When Are They More Likely to Listen? An Investigation on Managerial Response to Voice

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Abstract

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In this dissertation, I investigate the factors underlying managerial response to voice with three papers. Chapter One reviews the literature on managerial response to voice and provides a general introduction of my three papers. Chapter Two presents a model investigating how managerial ego depletion influences manager's decision of voice endorsement, and how such relationship is moderated by employee expertise. A field study and an experimental study were conducted to test the hypotheses. In Chapter Three, I examine the controversial effect of leader-follower gender-match on managerial response to voice and highlight the moderating role of manager's social comparison orientation. Two experiments with manager samples provide consistent supports for the hypotheses. In Chapter Four, I examine when managers reward or punish employee voice by studying the contingencies of employees' helping and ingratiatory behavior, and demonstrate how managerial attribution of voice explains such effects. I conducted a series of studies to develop the scale of managerial attribution of voice, and a longitudinal, leader-follower dyadic field study to test the hypotheses. Chapter 5 provides a brief conclusion of the three papers.

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CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Voice in organization refers to "discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning" (Morrison, 2011: 375). Evidence has mounted that employee voice can help identify existing problems, discern threats and opportunities, promote learning and innovation, implement organizational change, and improve organizational effectiveness (e.g., Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013; Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Zhou & George, 2001). Given these benefits, a large body of literature over the past 30 years widely examines what motivates employees to engage in this discretionary, risk-taking, and pro-organization behavior (see Morrison, 2011 for a review). Nonetheless, "much less is known about what happens after voice is articulated" (Howell, Harrison, Burris, & Detert, 2015: 2) – that is, when and why some managers are more likely to implement the suggested ideas and reward the employee for speaking up, or ignore the voice and view the employee less positively.[1]

This line of inquiry is critical not only because the value of employee voice can be substantially compromised unless adopted by managers, but also because managerial reaction to voice plays a large part in employees' future decision to voice (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014). Given the potential benefits of employee voice, one may assume that managers would normally embrace it. Scholars, however, find that a large number of managers do not give enough credit to employees who voice (Burris, Detert, & Romney, 2013). Instead, they engage in actions that indicate aversion to employees' upward voice (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). Such negative managerial responses to voice not only discourage employees' future voice behavior,

[1] Although voice can be directed to both superiors and peers, I focus on upward voice in this dissertation for two reasons. One is that the hierarchy in the leader-follower relationship makes the response process to voice different from lateral voice. The other is that upward voices to managers, who have the power to initiate changes, are more important to organizational effectiveness (Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013).

but also make the organizational efforts in promoting employee voice futile. Therefore, it is critically important to better understand when and why managers react positively to followers' voice behavior.

Below, I first review the existing literature on the leader perspective of voice, in which I highlight the contingency approach to examine how voice influences managerial appraisal of an employee, and the importance of examining managerial decision on voice endorsement. Then I present a brief introduction on my three papers that seek to contribute to these two streams of research on managerial response to voice.

The Emergence of the Leader Perspective of Voice

Although scholars use somewhat distinct terms to study employees' upward voice, the definitions of voice share three common features – an act of verbal expression, discretionary, and constructive in its intent to elicit positive change (Morrison, 2011). The third feature distinguishes voice from other affiliated organizational citizenship behaviors such as helping (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Grant, 2013), and casts additional barriers for employees because voice may not only end up futile, but also put the "voicer" at risk of relationship damage with managers. In fact, a majority of employees hold the implicit beliefs that (a) challenging the existing process means questioning the manager who establishes or maintains it, (b) solid data and solutions are needed before speaking up, (c) voicing in public will embarrass the boss, and (d) pointing out inefficiencies or problems is detrimental to one's career in an organization (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Therefore, in addition to the desire to help the work unit or organization, employees' perceived efficacy and safety of voice play equally important roles in employees' decision on voice behavior (Morrison, 2011; Wei, Zhang, & Chen, 2015).

The work from Dutton, Ashford, and colleagues (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Dutton, Ashford, O'Neil, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997) is among the first to highlight that voice is not always welcomed by managers and that certain issues are especially so. They note that employees normally "read the wind" and assess the context favorability of issue selling in terms of organizational norm for issue selling, managers' expressed willingness to listen, organizational support, and voicer-target relationship quality. In their qualitative study, Milliken and colleagues (2003) further corroborate this idea – employees with less experience, lower power, and less closeness with managers tend to expect more negative outcomes (i.e., being viewed negatively and get retaliations) and lower chance of success in issue selling.

Research in this vein, however, focuses on the *perceptions of the employees* in regards to how managers will react to their voice. Indeed, as Burris (2012) points out, employees' assessment may not always be accurate. Therefore, a leader-perspective of voice is needed to directly address when leaders are more likely to endorse the raised ideas and view the voicers positively due to their voice. Morrison and Milliken (2000) theorize that managers with fear of negative feedback and the implicit belief that employees are self-interested and that management knows the best tend to create centralization of decision making, close formal upward feedback mechanism, reject or respond negatively to negative feedback, and avoid solicitation of negative feedback. Still, there's a lack of empirical evidence in this regard. In response, a surge of empirical research directly examines managerial response to voice, seeking to unveil the factors underlying *managerial appraisal of the employees who speak up* and *managerial decision on voice endorsement*.

Managerial Appraisal of the Employees Who Speak Up

Existing leader-perspective of voice centers on the relationship between employee voice and manager's performance evaluation of the employee who speaks up – that is, whether managers think more, or less, of the employee due to his/her voice. Van Dyne and LePine (1998) examine how employee voice—rated by self, peer, and supervisor—is related to supervisor-rated performance of an employee. Their results suggest a null relationship in general. Whiting and colleagues use videos to depict voice in different forms and examine how (1) having a solution in the voice or not, (2) framing the voice positively or negatively, (3) voicer expertise, (4) voicer trustworthiness, (5) speaking up early vs. late in the process, and (6) organizational norm for voice influence observers' evaluation of the voicer (Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012). They find that voice with a solution and earlier in the process as well as voicer's expertise and trustworthiness would make observers view the voice in a more positive manner and evaluate the voicer with higher performance. Meanwhile, Burris (2012) establishes that when employees voice to bring about changes from, rather than preserving, the status quo, they appear as a threat and less loyal to managers. As a result, managers tend to under-evaluate the employees with change-oriented suggestions.

Given the mixed empirical evidence on the effect of employee voice on manager's evaluation of an employee, other scholars further the understanding of the voice-performance evaluation relationship by examining its contingencies. Grant (2013) argues that employees with more emotional regulation knowledge are better in controlling fear, applying surface and deep acting, and choosing a better time to voice, so that their voices tend to be perceived in a more constructive and favorable manner. He shows that for employees with higher emotional regulation knowledge, the relationship between voice and manager-rated performance is more positive. In addition, Howell and colleagues (2015) theorize that managers' reaction to voice

from different employees is subject to heuristic biases related to employees' surface-level features, such as demographic characteristics (gender and ethnicity) and structural status cues (advice and friendship centrality). In particular, the relationship between voice expression and performance evaluation tends to be more positive for full time employees and employees with higher advice centrality. The studies from Grant (2013) and Howell et al. (2015) represent an important step toward a contingency-based investigation on the effect of employee voice on managerial appraisal of the employee. Nonetheless, this stream of research is still at its early stage, and more studies are needed to identify other important contingencies that determine the differential consequences of voice on the employees.

Managerial Voice Endorsement

In contrast to the studies examining manager's appraisal of the employees who speak up, we have less understanding about manager's decision process of voice endorsement – the implementation of a suggested idea or advocating it to higher level of management. The notion of voice endorsement is part of the broader idea of advice taking, which has been well explored in the literature of social psychology (see Bonoccio & Dalal, 2006 for a review). Although the literature of advice taking is valuable in informing our inquiry of voice endorsement, there's unique, theoretical value in exploring the mechanisms underlying voice endorsement for two reasons. First, the study context is different. The premise in the advice taking literature is that the judge needs or seeks advice, whereas in the voice context, voice is an unsolicited voluntary behavior. Second, the manager-subordinate hierarchy in the voice endorsement context is different from the Judge-Advisor system used in the advice-taking literature.

Experimental studies on advice taking normally adopt the Judge-Advisor system, in which a "judge" (participant) is either faced with a choice among several qualitative alternatives

or asked to provide a quantitative estimate on a subject. Then the judge is exposed to advice from one or more "advisors" who share some interests in the decision problem, and the judge makes a final decision reflecting the degree of advice taking. Prior research has established that when people have an opinion of their own, they in general discount the disagreeing opinion from others (e.g., Harvey & Fischer, 1997; Yaniv, 2004; Yaniv & Kleinberger, 2000). People can, however, become more receptive to advice when they perceive the advisors with higher expertise and more experience (Harvey & Fischer, 1997; Sniezek, Schrah, & Dalal, 2004). Individuals also tend to weigh advice more heavily when the decision domain is difficult (Gino & Moore, 2007) and when the advice is costly to obtain (Gino, 2008; Patt, Bowles, & Cash, 2008). On the other hand, individuals are more likely to discount advice when they feel they are knowledgeable (Yaniv, 2004), when they experience more power and thereby more confidence in their own judgment (See, Morrison, Rothman, & Soll, 2011), and when they experience anger triggered by a prior event (Gino & Schweitzer, 2008).

In the context of voice, the manager-subordinate hierarchy indicates differential roles and expectations of behaviors assigned to each party (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In particular, managers are generally expected to demonstrate efficacy and competence over subordinates, whereas subordinates are expected to conform and execute. Fast, Burris, and Bartel (2014) call attention to the psychological process that makes some managers more aversive to voice than others. Drawing from role theory and self-discrepancy theory, they suggest that managers who feel unable to fulfill the role expectation of demonstrating efficacy are more likely to experience ego threat from employees' voice. With ego defensiveness triggered, managers with lower managerial self-efficacy tend to reject the suggested ideas from employees. While the perceived threat from subordinates and the resulted ego defensiveness play critical roles in explaining

managers' reluctance in endorsing voice (Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014), the idea of threat is missing in the literature of advice taking. Such difference results in some unique psychological processes in leader's decision making of voice endorsement, while these processes are less relevant in the general advice taking context without the hierarchical relationship and differential role expectations.

When managers refrain from voice endorsement without legitimate reasons, employee voice becomes futile, thus discouraging employees from speaking up in the future. The research on managerial response to voice, however, is certainly not to suggest that managers should always implement the suggested ideas or changes from employees. It would be a disaster if that's the case, as there can be different opinions and voices from different employees regarding a certain issue, let alone the fact that employees may suggest some wrong ideas. We are familiar with stories where managers miss great opportunities or pursue wrong directions that put the team or business in bad situations, but we also know many cases where some managers disregard the opposing views from followers and eventually achieve great success for the team or business. Therefore, the purpose of research on voice endorsement is to unearth manager's potential biases in processing voice, so that managers won't discount some voices consciously or subconsciously and make less informed decisions with some important information missing.

Dissertation Purposes

As the research on managerial voice endorsement and managerial appraisal of the employees who speak up is at the early stage, this dissertation presents three papers to extend our understanding on managerial response to voice.

In Paper 1,[2] I draw on ego depletion theory (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998) to examine the detrimental effects of manager ego depletion on managerial voice endorsement, which refers to the implementation of a suggested idea or the advocating of it to higher level of management (Burris, 2012). I suggest that depleted managers tend to refrain from cognitive deliberations of employee voice; as a result, they are less likely to endorse employee voice due to status quo bias and confirmation bias. I further examine the moderating role of perceived employee expertise in this process. Extant research has shown that in the context of feedback/advice giving, perceived expertise of the source plays a central role in shaping the receiver's view of the feedback and the decision to accept such feedback (Ilgen et al., 1976; Bonaccio & Dalal, 2006; Jungermann & Fischer, 2005; Sniezek et al., 2004). I contend that the negative effect of ego depletion on voice endorsement tends to be stronger when the voicing employee is perceived as having low expertise.

Paper 1 seeks to contribute to the literature in three ways. First, since defending one's ego upon receiving negative feedback—by neglecting or avoiding it—is natural and instinctive (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ilgen et al., 1979), I advance the understanding of managerial response to voice by highlighting the importance of self-regulation. In other words, I suggest that manager's exhibited openness to voice is not necessarily a reflection of manager's intrinsic attitude toward voice, but at least partially a result of managers' self-regulation. Second, by demonstrating the effects of manager's self-control resources on their decision processes on voice, we suggest that being open and responsive to employee voice goes beyond a stable leadership style or manager's individual predisposition (Detert & Burris, 2007; Fast et al., 2014; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Instead, managerial openness to voice may vary significantly for

[2] This paper is coauthored with Christopher Barnes, Kai Chi Yam, Cristiano Guarana, and Lin Wang, and it is currently under review.

any one manager at different points in time, depending on that manager's self-control resource level. As such, I advocate for a more dynamic perspective on managerial response to voice. Third, I provide implications to tactics that encourage the reception of employee voice (e.g., Grant, 2013). I suggest that employees should voice when managers are more energetic and cognitively resourceful, especially when the employee has not yet built up his/her credentials or expertise on the matter being raised.

In Paper 2, [3] I explore how leader-follower gender match influences managerial response to voice. Howell and colleagues (2015) suggest that employees' surface-level features such as demographic backgrounds can signal the status of the voicer and thereby shape manager's reaction to voice. Given that voice is sent and received within the leader-follower relationship, I suggest looking at demographic characteristics at a dyadic level – that is, similarity between the voicer (i.e., the follower) and voice recipient (i.e., the leader). Paper 2 aims to conceptualize and demonstrate how leader-follower gender match affects managerial response to voice. Specifically, I draw from social categorization and social comparison theory, and propose competing hypotheses for the relationship between leader-follower gender match/mismatch and managerial response to voice. I then introduce social comparison orientation, a trait level individual characteristic, to explain who respond more favorably to voice from followers of the same gender than from followers of the opposite gender. Last, I elaborate on gratitude as a key mechanism connecting the interactive effect of leader-follower gender match and social comparison orientation to managerial response to voice.

As such, Paper 2 contributes to the literature of voice in three ways. First, I suggest that, in the context of voice, we should examine demographic information at a leader-follower dyadic

[3] This paper is coauthored with Cristiano Guarana and Morela Hernandez, and it is accepted for publication at the Journal of Experimental Social Psychology.

level in terms of similarity or distinction. Second, I introduce social comparison theory and social categorization theory to shed light on the psychological mechanism of managerial response to voice. Third, I examine the emotional path (i.e., gratitude) through which antecedent factors influence manager's reaction to voice, whereas past research has mostly focused on the cognitive mechanisms.

The purpose of Paper 3 is twofold.[4] First, I seek to examine the important contingencies of the relationship between employee voice and how managers think about the employees who speak up (in terms performance evaluation and the intent of soliciting more voice from the employee). As noted earlier, existing research has presented mixed evidence on how employee voice influences a manager's attitude toward and performance evaluation of the voicing employee. Some researchers find that managers will reward employee voice because it is an important form of extra-role or organizational citizenship behavior that helps to improve organizational functioning (Grant, 2013; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008), whereas other researchers find that managers may perceive employee voice as a threat to their ego and image, question whether the voicing employees are truly loyal to the manager, and punish employees for speaking up (Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014). To advance the understanding on the consequences of voice on employees, I examine how employees' helping behavior and ingratiation behavior moderate the relationships between employee voice, manager's performance evaluation of the employee who speaks up, and manager's intent of soliciting more voice from the employee in the future.

Second, Paper 3 sheds light on the structure of manager's attribution of employee voice and examines how it mediates the relationship between voice and manager's voice solicitation

[4] This paper is coauthored with Xiao-Ping Chen, Wei He, and Lin Wang. It is now a working paper.

and performance evaluation of the employee who voices. To better understand the factors that shape manager's perception of a voice – being valuable or threatening, Morrison (2011) explicitly suggests starting with manager's causal attributions for why an employee is voicing. Although Whiting and colleagues (2012) theorize that observers' attribution of voice to prosocial motives partially explains the effects of voicing with a solution, voicer trustworthiness and organizational norm on observers' performance evaluation of the voicer, their empirical results largely fail to support such claims. As yet, no research has systematically established the key dimensions of managerial voice attribution, nor its role in explaining managerial decision on voice endorsement. Hence, this paper seeks to theorize the dimensions of managerial attribution of voice, develop a scale measuring it, and empirically examine its role in explaining managerial response to employee voice.

In sum, these three papers together offer a holistic investigation on managerial response to voice. As the voice behavior and managerial response to voice occur within the dyadic relationship between manager and follower, I advance the understanding on managerial response to voice by examining the characteristic of the leader (Paper 1 on manager ego depletion), the dyadic characteristic of the leader-follower relationship (Paper 2 on leader-follower gender match), and the characteristic of the follower (Paper 3 on follower's helping behavior and ingratiation).

Looking Ahead

The rest of the proposal is structured as follows. Chapter 2 presents paper 1, where I investigate the effect of manager's ego depletion on voice endorsement. I conducted a field study surveying managers across ten days about the voice event they encounter at work (Study 1) and a scenario experiment with manager sample (Study 2) to test the hypotheses.

Chapter 3 presents paper 2, where I examine how leader-follower gender match influences leader's response to voice. I conducted two scenario experiments with two manager samples to test the hypotheses (Study 3 & 4).

Chapter 4 presents paper 3, where I examine how the relationships between employee voice and manager's performance evaluation of and voice solicitation from the employee is moderated by employee's helping behaviors and ingratiation toward the manager. In addition, I examine how these interactive effects are mediated by managerial attribution of voice. In Study 5, I first developed the scale of voice attribution through initial item generation (Study 5a), exploratory factor analysis (Study 5b), and confirmatory factor analysis (Study 5c) from three separate samples. I then conducted a longitudinal field study (Study 6) with 122 leader-follower dyads to test the hypotheses.

Chapter 5 presents a general conclusion for my three-paper dissertation.

CHAPTER 2: MANAGER EGO DEPLETION AND MANAGERIAL VOICE ENDORSEMENT (PAPER 1)

Managers often have challenging tasks and responsibilities. These include delegating work assignments to team members, making important decisions that affect the team, resolving employee conflict, responding to the most difficult customer complaints, and reacting to the dynamics of the external environment. Such typical managerial behaviors can consume managers' energy resources and result in ego depletion, "a state in which the self does not have all the [self-control] resources it has normally" (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007, p.2). For example, researchers find that managers tend to experience ego depletion after dealing with customer complaints (Yam, Fehr, Keng-Highberger, Klotz, & Reynolds, 2016) and from serving as an ethical role model for their subordinates (Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016). Likewise, excessive workloads and pressure are likely to leave managers more depleted at work (Barnes, 2011; Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, & Christian, 2015).

Researchers have shown that depleted managers tend to forgo long-term benefits for short-term gains (Kotabe & Hofmann, 2015), become less engaged at work (Lanaj et al., 2014), exhibit less persistence in problem solving and reasoning (e.g., Hagger, Wood, Stiff, & Chatzisarantis, 2010), and thus often fail to discern problems or identify opportunities. In this case, employees' upward voice becomes especially valuable to aid depleted managers in fulfilling their roles in the workplace. *Upward voice* in organizations refers to employees' discretionary communication to managers of ideas, suggestions, and concerns about work-related issues, with the intention of improving organizational or unit functioning[5] (Morrison, 2011; Van

[5] In this article, we focus on upward voice only and do not discuss lateral voice to peers. Moreover, we follow Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) approach of voice as constructive challenge that is change- or improvement-oriented.

Dyne & LePine, 1998). Upward voice can help identify problems, discern threats and opportunities, promote learning and innovation, and improve organizational effectiveness (e.g., Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013; Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Zhou & George, 2001). One might therefore expect depleted managers to embrace employees' voice more than less depleted managers do.

In this research, we suggest that although depleted managers might benefit more from employee upward voice than their less or non-depleted counterparts, they are paradoxically less likely to diligently process or endorse such voice. In particular, we argue that managers are tempted to brush off employee voice because it represents implicit or explicit criticism that potentially threatens their status and image (Burris, 2012, Fast et al., 2014; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). As a result, managers are naturally driven to defend their ego by avoiding and ignoring employee voice (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Fast et al., 2014). Therefore, to be receptive and responsive to voice, managers need to follow the higher-order need of improving effectiveness and resist their immediate inclination to avoid voice (Kotabe & Hofmann, 2015). Such self-control is, however, compromised when managers experience ego depletion, whether brought about by preceding managerial tasks or by sleep deprivation.

We draw on ego depletion theory (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998) to examine the detrimental effects of manager ego depletion on *managerial voice endorsement*, the implementation of a suggested idea or the advocating of that idea to a higher level of management (Burris, 2012). We suggest that depleted managers tend to refrain from cognitive deliberations of employee voice; as a result, they are less likely to endorse employee voice due to

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Hereafter, our use of the term "voice" refers to change-oriented voice as directed to managers. Our discussion does not include supportive voice (Burris, 2012), defensive voice or destructive voice (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). The change-oriented voice discussed in this paper include both promotive voice and prohibitive voice but we do not distinguish them (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012).

status quo bias and confirmation bias. We further examine the moderating role of perceived employee expertise in this process. Research has shown that in the context of feedback/advice giving, perceived expertise of the source plays a central role in shaping the receiver's view of the feedback and the decision to accept it (Bonaccio & Dalal, 2006; Ilgen et al., 1976; Jungermann & Fischer, 2005; Sniezek et al., 2004). We contend that the negative effect of ego depletion on voice endorsement tends to be stronger when the manager perceives the voicing employee as having low expertise. The theoretical model is presented in figure 1.

------ Insert Figure 1 about Here ------

In sum, this paper contributes to the literature of voice in three ways. First, since defending one's ego upon receiving negative feedback—by ignoring or avoiding it—is natural and instinctive (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ilgen et al., 1979), we advance the understanding of managerial response to voice by highlighting the importance of self-regulation. In other words, we suggest that managers' exhibited openness to voice is not necessarily a reflection of their intrinsic attitude toward voice, but is at least partially a result of self-regulation. Second, by demonstrating the effects of managers' self-control resources on their decision processes on voice, we suggest that being receptive and responsive to employee voice goes beyond a stable leadership style or a manager's individual predisposition (Detert & Burris, 2007; Fast et al., 2014; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Instead, managerial openness to voice may vary significantly for any one manager at different points in time, depending on his or her self-control resources. As such, we advocate for a more dynamic perspective on managerial response to voice. Third, we provide implications for tactics that encourage the reception of employee voice (e.g., Grant, 2013). We suggest that employees should voice only when managers are more energetic and

cognitively well-resources, especially when those employees have not yet built up their credentials or established their expertise on the matter being raised.

Theory and Hypotheses

Managerial Voice Endorsement

Researchers have long recognized that, while some employees go the extra mile and strive to help by speaking up (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), their voice is not always welcomed by managers (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). Given the paradox between the benefits of employee voice and managers' exhibited aversion to it, a leader-centric perspective of voice emerged to directly address when managers are more likely to respond favorably to employee voice, in terms of managers' positive performance evaluation of the voicing employees and managers' voice endorsement. Whereas the former inquiry has amassed a substantial volume of research (Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014; Grant, 2013; Howell, Harrison, Burris, & Detert, 2015; Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012), there is less knowledge about the managerial decision process of voice endorsement.

Burris (2012) stresses that voice endorsement merits unique investigation because "managers may choose to withhold their endorsement for ideas that are raised without explicitly lowering their evaluation of the employees who raise them" (p. 852). As a result, he finds that managers refrain from endorsing voice because they are concerned that their ability will be questioned and they will lose status upon endorsing the voice (Burris, 2012). Likewise, Fast and colleagues (2014) show that managers with less managerial self-efficacy tend to feel insecure about their ability to fulfill their managerial role expectations, and tend to reject their employees'

suggestions because of experienced ego threat. This paper seeks to further the understanding on managerial voice endorsement from a self-regulation perspective.

Manager's Ego Depletion and Voice Endorsement

As noted earlier, employees' upward voice should be of greater value to depleted managers because these managers are potentially less able to identify problems or make effective decisions. Yet we suggest that depleted managers are less likely to diligently process and endorse employee voice. We argue that managers are generally tempted to dismiss voice processing, mostly because employee voice implicitly or explicitly criticizes a manager or the sets of routines that he or she has created or maintained (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Morrison & Milliken, 2000), even though criticism may not have been the employee's intention. Such direct or indirect negative feedback embedded in employee voice can harm a manager's self-esteem, and is often associated with negative affect such as tension and anxiety (e.g., Cianci, Klein, & Seijts, 2010).

Dealing with negative feedback diligently is not an intuitively appealing and emotionally comfortable process; managers are thus often inclined to avoid it. Moreover, making diligent decisions on what is voiced can be cognitively demanding, effort-intensive, and time-consuming. Managers may need to collect information, validate assumptions, and scrutinize the pros and cons before reaching an informed decision. It is especially tempting for managers to avoid employee voice when they have other tasks and responsibilities to attend to (DeWall, Baumeister, Meads, & Vohs, 2011). Given these two tendencies to avoid the processing of employee voice, we suggest that self-regulation is needed to regulate managers' cognitive efforts in processing voice.

According to Baumeister and colleagues (Baumeister et al., 1998; Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007), self-control is a limited mental resource and all acts of volition draw from this common but limited resource pool. When self-control resources are depleted as a result of prior exertions and lack of replenishment—a state known as ego depletion, individuals' subsequent self-regulation is undermined (e.g., Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Hagger et al., 2010). Although most studies of ego depletion have utilized a dual-task paradigm in the laboratory to demonstrate its effects, more recent organizational studies suggest that the effects of ego depletion are generalizable to the workplace over longer periods. For example, ego depletion at work has been linked to increased unethical (Barnes, Schaubroeck, Huth, & Ghumman, 2011) and deviant behavior (Christian & Ellis, 2011), decreased work engagement (Lanaj, Johnson, & Barnes, 2014), and increased abusive supervision (Barnes et al., 2015; Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016; Yam et al., 2016).

More important, Barber, Barnes, and Carlson (2013) show that, when their self-control resources are depleted, individuals tend to put less effort into their tasks. Applying these findings to the processing of employee voice, we contend that more depleted managers—those whose capacity for self-control is compromised—tend to submit to the temptation of brushing off employee voice and exert less cognitive effort in considering; in this case, they are less likely to endorse employees' voice due to *status quo bias* and *confirmation bias*.

First, voice is about making changes to the status quo or questioning a previously made decision, such as restructuring work procedures, introducing new products, or revising business plans. Such change, in a business context, is often accompanied by uncertainties and ambiguities, and a clear conclusion on the positivity of the change is not always easily available, especially when managers don't invest enough effort in deliberation. In such cases, managers may be

substantially biased toward the status quo due to informational limitations (i.e., not having enough information to convince themselves that the alternative to status quo is better), loss aversion (the tendency to strongly prefer avoiding losses to acquiring gains), and their psychological commitment to the present situation (Kahneman, Knetsch, & Thaler, 1991; Samuelson & Zeckhauser, 1988). Danziger, Levav, and Avnaim-Pesso's (2011) study provides some empirical support to this argument. In the context of judicial rulings, where only laws and facts should be factored into parole judges' decisions, they found that the percentage of favorable rulings on parole dropped gradually from 65% to nearly zero within each decision session, and rose abruptly to nearly 65% after a break, during which the parole judges' self-control resources were replenished. In other words, parole judges who were depleted tended to reject parole petitions because they were likely to simplify the decision-making process and maintain the status quo.

Second, researchers have also found that individuals with depleted self-regulation resources exhibit a stronger tendency for confirmatory information processing than individuals who are not depleted (Fischer, Greitemeyer, & Frey, 2008). In other words, they tend to give more weight to information that is consistent with their initial preference or stance, while rejecting inconsistent information. In the context of voice processing, managers are naturally inclined to reject employee voice, both because it represents negative feedback that threatens their ego, and because it urges them to deviate from the status quo. Thus, when managers are more depleted, they are more likely to dismiss cues that support employee voice and give more weight to the ones that undermine the suggested issue. This can lead to a quick rejection of a voice with seemingly justifiable reasons.

Taken together, we contend that ego depletion reduces managers' cognitive effort in processing voice; in turn, depleted managers make quicker judgments on voice endorsement, and are thus more likely to reject voice due to status quo bias and confirmation bias. As such, we propose the following two hypotheses:

> *H1: Manager ego depletion will negatively influence his/her endorsement of employee voice.*
>
> *H2: Manager's effort in processing voice mediates the negative relationship between ego depletion and voice endorsement.*

The Moderating Role of Perceived Employee Expertise

We now establish that a manager's perception of employee expertise—the extent to which he or she believes the voicing employee possesses the knowledge and experience to make credible suggestions—may play an important role in countering status quo bias and confirmation bias, thus attenuating the detrimental effect of ego depletion on managerial voice endorsement.

As noted earlier, depleted managers tend to refrain from cognitive deliberations of a raised issue; as a result, they rely on readily accessible information and make quick judgments about the voice (Kahneman, 2011). In this decision-making process, manager's perception of the voicing employee's expertise is a piece of important and readily accessible information, that can significantly shape a manager's endorsement decision. A voicing employee is more likely to be perceived as an expert when he or she has an advanced degree (especially when it is in a field relevant to the issue at hand), longer work experience, demonstrated problem-solving ability, and/or a history of making useful suggestions. Such information is stored in managers' memory through daily interactions and can easily be recalled by a manager. Accumulated research in the literature of advice giving, feedback seeking, and employee voice, has consistently established that the advice or feedback giver's expertise plays a central role in enhancing his or her

credibility (Bonaccio & Dalal, 2006; Ilgen et al., 1976) and resulting in a greater chance of acceptance by the receiver (Jungermann & Fischer, 2005; Sniezek et al., 2004).

Specifically, when voice comes from an employee that the manager perceives as an expert in the area, that manager will tend to believe that the identified problem exists and that the proposed solution is valid (Whiting et al., 2012). This automatic priming is likely to counter the manager's inclination to reject the voice due to status quo bias and confirmation bias, thus reducing the detrimental effect of lack of deliberation on voice endorsement. In contrast, when the manager perceives the voicing employee as having low expertise, the validity of the suggested idea will automatically be questioned. And, in the absence of deliberative thinking, such associative judgment will be a strong cue to engage the manager's confirmation bias, and strengthen his or her tendency to accept the status quo. That is, the reduced effort in processing voice is especially likely to result in lower voice endorsement when the voicing employee has little expertise in the eyes of the manager. Taken together, we propose that:

> *H3: The relationship between manager's effort in processing voice and voice endorsement is moderated by perceived employee expertise, such that a reduction of effort in processing voice results in greater decrement in voice endorsement when the employee is perceived as having lower expertise.*

Combining H2 and H3, we have the following second-stage moderated mediating hypothesis:

> *H4: The indirect effect of manager's ego depletion on voice endorsement (via effort in processing voice) is moderated by perceived employee expertise. The indirect effect tends to be more negative when the manager perceives lower expertise of the employee but dissipates when manager perceives high expertise of the employee.*

Research Overview

We conducted two studies to test our hypotheses. In Study 1, we examined Hypothesis 1 by surveying 62 managers over 10 consecutive workdays, during which they were asked to

report the voice they received at work and their decision of voice endorsement. Most studies of managerial voice endorsement have been conducted in experimental settings (e.g., Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014). This experience sampling strategy is appropriate and necessary because managers may not encounter voice every day, and a 10-day span can increase the number of voice events we can capture. More importantly, experience sampling and multilevel analysis enable us to parcel out the variance of voice endorsement due to manager characteristics (such as openness and managerial self-efficacy: Detert & Burris, 2007; Fast et al., 2014).

In Study 2, we conducted an experiment with 198 managers to find support for the mediating role of effort in processing voice (Hypothesis 2), and the role of employee expertise as a boundary condition on the effect of ego depletion on managerial voice endorsement (Hypotheses 3 and 4). The combination of field and laboratory approaches increases our confidence in the internal and external validity of our findings.

Study 1: Survey Study of Managers on Voice Events

Participants and Procedure

To examine how ego depletion influences managerial voice endorsement in a field setting, we used an experience sampling approach to survey some managers about the voice events they encountered at work over 10 days. One of the authors called recent MBA and EMBA graduates of a large university in southern China with which he is affiliated. All of these MBA and EMBA graduates had accepted managerial positions in industries such as banking, consulting, manufacturing, and biotechnology. During the phone call, the managers were informed that the purpose of the study was to better understand how managers handle issues in their daily organizational life, and that they would have to fill out a five-minute daily survey for 10 consecutive workdays. We compensated participants with several bestselling books on

management at the end of the study. We contacted 90 managers, 70 of whom agreed to participate (78% participation rate).

We sent the online survey link to the participating managers at 2:00 pm every day with the request to complete it by the end of their workday. We decided that 2:00 pm was an appropriate time to send out daily survey, because it would allow sufficient time for voice events to take place during the day but also to give participants sufficient time to complete the survey. In the survey, we first asked participants to report their level of ego depletion at the time they filled out the survey. Then the participants were shown this description of employee voice:

> In organizations, employees sometimes discretionarily communicate to their managers about their comments and/or suggestions on work-related issues. We call such behavior voice. Voice is usually change-oriented. It can be about suggesting a new way of doing things in the team to further improve team effectiveness, or can be about expressing the concern about certain existing practices or decisions that are harmful to the team, in the hope of correcting these problems. Today at work, is there a communication from any of your employees that might qualify as a voice behavior described above? (This is a very important question. Please think twice before you give your answer.)

If the managers indicated yes, they were asked to report their decision of voice endorsement, in addition to the gender, age, and tenure of the voicing employee. We told the participants that if they had received more than one voice from employees, they should report on the one they remembered most clearly. If the participants reported no voice was directed to them, they were led to the end of the survey and thanked. We followed Brislin's (1986) back-translation procedure to translate the survey into Chinese.

Measures

Ego depletion. We used a five-item self-control resource scale (Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Lanaj et al., 2014; Yam, Chen, & Reynolds, 2014) to capture managers' ego depletion when filling out the survey. Specifically, they were asked to indicate the extent to which each item describes how they "feel right now" on a 6-point scale, from 1, *not at all*, to 6, *extremely*. The items were "I feel drained," "My mind feels unfocused," "It take a lot of effort for me to concentrate on something," "I cannot absorb any information," and "I feel like my willpower is gone." We did not ask managers to report their ego depletion when receiving voice because we were concerned about revealing our research purpose and inducing demand characteristics in their responses. Instead, we measured the ego depletion at the time of filling out survey as a proxy of manager's ego depletion when receiving voice. The Cronbach's α for this measure is .88.

Voice endorsement. To measure voice endorsement, we adapted and reworded the measure from Burris (2012) and Fast et al. (2014) because their measures were originally developed for scenario experiments. The three items we used were: "His/her comments were valuable," "I agreed with his/her comments," and "I will implement his/her suggestion." The Cronbach's α for this measure is .89 (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*).

Control variables. We controlled for the gender, age, and tenure of the employee, as Howell and colleagues (2015) recently showed that these demographics serve as peripheral cues that might signal the status of the employee, which would impact managers' reaction to voice.

Analysis and Results

Analytical approach. Out of the 70 managers, six did not report any voice across the 10 days. Another two managers reported several voice events, but their responses to all survey items were all identical (6: strongly agree), even on the two reverse-coded items on effort in processing

voice. As these two managers were not putting meaningful information into the survey, we excluded their data for data integrity. As a result, we had a final sample of 62 valid managers (75% males; M_{age} = 32.22) reporting 205 voice events, with an average of 3.3 voices reported across the 10 days.

We recognize that our data set is a nested data, with each manager (Level 2) having potentially multiple voice events (Level 1). More importantly, the index of ICC(1) on managerial voice endorsement reveals that 39% of the variance in voice endorsement is between-manager variance, which echoes the findings that managers are idiosyncratic in their general attitude towards voice due to individual differences (e.g., Fast et al., 2014). To account for the structural non-independence of voice events, and to parcel out the variance explained at manager level, we use hierarchical linear modeling to test Hypothesis 1. We used the Multilevel R statistical package (Bliese, 2016) to estimate a random-intercept-random-slope hierarchical linear model.

Tests of hypothesis. Table 1 presents the mean, standard deviation, and correlations among the variables. Note that manager ego depletion is negatively related to voice endorsement (r = -.20, p < .01), thus providing preliminary support for our Hypothesis 1. Table 2 presents the results of hierarchical linear modeling. Model 2 shows that manager ego depletion is negatively related to voice endorsement (B = -.17, p < .05), controlling for the gender, age, and tenure of the voicing employee. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Discussion of Study 1

Study 1 provides empirical support for our hypothesis that manager ego depletion is negatively related to voice endorsement. In addition, whereas Burris (2012) and Fast et al. (2014) investigated managerial voice endorsement based on vignettes and lab experiments, this study presents, to our best knowledge, the first field data in the inquiry of voice endorsement. Next, we

conducted an experimental study not only to provide additional empirical support for Hypothesis 1 in a more controlled setting, but also to establish the mediating effect of manager's effort in processing voice (Hypothesis 2) and the moderating role of perceived employee expertise (Hypotheses 3 and 4).

Study 2: Scenario Experiment with Managers

Participants and Procedures

We invited 300 MBA alumni of a large business school in Brazil to participate in an online study about leadership. The participants were junior and senior managers in a variety of industries (e.g., finance, health care, and construction). Since the survey was administered to Portuguese-language speakers, we followed Brislin's (1986) back-translation procedure. Two hundred and five managers completed the survey (response rate = 68%); however, we deleted seven participants from the analyses because they failed the attention check items in the hypothetical scenario (i.e., "what is the name of the employee?" and "what was the decision about?"), leaving a final sample of 198 managers (65% males, $M_{\text{age}} = 42.42$, $M_{\text{work experience}} =$ 11.00 years).

We used a 2 (ego depletion: low and high) by 2 (employee expertise: low and high) between-subjects design. The study started with a writing task, with which we manipulated ego depletion. Participants were told to describe their workday in no fewer than 100 words and they could not use certain alphabetical letters (e.g., Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011; Schmeichel, 2007). To prevent participants from suspecting our research purpose, we told them that the writing task was a test of linguistic ability, which had been shown to be an important proxy of general intelligence. In the high ego depletion condition, participants were told not to use the letters "N" and "O", whereas in the low ego depletion condition participants were told to

not use the letters “X” and “Z.” The omission of these letters has been used successfully to manipulate ego depletion among Portuguese speakers (Bednarski & Lopes, 2015; Escudero, 2013).

The participants then read a managerial scenario adapted from Fast et al. (2014). The scenario described a small commuter airline facing increasing customer complaints. Participants were asked to imagine themselves in the role of the manager in charge, who was told that complaints centered around one main issue: overbooked flights. The manager studied routes, interviewed passengers, analyzed passenger loads on each flight, and concluded that the company had to restructure the routes and maintenance schedules. After coming up with a strategic plan, the manager laid out the plan in a weekly meeting with pilots and maintenance crew members. He explained that by taking five planes off the existing routes to serve the new direct flights, the airline could operate with one less plane while still satisfying the airline’s needs, and resolving customer complaints around overbooked flights. A maintenance specialist (Renato) privately approached the manager after the meeting and questioned the strategic plan.

We then introduced the employee’s expertise manipulation. In the high expertise condition, participants read:

> Renato is 40 years old, has a master’s degree in engineering from MIT, and has worked as an airplane maintenance specialist for more than 15 years. Before joining the company three years prior, he spent seven years with another major airline company, where he also served as a member on a committee responsible for initiating several major route restructures— which turned out to be successful. As the most senior member on the maintenance team, Renato has generally met work expectations.

In the low expertise condition, participants read:

> Renato is 24 years old, has a bachelor's degree in engineering from Universidade Anhanguera, and has worked as an airplane maintenance specialist for the company for about one year. He joined your company right after he graduated from college. As the most junior member on the maintenance team, Renato has generally met work expectations.

The maintenance specialist described his concerns about the maintenance schedule, and recommended a new plan that would allocate more maintenance time (see Appendix A for a complete description of the scenario). After reading the scenario, participants answered the questions related to our variables of interest and manipulation checks. We also added an open-ended question at the end of the survey to assess whether participants had faced similar decisions themselves. Most participants reported being familiar with this type of situation, albeit in different contexts. For example, one of the participants said, "This is an interesting scenario. As a manager, I always try to get my employees' input in important decisions. Nevertheless, I do not incorporate all the suggestions in the final strategic plan." It took, on average, 11 minutes for the participants to complete the survey.

Measures

All measures were anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale (from 1, *strongly disagree*, to 7, *strongly agree*).

Ego depletion manipulation check. We used three items from Gino et al. (2011) to ensure that our manipulation of ego depletion was successful. The three items were: "This task is difficult," "This task consumes a lot of cognitive resources of me," and "I need to think a lot to avoid the words with the letters that are prohibited." The Cronbach's α for this measure is .97.

Perceived employee expertise manipulation check. We used three items adapted from Whiting et al. (2012) to ensure that our manipulation of perceived expertise was successful. They were: "Renato has the expertise to comment on this issue," "Renato has sufficient experience to comment on this issue," and "Renato has sufficient knowledge to comment on this issue." The Cronbach's α for this measure is .92.

Effort in processing voice. Barber et al. (2013) measured how much effort a survey participant put into doing a survey with four items. We adapted the four items to fit the context of processing voice. The four items were: "I put a lot of effort into thinking about his/her comments," "It was important for me to deal with his/her comments carefully," "I didn't put much energy into thinking about his/her comments [reverse coded]," and "I didn't try very hard on thinking about his/her comments [reverse coded]." The Cronbach's α for this measure is .86 (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*).

Voice endorsement. We measured voice endorsement with the scale developed by Fast et al. (2014). This scale is adapted to better reflect the given experimental scenario, and is thus different from Study 1's general three-item scale. The scale of voice endorsement in Study 2 was composed of four items: (1) Renato's comments about the maintenance schedule are valuable, (2) The comments from Renato would cause me to have second thoughts about my plan; (3) I would take Renato's comments to my superior and ask for more time for a new plan, and (4) I would revise my plan and incorporate Renato's comments. The Cronbach's α for this measure is .90.

Results

Manipulation checks. ANOVAs demonstrated that the writing task induced ego depletion. Participants in the high ego depletion condition reported that the task was significantly more difficult and cognitively demanding (M = 5.86, SD = .99) than participants in the low ego

depletion condition did *(M* = 2.21*, SD* = 1.10*), F (1, 196)* = 603.70, $p < .01$. The employee expertise manipulation also resulted in the desired effect. Participants in the high employee expertise condition evaluated the employee as possessing a higher level of expertise (*M* = 5.55, *SD* = .95) than did participants in the low employee expertise condition (*M* = 3.81, *SD* = .81), *F (1, 196)* = 190.56, $p < .01$.

Hypotheses tests. The mean, standard deviation, and correlations of the variables are presented in Table 3. To test our hypotheses, we conducted a series of linear regressions and moderated mediation analyses to test our hypotheses (Table 4). Model 2 in Table 4 shows that manager ego depletion is negatively related to voice endorsement (*B* = -.33, $p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. To shed light on the mediating role of manager's effort in processing voice (Hypothesis 2), we found that manager ego depletion was negatively related to effort in processing voice (*B* = -1.00*,* $p < .01$; Model 1 in Table 4), and effort in processing voice was positively related to voice endorsement (*B* = .15*,* $p < .05$). When both were entered into the model, the effect of ego depletion became non-significant (*B* = -.18, $p > .10$; Model 3 in Table 4). We further conducted a mediation analysis with a bootstrapping procedure (Hayes, 2013). The bootstrapping procedure (with 1,000 resampling) showed that the indirect effect of manager ego depletion on voice endorsement (via effort in processing voice) is significantly negative (*indirect effect: B* = -.15*;* 95% CI = [-.33, -.01]). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

------ Insert Table 3 & 4 about Here -------

Hypothesis 3 posits the interactive effect of manager effort in processing voice and employee expertise on voice endorsement. Model 5 in table 3 shows that the interaction term is significant (*B* = -.39*,* $p < .01$). Simple slope analysis confirmed that the effects were in the expected directions for low and high employee expertise. Specifically, when the employee was

perceived as having low expertise, a lack of effort in processing voice significantly decreased the chances of voice endorsement ($B = .40$, $p < .01$), whereas the lack of effort in processing voice did not significantly influence voice endorsement when the employee was perceived as having high expertise ($B = .08$, $p > .10$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported. To aid interpretation, the interactive effect is plotted in figure 2.

------ Insert Figure 2 about Here -----

We used the methods recommended by Hayes (2013) to test for the conditional indirect effects of manager ego depletion on voice endorsement (Hypothesis 4). Specifically, we found that manager ego depletion had a significant, negative indirect effect (via effort in processing voice) on voice endorsement when the employee had low expertise (*indirect effect:* $B = -.70$, $SE = .17$, 95% CI = [-1.07, -.41]). In contrast, the indirect effect was not significant when the employee had high expertise (*indirect effect:* $B = -.08$, $SE = .10$, 95% CI = [-.26, .16]). Taken together, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Discussion of Study 2

Study 2 provides full support for our moderated mediation model. This study adopts a 2 by 2 experimental design and provides strong evidence on the causal effect of manager ego depletion on voice endorsement. The mediating effect of cognitive effort in processing voice is also supported. More importantly, we corroborate that the detrimental effect of ego depletion on voice endorsement is attenuated by the employee's perceived expertise. The negative effect is stronger when the voicing employee is perceived as having less expertise, whereas the effect dissipates when the employee is perceived as having more expertise.

General Discussion of Paper 1

In this paper, we highlight the apparent paradox of manager ego depletion on voice endorsement. While depleted managers can potentially benefit more from employee upward voice than non-depleted managers, they are paradoxically less likely to pay attention to or endorse that kind of voice. In the survey study and experimental study, we provide support for our argument that manager ego depletion at work will compromise self-regulation upon receiving voice, and thereby reduce cognitive effort in processing it. As such, depleted managers tend to make fast decisions on voice endorsement, and are likely to reject the voice due to status quo bias and confirmation bias. The detrimental effect of ego depletion can be attenuated when the manager perceives that the voicing employee is an expert on the issue at hand. Below, we highlight the theoretical and practical implications of our findings.

Theoretical Implications

Our research makes three central contributions to the theory and research on voice. First, we adopt a self-regulation perspective to shed light on the psychological mechanism of managerial response to voice. Research has shown that some managers exhibit more openness to voice in terms of actively soliciting voice from employees, rewarding employees for speaking up, and duly considering voice and implementing it if it is valid. We agree that some managers may intrinsically embrace voice more than others (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Nonetheless, building on the accumulated research on how individuals are naturally averse to negative feedback, and our finding that managerial voice endorsement varies depending on the extent of ego depletion, we contend that managers' exhibited openness to voice is at least partially a result of their self-regulation. Some managers who fear negative feedback may still try to solicit employee voice, and process it diligently upon receipt, as they rationally realize the benefits of

employee voice, and thus regulate themselves on voice seeking and voice processing. In other words, we suggest there can be a gap between managers' intrinsic attitude, and their exhibited behaviors or attitudes, toward voice.

Second, and related to the above point, we suggest that being open and responsive to voice goes beyond a stable leadership style or individual characteristic, but also involves a regulation process that can be substantially influenced by managers' mental resources. Recent investigations on leader perspective of voice have acknowledged that managerial response to employee voice may vary as a result of the characteristics of the voicing employee (such as expertise and trustworthiness [Whiting et al., 2012] and demographic background [Howell et al., 2015]) and the way in which employee voices (Grant, 2013; Whiting et al., 2012). When exploring the impact of managerial characteristics in this process, researchers focus on stable individual predispositions such as managerial self-efficacy (Fast et al., 2014) and implicit beliefs as well as fear of negative feedback (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). We shed light on the individual variability of managers in voice endorsement, by revealing the decision process of managers when they are depleted. As such, our research encourages a more dynamic investigation of managerial response to voice.

Third, we provide implications of tactics that can encourage the positive receipt and consideration of voice, suggesting that employees should voice when managers are have more mental resources, especially when the voicing employee has not yet built up his or her credentials in the area. Researchers have recognized that when, and how, employees speak up may profoundly impact how managers view the voice and their inclination to accept it. Nonetheless, the direct evidence guiding the tactics of employee voice has been limited. Whiting and colleagues (2012) show that the presence of a solution in voice is associated with more

positive evaluation of the voicing employee, but found mixed results on the positive effect of speaking up earlier in the process and did not find support for the positive effect of positive framing. Grant (2013) finds that employee voice is more likely to elicit positive performance evaluation, when the voicing employee has stronger emotional regulation knowledge. That is, according to Grant's (2013) theorization, because employees with stronger emotional regulation knowledge can (a) better control their fear in speaking up and thereby avoid body gestures and facial expressions that signal incompetence, (b) better control their frustration and anger so that they don't voice in an aggressive manner, (c) voice at a better time (such as when the manager is in a better mood) and at a more appropriate time (such as in private). Since it is difficult to change a manager's aversion to voice, coaching employees on the art of voice to elicit more favorable outcomes is a promising way to maximize the benefits of voice in organizations. Our findings contribute to this important line of inquiry.

Practical Implications

Our findings have important practical implications to organizations, managers, and employees. For organizations seeking to improve effectiveness, it is critical to foster an organizational climate where bottom-up suggestion is encouraged and treated without bias. In this process, managers who receive the voice are in a position to implement the idea, bring it to a higher level if needed, or block the idea. Given the crucial, if not the most crucial, role managers play in realizing the value of their subordinates' voice, ensuring that managers at all levels are more receptive to employee voice is of great concern to organizations. Our findings suggest that being open and responsive to employee voice is more than an individual characteristic of a manager, but also a process that requires self-regulation, energy and mental resources.

Recent studies have also clearly established the link between employees' sleep deprivation and their ego depletion at work on the next day (Barnes et al., 2015; Christian & Ellis, 2011; Lanaj et al., 2014). As such, for organizations seeking to ensure that managers hear their employees' voices, our paper emphasizes the role of energy management for managers. Specifically, organizations can encourage boundary work that establishes "off hours" for smartphones and work emails (Barnes, 2011; Lanaj et al., 2014), and encourage managers to use breaks at work for replenishment (Trougakos, Beal, Green, & Weiss, 2008).

We suggest that managers be aware of the detrimental effect of ego depletion on their response to voice. As such, when an employee approaches a manager and voices at a time when the manager feels depleted and is running low on will power, the manager would do well to promise to get back to the employee when he or she is better rested. If the voiced issue cannot be postponed, managers could take a short break before listening (Trougakos et al., 2008), or consume some caffeine to buffer ego depletion (Welsh, Ellis, Christian, & Mai, 2014).

For employees, we offer direct strategies for when and who should voice. Grant (2013) stresses that finding the right moment to voice (such as when the manager is in a good mood) is critical in ensuring that voice is viewed more positively, and accepted. Adding to this idea, our findings suggest that employees should observe a manager's state of arousal (i.e., level of fatigue or depletion) before speaking up. They should postpone voicing when there are clear signs that the manager is mentally depleted, especially when the employee has not built up his or her credentials or expertise on the issue. In extreme cases of "voice now or never" (such as preventing managers from implementing a wrong decision), employees with less expertise could enlist the assistance of a peer that the manager may regard as more of an expert, and bring the issue to the manager's attention together.

Limitations and Future Directions

Our paper is not without its limitations. First, Study 2 asked managers to self-report their effort in processing voice. This may present some issues with social desirability. We encourage future studies to use more objective measures of manager effort in processing voice, and integrate them into the experimental design of voice endorsement. For example, researchers could track the time participants spend reviewing information and making decisions in a laboratory setting, and directly observe participants' decision making processes.

Second, whereas our study identifies employee expertise as an important moderator on the detrimental effect of ego depletion on managerial response to voice, other contingencies merit further investigation. We suspect that in a more urgent situation where managers need to decide on taking a voice right away, ego depletion may increase the chance of voice endorsement, when the employee is perceived as having high expertise. (We found null effect of ego depletion on voice endorsement for employees with high expertise.). In addition, other conditions such as the criticality of the suggested issue may play a role in shaping the effect of ego depletion on managerial voice endorsement.

Conclusions

In this paper, we explore the mechanism underlying managerial response to voice from a self-regulation perspective. We find that being open and responsive to employee voice goes beyond the individual characteristics of managers, and is also subject to managers' self-regulation resources. As such, we highlight the role of energy management in facilitating managerial openness to voice, and propose strategies for the optimum time voicing employees should approach managers.

CHAPTER 3: LEADER-FOLLOWER GENDER MATCH AND MANAGERIAL RESPONSE TO VOICE (PAPER 2)

Howell and colleagues (2015) stress that a leader's reaction to voice from different employees (in terms of voice recognition and performance evaluation) is subject to heuristic biases related to employees' surface-level features. Specifically, an employee's demographic characteristics (gender and ethnicity) and structural status cues (advice and friendship centrality) serve as signals of employee status and influence a leader's evaluation on the quantity and quality of voice from the employee. The present research aims to conceptualize and demonstrate the role of demographic similarities (i.e. gender) between leaders and followers as a dyadic relational characteristic that influences managerial response to voice.

Researchers have shown that demographic similarities in leader-follower dyads predict leaders' rating of performance and liking, even after taking into consideration demographic characteristics of individuals (Duffy & Ferrier, 2003; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Considering that voice is sent and received within leader-follower relationship (Howell et al., 2015), we argue that matches and mismatches of demographic characteristics between the voicer (i.e., the follower) and voice recipient (i.e., the leader) can also influence leaders' reactions to voice. As a starting point to this line of research, we focus on leader-follower gender match and explore when and how it affects managerial response to voice. We choose gender, as opposed to other demographic attributes, for three reasons. First, the "fixedness" of gender-based perceptual difference is dramatic (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Second, gender is an automatic source of social categorization that has an effect on social influence strategies (Vescio, Snyder, & Butz, 2003). Third, in related literature on social comparison, gender has been shown to play a particularly important role in activating people's social comparison (e.g., Duguid, 2011). Therefore,

understanding how and when leaders incorporate gender differences in their dynamic relationship with followers is of greater priority than other demographic attributes.

Drawing from social categorization theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985) and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954a), we contend that leaders can potentially experience conflicting psychological processes when the voice is expressed by a same-gender follower. On one hand, social categorization theory depicts that people tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories, such as gender, organizational membership, religious affiliation, etc. This classification can provide the focal individual with a systematic means of defining others, distinguishing people as in-group and out-group members, and treating in-group members in a more favorable way (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). As a result, leaders might respond more positively to voice when it is from a same-gender follower. On the other hand, social comparison theory proposes that individuals tend to compare themselves to similar others (Festinger, 1954a; Gardner, Gabriel, & Hochschild, 2002; Taylor & Lobel, 1989). The comparison, however, can trigger negative reactions when self-esteem is threatened (Brickman & Bulman, 1977; Mussweiler, Gabriel, & Bodenhausen, 2000). Given that gender is a key component in the determination of similarity among individuals (Duguid, 2011) and voice has a challenging and discretionary nature (Morrison, 2011), social comparison is likely to make the leader perceive more threat and become more averse to the voice when it is from a same-gender follower.

Building upon these two theories, we propose a moderated mediation model with competing hypotheses. We first propose competing hypotheses regarding the effect of leader-follower gender match/mismatch on managerial response to voice. More importantly, we seek to investigate the circumstances in which social comparison prevails over social categorization or the other way around. To this end, we introduce leader's social comparison orientation, which

captures an individual's need and urge to compare oneself with others (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999), as a moderator. We posit that when a leader has high social comparison orientation, gender-match is likely to trigger a strong social comparison process that triumphs social categorization process and leads to *less* favorable managerial response. When the leader has low comparison orientation, social comparison process is less likely to be activated in the situation of gender match, and social categorization process will lead to *more* favorable managerial response to voice. To assess managerial response to voice, we follow Fast et al. (2014) and examine leader's (a) willingness to implement voice, (b) future voice solicitation, and (c) evaluation of the voicer.

Next, we introduce leader's gratitude as a mediating mechanism of the interactive effect and propose a moderated mediation model. We focus on gratitude as the mediating mechanism for three reasons. First, existing research on leader-follower relationships has demonstrated that emotions influence leader-follower interactions and behaviors (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). The current research on managerial response to voice mostly focuses on leader's cognitive reactions (e.g., perceived threat, perceived loyalty, and perceived prosocial motive), with a lack of discussion on the emotional aspect. Second, much research has shown that complex decision processes are very susceptible to the influence of emotion and affect (e.g., Forgas, 1999), and gratitude plays a particularly important role in influencing people's decision on advice taking (Gino & Schweitzer, 2008). Third, social comparison researchers usually rely on affect or mood as a proxy to capture a focal individual's perceived threat to self-concept, minimizing problems with social desirability (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1993; Buunk, Collins, Taylor, VanYperen, & Dakof, 1990; Tesser, Millar, & Moore, 1988). The complete theoretical model is presented in Figure 3.

------ Insert Figure 3 about Here ------

As follows, we first present an overview of the literatures on social categorization and social comparison, and propose competing hypotheses for the relationship between leader-follower gender match/mismatch on managerial response to voice. We then theorize the moderating role of manager's social comparison orientation and the mediating role of gratitude. We conduct two scenario experiments with two manager samples in Brazil and the United States to test our hypotheses.

Theory and Hypotheses

A Social Categorization Perspective on Leader-Follower Gender Match and Managerial Response to Voice:

According to social categorization theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), individuals tend to classify themselves and others based on a variety of attributes such as gender, organizational membership, religious affiliation, etc. Those who share similar attributes with the focal individual are classified as in-group members, while the dissimilar others are treated as out-group members. People tend to favor in-group members over outgroup members, to trust them more, and to be more willing to cooperate with them (Brewer, 1979; Brewer & Brown, 1998). We can also find some support for this argument of social categorization from the similarity/attraction perspective (Williams & O'Reilly III, 1998), which states that similarity increases interpersonal liking and attraction. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) show that dissimilarity in the leader-follower demographic characteristics is associated less personal attraction on the part of leaders for followers, as well as less effectiveness of the follower evaluated by the leaders. As we have noted, among demographic attributes, gender plays a salient role in determining similarity among people. Therefore, we propose that people prefer to work with and communicate better with same-gender than with different-gender employees at work, which is supported by research on group diversity (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

Literature on social influence (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004) demonstrate the more we like and approve of a person, the more likely we are influenced and persuaded by him or her. Similarly, in the advice-taking literature, scholars have shown that similarity between advisor and judge (i.e., decision maker) might influence judge's propensity to take advices. Gino, Shang, and Croson (2009) contended that individuals tend to take advice provided by similar others than advice from different others because (a) similarity breeds liking and attraction, and (b) people tend to compare their beliefs to those who share similar attributes with the self and make them consistent. Manipulating similarity through the profile of gender, age, education, and geographical region, they did not find a main effect of profile similarity on advice taking across three experimental studies. Yet they found that decision maker's preference over similar or dissimilar advisors is largely dependent on the type of judgment task. In another study in which participants made musical choices based on recommendations, Yaniv, Choshen-Hillel, and Milyavsky (2011) found that decision makers placed more weight on a demographically similar advisor (in age and gender) than from a less-similar one.

Therefore, we contend that a leader is more likely to implement voice when it comes from a same-gender follower and less likely to undermine the creditability of the follower. With more liking and better communication with the same-gender follower than with a different-gender follower, a leader has a higher intention to solicit voices from a same-gender follower than from a different-gender follower. With the above reasoning, we propose the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1: A leader will respond to a voice with (a) more willingness to implement, (b) higher intention for future voice solicitation, and (c) more positive evaluation of the voicer when the voice comes from a same-gender follower than from a different-gender follower.*

A Social Comparison Perspective on Manager-Subordinate Gender Match and Managerial Response to Voice

A premise of social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) is that individuals have an intrinsic desire to learn about and improve themselves through comparisons with others. As such, in an effort to gain relevant information, individuals compare their abilities and opinions with those of others (Wood, 1996, Taylor, Wayment, & Carillo, 1995). Implicit in this argument is the competitive nature of human beings. Comparisons with worse-performing others can be perceived as self-enhancing; comparisons with better-performing others can be perceived as a self-diminishing. A large body of research supports this paradigm: "downward" comparisons can provide competitive relief and self-reassurance (for reviews, see Gibbons & Gerrard, 1991; Taylor & Lobel, 1989; Taylor, Wood, & Lichtman, 1983), often leading to feelings of happiness (Santor & Zuroff, 1997) and pride (Webster, Duvall, Gaines, & Smith, 2003); whereas, "upward" comparisons are related to competitive inferiority (e.g., Richins, 1991), often leading to negative affect (e.g., Wheeler & Miyake, 1992) and feelings of envy (e.g., Salovey & Rodin, 1984). Positive and negative responses to social comparisons are typically strong when individuals compare themselves with similar others, on self-defining and self-relevant attributes (Salovey & Rodin, 1984).

Among the attributes that can trigger perceived similarity, and in turn, social comparisons, gender is of particular relevance for at least two reasons. First, physical differences between males and females are easy to identify (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) and can influence the way in which managers and subordinates evaluate the behavior of men and women at work (e.g., Caleo, 2016; Heilman, 2012). The saliency and vividness of physical gender differences can create spontaneous, effortless, and unintentional processes of social comparison (Gilbert, Giesler, & Morris, 1995). Second, gender is a central component of self-concept (Cross & Madson, 1997; Markus, 1977). Individuals often describe themselves by their gender, creating a psychological

and intangible divide (Hoffman, Borders, & Hattie, 2000). Considering that males and females can systematically differ in their cognitions, motivations, and emotions (Cross & Madson, 1997; Guimond et al., 2007), gender can provide psychological information that activates social comparison processes. Despite the type of similarity (physical or psychological), individuals generally prefer to compare themselves with same-gender others because of saliency in the self-concept (Crocker & Blanton, 1999; Miller, 1984).

Organizational scholars have established that gender is a salient self-defining attribute that triggers social comparison in the organizational context. For example, Duguid (2011) found that in prestigious work groups, females—who are usually in the minority—tend to experience competitive threat when evaluating highly qualified female candidates. Additional evidence comes from Ely's (1994) ethnographic study. She found that female lawyers perceive female-female relations as highly competitive and even undermining. Consistent with these findings, Parks-Stamm, Heilman and Hearns (2008) found in their experimental studies that women tend to penalize women who succeed in male gender-typed jobs because they perceive more successful women as a challenge to their own perceived competence. Although the bulk of the literature has focused on female-female interactions, we broaden our predictions to include male-male interactions. We do not expect different results based on the gender of the manager because individuals, in general, engage in same-gender comparisons (Miller, 1984).

Besides the importance of gender match generating perceived similarity, individuals tend to engage in social comparison over relevant and self-defining attributes (Salovey & Rodin, 1984). For example, researchers found that individuals engage in same-gender comparisons (Zanna, Goethals, & Hill, 1975; Suls, Gasforf, & Lawhon, 1978) when they believe the other party can affect their performance. In a managerial context, subordinates can have a

disproportionate impact on the effectiveness of their managers (Hernandez et al., 2011). We propose that voice expressions activate social comparison processes in managers because subordinates who speak up with constructive, yet change-oriented ideas, can be viewed as challenging the manager's beliefs in his or her decision-making authority and ability to influence their work environment (Burris, 2012; Cuddy, Click, & Beninger, 2011; Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014). When same-gender subordinates express voice, managers are likely to feel that their self-defining responsibilities are being challenged or upstaged and experience intimidation from the harm inflicted on their self-concept and self-esteem (Exline & Lobel, 1999). As such, managers will be more likely to reject the suggested idea and under-evaluate the same-gender subordinate for speaking up.

Building on the theoretical rationale that gender match can trigger social comparison processes and that voice expressions can be perceived as challenge to managers' core role expectations, we suggest that managers will respond less favorably to voice expressed by same-gender subordinates than opposite-gender subordinates.

> *Hypothesis 2: A leader will respond to a voice with (a) less willingness to implement, (b) lower intention for future voice solicitation, and (c) less positive evaluation of the voicer when the voice comes from a same-gender follower than from a different-gender follower.*

The Moderating Role of Social Comparison Orientation

In the context of voice evaluation, social categorization theory and social comparison theory provide conflicting predictions regarding effect of gender match on managerial response to voice. We contend that while some people can be more influenced by the social comparison process, others may be more affected by social categorization process. Comparison orientation captures individuals' need and urge to compare themselves to others. It has been widely recognized that some individuals may be less inclined to engage in social comparison (both

intentional and subconscious comparison) than others, both consciously and subconsciously (Gibbons & Buunk, 1999). If a leader is low on social comparison orientation, he or she is generally less likely to engage in social comparison and feel threatened by followers of the same gender. Therefore, the difference in gender might not make a significant difference in the focal leader's social comparison process. In this case, we posit that social categorization processes is more likely to be activated due to the positive effects of similarities. Therefore, shared characteristics can result in more positive response to voice in the forms of higher willingness to implement, higher intention for future voice solicitation, and higher evaluation of the voicer.

In contrast, if the leader is high on social comparison orientation, he or she will frequently engage in social comparison with others and will be more sensitive to social cues that are related to comparison. In particular, the voice behavior can act as a catalyst to activating the leader's social comparison since it signals a challenge from the follower on whether the leader can make the right decisions for the team. In this case, the leader's psychological mechanism will be largely dominated by social comparison, as opposed to social categorization. As a result, compared to different-gender follower, the same-gender voicer is more likely to become a salient target of social comparison for the leader and signal a threat to the leader's self-concept or ego. Therefore, the leader will respond to the voice from same-gender follower less favorably, in the forms of less willingness to implement, lower intention for future orientation, and lower evaluation of the voicer (Fast et al., 2014). Thus, we propose the following hypotheses.

> *Hypothesis 3: The effect of leader-follower gender match on leader's (a) willingness to implement voice, (b) future voice solicitation, and (c) evaluation of the voiver is moderated by the leader's social comparison orientation. When comparison orientation is low (high), the effect of gender match is positive (negative).*

Gratitude as a Mediator: A Mediated Moderation Model

Affect is an essential part of individuals' self-evaluation (Tesser, Pilkington, & McIntosh, 1989) and self-esteem processes (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). As individuals are motivated to maintain positive self-evaluations, they engage in comparison processes that can result in positive or negative emotions. On one hand, scholars on social comparison theory suggested that individuals who experience threat to self-evaluation have less positive affect and more negative affect (Tesser et al., 1988). On the other hand, scholars on social categorization theory suggested that self-esteem is increased by belonging to groups of similar individuals (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) and that discrimination and biases develop not because outgroups are hated, but because positive emotions are reserved for in-groups (Brewer, 1999). Therefore, to test the validity of social comparison and social categorization processes, we propose leaders' feelings of gratitude, a positive social emotion produced in social exchanges (McCullough, Kilpatrick, Emmons, & Larson, 2001), as the mediator between gender-match and managerial response to voice.

Gratitude is a feeling of thankfulness directed toward others (Grant & Gino, 2010). Weiner (1985) suggested that beneficiaries experience gratitude when they attribute their favorable circumstances to the efforts of a helper. Given the organizational context has become increasingly complex (e.g. Buchko, 1994; Davis, Eisenhardt & Bingham, 2009; Eisenhardt, 1989; Pisano, 1994), leaders are constantly taking risks (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991) and are expected to provide some direction to followers (House, 1996). Hence, leaders are likely to feel grateful when followers express their opinions. Nevertheless, the suggestions and comments are by nature challenging the status quo and questioning the individuals who established or support it (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). In different situations, leaders are likely to feel different levels of gratitude toward the employee who voices. As we noted, when a leader has high social

comparison orientation, leader-follower gender match will increase the chances of having a social comparison psychological process, in which the leader will perceive threat to his/her social status or self-concept (Leary at al., 2009). In this case, the leader may believe that the employee is not voicing for the best interest of the leader or the team, but for other reasons such as showing off or undermining the management authority. Thus, the leader is less likely to be grateful for the suggested ideas. In comparison, leaders with low social comparison orientation are less likely to treat individuals who share similar attributes as potential competitors or targets of comparison. Instead, they are more likely to perceive the similar others as in-group members and like and trust them more. Such liking and trust will lead the voice recipient to see more clearly the positive sides of voice (helping the voice recipient to improve), rather than the nature of challenge in voice. Therefore, we contend that a leader with low social comparison orientation will experience more gratitude when the voice is coming from a same-gender follower, as opposed to a different-gender follower.

Gino and Schweitzer (2008) demonstrated that grateful people are more receptive to advice than are people in a neutral emotional state. Moreover, feeling grateful triggers a virtuous cycle in which helpers are more likely to help beneficiaries again when they are thanked (Carey, Clicque, Leighton, & Milton, 1976; Rind & Bordia, 1995). Therefore, grateful leaders will be more likely to implement and solicit voice from the particular follower, and less likely to denigrate the voicer. Hence, we hypothesize that:

> *Hypothesis 4: Leader's gratitude mediates the interactive effect of leader-follower gender match and leader social comparison orientation on leader's (a) willingness to implement, (b) voice solicitation, and (c) evaluation of voicer.*

Overview of Studies for Paper 2 (Studies 3 & 4)

We conducted two experimental studies to test our hypotheses. In Study 1, we collected data from a sample of 142 middle managers in Brazil to investigate the effect of manager-

subordinate gender match on managerial response to voice expressions and to examine the moderating effect of managers' social comparison orientation. In Study 2, we gathered data from a sample of 150 managers in the United States not only to replicate the findings in Study 1, but also to test our conceptual model by integrating the mediating role of managerial gratitude.

Study 3: Gender Match and Response to Voice

Participants and Procedures

We invited 198 managers from eight industries in Brazil – among which were finance, health care, and construction – to participate in an online study about leadership and decision making. These managers are MBA alumni of a large business school in Brazil. We determined the sample size a priori based on the number of MBA students enrolled in human resource classes in the prior year of the data collection. Since the survey was administered to Portuguese-language speakers, we followed Brislin's (1986) back-translation procedure. All the materials were initially formulated in English, translated into Portuguese by a researcher who is a native speaker of Portuguese, and then back-translated into English by a native English speaker. One hundred and forty-eight managers completed the survey (response rate = 75%); however, six participants were dropped from the analyses because they failed the gender manipulation check (i.e., what is the gender of the subordinate who sent the email to you?), which suggested that they had not paid attention to the survey scenario. A series of *t*-tests demonstrated that the original sample did not differ from the final sample in age, gender, and work experience. The final sample consisted of 142 managers (94 males and 48 females). They ranged in age from 25 to 63 years (M = 39.06; SD = 8.32), and the average length of work experience was 17.92 years (SD = 7.70).

Participants read a managerial scenario in which the company was going through a

change in its performance-evaluation policy. They were asked to adopt the role of a team manager of 10 subordinates. Participants were informed that the company was considering adding peer reviews to the performance-evaluation index, and their role as team managers was to determine the weight of the peer evaluation in the general performance index. After the announcement and implementation of the participants' decision, one of the subordinates sent an e-mail suggesting a higher weight for the peer evaluation (see Appendix for a detailed description of the scenario).

We manipulated the gender of the subordinate expressing voice to create a between-subjects design. We asked participants to report their gender and randomly assigned them to one of the two conditions of manager-subordinate gender match (n = 71) and mismatch (n = 71). In the gender match condition, the manager and the subordinate were the same gender; in the gender mismatch condition they were not. For example, in the gender match condition, a male participant read an e-mail from Ricardo (i.e., a male subordinate), and a female participant received an e-mail from Paula (i.e., a female subordinate). This approach of scenario experiment has been used in voice research to control for other variables that may influence managers' behavior when receiving suggestions (e.g., Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014). After reading the scenario, participants filled out relevant scales, a manipulation check, and demographic questions. It took, on average, eight minutes for participants to complete the survey.

Measures

All measures were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale (from 1, *strongly disagree*, to 7, *strongly agree*), except for solicitation of voice, which was scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

Managerial response to voice expressions. We followed Fast and colleagues (2014) to measure managerial response to voice (i.e., willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice,

and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice). Willingness to implement voice was measured on the scale developed by Fast and colleagues (2014). This scale comprises four items (e.g., "Jack's/Anna's comments are valuable," and "I would revise my plan and incorporate Jack's/Anna's comments"; Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$). We measured solicitation of voice with a two-item scale from Fast et al. (2014). They are "To what extent would you ask for further help/advice from Jack/Anna on organizational issues?" and "To what extent would you encourage other employees to speak out the way that Jack did?" (Cronbach's $\alpha = .82$). We assessed how managers would evaluate the competence of subordinates who spoke up using the four items from the competence dimension of trustworthiness scale developed by Mayer and Davis (1999). Consistent with Fast and colleagues (2014), we argue that managers who perceive subordinates as intimidating evaluate them less favorably. Examples of the items are "Jack/Anna is knowledgeable with regard to this issue," and "Jack/Anna is well informed on this subject" (Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$).

Social comparison orientation. We measured managers' social comparison orientation with an 11-item scale developed by Gibbons and Buunk (1999), including "I always like to know what others in a similar situation would do," and "I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared with how others do things" (Cronbach's $\alpha = .96$).

Control variables. Following Fast and colleagues' (2014) work on managerial response to voice, we controlled for participants' age, work experience, and gender. In particular, they found that the gender of the manager participant is significantly related to willingness to implement voice and solicitation of voice. In addition, we controlled for power distance using a scale developed by Earley and Erez (1997; e.g., "In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates," and "Employees should not express disagreements with

their managers" (Cronbach's α = .82) because power distance captures the participants' belief in hierarchy and their expected conforming role of subordinates, which are directly related to their view of, and their reaction to employee voice.

Results

The means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability statistics of the key variables are presented in Table 5. It is worth noting that willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice, and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice are relatively highly correlated with each other. Hence, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to establish discriminant validity of the three outcome variables. The results of confirmatory factor analyses on MPlus 7.11 revealed that a 3-factor structure (willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice, and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice) yielded acceptable fit to our data (χ^2 = 84.16, *df* = 32, RMSEA = .10 95% CI = [.08, .13], CFI = .95, Log Likelihood = -1864.52). Chi-square difference tests showed that all alternative nested models achieved significantly poorer fit. For instance, constraining solicitation and evaluation to load on one factor (χ^2 = 148.17, *df* = 34, RMSEA = .15, 95% CI = [.13, .18], CFI = .88, Log Likelihood = -1896.53) produced a significantly worse fit to the data ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 64.01, Δdf = 2, p <.01). Thus, although the dependent measures are highly correlated as expected, these analyses provided support for the proposed factor structure of the variables.

------ Insert Table 5 about here ------

We first conducted a path analysis on MPlus 7.11 to test Hypothesis 1 and 2. Considering that our dependent variables were correlated, conducting a series of parallel hypothesis tests (e.g. OLS regressions) would inflate the family-wise Type I error (Cohen, Cohen, West Aiken, 2003). Therefore, conducting a path analysis in which the dependent variables are allowed to correlate

is a more rigorous test of our hypotheses. After controlling for participants' age, work experience, gender, and power distance, we found that manager-subordinate gender match did not predict willingness to implement voice (b = .14, SE = .22, p = .53), solicitation of voice (b = .15, SE = .16, p = .35), and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice (b = −.01, SE = .17, p = .97). Thus, neither Hypothesis 1 nor Hypothesis 2 was supported. Nonetheless, this result is to some extent consistent with our theorization of the importance of social comparison orientation as a moderator in this process; while gender-match may lead to favorable response from managers with low social comparison orientation, it may lead to less favorable response from managers with high social comparison orientation. Thus, these opposing effects lead to a null effect of gender match when looking at the general sample.

To test Hypothesis 3, which proposed that manager-subordinate gender match interacts with managers' social comparison orientation to predict managerial response to voice, we conducted another path analysis. We followed Aiken and West's (1991) recommendations and centered social comparison orientation. After controlling for the same set of variables, modeling manager-subordinate gender match and social comparison orientation, and adding the interaction term, the results yielded significant interaction coefficients on willingness to implement voice (b = .64, SE = .20, p < .01), solicitation of voice (b = .36, SE = .15, p < .05), and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice (b = .59, SE = .15, p < .01). It is worth noting that the only control that significantly correlated with our dependent variable (i.e., willingness to implement voice) was manager gender (see Table 6). These findings provide preliminary support for Hypothesis 3.

------ Insert Table 6 about here ------

Simple slope analysis confirmed that the results were in the expected direction for

willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice, and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice. When managers had a strong social comparison orientation, they responded more favorably to voice expressed by an opposite-gender subordinate than they did to a same-gender one. In other words, managers were more willing to implement voice (b = .76, t_{135} = 2.45, p < .05) and solicit voice (b = .46, t_{135} = 1.98, p <.05), and evaluated the subordinate more positively (b = .53, t_{135} = 2.36 p < .05), when the subordinate was of the opposite gender. In contrast, managers with a weak social comparison orientation responded less favorably to voice from an opposite-gender subordinate than they did to a same-gender one; they were less willing to implement voice (b = −.64, t_{135} = -2.01, p < .05) and evaluate the subordinate less positively (b = −.75, t_{135} = -3.20, p < .01) if the subordinate was of the opposite gender; however, the effect of manager-subordinate gender match on solicitation of voice was not significant for managers with a weak social comparison orientation (b = −.32, t_{135} = -1.33, p = .19). To aid interpretation, the interaction effects are plotted in Figures 4, 5, and 6.[6] In summary, these results provide substantial supports for our Hypothesis 3.

------ Insert Figures 4, 5, and 6 about Here ------

Study 4 (Paper 2): The Mediating Effect of Gratitude

Participants and Procedures

We recruited manager participants in the United States via Qualtrics, a third-party online survey administration company. Because this research focuses on managers' response to voice, we asked Qualtrics to recruit a random sample of managers with more than five years of work experience. Participants were compensated with "survey cash" credits that could be redeemed for

[6] Because our independent variable is dichotomous, we performed a median split in the social comparison variable and conducted *t*-tests to evaluate if the mean values of each quadrant were statistically different from zero. The results are consistent with the simple-slope analysis.

money after they completed a certain number of research studies. A total of 161 managers completed the survey; however, 11 were dropped because they did not pass the gender manipulation check. The final sample consisted of 150 managers (72 males and 78 females). We determined the sample size a priori. We aimed to have 40 participants per condition to ensure sufficient power for a conditional indirect effect analysis. They ranged in age from 22 to 73 years (M = 44.71; SD = 12.08), and their average work experience was 23.47 years (SD = 11.46).

Consistent with Study 1, participants read the performance evaluation scenario. We adopted the same scales used in Study 1. The two differences were the adoption of Jack and Anna as subordinates expressing voice to avoid introducing confounding stereotypes related to national associations, and the addition of the gratitude scale, which was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale. There were 77 participants in the manager-subordinate gender match condition, and 73 participants in the manager-subordinate gender mismatch condition. It took, on average, nine minutes for the participants to complete the survey.

Measures

All measures were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale (from 1, *strongly disagree*, to 7, *strongly agree*), except for solicitation of voice, which was scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

Managerial response to voice and social comparison orientation. The same measures from Study 1 were used to assess willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice, evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice, and social comparison orientation. Again, Cronbach's alpha was acceptable for willingness to implement voice (.82), solicitation of voice (.78), evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice (.94), and social comparison orientation (.88).

Gratitude. We measured gratitude with three items from the Affect Inventory scale

(Gross, Sutton, & Ketelaar, 1998). To prevent participants from knowing the purpose of this study, gratitude was assessed with other items of positive (inspired, joyful, and pleasant; *M* = 3.15; *SD* = 1.05) and negative (unhappy, discouraged, and uncomfortable; *M* = 1.36; *SD* = .64) affect. Participants were asked to reflect how grateful, thankful, and appreciative they felt immediately after reading the e-mail from the subordinate (Cronbach's α = .91).

Control variables. The same controls used in Study 3 were adopted in Study 4: Age, gender, work experience, and power distance (Cronbach's α = .79).

Results. The means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability statistics for the measures are presented in Table 7. Again, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis to test the discriminant validity of our three outcomes variables: Willingness to implement, solicitation of voice, and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice. CFA results confirmed that the data fit a 3-factor structure (willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice, and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice) better than the competing models. For instance, the 3-factor model (χ^2 = 66.30, *df* = 32, RMSEA = .09, 95% CI = [.05, .11], CFI = .97, Log Likelihood = -1748.32) yield better fit than a 2-factor model formed by combining solicitation and evaluation into one factor (χ^2 = 123.39, *df* = 34, RMSEA = .13, 95% CI = [.11, .15], CFI = .91, Log Likelihood = -1776.86), with a change in chi-square of 57.09 ($\Delta df = 2$, $p < .01$).[7]

------ Insert Table 7 about Here ------

We ran a path analysis to test for Hypothesis 1 and 2. We found that manager-subordinate gender match did not predict willingness to implement voice (*b* = .18, *SE* = .16, *p* = .26), or solicitation of voice (*b* = .10, *SE* = .14, *p* = .45). However, we did find a significant relationship between manager-subordinate gender match and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice

[7] We conducted a multiple-groups SEM analysis to test for measurement invariance across cultures (Brazil and USA). We found full equivalence for the models ($\Delta\chi^2$=12.54, Δdf=7, p= .08)

(b = .38, SE = .16, p < .05). Thus, consistent with Study 3 manager-subordinate gender match did not predict willingness to implement voice and solicitation of voice. Different from Study 3, however, leaders more positively evaluated same-gender subordinates than opposite-gender subordinates.

Next, consistent with Study 3 we conducted a path analysis to test for Hypothesis 3. We centered our moderator, and the results suggest that the interaction terms between manager-subordinate gender match and social comparison orientation significantly predicted willingness to implement voice (b = .61, SE = .17, p < .01), solicitation of voice (b = .45, SE = .15, p < .01), and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice (b = .75, SE = .17, p < .01). Next, we ran simple slopes analyses to test whether the effect of gender match under different levels of social comparison orientation was consistent with the hypotheses. The results corroborated the findings of Study 3. When managers had a strong social comparison orientation, gender mismatch (i.e., voice expressions of the opposite gender) increased their willingness to implement voice (b = .61, t_{143} = 2.67, p < .01) and intention to solicit voice (b = .45, t_{143} = 2.17, p < .05) and improved their evaluation of the subordinate after expressing voice (b = .89, t_{143} = 3.92, p < .01). In contrast, managers with a weak social comparison orientation were found to be less willing to implement voice (b = −.59, t_{143} = - 2.41, p < .05), less willing to solicit voice (b = −.43, t_{143} = - 1.99, p < .05), and evaluated the subordinate less positively (b =−.59, t_{143} = - 2.41, p < .05), if voice expressions came from the opposite-gender subordinate (see Table 8). We plotted the differential effect with the procedures outlined by Aiken and West (1991). Figures 7, 8, and 9 show that the interactions were in the hypothesized direction.

------ Insert Table 8, and Figures 7, 8, and 9 about Here ------

To test the hypothesized first-stage moderated mediation model (Hypothesis 4), we began

by examining the interactive effect of manager-subordinate gender match and social comparison orientation on gratitude by conducting a path analysis. We modeled the control variables (participants' age, work experience, gender, and power distance), manager-subordinate gender match, social comparison orientation, and the interaction term. The results yielded a significant interaction term (b = .65, SE = .18, p < .01). Simple slope analysis, once again, confirmed that the results were in the expected direction (see Figure 10). When managers were with a strong social comparison orientation, they felt more grateful when the subordinate expressing voice was of the opposite gender (b = .69, t_{145} = 2.84, p = .01). When managers were with a weak social comparison orientation, they felt less grateful if the subordinate was of the opposite gender (b = −.59, t_{145} = - 2.21, p < .05).

------ Insert Figure 10 about here ------

Next, we modeled, in a path analysis, gratitude as a mediator for the interactive effects of manager-subordinate gender match and manager social comparison orientation on willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice, and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice. We found that gratitude was positively related to managers' willingness to implement voice (b = .25, SE = .09, p < .01), solicitation of voice (b = .13, SE = .07, p < .05), and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice (b = .32, SE = .08, p < .01; see Table 9).

------ Insert Table 9 about Here ------

Finally, we test for conditional indirect effects at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator (i.e., social comparison orientation) by conducting a bootstrapping analysis with 5,000 repetitions. At one standard deviation above the mean, the mediation model was significant and manager-subordinate gender match had a positive indirect effect for willingness to implement voice (*indirect effect* = .17, 95% CI = [.05, .42]), solicitation of voice

(*indirect effect* = .09, 95% CI = [.01, .25]), and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice (*indirect effect* = .22, 95% CI = [.06, .48]). This suggests that manager-subordinate gender mismatch had a significant and positive indirect effect on managerial response to voice when managers were with a strong social comparison orientation. In addition, at one standard deviation below the mean, the mediation model was also significant but in the opposite direction. The indirect effects of manager-subordinate gender match on willingness to implement voice, solicitation of voice, and evaluation of subordinate after expressing voice through gratitude at low levels of social comparison orientation were −.15 (95% CI = [−.39, −.03]), − .08 (95% CI = [−.24, −.01]), and −.19 (95% CI = [−.43, −.04]), respectively. This suggests that manager-subordinate gender match had a significant and negative indirect effect on managerial response to voice when managers were with a weak social comparison orientation. These findings support Hypothesis 4.

General Discussion of Paper 2

In this article, we investigated the effects of manager-subordinate gender match on managerial response to voice. Building on social categorization theory and social comparison theory, we proposed and corroborated how the effect of gender match on managerial response to voice vary based on managers' social comparison orientation. The results further demonstrated that managers' feelings of gratitude mediated the interactive effect of manager-subordinate gender match and social comparison orientation on managerial response to voice. These findings offer important theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

This study offers several theoretical implications to the literature on managerial response to voice. First, we take the first step to discuss how leader-follower similarity may influence a

leader's response to a voice. In advice-taking literature, some researchers have theorized that, in a judge-advisor-system, a judge might be more likely to take in the advice from advisors who are similar to him/her (e.g., Gino et al., 2009). Yet the empirical evidence so far is far from conclusive. Also, we believe that when thinking about the role of leader-follower similarity in managerial response to voice, we cannot rely directly on the evidence from advice taking literature. The issues of power, status difference, authority, and the threat inherent in voice may make a leader's psychological reaction to a voice different from a judge's reaction to an advice. Specifically, we proposed that with higher leader-follower similarity, a leader might view the follower as a competitor or a threat, which is missing in the discussion of advice taking literature. Our study focused on gender as a starting point of leader-follower similarity and provided some evidence regarding the process of social comparison. We encourage future studies to extend to other aspects of leader-follower similarity, either focusing on a certain characteristic or a profile of characteristics. Along this line, we can seek to confirm whether the competing psychological processes of social comparison and social categorization still hold when considering other aspects of similarity.

Second, our study makes contributions to unveiling the psychological mechanisms that underlie a leader's response to voice. Specifically, we suggest that social comparison process can play an important role in explaining why a large number of managers exhibit aversion to voices from employees (Milliken et al., 2003). As a leader work closely with his/her followers, it is likely that he/she will engage in some degree of social comparison with followers (Festinger, 1954). When employees voice to improve the current situation of the team or organization, leader's ability to make the best decision as well as to lead the team is challenged to some extent. Under this circumstance, a leader is likely to compare him/herself to the follower regarding the

ability to lead and contribute to the team. As a result, a leader may deny the voices in order to protect self-evaluation as well as public image. We believe that this social comparison process can be applied to explain how other factors might influence a leader's response to voice. For example, some researchers may believe that if a voicer has higher expertise and/or social status in the team, a leader should be more likely to adopt the voice because expertise and social status indicate higher quality and constructiveness of the voice (e.g., Whiting et al., 2012). However, social comparison theory may suggest a different prediction. Given that higher expertise and social status might make the follower more salient as a target of social comparison in the eyes of the leader, a leader may respond less positively to voices from the experts or team stars because they are more of a potential threat to the leader's self-evaluation.

Third, our work contributes to the burgeoning literature on social emotions in social comparison processes and organizations. For example, Harvey and colleagues (2009) found that observations of wrongdoing can trigger anger and resentment, which lead to voice. Others have found that observation of wrongdoings can make observers too ashamed to speak up (Edwards, Ashkanasy, & Gardner, 2009). We found that managers can feel grateful for voice expressions and respond more positively to subordinates of the opposite gender when they are with a strong social comparison orientation. As such, we demonstrated how upward social comparison, which typically creates envy and defensiveness, can trigger positive social emotions.

Practical Implications

Our research suggests that whereas managers with a strong social comparison orientation might have a bias against same-gender subordinates, managers with a weak social comparison orientation might favor same-gender subordinates. In both cases, biases triggered by gender are not desirable, especially when managers are making decisions to incorporate subordinates' voice.

Managers should objectively consider the voice expressions of their subordinates by evaluating the implementation of suggestions on merit rather than demographic similarity. To facilitate this decision-making process, companies should implement initiatives (e.g., training and performance evaluations) that deter managers from perceiving subordinates as competitors or threats. At the organizational level, an effective initiative could be the establishment of committees composed of diverse members who evaluate key suggestions and ideas instead of relying on a single manager's judgment.

Our results also suggest that gratitude is an important social emotion that is positively related to managerial response to voice. Subordinates who generate gratitude by emphasizing the potential benefits of their suggestions to the manager might have a better chance of having their suggestions acted upon. Additionally, because individuals are inclined to feel grateful in response to benevolence (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007), organizations should create events, reward structures, and offer activities that provide opportunities for employees to help each other. The gratitude from such experiences might carry over to situations when subordinates express opinions and offer advice to their managers.

Limitations and Future Directions

Our findings should be qualified by several limitations suggestive of future directions. First, we investigated the effects of match on a single demographic characteristic on managerial response to voice. Although gender is a salient characteristic and can trigger social comparison processes, future research should extend our findings to other aspects of manager-subordinate similarity, either focusing on one characteristic or on a set. Research on race, for example, has shown that White individuals are perceived as prototypical leaders and have received preferential treatment within their social networks (DiTomaso, 2013; Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008).

It is possible then that White managers with a strong social comparison orientation feel more threatened by voice expressed by White subordinates and respond more favorably to voice expressed by Black subordinates.

Another option is to investigate if a combination of demographic characteristics can also trigger social comparison processes and influence managerial response to voice. Research faultlines (Lau & Murnighan, 1998, 2005) suggests that individuals integrate multiple attributes when defining in-group and out-group members. These faultlines can divide a group. It is possible that managers integrate multiple demographic attributes when comparing themselves to others and feel more grateful for voice expressions when subordinates have specific nonthreatening attributes (e.g., White male managers might express more gratitude and respond more favorably to voice expressions from Black female subordinates).

Second, we used scenarios across our two studies to test our hypotheses. Although this methodology provided greater control and precision, it limits the external validity of our findings. In organizational settings, other variables are likely to influence gender perceptions and managerial response to voice. For example, research on diversity has shown that the effect of surface-level diversity decreases over time, whereas the effect of deep-level diversity increases over time (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998). Therefore, tenure in the dyad (manager-subordinate) might influence the strength of the relationship between manager-subordinate gender match and managerial response to voice. In addition, researchers have shown that relationship quality between managers and subordinates can at once increase the probability of success and reduce the perceived risk associated with issue selling (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998). Although our studies kept these and other attributes of the relationship constant, future research should investigate if they change the strength and direction of our findings.

Third, we collected data in different countries with different cultures. Although our two studies provided some evidence that manager-subordinate gender match influences managerial responses to voice in collectivistic (Brazil) and individualistic (USA) countries, testing for generalizability across cultures was beyond the scope of this manuscript. There is some evidence that within- and between-gender comparison dynamics might vary across culture. Perhaps, country-level differences (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2011) can influence the way in which manager-subordinate gender match affects managerial responses to voice. As Sedikides, Gaertner, and Toguchi (2003) noted, "In individualistic cultures, the relevant dimension is agency, defined as concern with personal effectiveness and social dominance. In collectivistic cultures, however, the relevant dimension is communion, defined as a concern with personal integration and social connection" (p. 63). Therefore, we expect that the social comparison process may be more salient in the individualistic or independent culture.

Other cultural differences could also affect managers' response to voice expressions based on gender match. For example, White and Lehman (2005) found that Asian Canadians are more likely than European Canadians to engage in social comparisons that allow for self-improvement. In addition, Guimond and colleagues (2007) observed that while within-gender comparisons are more prevalent in some cultures, between-gender social comparisons can be more salient in others. Specifically, they argued that in high power distance culture, individuals are discouraged to compare across different social groups, thus the within-group comparisons can be more prevalent. We encourage future scholars to consider the implications of culture across different contexts on our proposed relationships.

Fourth, our proposed relationship might also vary based on the relative status of males and females across industries and countries. Women are generally perceived as lower in status

than men (Eagly & Wood, 1982); however, such status cues (e.g., gender) can be situation-specific (Rigeway & Correll, 2006). For example, in professions such as nursing where women are traditionally in the majority, female managers may experience higher status than male managers. Using data from two credit unions, Howell and colleagues (2015) found that managers might more favorably recognize voice from female subordinates than from male subordinates, which they believed was because females were in the majority in their sample and thus held higher status than males. More broadly, while some countries have achieved a high level of gender equality, others have not. We suspect that when there is a gap in gender status, social comparison within gender may become less salient; however, the comparison across gender may become more salient. Therefore, status may influence the direction of the proposed effects. This is consistent with the literature suggesting that external threats turn groups into tight-knit social units, in which members view each other as interdependent and in a positive manner (e.g., Baer, Leenders, Oldham, & Vadera, 2010; Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). We encourage researchers to investigate the effects of status on managerial response to voice expressions.

Conclusion

This article contributes to our knowledge of voice expressions by examining how social cues can influence managerial response to voice. We theorized and tested the conditions under which manager-subordinate gender match affects managerial response to voice. Our findings suggest that managers can feel grateful and consequently implement voice, solicit voice, and positively evaluate subordinates based on characteristics other than the quality of voice expression itself. Taken together, these findings suggest that both *who* expresses voice and *to whom* that voice is expressed, are critically important.

CHAPTER 4: THE BALANCE OF VOICE, HELPING, AND INGRATIATION ON MANAGERIAL ATTRIBUTION OF VOICE AND REACTION TO VOICE (PAPER 3)

Accumulated anecdotes and empirical evidence suggest that employees' upward voice can be interpreted in vastly different ways by managers and incur different consequences on the employees who speak up. On one hand, voice behavior represents an important form of extra-role behavior where employees go beyond their job duty to identify problems and provide suggestions to improve team effectiveness. Therefore, managers should appreciate such organizational citizenship behaviors and reward those who speak up (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). On the other hand, the challenging nature of voice, the hierarchical positions of managers, and the human nature of maintaining one's image may lead managers to become averse to employee voice. Instead of embracing the feedback from below, some managers tend to question whether employees who speak up are truly loyal to the organization, view them as trouble makers, and in turn punish them for speaking up (e.g., Burris, 2012). Empirically, existing research has presented mixed evidence on the relationship between employee's voice expression and manager's appraisal of the employee, showing positive, negative, as well as null relationships (Burris, 2012; Grant, 2013; Howell, Harrison, Burris, & Detert, 2015; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). Given these contrasting logics and empirical evidence, it becomes critically important to identify *when* managers are more likely to see employee voice in a positive way and *when* they are more likely to reward or punish employees who speak up.

Thus, the first purpose of this study is to explore how employees' helping behavior in the team and ingratiation toward the manager can incur a more positive managerial response to

voice; that is, making the relationship between employee voice and managerial appraisal of the employee more positive. Van Dyne and LePine (1998) introduced helping and voice behavior as the two most important forms of promotive organizational citizenship behaviors. We argue that the affiliative, other-oriented, relationship-building nature of helping behavior can help establish a positive "team player" image for the employees in the eyes of their managers. Thus, their voice behavior will be interpreted in a more positive way and in turn leads to a more positive appraisal from the managers (i.e., high performance evaluation and strong intent of soliciting voice from the employee in the future). Moreover, drawing on the literature of upward influence, we argue that employee's ingratiation toward the managers is another critical factor that can significantly shape the relationship between employee voice and managerial appraisal of the voicing employees. In an organizational context, ingratiation refers to a set of strategic behaviors designed to "enhance one's interpersonal attractiveness" and "gain the approbation of superiors who control significant rewards for them" (Kumar and Beyerlein, 1991: p. 619). Accumulated research has shown that ingratiation is effective in eliciting positive affect in the target and desirable outcomes for the ingratiator, such as higher-quality relationship, larger compensation increases, recommendations for prestigious positions, and faster rates of promotion (e.g., Gordon, 1996; Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Westphal & Stern, 2006). We propose that, when coupled with more ingratiatory behaviors, employee voice is more likely to be viewed positively and lead to positive outcomes for the employee.

The second purpose of this paper is to shed light on the structure of manager's attribution of voice and demonstrate how it mediates the interactive effect of employee voice, helping behavior, and ingratiation. To understand the factors that shape manager's perception of a voice—being valuable or threatening, Morrison (2011) suggested starting with considering

manager's causal attributions for why the employee is voicing. Attribution theory describes how individuals make sense of the motives of certain behaviors and the reasons underlying certain outcomes—of themselves or others. Such attribution in turn plays a critical role in the focal individual's reaction. In the context of voice, regardless of the actual motive(s) for an employee to suggest something, managers may make assumptions about the motive, which will shape how they respond to the voice. If managers attribute the behavior to cooperative, other-focused motives, they are likely to respond more favorably than if they attribute it to self-interest or simply undermining the manager. Yet no research has systematically explored the key dimensions of managerial voice attribution or its role in explaining managerial response to voice. Hence, in this paper, we explore the structure of managerial attribution of voice, and examine how it mediates the relationships between employee voice, performance evaluation from the manager, and manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee. The complete model of Paper 3 is presented in Figure 11.

------ Insert Figure 11 about Here ------

Theory and Hypotheses

Review of Literature on the Consequences of Speaking Up on Employees

Employee's upward voice refers to "discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning" (Morrison, 2011: 375). Evidence has mounted that employee voice can help identify existing problems, discern threats and opportunities, promote learning and innovation, implement organizational change, and improve organizational effectiveness (e.g., Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013; Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Zhou &

George, 2001). Therefore, it seems natural that managers should embrace such extra-role behavior from employees and reward them for doing so.

Nonetheless, employee voice is different from other affiliative organizational citizenship behaviors such as helping because it can potentially damage relationships with the manager and lead to negative outcomes for the employees (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), as it is embedded in human nature to avoid negative feedback and become defensive in the face of it (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ilgen et al., 1979). Milliken and colleagues (2003) show that employees are often concerned about being labelled or viewed negatively, losing trust and supports, getting retaliation, or even losing promotion opportunities and the job, if they point out problems and suggest changes. Therefore, employees tend to "read the wind" and get a sense of whether it is safe (i.e., low chance of incurring negative outcomes for oneself) to speak up before raising issues to managers (Ashford et al., 1998; Detert & Burris, 2007; Dutton et al., 1997).

Researchers have tried to address whether managers reward or punish employee voice by examining the relationship between employee voice and managerial appraisal of the employee with a variety of methods (scenario experiments, lab experiments, cross-sectional field studies, as well as longitudinal field studies with common rater or different raters). For example, Van Dyne and LePine (1998) assessed employee voice behavior from three different rating sources (supervisors, peers, and self-ratings) at two separate times (with a six-months interval), and correlated these ratings with supervisor-rated job performance at Time 2. Time-2-supervisor-rated voice behavior was positively related to supervisor-rated performance, while the other ratings of voice behavior were not significantly related to performance evaluation. In a scenario experiment with undergraduate students, Whiting and colleagues (2008) found that voice behavior is positively related to performance appraisal. Later, Whiting and colleagues (2012)

further showed that voice at an earlier time and voice with solutions are more likely to lead to more favorable performance evaluation. It should be noted that the work from Whiting and colleagues were based on scenario experiments where participants were not in the position of receiving the voice, but evaluating as a third-party observer. Thus, the element of negative feedback or threat to the ego was somewhat missing, which might be an important reason underlying the consistent findings of the positive relationships. In contrast, Burris (2012) conducted a cross-sectional field study (with subordinates reporting voice behavior and managers providing performance evaluation) and two experiments where participants played the role of a manager receiving voice, and he consistently found that the frequency of challenging voice of an employee is negatively related to manager's performance evaluation of the employee.

The field study from Grant (2013) revealed a generally positive relationship between voice and performance evaluation, although a caveat should be added that the evaluation of voice and performance were both provided by three HR managers—as opposed to the managers receiving voice—at the same time. But perhaps more importantly, he found that when the voicing employee has higher emotional intelligence, the relationship between voice and performance evaluation becomes more positive. Moreover, a longitudinal, separate-source field study conducted by Howell and colleagues (2015) provided additional evidence on the positive relationship between employee voice expression and manager's performance evaluation of an employee.

The accumulated mixed evidence suggests that, rather than trying to answer *whether* voice behavior makes an employee look better or worse in the eyes of managers, it seems more important to address *when* employee voice will be viewed positively and become rewarding for employees. Specifically, drawing from the promotive organizational citizenship behavior

typology (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) and the literature of upward influence, we examine how employee's helping behavior and ingratiatory behavior toward the manager moderate the relationship between employee voice and manager's appraisal of employees—in terms of performance evaluation of the employee and the intent to soliciting voice from the employee in the future (Fast et al., 2014).

The Moderating Role of Employee Helping Behavior

Van Dyne and LePine (1998) introduced employees' helping and voice behavior as two important forms of promotive, extra-role behaviors. Helping behaviors normally include volunteering to do things for the team, attending functions that help the team, and assisting other team members who are falling behind their own work. Helping behavior is similar to voice because they are both proactive behaviors that focus on improving organizational effectiveness. Nonetheless, helping behavior is different from voice because "helping is cooperative behavior that is non-controversial; it is directly and obviously affiliative; it builds and preserves relationships; and it emphasizes interpersonal harmony" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998: p. 109); in contrast, voice behavior is *controversial* and can be easily misinterpreted. In speaking up and raising concerns to managers, employees seek to help by "breaking," disagreeing, questioning the existing standards, and challenging existing and perhaps widely accepted procedures. It is not surprising that employee voice can be misinterpreted by the managers as complaining, creating troubles for the managers and the team, slowing down the procedures of team decision making and execution, and even jeopardizing team effectiveness rather than improving. Indeed, in two experiments, Burris (2012) showed that participants who play the role of managers tend not to believe that followers who engage in challenging voice are really looking out for what is

important to the organization. In this case, employee voice is likely to hurt manager's appraisal of the employee.

We argue that helping behavior can accentuate the "extra-role" and "constructive" nature of voice, while attenuating the "challenging" element of voice, thus leading to a more positive managerial appraisal of an employee. Helping behaviors have been shown to have a consistent relationship with positive organizational outcomes such as the quality and quantity of work produced, customer satisfaction, unit-level profitability, and efficiency (cf. Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 2000). These behaviors are not formally required of an employee, and it is time- and effort-consuming to help develop the skills of coworkers, orient new members, and take up some responsibilities of a coworker. Engaging in helping behaviors often means employees are sacrificing their own time or even their own performance. Therefore, an employee who engages in helping behavior will be viewed as a team player who cares about improving team effectiveness and who are willing to go beyond their job duty for the best interests of the team.

When voice behavior comes from such an employee, managers are more likely to believe that this employee is proactively challenging the status quo for the best interests for the team, rather than merely criticizing or making troubles for the manager. In this case, managers tend to view such extra-role behavior more positively, have more positive feelings about the employee, and reward him or her with a higher performance evaluation. Moreover, managers will also be more willing to solicit opinions from the employee in the future, because he or she not only demonstrates his or her concern over team effectiveness, but also show the willingness to openly share his or her true opinions. In contrast, employees who barely or never engage in helping behavior at work can hardly convince others that they prioritize the team's best interests over

their own. Thus, when these employees are out on a limb to actively point out problems or suggest changes, managers are less likely to believe that such behavior is driven by the pure desire of improving team effectiveness. Therefore, managers are less likely to reward, or may even punish the employee for speaking up.

Given the above reasoning, we hypothesize that:

H1: Employee's helping behavior at work moderates the relationship between employee voice and manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee, such that the relationship tends to be positive when the employee exhibits more helping.

H2: Employee's helping behavior at work moderates the relationship between employee voice and manager's performance evaluation of the employee, such that the relationship tends to be positive when the employee exhibits more helping.

The Moderating Role of Employee Ingratiation

Drawing from the literature of upward influence, we argue that, in addition to helping behavior, an employee's ingratiation toward the manager can also help frame voice behavior in a more positive way in the eyes of the managers. Despite some different opinions on the definition and domains of ingratiation, three specific behaviors are generally accepted as the core behaviors of ingratiation: (a) flattery or other-enhancing communications: making explicit compliments on the target's ability, character, and accomplishment; (b) acts of opinion conformity: verbal statements or other behaviors that affirm or validate the opinion held by the target; and (c) favor rendering: doing personal favors for the target and do not ask for immediate return (Ellis, Wesy, Ryan, & DeShon, 2002; Gordon, 1996; Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991; Westphal & Stern, 2006, 2007).

Accumulated evidence and meta-analyses have shown that ingratiatory behavior can effectively cultivate interpersonal liking and induce psychological indebtedness, which in turn cause the influence target to favor the ingratiator when given the opportunity, such as favorable performance evaluations, higher salary increases, career advancement, and board nomination

(Kumar and Beyerlein, 1991; Gordon, 1996; Westphal, 1998; Higgins et al., 2003; Westphal & Stern, 2006, 2007). Specifically, flattery or other-enhancement communications has been consistently shown to effectively increase likability or interpersonal attraction. For example, Berscheid and Hatfield (1978) presented experimental data showing that praises about another person's traits or performance reliably prompt liking in return, as "people find it hard not to like those who think highly of them" (Jones, 1964: p. 24). Opinion conformity is also highly effective in cultivating interpersonal liking from the target, not only because people tend to have positive feelings toward others who share their beliefs and attitudes (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983; Wayne & Liden, 1995), but also because expressing agreement with another person essentially affirms or validates that person's taste, intellect or judgment, which is an important form of other-enhancement. Lastly, the norm of reciprocity suggests that, after receiving personal favors, the recipient will feel socially and psychologically obligated to return the personal favor when the time comes, even when the favor is not solicited (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2003). Therefore, favor rendering can induce psychological indebtedness in the target, which will benefit the ingratiator in the future.

As such, we argue that, an employee's ingratiation toward the manager can significantly shape how the manager interprets and responds to voice behavior from the employee. As noted earlier, voice can be interpreted positively as taking the risk and going the extra mile to help, or negatively as merely criticizing, disrupting, and challenging the manager. When voice behavior comes from an employee who engages in more ingratiatory behavior toward the manager, the manager's interpersonal liking and psychological indebtedness toward the employee will lead the manager to give the employee more credits and interpret the voice behavior in favor of the employee. That is, the manager tends to recognize it as an extra-role behavior with which the

employee intends to help the manager in improving team effectiveness. As a result, managers are likely to reciprocate the employee's constructive, extra-role behavior with higher performance evaluation. Without the positive interpersonal feeling or psychological indebtedness, the manager might focus more on the challenging nature of the voice and see it as disrupting team functioning, and in turn punish the employee with lower performance evaluation.

Moreover, individual confirmation bias suggests that when the manager is making judgment about the value of a suggestion, his or her positive feelings toward the employee will lead him or her to focus more on the information and facts that support the suggested issue. In this case, managers are more likely to see value in the suggestion, and thus are more likely to solicit the employee's opinion on team-related issues in the future. Without the positive interpersonal feeling, managers may focus on the cues and information that can help them quickly reject the suggested issue, and fail to see the value in it. As such, managers are less likely to solicit opinions or information from the employee in the future.

Given the above reasoning, we hypothesize that:

H3: Employee's ingratiation toward the manager moderates the relationship between employee voice and manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee, such that the relationship tends to be positive when the employee exhibits more ingratiation.

H4: Employee's ingratiation toward the manager moderates the relationship between employee voice and manager's performance evaluation of the employee, such that the relationship tends to be positive when the employee exhibits more ingratiation.

The Mediating Role of Managerial Attribution of Voice

Attribution theory describes how individuals make sense of the behaviors and outcomes – of others and their own – and the effect of such sense-making process. Heider (1958) brought the notion of attribution to the foreground and posited that attribution is the results of the fundamental cognitive processes by which people ascertain cause and effect so that they can become more efficacious in their interactions with their environment. The most classic finding of

attribution theory is that individuals in general tend to attribute their own success to internal reasons such as their ability and hard work, but attribute their own failure or bad performance to external reasons such as task difficulty or uncontrollable reasons such as bad luck. In contrast, people tend to do the opposite when making sense of other people's outcomes – that is, concluding that other people succeed because of luck, and fail because of lack of ability or effort (Dobbins & Russell, 1986; Zukerman, 1979).

The attribution process has profound implications in leader-follower interactions. Green and Mitchell (1979) initiated the first systematic discussion on how leaders' different patterns of attribution of follower performance influence their behavior directed toward followers. For instance, when leaders attribute a certain employee's poor performance to lack of effort rather than ability, they will engage in more severe disciplinary behavior toward the employee. Following the framework proposed by Green and Mitchell, a large body of research provides empirical validations and theoretical extensions (see Martinko, Harvey, & Douglas, 2007 for a review) on the antecedents to managerial attribution on employee performance (such as information of consensus, consistency and distinctiveness as well as attribution styles) and the results of it (such as ratings of followers, disciplinary actions, and leader-follower relationships).

In addition to attribution of employee performance, scholars also use the attribution perspective to better understand other aspects of leader-follower interactions. For instance, Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2004) find that when transformational behaviors are attributed by employees to self-focused, as opposed to organizationally-focused leadership motives, the employees are likely to attribute unfavorable characteristics (i.e., manipulative personality, insincerity) to the leader. In addition, Liu, Liao, and Loi (2012) show that the effect of abusive supervision on follower outcomes is contingent on the extent to which the follower attributes the

abusive supervision to performance promotion or injury initiation. In particular, when team managers believe that the department manager exhibit abusive supervisory behaviors to promote performance but not to initiate injury, they are more likely to pass on such abusive supervisory behavior to their own team members. What's more, when the team members attribute the abusive supervision from their team leader to performance promotion rather than injury initiation, the detrimental effect of abusive supervision on team member creativity is attenuated.

In the context of voice, researchers have emphasized the importance of examining managerial attribution of the motives of employee voice. In her review of employee voice, Morrison (2011) explicitly suggests that understanding managers' attribution for why an employee is voicing is a useful starting point of investigating how managers perceive and react to a certain voice. Consistent with this idea, Whiting and colleagues (2012) theorize that observers' attribution of a voice to prosocial motives partially explains the effects of voicing with a solution, voicer trustworthiness, and organizational norm on observers' performance evaluation of the voicer. Their empirical results, however, largely fail to support such claims. As yet, we lack a systematic understanding on the dimensions of managerial attribution of voice.

By integrating current discussions on managerial attribution of voice and the authors' conversations with managers (Morrison, 2011; Whiting et al., 2012), we theorize that managers may generally attribute employee voice to a: (a) Collective-Benefiting motive: employee voices because he/she genuinely wants the team to improve and become better; (b) Self-Benefiting motive: employee voices because he/she is expecting to benefit him/herself after the voice is adopted; (c) Impression-Management motive: employee voices because he/she wants to make good impression on the leader and/or other team members; and (d) Authority-Undermining motive: employee voices because he/she simply wants to challenge and undermine the leader.

In particular, we argue that when employees exhibit high levels of helping behavior, they establish their image as an organizational citizen that are willing to go beyond what is required of them and contribute to team effectiveness. In this case, managers are more likely to attribute the employee's voice to the collective benefiting motive, believing that the employee speaks up truly for the benefits of team performance, rather than for benefiting the self, undermining the authority of the manager, or trying to make a positive impression on other team members. As such, they are more likely to reward the employee for speaking up, and are more willingness to actively solicit the employee's opinion in the future. Also, when an employee exhibits more ingratiatory behaviors, managers are more likely to experience interpersonal liking and psychological indebtedness toward the employee. Social psychologists have long established that interpersonal liking is associated with more positive attributions in favor of the individual under evaluation (Lowe & Goldstein, 1970; Regan, Straus, & Fazio, 1974), and the urge to reciprocate will lead the manager to give more credit to the employee in making attribution of voice behavior. Therefore, we propose that, when an employee exhibits more ingratiatory behavior toward the manager, the manager will be more likely to attribute the employee's voice behavior to collective benefiting, and less to self-benefiting, impression management, and authority undermining. In contrast, when employees express challenging opinions at the absence of helping behavior or ingratiation, the challenging nature of voice may become more salient, and lead the manager to attribute the voice to negative dimensions of authority undermining, self-benefiting, and impression management.

When managers believe that the employee is voicing not because he/she cares about the team or helping the manager, but because of selfish reasons such as making his/her situation better, making a good impression in front of the team, or even simply to undermine the manager,

they will hold negative opinions of the voicing employee and punish him/her with lower performance evaluation, and are less likely to solicit opinions from the employee in the future. Therefore, we expect that the attribution of collective benefiting is positively related to manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee and the performance evaluation of the employee, while the attribution of authority undermining, self-benefiting, and impression management are negatively related to the two outcomes. In addition, it should be noted that the predictive power—or the strength of the effect—of the four dimensions of voice attribution might differ, even though we do not formally hypothesize. When predicting performance evaluation and intent of voice solicitation, we speculate that the attribution of collective benefiting and authority undermining may play more important roles than the attribution of impression management and self-benefiting. Although the attribution of impression management and self-benefiting are not desirable, they are less detrimental in incurring negative responses from the managers than the attribution of authority undermining.

Given the above reasoning, we hypothesize that:

H5: Manager's attribution of voice mediates the interactive effect of employee voice and helping behavior on (a) manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee, and (b) manager's performance evaluation of the employee.

H6: Manager's attribution of voice mediates the interactive effect of employee voice and ingratiation on (a) manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee, and (b) manager's performance evaluation of the employee.

In the following sections, we first present a series of studies to develop the scale of managerial attribution of voice. Then we present a longitudinal, leader-follower dyadic field study to test our hypotheses.

Study 5: Voice Attribution Scale Development

Since there's no developed scale for managerial attribution of voice, we first conduct a series of studies to shed light on the structure and develop the scale of managerial attribution of

voice. Specifically, we generate our initial items via an inductive approach (Study 5a), conduct exploratory factor analysis (Study 5b), and confirmatory factor analysis (Study 5c) with three separate samples.

Study 5a: Initial Items Generation

We generated our initial items for the scale by an inductive approach (Hinkin, 1998), in which we presented a scenario of voice to 75 participants (recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk) and asked them to write down the possible motives that they think stimulate such behavior. Specifically, participants read that: "In organizations, employees sometimes discretionarily express ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about possible work-related improvements to their supervisors/managers. This communication can be made in private to supervisors or in the presence of other coworkers. The conveyed message can be about suggesting innovative ideas for new product/procedures, correcting an existing work-related problem, reporting a situation of unfairness or misconduct, and/or expressing a different opinion regarding a decision made by the leader/team. Drawing from your work experience and observations, please describe the POSSIBLE motives that you think stimulate such behavior from employees. Please write down as many motives as you can think of."

We obtained 305 items from the 75 participants, with an average of 4.07 items from each participant. Two independent coders, who were not aware of our theoretical conceptualization of managerial attribution of voice, independently coded the items into categories they see fit. Then they discussed to resolve differences in their coding. As a result, four dimensions of voice attribution surfaced as we theorized. We retained 7 items for each dimension based on the face validity of the items, that is, excluding items that are less related to the respective dimensions as

well as the items that convey the same message. The complete list of the items for each dimension is presented in Appendix C.

Study 5b: Exploratory Factor Analysis for Voice Attribution Scale

With the initial pool of items, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis with two purposes. One was to test the dimensions we theorized and the coders identified in the initial item generation process, the other was to perform item reduction and simplify the scale. We presented a voice scenario to 184 participants recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk. Participants were asked to play the role of a manager and one of their employee, Jack, come to them to suggest an idea. To create variance in voice attribution, we diversified the scenarios to include private voice and public voice.

A principal components analysis (Varimax rotation, factors free to vary based on the Eigenvalue cutoff of 1.0) revealed a four-dimension structure for voice attribution, which is consistent with our theorization. In addition to eliminating the items with unacceptably high-cross-loadings, we only kept the four highest-loaded items for each dimension to obtain a reasonable length of the scale. The results of the EFA are presented in Table 10.

------ Insert Table 10 about Here ------

Study 5c: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Voice Attribution Scale

We collected data from a managerial sample to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis. One hundred and twenty MBA students of a large university in Southern China participated in our study as a class exercise. We presented them with the definition and description of employee voice, and asked them to retrospect on a recent voice event (within the past three days) from their followers. They were asked to write down the details of the time, location, and the detailed

suggestion made by the follower. At last, they were asked to indicate their attribution of the voice based on the 16-item scale obtained from the exploratory factor analysis.

Excluding four participants with missing data, we had 116 valid responses. Initial confirmatory factor analysis of the four dimensions of voice attribution showed that the model fitness was not ideal, with χ^2 (98, N = 116) = 182.60, CFI = .88, TLI = .85, SRMR = .11, and RMSEA =.09. A closer look at the factor loadings of the four dimensions (see Table 11) revealed that two items of "Impression Management" (i.e., "He/she wants me to recognize his/her ability and potential at work" and "He/she wants to impress me that he/she concerns about the team's best interests") had very low factor loadings (.48 and .36). Moreover, the authors were concerned about the face validity of two items of "Self-Benefiting" (i.e., "He/she is trying to find excuses for his/her bad performance" and "He/she is trying to make things harder for some team members"). These two items captured certain cases for the self-benefiting motivation, but might not be applicable to other cases. By excluding these four items, we obtained a significant better model fit, with χ^2 (48, N = 116) = 69.98, CFI = .96, TLI = .95, SRMR = .07, and RMSEA = .06. The correlations among the four dimensions are moderate. Specifically, authority undermining is negatively correlated with collective benefiting ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$), and is positively correlated with impression management ($r = .46$, $p < .01$), whereas the other binary correlations are not significant. Thus, I conducted the additional confirmatory factor analyses by combining impression management and authority undermining, and the resulted model fit was significantly worse (χ^2 (51, N = 116) = 135.08, CFI = .85, TLI = .81, SRMR = .09, and RMSEA = .12). These results suggested that the four dimensions of managerial attribution of voice were distinctive from each other.

------ Insert Table 11 about Here ------

Study 6: Longitudinal Field Study with Leader-Follower Dyads

Sample and Procedure

To test our hypotheses, we conducted a longitudinal, leader-follower dyadic survey study. An associate professor in a large business school in southern China introduced this survey study in his part-time MBA leadership class, indicating that this study aimed to examine the manager-subordinate interaction dynamics, and it would take 5-10 minutes for managers and subordinates to complete the survey. Upon completing the survey, the managers will receive several management-related bestselling books (picked by the professor) as a thank-you gift. Forty-six part-time MBA students voluntarily signed up for the study. These MBA students were assuming managerial positions in companies across a variety of industries, such as manufacturing, financial services, consulting services, trading, and high-tech.

The sign-up managers then introduced this research project to their subordinates at work, and stressed that the participation in this study is completely voluntary, and the subordinates who participate will receive a management-related book from the research team upon completing study. Subordinates who were interested in participating signed up with their managers, and the managers give the email address of the subordinates to the research team. For those managers who had more than 4 subordinates signing up, we asked the managers to randomly choose four subordinates to reduce the workload of managers as they need to complete an evaluation of each subordinate. As a result, our sample consisted of 46 managers with 130 subordinates; each manager had 2 to 4 matching subordinates.

At Time 1, we sent the subordinates an electronic survey, in which we ensured confidentiality of their responses. They reported their education level, tenure working with the current manager, their voice behavior, helping behavior, and ingratiation behavior. One week

later (Time 2), we sent a survey to the managers. At the beginning of the survey, managers reported their age, gender, and managerial self-efficacy. Then we asked managers to (1) report each subordinate's voice behavior, (2) make attribution on the subordinate's voice behavior over four dimensions (authority undermining, impression management, self benefiting, and collective benefiting), (3) evaluate each subordinate on performance, and (4) indicate their intent of soliciting voice from each subordinate in the future.

All of the managers completed the manager survey, whereas eight subordinates did not respond to our survey. Thus, our final sample consisted of 122 manager-subordinate dyads embedded in 46 teams. The average age of the managers was 32.99 (SD=3.59), with an average of 10.35 years of working experience (SD = 3.90), and 59.8% of them were male.

Measures

Employee voice. To capture employee voice at work, we used four items adapted from Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) measure. Specifically, we asked followers to indicate how frequent they engaged in the following behaviors: (1) Point out some problems in the team and urge my manager to deal with them; (2) Express a different opinion on my manager's decisions; (3) Give suggestions to my managers about how to make our team better, even if others disagree; (4) Speak up to my manager with ideas to address employees needs and concerns. As an exploratory analysis, we were curious about whether voice in public or in private would have any differential outcomes on managerial reactions. Therefore, we asked followers to indicate their voice behavior in public (i.e., when other team members or managers are present), and their voice behavior in private interactions with manager. Subsequent analyses showed that public voice and private voice did not have differential outcomes in our theoretical model. Therefore,

for model simplicity, we combined public voice and private voice to capture general voice behavior. The Cronbach's α for the 8-item measure was .86.

Employee helping behavior. We used the 7 items from Van Dyne and LePine (1998) to measure employees' helping behaviors at work. Specifically, we asked them to indicate how frequent they engaged in the following behaviors at work based on a 5-point Likert frequency scale, from 1, almost never, to 5, almost always: (1) Volunteer to do things for this work group; (2) Help orient new employees in this group; (3) Attend functions that help this work group; (4) Assist others in this group with their work for the benefit of the group; (5) Get involved to benefit this work group; (6) Help others in this group learn about the work; (7) Help others in this group with their work responsibilities. The Cronbach's α was .89.

Employee ingratiation toward manager. We measured employees' ingratiation behavior with a 6-item scale adapted from Kumar and Beyerlein (1991) and Westphal and Stern (2007). Specifically, we asked them to indicate how frequent they engaged in the following behaviors toward their managers on a 5-point Likert frequency scale, from 1, almost never, to 5, almost always: (1) Express agreement with his/her viewpoints, even when I do not completely share his/her opinion; (2) Point out attitudes and/ or opinions we have in common; (3) Compliment him/her about his/her insights on work-related issues; (4) Compliment him/her regarding his/her career accomplishments or achievements; (5) Express to him/her that you enjoy working with him/her; (6) Do personal favors for him/her; (7) Volunteer to be of help to him/her in his/her personal matters. The Cronbach's α was .77.

Manager's attribution of employee voice. We measured managerial attribution of employee voice with the 12-item scale we developed in Study 5. The Cronbach's α was .96, .95,

.66, and .93, respectively for authority-undermining (4 items), impression-management (2 items), self-benefiting (2 items)[8], and collective-benefiting (4 items).

Manager's intent of soliciting voice. In manager's evaluation of each subordinate participant, we asked them to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the following statements toward each subordinate, from 1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree: In the future, (1) I would like to know what he/she thinks would be helpful for improving this team; (2) I would like to get his/her opinions on some issues related to team functioning; (3) I would like to seek out task-related knowledge from him/her; (4) I would ask him/her personally what skills he/she has that I may not know about that might contribute to my team's performance. These four statements were adapted from Fast et al. (2014). The Cronbach's α was .90.

Performance evaluation of the voicing employee. We also asked managers to report their performance evaluation of each subordinate with four items from Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell (1993). Specifically, they indicated the extent to which they agree or disagree with the following statements: (1) This team member is superior to other team members that I've supervised before; (2) The overall level of performance that I have observed for this team member is outstanding; (3) My personal view of this team member is that he or she is very effective; (4) Overall, I feel that this team member has been effectively fulfilling his or her roles and responsibilities. The Cronbach's α was .90.

Control variables. We controlled for followers' education and tenure with the current manager (in years) because education and tenure may be related to perceived expertise and trust,

[8] We note that the Cronbach's α for the measure of self-benefiting (.66) is lower than the generally accepted bar of .70. We believe it is in part because the measure is consisted of two items only (after deleting two items based on the confirmatory factor analysis). We did not include more items for this attribution dimension because the Cronbach's α for the two-item measure in Study 5c is .83. We do believe the low reliability in this study is a potential concern, and it might be sample specific. If the reliability continues to be an issue in future studies, we recommend adding one to two items to the measure.

which in turn influences managers' attribution of voice, intent of voice solicitation, and performance evaluation. In addition, Fast and colleagues (2014) found that manager's managerial self-efficacy was a significant indicator of managerial response to voice. Therefore, we controlled for managerial self-efficacy with the 8-item scale from Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001). Example items are "I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself at work," and "When facing difficult tasks at work, I am certain that I will accomplish them," which were anchored on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha was .84.

Analytics and Results

Table 12 presents the mean, standard deviation, and correlations of the variables at the individual level. This data has a hierarchical structure in which the responses of the 122 manager-subordinate dyads were nested within 46 teams. In fact, results showed significant between-group variance in manager's intent of voice solicitation ($F [45, 76] = 3.711$, $p < .001$; $ICC[1] = .51$, $ICC[2] = .73$) and performance evaluation of the subordinates ($F [45, 76] = 1.643$, $p < .05$; $ICC[1] = .20$, $ICC[2] = .39$). We therefore conducted our analyses using the hierarchical linear modeling R statistical package "Multilevel." We used random intercept models to conduct analyses at the follower level (Level 1), while accounting for possible leader-level effects (Level 2). To reduce multicollinearity, we grand-mean-centered the independent variables and moderators in the hierarchical linear modeling analysis.

------ Insert Table 12 and 13 about Here ------

Table 13 presents the regression results testing the moderated effect of helping behavior. Model 1 and Model 4 depict that an employee's voice behavior in general does not have a significant effect on managers' intent of soliciting voice from the employee or performance

evaluation. Nonetheless, Model 2 shows that the employee's helping behavior significantly and positively moderates the relationship between employee voice behavior and managerial voice solicitation (B = .43, s.e. = .12, t = 3.43, p < .01), suggesting the relationship tends to be more positive when employee exhibits more helping behavior. Simple slope analysis shows that with higher helping behavior (one SD above average), employee voice has a positive and significant effect on manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee (B = .33, t = 2.45, p < .05, 95% CI = [.06, .59]); whereas with lower helping behavior (one SD below average), the effect of employee voice on manager's voice solicitation is negative yet non-significant (B = -.27, t = -1.75, p = .08, 95% CI = [-.57, .04]). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is strongly supported.

Model 5 shows that employee's helping behavior did not significantly moderate the relationship between employee voice and performance evaluation (B = .20, s.e. = .17, t = 1.22, p > .10). Thus, Hypothesis 2 is not supported. Relatedly, H5b, which posits that the interactive effect is mediated by managerial attribution of voice, is not supported.

To confirm that managerial attribution of voice mediates the interactive effect of voice and helping on managerial voice solicitation (H5a), two conditions are necessary. First, attribution of voice should be significantly related to voice solicitation, while controlling for the independent variables (i.e., voice, helping, and their interaction terms). Second, the interactive effect of voice and helping on the dimensions of managerial attribution of voice should be significant. Thus, we first entered the four dimensions of managerial attribution of voice into the regression (Model 3). Results show that only collective benefiting was significantly related to manager's intent of soliciting voice (B = .50, s.e. = .09, t = 5.60, p < .01). To further confirm the mediating role of collective benefiting attribution, Model 6 shows that the interaction term is significantly related to collective benefit attribution at .10 level (B = .21, s.e. = .12, t = 1.70, p <

.10). Given the relatively small sample size we have, we consider the significant effect at .10 level worth reporting. Simple slope analysis shows that with higher helping behavior (one SD above average), employee voice has a positive and significant effect on manager's collective benefiting attribution (B = .35, s.e. = .14, t = 2.53, p < .05, 95% CI = [.08, .63]); whereas with lower helping behavior (one SD below average), the effect of employee voice on manager's voice solicitation is negative yet non-significant (B = -.11, s.e. = .16, t = -.69, p > .10, 95% CI = [-.42, .20]). Furthermore, the indirect effect of voice behavior on managerial voice solicitation is positive and significant (B = .17, Boot S.E. = .09, 95% CI = [.01, .36]) when helping behavior is higher, whereas the indirect effect is not significant when helping behavior is lower (B = -.05, Boot S.E. = .08, 95% CI = [-.22, .10]). Taken together, Hypothesis 5a is partially supported.

------ Insert Table 14 about Here ------

Table 14 presents the regression results on the moderating role of employee ingratiation. Model 2 shows that the employee's ingratiation toward the manager significantly and positively moderates the relationship between employee voice behavior and managerial voice solicitation (B = .44, s.e. = .13, t = 3.38, p < .01), suggesting the relationship tends to be more positive when employee exhibits more ingratiation toward the manager. Simple slope analysis shows that with higher ingratiation (one SD above average), employee voice has a positive and significant effect on manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee (B = .31, s.e. = .14, t = 2.17, p < .05, 95% CI = [.03, .58]); whereas with lower ingratiation (one SD below average), the effect of employee voice on manager's voice solicitation is negative yet non-significant (B = -.17, s.e. = .14, t = -1.21, p > .10, 95% CI = [-.44, .10]). These results provide support for Hypothesis 3.

Model 5 shows that the employee's ingratiation toward the manager positively moderates the relationship between employee voice behavior and managerial performance evaluation (B =

27., s.e. = .16, t = 1.69, p < .10), Considering the relatively small sample size of our study, we consider it appropriate to report the effect significant at .10 level. Simple slope analysis shows that with higher ingratiation (one SD above average), employee voice has a positive and significant effect on manager's intent of soliciting voice from the employee (B = .36, s.e. = .15, t = 2.35, p < .05, 95% CI = [.06, .66]); whereas with lower ingratiation (one SD below average), the effect of employee voice on manager's voice solicitation is not significant (B = .02, s.e. = .15, t = .14, p > .10, 95% CI = [-.28, .32]). Thus, Hypothesis 4 is marginally supported.[9]

To confirm that managerial attribution of voice mediates the interactive effect of voice and ingratiation on managerial voice solicitation (H6a), we first entered the four dimensions of managerial attribution of voice into the regression (Model 3). Results show that only collective benefiting was significantly related to manager's intent of soliciting voice (B = .51, s.e. = .09, t = 5.67, p < .01). To further confirm the mediating role of collective benefiting attribution, Model 7 shows that the interaction term is significantly related to collective benefit attribution (B = .30, s.e. = .13, t = 2.31, p < .05). Simple slope analysis shows that with higher ingratiation (one SD above average), employee voice has a positive and significant effect on manager's collective benefiting attribution (B = .45, s.e. = .14, t = 3.26, p < .01, 95% CI = [.18, .72]); whereas with lower ingratiation (one SD below average), the effect of employee voice on manager's voice solicitation is negative yet non-significant (B = -.11, s.e. = .14, t = -.82, p > .10, 95% CI = [-.38, .16]). Furthermore, the indirect effect of voice behavior on managerial voice solicitation is positive and significant (B = .23, Boot S.E. = .08, 95% CI = [.08, .40]) when ingratiation is

[9] Although we do not hypothesize that helping and ingratiatory behavior jointly moderate the effect of employee voice on managerial appraisal of the employee (i.e., 3-way interactions), we test it as a post-hoc analysis, and the result did not support a three-way interaction.

higher, whereas the indirect effect is not significant when ingratiation is lower (B = -.06, Boot S.E. = .07, 95% CI = [-.21, .07]). Taken together, Hypothesis 6a is partially supported.

To test Hypothesis 6b, we entered the four dimensions of managerial attribution of voice into the regression (Model 6). Again, only collective benefiting was significantly related to manager's intent of soliciting voice (B = .47, s.e. = .11, t = 4.27, $p < .01$). The indirect effect of voice behavior on managerial performance evaluation is positive and significant (B = .21, Boot S.E. = .08, 95% CI = [.07, .40]) when ingratiation is higher, whereas the indirect effect is not significant when ingratiation is lower (B = -.05, Boot S.E. = .06, 95% CI = [-.19, .06]). Thus, Hypothesis 6b is partially supported.

Discussion of Paper 3

In this paper, we theorize and largely confirm that an employee's helping behavior and ingratiation toward manager are two critical contingencies in the inquiry of the consequences of voice on the employee. Specifically, we find that voice behavior tends to be rewarding for an employee—that is, resulting in a higher performance evaluation and manager's stronger intent of soliciting voice from the employee—when the employee exhibits higher level of helping behavior and ingratiation. Moreover, through a series of studies, we establish a four-dimension scale of managerial attribution of voice, and find that the collective-benefiting attribution mediates the interactive effects of voice, helping, and ingratiation on managerial response to voice.

Nonetheless, although we hypothesize that the four dimensions of managerial voice attribution can explain the consequences of employee voice, only the dimension of collective benefiting was confirmed with the mediating role, whereas the attribution of authority undermining, impression management, and self-benefiting were not significantly related to

managerial performance evaluation or intent of soliciting voice from the employee. Regarding the non-significant effect of authority undermining on managerial response to voice, we suspect it is because of its skewed distribution in our study (Mean = 1.40, SD = .58, on a 5-point Likert scale). The histogram of authority undermining attribution shows that the majority of the managers in our sample indicated "1, strongly disagree" on the items of authority undermining attribution. We believe the highly skewed distribution and the limited variance may have biased the estimate, and to some extent account for the non-significant effect of this dimension.

In addition, impression management (Mean = 2.09, SD = 1.07) and self-benefiting (Mean = 2.91, SD = .92) attribution were also not significantly related to manager's performance evaluation or intent of voice solicitation, which we were less surprised to see. As we mentioned in our theoretical development, we expect that collective benefiting and authority undermining attribution have stronger predictive power on performance evaluation and intent of voice solicitation. That said, we are not suggesting that the dimensions of impression management and self-benefiting are useless in predicting managerial reaction to voice, but that the effects of these two attributions might become weaker when the manager attributes voice behavior strongly to collective benefiting or authority undermining. For example, if the manager believes that an employee is voicing mostly for the benefits of the team, the manager may not punish the employee even if the manager believes the employee also want to benefit him- or herself from the change or to make a good impression. This is the case in our study, as managers in general attribute their employees' voice behavior strongly to collectively benefiting (Mean = 4.05, SD = .68). In other words, the effects of impression management attribution and self-benefiting attribution may become stronger when managers are more ambiguous on the attribution of

collective benefiting or authority undermining, or when the two attributions are related to other outcome variables such as manager's perceived authenticity of the voicing employee.

Theoretical Implications

Our paper contributes to the literature of voice in three ways. First, we shed light on the important contingencies of the consequence of employee voice behavior. Both theoretical logics and empirical evidence suggest that employee voice can be interpreted in vastly different ways and in turn lead to different outcomes for the employees who speak up. On one hand, voice behavior represents an important form of constructive extra-role behavior that managers will appreciate and reward (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). On the other hand, the challenging nature of voice may threaten the managers' ego, image, and status; as a result, some managers tend to view the employees who speak up as trouble makers, and in turn punish them (e.g., Burris, 2012). Empirically, existing research has presented mixed evidence on the relationship between employee's voice expression and manager's appraisal of the employee, finding positive, negative, or null relationships (Burris, 2012; Grant, 2013; Howell et al., 2015; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting et al., 2008, 2012). As such, instead of focusing on *whether* employee voice leads to good or bad outcomes for an employee, it seems more important to examine the question of *when*. In this paper, we find that effect of employee voice on managerial appraisal of the employee can vary substantially—from negative to positive—depending on the helping behavior and ingratiation that the employee engages in. Thus, we provide strong evidence on the contingency approach on examining the consequences of speaking up on employees.

Second, our research establishes the structure as well as the scale of managerial attribution of voice, and demonstrates how it explains managerial response to voice. Researchers have long advocated examining managerial attribution of the motives of employee voice. In her

review of employee voice, Morrison (2011) explicitly suggests that understanding managers' attribution for why an employee is voicing is a useful starting point of investigating how managers perceive and react to a certain voice. Whiting and colleagues (2012) theorize that observers' attribution of a voice to prosocial motives partially explains the effects of voicing tactics and contextual factors. Nonetheless, we argue that the attribution of voice has a richer structure than being high or low on prosocial motives attribution. Although the attribution of prosocial motives (or collective benefiting) is perhaps of upmost importance in predicting managerial response to voice, we find that other dimensions of attribution exist and are quite independent from the collective benefiting dimension. Even though our current study fails to confirm the mediating role of the other three dimensions (which we speculate is due to our sample reporting consistently high on collective benefiting and dominantly low on authority undermining), we encourage future research to further exploit the predictive power of the different dimensions of voice attribution, in their independent or interactive forms.

Third, this paper contributes to the understanding of the tactics of employee voice. Researchers have long recognized that *the way* employees voice can substantially influence how the voice is received by the manager. For example, employees may incur more favorable reactions to their suggestions if they catch managers in a good mood (Ang, Cummings, Straub, & Earley, 1993; Morrison & Bies, 1991). Also, voice is often deemed to be less threatening to managers if it is expressed in private as opposed to be in public (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Dutton & Ashford, 1993). What's more, Fragale (2006) shows that speech style may matter too, as people react more favorably to more tentative rather than forceful speech styles. More recently, Grant (2013) highlights the importance of employees' emotional regulation knowledge in achieving favorable performance evaluations from managers due to their voice behaviors.

First, driven by the fear of potential negative outcomes, an employee may speak with less conviction, avoid eye contact, and display facial and bodily cues of anxiety. These cues might signal a lack of confidence and competence, thereby making the voice less persuasive to managers. Emotional regulation knowledge can help employees overcome these negative cues when voicing. Second, employees with higher emotional regulation knowledge are better at observing and choosing a better timing for speaking up. This paper advances this line of research by showing that, to make their voice better received, employees should engage in helping and ingratiatory behaviors.

Practical Implications

Our research also offers several important practical implications. First, our research suggests that voice behavior can be rewarding for the employees who speak up. Earlier research on employee voice emphasized how voice behavior can be risky for employees and lead to negative outcomes for employees (e.g., Ashford et al., 1998; Dutton et al., 1997; Milliken et al., 2003). Detert and Edmondson (2011) find that a majority of employees, regardless of what their managers or organization tell them, hold the beliefs that challenging the existing process means questioning the manager who establishes or maintains it, and pointing out inefficiencies or problems is detrimental to one's career in an organization. In our paper, we find that, in certain circumstances, voice behavior can be associated with manager's higher performance evaluation for the employee and stronger intent of soliciting voice from the employee.

Second, our research further indicates that, to make voice rewarding for them, it is critical for employees to establish an image of a good organizational citizen by engaging in helping behavior. Helping behavior is a noncontroversial behavior that signals an employee's willingness to go beyond job duty and contribute to improving team effectiveness, even at his or her own

expenses. Given that voice is controversial and can be interpreted in different ways, helping behavior is useful in casting a positive light on the voice behavior and lead the managers to attribute the voice behavior to collective benefiting, which in turn increases manager's performance evaluation of and intent of soliciting voice from the employees who speak up.

Third, in addition to helping behavior, ingratiation behavior can also help. We are not encouraging organizational politics and unnecessary ingratiation behaviors. Nonetheless, when employees are engaging in voice behaviors that are beneficial to the organizations and risk to themselves, it is reasonable, and encouraged by our research, to exhibit some ingratiatory behavior toward the managers.

Limitations and Future Research

This paper is not without its limitations. First, although we established a four-dimension structure of managerial response to voice, the empirical study (Study 6) showed that only the dimension of collective benefiting was significantly related to managerial appraisal of the employees who speak up. At hindsight, we believe this is due to not only our sample, not also our theoretical model. The managers in our sample were part-time MBA students who were taking a leadership course when we conducted the study. This leadership training might have shaped their view of employee voice behavior, thus leading to a highly skewed distribution on authority undermining attribution (Mean = 1.40, SD = .58). We encourage future research to test the effect of managerial attribution of voice in a more general manager sample, which might show more variance on the dimension of authority undermining attribution.

Second, our focus on performance evaluation and voice solicitation might have limited the predictive power of the attributions of self-benefiting and impression management. We believe that attributing employee voice to self-benefiting and/or impression management is less

detrimental to employees than attributing to authority undermining. Thus, self-benefiting and impression management may have weaker explanatory power in predicting performance evaluation and intent of soliciting voice. Nonetheless, we believe that these two dimensions can be useful in predicting other outcomes such as manager's perceived authenticity of the employee. We encourage future research to expand the outcome variable set, and unveil the unique predictive power of self-benefiting and impression management.

Third, the interactive effects of voice, helping behavior, and ingratiation also did not significantly predict the dimensions of impression management and self-benefiting. We speculate this is in part due to the moderators we choose. For example, helping behavior is more related to the image of collective benefiting; thus, it can significantly influence the relationship between employee voice and collective benefiting attribution. We speculate that other variables such as perceived ambition for promotion or desire for recognition may significantly moderate the relationship between voice and the attribution of self-benefiting and impression management.

Last, constrained by data availability, our sample size for Study 6 is relatively small (122 leader-follower dyads in 46 teams). This small sample size may be to some extent responsible for the marginally significant interactive effects in our study. We hope future studies can partially test our theoretical models with a larger sample.

Conclusions

Building on the mixed evidence on the consequences of employee voice on the employees who speak up, our research establishes that, when employees exhibit higher level of helping behavior and ingratiation, their voice behavior lead to better performance evaluation for them and the manager's stronger intent of soliciting voice from them. Furthermore, we develop the structure and scale of managerial attribution of voice, and explore its implications in

explaining managerial response to voice. We encourage future research to further examine the important contingencies of the consequences of employee voice, and explore how managerial attribution can be used to better explain managerial response to voice.

CHAPTER 5: GENERAL CONCLUSION

Employee voice is of critical value to teams and organizations. Over the past forty years, a great number of studies have been dedicated to explore that factors underlying employees' voice behavior—or silence on the other side of the coin, so that organizations can take effective actions in encouraging upward, constructive, yet challenging communications. In this process, managers' behaviors and reactions to voice play a vital role in not only encouraging or discouraging employees to voice, but also deciding whether the suggested issues can be implemented because they are in the position to make such decisions. Therefore, a leader-perspective of voice, which seeks to understand the factors underlying managerial response to voice, has attracted a great deal of research attention in the past several years. Yet, research on the leader perspective of voice is still at its early stage, compared to the volume of literature on the employee perspective of voice. More research is still needed to fully understand when managers are more open to voice, more likely to reward employees for speaking up, and more likely to implement the constructive suggestions.

In this dissertation, I present three papers to advance the understanding on managerial response voice. Specifically, drawing from multiple theoretical perspectives (ego depletion theory, social comparison and social categorization theory, attribution theory, and upward influence theory), I examine the effects of the factors related to manager (manager's ego depletion in paper 1 and social comparison orientation in paper 2), the dyadic attribute of the leader-follower relationship (leader-follower gender match in paper 2), and the factors related the employees who speak up (i.e., their perceived expertise, helping behavior, and ingratiatory behavior). Taken together, this dissertation unveils that, as opposed to willingly embrace feedback from the below and decide voice implementation only based on the merits of the

suggestion, managers are subject to multiple potential biases that prevent managers from dealing with employee voice in ideal ways. Being cognitively aware of these biases and taking effective actions to reduce their effects can help managers and organization establish a climate open to constructive challenges, and in turn continue to improve organizational effectiveness.

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TABLE 1
Summary Statistics of Variables in Study 1

	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1	Manager Ego Depletion	1.82	.78	(.88)				
2	Voice Endorsement	4.41	.82	-.20**	(.89)			
3	Gender of Voicer	1.44	.50	-.09	.03	-		
4	Age of Voicer	30.45	5.49	.04	.19**	-.17*	-	
5	Tenure of Voicer (Years)	3.00	2.64	.04	.22**	-.19**	.57**	-

Note. n = 205; * p < .05; ** p < .01

a: 1 = male, 2 = female

TABLE 2
Results of Hierarchical Linear Modeling (Study 1)

Variables	Model 1	Model 2
Intercept	3.61** (.42)	3.87** (.43)
Gender of Voicer	.11 (.12)	.11 (.12)
Age of Voicer	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)
Tenure of Voicer	.08** (.03)	.08** (.03)
Ego Depletion		-.17* (.07)

Note. n = 205 in 62 managers (level 2). Unstandardized estimates are reported. Standard errors of the coefficients are presented in the parentheses.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$, two tailed.

TABLE 3
Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlations (Study 2)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Ego Depletion [a]	.52	.50	-			
2. Perceived Voicer Expertise [b]	.51	.50	-.18*	-		
3. Effort in Processing Voice	2.88	1.25	-.40**	-.28**	(.86)	
4. Voice Endorsement	5.68	1.12	-.15*	.41**	.20**	(.90)

Note. n = 198

a: 0 = low ego depletion, 1 = high ego depletion

b: 0 = low voicer expertise; 1 = high voicer expertise

TABLE 4
Linear Regression of Voice Endorsement (Study 2)

	DV: Effort in Processing Voice	DV: Voice Endorsement			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Constant	3.41**	5.85**	5.33**	3.89**	3.38**
	(.12)	(.11)	(.26)	(.29)	(.32)
Manager Ego Depletion [a]	-1.00**	-.33*	-.18	.26	.38*
	(.16)	(.16)	(.17)	(.16)	(.16)
Effort in Processing Voice			.15*	.36**	.50**
			(.07)	(.07)	(.08)
Employee Expertise [b]				1.22**	2.33**
				(.15)	(.39)
Effort in Processing Voice X Expertise					-.39**
					(.13)
R^2	.16	.02	.05	.29	.32
F Change			4.98*	66.75**	9.58**
$\Delta \boldsymbol{R^2}$			.03	.24	.03

Note. n = 198; Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Standard errors are in the parentheses.

a: Manipulation of ego depletion: 0 = low, 1 = high

b: Manipulation of employee expertise: 0 = low, 1 = high

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 5
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 3)[a]

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Manager-subordinate gender match[b]	.50	.50								
2. Social comparison orientation	3.76	1.09	.18*							
3. Willingness to implement voice	4.78	1.32	.06	.11						
4. Solicitation of voice	3.44	.99	.10	.17*	.52**					
5. Evaluation of subordinate after voice	4.51	.99	.01	.22*	.69**	.53**				
6. Power distance	3.60	.99	−.07	−.02	−.11	−.17*	.13			
7. Age	39.06	8.32	−.07	.12	−.13	−.14	−.03	−.04		
8. Gender[c]	1.34	.48	−.03	.08	.14	−.05	.10	−.01	.04	
9. Work experience	17.92	7.70	−.05	.08	−.14	−.17*	−.07	.05	.89**	−.01

Note. [a] $N = 142$; [b] 0 = match, 1 = mismatch; [c] 1 = male, 2 = female; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

TABLE 6
Path Analyses of Main Effects and Interactions (Study 3)[a]

	Willingness to Implement Voice						Solicitation of Voice						Evaluation of Subordinate After Voice					
	Main effect			Interaction			Main effect			Interaction			Main effect			Interaction		
	B	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*
Intercept	5.66**	.68	.01				4.18**	.07	.01				5.67**	.67	.01			
Age	−.02	.03	.57	-.03	.03	.35	.01	.22	.88	-.01	.02	.79	.01	.02	.68	-.01	.02	.90
Gender[b]	.40	.23	.08	.51**	.22	.02	-.10	.17	.55	-.06	.17	.74	.20	.17	.26	.28	.16	.09
Work experience	−.01	.03	.85	.01	.03	.86	-.02	.02	.31	-.02	.02	.50	-.02	.02	.48	-.01	.02	.82
Power distance	-.14	.11	.22	-.13	.11	.22	-.16	.08	.06	-.15	.08	.06	-.12	.09	.17	-.11	.08	.15
M-S gender match[c]	.14	.22	.53	.06	.21	.77	.15	.16	.35	.07	.16	.66	-.01	.17	.97	-.11	.16	.50
SCO[d]				-.12	.13	.34				.02	.10	.85				-.04	.09	.67
Int. SCOxM-S gender match				.64**	.20	.01				.36*	.15	.02				.59**	.15	.01
Log Likelihood	-557.388			-545.288			-557.388			-545.288			-557.388			-545.288		

Note. The three dependent variables were allowed to correlate. [a] $N = 142$; [b] 1 = male, 2 = female; [c] manager-subordinate gender match, 0 = match, 1 = mismatch; [d] = social comparison orientation; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

TABLE 7

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 4)[a]

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Manager-subordinate gender match[b]	.49	.50									
2. Social comparison orientation	4.64	.98	.32**								
3. Gratitude	3.21	1.04	.11	.21*							
4. Willingness to implement voice	5.22	.97	.07	.23*	.36**						
5. Solicitation of voice	3.59	.85	.07	.09	.23**	.47**					
6. Evaluation of subordinate after voice	5.31	1.00	.19*	.27**	.44**	.60**	.53**				
7. Power distance	3.68	.93	.08	.06	.06	.04	.06	.04			
8. Age	44.71	12.08	.07	−.29**	−.09	−.15*	−.01	−.05	−.10		
9. Gender[c]	1.52	.50	−.11	.03	−.02	.08	.09	−.04	−.06	−.11	
10. Work experience	23.47	11.46	.06	−.28**	−.09	−.12	−.03	−.01	−.12	.92**	−.12

Note. [a] $N = 150$; [b] 0 = match, 1 = mismatch; [c] 1 = male, 2 = female; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

TABLE 8

Path Analyses of Main Effects and Interactions (Study 4)[a]

	Willingness to Implement Voice						Solicitation of Voice						Evaluation of Subordinate After Voice					
	Main effect			Interaction			Main effect			Interaction			Main effect			Interaction		
	B	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*
Intercept	5.66**	.68	.01	5.43**	.56	.01	4.18**	.07	.01	3.53**	.50	.01	5.67**	.67	.01	5.59**	.56	.01
Age	-.02	.02	.26	-.01	.02	.44	.01	.01	.57	.01	.01	.40	-.02	.02	.16	-.02	.02	.35
Gender[b]	.15	.16	.35	.10	.15	.50	-.15	.14	.29	-.18	.14	.19	-.04	.16	.79	-.10	.15	.50
Work experience	.01	.02	.64	.01	.02	.68	-.01	.02	.47	-.01	.02	.41	.02	.02	.25	.02	.02	.24
Power distance	.02	.09	.78	-.02	.08	.79	.04	.08	.63	.01	.07	.97	.02	.09	.78	-.03	.08	.69
M-S match[c]	.18	.16	.26	.01	.16	.95	.10	.14	.45	.01	.14	.93	.38*	.16	.02	.15	.16	.35
SCO[d]				-.06	.10	.56				-.09	.09	.35				-.03	.10	.81
SCOxMS match[e]				.61**	.17	.01				.45**	.15	.01				.75**	.17	.01
Log Likelihood	-536.197			-521.914			-536.197			-521.914			-536.197			-521.914		

Note. The three dependent variables were allowed to correlate. [a] $N = 150$; [b] 1 = male, 2 = female; [c] manager-subordinate gender match, 0 = match, 1 = mismatch; [d] social comparison orientation; [e] interaction between social comparison orientation and manager-subordinate gender match; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

TABLE 9
Path Analysis for Conditional Indirect Effects (Study 4)[a]

	Gratitude			Willingness to Implement Voice			Solicitation of Voice			Evaluation of Subordinate After Voice		
	B	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*p*
Constant	3.22**	.60	.01	4.63**	.59	.01	3.10**	.52	.01	4.56**	.54	.01
Age	.01	.02	.93	-.01	.02	.41	.01	.01	.39	-.02	.02	.38
Gender[b]	-.08	.16	.64	.12	.15	.44	-.17	.13	.21	-.08	.14	.58
Work experience	-.01	.02	.85	.01	.02	.66	-.01	.01	.39	.02	.02	.29
Power distance	.01	.09	.99	-.02	.09	.80	.01	.08	.97	-.03	.08	.70
MS match[c]	.05	.18	.79	-.01	.16	.99	.01	.13	.96	.13	.16	.40
SCO	-.04	.13	.74	-.05	.13	.72	-.08	.18	.66	-.01	.12	.93
SCOxMS match	.65**	.19	.01	.45*	.20	.02	.36	.20	.07	.54**	.20	.01
Gratitude				.25**	.09	.01	.16*	.65	.04	.32**	.08	.01
Moderator: Social comparison orientation				*Boot indirect effect*		*95% CI*	*Boot indirect effect*		*95% CI*	*Boot indirect effect*		*95% CI*
−1SD (−.98)				−.15		[−.39, −.03]	−.08		[−.24, −.01]	−.19		[−.43, −.04]
+1SD (.98)				.17		[.05, .42]	.09		[.01, .25]	.22		[.06, .48]

Note. The three dependent variables were allowed to correlate; Log Likelihood = -719.760; [a]N = 150; [b]1 = male, 2 = female; [c] manager-subordinate gender match, 0 = match, 1 = mismatch; ^{t}p<.10, *p < .05, **p < .01; bootstrap sample size = 5,000; unstandardized

TABLE 10
Exploratory Factor Analysis for Managerial Voice Attribution (Study 5b)

Item	A	B	C	D
CB_2: He wants team performance to improve	.892			
CB_3: He wants to help me with enhancing team efficiency	.881			
CB_5: He wants to help to address the issues that are undermining team performance	.870			
CB_4: He is concerned with the well-being of the team and team members	.861			
AU_3: He is trying to undermine my authority of leadership in my team		.859		
AU_4: He wants to make me look bad in front of others		.855		
AU_1: He is trying to give me a hard time		.845		
AU_2: He wants to send the message that I'm not doing a good job as a leader		.838		
IM_1: He is trying to make himself look good in front of the team			.920	
IM_5: He is trying to stand out from the rest of the team			.910	
IM_4: He wants me to recognize his ability and potential at work			.873	
IM_2: He wants to impress me that he concerns about the team's best interests			.770	
SB_4: He is look for economic gain for himself from the change				.881
SB_7: He is trying to find excuses for his bad performance				.845
SB_6: He wants to make things harder for some team members				.682
SB_2: He wants to make his own work easier				.541
Eigenvalue	7.397	3.221	1.448	1.135
Explained Variance (%)	46.231	20.134	9.052	7.094

Note. N = 184. A: Collective-benefiting motive; B: Authority-undermining motive; C: Impression management motive; D: Self-benefiting motive

TABLE 11

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Managerial Attribution of Voice (Study 5c)

Items	Initial Loadings	Loadings after Adjustment
Dimension 1: Collective Benefiting		
1. He/she wants team performance to improve	1	1
2. He/she wants to help me with enhancing team efficiency	0.66	0.66
3. He/she wants to help to address the issues that are undermining team performance	0.93	0.93
4. He/she is concerned with the well-being of the team and team members	0.68	0.67
Dimension 2: Authority Undermining		
5. He/she is trying to undermine my authority of leadership in my team	1	1
6. He/she wants to make me look bad in front of others	0.93	0.94
7. He/she is trying to give me a hard time	1.18	1.22
8. He/she wants to send the message that I'm not doing a good job as a leader	1.09	1.11
Dimension 3: Impression Management		
9. He/she is trying to make him/herself look good in front of the team	1	1
10. He/she is trying to stand out from the rest of the team	1.22	0.76
11. He/she wants me to recognize his/her ability and potential at work	0.48	
12. He/she wants to impress me that he/she concerns about the team's best interests	0.36	
Dimension 4: Self Benefiting		
13. He/she is look for economic gain for him/herself from the change	1	1
14. He/she wants to make his own work easier	1.05	0.81
15. He/she wants to make things harder for some team members	0.85	
16. He/she is trying to find excuses for his/her bad performance	1.57	

Note. N = 116.

TABLE 12

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlations of Variables (Study 6)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Voice Behavior	2.84	.54	(.86)											
2. Helping	3.86	.57	.16	(.89)										
3. Ingratiation	3.14	.56	.10	.41**	(.77)									
4. Authority Undermining Attribution	1.40	.58	-.09	.14	.03	(.96)								
5. Impression Management Attribution	2.09	1.07	-.05	.08	.05	.59**	(.95)							
6. Self Benefiting Attribution	2.91	.92	-.07	.21*	.12	.26**	.46**	(.66)						
7. Collective Benefiting Attribution	4.05	.68	.15	-.04	-.09	-.45**	-.34**	-.30**	(.93)					
8. Manager Voice Solicitation	3.94	.66	.00	-.13	-.04	-.27**	-.15	-.07	.56**	(.90)				
9. Performance Evaluation	3.66	.69	.16	.02	.01	-.22*	-.08	-.17	.46**	.48**	(.90)			
10. Follower Education	2.09	.46	-.24**	.02	.07	.06	.16	-.06	-.16	-.01	.02	-		
11. Follower's Tenure with Leader	2.56	2.28	.31**	.13	.10	-.04	.02	.03	.14	-.09	.16	-.19*	-	
12. Managerial Self Efficacy	4.27	.41	-.15	.03	.15	-.16	-.24*	-.01	.21*	.30**	.05	.12	-.32**	(.84)

Note. The sample includes 122 followers embedded in 46 teams (leaders).

a: 1=high school graduate or below, 2=bachelor's degree, 3=master's degree, 4=doctoral degree

TABLE 13
Regression Results on the Moderating Role of Employee Helping Behavior (Study 6)

	DV: Voice Solicitation			DV: Performance Evaluation		DV: Collective Benefiting
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Follower Education	-.10 (.12)	-.10 (.12)	-.05 (.11)	.12 (.15)	.06 (.14)	-.09 (.12)
Follower Tenure	-.01 (.03)	-.01 (.02)	-.02 (.02)	.04 (.03)	.05 (.03)	.03 (.02)
Managerial Self-Efficacy	.53** (.20)	.56** (.19)	.34† (.17)	.26 (.22)	.22 (.18)	.50** (.19)
Employee Voice	.07 (.10)	.05 (.09)	.04 (.08)	.19 (.12)	.12 (.12)	.01 (.09)
Employee Helping		-.08 (.09)	-.06 (.08)		.01 (.11)	-.06 (.09)
Voice*Helping		.43** (.12)	.32** (.11)		.20 (.17)	.21† (.12)
Authority Undermining			.06 (.12)			
Impression Management			.01 (.06)			
Self Benefiting			.03 (.06)			
Collective Benefiting			.50** (.09)			

Note. N = 122 in 46 teams.
** p < .01, * p < .05, † p < .10

TABLE 14
Regression Results on the Moderating Role of Employee Ingratiation (Study 6)

	DV: Voice Solicitation			DV: Performance Evaluation			DV: Collective Benefiting
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Follower Education	-.10 (.12)	-.07 (.12)	-.05 (.11)	.12 (.15)	.06 (.14)	.11 (.14)	-.06 (.12)
Follower Tenure	-.01 (.03)	-.01 (.02)	-.02 (.02)	.04 (.03)	.04 (.03)	.02 (.03)	.03 (.02)
Managerial Self-Efficacy	.53** (.20)	.55** (.19)	.34† (.18)	.26 (.22)	.15 (.18)	-.01 (.18)	.52** (.19)
Employee Voice	.07 (.10)	.11 (.09)	.08 (.08)	.19 (.12)	.19 (.12)	.08 (.11)	.06 (.09)
Employee Ingratiation		-.06 (.10)	-.01 (.09)		-.01 (.12)	.08 (.11)	-.12 (.10)
Voice*Ingratiation		.44** (.13)	.32** (.12)		.27† (.16)	.05 (.15)	.30* (.13)
Authority Undermining			.08 (.12)			-.11 (.14)	
Impression Management			.02 (.06)			.11 (.08)	
Self Benefiting			.03 (.06)			-.07 (.08)	
Collective Benefiting			.51** (.09)			.47** (.11)	

Note. N = 122 in 46 teams.
** p < .01, * p < .05, † p < .10

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FIGURE 1
Theoretical Model of Paper 1

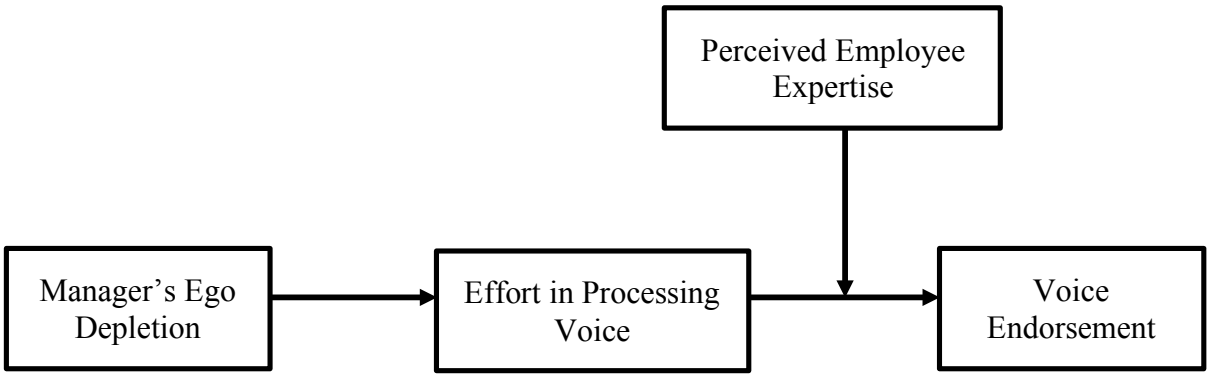


FIGURE 2
Interactive Effect of Effort in Processing Voice and Employee Expertise on Voice Endorsement (Study 2)

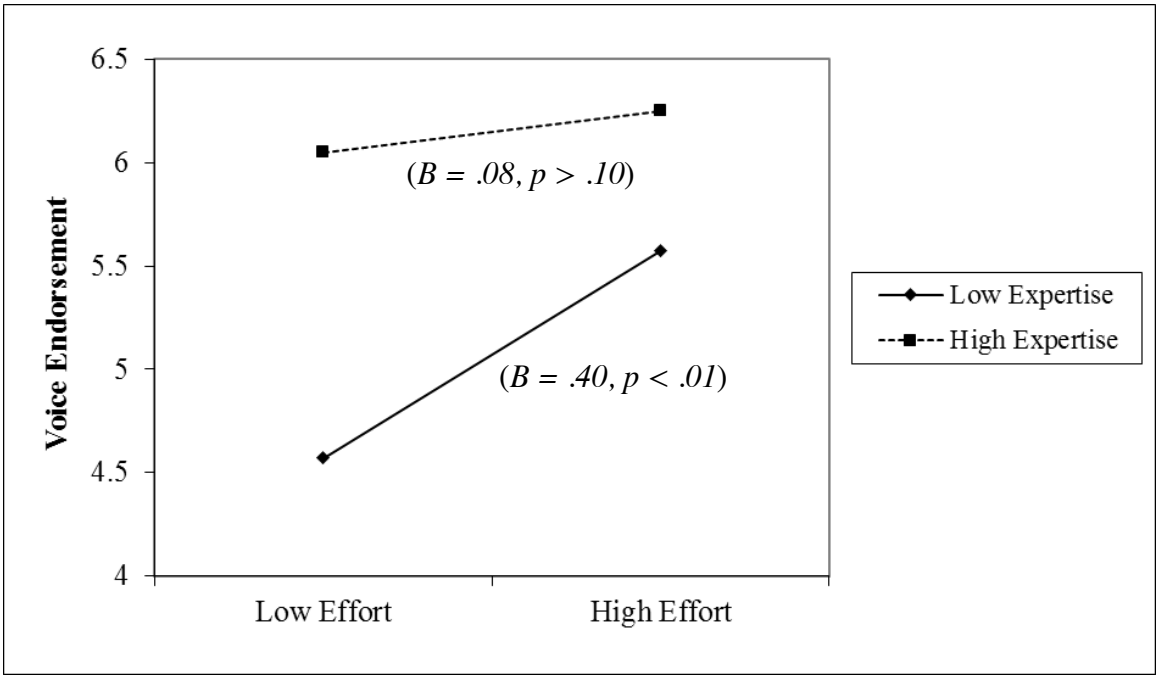


FIGURE 3
Theoretical Model of Paper 2

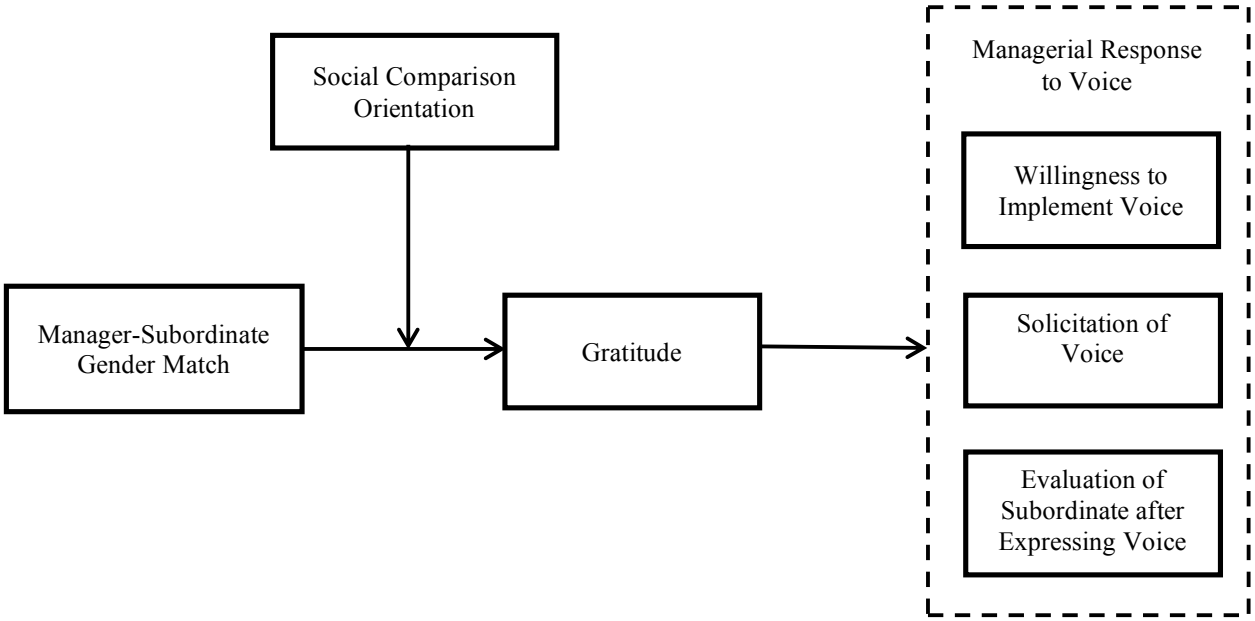


FIGURE 4
Interactive Effect of Manager-subordinate Gender match and Social Comparison Orientation on Willingness to Implement Voice (Study 3)

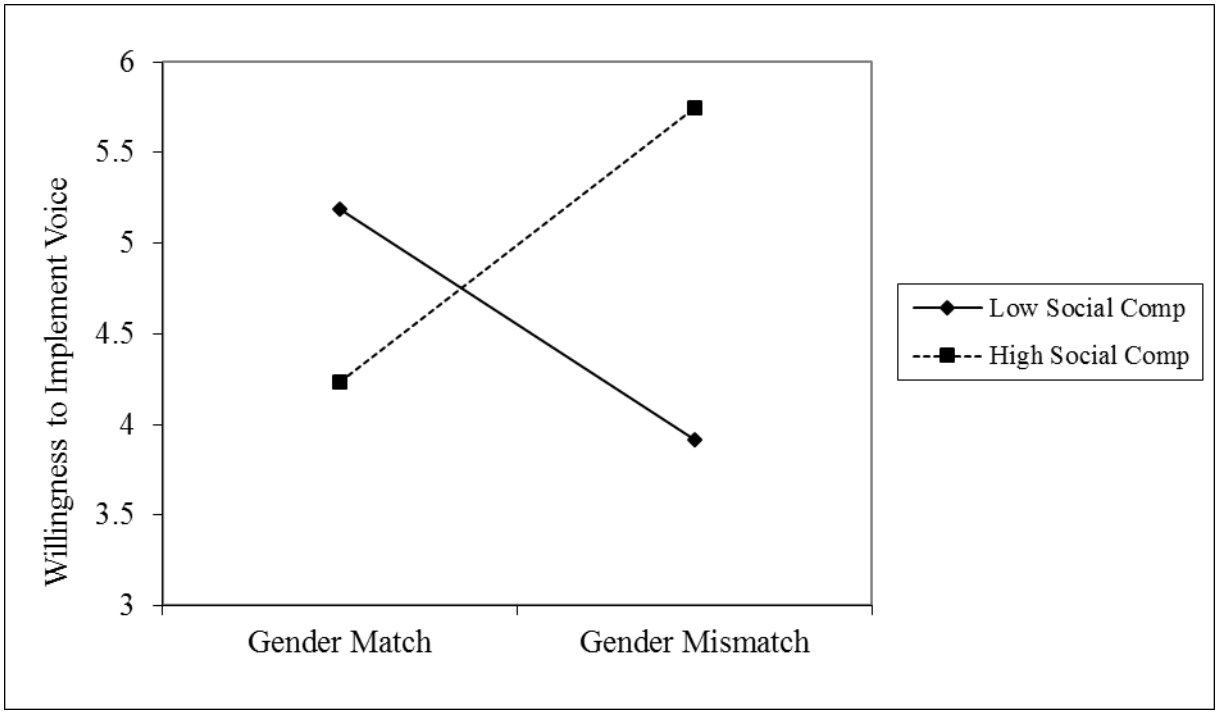


FIGURE 5
Interactive Effect of Manager-subordinate Gender match and Social Comparison Orientation on Solicitation of Voice (Study 3)

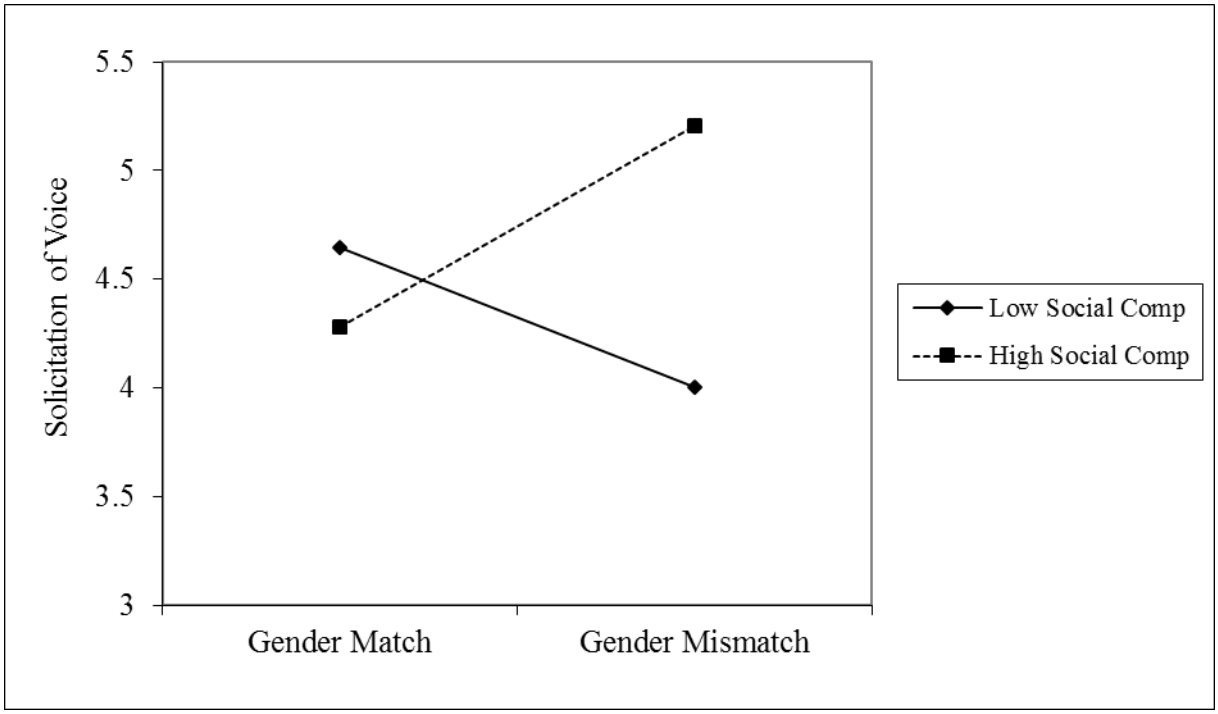


FIGURE 6
Interactive Effect of Manager-subordinate Gender match and Social Comparison Orientation on Evaluation of Subordinate (Study 3)

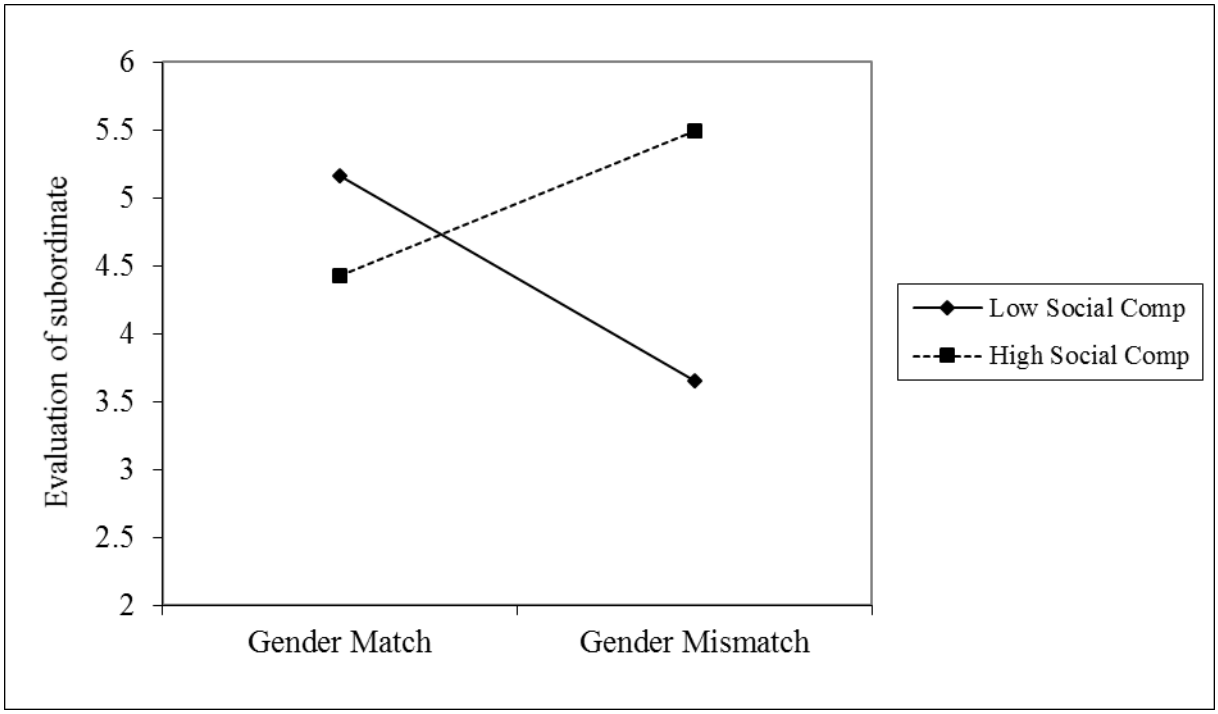


FIGURE 7
Interactive Effect of Manager-subordinate Gender match and Social Comparison Orientation on Willingness to Implement Voice (Study 4)

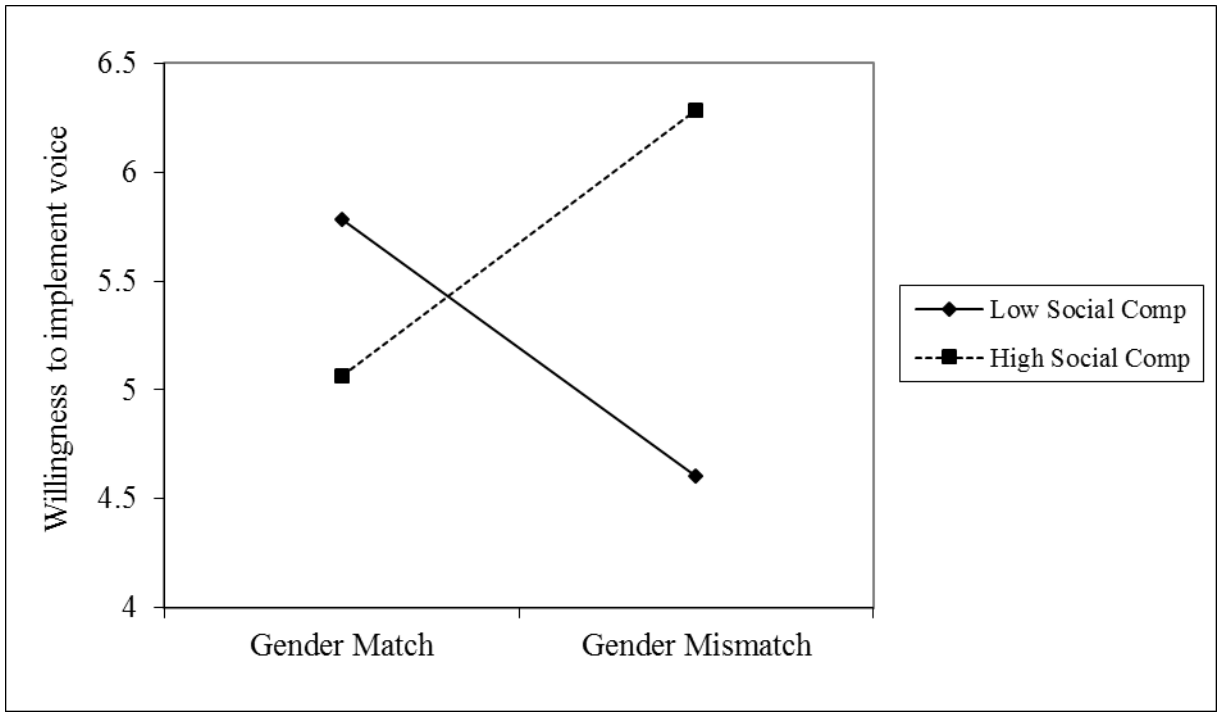


FIGURE 8
Interactive Effect of Manager-subordinate Gender match and Social Comparison Orientation on Solicitation of Voice (Study 4)

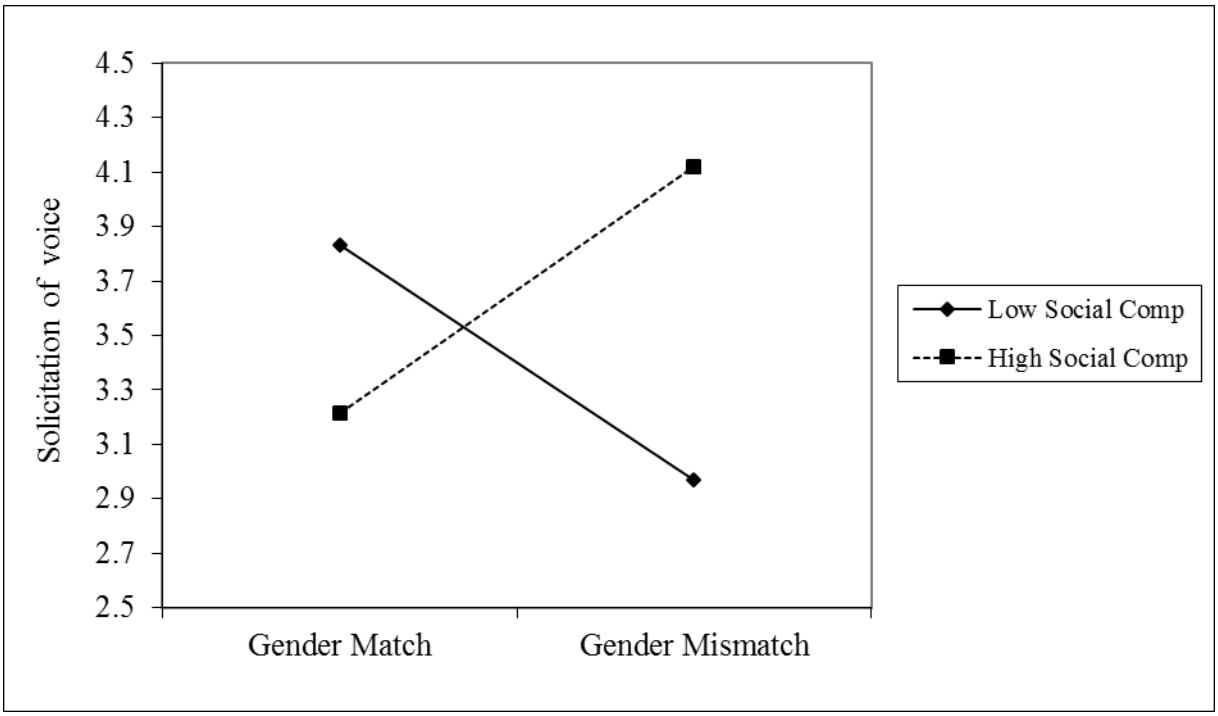


FIGURE 9
Interactive Effect of Manager-subordinate Gender match and Social Comparison Orientation on Evaluation of Subordinate (Study 4)

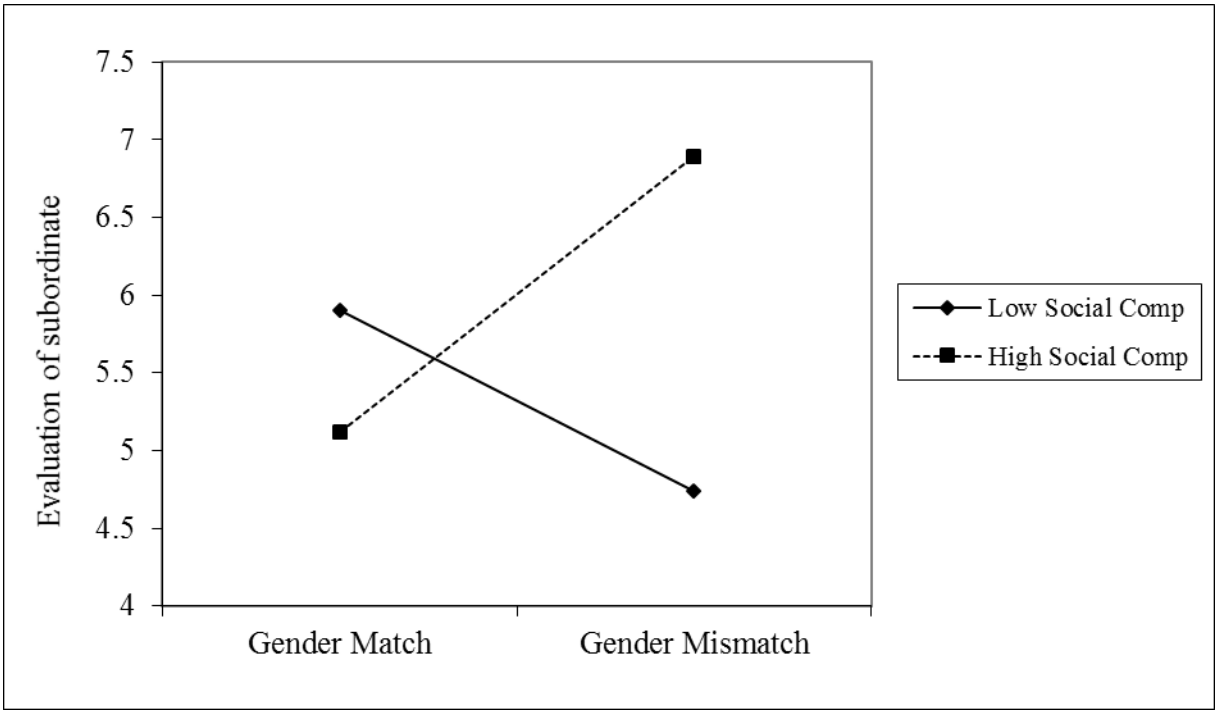


FIGURE 10
Interactive Effect of Manager-subordinate Gender match and Social Comparison Orientation on Manager's Experienced Gratitude (Study 4)

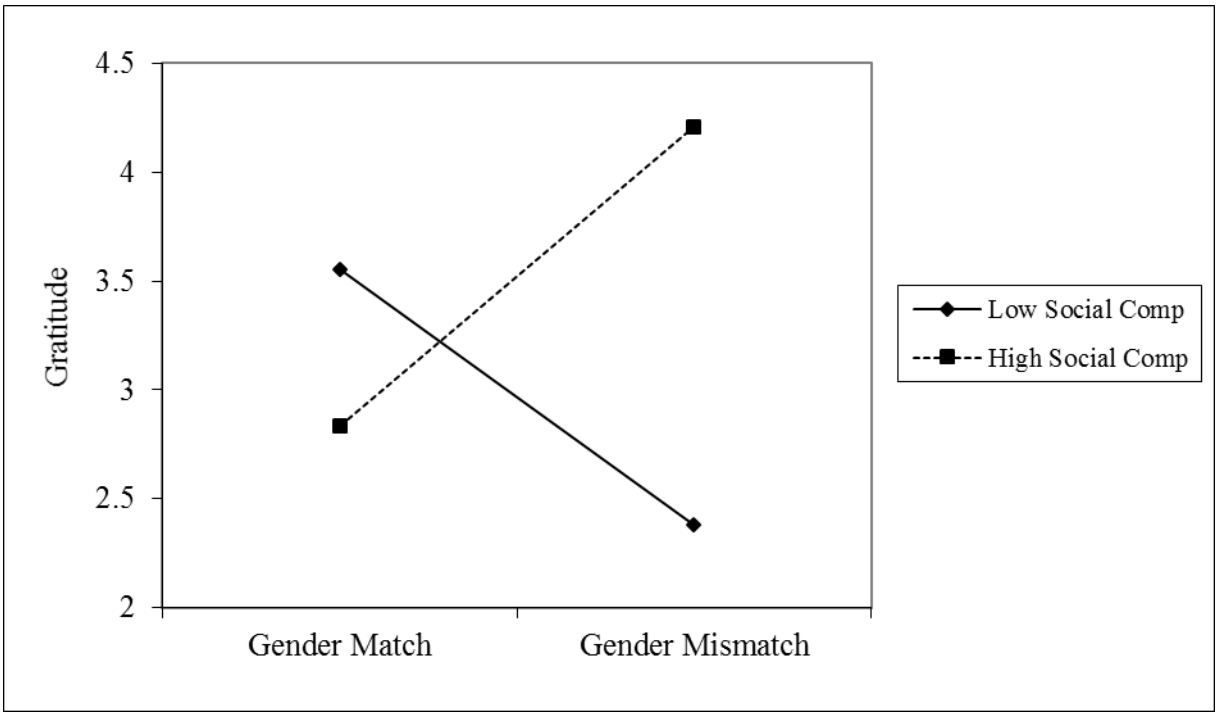
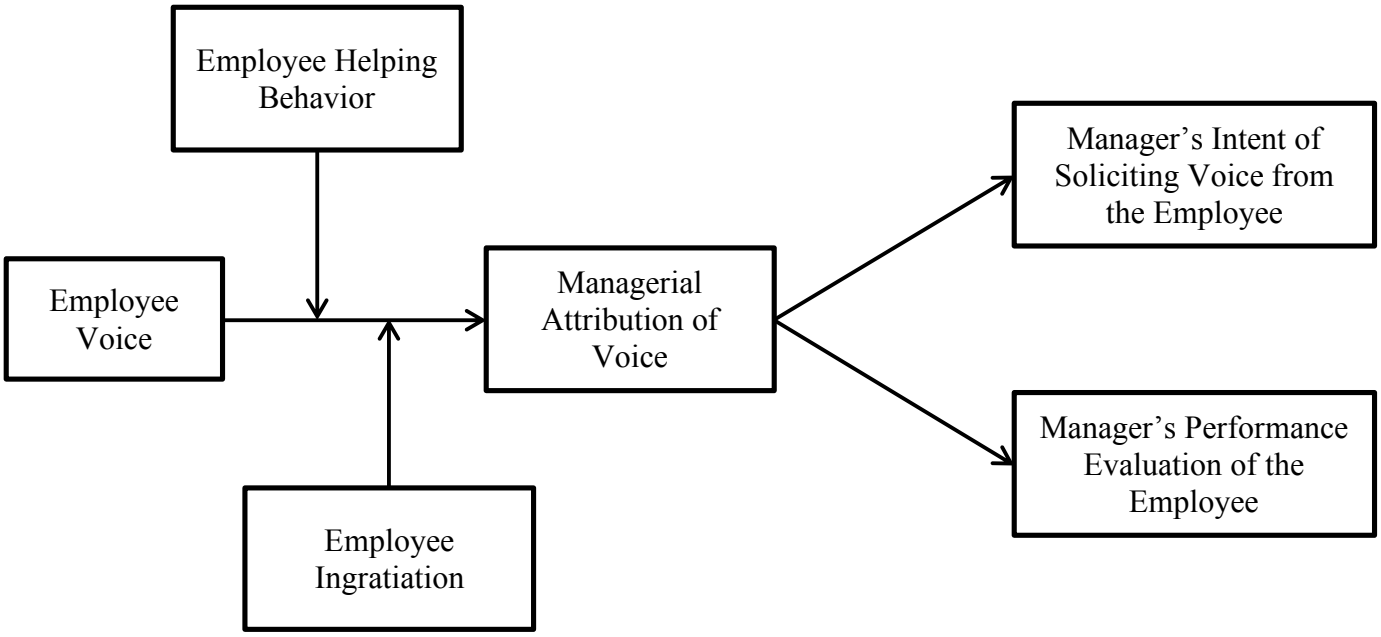


FIGURE 11
Theoretical Model of Paper 3



Appendix A: Scenario Material of Study 2 in Paper 1

As you read the following description, please picture yourself as a manager in this firm.

TravelAir is a small commuter airline that serves the [Brazilian areas]. You have been a manager at TravelAir for about 3 years now where you are in charge of 65 employees and 45 daily routes, primarily in [a Brazilian state].

One thing you have recently noticed is that, within the past year, there have been increasing complaints among the customers in your area. From your read of the complaints, they center on one main area: the planes are overbooked during rush hours. Consequently, some passengers are bumped and have to wait for other planes with available seating.

You spend some time developing an action plan to address the increase in complaints, which have resulted in losses. After studying the routes, interviewing passengers, and analyzing the passenger loads on each flight, you have concluded that you need to restructure the routes and maintenance schedules. Because a sizable number of the travelers during rush hour are required to switch planes halfway through their route home, you could possibly capitalize on some efficiencies by serving direct routes between four cities. You start to rework the routes, taking into consideration: 1) the most popular routes traveled; 2) the air traffic conditions at each airport; 3) cost of fuel at each airport; and, 4) daily maintenance schedules. By taking five planes off the existing routes to serve the new direct flights, you can operate with one less plane while still satisfying all of these issues. In fact, these new routes better meet the demands of customers during the rush hours. If implemented, you believe that the changes will lead to better customer service and an annual profit of $300k for your area in the first year with steady gains expected over the next 3 years.

After your weekly staff meetings with all of your pilots and maintenance crew members laying out your plan, Rarento, a maintenance specialist for your area, approaches you in private and raises a concern with your new plan.

(High expertise manipulation) Renato is 40 years old, has a master degree in engineering from MIT, and has worked as an airplane maintenance specialist for more than 15 years. Before

joining your company three years ago, he spent 7 years in another major airline company, where he also served as a member in a committee responsible for initiating several major route restructuring, which turned out to be successful ones. As the most senior member in the maintenance team, Renato has generally met work expectations.

(Low expertise manipulation) Renato is 24 years old, has a bachelor degree in engineering at Universidade Anhanguera, and has worked as an airplane maintenance specialist in your company for about one year. As the most junior member in the maintenance team, Renato has generally met work expectations.

Renato then proceeds to explain that he isn't sure your proposal will work because you may not have allotted enough time for the daily maintenance and scheduled breaks (tire checks, light checks, walk-arounds, etc.) and monthly maintenance (changing the oil, checking the brakes, cockpit functions, engine tune-ups, etc.). Because of the lack of maintenance, he feels that the planes would begin to experience significant problems with increasing regularity in about a month, with delays and costs soaring within 3 months. Renato mentions that the time the planes need in the monthly maintenance means that at least one plane would be unavailable for several days per month, meaning that one of your routes would be adversely impacted.

Renato then recommends a new plan that calls for more maintenance time. The new plan, he says, will result in better customer service (less customer waiting time) and profit, but he is not able to say exactly how much profit. He ends by stating: "If you take into account my proposed changes, I think your plan would be a success".

To completely address Renato's concern, you would have to reconfigure all of the routes in your area. Looking at the clock reading 3:30 pm, you have about one hour before your weekly staff meeting with your superiors where they will ask you about your plan.

Appendix B: Scenario Experiment of Studies 3&4 in Paper 2

Initial reading:

Imagine you are a manager of a team with 10 employees. Your company has been keeping a performance index for every employee. This performance index has been used to determine employees' merit increase, bonus, training opportunity, and future promotion. This index has been consisted of three parts:

- 35%—objective performance record from the Human Resource department (e.g., absenteeism, working hours, and sales record);

- 50%—subjective evaluation from the direct manager (you) (e.g., task performance, professionalism, and dedication);

- 15%—peer review (e.g., team contribution.).

Recently, your company has decided that different teams might face unique management situations. Therefore, team managers will be given autonomy to customize the weight of the peer evaluation in their own team. The weight adjustment of the peer evaluation will result in a corresponding change in the weight of your evaluation (that is, the weight of objective performance record [35%] cannot be changed).

Subordinate voice:

A week after your company announced the decision, Jack (Anna), one of your 10 subordinates, sent you an email. The email is as follows.

Dear Boss,

I would like to share some insights with you regarding the weight of peer evaluation, in case they can be of any value to you. I think we should give more than 15% to the peer evaluation in our performance index. Peers work with each other every day and interact with each other frequently, thus we have a clear and comprehensive picture of our peers' work attitudes, engagement, and contributions to the team. I observed that some team members tried hard to appear diligent and active at your presence but slacked when you were not there.

If team members like these get promoted or a raise, there will be some negative effects on the other team members' motivation and performance, which will further undermine our team performance. Given this, I hope you can consider increasing the weight of peer evaluation in our team to 30%.

Respectfully,

Jack (Anna)

Appendix C: Initial Items Generation for Voice Attribution

Dimension 1: Collective-Benefiting Motive: Employee voices because he/she genuinely wants the team to improve and become better. We have 7 items.

1) Because he/she is a team player and wants the best for the team.
2) Because he/she wants team performance to improve.
3) Because he/she wants to help me with enhancing team efficiency.
4) Because he/she is concerned with the well-being of the team and team members.
5) Because he/she wants to help to address the issues that are undermining team performance.
6) Because he/she wants to help the team to succeed.
7) Because he/she is trying to increase team productivity.

Dimension 2: Authority Undermining Motive: Employee voices because he/she simply wants to challenge and undermine the leader. We have 6 items.

1) Because he/she is trying to give me a hard time.
2) Because he/she wants to send the message that I'm not doing a good job as a leader.
3) Because he/she is trying to undermine my authority of leadership in my team.
4) Because he/she wants to make me look bad in front of others.
5) Because he/she wants to show that he/she can do a better job than me as a leader.
6) Because he/she wants to challenge me.

Dimension 3: Impression Management Motive: Employee voices because he/she wants to make good impression on the leader and/or other team members. We have 6 items.

1) Because he/she is trying to make him/herself look good in front of the team.
2) Because he/she wants to impress me that he/she concerns about the team's best interests.
3) Because he/she is trying to impress me as a valuable employee.
4) Because he/she wants me to recognize his/her ability and potential at work.
5) Because he/she is trying to stand out from the rest of the team.
6) Because he/she is trying to seek for public attention

Dimension 4: Self-Benefiting Motive: Employee voices because he/she is expecting to benefit him/herself after the voice is adopted. We have 7 items.

1) Because he/she wants to prove that he/she knows better and more than the rest of the team.
2) Because he/she wants to prove that his/her ideas are better than what is happening now
3) Because he/she wants to make things harder for some team members.
4) Because he/she wants to make his/her own work easier.
5) Because he/she is trying to find excuses for his/her bad performance.
6) Because he/she is looking for economic gain for him/herself from the change.
7) Because he/she wants to change things to work in his/her favor.