2.31$ ,  $SD = 1.12$ ), Mean Difference ( $B$ ) =  $.20$ ,  $p = 0.16$ . Next, with respect to the relationship between recipients' appraisals of voice and

their reactions, results showed that perceived constructiveness of voice recipients has strong positive relationships with their reactions such as endorsement of the voice content ( $B = .46, p < .01$ ), performance evaluation of the voicer ( $B = .37, p < .1$ ), and intention to help the voicer ( $B = .24, p < .01$ ). Also, voice recipients' personal threat perception, in particular, threat to social value (social value) is negatively related to their reactions: endorsement ( $B = -.28, p < .01$ ), performance evaluation ( $B = -.28, p < .01$ ), and helping intention ( $B = -.10, p < .05$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 5 were supported.



**Figure 2. Summary of significant results in the multivariate regression analyses (Study 1). Non-significant effects are not displayed. Coefficients are unstandardized, \*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed),  $N = 249$ .**

**Table 3. Results of MRA for the unconditional mediation model with multiple mediators and dependent variables (Study 1).**

<b>Dependent Variable</b>	<b>Independent Variable</b>	<b>Unstandardized Estimate (B)</b>	<b>Standardized Estimate (<math>\beta</math>)</b>	<b>Standard Error (SE)</b>	<b>t-value (B/SE)</b>
<b>Constructiveness</b>	Voice Assertiveness	-0.37**	-0.22	0.10	-3.59
		$R^2 = 0.05$			
<b>Threat to Achievement</b>	Voice Assertiveness	0.20	0.09	0.14	1.42
		$R^2 = 0.01$			
<b>Threat to Social value</b>	Voice Assertiveness	0.43**	0.24	0.11	3.78
		$R^2 = 0.06$			
<b>Threat to D. Freedom</b>	Voice Assertiveness	0.63**	0.28	0.14	4.40
		$R^2 = 0.08$			
<b>Endorsement</b>	Voice Assertiveness	-0.03	-0.02	0.07	-0.42
	Constructiveness	0.46**	0.54	0.05	8.80
	Threat to Achievement	-0.01	-0.02	0.04	-0.23
	Threat to Social value	-0.28**	-0.38	0.04	-7.55
	Threat to D. Freedom	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.65
		$R^2 = 0.47$			
<b>Performance Evaluation</b>	Voice Assertiveness	0.19*	0.13	0.08	2.45
	Constructiveness	0.37**	0.42	0.06	6.50
	Threat to Achievement	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.25
	Threat to Social value	-0.28**	-0.35	0.05	-6.15
	Threat to D. Freedom	-0.01	-0.02	0.06	-0.24
		$R^2 = 0.29$			
<b>Helping Intention</b>	Voice Assertiveness	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.57
	Constructiveness	0.24**	0.34	0.06	4.05
	Threat to Achievement	-0.08	-0.15	0.05	-1.71
	Threat to Social value	-0.10*	-0.16	0.05	-2.01
	Threat to D. Freedom	0.00	0.00	0.05	-0.04
		$R^2 = 0.16$			

Note. \*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed),  $N = 249$ .

#### 3.6.4.4 *Multiple Mediation Analyses*

Mediation effects were evaluated by testing the product term (i.e., multiplication) of the significant coefficient at the first stage (e.g., the coefficient of voice assertiveness on perceived constructiveness) and the significant coefficient at the second stage (e.g., the coefficient of perceived constructiveness on endorsement), which were calculated after controlling for the independent variable (e.g., voice assertiveness) and the other mediators (e.g., three dimensions of perceived threat) (Preacher and Hayes, 2004). Because there are several potential mediators that may be related or compete with each other in a research model like this study, their mediation effects were examined simultaneously controlling for one another as the MRA result presents (Preacher and Hayes, 2008). Due to the non-normality of the mediation effect product term, I employed the bootstrapped resampling method to calculate the confidence interval of the mediation effect based on the distribution of bootstrapped samples (Preacher and Hayes, 2008; Shrout, & Bolger, 2002).

Table 4 presents the result of multiple mediation effect analyses. Only significant mediation effects were displayed in the table. Perceived constructiveness and perceived threat to social value significantly mediated the relationship between voice assertiveness and each of three variables of recipients' reactions. In other words, assertive voice (vs. tentative voice) caused negative reactions of voice recipients – lower endorsement, lower performance evaluation, and lower intention to help, via higher threat perception to social value and lower constructiveness perception. 95% bootstrap confidence intervals of these indirect effects did not include zero, indicating significant mediation effects. Therefore,

Hypothesis 3 was strongly supported while Hypothesis 6 was partially supported only for perceived threat to social value, but not for the other two dimensions of perceived threat. Finally, as stated earlier, due to the absence of the moderation effects of voice type, voicer status, and recipient CSE, hypotheses related to these moderation effects and subsequent moderated mediation effects were not supported.

**Table 4. Summary of significant mediation effects (Study 1).**

Path	Mediation Effect	95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval <sup>a</sup>	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Voice Assertiveness → Constructiveness → Endorsement	-.17	-.28	-.07
Voice Assertiveness → Constructiveness → Performance	-.13	-.24	-.06
Voice Assertiveness → Constructiveness → Helping	-.09	-.17	-.04
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Endorsement	-.12	-.20	-.06
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Performance	-.12	-.20	-.06
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Helping	-.04	-.10	-.003

Note. Number of bootstrapped samples = 1,000., <sup>a</sup> Bias-corrected confidence intervals.

## Chapter 4

### 4 STUDY 2: A Laboratory Experiment

#### 4.1 Overview

Study 2, a laboratory study, examined the research model with a more realistic design wherein participants believed that they were receiving voice in actual interpersonal interactions. Participants were asked to perform a task in a three-person group as either a group leader or a peer member. In the middle of the task, the participant made a decision about his/her own task and was asked to share it with the other group members via email. Then the participant encountered voicing messages from a member (in reality, a confederate) who conveyed one of four types of voicing messages – assertive or tentative voice with promotive or prohibitive voice content, and then the participant's appraisals and reactions to the voice were measured.

In short, like Study 1, Study 2 also applied a 2 (voice assertiveness: assertive voice vs. tentative voice)  $\times$  2 (voice content type: promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice)  $\times$  2 (voicer status: subordinate voice vs. peer voice) between-subjects design.

#### 4.2 Participants

204 undergraduate students enrolled in a management course at Western University participated in the study, receiving course credits for their participation. I removed 28

cases because they reported that they did not receive appropriate voicing messages<sup>4</sup>. Fifty percent of the participants were female, and there was no gender difference between experimental conditions.

### 4.3 Procedure

Groups of six participants joined in one-hour experimental sessions. At the beginning of the session, an experimenter explained the study to participants. The purpose of the study was introduced as the investigation of the impact of fit between personal characteristics and task types on work performance in groups. They learned that they would randomly constitute a three-person work group to perform a park construction project for a new part of a town communicating with each other online, like doing a city construction simulation game (e.g., SimCity). They were also told that, to complete the project, each member in the work group should independently perform one of three different types of tasks – conceptual task (park theme decision); financial task (cost calculation); scheduling task (developing a construction schedule) that would be assigned based on the analysis of fit between the task and participants' personal characteristics. Moreover, they learned that, if they made decisions that the other members needed to know, they should share them by sending emails to the members.

After receiving instructions, participants made two three-person groups by being randomly seated in individual cubicles, which were equipped with computers, apart from

---

<sup>4</sup> 19 students reported that they did not receive any voicing messages from their group members, and 9 students indicated that they received voicing messages from the other group member who actually did not.

each other<sup>5</sup>. They were told that they would not be given detailed information about their group members, except for member names, to minimize potential biases resulting from first impressions in the performance evaluation that would be done later on. They were also informed that email could be used for communicating with the other members of the group, if necessary. They first completed a survey that contained brief personality measures, including CSE, and ancillary items that participants were led to believe would be used for making task assignments.

After filling out the initial survey, participants were asked to read the specific procedure of the project (Appendix II). When they moved to the next page of the online work system, they could find the task the system indicated as best-suited to them. Although they were told that three participants made a group and that each of them should take one of three different tasks and roles based on the analysis of the initial survey, in reality, they did not actually make work groups with one another (the other members they should interact with online were indeed RAs in another room) and took the same task – park theme selection – regardless of the initial survey. This procedure was intended to make participants believe that the communication in the group was real and that they had relevant capabilities and/or authority in the task assigned to them.

After the task allocation, participants read specific instructions for the task of determining a park model that would be proper for a newly constructed part of a town named Moran. Two alternative park models – ‘family fun park’ and ‘public art park’ – as well as basic information about the town and residents were provided (refer to Appendix III for details). Participants were instructed to decide which park model they thought to

---

<sup>5</sup> When there were absentees, research assistants joined in the group acting as participants.

be appropriate for the town and to let the other members know of the decision and reasoning by sending emails to them. The emails, in fact, were sent to research assistants (RAs) who were in a separate room. About a minute later, one member (RA) replied to the email with a short supportive message like “Good ideas! I think you’re probably right about the park model.” In a few more minutes (about 5 minutes), the other group member (RA) sent replies with one of four types of manipulated voicing messages – Assertive-Promotive (AsPm), Tentative-Promotive (TnPm), Assertive-Prohibitive (AsPh), and Tentative-Prohibitive (TnPh) that were prepared in advance. In order to make the voice behavior more realistic, the voicing messages were sent in twice. The second email included just a short message that adds a simple idea to the voicing messages in the first email.

After encountering the voicing messages, participants were asked to move to the next round of the task. Before that, they were instructed to answer two sets of surveys. The first survey was introduced as a questionnaire associated with group work processes; this survey actually evaluated not only the relevance of the manipulations but also appraisals of the voice such as perceived constructiveness and perceived threats of the voice behavior. Next, the second set of survey questions measured the degree of the endorsement of the voicing message content as well as the performance evaluations of the group members.

After answering the questions, they were informed that there were no more stages to move on. The true purpose of the study and the deceptions were explained, giving a final chance to withdraw the participation.

### 4.3.1 Manipulation of voicer status

In peer-voice conditions, the participant read that the data revealed that he/she was the most appropriate person in the group for the conceptual task of deciding the park theme. On the other hand, in the speaking-up condition (voice from subordinates), the participant was informed at the beginning that one of the group members should take a leader role and that the analysis of the personal characteristics revealed that he/she was most relevant to directing the work group and that the group leader should perform the conceptual task due to the importance of the role in directing the project.

### 4.3.2 Manipulations of voicing messages: voice assertiveness × voice type

In the assertive voice condition, the voicing messages did not contain any tentative languages, such as disclaimers (e.g., *I may be wrong, I don't know exactly, I suppose, I guess*), hedges (e.g., *you know, probably, maybe, kind of, like*), and tag questions (e.g., *what do you think about this?, don't you think?, you know what I mean?, right?*). On the other hand, in the tentative voice condition, tentative language was expressed frequently. To ensure that the two conditions were distinguished only by the assertiveness and tentativeness, the basic messages kept consistent over the conditions except for the presence or absence of tentative language.

Meanwhile, the manipulation of the voice content type followed Liang et al.'s (2012) definitions. Both of the promotive and prohibitive voice conditions fundamentally challenge the status quo – the selection of the certain park model; however, they differed

in focus. In the prohibitive voice condition, the messages focused on the problems of the current park model and the concerns about its potential negative outcomes whereas, in the promotive voice condition, they centered around potential positive outcomes of implementing the other park model instead of the current one.

The number of tentative words and phrases used in the voicing messages remained balanced between tentative promotive and tentative prohibitive voice conditions. Because there were two possible park models the participant can select, one of two sets of voicing messages was used corresponding to the participant's selection. Please refer to Appendix IV for all scripts of the voicing email messages.

## 4.4 Measurement

The same measures as Study 1 were used for Study 2. Helping intention, however, was not included in dependent variables to reduce items in the survey.

### 4.4.1 Initial survey

**CSE.** CSE was measured by a 12-item CSES scale developed by (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). Sample items are "I am confident I get the success I deserve in life," "Sometimes I feel depressed," and "When I try, I generally succeed." The items were assessed on a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5).

**Demographic variables.** Demographic variables such as gender and age were reported.

#### 4.4.2 Dependent measures

***Perceived constructiveness.*** Two items from Whiting et al. (2012) were used to measure perceived constructiveness: “This person’s comments were constructive” and “This person’s comments are likely to enhance the performance of the company.” They were rated by a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

***Perceived threats.*** Three dimensions of perceived threat were rated. First, perceived threat to achievement was assessed by three items used in Study 1. Sample items are “This person’s comments are likely to make my superiors question my ability to perform the task if my superiors heard them”, and “This person’s comments are likely to make me lose the chance to achieve better performance in my task”. Second, threat to social value was assessed by four items of Goldsmith’s (2000) positive face threat scale. Sample items are “This person’s remarks show that s/he thinks highly of my abilities” and “This person’s remarks make me feel good about myself”. Finally, threat to decision-making freedom was measured by four items adapted from Miller et al. (2013). Sample items are “This person threatens my freedom to choose” and “This person tried to manipulate me”. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5) was applied.

***Endorsement.*** Endorsement was measured by four items used in Study 1, including “I think this person’s comments should be implemented”, and “I agree with this person’s comments.” A 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5) was used.

***Performance evaluation.*** The intention to recommend the person for promotion and for pay raise were assessed. The scale ranged from “absolutely not recommend” (1) to “absolutely recommended” (5).

## 4.5 Results

### 4.5.1 Manipulation check for voicing messages

Like study 1, I created scripts of voicing messages to manipulate voice assertiveness (assertive voice vs. tentative voice) X voice type (promotive voice vs. prohibitive voice) following similar procedures to Study 1 scripts. Two sets of these voicing message scripts were written corresponding to two different item categories (voice about the public art park vs. voice about the family park). For the manipulation check, I adopted same questions as Study 1. The degree of voice assertiveness was rated by a single item, “This person states his/her views in a pressure-laden manner”. Voice type was evaluated by four items adopted from Liang et al. (2012): two items for promotive voice - “This person suggests new or alternative ways which are beneficial to the outcomes of the project” and “This person voices out development-oriented suggestions that help our project group reach its goals” ( $\alpha = 0.71$ ), and two items for prohibitive voice - “This person advises others against undesirable decisions that would hamper the overall outcome of the project” and “This person speaks up with problems that might cause damage to the project” ( $\alpha = 0.86$ ). Three-way ANOVA of voice assertiveness X voice type X two item categories exhibited that the manipulation of voice assertiveness was successful. From main effects only model, I found that voice assertiveness rating was significantly higher in assertive voice ( $M = 4.41$ ,  $SD = 0.52$ ) than in tentative voice ( $M = 4.05$ ,  $SD = 0.76$ ),  $F(1, 160) = 12.87$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.07$ . Interaction models did not show any two nor three-way interactions of voice assertiveness with voice type and/or the two item categories, indicating the voice assertiveness manipulation was consistent across conditions of the

other factors. Voice type was also found to be successfully manipulated. According to main effect analyses, the degree of promotive [prohibitive] voice was significantly higher [lower] in promotive voice ( $M = 3.70$ ,  $SD = 0.81$  [ $M = 2.98$ ,  $SD = 0.99$ ]) than in prohibitive voice ( $M = 2.62$ ,  $SD = 1.06$  [ $M = 3.84$ ,  $SD = 0.68$ ]),  $F(1, 159) = 53.08$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.25$  [ $F(1, 159) = 30.27$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.21$ ]. Moreover, the composite score of the relative strength of promotive voice to prohibitive voice (i.e., the prohibition voice level subtracted from the promotion voice level) was positive ( $M = 0.72$ ,  $SD = 1.14$ ) for promotive voice and negative ( $M = -1.22$ ,  $SD = 1.29$ ) for prohibitive voice; the mean values were significantly different,  $F(1, 159) = 102.53$ ,  $p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.39$ . Neither two-way nor three-way interactions were found between voice type and the other factors (voice assertiveness and content category) on any of the degree of promotive voice, the degree of prohibitive voice, and the composite score, indicating that voice type manipulation was consistent across conditions of the other factors.

#### 4.5.2 Examination of the measurement model (Confirmatory Factor Analyses)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed that the hypothesized seven factor model that included CSE, the four mediators, and the two dependent variables (endorsement and performance evaluation) fit the data well ( $\chi^2(443) = 745.60$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $CFI = .85$ ,  $SRMR = .08$ ,  $RMSEA = .06$ ), and all factor loadings were significant at the .001 level. In a separate CFA, I evaluated the possibility that the three dimensions of perceived threat can be converged on a second order factor (a reflective model). According to the nested model comparison, the second-order common factor model is much worse ( $\chi^2(44) =$

442.39,  $p < .01$ , CFI = .50, SRMR = .19, RMSEA = .24) than the three-factor model ( $X^2(41) = 65.44$ ,  $p < .01$ , CFI = .97, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .06). Consequently, it is not appropriate to aggregate the three dimensions of threat perception to a reflective common factor. As in Study 1, the specific facets of perceived threat were investigated in Study 2.

### 4.5.3 Descriptive analyses

Table 5 presents means, standard deviations, correlations, and Cronbach's alphas of variables in this study. Correlation analyses showed that, as in Study 1, voice assertiveness had significant correlations with variables related to recipients' perceptions and reactions to the voice. However, these variables did not have significant correlations with voicer status as well as voice type. Furthermore, voice recipients' appraisals of voice were highly correlated with their reactions to voice. Most of the relational patterns were similar to those found in Study 1.

**Table 5. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables (Study 2).**

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<b>1. Age (year)</b>	18.25	1.18	—											
<b>2. Gender (Male=0, Female=1)</b>	0.50	0.50	-.15*	—										
<b>3. CSE</b>	3.60	0.52	-.12	-.18*	(.84)									
<b>4. Voicer Status (Peer=0, Subordinate=1)</b>	0.49	0.50	-.10	-.04	.04	—								
<b>5. Voice Assertiveness (Tentative=0, Assertive=1)</b>	0.59	0.49	.06	.10	.06	.03	—							
<b>6. Voice Type (Prohibitive=0, Promotive=1)</b>	0.48	0.50	.05	.10	-.07	-.09	-.02	—						
<b>7. Perceived Constructiveness</b>	3.52	0.78	.01	.07	.06	.08	-.16*	.14	(.63)					
<b>8. Perceived Threat to Achievement</b>	2.37	0.82	-.05	.19*	-.06	-.13	.18*	.06	-.14	(.81)				
<b>9. Perceived Threat to Social value</b>	3.50	0.76	-.09	.09	.05	-.10	.22**	-.11	-.40**	.21**	(.88)			
<b>10. Perceived Threat to Decision-Making Freedom</b>	2.51	0.99	.10	.07	.00	-.22*	.42**	.03	-.37**	.38**	.34**	(.87)		
<b>11. Endorsement</b>	3.08	0.78	.04	.08	-.03	.05	-.19*	.03	.47**	-.09	-.30**	-.33**	(.72)	
<b>12. Performance Evaluation</b>	3.21	0.76	.00	.18*	-.06	.11	-.25**	.07	.56**	-.12	-.41**	-.32**	.47**	(.85)

Note. N = 125 ~ 176, \* p < 0.05 \*\* p < 0.01, values in brackets represent Chronbach's alphas of multiple-item measures.

## 4.5.4 Hypothesis Tests

### 4.5.4.1 *Strategy for hypothesis tests*

For hypothesis tests, I employed the two-step approach as in Study 1. First, I conducted multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), including univariate analyses, to examine the effect of voice assertiveness on each combination of multiple mediators and multiple dependent variables. Second, on the basis of the preliminary examination of the model by MANOVA, I performed multivariate regression analysis (MRA) with dummy coding for the design factors (voice assertiveness - assertive voice: 1 and tentative voice: 0, voice type - promotive voice: 1 and probative voice: 0, voicer status - subordinate: 1 and colleague: 0). Finally, mediation effects and moderated-mediation effects were examined following Hayes and colleagues' (un)conditional indirect effect analyses (Hayes, 2013; Preacher, Hayes, and Rucker, 2007). Data from two different voice item categories were pooled since results of the manipulation check and hypothesis tests were not different between them.

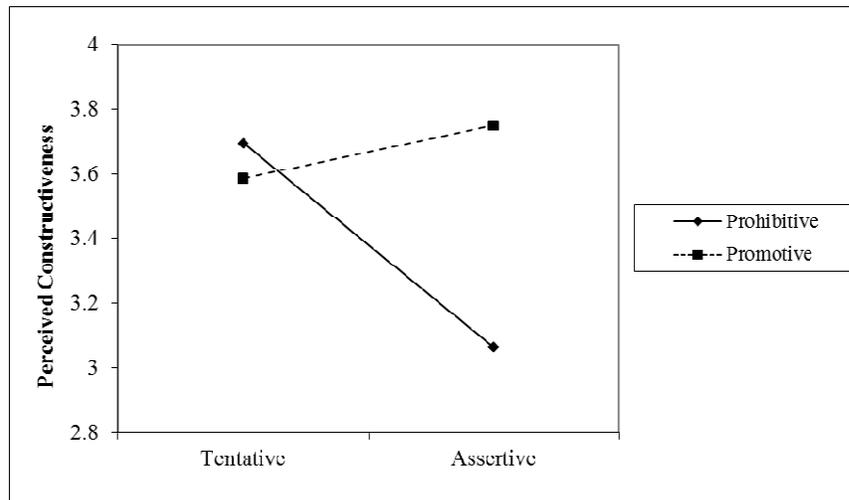
### 4.5.4.2 *MANOVA*

MANOVA revealed that the combination of the four mediators (perceived constructiveness and three dimensions of perceived threat) and also the combination of two dependent variables (endorsement and performance evaluation) were significantly different between assertive voice and tentative voice,  $F(4, 120) = 10.50, p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .20$  and  $F(2, 148) = 4.35, p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .07$ , respectively (refer to Table 6 for the summary of the mean scores of response variables across manipulated conditions).

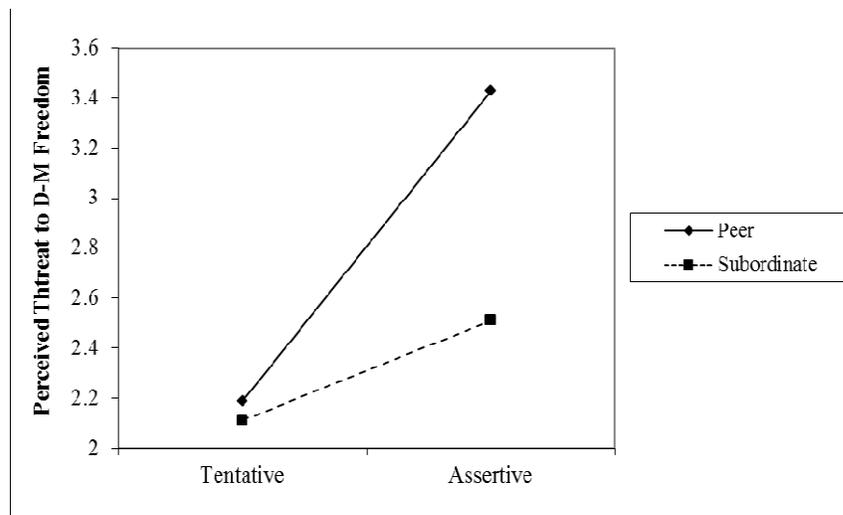
With respect to the hypothesized interaction effects, voice assertiveness had a significant interaction effect with voice type on the set of recipients appraisals (mediators) ( $F(4, 114) = 2.65, p < .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .09$ ), particularly on perceived constructiveness ( $F(1, 117) = 8.70, p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .07$ ). Figure 3 illustrates the pattern of this interaction effect. For prohibitive voicing messages, participants who received assertive voice reported significantly lower perceived constructiveness ( $M = 3.14, SD = .90$ ) than those who received tentative voice ( $M = 3.72, SD = .80$ ),  $F(1, 152) = 11.43, p < .01$ . However, for promotive voicing messages, participants' perception of constructiveness was not significantly different between assertive voice and tentative voice ( $F(1, 152) = 0.22, p = .64$ ) although assertive voice recipients showed a tendency to report more constructiveness perception ( $M = 3.67, SD = .67$ ) than tentative voice recipients ( $M = 3.59, SD = .58$ ). Moreover, although voice assertiveness had an interaction effect with voicer status on the combination of four mediators just at the marginal level of significance ( $F(4, 114) = 2.13, p = .08$ ), univariate analyses revealed that the significant interaction effect occurred specifically on perceived threat to decision-making freedom ( $F(1, 117) = 7.60, p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .06$ ). As Figure 4 shows, when the voicer was a peer, participants receiving assertive voice reported significantly more threat perception to their decision-making freedom ( $M = 3.43, SD = .74$ ) than those receiving tentative voice ( $M = 2.19, SD = .76$ ),  $F(1, 121) = 33.10, p < .01$ . However, when the voicer was a subordinate, participants' perception of threat to decision-making freedom was not significantly different between assertive voice recipients ( $M = 2.51, SD = .99$ ) and tentative voice recipients ( $M = 2.11, SD = .94$ ),  $F(1, 121) = 3.18, p = .08$ , even though voice assertiveness showed a positive relational tendency with the threat perception.

**Table 6. Summary of cell-means of response variables across experiment conditions (Study 2).**

		Tentative Voice				Assertive Voice				
		Prohibitive Voice		Promotive Voice		Prohibitive Voice		Promotive Voice		
		Peer	Subordinate	Peer	Subordinate	Peer	Subordinate	Peer	Subordinate	
<b><i>Constructiveness</i></b>		Mean	3.80	3.62	3.55	3.65	2.77	3.32	3.77	3.72
		SD	0.70	0.88	0.43	0.77	1.00	0.75	0.44	0.67
<b><i>Threat to Achievement</i></b>		Mean	2.13	2.08	2.44	2.13	2.56	2.53	2.64	1.96
		SD	0.66	0.98	0.59	0.66	0.81	1.18	0.76	0.96
<b><i>Threat to Social Value</i></b>		Mean	3.45	3.31	3.34	3.17	3.92	3.85	3.72	3.44
		SD	1.11	0.79	0.60	0.93	0.52	0.77	0.72	0.56
<b><i>Threat to Decision Freedom</i></b>		Mean	2.07	2.11	2.27	2.12	3.47	2.46	3.38	2.61
		SD	0.95	0.97	0.62	0.92	0.79	1.05	0.71	0.92
<b><i>Endorsement</i></b>		Mean	3.20	3.35	3.13	3.27	2.88	2.83	2.99	3.08
		SD	0.75	0.65	0.75	0.93	0.75	0.92	0.67	0.80
<b><i>Performance Evaluation</i></b>		Mean	3.33	3.52	3.29	3.53	2.80	2.99	3.12	3.24
		SD	0.84	0.70	0.68	0.81	0.88	0.80	0.68	0.63



**Figure 3. Interaction effect of voice assertiveness and voice type on perceived voice constructiveness.**



**Figure 4. Interaction effect of voice assertiveness and voicer status on perceived threat to decision-making freedom.**

#### 4.5.4.3 MRA

Next, I conducted MRA to investigate mediation and moderated-mediation effects as well as specific hypothesized relationships (Table 7). I first analyzed the unconditional process model without considering moderation effects. Even though analyses of variance indicated some moderation effects, I did not include them in this stage because main effects and mediation effects are less interpretable when significant moderation effects were modeled together (Aiken & West, 1991; Gelman & Hill, 2007). Moderated-mediation analyses of the conditional process model followed by mediation effect analyses will take them into account. As in Study 1, results exhibited that voice assertiveness has a negative effect on perceived constructiveness,  $B = -.24$ ,  $p < .05$ , differently from Hypothesis 1. Specifically, participants who received assertive voice appraised the voice as less constructive ( $M = 3.35$ ,  $SD = 0.85$ ) than those who encountered tentative voice ( $M = 3.64$ ,  $SD = 0.7$ ) by the mean difference of  $-0.24$  (the unstandardized regression coefficient ( $B$ ) of the dummy-coded voice assertiveness). In addition, voice assertiveness had positive effects on three facets of threat perception – perceived threat to achievement (Mean Difference ( $B$ ) =  $.30$ ,  $p < .05$ ), perceived threat to social value (Mean Difference ( $B$ ) =  $.33$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and perceived threat to decision-making freedom (Mean Difference ( $B$ ) =  $.83$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Participants who received assertive voice reported more threat perception to their achievement ( $M = 2.48$ ,  $SD = 0.97$ ), social value ( $M = 3.77$ ,  $SD = 0.67$ ), and decision-making freedom ( $M = 2.96$ ,  $SD = 0.97$ ) than those who received tentative voice (perceived threat to achievement:  $M = 2.23$ ,  $SD = 0.74$ ); perceived threat to social value:  $M = 3.31$ ,  $SD = 0.83$ ; perceived threat to decision-making freedom:  $M = 2.17$ ,  $SD = 0.84$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was strongly

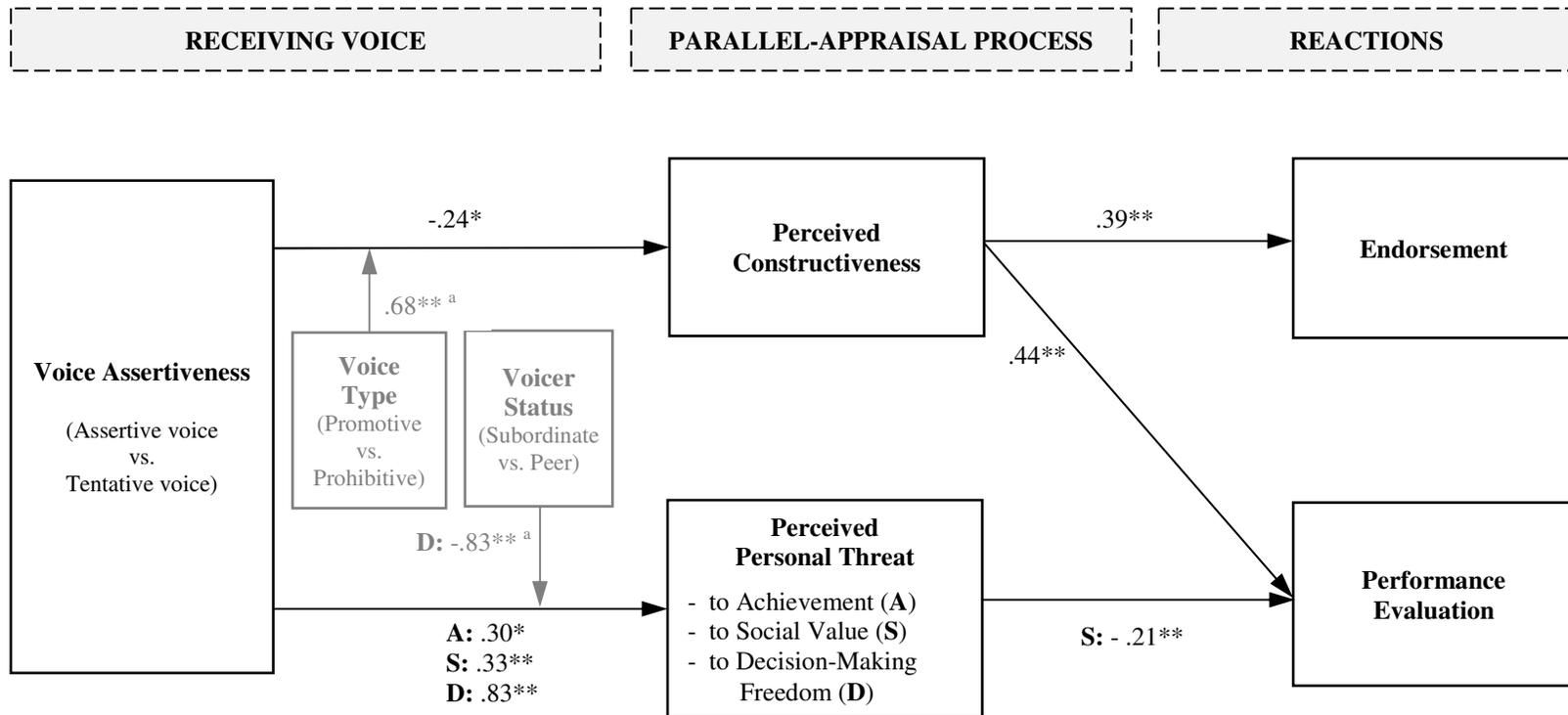
supported. Furthermore, with respect to the relationship between recipients' appraisals of voice and their reactions, results showed that perceived constructiveness of voice recipients is positively related to their reactions to the voice, such as endorsement of the voice content ( $B = .39, p < .01$ ) and performance evaluation of the voicer ( $B = .44, p < .01$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported. However, when constructiveness perception was controlled, threat perception was not strongly related to recipients' reactions. But, like Study 1, perceived threat to social value still showed a significant negative relationship with performance evaluation ( $B = -.21, p < .01$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported. Figure 5 summarizes the significant paths of Study 2.

**Table 7. Results of MRA for the unconditional mediation model with multiple mediators and dependent variables (Study 2).**

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unconditional Process Model			Conditional Process Model		
		Unstandardized Estimate, B (Standardized Estimate, $\beta$ )	Standard Error	t-value	Unstandardized Estimate, B (Standardized Estimate, $\beta$ )	Standard Error	t-value
<b>Constructiveness</b>							
	Voice Assertiveness (VA)	-.24 (-.15)*	.12	-1.97	-.57 (-.37)**	.19	-3.07
	Voice Type (VT)				-.13 (-.08)	.17	-0.79
	VA x VT				.68 (.39)**	.23	2.91
		$R^2 = .023$			$R^2 = .092$		
<b>Threat to Achievement</b>							
	Voice Assertiveness	.30 (.18)*	.13	2.34	.30 (.18)*	.13	2.34
		$R^2 = .032$			$R^2 = .032$		
<b>Threat to Social Value</b>							
	Voice Assertiveness	.33 (.22)**	.12	2.78	.33 (.22)**	.12	2.74
		$R^2 = .048$			$R^2 = .048$		
<b>Threat to Decision-Making Freedom</b>							
	Voice Assertiveness (VA)	.83 (.42)**	.16	5.05	1.22 (.61)**	.19	6.37
	Voicer Status (VS)				-.08 (-.04)	.20	-0.39
	VA x VS				-.83 (-.37)**	.32	-2.6
		$R^2 = .173$			$R^2 = .280$		
<b>Endorsement</b>							
	Voice Assertiveness (VA)	-.09 (-.06)	.12	-0.70	.14 (.09)	.21	0.64
	Constructiveness	.39 (.40)**	.08	4.93	.41 (.42)**	.08	5.05
	Threat to Achievement	.05 (.06)	.08	0.72	.06 (.06)	.08	0.72
	Threat to Social value	-.11 (-.11)	.07	-1.61	-.11 (-.11)	.07	-1.48
	Threat to D. Freedom	-.11 (-.15)	.08	-1.47	-.12 (-.16)	.08	-1.46
	Voice Type (VT)				-.04 (-.02)	.17	-0.20

	VA x VT				-.05 (-.03)	.24	-0.20
	Voicer Status (VS)				.15 (.10)	.18	0.86
	VA x VS				-.38 (-.22)	.24	-1.59
				$R^2 = .227$		$R^2 = .249$	
<hr/>							
<b>Performance Evaluation</b>							
	Voice Assertiveness (VA)	-.17 (-.11)	.12	-1.45	-.02 (-.01)	.20	-0.07
	Constructiveness	.44 (.47)**	.08	5.66	.46 (.48)**	.08	5.78
	Threat to Achievement	.03 (.04)	.06	0.55	.04 (.04)	.07	0.57
	Threat to Social value	-.21 (-.22)**	.07	-3.18	-.21 (-.21)**	.07	-3.03
	Threat to D. Freedom	-.05 (-.06)	.08	-0.59	-.04 (-.06)	.08	-0.51
	Voice Type (VT)				.01 (.01)	.15	0.06
	VA x VT				-.05 (-.03)	.21	-0.23
	Voicer Status (VS)				.21 (.14)	.15	1.44
	VA x VS				-.28 (-.17)	.20	-1.39
				$R^2 = 0.329$		$R^2 = 0.345$	

Note. \*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$ , (two-tailed),  $N = 158$ . Voice Assertiveness (0: Tentative voice, 1: Assertive voice), Voice Type (0: Prohibitive, 1: Promotive), Voicer Status (0: Subordinate, 1: Peer).



**Figure 5. Summary of significant results (Study 2).**

Non-significant effects are not displayed. Coefficients are unstandardized (B). <sup>a</sup> Coefficients of moderating effects were calculated by the analysis of the conditional process model while the other coefficients (main effects) were calculated based on the analysis of the unconditional process model (see Table 7). \*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed),  $N = 158$ .

#### 4.5.4.4 Multiple Mediation Analyses (Unconditional Process Model)

Mediation effects were evaluated by testing the product term of the significant coefficient at the first stage and the significant coefficient at the second stage of the unconditional process model. Table 8 presents significant multiple mediation effects where 95% bootstrap confidence intervals do not contain zero. Similarly to Study 1, perceived constructiveness and perceived threat to social value were found to mediate the relationship between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions. Specifically, perceived constructiveness negatively mediated the influence of assertive voice (vs. tentative voice) on each of endorsement and performance evaluation while perceived threat to social value did on performance evaluation. Their 95% bootstrap confidence intervals did not include zero. Consequently, Hypothesis 3 was strongly supported while Hypothesis 6 was partially supported only for perceived threat to social value.

**Table 8. Summary of significant mediation effects (Study 2).**

Path	Mediation Effect	95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval <sup>a</sup>	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Voice Assertiveness → Constructiveness → Endorsement	-.09	-.20	-.01
Voice Assertiveness → Constructiveness → Performance	-.10	-.22	-.01
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Performance	-.07	-.17	-.02

Note. Number of bootstrapped samples = 1,000., <sup>a</sup> Bias-corrected confidence intervals.

#### 4.5.4.5 *Moderation and Moderated Mediation Analyses (Conditional Process Model)*

Finally, I conducted moderated mediation analyses for the conditional process model that incorporates moderation effects that were found in the preliminary investigation by AVOVAs. This conditional process model examines whether mediation effects are contingent on the level of moderators (Hayes, 2013). Results (see the conditional process model in Table 9) exhibited that, as ANOVAs revealed above, voice type had a significant moderation effects on the voice assertiveness-perceived constructiveness relationship ( $B = .68, p < .01$ ), supporting Hypothesis 15. Moreover, voicer status also had a significant moderation effect on the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived threat to decision-making freedom ( $B = -.83, p < .01$ ). As Figure 4 illustrated, the direction of this significant moderation effect was the opposite of Hypothesis 7. Based on these moderation effects, I conducted moderated mediation analysis, so-called conditional indirect effect analysis (Hayes, 2013), in an attempt to test whether or not these moderators would even have influences on indirect effects. Specifically, I examined the change in the indirect effect of voice assertiveness, via recipients' appraisals, on their reactions depending on the level of voice type and voicer status. I applied Hayes's (2012, p. 35) PROCESS model 8 (see Appendix V) to test the moderated-mediation effects in the model. For instance, the conditional indirect effect of voice assertiveness (x), via perceived constructiveness (m), on endorsement (y) depending on the level of voice type (w) can be examined by the following procedure.

Step 1: *Perceived Constructiveness* =

$$a_0 + (a_1 + a_3 \text{Voice Type}) \text{Voice Assertiveness} + a_2 \text{Voice Type} + e_m$$

Step 2: *Endorsement* =  $b_0 + b_1 \text{Perceived Constructiveness} +$

$$(c_1 + c_3 \text{Voice Type}) \text{Voice Assertiveness} + c_2 \text{Voice Type} + c_{4i} \text{Covariates}_i + e_y$$

Step 3: *Moderated mediation effect (i.e., Conditional Indirect Effect)* =  $(a_1 + a_3 \text{Voice Type})b_1$

The actual product term of the moderated mediation effect can be obtained from the regression coefficients of the conditional process model in Table 20:  $(-.57 + .68 * \text{Voice Type}) * .41$ . Again, like the mediation effect analysis, I used bootstrap confidence intervals to judge the significance of the moderated-mediation effect (see Table 9). When voice type is prohibitive, the 95% confidence interval of the mediation effect (-.23) did not contain zero (i.e., significant negative mediation effect). When voice type is promotive, however, the confidence interval of the mediation effect (.04) included zero (i.e., insignificant mediation effect). Consequently, this meaningful change from the significant mediation to the insignificant mediation over the type of voice messages supports the existence of the moderated mediation effect. Likewise, the indirect effect of voice assertiveness, via perceived constructiveness, on performance evaluation was also contingent on voice type. For prohibitive voice, the confidence interval of the mediation effect did not include zero, indicating the significant mediation effect of perceived constructiveness. For promotive voice, however, the confidence interval included zero, indicating the absence of the mediation effect. The fact that the mediation effect of constructiveness perception occurs only for prohibitive voice, but not for promotive voice supports the existence of the moderated-mediation effect.

**Table 9. Summary of significant moderated-mediation effects (Study 2).**

Path	Moderator	Level	Mediation Effect	95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval <sup>a</sup>	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Voice Assertiveness → Constructiveness → Endorsement	Voice Type	0: Prohibitive voice	-.23	-.44	-.08
		1: Promotive voice	.04	-.06	.17
Voice Assertiveness → Constructiveness → Performance	Voice Type	0: Prohibitive voice	-.26	-.45	-.09
		1: Promotive voice	.05	-.07	.19

Note. Number of bootstrapped samples = 1,000., <sup>a</sup> Bias-corrected confidence intervals.

## Chapter 5

## 5 SUMMARY of HYPOTHESIS TESTS

Category	#	Hypothesis	Study 1	Study 2	Comment
Mediation of Perceived Constructiveness	H1	Voice assertiveness will have a positive effect on perceived constructiveness of the voicing-message content.	No support	No support	<b><u>Significant negative effect</u></b>
	H2	Perceived constructiveness will have positive relationships with recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement of voice, (b) performance evaluation of the voicer, and (c) helping intention (i.e., intention to help the voicer).	<b><u>Support</u></b>	<b><u>Support</u></b>	
	H3	Perceived constructiveness will mediate the relationships between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention.	<b><u>Support</u></b>	<b><u>Support</u></b>	
Mediation of Perceived Threats	H4	Voice assertiveness will have positive effects on perceived personal threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom.	<b><u>Partial support: 2 and 3</u></b>	<b><u>Support</u></b>	
	H5	Perceived personal threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – will have negative relationships with recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention.	<b><u>Partial support: 2a, 2b, and 2c</u></b>	<b><u>Partial support: 2b</u></b>	
	H6	Perceived personal threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – will mediate the relationships between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions, such as (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention.	<b><u>Partial support: 2a, 2b, and 2c</u></b>	<b><u>Partial support: 2b</u></b>	
Moderation of Voicer Status (Subordinate vs. Peer)	H7	Voicer status will moderate the relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived personal threats – 1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom, such that the positive relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived threats will be stronger when voice providers are subordinates than when they are peers.	No support	No support	<b><u>Significant opposite moderation for (3) threat to decision freedom (Study 2)</u></b>
	H8	Voicer status will moderate the mediation effects of perceived threats – 1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making	No support	No support	<b><u>Significant opposite moderation for (3)</u></b>

		freedom – between voice assertiveness and recipients’ reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the negative mediation effects of perceived threats will be stronger when voice providers are subordinates than when they are peers.			<b><u>threat to decision freedom (Study 2)</u></b>
Moderation of CSE	H9	CSE of voice recipients will moderate the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness of the voicing-message content, such that the positive relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness will be stronger when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.	No support	No support	
	H10	CSE of voice recipients will moderate the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom, such that the positive relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived threats will be weaker when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.	No support	No support	
	H11	CSE of voice recipients will moderate the mediation effects of perceived constructiveness between voice assertiveness and recipients’ reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the positive mediation effects of perceived constructiveness will be stronger when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.	No support	No support	
	H12	CSE of voice recipients will moderate the mediation effects of perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – between voice assertiveness and recipients’ reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the negative mediation effects of perceived threats will be weaker when CSE of voice recipients is high than when it is low.	No support	No support	
Moderation of Voice Type (Promotive vs. Prohibitive)	H13	Voice type will moderate the relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness, such that the positive relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness will be stronger under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice.	No Support	<b><u>Support</u></b>	
	H14	Voice type will moderate the relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom,	No support	No support	

		such that the positive relationships between voice assertiveness and perceived threats will be weaker under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice [stronger under prohibitive voice than under promotive voice].			
	H15	Voice type will moderate the mediation effects of perceived constructiveness between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the positive mediation effects of perceived constructiveness will be stronger under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice.	No support	<b><u>Support</u></b>	
	H16	Voice type will moderate the mediation effects of perceived threats – (1) perceived threat to achievement, (2) perceived threat to social value, and (3) perceived threat to decision-making freedom – between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions – (a) endorsement, (b) performance evaluation, and (c) helping intention. Specifically, the negative mediation effects of perceived threats will be weaker under promotive voice than under prohibitive voice.	No support	No support	

## Chapter 6

### 6 MODEL MODIFICATION (Parallel-Appraisal Model vs. Serial-Appraisal Model)

#### 6.1 Overview

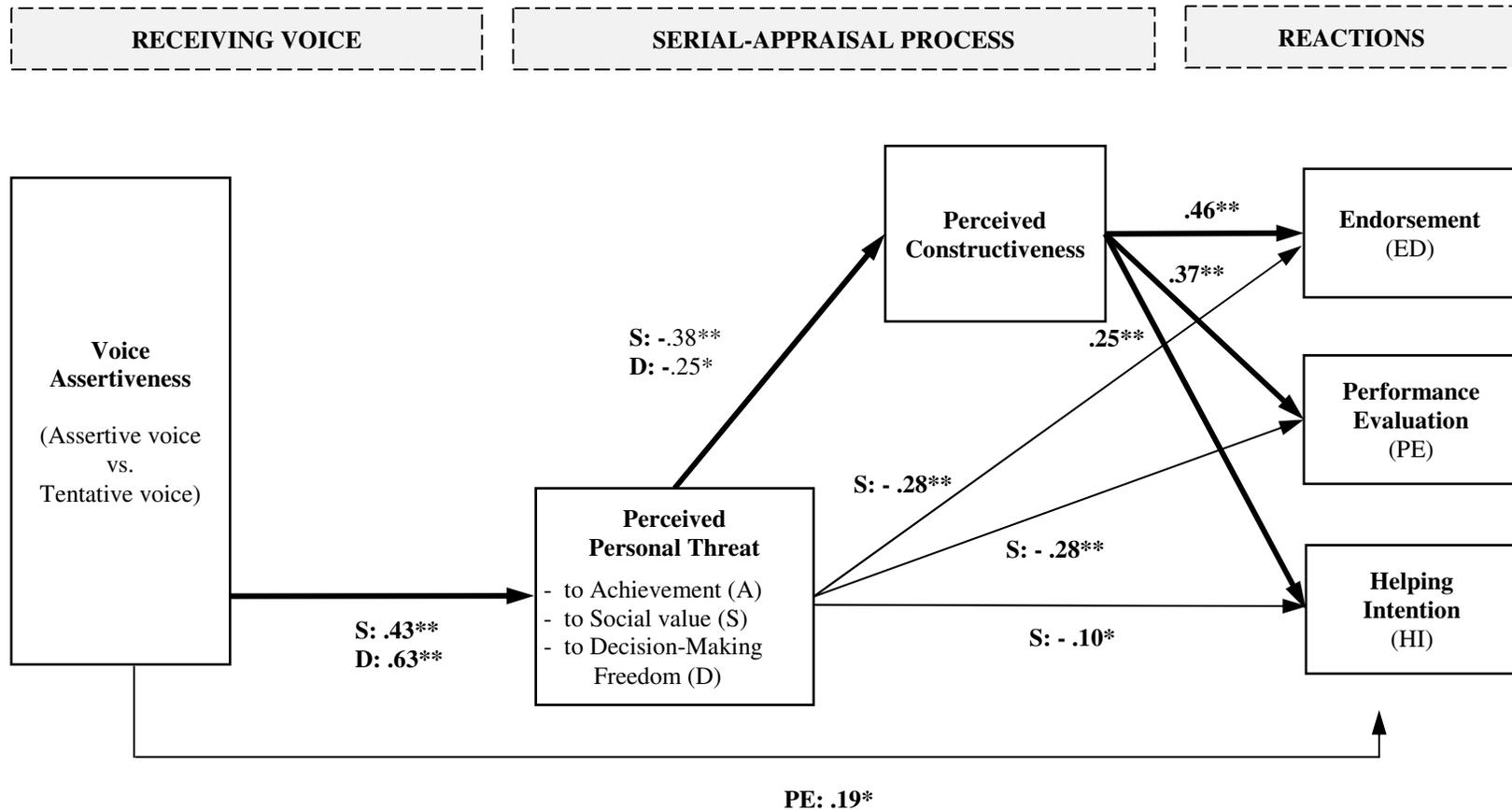
I assumed the ambivalent influence of assertive voice on recipients' appraisals to the voice. That is, it was expected that assertive voice (vs. tentative voice) would have a positive effect on voice recipients' appraisal of message effectiveness (constructiveness) at the content-level communication, but have a negative effect on the appraisal of personal threat at the relationship-level communication. This ambivalence assumption implied that recipients' appraisals in these two levels individually emerge as parallel processes of the influence of voice assertiveness. Contrary to the expectation, however, results of both Study 1 and Study 2 provided strong evidence that voice assertiveness is likely to have negative impact not only on threat perception at the relationship-level communication but also on constructiveness perception at the content-level communication. Recalling the argument that individuals experiencing negative affect or unpleasantness, tend to restrict their attentions to negative dimensions of stimuli while individuals experiencing positive affect are likely to broadly perceive positive aspects as well (Sekerka & Fredrickson, 2008; Wadlinger & Isaacowitz, 2006), this finding may imply the possibility that these two types of appraisal dimensions happen in serial rather than in parallel, such that recipients' relationship-level appraisal on personal threats of

assertive voice, which is affective (unpleasant) in nature according to appraisal theory, precedes their appraisals on constructiveness of the voicing message. I examined this alternative hypothesis by comparing the two potential models (parallel-appraisal model vs. serial-appraisal model) in Studies 1 and 2.

## 6.2 Study 1

Paths from three perceived threats to perceived constructiveness, controlling for voice assertiveness, were added to the modified model (i.e., serial-appraisal model) (see Figure 6 for the modified model). Perceived threats to social value ( $B = -.25, p < .01$ ) and perceived threat to decision-making freedom ( $B = -.38, p < .01$ ) presented significant negative relationships with perceived constructiveness. In addition, it is notable that, after adding the mediation of these perceived threats, the direct effect of voice assertiveness on constructiveness perception, which was significant in the model without these mediation paths, turned insignificant ( $p = .42$ ), indicating the full mediation of the perceived threats between voice assertiveness and constructive perception. It supports the serial-appraisal model in which lower constructiveness perception of assertive voice recipients (vs. tentative voice recipients) is likely to be the result of their threat perception. The significance of serial mediation effects was tested. As seen in table 10, indirect effects of voice assertiveness, via serial-appraisals (perceived threats to social value and decision-making freedom  $\rightarrow$  constructiveness perception), on each of recipients' reactions appeared to be significant (partial mediations given the significant direct effects). Finally, according to the chi-square difference test, the model fit of the serial-mediation model ( $\chi^2 (df = 3) = 177.44$ ) is significantly better than that of the parallel-mediation model that

fixes the linkages from perceived threats to constructiveness perception to zero ( $\chi^2$  (df = 6) = 242.58),  $\Delta \chi^2$  (df = 3) = 65.14,  $p < 0.01$ .



**Figure 6. Summary of significant results of the serial-appraisal model (Study 1).** Non-significant effects are not displayed. Coefficients are unstandardized (B). \*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed),  $N = 249$ .

**Table 10. Summary of significant mediation effects (the serial-appraisal model, Study 1).**

Path	Mediation Effect	95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval <sup>a</sup>	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Constructiveness → Endorsement	-0.08	-0.13	-0.04
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Constructiveness → Performance	-0.06	-0.12	-0.03
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Constructiveness → Helping	-0.04	-0.08	-0.02
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to D. Freedom → Constructiveness → Endorsement	-0.07	-0.13	-0.03
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to D. Freedom → Constructiveness → Performance	-0.06	-0.11	-0.02
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to D. Freedom → Constructiveness → Helping	-0.04	-0.08	-0.02
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Endorsement	-0.12	-0.20	-0.06
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Performance	-0.12	-0.20	-0.06

Note. Number of bootstrapped samples = 1,000., <sup>a</sup> Bias-corrected confidence intervals.

### 6.3 Study 2

The same procedure as Study 1 above was applied to the modification of Study 2. The modified model (i.e., serial appraisal model) exhibited similar results as that in Study 1 (see Figure 7). Perceived threat to social value ( $B = -.38, p < .01$ ) and perceived threat to decision-making freedom ( $B = -.25, p < .01$ ) had significant relationships with perceived constructiveness. In addition, the addition of the mediations of perceived threats, the significant direct effect of voice assertiveness on constructiveness perception became insignificant ( $p = .72$ ), indicating full mediations of the two perceived threats. Table 11 shows that serial-mediation effects of perceived threats to social value and decision-making freedom between voice assertiveness and recipients' reactions are significant as they are negative but their 95% confidence intervals do not include zero. The absence of direct effects on endorsement reveals the full mediation of the serial-appraisal mechanism in the influence of voice assertiveness on endorsement although it partially mediated the influence of voice assertiveness on performance evaluation. Finally, the chi-square difference test revealed that the model fit of the serial-appraisal model ( $\chi^2 (df = 3) = 27.09$ ) is significantly better than that of the parallel-appraisal model that fixes the threat perception-perceived constructiveness linkages to zero ( $\chi^2 (df = 6) = 58.47$ ),  $\Delta \chi^2 (df = 3) = 31.38, p < 0.01$ .

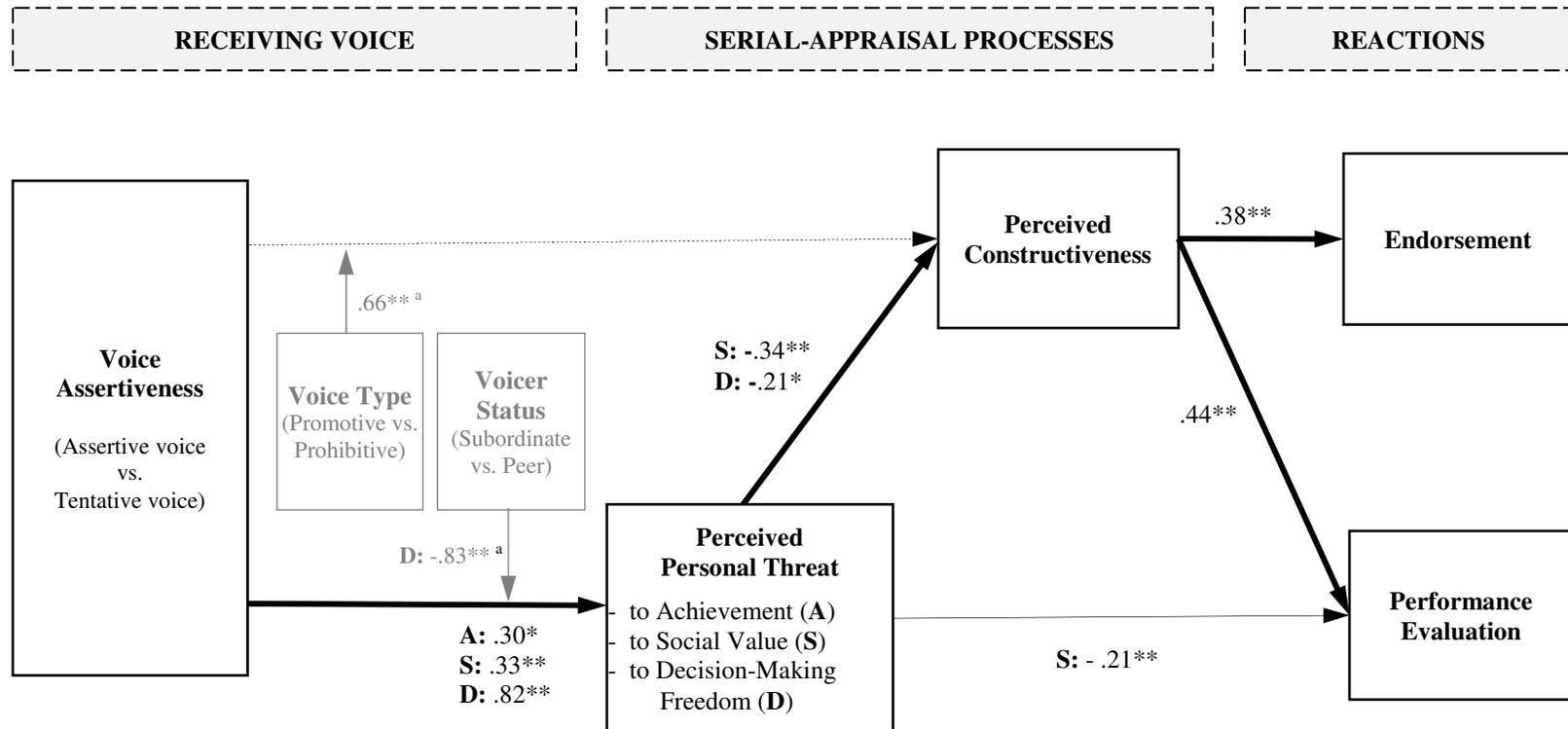
Next, I examined the conditional serial-appraisal model in which the serial mediation effects can be contingent on the moderators that were found to be significant (voice type and voicer status). In this model, voicer status emerged as a critical condition that determines the serial mediation effect. As table 12 presents, when voicer is peer,

assertive voice (vs. tentative voice) caused significantly negative reactions of recipients (lower endorsement and lower performance evaluation) through the serial-appraisal process of perceived threat to decision-making freedom and perceived constructiveness.

However, when voicer is subordinate, these indirect influences of assertive voice were less likely to be significant as the 95% confidence intervals did not exclude zero.

Although voice type still moderated the direct relationship between voice assertiveness and perceived constructiveness regardless of the indirect influence of threat perception, it did not moderate the mediation effect of constructiveness on recipients' reactions at the significant level, as the confidence intervals contain zero at both levels of voice type.

Finally, chi-square test supported the superiority of the conditional serial-appraisal model ( $\chi^2$  (df = 13) = 35.42) to the original conditional parallel-appraisal model ( $\chi^2$  (df = 18) = 69.25),  $\Delta\chi^2$  (df = 5) = 33.83,  $p < 0.01$ .



**Figure 7. Summary of significant results of the serial-appraisal model (Study 2).**

Non-significant effects are not displayed. Coefficients are unstandardized (B). <sup>a</sup> Coefficients of moderating effects were calculated by the analysis of the conditional process model while the other coefficients (main effects) were calculated based on the analysis of the unconditional process model. \*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed),  $N = 158$ .

**Table 11. Summary of significant mediation effects (the serial-appraisal model, Study 2).**

Path	Mediation Effect	95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval <sup>a</sup>	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Constructiveness → Endorsement	-0.04	-0.10	-0.01
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Constructiveness → Performance	-0.05	-0.12	-0.01
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to D. Freedom → Constructiveness → Endorsement	-0.07	-0.15	-0.02
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to D. Freedom → Constructiveness → Performance	-0.08	-0.18	-0.02
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to Social Value → Performance	-0.07	-0.17	-0.02

Note. Number of bootstrapped samples = 1,000., <sup>a</sup> Bias-corrected confidence intervals.

**Table 12. Summary of significant moderated-mediation effects (the serial-appraisal model, Study 2).**

Path	Moderator	Level	Mediation Effect	95% Bootstrap Confidence Interval <sup>a</sup>	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to D. Freedom → Constructiveness → Endorsement	Voicer	0: Peer	-0.111	-0.26	-0.04
		1: Subordinate	-0.035	-0.13	0.00
Voice Assertiveness → Threat to D. Freedom → Constructiveness → Performance	Voicer	0: Peer	-0.126	-0.28	-0.04
		1: Subordinate	-0.040	-0.15	0.00

Note. Number of bootstrapped samples = 1,000., <sup>a</sup> Bias-corrected confidence intervals.

## Chapter 7

### 7 DISCUSSION

#### 7.1 Summary of Findings

The purpose of this research was to investigate the consequences of employee voice, focusing on assertiveness of voice behavior and its influences on voice-receiving individuals' perceptual appraisals and responses. Based on a review of the literature, I proposed a process model that describes the influential mechanisms of voice assertiveness as well as conditions that may guide the nature of the influential processes. From the two experimental studies, I found that it is valuable to consider the role of voice assertiveness in voicing situations in order to understand why certain voice behaviors are responded to more favorably than others.

##### 7.1.1 Voice assertiveness and its influential mechanisms

First and foremost, results of two studies demonstrated that voice assertiveness is a critical determinant of recipients' perceptions and reactions to the voice. Compared to a powerful (assertive) speech, a powerless (tentative) speech in employee voice was more powerful in eliciting voice recipients' favorable responses to the voice (e.g., endorsement) and to the voicer (e.g., higher performance evaluation and helping intention), because tentative voice (vs. assertive voice) leads recipients to perceive the voice as less threatening and more effective (constructive). The hypothesis about the positive influence of voice assertiveness on the content-level evaluation of the message constructiveness

was rejected; rather, voice assertiveness was found to have a negative association with the constructiveness appraisal. This suggests that, in voicing situations, the content-level advantage of assertive speech may be lower and, rather, that the disadvantage in the relationship-level appraisals of assertiveness underlies the content-level appraisal as well. To examine this alternative argument, I investigated the influential mechanisms in detail. Results revealed that perceived threats (in particular, perceived threats to social value and decision-making freedom) and perceived constructiveness were strong mediators of the influences of voice assertiveness on the recipients' responses; however, the two mediating mechanisms were found to comprise a serial process such that the appraisal of voicing-message constructiveness at the content level may result from the appraisal of threats at the relationship level of voice communication. These findings about the influential mechanisms of voice assertiveness were consistently and strongly supported across Studies 1 and 2.

### 7.1.2 Moderating conditions

On the other hand, the impact of voice assertiveness appeared to be contingent upon the type of voice and the status of voicing individuals, although this was found only in the lab experiment (Study 2). First, recipients found tentative voice, as compared to assertive voice, more constructive when the voice was framed with prohibitive contents such as problems, concerns, and potential occurrence of negative outcomes; however, they did not perceive a significant disparity in constructiveness between assertive voice and tentative voice when the voice content was framed with promotive contents, such as new suggestions, creative ideas, and occurrence of positive outcomes although they showed a

(non-significant) tendency to perceive assertive voice, in comparison to tentative voice, as somewhat more constructive. It should be noted that the moderating effect of voice type emerged in the direct effect of voice assertiveness on constructiveness perception but not at the indirect effect via the influence of voice assertiveness on threat perception as no significant moderation effect of voice type appeared on threat perceptions.

Prohibitive voice contents that are framed based on problems and possible negative end-states, rather than suggestions and positive end-states, can be considered as simply complaining from the perspective of voice recipients. For this reason, prohibitive voice itself is inherently negative in nature (Liang et al., 2012). If the prohibitive voice is conveyed in a strong rather than careful way, it may cause recipients to have strong negative feelings (e.g., irritated, annoyed) even if the voice does not directly threaten the recipient. The coercive and interruptive nature of assertively expressed prohibitive voice may lead recipients to pay more attention to the disadvantages and deficiencies of the voiced content rather than to expand their attention to positive information in it (Fredrickson, 2001). Therefore, it may result in negative appraisals of the effectiveness of assertive voice with prohibitive message contents, as indicated in Figure 3.

Second, the relative status between the voicer and recipient was found to have a moderating effect between voice assertiveness and perceived threat to decision-making freedom; however, the direction was the opposite that of the hypothesis. Specifically, I assumed that, because of status or power that leaders have in work units, leaders, relative to peers receiving voice from other peers, would be more hostile against subordinates' assertive voice behavior. I found, however, that assertive voice from peers was perceived as more threatening to decision-making freedom than assertive voice from subordinates.

This finding implies that, rather than leaders simply expecting that lower-status individuals should stay calm or raise their voice carefully, they may be open, even more than peers, to listening to what subordinates have to say regardless of the extent of assertiveness with which they speak up, because leaders may think that it is their duty to find and solve potential issues in the work unit (Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013). Conversely, it also suggests that overly confident peer voicers would easily activate threat perception in terms of their decision-making autonomy, which may eventually lead to recipients' reactance. In today's work environments, peers are conceived of as core interaction partners of employees. For instance, Chiaburu and Harrison's (2008) meta-analytic research showed that co-workers have a substantial and unique influence on employees' work experiences, as much as (or even more than) leaders. Their integrative model suggests that co-worker influences can be a type of either support or antagonism. Peers may want to help their colleagues by voicing suggestions and concerns. The current research, however, demonstrates that the intention to support peers by speaking up can be perceived as a form of hassle, like potential harm for their decision-making freedom, in the view of the support-receiving colleagues regardless of the original intention. It also revealed that the effort to support can be compensated in an adverse way by the form of lower agreement, evaluation, and helping if the voice is expressed in an assertive way. The finding of this study may provide specific evidence of Detert et al.'s (2013) claim that voice behavior toward peers is less likely to be effective than voice behavior toward leaders.

Finally, contrary to the expectation, voice recipients' CSE did not show any significant moderating effects on the influences of voice assertiveness on recipients'

appraisals. Results revealed the possibility, however, that CSE may be a predictor of threat perception, rather than a moderator. The significant, negative correlations between CSE and perceived threats (see Table 1) are supportive of this possibility. It is also similar to Fast et al.'s (2014) argument that self-perceptions of managers – specifically, managers' self-efficacy, which is close to one of the core traits (i.e., generalized self-efficacy) of CSE (Judge et al., 1998) – would be a source of managers' perception of threat.

## 7.2 Theoretical Implications

This dissertation may contribute to the research on voice in several important ways. First, it would expand our understanding on voice behavior by shifting our focus from its quantity (i.e., frequency) to its qualitative strength (conveying method). While investigating outcomes of voice, past studies predominantly relied upon the quantity of voice behavior (Detert et al., 2013) and examined the relationship of the frequency of voice behavior to its outcomes (Morrison, 2011). The present study, however, suggests that voice is more than an issue of how often employees engage in voice – voice behavior elicits different responses from recipients depending on the way in which it is conveyed or spoken. For instance, this research shows that, similar to how an excessive degree of voice (quantity) may produce negative effects (e.g., Mackenzie et al., 2011), excessive or irrelevant voice in terms of expression style (quality) may also generate negative outcomes. Overall, this research helps us to realize that both the quantitative and qualitative properties of voice behavior should be considered simultaneously for a proper description of voice phenomena.

Secondly, voice is actually a bilateral process between the voice provider and recipient in that one's challenging expression to another would elicit the recipient's reactions. It is the recipient who determines whether or not to adopt voicing messages and utilize them for the organization. No matter how valuable the content of the voiced message may be, it is impossible for these voicers to provide value to the organization if the recipient disagrees with or rejects the message. Therefore, how and why voice recipients react to voice behavior in certain ways must be another important dimension of understanding voice phenomena. Nevertheless, so far, when dealing with employee voice, researchers have generally placed greater attention on voice primarily from the voicer's perspective rather than from the voice recipient's perspective. By exploring what is happening on the voice recipient's side as well, this study may contribute toward a more balanced description of employee voice from the views of both the voicer and recipient. In particular, the examination of this research about the mechanisms that govern favorable or unfavorable responses of voice recipients to employee voice may help disclose the so-called "black box" that explains the relationship between employee voice and its outcomes.

The findings of this research underscore the role of the recipients' relationship-level appraisal, which is affective in nature, in the outcome process of employee voice. In this research, I initially proposed a parallel-appraisal model wherein the content-level evaluation of voicing messages and the relationship-level evaluation of personal threats arise as individual processes – the positive effect of voice assertiveness on the conscious appraisal of message effectiveness but the adverse effect on the relationship-level appraisals of personal threats. This model assumed that voice recipients' reactions are

determined by combining these individual pieces of information from the two appraisal dimensions. Unlike this assumption, however, the results of the empirical investigations showed that the relationship-level appraisal of personal threats could be a dominant mechanism that defines even the conscious appraisal of message effectiveness and, furthermore, recipients' reactions to the voice behavior. There was no direct positive effect of voice assertiveness on message effectiveness perception. Rather, it was found that voice assertiveness is negatively related to the appraisal of message effectiveness and that the perceived personal threats fully mediated this relationship. It implies that, like voicing employees, voice recipients are also susceptible to the socio-emotional evaluations of how receiving voice from others would impact their personal aspects. In line with Grant's (2013) recent argument that the way of dealing with emotional nature has an important effect on the outcome process of voice, this research also implies that affective mechanisms like threat perception may play a pivotal role in the recipients' reaction processes.

Another contribution of this research to the voice literature is that it specified three facets of personal threat appraisal that voice recipients may have while encountering assertive voice behavior. Burris (2012) demonstrated that threat perception plays a critical role in the reaction of voice recipients; however, he did not specify the factors by which voice recipients may feel threatened, and dealt with only threat to personal achievement (e.g., potential harm to achieving good performance). This research, however, found that not only threat to personal achievement but also – and more importantly – threats to social value and decision-making freedom are important factors that explain why voice recipients react to voice in certain ways. Theories of face and

politeness argue that these two dimensions, which were named as positive face and negative face, respectively, are critical factors that people want to protect in order to be regarded as valuable individuals in the society (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Particularly those who possess authority/responsibilities or formal and informal status, such as supervisors and employees in certain roles, would be sensitive about securing and not losing the positive image that, they believe, others (colleagues) have of them. Simply put, voice recipients may not want to be seen as less respected or less accepted by others. Likewise, they may not want to be restricted by voice providers in terms of the decision-making freedom for their own tasks. The findings of this research imply that these two potentially face-threatening attributes (i.e., threat to social value and threat to decision-making freedom) of receiving voice may be vital sources of anxiety and fear for voice recipients (Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

This study may contribute to the literature not only on employee voice but also on assertive speech. Even though many studies have been conducted with regard to the effectiveness of the assertive speech style in broad interpersonal communications, only a few studies have explored its functioning in work settings (e.g., Fragale, 2006; Korsgaard et al., 1998). In addition, to my knowledge, this research is the first investigation pertaining to the effectiveness of assertive speech in voicing situations. I found the potentially unique effect of assertive speech in employee voice. That is, even though past studies highlighted its advantages (e.g., more attention, trustability) in the perception of message receivers as I explained earlier, this research found that assertive speech in speaking-up is inclined to produce negative responses because it easily activates relationship-level appraisals of voice recipients. This distinction may arise from the

unique nature of voice in communication. In voicing situations, voice recipients (e.g., managers, co-workers) are those who are responsible and/or have authority for the current status. Moreover, voicing messages are often targeted at states that voice recipients currently operate or advocate. Therefore, voice recipients tend to have a sort of 'ownership' in terms of the issue raised by the voicer. Because of the distinct characteristics of voice interactions, receiving voice could be susceptible to emotional arousal and cause negative evaluations of an assertive message. This finding is supportive of the argument that the effect of assertive speech is context-specific rather than generalizable (e.g., Fragale, 2006).

### 7.3 Practical Implications

From the practical perspective, the present research implies that employees should learn that they may need to take a step back and reconsider the possibility that their voice could be wrong although there would be motivation to be assertive to the extent that the voiced issue is critical. This attitude of voicers, according to this research, may help manage the unnecessary emergence of affective reactions from voice-receiving individuals, allowing their voice behaviors to successfully work and produce better outcomes not only for the organization but also for the voicing individuals themselves. If the issue they raise is about possible deficiencies and problems, and if the target of the voice behavior is a peer, then this modest attitude would be more important.

On the other hand, organizational managers also may need to consider the ways to better manage workplace communication. The findings of the investigation suggest that critical messages proposed by employees may be ignored or distorted simply because the

communication method is inappropriate. Thus, by helping employees to develop appropriate communication skills for effective change-oriented interactions, which are particularly based on mutual understanding and politeness, managers may be able to encourage improvement of the organization as a whole.

## 7.4 Limitations and Future Research

The biggest limitation of this research is the inconsistent moderating effects between Studies 1 and 2. Although both studies provided highly consistent findings in terms of the influential processes of voice assertiveness, only Study 2 supported the moderating effects of voice type and voicer status on the influences of voice assertiveness. Potential reasons for this discrepancy can be found in several aspects. First of all, the two studies used different experimental methods. Study 1 adopted a scenario-based online experiment, while Study 2 used a lab experiment drawing upon group interactions among participants. Although participants in Study 2 believed they were receiving voice from actual members within the work group, those in Study 1 encountered the fictional voice behavior and voicer in the scenario. So, the difference in the level of realism might have caused the absence of the moderating effects in Study 1 because participants might not have taken the influences of the specific voice content and voicer status less seriously although they could recognize these factors. Second, participants in Study 1 were those who have long experience as supervisors ( $M = 12.83$ ,  $SD = 8.64$ ). As seen in Table 1, the amount of supervisor experience was found to have negative zero-order correlations with threat perception, threats to achievement ( $r = -.26$ ) and decision-making freedom ( $r = -.23$ ). In addition, the results of Study 2 revealed that supervisors, as compared to peers, were

less likely to be affected by assertive voice. This means that the more participants have supervisor experience, the more lenient they are likely to be. Although participants of Study 1 were asked to consider themselves as either peers or leaders in the voicing scenario, they might evaluate the voicing event only from the perspective of supervisors due to their own supervisor experience, eliminating the moderating effect of voicer status. Future research may need to replicate the experiments with a range of different samples and enhance the reliability of the findings about moderating effects.

Experimental designs are frequently used in research on the reaction to voice (e.g., Burris, 2012, Fast et al., in press, Whitening et al., 2012) as such studies may contribute to strengthening the internal validity of research findings. However, such research is based primarily on participants' passive observations and evaluations of voice scenarios wherein they just pretended to hold a fictitious current state to be voiced that they (voice recipients) do not determine or control (except for Burris's classroom experiment-Study 3). One strength of the experimental designs used in this research is that participants were allowed to make their own decisions about the managerial issues in the scenario (Study 1) and in the project task (Study 2). This experimental procedure made it possible for participants to encounter voice about what they actually decided, as they would in most real voice-receiving situations. Nevertheless, my experimental studies were limited in that voice was written in both circumstances. Because instant messaging and email are pervasive in the modern workplace (Van Gramberg, Teicher, & O'Rourke, 2014), a considerable portion of voice might actually be conveyed in writing via these communication methods. Therefore, the use of written voicing messages in the experiments itself would not affect the value of the findings. However, given that

recipients might interpret messages differently depending on communication media in work situations (Lengel & Daft, 1988), it is impossible to rule out the possibility that participants might have showed different responses to voice assertiveness if different types of communication media were used (e.g., audio and face-to-face conversation). Therefore, future research could examine the influence of communication media on the effectiveness of voice behavior. Furthermore, field study designs that incorporate more realistic voice circumstances could be applied to future research to promote generalizability of the findings.

It was found that the serial-appraisal model fits the data much better than the parallel-appraisal model. It was also found that these appraisals are related to recipients' reactions, such as voice acceptance, performance evaluation, and helping intention; however, because the study designs did not consider the sequence of their occurrences, there is a limitation to justifying that constructiveness perception actually resulted from threat perception. More sophisticated study designs may help resolve these causality issues.

Finally, future research may consider the effect of cultural difference on the findings of this research. From Study 2, I found that leaders receiving assertive voice were less likely to perceive it as a threat of losing power and autonomy than peers. In other words, individuals taking leader roles may not simply consider their power in that position; rather, they may consider more about their duty as leaders. The findings, however, are based on North American samples (Canada and United States). Eastern societies (e.g., Korea, Japan, China) that are high in power distance and collectivism, for instance, may show different results (Hofstede, 1980), given that leaders in these

societies may be more sensitive to organizational hierarchies and social harmony (Liang, Huang, & Chen, 2013).

## 7.5 Conclusion

Voice behavior of organizational members is important for organizational development;

however, this does not necessarily mean that every type of voice behavior is valuable.

Given that the purpose of voice is to help the organization achieve its goals, employees

should think about how to make voice more effective. The findings of this research call to

mind various conventional proverbs related to speech, such as “A good tongue is a good

weapon” and “A soft answer turns wrath away.”

## REFERENCES

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Anderson, Kenneth E. (1972). *Introduction to Communication Theory and Practice*. Menlo Park, CA: Cummings Publishing Co.
- Anderson, C., John, O. P., Keltner, D., & Kring, A. M. (2001). Who attains social status? Effects of personality and physical attractiveness in social groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*(1), 116.
- Anderson, C., Srivastava, S., Beer, J. S., Spataro, S. E., & Chatman, J. A. (2006). Knowing your place: self-perceptions of status in face-to-face groups. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *91*(6), 1094.
- Arnold, M. B. (1960). *Emotion and personality*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Ashford, S. J., Sutcliffe, K. M., & Christianson, M. K. (2009). Speaking up and speaking out: The leadership dynamics of voice in organizations. In J. Greenberg & M. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and Silence In Organizations*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Group, 175.
- Averill, J. R., & Nunley, E. P. (1992). *Voyages of the heart: Living an emotionally creative life*: Free Press.
- BA, S. O. (2010). Ambiguity in human communication: Causes, consequences and resolution. *Jurnal Komunikasi*, *26*(1), 37-46.
- Baldwin, T. T. (1992). Effects of alternative modeling strategies on outcomes of interpersonal-skills training. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *77*(2), 147.
- Baskin, O. W., & Aronoff, C. E. (1980). *Interpersonal communication in organizations*: Goodyear Publishing Company.
- Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1999). Proactive behavior: Meaning, impact, recommendations. *Business Horizons*, *42*(3), 63-70.
- Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2009). Consequences of positive and negative feedback: The impact on emotions and extra-role behaviors. *Applied Psychology*, *58*(2), 274-303.
- Berger, J., Cohen, B. P., & Zelditch Jr, M. (1972). Status characteristics and social interaction. *American Sociological Review*, 241-255.
- Berger, J., Wagner, D. G., & Zelditch Jr., M. (1985). Introduction: Expectation states theory: Review and assessment. 1-72. In J. Berger and M. Zelditch Jr. (Eds.), *Theoretical Research Programs: Studies in the Growth of Theory*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

- Bettencourt, L. A. (2004). Change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors: the direct and moderating influence of goal orientation. *Journal of Retailing*, 80(3), 165-180.
- Blankenship, K. L., & Holtgraves, T. (2005). The role of different markers of linguistic powerlessness in persuasion. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 24(1), 3-24.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., & Niehoff, B. P. (2004). The other side of the story: Reexamining prevailing assumptions about organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review*, 14(2), 229-246.
- Bono, J. E., & Colbert, A. E. (2005). Understanding responses to multi-source feedback: The role of core self-evaluations. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(1), 171-203.
- Botero, I. C., & Van Dyne, L. (2009). Employee voice behavior interactive effects of LMX and power distance in the United States and Colombia. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 23(1), 84-104.
- Bowen, F., & Blackmon, K. (2003). Spirals of silence: The dynamic effects of diversity on organizational voice. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(6), 1393-1417.
- Boyar, S. L., & Mosley Jr, D. C. (2007). The relationship between core self-evaluations and work and family satisfaction: The mediating role of work-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71(2), 265-281.
- Bradac, J., Hopper, R., & Wiemann, J. (1989). Message effects: Retrospect and prospect. *Message effects in communication science*, 17, 294-317.
- Brehm, J. W. (1966). *A theory of psychological reactance*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Brehm, S. S., & Brehm, J. W. (1981). *Psychological reactance: A theory of freedom and control*: Academic Press New York.
- Brinsfield, C. T., Edwards, M. S., & Greenberg, J. (2009). Voice and silence in organizations: Historical review and current conceptualizations. In J. Greenberg & M. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and Silence In Organizations*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Group, 1.
- Brockner, J. (1988). *Self-esteem at work: Research, theory, and practice*, Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Brockner, J., Heuer, L., Siegel, P. A., Wiesenfeld, B., Martin, C., Grover, S., & Bjorgvinsson, S. (1998). The moderating effect of self-esteem in reaction to voice: Converging evidence from five studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(2), 394.
- Brown, B. R. (1977). Face-saving and face-restoration in negotiation. *Negotiations, Social-Psychology Perspectives*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Bryan, A., & Gallois, C. (1992). Rules about assertion in the workplace: Effects of status and message type. *Australian journal of psychology, 44*(1), 51-59.
- Bunderson, J. S. (2003). Recognizing and utilizing expertise in work groups: A status characteristics perspective. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 48*(4), 557-591.
- Burris, E. R. (2012). The risks and rewards of speaking up: Managerial responses to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*.
- Burris, E. R., Detert, J. R., & Chiaburu, D. S. (2008). Quitting before leaving: The mediating effects of psychological attachment and detachment on voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(4), 912-922.
- Burris, E. R., Detert, J. R., & Romney, A. C. (2013). Speaking up vs. being heard: The disagreement around and outcomes of employee voice. *Organization Science*.
- Carli, L. L. (1990). Gender, language, and influence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*(5), 941.
- Carli, L. L. (2002). Gender, interpersonal power, and social influence. *Journal of Social Issues, 55*(1), 81-99.
- Chiaburu, D. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2008). Do peers make the place? Conceptual synthesis and meta-analysis of coworker effects on perceptions, attitudes, OCBs, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(5), 1082.
- Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I. S., Berry, C. M., Li, N., & Gardner, R. G. (2011). The five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(6), 1140.
- Choi, J. N. (2007). Change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior: effects of work environment characteristics and intervening psychological processes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 28*(4), 467-484.
- Correll, S. J., & Ridgeway, C. (2003). Expectation states theory. In J. Delamater (Ed.), *The handbook of social psychology* (pp. 29–51). New York: Kluwer-Plenum Press.
- Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of management, 26*(3), 435-462.
- Cupach, W. R., & Carson, C. L. (2002). Characteristics and consequences of interpersonal complaints associated with perceived face threat. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 19*(4), 443-462.

- De Cremer, D., Cornelis, I., & Van Hiel, A. (2008). To whom does voice in groups matter? Effects of voice on affect and procedural fairness judgments as a function of social dominance orientation. *Journal of Social Psychology, 148*(1), 61-76.
- Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(4), 869-884.
- Detert, J. R., Burris, E. R., Harrison, D. A., & Martin, S. R. (2013). Voice flows to and around leaders understanding when units are helped or hurt by employee voice. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 58*(4), 624-668.
- Detert, J. R., & Edmondson, A. C. (2005). *No exit, no voice: The bind of risky voice opportunities in organizations*: Division of Research, Harvard Business School.
- Detert, J. R., & Edmondson, A. C. (2011). Implicit voice theories: Taken-for-granted rules of self-censorship at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*(3), 461-488.
- Detert, J. R., & Treviño, L. K. (2010). Speaking up to higher-ups: How supervisors and skip-level leaders influence employee voice. *Organization Science, 21*(1), 249-270.
- Dillard, J. P., Shen, L., & Vail, R. G. (2007). Does perceived message effectiveness cause persuasion or vice versa? 17 consistent answers. *Human Communication Research, 33*(4), 467-488.
- Edmondson, A. C. (2003). Speaking up in the operating room: How team leaders promote learning in interdisciplinary action teams. *Journal of Management Studies, 40*(6), 1419-1452.
- Erez, A., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations to goal setting, motivation, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(6), 1270-1279.
- Erickson, B., Lind, E. A., Johnson, B. C., & O'Barr, W. M. (1978). Speech style and impression formation in a court setting: The effects of "powerful" and "powerless" speech. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 14*(3), 266-279.
- Farndale, E., Van Ruiten, J., Kelliher, C., & Hope Hailey, V. (2011). The influence of perceived employee voice on organizational commitment: An exchange perspective. *Human Resource Management, 50*(1), 113-129.
- Fast, N., Burris, E., & Bartel, C. (in press). Managing to stay in the dark: managerial self-efficacy, ego defensiveness, and the aversion to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*.
- Ferris, D. L., Rosen, C. R., Johnson, R. E., Brown, D. J., Risavy, S. D., & Heller, D. (2011). Approach or avoidance (or both?): Integrating core self-evaluations within an approach/avoidance framework. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(1), 137-161.

- Forgas, J. P. (1982). Episode cognition: Internal representations of interaction routines In L. Berkowirz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 59-104). New York: Academic Press.
- Fornell, C., & Westbrook, R. A. (1979). An exploratory study of assertiveness, aggressiveness, and consumer complaining behavior. *Advances in consumer research*, 6(1), 105-110.
- Fragale, A. R. (2006). The power of powerless speech: The effects of speech style and task interdependence on status conferral. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 101(2), 243-261.
- Fragale, A. R., Overbeck, J. R., & Neale, M. A. (2011). Resources versus respect: Social judgments based on targets' power and status positions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 47(4), 767-775.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American psychologist*, 56(3), 218.
- Fredrickson, B. L., & Joiner, T. (2002). Positive emotions trigger upward spirals toward emotional well-being. *Psychological science*, 13(2), 172-175.
- Frese, M., & Fay, D. (2001). Personal initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 23, 133-188.
- Frijda, N.H., & Zeelenberg, M. (2001). Appraisal: What is the dependent? In K. R. Scherer, A. Schorr, & T. Johnstone (Eds.). *Appraisal processes in emotion: Theory, methods, research* (pp. 141-155). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fuller, J. B., Barnett, T., Hester, K., Relyea, C., & Frey, L. (2007). An exploratory examination of voice behavior from an impression management perspective. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 19(1), 134-151.
- Gao, L., Janssen, O., & Shi, K. (2011). Leader trust and employee voice: The moderating role of empowering leader behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(4), 787-798.
- Gelman, A., & Hill, J. (2007). *Data analysis using regression and multilevel/hierarchical models*. Cambridge University Press.
- Gibbons, P., Busch, J., & Bradac, J. J. (1991). Powerful versus powerless language: Consequences for persuasion, impression formation, and cognitive response. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 10(2), 115-133.
- Goldsmith, D. J. (2000). Soliciting advice: The role of sequential placement in mitigating face threat. *Communications Monographs*, 67(1), 1-19.

- Grant, A. M., Parker, S., & Collins, C. (2009). Getting credit for proactive behavior: Supervisor reactions depend on what you value and how you feel. *Personnel Psychology*, 62(1), 31-55.
- Grant, A. M., & Sonnentag, S. (2010). Doing good buffers against feeling bad: Prosocial impact compensates for negative task and self-evaluations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 111(1), 13-22.
- Greenberg, J., & Edwards, M. S. (Eds.). (2009). *Voice and Silence In Organizations*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Group.
- Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(2), 327-347.
- Gruber, J. E., & Smith, M. D. (1995). Women's responses to sexual harassment: A multivariate analysis. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 17(4), 543-562.
- Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling. Retrieved from <http://www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf>.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *An introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states* (Vol. 25). Harvard university press.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, leadership, and organization: do American theories apply abroad?. *Organizational dynamics*, 9(1), 42-63.
- Hollandsworth, J. G. (1977). Differentiating assertion and aggression: Some behavioral guidelines. *Behavior Therapy*, 8(3), 347-352.
- Holtgraves, T., & Lasky, B. (1999). Linguistic power and persuasion. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 18(2), 196-205.
- Hosman, L. A., Huebner, T. M., & Siltanen, S. A. (2002). The impact of power-of-speech style, argument strength, and need for cognition on impression formation, cognitive responses, and persuasion. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 21(4), 361-379.
- Hosman, L. A., & Siltanen, S. A. (2006). Powerful and powerless language forms their consequences for impression formation, attributions of control of self and control of others, cognitive responses, and message memory. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 25(1), 33-46.

- Hosman, L. A., & Siltanen, S. A. (2011). Hedges, tag questions, message processing, and persuasion. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 30*(3), 341-349.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., & Locke, E. A. (2000). Personality and job satisfaction: The mediating role of job characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(2), 237-249.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., & Bono, J. E. (1998). The power of being positive: The relation between positive self-concept and job performance. *Human performance, 11*(2/3), 167.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2003). The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. *Personnel Psychology, 56*(2), 303-331.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Thoresen, C. J., & Bono, J. E. (2002). Are measures of self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control, and generalized self-efficacy indicators of a common core construct? *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 83*(3), 693-710.
- Judge, T. A., & Hurst, C. (2007). Capitalizing on one's advantages: Role of core self-evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(5), 1212-1227.
- Judge, T. A., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D. (2012). General and specific measures in organizational behavior research: Considerations, examples, and recommendations for researchers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*(2), 161-174.
- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., & Durham, C. C. (1997). The Dispositional Causes of Job Satisfaction: A Core Evaluations Approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 19*, 151.
- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(1), 17-34.
- Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., Judge, T. A., & Scott, B. A. (2009). The role of core self-evaluations in the coping process. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(1), 177-195.
- Karatepe, O. M., Haktanir, M., & Yorganci, I. (2010). The impacts of core self-evaluations on customer-related social stressors and emotional exhaustion. *Service Industries Journal, 30*(9), 1565-1579.
- Kelly, J. A., Kern, J. M., Kirkley, B. G., Patterson, J. N., & Keane, T. M. (1980). Reactions to assertive versus unassertive behavior: Differential effects for males and females and implications for assertiveness training. *Behavior Therapy, 11*(5), 670-682.
- Kern, J. M., & Paquette, R. J. (1992). Reactions to assertion in controlled naturalistic relationships perceptions of likability and competency. *Behavior modification, 16*(3), 372-386.

- Kish-Gephart, J. J., Detert, J. R., Treviño, L. K., & Edmondson, A. C. (2009). Silenced by fear: The nature, sources, and consequences of fear at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 29*, 163-193.
- Klaas, B. S., Olson-Buchanan, J. B., & Ward, A. K. (2012). The Determinants of alternative forms of workplace voice an integrative perspective. *Journal of management, 38*(1), 314-345.
- Korsgaard, M. A., Roberson, L., & Rymph, R. D. (1998). What motivates fairness? The role of subordinate assertive behavior on manager's interactional fairness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(5), 731.
- Lange, A., & Jakubowski, P. (1976). Responsible assertive training: Champaign, IL: Research Press.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and adaptation*: Oxford University Press, USA.
- Leeper, C., & Ayres, M. M. (2007). A meta-analytic review of gender variations in adults' language use: Talkativeness, affiliative speech, and assertive speech. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 11*(4), 328-363.
- Lengel, R. H., & Daft, R. L. (1988). The selection of communication media as an executive skill. *The Academy of Management Executive, 2*(3), 225-232.
- LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (1998). Predicting voice behavior in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(6), 853-868.
- LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (2001). Voice and cooperative behavior as contrasting forms of contextual performance: evidence of differential relationships with big five personality characteristics and cognitive ability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(2), 326.
- Liang, J., Farh, C. I. C., & Farh, J. L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: A two-wave examination. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*(1), 71-92.
- Liang, J., Huang, X., & Chen, Z. X. (2013). Why offering participative opportunities does not necessarily facilitate speaking up. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, p. 11, 384. Academy of Management.
- Liao, Y. & Bond, M. H. (2011). The dynamics of face loss following interpersonal harm for Chinese and Americans. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 42*, 25-38.
- Lind, E. A., Kanfer, R., & Earley, P. C. (1990). Voice, control, and procedural justice: Instrumental and noninstrumental concerns in fairness judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*(5), 952.

- Lind, E. A., & Kulik, C. T. (2009). Hear Me Out: Voice and Justice. In J. Greenberg & M. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and Silence In Organizations*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Group, 135.
- Liu, W., Zhu, R., & Yang, Y. (2010). I warn you because I like you: Voice behavior, employee identifications, and transformational leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 21(1), 189-202.
- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Jarvis, C. B. (2005). The problem of measurement model misspecification in behavioral and organizational research and some recommended solutions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 710.
- Mackenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2011). Challenge-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational effectiveness: Do challenge-oriented behaviors really have an impact on the organization's bottom line? *Personnel Psychology*, 64(3), 559-592.
- Maynes, T. D., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2014). Speaking more broadly: An examination of the nature, antecedents, and consequences of an expanded set of employee voice behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(1), 87.
- McCulloch, C. E., & Neuhaus, J. M. (2005). *Generalized linear mixed models*: Wiley Online Library.
- Miller, C. H., Ivanov, B., Sims, J., Compton, J., Harrison, K. J., Parker, K. A., Parker, J. L., & Averbek, J. M. (2013). Boosting the potency of resistance: Combining the motivational forces of inoculation and psychological reactance. *Human Communication Research*, 39(1), 127-155.
- Milliken, F. J., & Lam, N. (2009). Making the Decision to Speak Up or to Remain Silent: Implications for Organizational Learning. In J. Greenberg & M. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and Silence In Organizations*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Group, 225-243.
- Milliken, F. J., Morrison, E. W., & Hewlin, P. F. (2003). An exploratory study of employee silence: Issues that employees don't communicate upward and why. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(6), 1453-1476.
- Morrison, E. W. (2011). Employee voice behavior: Integration and directions for future research. *Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 373-412.
- Morrison, E. W., & Milliken, F. J. (2000). Organizational silence: A barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 706-725.
- Morrison, E. W., & Rothman, N. B. (2009). Silence and the dynamics of power. *Voice and silence in organizations*, 6, 111-134.

- Morrison, E. W., Wheeler-Smith, S. L., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Speaking up in groups: A cross-level study of group voice climate and voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(1), 183-191. doi: 10.1037/a0020744
- Muthén, L., & Muthén, B. (2007). Mplus. *User's Guide, ed. 3*.
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2012). Employee voice behavior: A meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources framework. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.
- Norton-Ford, J. D., & Hogan, R. D. (1980). Role of nonverbal behaviors in social judgments of peers' assertiveness. *Psychological Reports, 46*(3c), 1085-1086.
- Norton, R. W. (1978). Foundation of a communicator style construct. *Human Communication Research, 4*(2), 99-112.
- Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. (2010). Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. *Journal of management, 36*(3), 633-662.
- Parkinson, B., Fischer, A. H., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2004). *Emotion in social relations: Cultural, group, and interpersonal processes*: Psychology Press.
- Parton, S. R., Siltanen, S. A., Hosman, L. A., & Langenderfer, J. (2002). Employment interview outcomes and speech style effects. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 21*(2), 144-161.
- Pierce, J. L., Gardner, D. G., Dunham, R. B., & Cummings, L. L. (1993). Moderation by organization-based self-esteem of role condition-employee response relationships. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(2), 271-288.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of management, 26*(3), 513-563.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, N. P., & Lee, J. Y. (2003). The mismeasure of man (agement) and its implications for leadership research. *Leadership Quarterly, 14*(6), 615-656.
- Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual-and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(1), 122.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers, 36*, 717-731.

- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879-891.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 42(1), 185-227.
- Rakos, R. F. (1991). *Assertive behavior: Theory, research, and training*. New York: Routledge.
- Reid, S. A., Palomares, N. A., Anderson, G. L., & Bondad-Brown, B. (2009). Gender, Language, and Social Influence: A Test of Expectation States, Role Congruity, and Self-Categorization Theories. *Human Communication Research*, 35(4), 465-490.
- Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 617-635.
- Ridgeway, C. L. (2001). How do status beliefs develop? The role of resources and interactional experiences. In J. T. Jost & B. Major (Eds.), *The psychology of legitimacy: Emerging perspectives on ideology, justice, and intergroup relations* (pp. 357-277). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Ridgeway, C. L., & Berger, J. (1986). Expectations, legitimation, and dominance behavior in task groups. *American Sociological Review*, 51, 603-617.
- Stern, Z., Katz-Navon, T., & Naveh, E. (2008). The influence of situational learning orientation, autonomy, and voice on error making: The case of resident physicians. *Management Science*, 54(9), 1553.
- Scherer, K. R., Schorr, A., & Johnstone, T. (2001). *Appraisal processes in emotion: Theory, methods, research*: Oxford University Press, USA.
- Schütz, A. (1998). Assertive, offensive, protective, and defensive styles of self-presentation: A taxonomy. *The Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 132(6), 611-628.
- Sekerka, L. E., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2008). Establishing positive emotional climates to advance organizational transformation.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7, 422-445.
- Smith-Jentsch, K. A., Salas, E., & Backer, D. P. (2006). Training team performance-related assertiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, 49(4), 909-936.
- Smith, C. A., & Lazarus, R. S. (1993). Appraisal components, core relational themes, and the emotions. *Cognition & Emotion*, 7(3-4), 233-269.

- Spychala, A., & Sonnentag, S. (2011). The dark and the bright sides of proactive work behaviour and situational constraints: Longitudinal relationships with task conflicts. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 20*(5), 654-680.
- Srivastava, A., Locke, E. A., Judge, T. A., & Adams, J. W. (2010). Core self-evaluations as causes of satisfaction: The mediating role of seeking task complexity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*(2), 255-265.
- Tangirala, S. & Ramanujam, R. (2008) Exploring non-linearity in employee voice: The effects of personal control and organizational identification, *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(6): 1189–1203
- Tangirala, S., & Ramanujam, R. (2012). Ask and you shall hear (but not always): Examining the relationship between manager consultation and employee voice. *Personnel Psychology, 65*(2), 251-282.
- Vakola, M., & Bouradas, D. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of organisational silence: an empirical investigation. *Employee Relations, 27*(5), 441-458.
- Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & Parks, J. (1995). Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). *Research in Organizational Behavior, 17*, 215-215.
- Van Dyne, L., Kamdar, D., & Joireman, J.(2008). In-role perceptions buffer the negative impact of low LMX on helping and enhance the positive impact of high LMX on voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(6), 1195-1207.
- Van Dyne, L., & LePine, J. A. (1998). Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(1), 108-119.
- Van Dyne, L., Soon, A., & Botero, I. C. (2003). Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Management Studies, 40*(6), 1359-1392.
- Van Gramberg, B., Teicher, J., & O'Rourke, A. (2014). Managing electronic communications: a new challenge for human resource managers. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 25*(16), 2234-2252.
- Wadlinger, H. A., & Isaacowitz, D. M. (2006). Positive mood broadens visual attention to positive stimuli. *Motivation and Emotion, 30*(1), 87-99.
- Walumbwa, F. O., & Schaubroeck, J. (2009). Leader personality traits and employee voice behavior: mediating roles of ethical leadership and work group psychological safety. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(5), 1275.
- Watson, P., McKinney, J., Hawkins, C., & Morris, R. J. (1988). Assertiveness and narcissism. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training, 25*(1), 125.

- Watzlawick, P., Bevelas, J. B., & Jackson, D. D. (1967). Pragmatics of human communication.
- Weeks, R. E., & Lefebvre, R. C. (1982). The assertive interaction coding system. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 4(1), 71-85.
- Whiting, S. W., Maynes, T. D., Podsakoff, N. P., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2012). Effects of message, source, and context on evaluations of employee voice behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology; Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1), 159.
- Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. (2008). Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 125-139.
- Wilson, K., & Gallois, C. (1993). *Assertion and its social context*: Pergamon Press (Oxford and New York).
- Wilson, K., Lizzio, A., Whicker, L., Gallois, C., & Price, J. (2003). Effective assertive behavior in the workplace: Responding to unfair criticism. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 33(2), 362-395.
- Zohar, D., Tzischinski, O., & Epstein, R. (2003). Effects of energy availability on immediate and delayed emotional reactions to work events. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(6), 1082.
- Zucker, E. (1983). *Mastering assertiveness skills: Power and positive influence at work*: American Management Associations.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1. Scripts of the Manipulated Voicing Messages (Study 1)

#### A. Voice about the Open-Concept Office

##### *A-1. Assertive/Prohibitive voice condition*

I want to tell you what I think about the renovation plan. Frankly, I have concerns about the new open-plan office system that you are proposing. It has several problems that will end up hurting our company.

The open-concept system will definitely make it difficult for us to concentrate on our work. With no walls acting as noise barriers, all the noise and clatter from people talking, phones ringing, and other general activities will affect workers. The noise level will irritate people and distract them from their work. Needless to say, it will harm the productivity of the company.

This noise problem will cause extra expense for the organization because we will have to buy a noise reduction system. Of course, those things cost a lot. This is clearly not the best use of company resources.

Another concern is that there are privacy and security problems. With an open-concept office, we will have no protection for our things when we leave our desks. Anyone who walks by will be able to look at, or even take, our private or confidential items.

Therefore, when all of these negative outcomes are taken into account, your plan has to be reconsidered. In order to ensure the organization does not become worse off than it is now, we must change the current investment plan for the open-concept office.

**A-2. Tentative/Prohibitive voice condition**

*(Umm.....) I was wondering if I could tell you what I think about the renovation plan. I am a little worried about the new open-concept office system that you are proposing. Your plan may be good in a way, but I think it could involve some potential problems that might end up hurting our company.*

*I am not sure, but I think the open-concept system could make it difficult for us to concentrate on our work. It's a possibility that, with no walls acting as noise barriers, all the noise and clatter from people talking, phones ringing, and other general activities might kind of affect workers. It is also possible that the noise level may irritate people and distract them from their work to some degree. I think that it might harm the productivity of the company.*

*If the noise does lead to problems, maybe it could cause extra expense for the organization, like if we have to buy a noise reduction system. I am not an expert on this, but do you think that could cost a lot? The thought crossed my mind that this might not be the best use of company resources.*

*In addition, I also wonder if there could be privacy and security problems. With an open-concept office, I am guessing that we may have less protection for our things when we leave our desks. Some people might get worried that anyone who walks by could look at, or even take any potentially private or confidential items.*

*I am not saying that I am definitely right. Others may have different perspectives. However, when these kinds of negative possibilities are taken into account, I wonder if we should perhaps reconsider the open-concept office plan in order to ensure the organization would not become worse off than it is now.*

**A-3. Assertive/Promotive voice condition**

I want to tell you what I think about the renovation plan. Frankly, investment in our computer system instead of in the open-concept office that you are proposing will create more benefits for the development of our company in several aspects.

A new computer system will definitely have a positive impact on our work speed. Although the current system is not enough to cover our increasing workload, better technology will allow us to work faster than we do now. Needless to say, it will promote better performance.

The investment in new computer network technology will increase communication between people as well. We will be able to more actively interact with each other via things such as instant messaging and voice/video chatting. Clearly, these methods will make it easier for us to share important information with co-workers and even clients.

In addition, the improved computer system will end up saving the company a lot of money. Since more work will be done electronically, we will see a significant decline in printing and filing costs that will certainly help us improve the financial status of the company.

Therefore, when all of these positive benefits are taken into account, your plan has to be reconsidered. In order to promote the growth of the company, we must invest in an up-to-date computer network system more than anything else.

**A-4. Tentative/Promotive voice condition**

*(Umm.....) I was wondering if I could tell you what I think about the renovation plan. Your plan may be good in a way, but I think that investment in our computer system instead of the open-concept office that you are proposing might create more potential benefits for the development of our company in some aspects. I am not sure, but I suppose that a new computer system is likely to have a positive impact on our work speed to some degree. Although it looks like the current system may not be enough to cover our increasing workload, it may be that if we have somewhat better technology, we would be able to work a little faster than we do now. I think it might promote better performance.*

*If we invest in new computer network technology, it is also possible that the investment could increase communication between people. Maybe we would be able to more actively interact with each other via things such as instant messaging and voice/video chatting. I am not expert on this, but I suppose these methods would often make it easier for us to kind of share important information with co-workers and sometimes even clients, don't you think?*

*In addition, there is also the possibility that the improved computer system could end up saving the company some money. I am guessing since more work could be done electronically, we might be able to see some decline in printing and filing costs that could possibly help us improve the financial status of the company.*

*I am not saying that I am definitely right. Others may have different perspectives. However, when these kinds of potentially positive benefits are taken into account, I wonder if we should perhaps think about investing in an up-to-date computer network system so that the company would be better off than it is now.*

## **B. Voice about the New Computer System**

### ***B-1. Assertive/Prohibitive Voice Condition***

I want to tell you what I think about the renovation plan. Frankly, I have concerns about the investment in the new computer system you are proposing. It has several problems that will end up hurting our company.

Buying a new computer system will definitely be an unnecessary waste of company resources. Our current computers and network devices are still useful, and there are several years left before they reach the end of their lifetime. Needless to say, throwing them away and buying new ones will be a waste of our budget.

Moreover, there is no evidence that the current computer system interrupts our workflow. Certainly, it is risky to invest in the myth that new technology is the key to success.

Another concern is that a new computer system will increase job stress of employees. In addition to our regular work, we have to spend lots of time getting used to different features of the new system. Furthermore, unexpected problems arising from the system change will make us confused and distracted. Because our company has been suffering from employee burnout, this is absolutely not the right plan for now.

Therefore, when all of these negative outcomes are taken into account, your plan has to be reconsidered. In order to ensure the organization does not become worse off than it is now, we must change the current plan of investing in a new computer system.

**B-2. Tentative/Prohibitive Voice Condition**

*(Umm.....) I was wondering if I could tell you what I think about the renovation plan. I am a little worried about the new computer system that you are proposing. Your plan may be good in a way, but I think it could involve some potential problems that might end up hurting our company.*

*I am not sure, but buying a new computer system could possibly be an unnecessary waste of company resources. I think our current computers and network devices are still useful to some degree, and it seems like there are several years left before they reach the end of their lifetime. There is a possibility that throwing them away and buying new ones could be a waste of our budget.*

*Moreover, there seems to be little evidence that the current computer system kind of interrupts our workflow. The thought crossed my mind that it might be risky to invest in the myth that new technology is the key to success, don't you think?*

*In addition, I am worried that a new computer system might increase job stress of employees. I am not certain, but I am guessing that, in addition to our regular work, we would probably need to spend some time getting used to different features of the new system. It is also a possibility that unexpected problems that might arise from the system change may make us confused and distracted.. Because employee burnout looks like a potential issue for our company, some people might worry that this might not be the right plan for now.*

*I am not saying that I am definitely right. Others may have different perspectives. However, when these kinds of negative possibilities are taken into account, I wonder if we should perhaps reconsider the current plan of investing in a new computer system in order to ensure the organization would not become worse off than it is now.*

**B-3. Assertive/Promotive Voice Condition**

I want to tell you what I think about the renovation plan. Frankly, investment in the open-concept office instead of in the new computer system that you are proposing will create more benefits for the development of our company in several aspects.

The open concept office design will definitely create a collaborative work environment. Although the current closed office system is not favorable for active interpersonal interactions, open offices will let us approach our colleagues to share ideas and resolve issues more easily than we do now. Needless to say, it will promote better performance.

Having open-plan offices will increase employees' satisfaction with the workplace environment as well. The modern interior design will look nice, and people will enjoy the comfort and convenience of the high-quality furniture and equipment in the new work stations. Such a refined physical environment will satisfy the needs of the employees. And, of course, happy employees will be more productive than unhappy ones.

In addition, the open plan will be economical. It requires less space per individual than the closed office since many individuals work together, and this efficient usage of space will certainly help us to save money.

Therefore, when all of these positive benefits are taken into account, your plan has to be reconsidered. In order to promote the growth of the company, we must invest in the open-concept office plan more than anything else.

**B-4. Tentative/Promotive Voice Condition**

*(Umm.....) I was wondering if I could let you know what I think about the renovation plan. Your plan may be good in a way, but I think that investment in the open-concept office instead of in the new computer system might create more potential benefits for the development of our company in some aspects.*

*I am not sure, but I just suppose that the open concept office design is likely to create a collaborative work environment to some degree. Although it looks like the current closed office system may not be favorable for active interpersonal interactions, it may be that if we work together in open offices, we would probably be able to approach our colleagues to kind of share ideas and resolve issues more easily than we do now. I think it might promote better performance.*

*It is also possible that open-plan offices could increase employees' satisfaction with the workplace environment as well. The modern interior design might look nice, and people would probably enjoy the comfort and convenience of the high-quality furniture and equipment in the new workstations. I'm not certain, but I suppose such a refined physical environment might satisfy the needs of the employees, don't you think? And happy employees are likely to be at least a little more productive than unhappy ones.*

*In addition, there is also a possibility that the open plan could be more economical. I am guessing that since many individuals could work together, it might require less space per individual than the closed office, and this efficient use of space could possibly help us save money.*

*I am not saying that I am definitely right. Others may have different perspectives. However, when these kinds of potentially positive benefits are taken into account, I wonder if we should perhaps think about investing in the open-concept office plan so that the company would be better off than it is now.*

## Appendix 2. Introduction to Park Project (Study 2)

You have finished answering all of the initial questions that will determine your roles and tasks in your project group. Before going to the next page that shows the result, **please carefully read the following explanation** of the park project you will be involved.

---

### PARK PROJECT

#### TASKS

The park project consists of three different types of tasks as below. Each person in the work group will have one of these three tasks depending on his/her personal characteristics.

**The first task is to determine the park theme.** It requires conceptual skills. The person who has this task will make decisions about conceptual issues of the project such as an appropriate park model and its specific components. Due to the importance of this task in directing the project, the member who is appointed to **the group leader** will be given this task.

**The second task is finance** and the person who performs this task is responsible for calculating reasonable costs and deciding upon methods to supply funds.

**The final task is scheduling** that requires process skills. The person having this task should develop a construction schedule.

#### INFORMATION

Basic information about the project will be provided to all of the members, but the task specific information will be given only to the task performer.

#### PROCESS

You have **the authority to make a decision regarding your own task.** It is important, however, to **share the decision and reasoning with other members by sending emails to them** since they can perform their tasks referring to your decision.

The group will work on the project **over three rounds.**

First, **at the end of the first round**, the group leader who is responsible for **the first task - park theme selection** - should let the other members know of his/her decision.

In the same way, at the end of **the second round**, the person who is responsible for **finance** should share his/her decision. Finally, at the end of the **third round**, the person who is responsible for construction **scheduling** should also share his/her decision with the other members.

You should **use the Gmail account that is available on your screen** (please do not use your personal email account). You will be able to **find colleagues' email addresses from the instruction on the computer.**

After receiving the email from the task-performer, if necessary, **you can provide your opinion about his/her decision** via email.

## Appendix 3. The Park Model Selection Task (Study2)

### CONCEPTUAL TASK 1 (GROUP LEADER) - Park Model (Theme) Selection

#### 1. Settings

Due to the increased demand for housing, the municipal government of *Moran* has supported a new development in the outskirts of the town. For the next step, the town is planning to construct a new park for this part of town.

In the first round, your task is to **decide what kind of park should be constructed in this new part of town**. You have to determine what you think would be most appropriate for this situation, and be able to defend your decision.

A public opinion survey has suggested there are **two main options** when it comes to building a new park. Please read carefully the following information about the residents of Moran and the information about the two types of parks. Then you will be asked to make your decision.

You will be given about **10 minutes** to make your decision about which park model should be chosen and to share this decision and your reasoning with your group members.

#### 2. Contexts

- **Residents of the new part of town:**

The majority of the population in this new part of town is composed of people in their 50s or older who live without children (60%), followed by people in their 30s or 40s living with their young children (30%) and the remainder are a mix (10%). The income level of people living in this new part of town is higher than other areas, people who live here would be considered either middle class or wealthy. Most of these residents are well-educated. The primary reason they have given for deciding to move to this new part of town is to have a better living environment.

- **Residents of the old parts of town:**

Inhabitants in the old parts of town are not satisfied with their public facilities – they think they are too old. They have been clear that they would like some new public places, especially those that cater to children.

- **The government of the town:**

The municipal government has been wrestling with a deficit, so they have been looking for ways to reduce expenditures and to increase income. The town council keeps asking the administrators to find ways to create monetary returns from public investment in order to improve the financial health of the town. There has been some investigation of how to charge more user fees to the public. Town council will be watching how the town administrators will be handling this park construction issue.

### 3. Alternative Park Models

#### Model 1: Public Art Park (no entrance fee)

According to the public opinion survey, the majority of residents of the new part of town want to have a modern public park. They believe that the park should be a vital part of their daily lives. A lot of the senior citizens in the new part of town want to enjoy the silent but artistic atmosphere of this type of park. For these reasons, they believe the Public Art Park is the best park model.



### **Model 2: Family Fun Park (paid attendance)**

According to the public opinion survey, a lot of residents from the older parts of town want to have a family-oriented park. They believe that they should not have to travel to another city to enjoy a water park or amusement park. Even if they should pay fees to use the park facilities, they said that they are willing to do. They also believe that it is fair that they should benefit from this new development, too. For these reasons, they believe the Family Fun Park is the best park model.



What is your choice regarding the appropriate park model for the new part of town? Please write the name of the park model (Public Art Park vs. Family Fun Park) in the blank space below.

## **Appendix 4. Scripts of the Manipulated Voicing Messages (Study 2)**

### **A. Voice about Public Art Park**

#### A-1. Assertive and Promotive (AsPm)

- 1st Email

I have a different thought on the park model. The Family Fun Park will produce better outcomes.

The Family Fun Park will definitely help the financial stability of the city. The entrance fee will generate a lot of money, some of which can be used to improve other city facilities. Needless to say, the financial state of the city will improve every year this park is open.

In addition, construction of the Family Fun Park will satisfy the most people. The park project must meet the demand of residents not only in the new part of town but also in the old parts of town where a bigger population is living. For this park project to be successful, it is certainly important to listen to the majority.

Given these benefits of the Family Fun Park, your decision has to be reconsidered.

- 2nd Email

Here is one more reason.

Since the construction and operation of the Family Fun Park will require a lot of workers, it will create many jobs. This must be another key advantage of constructing the Family Fun Park.

To achieve the best results, you have to select the Family Fun Park.

## A-2. Tentative and Promotive (TnPm)

- 1st Email

Well... I kind of have a different thought on the park model. I am not sure, but I guess that the Family Fun Park might produce a bit better outcomes.

The Family Fun Park could possibly help the financial stability of the city. The entrance fee may generate a lot of money, some of which could be used to improve other city facilities. I think maybe the financial state of the city would improve every year this park is open because of that.

In addition, I assume that construction of the Family Fun Park might satisfy the most people. The park project sort of meets the demands of residents not only in the new part of town, but also in the old parts of town where probably a bigger population lives. For this park project to be successful, I think it would be important to listen to the majority, don't you think?

My logic may be off, but I'm thinking that, given these potential benefits of the Family Fun Park, maybe you might want to reconsider your decision.

- 2nd Email

You might want to consider this reason, too:

It occurred to me that if the construction and operation of the family park may require a lot of workers, there is a possibility that it could create many jobs. I think this might be another potential advantage of constructing the Family Fun Park.

I am not certain, but I just think that you might want to go with the Family Fun Park to achieve the potentially best results.

### A-3. Assertive and Prohibitive (AsPh)

- 1st Email

I am concerned about your selection. There are several problems with the Public Art Park.

Clearly, the Public Art Park will harm the financial stability of the city. The maintenance of the special landscape and sculptures of the park will require a lot of money and it does not have any earning potential. Needless to say, the financial state of the city will be negatively affected every year this park is open.

In addition, the public park will increase crime activities. Groups of youths will gather to drink or do drugs at public parks. It will hurt the reputation of the new part of town. Policing this park will certainly put an additional strain on the finances of the city.

Given these problems of the Public Art Park, your decision has to be reconsidered.

- 2nd Email

Here is one more reason.

The Public Art Park will attract only a limited number of citizens. If the park reflects the needs of a certain class of citizens, it means that something is wrong with its design. This must be another problem of constructing the Public Art Park.

To prevent negative results, you have to abandon the Public Art Park.

#### A-4. Tentative and Prohibitive (TnPh)

- 1st Email

Well... I kind of have some concerns about your selection. I am not sure, but I think there might be some potential problems with the Public Art Park.

The Public Art Park could possibly harm the financial stability of the city. The maintenance of the special landscape and sculptures of the park may require more money and it does not seem to have any earning potential yet. I think maybe the financial state of the city could be negatively affected every year this park is open because of that.

In addition, I think that the public park might increase the potential for crime activity. There is a possibility that groups of people, often made up of youths, may gather to drink or do drugs at public parks. If that happens, it could probably hurt the reputation of the new part of town and policing this park may put an additional strain on the finances of the city, don't you think?

My logic may be off, but I'm just thinking that, given these potential problems of the public art park, maybe you might want to reconsider your decision.

- 2nd Email

You might want to consider this reason, too:

It occurred to me that the Public Art Park may attract only a limited number of citizens. If the park reflects the needs of just a certain class of citizens, I think it might mean it is not the best design to go with. I guess this could be another potential problem with constructing the Public Art Park.

I am not certain, but I just think that you might want to abandon the Public Art Park to prevent these possibly negative results.

## **B. Voice about Family Fun Park**

### **B-1. Assertive and Promotive (AsPm)**

- 1<sup>st</sup> Email

I have a different thought on the park model. The Public Art Park will produce better outcomes.

The Public Art Park will definitely help increase satisfaction of the residents in the new part of town. They are the ones who will be the primary users of the park. Needless to say, increasing the satisfaction of the residents will increase the economic value of this new part of town.

In addition, construction of the Public Art Park will help the reputation of the city. The cultural dimension is a key determinant to building a positive community impression. For this park project to be successful, it is certainly important that it builds on our image that this is an attractive place to live.

Given these benefits of the Public Art Park, your decision has to be reconsidered.

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Email

Here is one more reason.

The Public Art Park will revitalize the local creative community. The park will give local artists the chance to display and sell their artwork. This must be another key advantage of constructing the Public Art Park.

To achieve the best results, you have to select the Public Art Park.

## B-2. Tentative and Promotive (TnPm)

- 1<sup>st</sup> Email

Well... I kind of have a different thought on the park model. I am not sure, but I guess that the Public Art Park might produce a bit better outcomes.

The Public Art Park could possibly help increase satisfaction of the residents in the new part of town. I think they may be the ones who would primarily use the park. Maybe increasing the satisfaction of the residents could also increase the economic value of this new part of town.

In addition, it's possible that construction of the Public Art Park may help the reputation of the city. I guess that the cultural dimension could be sort of a key determinant to building a positive community impression. For this park project to be successful, I think it may be important that it builds on our image that this is an attractive place to live, don't you think?

My logic could be off, but I'm just thinking that, given these potential benefits of the public art park, maybe you might want to reconsider your decision.

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Email

You might want to consider this reason, too:

It occurred to me that the Public Art Park could potentially revitalize the local creative community. The park might give local artists the chance to display and sell their artwork. I think this might be another advantage of constructing the Public Art Park.

I am not certain, but I just think that you might want to go with the Public Art Park to achieve the potentially best results.

### B-3. Assertive and Prohibitive (AsPh)

- 1st Email

I am concerned about your selection. There are several problems with the Family Fun Park.

Clearly, the Family Fun Park will hurt the financial stability of the city. The city is not an expert in running this type of business. It won't be able to generate any profits – we will lose money for many years. The city is not a business organization and has no professional knowledge in generating profits. Needless to say, it will lose money for many years. The financial state of the city will decrease every year this park is open.

In addition, construction of the Family Fun Park will lower the satisfaction of a lot of people. The high level of noise made by park visitors, park machinery, and increased traffic will annoy all of the citizens who reside near the park. It will certainly hurt their satisfaction with the living environment.

Given these problems, your decision has to be reconsidered.

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Email

Here is one more reason.

The Family Fun Park does not meet the needs of the citizens in the new area, the primary users of the park. If the park does not reflect the needs of main users, it means something is wrong with its design. This must be another problem of constructing the Family Fun Park.

To prevent negative results, you have to abandon the Family Fun Park.

#### B-4. Tentative and Prohibitive (TnPh)

- 1st Email

Well... I kind of have some concerns about your selection. I am not sure, but I think there might be some potential problems with the Family Fun Park.

The Family Fun Park might hurt the financial stability of the city. The city may not really have that much expertise in running this type of business. We don't know for sure if it will generate any profits – there is a possibility that the city could lose money for the next few years. If that happens, I am somewhat worried that the financial state of the city could probably decrease.

In addition, it is quite possible that the construction of the Family Fun Park may lower the satisfaction of the people in the city. I wonder if the high level of noise made by park visitors, park machinery, and increased traffic could possibly annoy citizens who reside near the park. It seems to me that the noise may hurt their satisfaction with the living environment, don't you think?

My logic may be off, but I'm just thinking that, given these potential problems of the family fun park, maybe you might want to reconsider your decision.

- 2nd Email

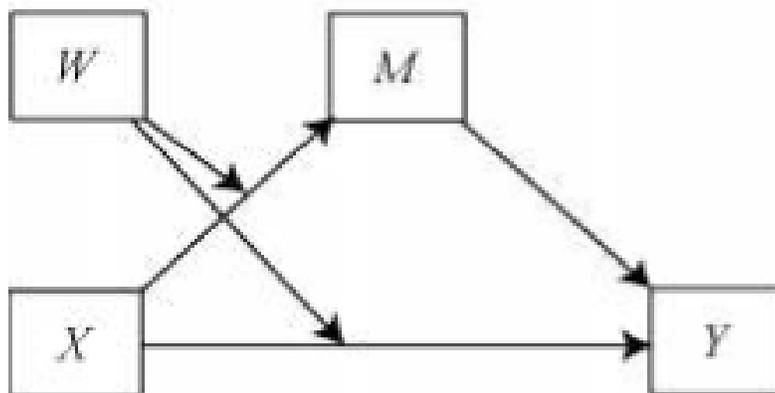
You might want to consider this reason, too:

It occurred to me that the Family Fun Park kind of doesn't really meet the needs of the citizens in the new area, who appear to be the primary users of the park. I am thinking that if the park does not reflect the needs of main users, it might mean it is not the best design to go with. I guess this could be another potential problem with constructing the family fun park.

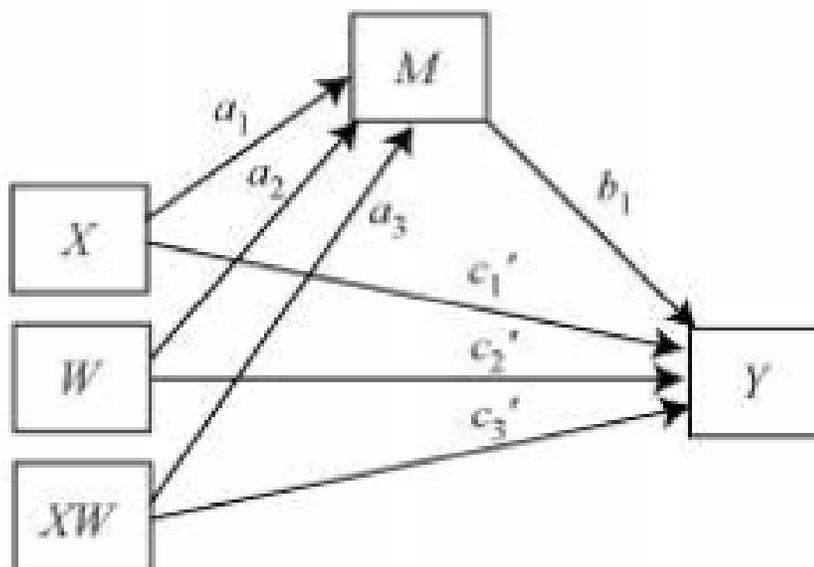
I am not certain, but I just think that you might want to abandon the family fun park to prevent these possibly negative results.

## Appendix 5. Hayes's (2012) Process Model 8 (p. 35)

Conceptual model



Statistical Model



Conditional indirect effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  through  $M_j = (a_{1j} + a_{3j}W) b_{1j}$

## Appendix 6. Ethics Approval



Research Ethics

### Use of Human Participants - Ethics Approval Notice

**Principal Investigator:** Dr. Charlice Hurst  
**File Number:** 103893  
**Review Level:** Delegated  
**Protocol Title:** Interaction effects of Interpersonal communication and Contextual factors at workplaces  
**Department & Institution:** Richard Ivey School of Business\Ivey School of Business,Western University  
**Sponsor:**  
**Ethics Approval Date:** January 31, 2014 **Expiry Date:** October 31, 2014

#### Documents Reviewed & Approved & Documents Received for Information:

Document Name	Comments	Version Date
Revised Letter of Information & Consent	Revised Informed Consent Form (study 2)_Ivey Lab Paid-Participant Pool	
Recruitment Items	Revised Recruitment Material (study 2)_ Ivey Lab Paid-Participant Pool Advertisement	
Revised Western University Protocol	Revised Western Protocol	

This is to notify you that The University of Western Ontario Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research Involving Human Subjects (NMREB) which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Humans and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario has granted approval to the above referenced revision(s) or amendment(s) on the approval date noted above.

This approval shall remain valid until the expiry date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the NMREB's periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information.

Members of the NMREB who are named as investigators in research studies, or declare a conflict of interest, do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on, such studies when they are presented to the NMREB.

The Chair of the NMREB is Dr. Riley Hinson. The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

*This is an official document. Please retain the original in your files.*

## Appendix 7. Curriculum Vitae

### **YONGSUHK (JASON) JUNG**

Ph.D. Candidate  
Organizational Behavior  
Richard Ivey School of Business  
Western University

#### **EDUCATION**

- 2010-           **Ph.D. Richard Ivey School of Business, Western University**  
Major: Organizational Behavior
- 2006           **M.B.A., Seoul National University, Seoul, Republic of Korea**  
Major: Human Resource Management and Organizational Behavior  
Thesis: “The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence of a Supervisor and Subordinates’ Adjustments in the Organization”
- 2003           **B.B.A., Yonsei University, Seoul, Republic of Korea**  
Major: Business Administration

#### **ACADEMIC EXPERIENCE**

- 2010-2014    **Research Assistant (for Dr. Charlice Hurst), Richard Ivey School of Business, Western University**
- 2006-2009    **Full-Time Lecturer, Department of Management, Korea Air Force Academy, Cheongwon, Republic of Korea**
- 2005  
Seoul         **Teaching/Research Assistant (for Dr. Yoo Keun Shin), School of Business, National University, Seoul, Republic of Korea**

#### **RESEARCH AND TEACHING INTERESTS**

##### ***Research Interests:***

- Employee Voice and Silence
- Organizational Citizenship Behavior
- Core Self-Evaluations
- Team Leadership
- Socialization and Adjustment

##### ***Teaching Interests:***

- Human Resource Management
- Organizational Behavior
- Leadership

## CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

- Jung, Y.** & Hurst, C. (2014) Power of Powerful/Powerless Speech in Employee Voice: Recipients' Reactions to Assertive/Tentative Speaking-ups, Accepted for presentation at *The Annual Convention of Association for Psychological Science (APS)*, San Francisco, CA.
- Hurst, C., **Jung, Y.**, Simon, L. S., & Pirouz, D. (2014) A Psychopathic Advantage? Relations between Psychopathy, Engagement and Abusive Supervision, Accepted for presentation at *The Annual Meeting of Society for Industrial & Organizational Psychology (SIOP)*, Honolulu, HI.
- MacMillan, K., **Jung, Y.**, Hurst, C. (2014). The Influence of Regulatory Focus and Core Self-Evaluations on Employee Voice. Accepted for presentation at *The Annual Meeting of Administrative Sciences Association of Canada (ASAC)*, Muskoka, ON.
- Jung, Y.** (2013). Dual Roles of Organizational Identification in the Process of Employee Voice, Presented at *The Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management (AOM)*, Orlando, FL.
- Jung, Y.** (2013). Performativity of High Performance Work System, Presented at *The Annual Meeting of Administrative Science Association of Canada (ASAC)*, Calgary, ON.
- Jung, Y.**, Hurst, C., & Jung, C. W. (2013). Core Self-Evaluations, Interpersonal Relationships, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, Presented at *The Annual Meeting of Society for Industrial & Organizational Psychology (SIOP)*, Houston, TX.
- Jung, Y.** (2012). Voice within Groups: The Roles of Group Characteristics, Presented at *The Annual Meeting of Administrative Science Association of Canada (ASAC)*, St. John's, NL.

## SELECTED WORKS IN PROGRESS

- Hurst, C., Simon, L. S., **Jung, Y. S.**, & Judge, T. A. Tell Them Something Good: Disclosing Positive News to Coworkers as an Avenue to Organizational Citizenship Behavior.  
Phase: Under review
- Jung, Y. S.**, & Hurst, C. Organizational Identification, Employee Voice, and Performance Evaluation.  
Phase: Under review
- Hurst, C., **Jung, Y. S.**, Simon, L. S., & Pirouz, D. The "Psychopathic Advantage?": The Effects of Trait Psychopathy on Work Engagement and the Moderating Role of Abusive Supervision.  
Phase: Under review (R&R, Journal of Applied Psychology)
- Jung, Y. S.**, Hurst, C., & Jung, C. W. The Role of Core Self-Evaluations in Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Relational Perspective  
Phase: Writing
- MacMillan, K., **Jung, Y.**, Hurst, C., Howell, J. The Influence of Regulatory Focus, Core Self-Evaluations, and Gender on Employee Voice.  
Phase: Writing
- Jung, Y. S.** Reactions of Voice Recipients to Assertive and Tentative Employee Voice

\* Dissertation Research

#### **OTHER SELECTED RESEARCH EXPERIENCES**

Jo, Y. J., **Jung, Y. S.** (2007). A Study of the Development of Evaluation Tools for the Measurement of Educational Performance, KAFA 07-06 (Research Project sponsored by the National Treasury)

**Jung, Y. S.** (2006). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence of Supervisors and Subordinates' Adjustment in the Organization, Master Degree Thesis, Business School of Seoul National University.

Yang, S. Y., **Jung, Y. S.**, Park, T. H., & Song, E. J. (2004). The Ethical Management System of ShinSeGae Co. Ltd. (Selected for the Final Round, National Business Case Competition, hosted by Center for Case Development in Seoul National University)

#### **HONORS & AWARDS**

2013	Al Mikalachki PhD Research Scholarship
2010-2014	Ivey Ph.D. Plan for Excellence Scholarship
2008	Korea Air Force Academy Superintendent Award for Outstanding Performance

#### **PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES**

Member, Korean Academy of Management

Member, Academy of Management (AOM)

Member, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP)

Member, Administrative Science Association of Canada (ASAC)