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# Voicing Across Cultures: The Role of Communication Style and Relationships In Employee Voice and Subsequent Influence

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Voicing Across Cultures: The Role of Communication Style and Relationships in  
Employee Voice and Subsequent Influence

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## Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my parents and husband. Mom and Dad, you got me here – you molded me into the person I am today. Without you, I would not have the ability to face such a grueling endeavor. Chris, you have become my motivation and inspiration. You have given me a greater purpose, a true reason to persevere. I love you each very much and appreciate your love, support, and patience through this process.

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## Abstract

Constructive input from a diverse workforce can enhance firm performance. However, cultural norms and differences in communication behavior expectations may prevent concerns and suggestions from being expressed, or from being implemented when they are expressed. The purpose of the current study is to bridge the Human Resources, Organizational Behavior, Communications, and International Management literatures in an attempt to understand how subordinates with different communication norms voice and how (or whether) managers use the content of the voiced messages. Two models are presented examining prohibitive and promotive voice as central variables in the relationship between subordinate communication style and subordinate influence over managerial decisions. The models also present manager communication style and the relationship factors of leader-member exchange, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change as moderators of the more general relationships proposed. Results of a field study including subordinates and managers from six continents produced several findings. In line with hypotheses, subordinate communication style had a direct effect on prohibitive voice, while its effect on promotive voice was moderated by leader-member exchange quality. Also, leader-member exchange quality and manager communication style moderated the relationship of each voice type with influence over managerial decisions. Implications and limitations are discussed.

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION AND CONTRIBUTION

### 1.1 Introduction

Workplace voice (i.e., constructive input from employees) is critical for organizational innovation and process improvement (Edmondson, 1999). Employee input from a culturally diverse workforce can be particularly beneficial for firm performance (Richard, 2000), as diverse perspectives can lead to discussion of non-obvious alternatives (Nemeth, 1992) and better-quality decisions (Cox, 1994; McLeod, Lobel, & Cox, 1996). However, the diversity of perspectives in a workforce may not be reflected in the decisions that are made due to cultural hurdles in input sharing and input use. In terms of input sharing, individuals from some cultures are less likely than others to voice their suggestions and concerns (e.g., Thomas & Au, 2002). In terms of input use, the tendency for individuals in decision-making positions to respond negatively to upward feedback from subordinates (e.g., Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Sachs, 1982) may be exacerbated by certain cultural communication norms (Burgoon & Hubbard, 2005; Hall, 1976; Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). The current study attempts to address how subordinates come to have a voice in managerial decisions, even when cultural norms and expectations might otherwise prevent it.

Research in the voice literature thus far supports the notion that employees from cultures that focus more on relationships (i.e., collectivistic, high power distance cultures;

Hofstede, 1980) are less likely to voice (i.e., express suggestions and concerns) to their superiors than those from less relationship-focused cultures (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Thomas & Au, 2002). The main argument of these authors is that individuals in relationship-focused societies tend to be sensitive to social norms of conflict avoidance, especially regarding superiors (Bontempo & Rivero, 1992; Trubisky, Ting-Toomey, & Lin, 1991). Research also demonstrates that, once feedback is voiced upward from a subordinate, the manager may respond negatively to it, often by simply ignoring or dismissing it (Ilgen et al., 1979). Upward feedback may be perceived as threatening (Carver, Antonio, & Scheier, 1985), and this effect may be exacerbated for more relationship-focused managers. In addition, managers may view subordinates who practice voice as being poorer performers and less loyal than other employees, and may be less likely to endorse their ideas depending on how the voice is expressed (Burris, 2012). Thus, a subordinate who chooses to voice may be left unheard or, even worse, may suffer negative consequences because of it.

The current dissertation differs from past research in two major ways. First, I take an individual-level approach to cultural norms. Related past studies have assumed that cultural clusters exist at the national level, which has recently been found to be erroneous. Rather, greater variance is often seen within, rather than between, nations for some cultural factors (Littrell, 2012). Additional factors, such as region, generation, and race, shape the development of one's values and norms. An individual-level approach allows us to account for these additional cultural influences.

Second, the current study examines factors that may affect *how* cultural norms impact the subordinate's decision to voice and whether voice leads to influence.

According to High-/Low-Context Theory (HLCT; Hall, 1959, 1976), we must explore the relationship between the members of a dyad to understand the communication behavior that takes place within it. Expectancy Violations Theory (EVT; Burgoon, 1978) adds the caveat that cultural norm violations, such as voicing in a relationship-oriented culture, may be viewed as positive behaviors, depending on how the individual is perceived within the context of his/her relationship with the observer. Thus, even a subordinate with relationship-focused cultural norms may feel confident to voice, just as a relationship-focused manager may be willing to listen to a cultural norm violator, if the relationship between them provides a favorable context.

The logics of HLCT and EVT imply that open, accepted communication can be encouraged between subordinates and managers with any cultural background through the development of high-quality manager/subordinate relationships, as characteristics of the relationship may counter (or exacerbate) the effects of both manager and subordinate cultural expectations on the expression and use of subordinate voice. In other words, the likeliness of voice behavior, and the influence of the voiced message, may vary less by culture once manager/subordinate relationships are taken into account. The term *influence* is used here in reference to one's ability to change or shape the behavior of others (Anderson, Spataro, & Flynn, 2008), and the current study is specifically focused on the subordinate's influence concerning his/her manager's decisions.

The purpose of this dissertation is three-fold. First, it explores cultural communication style in relation to *prohibitive voice* (aimed at stopping or preventing processes that are potentially harmful for the organization) and *promotive voice* (aimed at improving processes for the benefit of the organization; Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012), in an

attempt to understand and predict how/when each type of voice may be expressed across cultural styles. Second, the study explores leader-member exchange (i.e., the exchange relationship between the manager and subordinate; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998), psychological safety (i.e., the subordinate's belief that he/she will not suffer consequences from taking risks at work; Detert & Burris, 2007), and felt obligation for constructive change (i.e., the subordinate's belief that he/she is responsible for creating change in the workplace; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Morrison & Phelps, 1999) in relation to communication styles and voice behavior, with the goal of understanding the role of the manager/subordinate relationship in cross-cultural voice expression. Finally, the study examines how the effects of the two voice types (promotive and prohibitive) on subordinate influence may be altered based on leader-member exchange and the manager's cultural communication style, with the goal of understanding how characteristics of the manager and the manager/subordinate relationship can enhance or deter the usefulness of workplace voice. Support for predictions should allow researchers to better understand how culture and relationship quality interact to affect both manager and subordinate outcomes (i.e., the expression and use of voice). The study's findings should guide practitioners in predicting whether and how diverse perspectives may be expressed, acknowledged, and utilized in the workplace, and may help to determine where to make organizational interventions to encourage open, valued communication for the benefit of the organization.

The current study bridges several literatures, described below, using HLCT as the general foundation for all arguments and using EVT to supplement discussions specific to the influence component. In the remainder of this chapter, I discuss the importance and



contribution of the dissertation. Chapter Two presents a background on the theories and constructs involved and develops specific hypotheses concerning the role of the subordinate's and manager's cultural norms and relationship perceptions in their behaviors involving voice. The latter chapter looks first at how these factors affect the subordinate's decision to voice, and second, at how these factors affect the impact of voice on subordinate influence. I present the methods and results of a field study in Chapters Three and Four, respectively, and, finally, I discuss the implications and limitations of this work in Chapter Five.

## 1.2 The Importance of Subordinate Influence

Employee influence within the manager/subordinate dyad, as opposed to teams or other dyad combinations, is particularly interesting because of the unique perspective the subordinate employee can provide and feed upward to the manager. Subordinate employees are in a position on, or at least closer to, the front-line (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012), serving as a link between the manager and work unit processes. In this sense, they may more closely experience the results of processes, or may actually be in the center of them (Edmondson, 1999). Subordinate influence is the focal outcome of this study because of its potential implications for both the individual and the organization.

At the individual-level, subordinates who feel that they have a say in workplace decisions are more likely to have positive attitudes towards their job and the organization (Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999; Spencer, 1986). For example, Loher, Noe, Moeller, and Fitzgerald (1985) used meta-analysis to determine that perceptions of influence increase job satisfaction. In addition, Timming (2012) found that subordinate employees who felt

more sense of control and involvement in decisions at work were more likely to exhibit organizational commitment and managerial trust.

A subordinate's perspectives may influence the organization in a positive direction, as well. When taken into consideration by the manager, subordinate upward input can lead to crisis/mistake prevention (Edmondson, 2003; Schwartz & Wald, 2003), continuous process improvement (Nemeth, 1997), and organizational learning (Edmondson, 1999, 2003). Takeuchi, Chen, and Cheung (2012) noted that organizations now use their workforces as a resource for constructive change (Detert & Burris, 2007; Morrison & Milliken, 2000), as they are aware of the competitive advantage that this knowledge base can provide (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

An organization is particularly likely to benefit from influence that results from the expression of culturally-diverse perspectives. According to Richard (2000), a culturally diverse workforce can lead to higher firm performance due to the diverse experience and knowledge culturally different employees bring to the workplace. Cognitive diversity research addresses how individual differences in information processing and beliefs concerning cause-effect relationships can alter group decision outcomes. For example, Olson, Parayitam, and Bao (2007) found that cognitive diversity increased task conflict, which led, in turn, to stronger decision understanding, decision commitment, and decision quality. As individuals raised in different cultures tend to differ in their life experiences, knowledge, and information processing (e.g., Hall, 1976; Triandis, 1989), cultural diversity enhances the cognitive diversity of a workforce, thus potentially increasing creativity and decision quality. McLeod et al. (1996), for example, conducted an experiment involving brainstorming sessions with various groups. They

found that ethnically diverse groups (composed of Asian-Americans, African-Americans, Hispanic-Americans, and Anglo-Americans) produced ideas that were judged to be more effective and feasible than did the homogeneous (all Anglo-American) groups.

Clearly, subordinate upward influence has positive implications for both the individual and the organization, especially where cultural diversity is concerned. Such influence is often lacking, however, as research suggests that employee perspectives are expressed less frequently by employees with certain cultural backgrounds; for example, more relationship-focused cultures discourage upward feedback in general (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). Further, suggestions and concerns may not be positively received by managers or used to their greatest extent (Burriss, 2012). It is thus critical to understand the potential mechanisms by which cultural communication norms affect subordinate influence so that organizations may be aware of elements that obstruct the potential benefits of culturally diverse perspectives.

### 1.3 Literature Contribution

Several literatures discuss tangents to the various pieces of the culture/voice/influence process but do not specifically address the issue of voice expression and use in cross-cultural dyads. In the current study, HLCT and EVT tie together constructs from a variety of fields that represent the separate pieces of the larger arguments. This dissertation is reciprocal in its contribution, as the theoretical and empirical output should give back to each of the literatures from which the constructs and theories were drawn. Specifically, the study is founded on and contributes to (1) Human Resources, (2) Organizational Behavior, (3) Communications, and (4) International Management research.

First, the Human Resources literature is abundant in voice research but lacks studies concerning how individuals with cultural norms of silence come to have a voice in the workplace. The current dissertation draws on several aspects of the voice literature, focusing on its *prohibitive* and *promotive voice* constructs (Liang et al., 2012) as the central, mediating factors in the full model. Though they were not developed specifically to reflect cross-cultural voice distinctions, these constructs appear to capture potential communication outcome differences described in HLCT. For example, one expectation, based on HLCT (described in detail in Chapter Two), is that more indirect (high-context) communicators may choose to practice promotive over prohibitive voice, whereas more direct (low-context) communicators likely practice both. The current dissertation presents the Human Resources literature with an expansion, or caveat, on its claim that employees from relationship-focused cultures are less likely than others to voice; theory suggests that the culture/voice path is not as direct as implied by previous research (e.g., Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Thomas & Au, 2002). Chapter Two discusses the background and current use of these constructs and relationships in greater detail.

Second, the Organizational Behavior literature contributes *leader-member exchange* (Dienesch & Liden, 1986), which is used in the current dissertation as one of three factors reflecting a relationship component in the cultural norm/voice/influence process. This dissertation elaborates on leader-member exchange research, demonstrating its utility in enhancing employee influence by both encouraging indirect communicators to voice (following HLCT) and making voiced messages from the subordinate appear more desirable to the manager (following EVT). This should aid in leadership research, particularly where cross-cultural diversity is concerned.

Third, the Communications literature addresses intercultural interactions but does not specifically attend to voice and influence within the manager/subordinate dyad. Home to both major theories of this dissertation, the Communications field provides information on culturally-influenced communication styles (Adair, Buchan, & Chen, 2009) and has ample research concerning influence in intercultural negotiation dyads (e.g., Brett & Okumura, 1998; Buchan, Adair, & Chen, 2010; Weiss, 1993). While the latter studies are concerned with lateral or top-down influence, the current dissertation contributes to this literature by exploring how bottom-up influence can be enhanced even where cultural norms discourage such attempts.

Fourth, the International Management literature integrates the fields of Human Resources, Organizational Behavior, and Communications (among numerous others), exploring concepts in each from a multi-cultural perspective. The current dissertation uses this incorporative, transnational, transcultural approach in its attempt to understand subordinate voice and influence from a global viewpoint. The current study expands on International Management research concerning employee voice (e.g., Thomas & Au, 2002), feedback behavior (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000), and influence (e.g., Rao & Hashimoto, 1996) by looking at individual-level (rather than societal- or regional-level) cultural norms to account for individual variance within-cultures and by examining *how*, rather than *whether*, more relationship-focused individuals speak up to their superiors. Here again, relevant research tends to focus on top-down communication and influence, often with the assumption that individuals from relationship-focused societies do not provide feedback (or other potentially face-damaging comments) upwards, whereas the current dissertation examines the circumstances under which the relationship-focused

individual *does* engage in *bottom-up* communication. This should allow International Management researchers, among others, to understand how to encourage expression and use of diverse perspectives from a multi-cultural workforce.

#### 1.4 Two Models: A Cross-Cultural Perspective on Voice and Influence

The arguments of this dissertation are presented in two separate sections. These sections differ in that they rely, theoretically, on two different perspectives of voice. Burris, Detert, and Romney (2013) argued that since voice is an inherently subjective construct, using a single perspective to capture it paints an incomplete picture. Section 2.2 is focused on the subordinate's decision to voice. Here, the subordinate's perspective of whether or not he/she chose to voice is used, as the manager may not always be consciously aware of voice behavior even if the subordinate believes him/herself to have enacted it. Section 2.3 explores whether the manager allows subordinate input to influence his/her decisions. Here, the manager's perspective of the subordinate's voice behavior is used, as the arguments are concerned with whether the manager's observations of the subordinate's voice behavior lead him/her to be persuaded by the subordinate's input. Each section emphasizes one's evaluation of the situation as perceived through the lens of his/her cultural norms and understanding of his/her place in the context. Arguments in each section are presented separately for each of the two prosocial voice types considered here (prohibitive and promotive), because the motivations for and reactions to each should be distinct. These relationships are explored in detail in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 2

### BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a background on all theories and constructs involved in the dissertation's arguments to then use this information and logic to develop hypotheses about how subordinates come to voice their input and, subsequently, have influence over managerial decisions. I begin by describing HLCT, which serves as the theoretical backbone of all arguments in this dissertation. I then examine two models (one concerning voice, the other concerning influence) in separate sections, providing background on all constructs involved in each. Finally, the chapter concludes by clarifying assumptions, boundaries, and additional questions surrounding the larger issue of how communication style affects influence.

#### 2.1 Main Theoretical Framework: High-/Low-Context Theory

As stated above, Hall's (1959, 1976) HLCT serves as the foundation for the arguments of this dissertation (EVT, a supplemental theory here, is discussed later in the chapter). HLCT established that communication behavior patterns result from one's ecological setting. Hall's work introduced the notion that societies are distinguishable by how much their people rely on context to communicate. Individuals from high-context cultures (Japan, for example) form very close relationships such that less meaning and information need be expressed in words and more can be grasped from unspoken cues; in other words, they are able to communicate indirectly. For these individuals, the message receiver must put a great deal of effort into interpreting what has been communicated by

the message sender. People in low-context cultures (e.g., the U.S.), on the other hand, assume that all information should be put into spoken or written words such that it can be understood by the receiver without additional inferences; in other words, they rely on direct communication. For these individuals, more effort is required of the sender than of the receiver, and no prior relationship is required to understand the meaning of message content.

HLCT assumes that, in some societies, the relationship cannot be separated from the communication itself. In a high-context culture, individuals must be concerned with saving face, or keeping one another from being embarrassed and losing confidence or status (Ho, 1976), and the relationship takes priority over the communicated information (Hall, 1976). Status is particularly important, as individuals in high-context cultures must understand their hierarchical roles in relation to one another before productive interaction can take place (Coates, 1968). Individuals in an interaction must also determine whether the others are in-group or out-group members and how much trust underlies each relationship. While low-context communication, in its purest form, is focused on transmitting information, high-context communication is focused on sending information in a way that enables both norms and relationships to remain harmoniously intact. In other words, HLCT claims that, for these individuals, communication is embedded in the relationship itself.

HLCT has informed various management literatures (see Adair et al., 2009, for a review). In terms of feedback-seeking, for example, Sully de Luque and Sommer's (2000) feedback model suggested that culture, in terms of specific- versus holistic-orientation (parallel to low- versus high-context) has an impact on whether direct (as



opposed to indirect) messages are used in feedback seeking and giving. They proposed that feedback-seeking by individuals in a holistic-oriented (high-context) culture is influenced by concerns for face and involves monitoring and indirect-inquiry, whereas feedback-seeking by individuals in a specific-oriented (low-context) culture is shaped by inference costs and involves direct-inquiry. Rao and Hashimoto (1996) examined influence techniques among Japanese managers and both Japanese and Canadian subordinates and found that Japanese managers were more assertive and rational with Canadian (as opposed to Japanese) subordinates. Bailey, Chen, and Dou (1997) found cultural communication differences in feedback seeking between U.S. and Japanese employees, such that those from the U.S. had a more direct style. Also, Hall's rationale has been used to explore differences in the strategies and patterns of negotiators from various countries (Adair et al., 2004; Adler, Brahm, & Graham, 1992; Adair, Okumura, & Brett, 2001; Graham, Mintu, & Rodgers, 1994); for example, Weiss (1993) proposed that high-/low-context culture should be taken into account to understand proposal rejections and misinterpretations in cross-cultural negotiations.

In the current study, HLCT is used to dig into the culture/voice/influence link to understand how and when cultural norms encourage or prevent the expression and use of employee input. Section 2.2 examines how and when high-context individuals come to voice, and Section 2.3 explores when voiced ideas are put to use.

## 2.2 The Culture/Voice Relationship: From the Subordinate's View

The current section is concerned with the subordinate's perspective, in terms of his/her communication style, perceptions of the manager/subordinate relationship, and voice behavior (or lack thereof). The predictions of this section are in alignment with

previous culture/voice literature (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Thomas & Au, 2002) where prohibitive voice is concerned but differ substantially for promotive voice. The current section explores how relationship factors (namely leader-member exchange quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change) impact the relationship between one's communication style and promotive, but not prohibitive, voice behavior (refer to Figure 2.1). Below, I provide relevant background for each of the constructs involved and present hypotheses separately concerning prohibitive and promotive voice.

### 2.2.1 Definition and Introduction to Voice

The purpose of the current sub-section is to clarify what is meant by *voice* in this dissertation, as it serves as the dependent variable in Figure 2.1, and to provide background on the construct as it is used in this section. As the term *voice* has extremely broad connotations, I begin by defining the construct. I then describe the origin and antecedents of prohibitive and promotive voice. Finally, I discuss how culture has been used in previous voice research.

Voice, in general, refers to input from employees, but the current dissertation is focused specifically on informal, prosocial voice. Employee voice behavior has been examined in a variety of forms, ranging from formal grievance procedures and whistle-blowing to expose wrong-doing to suggestion systems and informal conversation that expresses ideas for improvement. The current dissertation is focused on voice that is both informal (i.e., expressed through conversation or email, rather than through more formal systems) and prosocial, in that the goal of the behavior is to improve functions or performance of the work unit (Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012). It is this type of expression to which the term *voice* refers in the current dissertation: employee input that

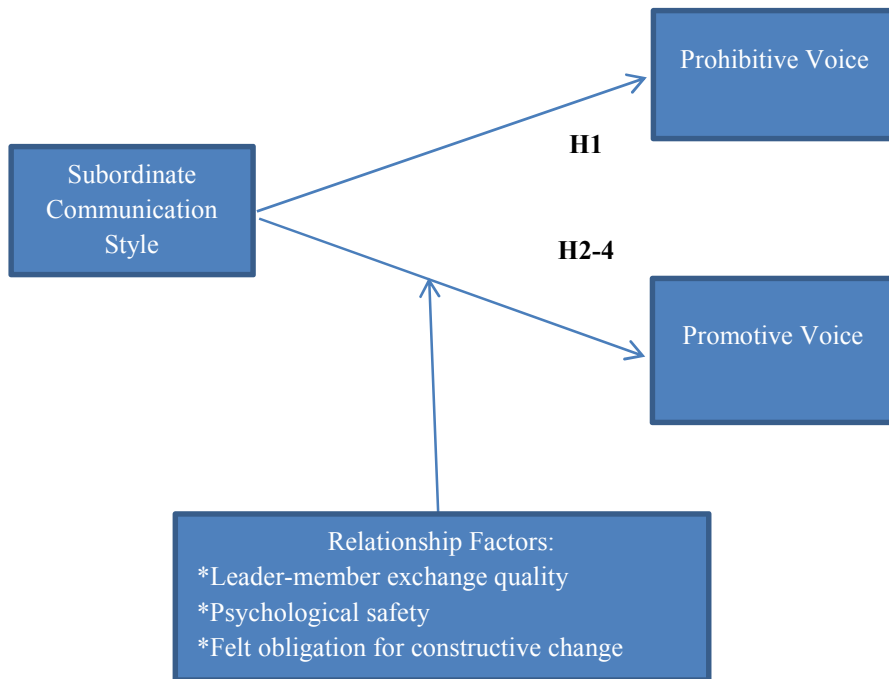


Figure 2.1 Communication style predicts voice behavior.

is prosocial and expressed through non-systematic routes (e.g., through conversation or email). Other forms of voice (e.g., through formal mechanisms, and/or with anti-social motivations) are outside the scope of this dissertation.

Liang et al. (2012) further categorized prosocial voice behaviors into two distinct voice types: *prohibitive voice* (expression of concern that existing or impending practices may be harmful) and *promotive voice* (suggestions to improve existing work practices and procedures). In each case, the voice behavior is intended to help the group, rather than harm any individual. However, the two prosocial voice types differ substantially in their focus. Promotive voice is future-oriented, concentrating on how processes could be better from the present forward. Its focus is on the proactive expression of suggestions for improvement. Prohibitive voice, on the other hand, is both past- and future-oriented, calling attention to past behaviors that could be harmful to the future of the work group or organization. Its focus is on critiquing processes, or pointing out potential problems. The two voice types differ in that prohibitive voice calls attention to potential problems whereas promotive voice calls attention to potential solutions.

Distinction is warranted concerning constructs that appear to be similar to the prohibitive and promotive voice types. To begin, Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, and Podsakoff (2012) explored differences in framing voice positively versus negatively. In their study, the framing of a message is concerned with using different words to express the same message. The prohibitive/promotive categorization, however, distinguishes between messages directing attention towards the current negative plan and directing attention towards a new plan (and potentially away from the current negative one). For example, Whiting et al. (2012: 169) captured positive versus negative framing with the

statement that “we stand to gain an additional 10% of the arthritis market over our current projection” versus “we stand to lose about 10% of the market share we’ve projected we can capture.” This conveys the same idea in two different ways. An individual using promotive voice would state a suggestion in terms of *how* to capture the additional 10% of the market, whereas someone using prohibitive voice would state his/her concerns about what is being done that prevents the unit from reaching the additional 10% or what is being done that might cause it to lose the 10%. In this sense, promotive and prohibitive voice are concerned with two different ideas – what can be done to improve versus what is being done that might hold the unit back.

In addition, Burris (2012) distinguished between *challenging voice*, intended to alter existing practices, and *supportive voice*, intended to preserve existing practices. Both prohibitive and promotive voice have the intention and potential effect of altering existing practices, by attempting to either halt (prohibitive) or improve (promotive) them. Thus, both can be classified as challenging, rather than supportive, voice.

Liang et al. introduced these prosocial voice types in 2012 and examined psychological safety and felt obligation for constructive change as potential antecedents of each. They found that felt obligation most strongly predicted promotive voice, while psychological safety most strongly predicted prohibitive voice. While Liang et al. did not test outcomes of the voice types, they suggested that stakeholders are likely to have different reactions to them. Specifically, they argued that stakeholders are likely to view promotive voice in a positive light, as it has the potential to benefit the organization in the future, and to view prohibitive voice in a negative light, since it implies failure on some

level and may elicit negative emotions, potentially upsetting interpersonal harmony in the work unit.

Although no culture studies have been published so far concerning prohibitive and promotive voice specifically, some research exists involving culture as an antecedent to informal, prosocial voice in general (see Klaas et al., 2012, for a broader review of voice antecedents). Research has suggested that individualism and power distance may help to predict which employees are most likely to voice. For example, Thomas & Au (2002) found that participants from New Zealand (which is said to be an individualistic, low power distance society; Hofstede, 1980) were more likely to report reacting to organizational problems by discussing the problem with the supervisor and/or colleagues than were participants from Hong Kong (which is said to be a collectivistic, high power distance society; Hofstede, 1980). Similarly, Botero and Van Dyne (2009) found in samples from the United States and Colombia that individuals higher in power distance were less likely than others to report voicing opinions and recommendations to their supervisors. In line with this research, the current study is concerned with *who* voices, in terms of cultural influences, but is also concerned with *how* voice is expressed by individuals from different cultures and the reactions that ensue.

Although voice research thus far indicates differences between cultures in voice occurrence (e.g., Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Thomas & Au, 2002), it does not, in any depth, address instances in which a subordinate from one culture voices to a manager from another culture. Globalization continues to increase the cultural diversity of organizations (Tsui, 2007), and research suggests that a great deal can be learned from movement both within and across national borders (Oetl & Agrawal, 2008), such that

both domestic and international diversity may be useful in terms of transferred knowledge - that is, as long as knowledge is actually shared, such as through voice behavior. Thus, we must examine the complexities of voice in the culturally-different manager/subordinate dyad. To begin this exploration, we must understand the root of culturally-influenced communication style differences.

### 2.2.2 Definition and Introduction to Communication Style

The above section introduced voice *type*; that is, promotive versus prohibitive voice. The current section turns to communication *style*, which refers to one's manner of communicating in line with internal values, norms, and beliefs. As described in detail in the following section, tenets of HLCT suggest that the *type* of voice a subordinate employee chooses to express may be predicted by his/her communication *style*. Thus, the purpose of the current section is to define the construct of *communication style* and discuss its role as a component of culture.

Hall's original (1959) HLCT model distinguished cultures based on nine message systems, or categories/means of communication. Adair et al. (2009) later refined Hall's systems, suggesting that there are four key components to his conceptualization of culture: communication style, relationship context, time context, and space context. *Communication style* captures the degree to which individuals send direct or indirect messages and rely on explicit or implicit meaning to communicate. *Relationship, time, and space contexts* refer to the level of attention and influence people give to relationships, time, and physical/auditory space, respectively, in terms of communication and social interaction. While one could argue that the four components are inter-linked, the current dissertation focuses on communication style, as it is expected that this factor

has the most proximal link to the constructs of interest. Communication style, according to Adair et al. (2009; Adair, Buchan, & Chen, Under Review) encompasses the use of feelings and emotions in communication, inferring meaning and feelings, ambiguity/clarity of communication, avoiding disagreement, and assertive persuasion.

Indirect communication requires second-level inferential skills, as it takes more effort for the message receiver to extrapolate information from the context to understand the sent message. Since low-context cultures encourage direct statements, individuals in these societies do not usually need additional inference skills to decipher messages. Thus, indirect communicators tend to be capable of sending and receiving both direct and indirect messages, whereas direct communicators tend to be limited to understanding direct communication (Adair & Brett, 2005; Adair et al., 2001). Adair et al. (2001) compared intra- and inter-cultural negotiation dyads composed of Japanese (high-context) and U.S. (low-context) managers. For same-culture dyads, managers in the Japanese dyads used more indirect communication while managers in the U.S. dyads communicated more directly; for example, the Japanese managers asked more questions, rather than making direct statements, while the U.S. managers revealed more information. However, in the mixed-culture dyads, the Japanese managers adapted behavior to negotiate with their U.S. counterparts, suggesting that Japanese managers were capable of both indirect and direct communication. In addition, Brett and Okumura (1998) found that Japanese negotiators could understand the negotiation priorities of their U.S. partners, but the reverse was not true.

In line with past researchers (e.g., Bailey et al., 1997; Gudykunst, Matsumoto, Ting-Toomey, Nishida, Kim, & Heyman, 1996; Triandis, 1989), arguments in the current



dissertation are based on the notion that the values, norms, beliefs, and resultant general ways of behaving in a society shape each individual's values, norms, beliefs, and resultant general ways of behaving. In other words, society-level culture molds the individual. Each culture likely has some elements from each end of a cultural spectrum. For example, there are both relationship-focused (e.g., collectivism, high power distance) and self-focused (e.g., individualism, low power distance) values, beliefs, and norms contained in any one society, though relationship-focused elements are reflected more in a relationship-focused culture. These elements shape the cognitions and emotions of a society's people, and access to one element or another takes precedence depending on the cues of the situation. Over time, the retrieval of certain elements becomes habitual, such that culturally-induced behavior becomes ingrained routine (Triandis, 1989). In this sense, the values, norms, and beliefs of a self-focused society encourage the individual-level development of the values, norms, and beliefs relevant to direct communication, while the values, norms, and beliefs of a relationship-focused society encourage the individual-level development of the values, norms, and beliefs relevant to indirect communication (Gudykunst et al., 1996). However, each individual does not perfectly mirror the culture of his/her society, and it is difficult (if not impossible) to determine where the boundaries of a society are drawn and on what they should be based.

Gudykunst et al. (1996) demonstrated that individual-level factors more directly predict communication style than does assumed societal-level culture. They explored participant self-construals and values as mediators of the relationship between participant country and individual-level communication style in samples from the U.S., Japan, Korea, and Australia. In their samples, participants from cultures that are said to

encourage individualistic values (here, the U.S. & Australia; Hofstede, 1980) tended to be higher than others on individual-level measures of independent self-construal (i.e., seeing oneself as an individual, distinct from others; Markus & Kitayama, 1991) and individualistic values, and that independence and individualistic values in turn positively predicted low-context communication style. The results suggested that the individual-level factors (self-construal and values) accounted for more variance in high- and low-context communication than did being from an assumed self-focused versus relationship-focused culture. Further, the study found that, even within cultures, self-construals were significant predictors of high- and low-context communication styles; thus, the culture/communication style link appears to be indirect, as individual-level factors must be taken into account to understand the relationship more fully. Thus, an individual-level approach is used in the current dissertation in an attempt to capture potential within-culture variance.

Although Latin Americans and East Asians have been found to be more relationship-focused than people from North America (Hofstede, 1980), Lewis (2006) and Adair et al. (2009; Under Review) suggested that the communication style of Latin Americans tends to be more direct than that of East Asians, who tend to communicate more indirectly. Adair et al. (Under Review) developed a model of Communication and Social Interaction Style (CSIS; based in part on anecdotal evidence from Lewis, 2006) that uses the four components of Hall's high-/low-context theory (introduced in Adair et al., 2009) to explore individual-level communication differences shaped by elements of one's culture. They suggested that rather than categorizing individuals as high-/versus-low context, people can be categorized, based on combinations of the four factors, into

three types: expressive, direct, and reserved (Buchan et al., 2010). In terms of communication style, reserved individuals tend to be more indirect, whereas direct and expressive individuals tend to have a more direct style. This dissertation is limited to communication style and thus does not address the larger cultural classifications.

The current dissertation examines individual-level variation within nations, such that not all people from nations labeled as relationship-focused (i.e., collectivistic, high power distance) are categorized as indirect communicators, and not all nations labeled as relationship-focused necessarily have dominant cultures that encourage indirect communication (Lewis, 2006; Adair et al., Under Review). While this dissertation follows past cross-cultural communication researchers in assuming that indirect communication arises from a focus on the relationships involved and saving “face” (Ho, 1976), whereas direct communication arises from a focus on the information and the self, it also acknowledges that not all individuals in a country share the same values, norms, beliefs, and resultant behaviors, as factors other than nationality (e.g., region, age, and gender) contribute to their development.

### 2.2.3 Communication Style and Prohibitive Voice

Based on HLCT, subordinates with an indirect communication style (hereafter referred to as *indirect subordinates*) will be less likely than subordinates with a direct communication style (hereafter referred to as *direct subordinates*) to practice prohibitive voice. Prohibitive voice should more strongly violate relationship-focused cultural norms than promotive voice, since prohibitive voice calls attention to some flaw or failure (Liang et al., 2012), suggesting that face will be damaged in some way (Hall, 1976). As the indirect subordinate tends to be influenced by relationship-focused cultural norms,

his/her goals and internal expectations are to maintain harmony and save face (Hall, 1976), especially when communicating with a superior (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). Thus, the indirect subordinate should avoid this type of upward voice where possible.

It may be possible that subordinate norms develop within the context of the manager/subordinate relationship such that the subordinate begins to communicate in line with the manager's own norms and expectations. Some research suggests that indirect communicators are capable of sending and receiving both direct and indirect messages (Adair & Brett, 2005; Adair et al., 2001; Brett & Okumura, 1998). In other words, indirect subordinates should be able to adapt to their direct managers if called for. Traditional Japanese culture, for example, values adaptation (Yamada, 1992), as this allows individuals to maintain harmony in a relationship. In this sense, an indirect subordinate may practice prohibitive voice if he/she has learned that this behavior is effective and expected within the context of his/her relationship with the manager. However, an adaptation of the subordinate's communication style should precede the voice behavior. Thus, the negative indirect style/voice relationship should hold here as well, as the voice behavior results from the change in communication style.

Note that Hypothesis 1 below is concerned with the subordinate's perspective of his/her own communication style and voice behavior. The logic here is concerned with how the subordinate's beliefs/norms regarding communication affect his/her attempts to express concerns to the manager. The subordinate and manager views of these variables may represent distinct constructs since they are inherently subjective (Burriss et al., 2013). The subordinate's view was chosen for both communication style and voice here because

the manager cannot truly know another individual's beliefs/norms and intentions. The manager's perceptions of the subordinate's voice behavior is addressed in Section 2.3.

*Hypothesis 1: Relative to direct subordinates, indirect subordinates are less likely to engage in prohibitive voice.*

Indirect subordinates should be more likely to prefer promotive voice to prohibitive voice on both the sender and receiver end because promotive voice is less likely to reflect criticism by drawing attention to flaws associated with the manager (Liang et al., 2012) and, thus, less likely to damage face (or at least do less harm to the relationship; Hall, 1976). In fact, it may be that if the indirect subordinate does perceive a workplace process to be harmful and is determined to speak up, he/she will frame concerns in a more promotive way.

Suppose, for example, that both a direct subordinate and an indirect subordinate observe that their manager's widget-making technique is outdated. The direct subordinate's cultural norms may lead him/her to very clearly state that the technique is inefficient and should not be used. If the indirect subordinate were to violate upward silence norms in this situation, he/she would likely take a more subtle, promotive route by alerting the manager to a more up-to-date technique without ever commenting on the flaws of the current system. The current dissertation views *voice* as constructive input from employees (Edmondson, 1999); thus, even subtle, indirect means of communication can serve as expressions of voice (though the manager may not always be aware of indirectly voiced messages).

#### 2.2.4 Communication Style and Promotive Voice

The negative relationship between indirect communication style and voice should hold for prohibitive voice regardless of relationship perceptions, but the relationship between communication style and promotive voice should be moderated by the subordinate's perceptions of various relationship factors. Direct subordinates are less concerned with feelings and emotions in the context of the manager/subordinate relationship when determining whether to voice; communication is focused on information exchange with little concern for relational harmony (Adair et al., 2009). They should be less concerned with how the manager perceives the message and whether a negative emotional reaction will ensue. In other words, communication from a direct subordinate will not depend on the context (hence, low-context communication; Hall, 1976), whereas communication from an indirect subordinate depends entirely upon it (hence, high-context communication). Indirect subordinates may be just as likely as direct subordinates to voice promotive suggestions upwards if the manager/subordinate relationship provides the comfort, motivation, and safety to do so.

While there are numerous constructs in the management literature capturing some form of relationship factor, the current study focuses on leader-member exchange quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change as constructs of interest. Together, these factors capture a context in which the subordinate (1) is provided with a sense of relationship quality or in-group status (leader-member exchange), (2) feels *able* to voice (psychological safety), and (3) feels *motivated* to do so (felt obligation for constructive change). The effect of each on the relationship between communication style and promotive voice is described below.

Here again, the logic of the following hypotheses is concerned with how the subordinate's communication beliefs/norms affect his/her attempts to voice. Similarly, the hypotheses involve the subordinate's perception of the relationship, as the manager can only guess at the subordinate's sense of in-group status and felt ability and motivation within the relationship.

*Leader-member exchange* (LMX) refers to the exchange relationship between a leader and his/her followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Zhang, Wang, & Shi, 2012), and LMX theory suggests that employee, group, and organizational outcomes can be predicted by this relationship (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Most LMX research is based on the assumptions of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), as each individual in the relationship must offer something of value to the other, and the exchange must appear to be fair and equitable to both (Graen & Scandura, 1987). LMX quality can range from low (strictly contractual relationship, out-group distinction), to high (mutual trust, respect, liking, and reciprocal influence; in-group distinction; Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Hui and Graen (1997) suggested that *guanxi* in China can be understood as parallel to the concept of LMX in the United States, but this may not be the case. The term *guanxi* (translated from Mandarin to English as “connections” or “relationships”) refers to a tight connection between two or more people in which individuals are loyal to and perform favors or services for one another (Gold, Guthrie, & Wank, 2002). Chinese individuals are very loyal to those in their inner circle, or *guanxi*, but can be very selfish towards and rejecting of others who are not considered to be in-group members. Hui and Graen also proposed that American leaders can be successful in business with individuals

in China, but they must form high-quality LMX first. However, Law, Wong, Wang, and Wang (2000) provided support for the notion that guanxi is distinct from LMX, in that guanxi has more of a “locked-in” effect on the relationship, which extends beyond the workplace, whereas LMX is focused more on the work relationship itself.

The literature does discuss the relationship between communication and LMX, though research is conflicting on the direction of the relationship and does not address the role of culture in communication. Some research (e.g., Bakar, Mustaffa, & Mohamad, 2009) has simply stated that a positive relationship exists between LMX and communication. For example, Fairhurst (1993) found that subordinates in low-quality LMX relationships use more antagonistic, adversarial communication behaviors with their supervisors, whereas those in high-quality LMX relationships use communication behaviors that strengthen the relationship (though it is unclear whether the relationship precedes the communication characteristics or vice-versa). Other research indicates that LMX leads to higher levels of manager/subordinate communication (Bakar, Dilbeck, & McCroskey, 2010; Bhal, Bhaskar, & Ratnam, 2009). Finally, some work suggests that greater communication leads to higher-quality LMX (Borchgrevink & Boster, 1997). In terms of moderating effects, Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, and Gully (2003) showed that LMX more strongly predicted job performance ratings for individuals who reported frequent communications with the supervisor, and LMX was only weakly related to performance ratings when communication was infrequent. When LMX was low, workers having more frequent communication were rated less favorably by the supervisor in question, and at high levels of LMX, frequent communication led to the best performance ratings while infrequent communication led to the worst.



Since high-quality LMX indicates in-group inclusion (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997), it should allow for greater trust and comfort in the dyad. Blau (1964) suggested that social exchange (as occurs in high-quality LMX relationships; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997) engenders feelings of obligation, trust, and gratitude, whereas economic exchange (as occurs in low-quality LMX relationships) does not. In Japanese culture, distinct patterns are used depending on whether one is communicating with an in-group (*uchi*) or an out-group (*soto*) member, using *honne* (true feeling) or *tatemae* (socially legitimate views), respectively (Yamada, 1992). According to HLCT, effective indirect communication cannot take place until a relationship has been established because the indirect communicator uses his/her understanding of the other individual and the context involved to send his/her message (Hall, 1976). In this sense, an indirect subordinate must perceive high-quality LMX with the manager in order to communicate his/her opinions. Thus, indirect subordinates should be more likely to practice promotive voice behavior when they perceive themselves to be in high-quality LMX relationships. The same should not be true of direct subordinates, as they should voice regardless of their perceptions of the context.

*Hypothesis 2: Leader-member exchange quality moderates the negative relationship between subordinate indirect communication style and promotive voice, such that the relationship is weaker when the subordinate perceives high-quality leader-member exchange.*

The voice literature also addresses the role of relationship factors in the decision to voice at work. *Psychological safety*, for example, refers to the employee's belief that he/she will not be punished for taking risks (such as voicing) at work and includes

feelings of freedom to express oneself regardless of whether one's opinion is different from others'. Studies suggest that employees who feel psychological safety in their work environment are more likely than others to voice (Detert & Burris, 2007; Detert & Trevino, 2010; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

According to Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003), individuals will choose silence over voice when they are afraid of experiencing personal losses, such as loss of support or career mobility, from speaking up. Research supports the notion that individuals with open (Detert & Trevino, 2010) and ethical (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) leaders feel a stronger sense of psychological safety, which in turn leads to voice behavior. When the manager/subordinate relationship is characterized by interpersonal trust, mutual respect, and comfort, the subordinate is more likely to feel it to be safe to engage in risky behaviors, such as voice (Edmondson, 1999). When a manager creates such an environment (e.g., through ethical, open, and/or supportive leadership; Detert & Burris, 2007; Detert & Trevino, 2010; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), the indirect subordinate is less likely to perceive harmony disruption in voicing a suggestion (so long as it does not denote flaws, as in the case of prohibitive voice). Thus, indirect subordinates should be more likely to practice promotive voice behavior when they perceive that the manager has created a climate of psychological safety. Of course, direct subordinates may benefit somewhat from a psychologically safe context; however, they are more likely than indirect subordinates to voice when safety is not perceived.

*Hypothesis 3: Psychological safety moderates the negative relationship between subordinate indirect communication style and promotive voice, such that the*

*relationship is weaker when the subordinate perceives greater psychological safety.*

The voice literature also suggests that individuals are more likely to voice when they feel obligated or responsible for change in the work environment (Fuller et al., 2006; Parker & Collins, 2010). *Felt obligation for constructive change* captures a psychological state in which an employee believes that he/she is personally responsible for constructive workplace changes (Liang et al., 2012; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Individuals higher in felt obligation see voice behavior as a way of caring for an organization to which they are committed (Liang et al., 2012).

The literature focuses on one's relationship with and perceptions of the organization; for example, Fuller et al. (2006) examined how structural and socio-structural aspects of the workplace (such as job autonomy and role ambiguity) lead an individual to develop felt obligation for constructive change in the workplace (which in turn leads to voice behavior). A sense of obligation should develop within the context of the manager/subordinate relationship as well, such that the individual feels obliged to help attain their mutual (as well as organizational) goals. Managers help to create the sense of obligation to the organization by affecting the structural and socio-structural aspects of the workplace described above and by instilling a desire in the subordinate to attain higher level goals. Thus, the current dissertation examines felt obligation for constructive change as a component, or product, of the manager/subordinate relationship. Discussion here suggests that felt obligation serves as a motivating factor in the decision to voice.

As with LMX-quality and psychological safety, the direct subordinate should voice with less regard for felt obligation; he/she may voice a suggestion because the idea is there, not because he/she feels a sense of responsibility to express it. In other words, the direct subordinate does not need the sense of obligation to make the voice behavior happen. On the other hand, an indirect subordinate may be much more likely to voice when felt obligation is strong. This employee may need the sense of responsibility to override his/her norms of upward silence (Hall, 1976; Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000).

*Hypothesis 4: Felt obligation for constructive change moderates the negative relationship between subordinate indirect communication style and promotive voice, such that the relationship is weaker when the subordinate has a stronger sense of felt obligation for constructive change.*

As they each reflect a component of the manager/subordinate relationship, strong correlations should exist among LMX-quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change, and they may influence one another. LMX-quality may affect whether the subordinate feels/perceives felt obligation and psychological safety within the context of the manager/subordinate relationship. For example, in-group inclusion may lead the subordinate to have more concern for the manager's outcomes, as the goals of the two become interlinked (Brewer, 1979), thus enhancing the subordinate's sense of felt obligation for change to improve the performance of the dyad and/or organization. Also, research supports the notion that leader openness precedes both high-quality LMX development (Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles, & Walker, 2007; Werbel & Henriques, 2009) and psychological safety (Detert & Burris, 2007); thus, these two moderators may have some overlap, as well. However, the dissertation proceeds under the assumption that

the three discussed relationship factors are distinct constructs, with LMX representing the overall quality of the relationship while psychological safety and felt obligation are perceptions developed within it (both helping to develop and resulting from the relationship itself).

*Relationship context* is an additional relationship factor that may affect one's decision to voice. This construct captures the extent to which an individual depends on roles and relationships when communicating with others (Adair et al., Under Review). Relationship context should affect the way the individual perceives other relationship factors because it alters the meaning and importance of each to the subordinate. No specific predictions are made concerning relationship context as a moderator of the relationship between communication style and voice because (1) it is strongly correlated with communication style (Adair et al., Under Review), and (2) it may actually serve as an antecedent to it (see Sections 3.3.1 and 3.3.5 in the next chapter). However, relationship context is included as an exploratory factor to examine any moderation effects should they emerge in analyses.

These relationship factors should not alter communication style effects on prohibitive voice. The purpose of indirect communication is to avoid conflict and save face for all involved, and prohibitive voice implies almost the opposite. Indirect subordinates will thus likely refrain from prohibitive voice at all costs. When the manager/subordinate relationship is strong, dyad-specific communication norms may develop such that the subordinate learns how to communicate concerns in a more face-saving way, such as directing the manager towards a new solution, rather than pointing out the flaws of the current system (as described above).

The discussion thus far has theoretically demonstrated that the more indirect the subordinate's communication style is, the more critical manager/subordinate relationship factors become for workplace voice to occur. In this sense, it appears that voice can be encouraged by strengthening the subordinate's perceptions of his/her relationship with the manager, in terms of quality, safety, or feelings of obligation. However, even the most frequently voiced suggestions and concerns will have little influence if the manager is not willing and/or able to acknowledge and utilize the message. In the next section, discussion turns to the managerial side of the process to understand how voice (once expressed) comes to have an effect on the manager's decisions and actions.

### 2.3 The Influence of Voice: From the Manager's View

The current section is concerned with understanding how the manager reacts to prohibitive and promotive voice such that his/her decisions are influenced by the subordinate's input. The focus is on the role of the manager's communication style and perceptions of LMX-quality in his/her attention to and perceptions of employee voice (see Figure 2.2). Regardless of voice type, HLCT implies that manager/subordinate relationship quality is a key factor in determining whether subordinate voice actually leads to influence. The current study focuses not on relationship development but on the relationship at a snapshot in time, although I do expect the trends to be more general. In other words, an employee's general or typical level of voice behavior should predict his/her general or typical level of influence over the manager's decisions. This section is organized as follows: First, I describe how previous research has addressed managerial reactions to subordinate voice behavior and discuss how the current dissertation uses and builds on these studies. Next, I introduce EVT as a supplement to HLCT in attempting to

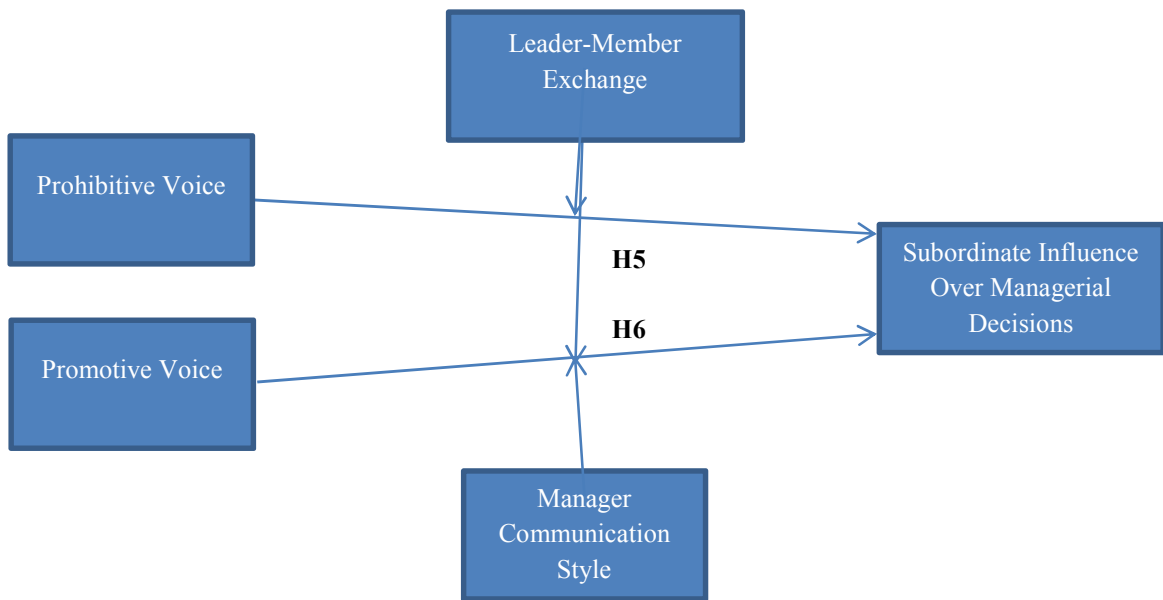


Figure 2.2 The subordinate voice/influence relationship.

understand how a manager reacts to voice behavior. Finally, I develop and present hypotheses concerning the effects of prohibitive and promotive voice on subordinate influence, with distinct arguments for each voice type.

### 2.3.1 Managerial Reactions to Voice

Thus far, no research has been published concerning reactions to prohibitive and promotive voice behavior. Liang et al. (2012) noted that prohibitive voice should be more likely than promotive voice to lead to negative perceptions, since pointing out failures may elicit negative emotion and upset interpersonal harmony in the work unit, though no published studies exist to support these claims. However, literature concerning voice in general suggests mixed implications for subordinates who choose to speak up in the workplace.

Manager reactions to voice may have positive or negative consequences for the employee, although Grant and Ashford (2008) noted that there is a gap in the literature concerning when and for whom the outcomes are beneficial versus costly. They suggested that whether an employee is rewarded or punished for proactive behavior, such as voice, depends on whether managers and co-workers are pleased or displeased with the behavior (Ashford, Blatt, & Van de Walle, 2003; Williams, Miller, Steelman, & Levy, 1999). In other words, an employee who offers suggestions that displease his/her manager may be reprimanded, rather than rewarded. Burris (2012) found that managers tended to rate employees as worse performers, less loyal, and more threatening when the employees voiced in a way that was challenging (i.e., intended to alter, modify, or destabilize the status quo) versus supportive (i.e., intended to stabilize or preserve the status quo). In addition, Grant, Parker, and Collins (2009) found that employee proactive



behaviors, such as voice, were more likely to lead to higher performance ratings from managers when the employees expressed strong prosocial values. When managers perceive their employees to lack prosocial values, the managers may see their employees' voice behavior as a threat (Frese & Fay, 2001; Miceli & Near, 1994; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006) or as an attempt at ingratiation (Bolino, 1999).

Whiting et al., (2012) examined effects of various factors surrounding voice behavior on evaluations of the voicer. They found that perceived characteristics of the message (such as solution-orientation), voicer (such as trustworthiness and expertise), and context (such as timing of the voice behavior and organizational norms for voice) predicted how much the evaluator liked the voicer (i.e., experienced positive affect towards them), attributed prosocial motives to the voice behavior, and considered the behavior to be constructive, which in turn predicted evaluations of the voicer's performance. However, Whiting et al. found that the framing of the message (i.e., whether it was stated from a positive rather than a negative perspective) did not affect evaluations of the voicer.

Whiting et al. (2012) referred to the persuasion literature in developing their study of evaluator reactions to voice behavior. The persuasion literature (e.g., McGuire, 1985; O'Keefe, 1990) has identified *source*, *receiver*, *context*, and *message* variable categories as being particularly important types of factors for effective persuasion attempts.

Following Whiting et al. (2012), the current study includes variables representing each of these categories in exploring the influence (i.e., effectiveness) of voice behavior (i.e., a persuasion attempt).

The *source* of behavior, or actor, in the current study is the subordinate; the potential source of influence, specifically, is the subordinate's voice behavior. Whether the subordinate is perceived by the manager to choose a promotive versus prohibitive versus non-communicative route should predict whether he/she has influence over the manager's decisions. This relationship is described in detail throughout this chapter. Following EVT (described further below), one's assessment of an individual's behavior (such as a persuasion attempt) depends on the observer's norms and expectations, as well as his/her perceptions of the actor's valence (Burgoon & Hubbard, 2005). Thus, the manager's communication style serves as a representative *receiver* variable, as it reflects the cultural norms and expectations of the manager regarding communication, and the manager's perception of LMX-quality serves as a representative *context* variable, as it reflects the valence associated with the subordinate and his/her behavior. In terms of *message* variables, perceptions of message content constructiveness should be strongly determined by LMX (as described later in this section), as is the effect of the feasibility of implementing the voiced suggestion/concern. All discussion below assumes an equal level of actual message content constructiveness and feasibility, and the manager's perceptions of each will be measured and controlled in the study.

### 2.3.2 Expectancy Violations Theory

HLCT should explain how and when upward voice occurs and may help to understand some managerial reactions to such behavior. However, this theory may not fully address the manager's evaluation of the subordinate and his/her message. The current section relies on EVT (Burgoon, 1978) to further explore the role of culture in the

manager's reactions to upward voice such that the behavior hinders or facilitates the subordinate's influence over his/her decisions.

EVT (Burgoon, 1978) was developed to address individuals' reactions to violations of their expectations of others' behaviors. EVT posits that individuals have culturally-shaped behavioral expectations of others. *Predictive expectancies* refer to the regularity or frequency of behavior (i.e., the behavior is expected because it is what most often occurs). This type of expectancy is concerned with cultural norms and routines. For example, in a low-context culture, a subordinate may feel that the manager expects him/her to contribute input during their meeting because such participation occurs regularly in that environment; it is the norm. *Prescriptive expectancies* reflect the cultural appropriateness or desirability of a behavior (Staines & Libby, 1986). As in the example above, the subordinate may feel that the manager expects assertive input because that is what appears to be desirable in that environment. Thus, EVT acknowledges that one's culture shapes the values, norms, and beliefs of an individual regarding the appropriateness and frequency of interpersonal behaviors.

According to EVT, while expectations are shaped by one's community or subgroup, they are influenced by person-specific knowledge and preferences, as well. In particular, communication expectancies are shaped by characteristics of (a) the individual communicators, (b) the relationship between the individual communicators, and (c) the communication context itself. Thus, EVT also acknowledges that each individual's expectations do not perfectly mirror those of the larger collective in general, and expectations in one setting or relationship do not necessarily carry over to the next. In

other words, individual-level variation in expectations should exist within each culture, and situational variation within individuals should exist as well.

An expectancy violation occurs when an actor's behavior falls outside the range of behaviors the observer expects based on cultural and personal knowledge and preferences. Thus, a more indirect communicator may perceive an expectancy violation upon observing direct communication. Likewise, a more direct communicator may perceive an expectancy violation when an indirect communicator appears to withhold information or communicates in a vague manner. Expectancy violations are associated with uncertainty (Afifi & Burgoon, 2000; Guerrero & Bachman, 2010), and the individual, consciously or subconsciously, must attempt to explain their occurrence (Burgoon, Dillman, & Stern, 1993; Burgoon & Hale, 1988).

When an expectancy violation transpires, attention is drawn to the violator, magnifying his/her positive or negative valence to the perceiver. The violation is more likely to be perceived favorably when the violator is positively valenced and more likely to be perceived as negative when the violator is negatively valenced (Burgoon & Hubbard, 2005). In other words, our evaluation of an expectancy violation depends on our assessment of the violator (Kalman & Rafaeli, 2011).

A positively valenced violator may also enact more negative violations before becoming less positively valenced to the perceiver. For example, Hollander (1958) presented the notion of *idiosyncrasy credits*, in which an individual earns credits for behaviors that are similar to the in-group prototype and loses credits for behaving in ways that appear dissimilar. Those who have built up more credits are subsequently allowed more violations before becoming less desirable to others. EVT departs from Hollander's

perspective, however, in suggesting that some violations from expected behavior are positive (in other words, the violator will not lose credits for them), especially when a positively valenced individual is the violator.

EVT began with the study of nonverbal communication, such as eye gaze, touch, and physical distance (Burgoon, Coker, & Coker, 1986; Burgoon & Walther, 1990; Burgoon, Walther, & Baesler, 1992), but later expanded to verbal communication as well. Over the past thirty years, the EVT framework has been used to inform a variety of topics, including on-line communication (Kalman & Rafaeli, 2011; Ramirez & Wang, 2008; Sheldon, Thomas-Hunt, & Proell, 2006), generational and gender differences in communication perceptions (Houser, 2005; Jordan-Jackson, Lin, Rancer, & Infante, 2008), forgiveness (Guerrero & Bachman, 2010), reactions to foreign newcomers (Joardar, 2011), and various other interpersonal communication issues (e.g., Burgoon, Blair, & Strom, 2008; Hullett & Tamborini, 2001; Johnson, 2012; Johnson & Lewis, 2010). The fundamental purpose of EVT is to explain why a behavior elicits different responses depending on the context and people involved (Burgoon, 1978). The current study relies on its tenets to understand cultural-norm differences in managerial reactions to upward voice behavior by examining the link between voice and subordinate influence.

EVT highlights two key factors in determining an observer's reactions to the behavior of an actor: the observer's (1) perceptions of the actor's valence and (2) norms/expectations, each of which is discussed below as conceptualized in the current dissertation.

*Leader-member exchange quality as valence.* The manager's perceptions of LMX-quality with the subordinate should reflect the valence of the subordinate to the manager. A manager in a high-quality LMX relationship has feelings of positive affect, loyalty, and professional respect towards the subordinate and sees the subordinate as contributing both effort and ability to workplace goals (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Thus, the subordinate is viewed with high value, or valence, by the manager.

In addition, LMX-quality may produce its own biases regardless of (or in addition to) cultural norms. When the manager has positive affect towards, respects, and feels loyal to a subordinate, he/she may be inclined to view the subordinate's suggestions and concerns in a positive light (Forgas, 1995), thus increasing the chances that the recommended changes are made. In a high-quality LMX context, the manager will more likely, consciously or subconsciously, choose to perceive what he/she considers positive aspects of the voiced message and ignore the rest. Thus, the positive valence associated with the context of a high-quality LMX relationship may allow a subordinate to have a stronger voice in managerial decisions.

In the case of prohibitive voice, for instance, the manager in a high-quality LMX dyad will more likely perceive courage and confidence in the fact that his/her subordinate presented a unique perspective and may listen to the suggestion with more respect for the information provided. The subordinate has positive valence to the manager; thus, the subordinate's behaviors are granted high valence as well. In a low-quality LMX relationship, however, the manager may more likely perceive what he/she considers negative aspects of the voiced message. Here, the subordinate has negative valence to the manager; thus, the subordinate's behaviors are granted negative valence. The manager

may perceive disrespect and offense, rather than courage and confidence, in the prohibitive voice message, biasing the manager's perception of the information provided.

Recall that the voice literature suggests that managers tend to respond to prosocial behaviors, including voice, with either reward or punishment depending on whether they are pleased by the subordinate and his/her suggestion, perceive the suggestion to be constructive, and attribute positive intentions to the subordinate's behavior (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant et al., 2009; Whiting et al., 2012). Thus, managers are more likely to perceive high-quality, constructive content in messages from high-quality LMX subordinates, will be more pleased with their suggestions, and will attribute positive intentions to their voice behavior. Thus, the manager is more likely to process voiced suggestions from high-quality LMX subordinates in a way that encourages implementation of the suggestion. Following EVT, the positive valence supplied by the context of a high-quality LMX relationship should push the manager to have a more optimistic view of the subordinate's expressed suggestions and concerns even when such expression violates the manager's cultural norms and expectations, as described below.

There is some empirical research that explores this notion, but the results are inconclusive. Scandura, Graen, & Novak (1986) conducted a study of US manager/subordinate dyads to explore potential antecedents of decision influence, from both manager and subordinate perspectives. Results showed that the relationship between subordinate performance and the manager's perception of the subordinate's decision influence was positive in general, but was stronger when the manager perceived LMX-quality to be high. In this sense, LMX-quality enhanced the positive effect of a positive subordinate characteristic on his/her influence. However, results also showed that the

relationship between a subordinate's performance and his/her own perceptions of decision influence was positive when his/her perception of LMX-quality was low and negative when LMX-quality was high. Thus, further research is needed to fully understand the role of LMX-quality in subordinate influence over managerial decisions.

*Manager communication style as norms/expectations.* Following EVT, the communication style of the manager should play a large role in his/her reaction to subordinate voice due to the potential for the voice behavior to either violate or validate his/her communication norms. A manager's culturally-influenced communication style provides him/her with certain norms, expectations, and generalized beliefs about how communication should occur. When the subordinate violates these expectations or beliefs and fails to adapt behavior appropriately, the manager may be less likely to pay attention to the voiced message or to view its content favorably.

The more indirect the manager is in terms of communication style, the less likely he/she is to have a positive reaction to voice behavior (even if it is promotive, rather than prohibitive), as upward feedback goes against his/her communication norms (though the negative effects may be dampened if the feedback is communicated in a more indirect manner). When the indirect communicator has been living in a direct communication culture for some time and may have grown to realize that others around him/her tend to communicate directly, he/she likely still holds culturally-based beliefs about how communication should work. For example, Sam and Berry (2010: 473) wrote that "individuals and groups bring cultural and psychological qualities with them to the new society;" although the individual is changed when exposed to a new culture, he/she does not leave the home culture behind. In this sense, communication beliefs and ideals should



serve the same function as expectations. Since voice serves as an expectancy (or belief/norm) violation, silence (or “no voice”) is more positively valenced by the indirect manager than is voice.

According to EVT, a manager who perceives a negatively valenced subordinate to violate a communication norm will react by seeing even lower valence in the subordinate. For example, if a direct manager sees his/her indirect subordinate as incompetent, the subordinate may confirm and/or exacerbate this impression by failing to contribute input/ideas to a project. On the other hand, the same manager may perceive a positively valenced subordinate with even more strongly positive valence for violating a communication norm; at the least, the manager is less likely to view this subordinate’s behavior negatively. For example, if the same manager perceives a different indirect subordinate as extremely competent, he/she may see wisdom, respect, or thoughtfulness in the subordinate’s silence. Thus, both manager norms and subordinate/relationship valence should contribute to the extent to which an employee’s voice behavior leads to influence over the manager’s decisions.

### 2.3.3 Prohibitive Voice and Influence

Regardless of (or in addition to) culture and relationships, voice type should affect the manager’s reactions to the voiced message; specifically, prohibitive voice may induce a more negative reaction than promotive voice. Research suggests that people in general feel threatened by negative feedback (e.g., Carver et al., 1985; Sachs, 1982), and that managers in particular, due to their position, may feel a stronger need to avoid situations that may make them appear vulnerable, incompetent, or weak (Argyris & Schon, 1978). Managers often fail to solicit feedback (Morrison & Milliken, 2000) or respond

negatively to feedback from people in lower-power positions by ignoring the message or dismissing it as inaccurate (Ilgen et al., 1979).

As managers are more likely to respond in line with feedback when the feedback source is higher in power (Ilgen et al., 1979), subordinate messages are particularly difficult for managers to receive - especially when the content of the feedback implies negative views of the current state. Managers in general should be more receptive to promotive voice, as prohibitive voice calls attention to flaws and may be regarded by the manager as an accusation of failure.

Based on this logic, prohibitive voice should be less likely than promotive voice to predict subordinate influence, though LMX-quality should impact its effect. The current sub-section focuses on valence rather than cultural norms and expectations because upward prohibitive voice should counter norms, on the observer end at least, of all cultures. Although direct subordinates should be willing to practice prohibitive voice, direct managers may be non- (or negatively-) receptive to this feedback (i.e., direct communicators “can dish it out, but they can’t take it”), just as are indirect managers. Upward, direct communication is a norm for direct managers (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000), but negative feedback, specifically, is more difficult for managers to accept (Carver et al., 1985; Ilgen et al., 1979; Liang et al., 2012; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Sachs, 1982). Therefore, managers should be less likely to implement the voiced message due to felt threat and/or expectancy violations – unless they are biased by positive perceptions of their subordinate. Perceptions of high-quality LMX should induce positive valence, biasing the manager’s view of the subordinate and his/her concerns.

The general trend of the relationship between prohibitive voice and influence should be positive, simply because one's concerns cannot alter a manager's decisions if they are not first expressed. However, the manager's perception of LMX-quality with the subordinate should moderate this relationship. When LMX-quality (i.e., valence) is perceived to be low, the direct manager may take feedback intended to stop his/her current actions or plans as an attack against his/her competence (Argyris & Schon, 1978). The indirect manager would see the communication as both an attack and as a violation of cultural norms, thereby seeing even more negative valence in the subordinate. When LMX-quality is high, on the other hand, the leader may be more open (Bernerth et al., 2007; Detert & Burris, 2007; Werbel & Henriques, 2009) and potentially more accepting of the feedback. The manager is more likely to view the message in a positive light (or at least a less negative light; Forgas, 1995) and attribute higher status to it. Thus, both direct and indirect managers are less likely to perceive the feedback as an attack, and indirect managers are less likely to attribute negative valence to the expectancy violation (and may even attribute positive valence to it) because the subordinate is already positively valenced. Therefore, prohibitive voice should more strongly predict subordinate influence in the case of high-quality LMX perceptions (refer to Figure 2.3).

Hypothesis 5 below is concerned with the manager's perspective of LMX-quality, subordinate voice, and influence. The logic here is concerned with how the manager's feelings towards the subordinate, in terms of his/her valence, alters the way the manager views input coming from the subordinate and, in turn, puts it to use. Here again, the subordinate and manager views of these variables may represent distinct constructs since they are inherently subjective (Burris et al., 2013). The manager's view was chosen to

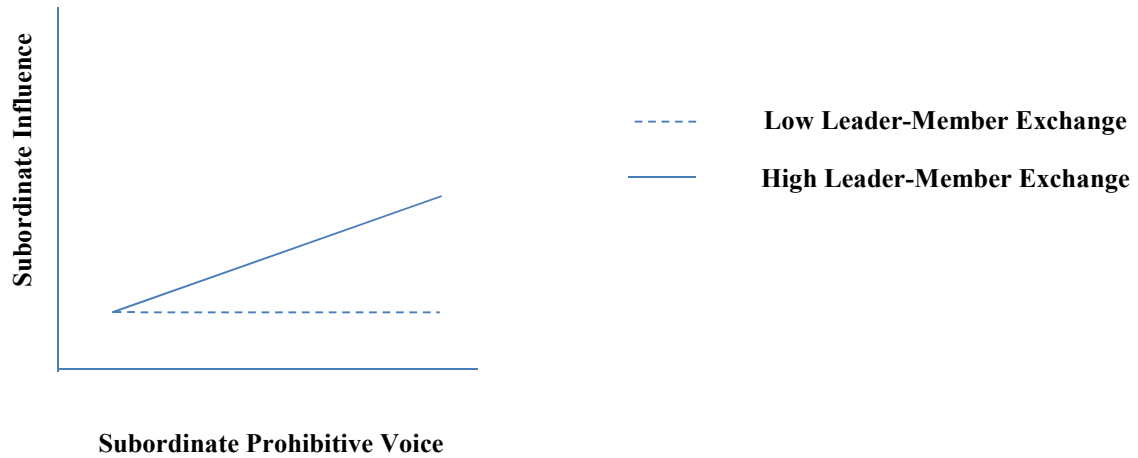


Figure 2.3 Leader-member exchange moderates the relationship between subordinate prohibitive voice and subordinate influence.

represent these constructs because the subordinate's perspective cannot capture what the manager perceives and feels.

*Hypothesis 5: Leader-member exchange quality moderates the relationship between prohibitive voice and subordinate influence over managerial decisions, such that the positive relationship is stronger when the manager perceives high-quality leader-member exchange.*

#### 2.3.4 Promotive Voice and Influence

The logics of HLCT and EVT suggest that the positive relationship between promotive voice and subordinate influence depends on both the manager's cultural norms/expectations and the valence of the subordinate within their relationship. Here again, the general trend of the relationship between voice and influence should be positive, simply because one's suggestions cannot alter a manager's decisions if they are not first expressed. However, LMX-quality and manager communication style should moderate the relationship between promotive voice and influence (refer to Figure 2.4). The relationship should be stronger when the manager has a more direct communication style, as voice behavior meets the norms of the direct communication culture. However, in the case of high-quality LMX, even the most indirect manager may see positive valence (or less negative valence) in voice behavior, thus weakening the effect of manager communication style on the relationship between voice and influence. In this sense, high-quality LMX may compensate for the violation of the indirect manager's norms. In addition, it may be that the norms have changed due to the positive relationship context. Recall the example of uchi/soto (in-group/out-group; Yamada, 1992), described earlier in the dissertation, in which the individual expects true opinions

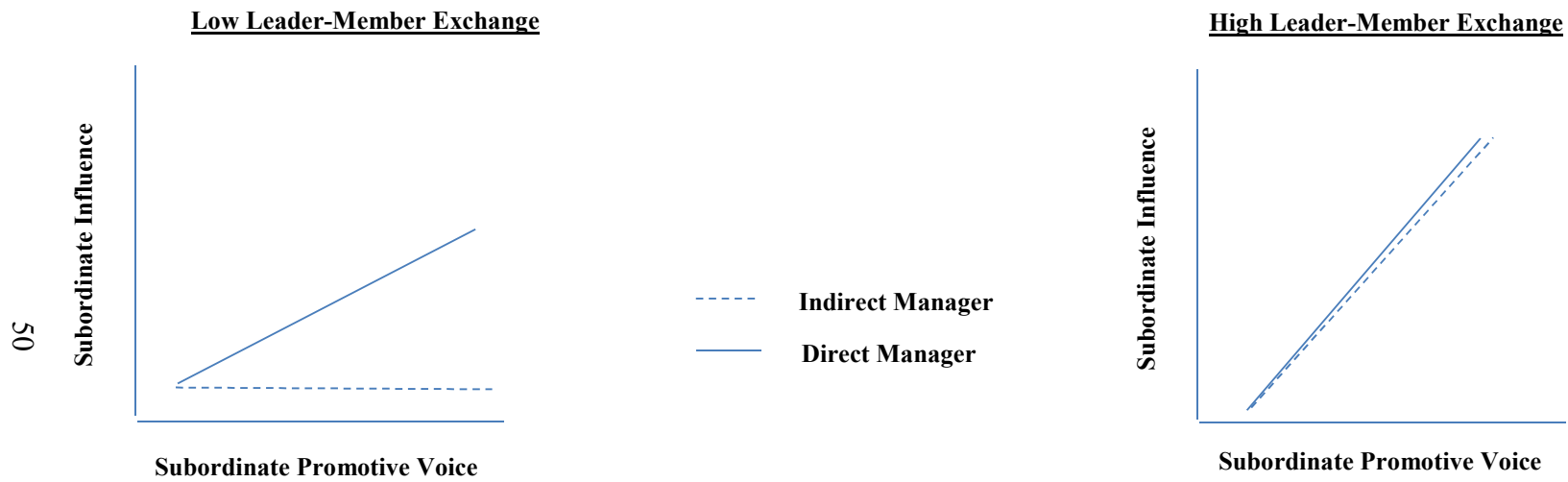


Figure 2.4 Leader-member exchange and manager communication style moderate the relationship between subordinate promotive voice and subordinate influence.

versus socially legitimate views, respectively. Here, the indirect manager may view direct communication as a norm within the in-group relationship context.

When the manager perceives low-quality LMX, promotive voice is more likely to lead to influence when the manager has a direct communication style, as the subordinate is viewed with negative valence for violating the indirect manager's (but not the direct manager's) norms. When the manager perceives high-quality LMX, promotive voice should lead to influence regardless of manager communication style because, in the case of the indirect manager, the subordinate's norm violation does not as strongly deplete his/her level of positive valence in the eyes of the manager.

*Hypothesis 6: Leader-member exchange quality and manager communication style moderate the relationship between promotive voice and subordinate influence over managerial decisions:*

- a) When the manager perceives low-quality leader-member exchange, the positive relationship between promotive voice and subordinate influence over managerial decisions is stronger when the manager's communication style is more direct.*
- b) When the manager perceives high-quality leader-member exchange, the relationship between promotive voice and subordinate influence over managerial decisions is positive regardless of manager communication style.*

#### 2.4 Assumptions, Boundaries, and Final Notes on the Larger Model

A few assumptions and boundaries should be clarified at this point. First, the current study is concerned with a snapshot in time; specifically, it is concerned with

LMX-quality at the time a suggestion or concern is voiced (or withheld). Thus, it assumes that when a message is voiced, the manager/subordinate relationship has already developed, though the relationship may be partially based upon similarities/differences in manager/subordinate communication styles. Second, it is also assumed that both the manager and subordinate are fluent in a common language (the methods control for this, as well). Third, voice, in this study, is limited to messages communicated concerning matters over which the manager has some sense of control or attachment, rather than directed at organizational policies and procedures that are unrelated to the manager.

If one were to pull the two models (Figures 2.1 and 2.2) together, it may appear as if a subordinate's communication style should affect his/her influence over managerial decisions because communication style helps to determine when/how voice is expressed. In this sense, promotive and prohibitive voice should each partially mediate the relationship between subordinate communication style and influence over managerial decisions. Additional factors, such as stereotypes and relationship length, are outside the scope of the current dissertation but may be involved in the process as well.

Recall that hypotheses exploring one's decision to voice were concerned with the subordinate's perspective of his/her own voice behavior, whereas those exploring influence were concerned with the manager's perspective of the subordinate's voice behavior. The partial mediation relationships should hold for both subordinate and manager perceptions of voice. In many cases, a manager will perceive a subordinate to have voiced if the subordinate perceives him/herself as having voiced (i.e., manager- and subordinate-perspectives of voice should agree). However, the two perspectives may be different (Burriss et al., 2013), especially in the case of an indirect subordinate and a direct



manager. If the indirect subordinate uses silence, body language, subtle/encrypted messages, or subliminal cues to voice, he/she may perceive that he/she has voiced to the manager, though the manager may be completely oblivious to the voice attempt. In general, the manager is more likely to perceive the subordinate as having voiced a suggestion or concern when the subordinate is a direct communicator, as the indirect communicator may be perceived as remaining silent even when he/she has attempted to voice (i.e., when he/she uses indirect communication with a direct manager). Here, the manager can only make use of the voice (i.e., allow it to have influence) if he/she understands that it has been expressed. Thus, both manager and subordinate perceptions of voice behavior should mediate the communication style/influence relationship.

While the latter statement suggests that direct communicators are more likely to have influence over managerial decisions because they are, in general, more likely to practice voice behavior, we know from the discussions of the current chapter that this very broad generalization does not fully capture the expected relationships. For example, the direct subordinate who voices a prohibitive message to a low-quality LMX manager is likely to have little influence over decisions, just as the indirect subordinate may actually have more influence if he/she feels safety or obligation, and if the manager perceives LMX-quality to be high. Thus, the relationships involved here are more complex than simple partial mediation statements can capture; the mediated relationship depends on additional moderating factors.

Moderated mediation occurs when the independent variable, in general, affects the dependent variable through a mediating variable, but the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is moderated (Edwards & Lambert, 2007;

Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005). In the current study, subordinate communication style is expected to affect subordinate influence over managerial decisions through promotive and prohibitive voice. However, the strength of the indirect effect of communication style on influence is expected to depend on levels of LMX-quality (from both subordinate and manager perspectives), subordinate feelings of psychological safety and obligation, and manager communication style. In other words, voice and its subsequent influence cannot be predicted by subordinate communication style alone. Thus, this dissertation does not present specific mediation hypotheses concerning a larger model. According to the logic presented above, influence is most likely to occur when the relationship is perceived by both the manager and subordinate to be of high quality. Indirect subordinates may be just as influential as direct subordinates, if not more so, when they perceive LMX-quality, psychological safety, and/or felt obligation to be high.

Concerning the subordinate's perspective, the hypotheses predict that perceptions of psychological safety and feelings of obligation for constructive change have a role in determining voice behavior. However, these constructs are not predicted to have an effect on the manager's reaction to voice behavior. It may be that a manager who perceives that he/she has constructed a psychologically safe environment or who believes that he/she has pushed subordinates to feel a sense of obligation towards the organization will be more open to input from them. The manager's perceptions of these factors may be intertwined with his/her communication style, as more direct cultural norms should influence expectations of an upward-feedback-friendly environment (Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). Thus, no specific predictions concerning manager perceptions of psychological safety and felt obligation are presented here.

## CHAPTER 3

### STUDY METHODS

#### 3.1 Participants

##### 3.1.1 Recruiting

The ideal population for this study consists of both culturally similar manager/subordinate dyads (i.e., a manager and subordinate from the same geographic region) and culturally different manager/subordinate dyads (i.e., manager and subordinate from different regions). Based on a power analysis (using G\*Power Version 3.1.6), it was determined that moderate effects could be detected with power of 0.95 in a sample of 107 (large effects would only require a sample of 48).

I therefore attempted to recruit at least 107 manager/subordinate dyads for this study. I began by contacting members of the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) who were located in Asian countries or who were working at internationally-owned firms in the local area (as individuals from Eastern cultures tend to reflect more high-context cultural norms as compared to the low-context norms of individuals from Western cultures; Adair et al., Under Review; Hall, 1976). In addition, I contacted members of the Riegel and Emory Human Resource Center board, as many members are executives of large multi-national firms. Contacts at all potential participant sites were informed that data collection would involve four surveys (two surveys one month apart for both managers and subordinates) and that all participants must be over the age of 18

and fluent in English. From these efforts, two companies emerged as both willing and able to serve as data collection sites. At each of these companies, participants were recruited with the understanding that 20 names/email addresses would be drawn on a specific date, each receiving a link to PayPal to collect a monetary gift. I also compiled a list of university faculty member/department chair dyads reflecting intercultural variation (described further below). Faculty member/department chair participants were recruited with Amazon.com gift code rewards for survey completion. Each of the three samples is described below. Response rates and demographic information are presented in Tables 3.1 and 3.2, respectively.

Sample A contained participants originating from and living/working in various countries around the world, Sample B included participants originating from and living/working in the same country, and Sample C included participants originating from various countries but living/working in the same country. Including these three different types of populations in the full sample should enhance the generalizability of the study's findings and provides both culturally similar and culturally different manager/subordinate dyads.

### 3.1.2 Samples

Sample A came from a 27,000 employee firm with offices in over 100 countries. The executive sponsors and I were particularly interested in four globally-dispersed departments, as these groups were likely to have higher levels of intercultural variation in the subordinate/manager dyads than other groups. The sponsors requested that I focus on these departments, consisting of approximately 500 total employees, for participant recruitment.

Table 3.1 Responses numbers and rates for all samples/surveys

	Sample A				Sample B				Sample C			
	SS1*	MS1*	SS2*	MS2*	SS1	MS1	SS2	MS2	SS1	MS1	SS2	MS2
# Sent	500	140	140	62	225	64	64	29	1600	169	169	66
#(%) Responded	140 (28%)	62 (44%)	105 (75%)	53 (85%)	64 (28%)	29 (45%)	48 (75%)	28 (97%)	169 (11%)	66 (39%)	151 (89%)	53 (80%)
# deleted (incomplete)	8	7	5	0	0	0	0	0	17	5	0	0
Final Total	132	55	100	53	64	29	48	28	152	61	151	53

\*SS1 = Subordinate Survey 1, MS1 = Manager Survey 1, SS2 = Subordinate Survey 2, MS2 = Manager Survey 2

Table 3.2 Final matched sample demographics

	Front-End Analyses (SS1/SS2, N= 286)	Back-End Analyses (MS1/MS2, N= 123)
#/% full-time employees	274 / 96%	116 (94%)
mean age	40	49
#/% female	133 / 47%	38 (31%)
mean work experience	14 years	25 years
#/% North-American origin	141 / 49%*	77 (62%)**
#/% of managers/subordinates from different continents	45 / 42% (information known for 108 pairs)	43 / 35% (information known for 109 pairs)

\*Other regions of origin include: Asia (62), Europe (49), Africa (15), South/Central America (13), Russia (1), and the Middle East (3). Two did not list place of origin.

\*\* Other regions of origin include: Europe (16), Australia (7), Asia (7), Africa (5), South/Central America (4), Russia (1), and the Middle East (2). Four did not list place of origin.

Sample B came from a 320 employee branch of a Japanese-owned company in the Southeastern United States. Employees at this branch had very little contact with their Japanese owners. Since this company did not have international diversity in the work population, it was a useful sample for testing domestic variation in communication style. Subordinate Survey 1 was distributed to the approximately 225 employees at Company B who were in non-management roles.

Sample C included faculty members from United States institutions listed as Research Universities under the Carnegie Foundation classification system. These are institutions that have awarded at least twenty doctorates within the last year. This particular population was chosen because Research Universities are more likely than others to list faculty information on-line. Faculty email addresses were collected from Biology, Chemistry, Engineering, Mathematics/Statistics, Physics, Language, and any International/Cultural based departments at each university, as these departments tend to have high international diversity among faculty members (Kim, Wolf-Wendel, & Twombly, 2011; Wells, 2007). Departments were randomly categorized as “same” and “different” condition, and one faculty member was selected from each department for participant recruitment. For “same” condition departments, the selected faculty member was from the same continent as his/her department chair. For “different” condition departments, the faculty member was from a different continent from the chair. Recruitment emails were sent to approximately 1600 faculty members.

### 3.1.3 Response Rates

Response rates for each survey are reported in Table 3.1 above, which shows that initial survey (i.e., Subordinate Survey 1) rates in Samples A and B were almost identical

to one another and significantly higher than those in Sample C. This is likely due to management support and involvement in Samples A and B and a lack thereof for Sample C. In Shih and Fan's (2008) meta-analysis of studies comparing web versus mail survey response rates, internet-based surveys showed a significantly lower response rate than mail surveys, especially when the recruitment population consisted of adult employees rather than college students. However, many of the flaws of email-based recruitment were avoided in Sample A due to the involvement of the executive sponsors and the company's Technology Department. For example, the initial survey was distributed from within the company through an email indicating the company's support and encouragement, and subsequent surveys were sent from an email address that had been cleared through the Technology Department. Thus, the emails were not filtered into junk-mail folders, and employees had internal evidence of the survey's legitimacy and perceived importance. For Sample B, paper surveys were handed directly to employees, and the office's Human Resources Director made frequent announcements encouraging participation and highlighting the study's importance.

In Sample C, there was no management involvement from the universities. Initial emails may not have cleared the university email filters, and recipients had no internal evidence of legitimacy and support – hence, much lower response rates for the initial survey. Notice that Sample C response rates for subsequent surveys were comparable to those from the other samples. If a subordinate was able to receive the initial email, it is likely that subsequent emails to him/her and emails sent to his/her manager would clear the system's email filters as well. Also, the manager emails listed the relevant



subordinate's name in the subject line, perhaps discouraging managers from assuming the email was a mass-marketing scheme.

I conducted Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's multiple comparison tests to determine whether the mean levels of any of the study's major variables differed by sample, as the recruiting differences mentioned above may have led to differences in sample populations. For example, it may be that participants in Samples A and B found participation less threatening than those in Sample C, since the managers in the former samples knew to expect a potential participation request whereas those in the latter sample received the request without warning. In this case, Sample C participants may be more likely than non-participants to report higher voice and LMX-quality, whereas the same would not be true in the other samples. Results showed that sample means did vary significantly on measures of LMX-quality, voice, and influence, but not as expected from differences in recruiting efforts. These sample mean differences are described in detail where applicable in the measures and results sections below.

Demographic information for the final samples is reported in Table 3.2 above. Hypotheses 1 through 4 are concerned with the subordinate's view of his/her communication style, relationship with the manager, and voice behavior; thus, only information from the subordinate surveys is required for these main analyses. Hypotheses 5 and 6 are concerned with the manager's view of subordinate voice behavior, subordinate influence, LMX-quality, and his/her own communication style; thus, only information from the manager surveys is required for these main analyses. However, the "other-report" perspectives of these measures are explored following the main analyses in each section as well.

### 3.2 Procedure

For Samples A and C, the initial survey (Subordinate Survey 1) was distributed via email. Sample A surveys were sent to all English-speaking, non-management employees by the executive sponsor through company email distribution lists. I personally sent Subordinate Survey 1 emails to Sample C faculty members. Employees were instructed to click on a link to be taken to the on-line survey through Qualtrics. For Sample B, I distributed a paper-and-pencil version of the survey to employees at shift meetings. They were given five days to complete the survey at their leisure. All participants were informed (either on paper or through Qualtrics) that participation is voluntary, all survey responses are confidential, and full participation involves completion of two separate surveys.

Subordinate Survey 1 instructed participants to list their own name (and email address, in the on-line version), as well as that of a manager with whom they have worked closely (for Sample C, the department chair served as the manager). The surveys informed participants that this information would be used for matching purposes only and that only the researcher would have access to survey responses. Participants were told to think of this particular manager, where indicated, when responding to questions. Thereafter, the survey presented measures of the participant's own communication style, perceptions of LMX-quality with the manager, psychological safety, felt obligation for constructive change, perceptions of the manager's communication style, and various demographic/control variables.

Once a completed Subordinate Survey 1 was received, I sent Manager Survey 1 to the manager listed in the subordinate's survey. For Samples A and C, I emailed the

managers a link to the survey. For Sample B, I returned to the company after collecting Subordinate Survey 1 to hand-deliver Manager Survey 1 to all listed managers. In some instances a manager was listed by more than one subordinate; in these cases, the manager was asked to complete a new Manager Survey 1 for each subordinate. The survey was set up, both on-line and on paper, such that the manager did not repeatedly enter redundant information; rather, he/she could skip self-report items after they had been completed on the first Manager Survey 1. The first portion of Manager Survey 1 included measures of the manager's own communication style and various demographic/control variables. The second portion included measures of the manager's perceptions of the subordinate's voice behavior, communication style, and LMX-quality. Manager Survey 1 also asked for the manager's name, for matching purposes.

One month after a subordinate (manager) completed Subordinate Survey 1 (Manager Survey 1), Subordinate Survey 2 (Manager Survey 2) was distributed. For Samples A and C, I distributed the survey links via email. For Sample B, I returned to the site one month after Subordinate Survey 1 distribution (to distribute Subordinate Survey 2) and again one month after Manager Survey 1 (to distribute Manager Survey 2). Subordinate Survey 2 included measures of the subordinate's perceptions of his/her own voice behavior and influence over the manager's decisions. Manager Survey 2 included measures of the manager's perceptions of the subordinate's influence over his/her decisions and various control and exploratory variables. The purpose of the two-survey format was to separate measurement of independent and dependent variables by time to decrease the potential for common method bias issues (Conway & Lance, 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

### 3.3 Measures

All scale items are reported in Appendix A. Appendix B describes two pilot tests conducted to develop/shorten certain measures, as indicated where relevant below. As stated earlier, the subordinate's perspective of his/her communication style, relationship factors, and voice are theoretically relevant for hypotheses concerning Figure 2.1, and the manager's perspective of subordinate voice, influence, LMX-quality, and his/her own communication style are theoretically relevant for hypotheses concerning Figure 2.2, as each model is based on one's evaluation of behavior as perceived through the lens of his/her cultural norms and understanding of one another's place in the relationship.

Past research supports the notion that self- and other-report of the same measure may significantly differ (e.g., Burriss et al., 2013; Podsakoff et al., 2003), suggesting that the subordinate's perspective of this study's main variables cannot be substituted for the manager-focused model and vice-versa. In terms of LMX-quality, for example, Gerstner and Day (1997) found through meta-analysis that leaders and members tend to have different perspectives of the LMX-quality between them, as leader-reported and member-reported LMX correlated at only 0.29 overall, and each has a different effect in predicting workplace outcomes. For example, Scandura et al. (1986) found that leader-perspective LMX-quality was positively correlated with subordinate decision influence while subordinate-perspective LMX quality was not (the correlation between the two perspectives was also not significant in their study, at 0.24), and the larger meta-analysis showed that leader-perspective LMX more strongly predicted subordinate performance than did subordinate-perspective LMX. Gerstner and Day suggested that LMX should be measured from both perspectives in each study. Thus, all independent and dependent

variables of the current study, as well as LMX-quality, were measured from both the manager's and subordinate's perspective.

### 3.3.1 Communication Style

*Subordinate communication style* and *manager communication style* were each self- and other-reported using the communication style sub-scale of the CSIS scale, which was validated by Adair et al. (Under Review). This sub-scale includes the following dimensions: *use feelings and emotions, inferring meaning, ambiguity in communication, inferring feelings, avoid conflict, avoid disagreement, and assertive persuasion*. Participants were instructed to indicate, on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), to what degree each statement is true of them. Example items are “Feelings are a valuable source of information,” “I am able to recognize others’ subtle and indirect messages,” and “I generally avoid argument.” Direct communication style is characterized by high ratings on the assertive persuasion dimension and low ratings on all others. Indirect communication style is characterized by low ratings on the assertive persuasion dimension and high ratings on all others. I used indirect communication style as the positive end and, thus, reverse-coded responses to the assertive persuasion dimension. In this sense, higher scores reflect more indirect communication styles, whereas lower scores reflect more direct communication styles; moderate scores reflect a lesser pull towards either end of the pole (i.e., a communication style mix, or less distinctiveness either way).

Subordinate Survey 1 and Manager Survey 1 each included all items twice: once to capture participants’ perceptions of their own communication style, and again to capture their perceptions of their manager’s/subordinate’s communication style (all items

are listed in Appendix A). No significant differences were found between samples on any of these communication style measures. The two measures of subordinate communication style (from the subordinate's self-reported perspective and from the manager's perspective) were not significantly correlated ( $r = .16$ ;  $p = .09$ ), nor were the two measures of manager communication style ( $r = .03$ ;  $p = .74$ ). In other words, individuals did not seem to see themselves as others saw them.

The communication style scale was intended to be used as a composite of the seven dimensions (Adair et al., Under Review). In other words, communication style should be represented by the mean of the dimension means, with each dimension represented by three items. However, the reliability of this scale in the current sample was low. Specifically, the standardized coefficient alpha was .58 for the subordinate's self-report, .62 for the manager's report of the subordinate, .46 for the manager's self-report, and .60 for the subordinate's report of the manager. Alphas for the individual dimensions ranged from .40 (manager self-report on *use feelings and emotions*) to .78 (manager self-report on *avoid conflict*). Here, the dimensionality of the communication style measurement model must be emphasized. While items concerning the individual dimensions represent effect (or reflective) indicators, each dimension represents a causal (or formative) indicator of the higher-order construct. In other words, the dimension items are dependent on, and a reflection of, the dimensions itself, whereas the dimensions then each serve a distinct component of communication style (only forming the larger construct when coming together). That said, the dimensions should have strong reliability, whereas reliability is less relevant for the higher-order communication style construct (e.g., Bollen & Lennox, 1991; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005).

The main analyses in the next chapter (as well as Confirmatory Factor Analyses and antecedent explorations in the current chapter) apply communication style as a seven-dimension construct measured from a self-report perspective, since it was originally intended to be used in this way (Adair et al., Under Review). However, the next chapter includes additional analyses using other-reported communication style, the single-factor version of communication style (i.e., the mean of all items;  $\alpha = .76$  for subordinates and  $.70$  for managers), and individual dimensions with higher reliability ( $.70$  or greater; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). For subordinate communication style, dimensions included *avoid conflict* ( $\alpha = .74$ ) and *avoid disagreement* ( $\alpha = .75$ ). For manager communication style, dimensions included *infer meaning* ( $\alpha = .76$ ), *avoid conflict* ( $\alpha = .78$ ), and *assertive persuasion* ( $\alpha = .73$ ).

I ran path analyses in LISREL to further explore the relationships among items. I began by running two models each for both subordinate and manager indirect communication style. In the first model, I linked all items to one factor. In the second model, I linked each item to its respective dimension, which led in turn to a common single factor. Results, presented in Table 3.3 below, show that Subordinate Model 1 had poor fit and Model 2 had moderate fit, based on past model fit standards (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Jackson, Gillaspay, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009; Kline, 2005). However, both Models 1 and 2 showed poor fit for the managers.

I therefore ran several additional models in an attempt to understand how the manager items fit together (refer to Table 3.3). I created seven item parcels by taking the average of the items within each dimension (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998; Bandalos &

Table 3.3 Path analysis of communication style scales

	$\chi^2$	$df$	CFI <sup>+</sup>	RMSEA <sup>+</sup>	SRMR <sup>+</sup>
<u>Subordinate (N=286)</u>					
Model 1: All items leading to one factor	925.42	189	.71	.12	.13
Model 2: 7 sub-factors leading to one higher-order factor	469.43	182	.89*	.07*	.10*
<u>Manager (N=123)</u>					
Model 1: All items leading to one factor	980.18	209	.45	.17	.18
Model 2: 7 dimensions leading to one higher-order factor	661.70	202	.67	.14	.17
Model 3: 7 parcels leading to one higher-order factor	105.45	14	.39	.23	.15
Model 4: 7 distinct factors	479.52	168	.76	.12	.12
Model 5: 2 factors – inferred meaning and inferred feelings combined, and avoid disagreement	61.04	26	.90*	.11	.08*
Ideal model			>.90	<.06	<.05

<sup>+</sup>CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. \*Moderate fit, \*\*ideal fit.



Finney, 2001). In Model 3, I led these seven parcels to one factor, which also showed poor fit. In a fourth model, I returned to the full item set and led each to its respective dimension, with no higher order factor; here again, the fit was poor.

Finally, I relied on HLCT (i.e., Adair et al., Under Review; Hall, 1976) to determine a way to regroup the items without diverging too far from the original theory behind the scale's development. I attempted to select items to reflect one dimension representing using feelings, meaning, and ambiguity in communication and another dimension representing harmony disruption avoidance. After multiple trials with various combinations, a model with moderate fit emerged. In Model 5, I led all *inferring meaning* and *inferring feelings* items to one factor and all *avoid disagreement* items to another. While I use the scale as it was originally intended for the main hypothesis tests, I used the scale reflected in Model 5 for additional analyses where indicated.

I next explored the antecedents of communication style. I grouped participants' countries of origin into categories based on communication style tendencies, in order from most indirect to most direct (e.g., Lewis, 2006). Regions ranged from 1 (Asian countries) to 8 (Western Europe). I first conducted ANOVA and Tukey tests to compare communication style means by both region and country. I then performed a cluster analysis by both region and country. Results showed no significant mean differences between regions or countries and no meaningful clustering effects for subordinate or manager communication styles.

To explore whether other factors may influence communication style, I ran two correlation analyses: one for subordinates and one for managers, each including culture variables (power distance, independence, interdependence, and relationship context),

demographics (sample, race, age, and gender), and communication style. Results are presented in Tables 3.4 and 3.5 below. I then regressed each communication style variable (for both managers and subordinates) onto all culture/demographic variables. Results are presented in Table 3.6 below.

In alignment with HLCT, subordinate communication style was predicted by power distance ( $\beta = .07$ ;  $p < .05$ ) and relationship context ( $\beta = .21$ ;  $p < .01$ ); subordinates were more likely to report themselves as being indirect communicators when they also reported strong importance of hierarchy and relationships. Female subordinates were more likely to be indirect than male subordinates ( $\beta = .10$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Race was also a significant predictor ( $\beta = -.04$ ;  $p < .05$ ); African subordinates reported the most indirect style (3.41,  $N=67$ ), followed by Asians (3.29,  $N=30$ ), Native Americans (3.21,  $N=2$ ), Caucasians (3.20,  $N=161$ ), and Hispanics (3.06,  $N=14$ ). In terms of manager communication style, power distance ( $\beta = .18$ ;  $p < .01$ ) and relationship context ( $\beta = .24$ ;  $p < .01$ ) were the only significant predictors. However, notice in section 3.3.5 below that many of these scales had low reliability, suggesting that the true relationships among variables are more difficult to detect (likely due to underestimation of the effect). In other words, we must be cautious in interpreting these results.

### 3.3.2 Voice

*Promotive* and *prohibitive voice* were measured with Liang et al.'s (2012) adaptations of Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) voice items. Liang et al.'s items were adapted specifically to capture the distinction between promotive and prohibitive voice. In line with Liang et al.'s recommendation, I further adapted two of the prohibitive items that conveyed a sense of "daring" that may indicate more interpersonal risk than is

Table 3.4 Summary statistics for subordinate communication style, demographic, and culture variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Communication Style (high=indirect)	3.23	.42	(.58)							
2. Sample	n/a	n/a	-.08	---						
3. Power Distance	1.96	.74	.15*	-.10	(.70)					
4. Independence	3.88	.68	.13*	-.08	.00	(.57)				
5. Interdependence	4.14	.55	.18**	.02	-.16**	.40**	(.52)			
6. Relationship Context	3.46	.51	.32**	-.02	.14*	.27**	.30**	(.73)		
7. Race	n/a	n/a	-.16**	-.17**	-.10	.03	-.10	-.18**	---	
8. Age	40.39	n/a	-.04	.27**	-.04	-.01	-.05	-.18**	.03	---
9. Gender (female=1, male=0)	n/a	n/a	.12*	-.19**	-.07	.02	.06	-.02	.08	-.09

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ . (Standardized alphas along the diagonal)

Table 3.5 Summary statistics for manager communication style, demographic, and culture variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Communication Style (high=indirect)	3.07	.36	(.46)							
2. Sample	n/a	n/a	-.13	---						
3. Power Distance	1.91	.55	.35**	-.17	(.09)					
4. Independence	3.75	.55	.05	.02	.03	(.44)				
5. Interdependence	4.15	.37	.13	.15	-.01	.27**	(.22)			
6. Relationship Context	3.21	.41	.37**	-.21*	.35**	.08	.21*	(.66)		
7. Race	n/a	n/a	-.10	-.02	.19*	-.23*	-.02	.04	---	
8. Age	49.29	n/a	.04	.42**	.06	.01	-.02	-.20*	.08	---
9. Gender (female=1, male=0)	n/a	n/a	-.04	-.38**	-.18*	-.01	-.06	-.01	-.02	-.38**

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ . (Standardized alphas along the diagonal)

Table 3.6 Predictors of communication style

	<u>Subordinate</u> <u>Communication Style<sup>+</sup></u>		<u>Manager</u> <u>Communication Style<sup>+</sup></u>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Sample	-.04	.03	-.03	.04
Power Distance	.07*	.03	.18**	.06
Independence	.00	.04	-.03	.06
Interdependence	.08	.05	.09	.10
Relationship Context	.21**	.05	.24**	.08
Race	-.04*	.02	-.06	.03
Age	.00	.00	.01	.00
Gender	.10*	.05	.01	.08
R <sup>2</sup>	.16		.22	

<sup>+</sup>High = indirect. \* $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

necessary (e.g., “dare to point out problems...”). Participants were asked to respond to each statement on a scale from 1 (never) to 5 (very often), using the following stem: “Please indicate to what degree you exhibit each of the following behaviors concerning tasks relevant to your direct manager.” An example item for promotive voice is “Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit,” and an example item for prohibitive voice is “Voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.” In the current sample, standardized coefficient alphas for prohibitive and promotive voice were .80 and .92, respectively, for the subordinates and .84 and .93, respectively, for the managers.

In addition to these items, I included revised versions of the scales. The goal here was to capture more indirect ways of voicing. It may be, for example, that an indirect subordinate attempts to voice a suggestion but does so in a less clear manner than would be captured by the original items. For example, the indirect subordinate may not “speak up honestly about problems” (as in the original prohibitive scale) but, instead, may “attempt to help others to notice problems” (as in the revised prohibitive scale). Thus, the inclusion of all four scales (original promotive and prohibitive, revised promotive and prohibitive) may help to account for voice behavior that is not direct in nature; in other words, the four scales together should allow us to capture attempted voice behavior by all employees who choose to voice, rather than just direct communicators.

The original scales were used in the main analyses of the current dissertation, as the theoretical logic behind the hypotheses was based on the original constructs. However, each section includes exploratory analyses using the revised measures as well. An example item from the revised promotive scale is “Attempt to develop, and try to

suggest, ideas for issues that may influence the unit,” and an example item from the revised prohibitive scale is “Attempt to help others to notice problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.” Standardized coefficient alphas for the revised prohibitive and promotive voice scales were .85 and .92, respectively, for the subordinates and .85 and .94, respectively, for the managers. All voice items are listed in Appendix A, and a validation process for these revised scales is presented in Appendix B.

Manager Survey 1 contained both original and revised promotive and prohibitive voice items concerning the manager’s perspective of the subordinate’s voice behavior. The revised and original prohibitive scales were significantly correlated ( $r=.83; p<.01$ ), as were the revised and original promotive scales ( $r=.90; p<.01$ ). Sample C managers reported observing significantly higher levels of promotive voice (on the revised scale) than did those from Sample B (mean difference = .60,  $p<.01$ ). The three other manager-perspective voice scale means were similar across samples.

Subordinate Survey 2 included the same scales concerning the subordinates’ perspectives of their own voice behavior. The revised and original prohibitive scales were significantly correlated ( $r=.86; p<.01$ ), as were the revised and original promotive scales ( $r=.91; p<.01$ ). The original prohibitive scale mean was significantly higher in Sample B than in Samples A and C (mean differences = .37 and .57, respectively,  $p<.01$ ), and the same was true for the revised prohibitive scale (mean differences = .45 and .58, respectively,  $p<.01$ ). The original promotive scale mean was higher in Sample B than in Sample A (mean difference = .36,  $p<.05$ ). The revised promotive scale mean did not vary significantly across samples.

The subordinate's self-report of his/her own voice behavior was significantly correlated with the manager's perspective for the original prohibitive ( $r = .30; p < .01$ ), revised prohibitive ( $r = .22; p < .05$ ), original promotive ( $r = .22; p < .05$ ), and revised promotive ( $r = .22; p < .05$ ) scales. Although these correlations are significant, they are low compared to the correlations between revised and original versions. Also, they are similar to Burris et al's (2013) correlation between self- and manager-report of voice ( $r = .29$ ) and Gerstner and Day's (1997) LMX-quality leader-/member-report correlation ( $r = 0.29$ ). I also conducted ANOVA and Tukey tests to determine whether mean voice behavior differed by region or country. I found no meaningful differences for original or revised promotive and prohibitive means for manager or subordinate perspective.

The correlations between the original promotive and prohibitive voice scales (subordinate  $r = .67$ ; manager  $r = .68$ ) were similar to their correlation in the original scale validation study ( $r = .66$ ; Liang et al., 2012). Nevertheless, I ran path analyses in LISREL to confirm that each scale represented a distinct construct (an Exploratory Factor Analysis was run for this purpose in an earlier pilot study; refer to Appendix B). Table 3.7 presents the fit indices for 5 models: (1) an eight-factor model loading items onto the scales as originally intended (separate manager and subordinate views for original and revised versions of prohibitive and promotive voice), (2) a four-factor model loading manager and subordinate view items together for each of the four scales, (3) a four-factor model loading original and revised items together for subordinate and manager views of both voice types, (4) a four-factor model loading promotive and prohibitive items together for revised versus original scales for both views, and (5) a two-factor model loading all manager items together versus all subordinate items. As shown in Table 3.7,



Table 3.7 Path analysis of voice scales

<sup>+</sup>CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR =

	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	CFI <sup>+</sup>	RMSEA <sup>+</sup>	SRMR <sup>+</sup>
Model 1: 8 factors (as originally intended)	1202.13	712	.97**	.08*	.07*
Model 2: 4 factors (manager and subordinate views as one factor for each of the 4 scales)	2995.97	734	.84	.16	.25
Model 3: 4 factors (original and revised as one factor for each view of both voice types)	1259.83	734	.96**	.08*	.07*
Model 4: 4 factors (all original items versus all revised items for each view)	1589.49	734	.94**	.10*	.09*
Model 5: 2 factors (all manager items versus all subordinate items)	1604.13	739	.94**	.10*	.09*
Ideal model			>.90	<.06	<.05

Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. \*Moderate fit, \*\*ideal fit.

Model 1 showed moderate-to-ideal fit, as did Models 3, 4, and 5. I chose to follow Model 1 for the main analyses, treating each of the eight scales as its own distinct factor, as (1) the scales were originally designed for this use, and (2) its fit indices were slightly higher than those for Models 3, 4, and 5.

### 3.3.3 Subordinate Influence over Managerial Decisions

Items from several sources (Anderson et al., 2008; Brass, 1984; Mowday, 1978) were used to capture the subordinate's level of influence over the manager's decisions. Responses for each item ranged from 1 ("none") to 5 ("a great deal"). Items were "How much influence do you exert over your manager's decisions at work?" (Anderson et al., 2008), "How much pull, weight, or clout do you have over your manager's decisions?" (Brass, 1984), and "How much general ability do you have to get your manager to do something he/she might not otherwise do?" (Mowday, 1978).

These items were included in Subordinate Survey 2 (to capture the subordinate's perspective of his/her own influence) and in Manager Survey 2 (to capture the manager's perspective of the subordinate's influence). Standardized coefficient alpha was .86 for subordinates and .88 for managers. Subordinates in Sample B reported having significantly lower influence than did those in Samples A and C (mean differences = .46 and .52, respectively,  $p < .01$ ). Managers in Sample C reported significantly higher levels of subordinate influence than did managers in Samples B (mean difference = .79,  $p < .01$ ).

The two perspectives of influence were not significantly correlated ( $r = .09$ ;  $p = .36$ ), suggesting that subordinates and managers do not strongly agree on the subordinate's level of influence. However, I ran path analyses to ensure the two perspectives represented distinct constructs. As shown in Table 3.8 below, a model

Table 3.8 Path analysis of influence scales

	$x^2$	$df$	CFI <sup>+</sup>	RMSEA <sup>+</sup>	SRMR <sup>+</sup>
Model 1: Subordinate and manager items as one factor	206.82	9	.43	.42	.26
Model 2: Subordinate and manager items as two distinct factors	7.18	8	1.00**	.00**	.03**
Ideal model			>.90	<.06	<.05

<sup>+</sup>CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. \*Moderate fit, \*\*ideal fit.

leading all items from each perspective to one factor showed poor fit, whereas one leading items to their respective perspective showed ideal fit. Refer to Appendix A for a list of all items and to Appendix B for pilot test information regarding this scale.

### 3.3.4 Relationship Factors

*Leader-member exchange* was examined from both subordinate and manager perspectives (in Subordinate Survey 1 and Manager Survey 1, respectively) using Liden and Maslyn's (1998) LMX Scale. Participants were asked to "Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements concerning you and (your direct manager/this employee)." Response options ranged from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). Example items are "I like (my manager/this employee) very much as a person," "I am willing to do work for (my manager/this employee) that goes beyond what is specified in my job description," and "I admire (my manager's/this employee's) professional skills." Standardized coefficient alpha was .88 for the subordinates and .86 for the managers. All items are listed in Appendix A.

Both subordinate and manager perspectives of LMX-quality varied by sample. Specifically, subordinates in Sample A reported significantly higher LMX-quality with their managers than did those in Sample C (mean difference = .32,  $p < .01$ ), and managers in Sample B reported significantly lower LMX-quality with their subordinates than did those in Samples A and C (mean differences = .62 and .81, respectively,  $p < .01$ ). Notice that subordinate- and manager-reports of LMX-quality behave differently here. This supports the notion that the subordinate and manager views may be two distinct constructs, as does the small (yet statistically significant;  $p < .01$ ) correlation between them in the current sample ( $r = 0.23$ , consistent with Gerstner & Day, 1997). I ran path

analyses in LISREL to confirm this distinction. As Table 3.9 shows, Model 3, with items leading to their respective dimensions (affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect), which in turn led to the subordinate and manager factors, showed moderate-to-ideal fit and was the best fit of the three. Thus, all analyses in the results section were run with subordinate and manager LMX-quality represented by the mean of their respective dimension means.

To capture *psychological safety*, Subordinate Survey 1 included Liang et al.'s (2012) five-item Psychological Safety scale. This scale was selected for the purpose of consistency, as it was used in the original prohibitive/promotive voice study (Liang et al., 2012). Participants were asked to "Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements concerning your work unit or organization." Response options ranged from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). Example items are "In my work unit, I can express my true feelings regarding my job," and "Nobody in my unit will pick on me even if I have different opinions." In the current sample, standardized coefficient alpha was .84. All items are listed in Appendix A.

To capture *felt obligation for constructive change*, Subordinate Survey 1 included Liang et al.'s (2012) five-item Felt Obligation for Constructive Change scale. Here again, this scale was selected for the purpose of consistency with the original prohibitive/promotive voice study. Participants were given the same instructions and response options as above. Example items are "I owe it to the organization to do whatever I can to come up with ideas/solutions to achieve its goals," and "I have an

Table 3.9 Path analysis of leader-member exchange scales

	$\chi^2$	$df$	CFI <sup>+</sup>	RMSEA <sup>+</sup>	SRMR <sup>+</sup>
Model 1: Subordinate and manager items as one factor	1347.21	209	.76	.21	.22
Model 2: Subordinate and manager items as two distinct factors	709.19	208	.90*	.14	.09*
Model 3: 8 distinct sub-factors, leading to two higher-order factors (subordinate/manager)	292.43	200	.98**	.06*	.07*
Ideal model			>.90	<.06	<.05

<sup>+</sup>CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. \*Moderate fit, \*\*ideal fit.

obligation to the organization to voice out my own opinions.” In the current sample, standardized coefficient alpha was .83. All items are listed in Appendix A.

### 3.3.5 Additional Variables

As stated above, there is a chance that recruiting methods may have led to bias on the major variables in this study. In fact, Tukey tests showed that means of LMX-quality, voice, and influence were significantly different across samples (described above).

Therefore, *sample*, was included as a control variable in all hypothesis tests. I also included the subordinate's *years of full-time work experience* in Subordinate Survey 1 for subordinate-focused analyses, as experience may provide one with more confidence to speak up at work (tenure with the organization and with the manager in question were also considered; however, the former was expected to overlap with psychological safety and felt obligation for change, and the latter was expected to overlap with LMX-quality). For manager-focused analyses, Manager Survey 2 included measures of *perceived voice constructiveness* (Whiting et al., 2012;  $\alpha = .86$ ) and *perceived voice feasibility* (Litchfield, Fan, & Brown, 2011;  $\alpha = .85$ ), as Whiting et al. (2012) found that characteristics of a voiced message influenced managerial reactions to subordinate voice behavior. All items for constructiveness and feasibility are listed in Appendix A.

Additional measures were included to explore antecedents of communication style (described above) and outcomes of voice behavior. All items are listed in Appendix A. Items were selected from larger scales to prevent participant fatigue where indicated, and the item selection process for these scales is described in Appendix B.

Subordinate Survey 1 included measures of *power distance* (represented by three items from Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009;  $\alpha = .70$ ), *independence* (represented by three items from Singelis, 1994;  $\alpha = .57$ ), and *interdependence* (represented by three items from Singelis, 1994;  $\alpha = .52$ ) to further understand the role of

culture in the development of communication style. Various demographic factors (race, age, gender, and country of origin) were included as potential communication style antecedents as well. *Relationship context* (represented by twelve items from Adair et al., Under Review;  $\alpha = .73$ ) was included to account for the importance a participant places on roles and relationships. This variable had two purposes in the current study: to serve as (1) an exploratory antecedent of communication style, and (2) an exploratory moderator; the effect of communication style on voice may depend on the subordinate's relationship context, and the moderating effect of LMX-quality and voice on influence may depend on the manager's relationship context.

As in Subordinate Survey 1, Manager Survey 1 included measures of *power distance* ( $\alpha = .09$ ), *independence* ( $\alpha = .44$ ), *interdependence* ( $\alpha = .22$ ), *relationship context* ( $\alpha = .66$ ), and demographic factors. Manager Survey 2 also included measures of *performance evaluation* (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991;  $\alpha = .90$ ) and *attributions of prosocial motives* (Whiting et al., 2012;  $\alpha = .91$ ) as exploratory dependent variables. Whiting et al. (2012) found that voice behavior had an indirect effect on how message receivers rated the sender's performance through its effect on attributions of prosocial motives. Attributions of prosocial motives and performance evaluations are examples of managerial reactions to voice behavior in addition to influence; this should further our understanding of the consequences of voice behavior at work.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### STUDY RESULTS

Because the subordinate- and manager-focused hypotheses are concerned with different perspectives, and because there are control variables distinct to each, I present the analyses in two separate sections. A potential larger model is explored thereafter. Results of the main analyses must be interpreted with caution, due to the low reliability of the communication style measures as they are used in these analyses. One issue here is that true relationships may be misconstrued, likely due to underestimation of the effect. Another issue is that, since the higher-order communication style construct is composed of distinct dimensions, each of these individual dimensions may have a distinct relationship with the other variables in question (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; MacKenzie et al., 2005). Thus, additional analyses include the substitution of high-reliability dimensions where indicated.

#### 4.1 The Decision to Voice: From the Subordinate's View

The main analyses in this section use the subordinate's report on the original prohibitive/promotive voice scales, LMX-quality and indirect communication style, as it is these constructs and perspectives on which the initial theory behind the hypotheses was based. I first present results of regression analyses testing Hypothesis 1 without, and then with, control variables in the model. Next, I do the same for Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4. Finally, I explore differences in results when using individual communication dimensions, the revised voice scales, and the manager's perspective of all relevant

variables. Summary statistics for all variables are presented in Table 4.1. The independent, moderating, and control variables were standardized (mean= 0, standard deviation= 1) for all regression analyses presented here.

#### 4.1.1 Hypothesis 1: Prohibitive voice

Hypothesis 1 stated that, relative to direct subordinates, indirect subordinates are less likely to engage in prohibitive voice. Table 4.2 presents the results of several regression models used to address this prediction without control variables, and Table 4.3 presents the results of the analyses repeated with control variables included. I began the hypothesis tests with analyses excluding control variables (Table 4.2).

In Model 1, I regressed prohibitive voice onto communication style, which significantly predicted voice in the expected direction ( $\beta = -.11$ ;  $p < .05$ ). This provides initial support for Hypothesis 1. In Models 2, 3, and 4, I added the relationship factors (LMX-quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change, respectively), one-by-one, to ensure that relationship variables did not alter the effect. The negative relationship between indirect communication style and voice held for each of these as well ( $\beta = -.11$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.10$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.12$ ,  $p < .01$ ), although subordinates were also more likely to voice when they perceived greater psychological safety ( $\beta = .16$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and felt stronger obligation for constructive change ( $\beta = .13$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

I added the interaction terms of each relationship variable with communication style (again, one-by-one) in Models 5, 6, and 7. Here again, communication significantly predicted voice ( $\beta = -.11$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.10$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.12$ ,  $p < .01$ ). None of the interaction terms were significant, though the interaction between communication style and LMX-quality approached significance ( $\beta = .07$ ,  $p < .10$ ). Finally, Model 8 included

Table 4.1 Summary statistics for subordinate-focused analysis variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Prohibitive Voice	3.14	.74	(.80)						
2. Promotive Voice	3.62	.82	.67**	(.92)					
3. Communication Style (high=indirect)	3.23	.42	-.14*	-.10 <sup>+</sup>	(.58)				
4. Leader-Member Exchange	3.68	.86	.07	.06	.08	(.88)			
5. Psychological Safety	3.38	.86	.22**	.10	-.06	.39**	(.84)		
6. Felt Obligation for Change	3.69	.77	.15**	.21**	.14*	.26**	.31**	(.83)	
7. Sample	n/a	n/a	-.14*	.12*	-.08	-.16**	-.09	-.04	---
8. Years of full-time experience	13.57	n/a	.12*	.12*	-.13*	-.18**	-.04	.02	.11 <sup>+</sup>

N=286. <sup>+</sup>p<.10, \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01. (Standardized alphas reported along diagonal)

Table 4.2 Regression results for prohibitive voice analyses: Without control variables

	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>		<u>Model 5</u>		<u>Model 6</u>		<u>Model 7</u>		<u>Model 8</u>	
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	B	SE	$\beta$	SE	B	SE	$\beta$	SE
Communication style (high=indirect)	-.11*	.04	-	.04	-.10*	.04	-.12**	.04	-.11*	.04	-.10*	.04	-.12**	.04	-.10*	.04
Leader-member exchange			.11*						.07	.04					-.01	.05
Psychological safety					.16**	.04					.16**	.04			.13**	.05
Felt obligation for constructive change							.13**	.04					.14**	.04	.09*	.05
Communication style*Leader-member exchange									.07 <sup>+</sup>	.04					.07	.05
Communication style*Psychological safety											-.00	.04			-.06	.05
Communication style*Felt obligation for constructive change													.06	.04	.05	.04
R <sup>2</sup>	.02		.03		.06		.05		.04		.06		.06		.09	
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )	(.02)		(.02)		(.06)		(.04)		(.03)		(.05)		(.05)		(.07)	
$\Delta R^2$			.01		.04		.03		.02		.04		.04		.07	
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )			(.00)		(.04)		(.02)		(.01)		(.03)		(.03)		(.05)	

N = 286. <sup>+</sup>p < .10, \*p < .05, \*\*p < .01.

Table 4.3 Regression results for prohibitive voice analyses: With control variables

	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>		<u>Model 5</u>		<u>Model 6</u>		<u>Model 7</u>		<u>Model 8</u>		<u>Model 9</u>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>
Sample	-.12**	.04	-.12**	.04	-.11*	.04	-.11*	.04	-.12**	.04	-.12**	.04	-.11*	.04	-.12**	.04	-.12**	.04
Years of full-time experience	.09*	.04	.08 <sup>+</sup>	.04	.09*	.04	.09*	.04	.07 <sup>+</sup>	.04	.10*	.04	.09*	.04	.08 <sup>+</sup>	.04	.08 <sup>+</sup>	.04
Communication style (high=indirect)			-.10*	.04	-.11*	.04	-.09*	.04	-.12**	.04	-.10*	.04	-.09*	.04	-.12**	.04	-.10*	.04
Leader-member exchange					.06	.04					.06	.04					-.01	.05
Psychological safety							.15**	.04					.15**	.04			.12*	.05
Felt obligation for constructive change									.13**	.04					.14**	.04	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05
Communication style*Leader-member exchange											.08*	.04					.08 <sup>+</sup>	.05
Communication style*Psychological safety													.01	.04			-.05	.05
Communication style*Felt obligation for constructive change															.07 <sup>+</sup>	.04	.06	.04
R <sup>2</sup>		.04		.06		.06		.10		.08		.08		.10		.09		.13
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )		(.03)		(.05)		(.05)		(.08)		(.07)		(.06)		(.08)		(.08)		(.10)
$\Delta R^2$				.02		.02		.06		.04		.04		.06		.05		.09
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )				(.02)		(.02)		(.05)		(.04)		(.03)		(.05)		(.05)		(.07)

N = 286. <sup>+</sup>*p* < .10, \**p* < .05, \*\**p* < .01.

communication style, all three relationship variables, and all three interactions. Here, communication style significantly predicted voice ( $\beta = -.10, p < .05$ ), and no interactions were significant. These analyses provide strong support for Hypothesis 1, as indirect communicators were less likely than others to voice even after accounting for relationship factors.

I then replicated these analyses with control variables included (Table 4.3). In Model 1, I regressed prohibitive voice onto the control variables (sample and years of full-time work experience). Subordinates from Sample B were more likely than others to voice ( $\beta = -.12, p < .01$ ), as were subordinates with more years of experience ( $\beta = .09, p < .05$ ). In Model 2, I added communication style. Sample ( $\beta = -.11, p < .05$ ) and experience ( $\beta = .09, p < .05$ ) remained significant, and indirect subordinates were significantly less likely than others to voice ( $\beta = -.11, p < .05$ ). Here again, Hypothesis 1 is supported. I added the relationship variables (LMX-quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change), one-by-one, in Models 3, 4, and 5, respectively. Communication style remained significant in each of these models ( $\beta = -.11, p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.09, p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.12, p < .01$ ), and subordinates were also more likely to voice when they perceived greater psychological safety ( $\beta = .15, p < .01$ ) and felt obligation for constructive change ( $\beta = .13, p < .01$ ).

I added the interaction terms, one-by-one, in Models 6, 7 and 8. Communication style remained significant here as well ( $\beta = -.10, p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.09, p < .05$ ;  $\beta = -.12, p < .01$ ). Also, the interaction between communication style and LMX-quality was significant in Model 6 ( $\beta = .08, p < .05$ ). To further explore this interaction, I followed a simple slopes significance test outlined in Aiken and West (1991). First, I split the standardized LMX-

quality variable into “low” (one standard deviation below the mean), “moderate” (mean), and “high” (one standard deviation above the mean) levels and repeated the regression analysis for each level. This revealed a disordinal interaction, as seen in Figure 4.1 below. Results showed that the relationship between communication style and voice was negative when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = -.18, p < .01$ ) or moderate ( $\beta = -.10, p < .05$ ), but non-significant when LMX-quality was high ( $\beta = -.02, p = .76$ ), suggesting that indirect communicators were more likely than others to refrain from voicing unless the relationship with the manager was perceived to be strong. A final model, with all main effects and interactions included, showed that communication style significantly predicted voice ( $\beta = -.10, p < .05$ ), and its interaction with LMX-quality approached significance ( $\beta = .08, p < .10$ ).

#### 4.1.2 Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4: Promotive voice

Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 stated that LMX-quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change, respectively, would each moderate the relationship between indirect communication style and promotive voice, such that the negative relationship would be weaker when the relevant relationship factor was high. Table 4.4 presents the results of several regression models used to address this prediction without control variables, and Table 4.5 presents the results of the analyses repeated with control variables included.

I began the hypothesis tests with analyses excluding control variables (Table 4.4). In Model 1, I regressed promotive voice onto communication style, which approached significance as a predictor ( $\beta = -.09, p < .10$ ). In Models 2, 3, and 4, I added the relationship factors (LMX-quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for

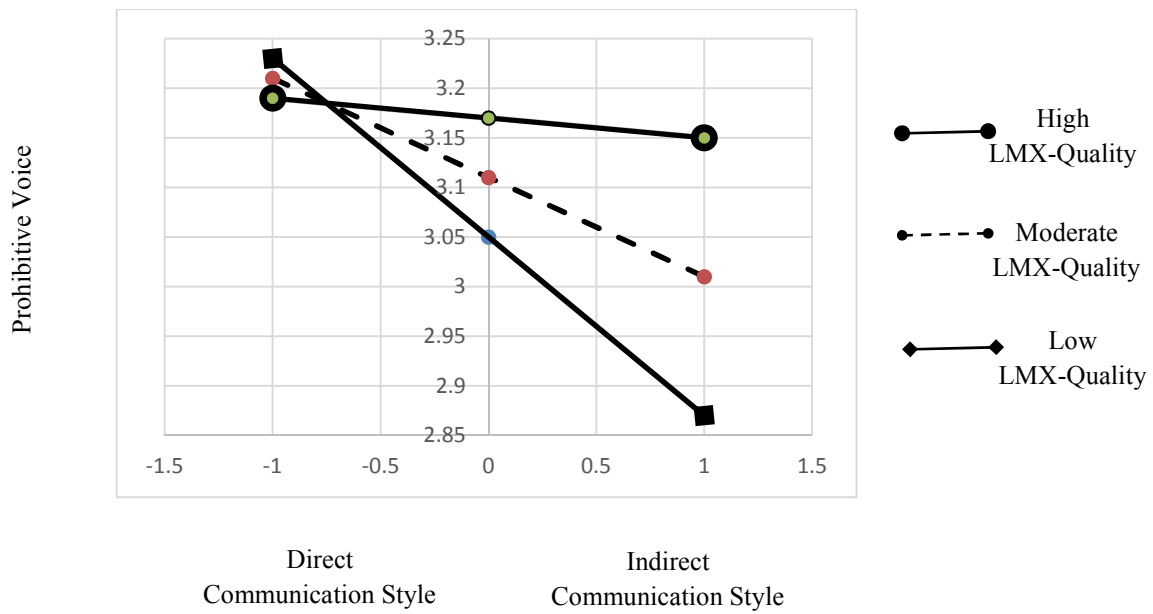


Figure 4.1 Leader-member exchange quality moderates the relationship between subordinate communication style and subordinate prohibitive voice.



Table 4.4 Regression results for promotive voice analyses: Without control variables

	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>		<u>Model 5</u>		<u>Model 6</u>		<u>Model 7</u>		<u>Model 8</u>	
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	B	SE	$\beta$	SE	B	SE	$\beta$	SE
Communication style (high=indirect)	-.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	-.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	-.08 <sup>+</sup>	.05	-.11*	.05	-.08 <sup>+</sup>	.05	-.08 <sup>+</sup>	.05	-.11*	.05	-.10*	.05
Leader-member exchange			.06	.05					.06	.05					.02	.05
Psychological safety					.08 <sup>+</sup>	.05					.08	.05			.01	.05
Felt obligation for constructive change							.19**	.05					.20**	.05	.18**	.05
Communication style*Leader-member exchange									.11*	.04					.12*	.05
Communication style*Psychological safety											.03	.05			-.05	.06
Communication style*Felt obligation for constructive change													.05	.04	.04	.04
R <sup>2</sup>	.01		.02		.02		.06		.04		.02		.07		.09	
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )	(.01)		(.01)		(.01)		(.06)		(.03)		(.01)		(.06)		(.06)	
$\Delta R^2$			.01		.01		.05		.03		.01		.06		.08	
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )			(.00)		(.00)		(.05)		(.02)		(.00)		(.05)		(.05)	

N = 286. <sup>+</sup>p < .10, \*p < .05, \*\*p < .01.

Table 4.5 Regression results for promotive voice analyses: With control variables

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7		Model 8		Model 9	
	B	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	B	SE	$\beta$	SE	B	SE	$\beta$	SE
Sample	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.10*	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05
Years of full-time experience	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.08 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.10 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.08	.05	.10*	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.08 <sup>+</sup>	.05	.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05
Communication style (high=indirect)			-.07	.05	-.08	.05	-.06	.05	-.10*	.05	-.07	.05	-.07	.05	-.10*	.05	-.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05
Leader-member exchange					.10 <sup>+</sup>	.05					.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05					.04	.05
Psychological safety							.10*	.05					.09 <sup>+</sup>	.05			.02	.05
Felt obligation for constructive change									.19**	.05					.20**	.05	.17**	.05
Communication style*Leader-member exchange											.11*	.04					.10 <sup>+</sup>	.05
Communication style*Psychological safety													.04	.05			-.03	.06
Communication style*Felt obligation for constructive change															.06	.04	.04	.04
R <sup>2</sup>	.03		.03		.05		.05		.09		.07		.05		.09		.11	
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )	(.02)		(.02)		(.03)		(.03)		(.07)		(.05)		(.03)		(.08)		(.08)	
$\Delta R^2$			.00		.02		.02		.06		.04		.02		.06		.08	
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )			(.00)		(.01)		(.01)		(.05)		(.03)		(.01)		(.06)		(.06)	

N = 286. <sup>+</sup>p < .10, \*p < .05, \*\*p < .01.

constructive change, respectively), one-by-one. Both communication style ( $\beta = -.11, p < .05$ ) and felt obligation ( $\beta = .19, p < .01$ ) significantly predicted voice in Model 4. I added the interaction terms of each relationship variable with communication style in Models 5, 6, and 7. In Model 5, the interaction between LMX-quality and communication style significantly predicted voice ( $\beta = .11, p < .05$ ). This interaction held in Model 8, with all main and interactive effects included, as well ( $\beta = .12, p < .05$ ).

I conducted a simple slopes test to further explore the interaction. Here, I only discuss and present the interaction found in Model 5 to avoid redundancy, as all LMX/communication style interactions in this section are similar. Results showed a disordinal interaction (refer to Figure 4.2), such that indirect subordinates were less likely than others to voice when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = -.20, p < .01$ ) whereas the relationship was not significant when LMX-quality was moderate ( $\beta = -.08, p = .08$ ) or high ( $\beta = .03, p = .67$ ). This supports Hypothesis 2. Hypotheses 3 and 4 received no support, as their respective interaction terms were not significant (refer to Models 6, 7, and 8).

I then replicated these analyses with control variables included (Table 4.5). In Model 1, I regressed promotive voice onto the control variables (sample and years of full-time work experience), both of which approached significance ( $\beta = .09, p < .10$  for each). In Model 2, I added communication style, which was not significant. I added the relationship variables, one-by-one, in Models 3, 4, and 5. LMX-quality approached significance ( $\beta = .10, p < .10$ ), while both psychological safety ( $\beta = .10, p < .05$ ) and felt obligation for constructive change ( $\beta = .19, p < .01$ ) were significant predictors of voice.

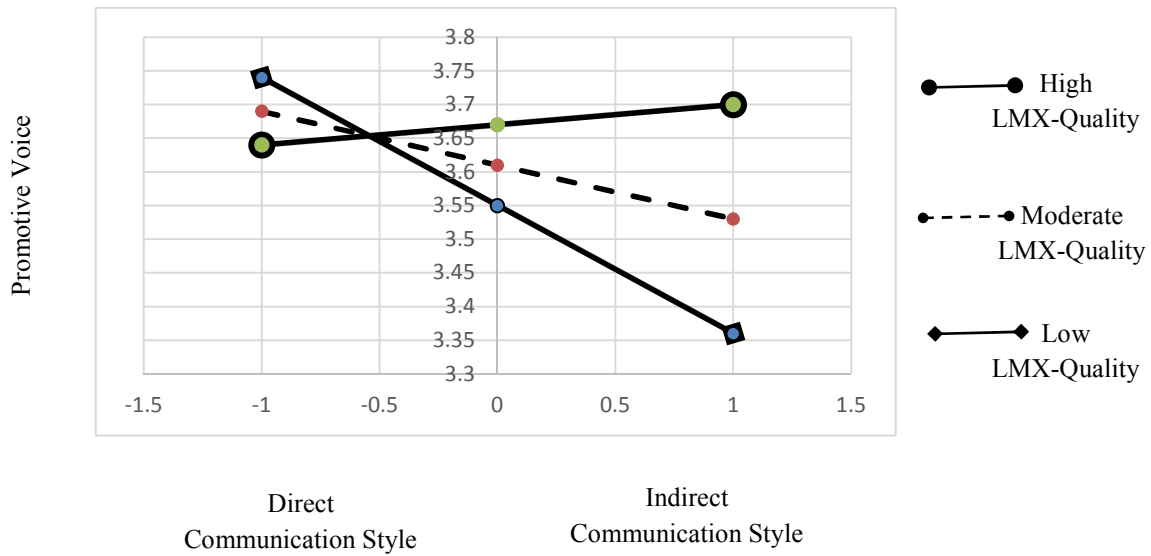


Figure 4.2. Leader-member exchange quality moderates the relationship between subordinate communication style and subordinate promotive voice.

Communication style was non-significant in Models 3 and 4 but was significant in Model 5 ( $\beta = -.10, p < .05$ ).

I added the interactions, one-by-one, in Models 6, 7, and 8. Similar to that shown in Figure 4.2, the interaction between LMX-quality and communication style significant predicted voice ( $\beta = .11, p < .05$ ), such that the negative relationship between indirect communication style and promotive voice was significant when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = -.18, p < .01$ ) but was non-significant when LMX-quality was moderate ( $\beta = -.07, p = .17$ ) or high ( $\beta = .05, p = .49$ ). This provides further support for Hypothesis 2. This interaction approached significance ( $\beta = .10, p < .10$ ) in Model 9, which included all main effects and interactions. Again, Hypotheses 3 and 4 received no support, as their respective interaction terms were not significant (refer to Models 7, 8, and 9).

#### 4.1.3 Main-analysis conclusions

Two of the four front-end hypotheses were supported, with and without control variables included in the analyses. In line with Hypothesis 1, indirect subordinates were significantly less likely than direct subordinates to voice concerns to their managers, even with relationship factors and control variables taken into account. In line with Hypothesis 2, indirect subordinates were significantly less likely than direct subordinates to voice suggestions to their managers when the subordinates perceived low relationship quality; when LMX-quality was high, this was not the case. Notice also that communication style consistently predicted voice when using prohibitive voice as the dependent variable but did not always do so for promotive voice. Similarly, the LMX-quality/communication style interaction was significant in only one model for prohibitive voice but was consistent across models for promotive voice. These findings support the notion that

indirect communicators do voice, though they may be more particular than direct communicators in terms of when they do so (i.e., when LMX-quality is high) and how they do so (i.e., through promotive suggestions, rather than prohibitive concerns).

#### 4.1.4 Additional analyses

I re-ran regression analyses substituting various measures for the independent, moderator, and dependent variables. Independent variable (i.e., subordinate communication style) substitutes included country of origin, region of origin, the *avoid conflict* and *avoid disagreement* dimensions of self-reported communication style, self-reported communication style scale as a single-factor construct, and the manager's report of the subordinate's communication style. Moderator variable (i.e., relationship factor) substitutes included relationship context, the manager's report of LMX-quality and additional relationship factor interaction combinations (for example, the four-way interaction between LMX-quality, psychological safety, felt obligation, and communication style). Dependent variable (i.e., voice) substitutes included all manager-report voice scales and the revised subordinate-report voice scales. Only significant, relevant findings are reported here in an attempt to avoid redundancy.

In terms of independent variable substitutes, the findings presented above were essentially replicated when using the mean of all 21 items to represent subordinate communication style (rather than using the mean of the dimension means), except that the LMX-quality/communication style interaction remained a significant predictor of promotive voice with all main and interactive effects included (i.e., Model 9 in Table 4.5;  $\beta = .10, p < .05$ ). Findings were also similar using the *avoid conflict* and *avoid disagreement* dimensions of communication style, except that both dimensions were

consistently significant predictors of both types of voice at  $p < .001$ . Also, when using the manager's report of the subordinate's communication style, the interaction between communication style and psychological safety predicted subordinate-reported promotive voice (original). Specifically, the relationship between communication style and voice approached significance in a negative direction when safety was low ( $\beta = -.22$ ;  $p < .10$ ), but not was not at all significant when safety was moderate ( $\beta = -.04$ ;  $p = .62$ ) or high ( $\beta = .13$ ;  $p = .17$ ). In other words, indirect communicators were less likely than others to voice when they did not feel safe to do so but were as likely as others when safety was high (in line with Hypothesis 3).

In terms of dependent variable substitutes, results showed that subordinate communication style predicted manager-reported prohibitive voice (original) both with ( $\beta = -.19$ ;  $p < .05$ ) and without ( $\beta = -.15$ ;  $p < .05$ ) relationship factors included in the model but only significantly predicted the revised version of this scale when relationship factors were included ( $\beta = -.16$ ;  $p < .05$ ). The interaction between communication style and LMX-quality predicted subordinate-reported promotive voice (revised), such that the relationship was negative when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = -.19$ ;  $p < .01$ ) but not when LMX-quality was moderate ( $\beta = -.07$ ;  $p = .16$ ) or high ( $\beta = .06$ ;  $p = .42$ ). This mimics the findings from the main analyses and provides further support for Hypothesis 2.4.1.5

#### Additional analyses conclusions

Hypothesis 1 was again supported when using the manager's perspective of the subordinate's prohibitive voice behavior (using both the revised and original scales), a single-factor structure for the communication style scale, and the two most reliable dimensions of communication style. The interactive effect of LMX-quality and

communication on promotive voice using the revised voice measure, single-factor communication style, and the two communication style dimensions provides further support for Hypothesis 2.

Also, the relationship predicted in Hypothesis 3 approached significance when using the manager's report of the subordinate's communication style. Subordinates perceived by their managers to communicate indirectly were less likely than others to voice when psychological safety was low, but not when safety was high. This suggests that, as stated in Chapter 2, indirect communicators need additional comfort to express suggestions to their managers.

Note that neither country nor region significantly predicted voice. This finding contradicts past research (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Thomas & Au, 2002), suggesting that perhaps previous findings were not generalizable beyond their samples (this is discussed further in the next chapter). Also, Hypothesis 2 did not hold when using the manager's perspective of voice as the dependent variable. This suggests that, although the manager and subordinate perspectives of voice are correlated, they are not identical (as demonstrated via path analysis, shown in Table 3.7); thus, the subordinate may see him/herself as having voiced whereas the manager is not consciously aware of this behavior. In the next section, I use the manager's perspective of voice behavior in the main analyses, as voice should be more likely to lead to influence when the manager can consciously acknowledge that it has occurred.

#### 4.2 The Influence of Voice: From the Manager's View

The main analyses in this section use the manager's report of the original prohibitive/promotive voice scales, LMX-quality, indirect communication style, and



subordinate influence, as it is these constructs and perspectives on which the initial theory behind the hypotheses was based. Here again, I first present results of regression analyses without control variables in the model. Next, I present the same analyses with control variables included. Finally, I explore differences in results when using the revised voice scales, the subordinate's perspective of all relevant variables, the best fitting communication style scale model from Table 3.3, a single-factor structure version of the communication style scale, and dimensions of the communication style scale with high reliability. Summary statistics for all back-end analysis variables are presented in Table 4.6. The independent, moderating, and control variables were standardized (mean=0, standard deviation=1) for all regression analyses presented here.

#### 4.2.1 Hypothesis 5: Prohibitive Voice

Hypothesis 5 stated that LMX-quality moderates the relationship between prohibitive voice and subordinate influence over managerial decisions. Table 4.7 presents the results of several regression models used to address this prediction without control variables, and Table 4.8 presents the results of the analyses repeated with control variables included. I began the hypothesis test with analyses excluding control variables (Table 4.7). In Model 1, I regressed influence onto prohibitive voice, which was not a significant predictor of influence. In Models 2 and 3, I added LMX-quality and communication style, respectively, finding that LMX-quality significantly predicted influence ( $\beta = .22, p < .01$ ). In Models 4, 5, and 6, I added the interactions between prohibitive voice and LMX-quality, prohibitive voice and communication style, and

Table 4.6 Summary statistics for manager-focused analysis variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Subordinate Influence	2.61	.87	(.88)						
2. Prohibitive Voice	3.16	.76	.07	(.84)					
3. Promotive Voice	3.47	.87	.22*	.68**	(.93)				
4. Leader-Member Exchange	3.95	.68	.26**	.27**	.41**	(.86)			
5. Communication Style (high=indirect)	3.07	.36	.14	.10	.13	.03	(.46)		
6. Voice Constructiveness	3.83	.89	.38**	.35**	.55**	.67**	.00	(.86)	
7. Voice Feasibility	3.67	.75	.39**	.27**	.38**	.55**	.13	.74**	(.85)
8. Sample	n/a	n/a	.21*	-.10	.17 <sup>+</sup>	.14	-.13	.15 <sup>+</sup>	.10

N=123. <sup>+</sup> $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ . (Standardized alphas along the diagonal)

Table 4.7 Regression results for prohibitive voice analyses: Without control variables

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7		Model 8	
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE
Prohibitive Voice	.06	.08	.00	.08	.05	.08	.01	.08	.05	.08			.01	.08	-.03	.08
Leader-Member Exchange Quality			.22**	.08			.29**	.09			.25**	.08	.34**	.09	.33**	.09
Communication Style (high=indirect)					.12	.08			.12	.08	.17*	.08	.16*	.08	.12	.08
Prohibitive*LMX-Quality							.14 <sup>+</sup>	.07					.16*	.07	.16*	.07
Prohibitive*Communication Style									.03	.08			-.01	.07	-.06	.08
Communication Style *LMX-Quality											-.16	.10	-.20*	.10	-.15	.10
Prohibitive Voice*Style*LMX															.20*	.09
R <sup>2</sup>	.00		.07		.02		.10		.03		.10		.14		.18	
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )	(-.00)		(.05)		(.01)		(.07)		(.00)		(.08)		(.10)		(.13)	
$\Delta R^2$			.07		.02		.10		.03		.10		.14		.18	
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )			(.05)		(.01)		(.07)		(.00)		(.08)		(.10)		(.13)	

N=123. <sup>+</sup> $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

Table 4.8 Regression results for prohibitive voice analyses: With control variables

	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>		<u>Model 5</u>		<u>Model 6</u>		<u>Model 7</u>		<u>Model 8</u>		<u>Model 9</u>	
	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>
Voice Constructiveness	.14	.11	.15	.11	.17	.12	.18	.11	.16	.12	.18	.11	.18	.12	.18	.12	.19	.12
Voice Feasibility	.23*	.11	.23*	.11	.23*	.11	.19 <sup>+</sup>	.11	.22*	.11	.19 <sup>+</sup>	.11	.19 <sup>+</sup>	.11	.18	.11	.14	.11
Sample	.14 <sup>+</sup>	.07	.13 <sup>+</sup>	.07	.14 <sup>+</sup>	.07	.15*	.07	.12	.07	.15*	.07	.16*	.07	.14 <sup>+</sup>	.07	.16*	.07
Prohibitive Voice			-.04	.08	-.04	.08	-.05	.08	-.03	.08	-.05	.08			-.03	.08	-.06	.07
Leader-Member Exchange Quality					-.02	.10			.04	.10			.01	.08	.08	.11	.08	.11
Communication Style (high=indirect)							.13 <sup>+</sup>	.07			.12	.07	.17*	.10	.16*	.08	.13	.08
Prohibitive*LMX-Quality									.10	.07					.11	.07	.11	.07
Prohibitive*Communication Style											.03	.07			.03	.07	-.02	.07
Communication Style *LMX-Quality													-.14	.09	-.18 <sup>+</sup>	.09	-.14	.09
Prohibitive Voice*Style*LMX																	.18*	.08
R <sup>2</sup>	.20		.20		.20		.22		.21		.22		.23		.25		.28	
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )	(.18)		(.17)		(.16)		(.18)		(.17)		(.18)		(.19)		(.19)		(.22)	
$\Delta R^2$			.00		.00		.02		.01		.02		.03		.05		.08	
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )			(-.01)		(-.02)		(.00)		(-.01)		(.00)		(.01)		(.01)		(.04)	

N=123. <sup>+</sup> $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

LMX-quality and communication style, respectively. The interaction between prohibitive voice and LMX-quality approached significance ( $\beta = .14, p < .10$ ) in Model 4.

Model 7 included all main and interactive effects. Here, two interactions were significant: that between prohibitive voice and LMX-quality ( $\beta = .16, p < .05$ ) and between communication style and LMX-quality ( $\beta = -.20, p < .05$ ). Simple slopes tests revealed that the relationship between prohibitive voice and influence was non-significant but changed directions based on LMX-quality levels (refer to Figure 4.3), as it was negative when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = -.14, p = .15$ ) and positive when LMX-quality was moderate ( $\beta = .01, p = .88$ ) or high ( $\beta = .17, p = .14$ ). Interpreted another way, mean influence levels were significantly higher in high-quality LMX dyads for high levels of prohibitive voice (mean difference =  $.80, p < .01$ ) but were not significantly different at low levels of prohibitive voice (mean difference =  $.11, p = .64$ ). This provides some support for Hypothesis 5.

Regarding the LMX-quality/communication style interaction (refer to Figure 4.4), simple slopes tests revealed that the relationship between communication style and influence was positive when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = .36, p < .05$ ) or moderate ( $\beta = .16, p < .05$ ), and non-significant when LMX-quality was high ( $\beta = -.04, p = .72$ ). Interpreted another way, mean influence levels were significantly higher in high-quality LMX dyads for direct managers (mean difference =  $.59, p < .01$ ) but were not significantly different for indirect managers (mean difference =  $.33, p = .17$ ).

These results indicate that, among managers perceiving poor relationship-quality with their subordinates, those with an indirect communication style were more likely than those with a direct style to perceive subordinates as influential, and subordinates

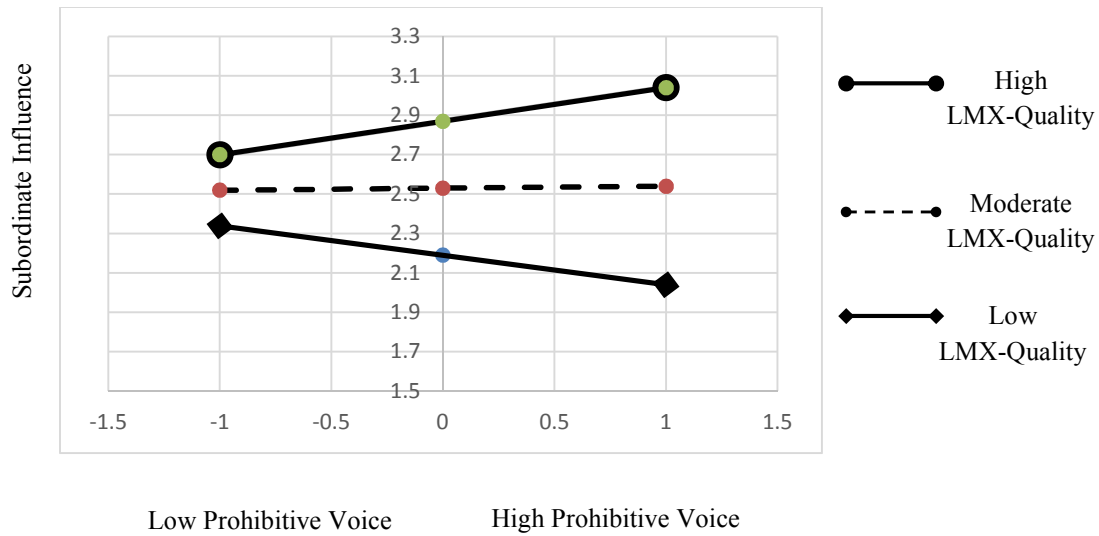


Figure 4.3 Leader-member exchange quality moderates the relationship between subordinate prohibitive voice and subordinate influence.

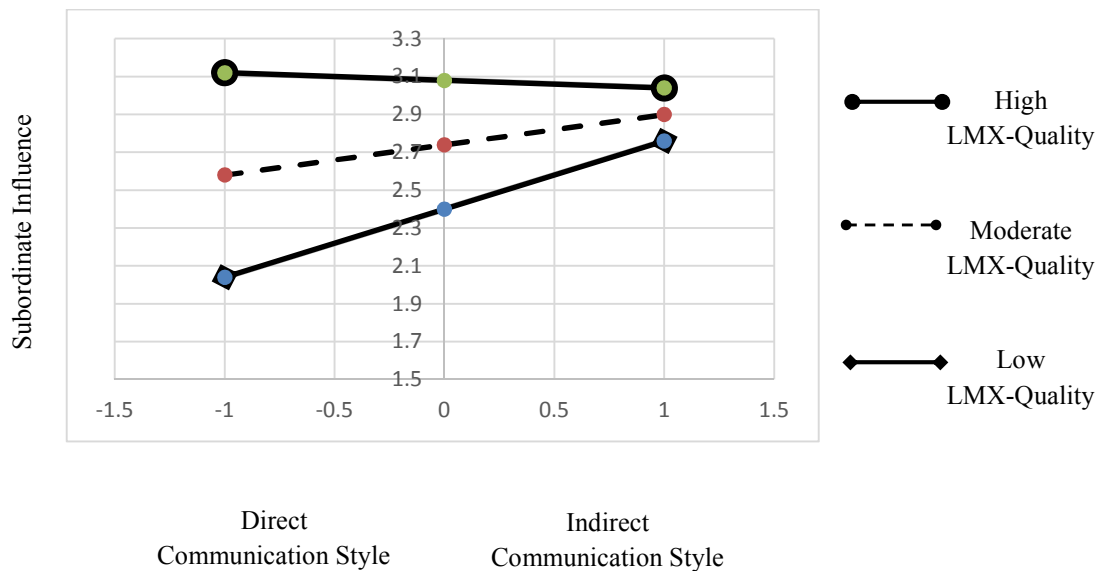


Figure 4.4 Leader-member exchange quality moderates the relationship between manager communication style and subordinate influence.

practicing prohibitive voice were less likely than others to be perceived as influential. However, these relationships did not hold at higher levels of LMX-quality. Figures 4.3 and 4.4 serve as a general representation of the interactions of LMX-quality with communication style and prohibitive voice, respectively, as found in this model and others described below (i.e., the pattern is similar across models).

In Model 8, I included all main/interactive effects and added the three-way interaction between communication style, LMX-quality, and prohibitive voice. Although not hypothesized, the latter interaction was significant ( $\beta = .20, p < .05$ ). Simple slopes tests revealed, and Figure 4.5 shows, that the relationship between prohibitive voice and influence was non-significant for direct managers regardless of LMX-quality. However, for indirect managers, the relationship was positive when LMX-quality was high ( $\beta = .28, p < .05$ ) and negative when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = -.45, p < .05$ ).

I then replicated these analyses with control variables included (Table 4.8). In Model 1, I regressed influence onto the control variables (voice constructiveness, voice feasibility, and sample). Results showed that subordinates whose voiced ideas were perceived to be more feasible were also more likely to be seen as influential ( $\beta = .23, p < .05$ ). Sample approached significance ( $\beta = .14, p < .10$ ), as managers in Sample C reported greater influence levels than those in the other samples. In Model 2, I added prohibitive voice, which was not significant. In Models 3 and 4, I added LMX-quality and communication style, respectively, and the latter approached significance ( $\beta = .13, p < .10$ ). In Models 5, 6, and 7, I included the interactions between prohibitive voice and LMX-quality, prohibitive voice and communication style, and communication style and LMX-quality, none of which was significant.

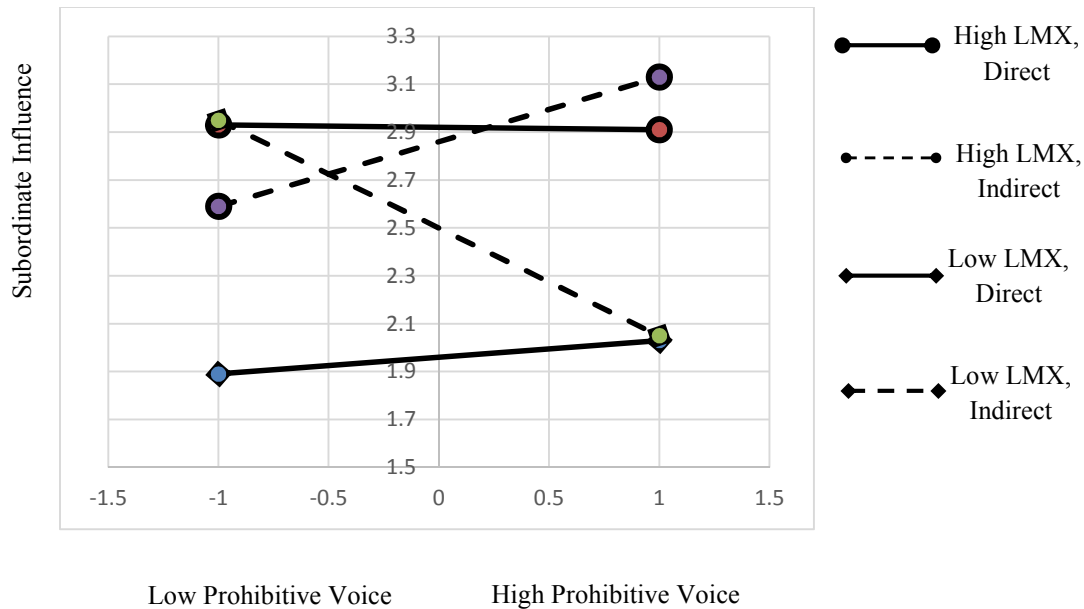


Figure 4.5 Leader-member exchange quality and manager communication style moderate the relationship between subordinate prohibitive voice and subordinate influence.

Model 8 included all main and interactive effects. Here, the interaction between communication style and LMX-quality approached significance ( $\beta = -.18, p < .10$ ), revealing a similar pattern to that described above and shown in Figure 4.4. Finally,



Model 9 included all main/interactive effects as well as a three-way interaction, which was significant ( $\beta = .18, p < .05$ ) and revealed a similar pattern to that described above and shown in Figure 4.5. The predicted interaction described in Hypothesis 5 (and shown in Figure 4.4) did not appear in analyses involving control variables.

#### 4.2.2 Hypothesis 6: Promotive Voice

Hypothesis 6 stated that LMX-quality and communication style moderate the relationship between promotive voice and subordinate influence over managerial decisions. Table 4.9 presents the results of several regression models used to address this prediction without control variables, and Table 4.10 presents the results of the analyses repeated with control variables included. I began the hypothesis test with analyses excluding control variables (Table 4.9). In Model 1, I regressed influence onto promotive voice, which was not a significant predictor of influence. In Models 2 and 3, I added LMX-quality and communication style, respectively, finding that LMX-quality significantly predicted influence ( $\beta = .17, p < .05$ ). In Models 4, 5, and 6, I added the interactions between promotive voice and LMX-quality, promotive voice and communication style, and LMX-quality and communication style, respectively. None of the interactions were significant.

Model 7 included all main and interactive effects. Here, the interaction between communication style and LMX-quality significantly predicted influence ( $\beta = -.20, p < .05$ ). A simple slopes test revealed, and Figure 4.6 shows, that the relationship between

Table 4.9 Regression results for promotive voice analyses: Without control variables

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7		Model 8	
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE
Promotive Voice	.20*	.08	.12	.08	.18	.08	.11	.08	.18*	.08			.11	.08	.07	.08
Leader-Member Exchange Quality			.17*	.08			.21*	.08			.25**	.08	.25**	.09	.24*	.09
Communication Style (high=indirect)					.10	.08			.09	.08	.17*	.08	.15 <sup>+</sup>	.08	.10	.08
Promotive *LMX-Quality							.08	.07					.09	.07	.09	.07
Promotive *Communication Style									.06	.08			.06	.08	-.01	.08
Communication Style *LMX-Quality											-.16	.10	-.20*	.10	-.17	.10
Promotive Voice*Style*LMX															.19*	.09
R <sup>2</sup>	.05		.08		.06		.09		.07		.10		.14		.17	
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )	(.04)		(.07)		(.05)		(.07)		(.05)		(.08)		(.09)		(.12)	
$\Delta R^2$			.03		.01		.04		.02		.05		.09		.12	
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )			(.03)		(.01)		(.03)		(.01)		(.04)		(.05)		(.08)	

N=123. <sup>+</sup> $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

Table 4.10 Regression results for promotive voice analyses: With control variables

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7		Model 8		Model 9	
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE
Voice Constructiveness	.14	.11	.13	.12	.15	.13	.17	.12	.15	.13	.17	.12	.18	.12	.18	.13	.19	.13
Voice Feasibility	.23*	.11	.23*	.11	.23*	.11	.19 <sup>+</sup>	.11	.22*	.11	.19 <sup>+</sup>	.11	.19 <sup>+</sup>	.11	.18	.11	.14	.11
Sample	.14 <sup>+</sup>	.07	.14 <sup>+</sup>	.07	.14 <sup>+</sup>	.07	.16*	.07	.13 <sup>+</sup>	.08	.16*	.07	.16*	.07	.15*	.08	.16*	.07
Promotive Voice			.01	.09	.01	.09	-.01	.09	.01	.09	-.01	.09			-.01	.09	-.03	.09
Leader-Member Exchange Quality					-.02	.10			-.00	.10			.01	.10	.04	.11	.04	.11
Communication Style (high=indirect)							.12	.07			.12	.08	.46*	.22	.16 <sup>+</sup>	.08	.13	.08
Promotive *LMX-Quality									.04	.06					.05	.07	.05	.07
Promotive *Communication Style											.02	.07			.05	.07	-.01	.08
Communication Style *LMX-Quality													-.14	.09	-.17 <sup>+</sup>	.10	-.14	.10
Promotive Voice*Style*LMX																	.17 <sup>+</sup>	.09
R <sup>2</sup>	.20		.20		.20		.21		.20		.21		.23		.24		.26	
(Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )	(.18)		(.17)		(.16)		(.18)		(.16)		(.17)		(.19)		(.18)		(.20)	
$\Delta R^2$			.00		.00		.01		.00		.01		.03		.04		.06	
( $\Delta$ Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> )			(-.01)		(-.02)		(.00)		(-.02)		(-.01)		(.01)		(.00)		(.02)	

N=123. <sup>+</sup> $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

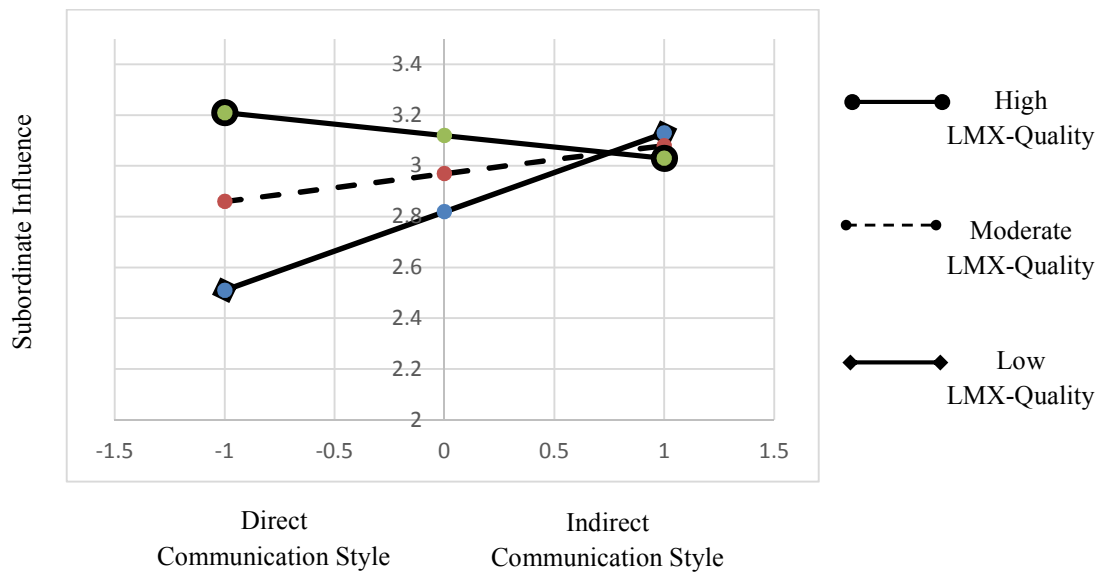


Figure 4.6 Leader-member exchange quality moderates the relationship between manager communication style and subordinate influence.

indirect communication style and influence was positive when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = .35, p < .05$ ), weakened when LMX-quality was moderate ( $\beta = .14, p < .10$ ), and was non-significant when LMX-quality was high ( $\beta = -.06, p = .60$ ), following the same pattern as that found for prohibitive voice. In other words, mean influence levels were significantly higher in high-quality LMX dyads for direct managers (mean difference =  $.59, p < .01$ ) but were not significantly different for indirect managers (mean difference =  $.33, p = .17$ ).

Finally, Model 8 included all main/interactive effects as well as a three-way interaction between promotive voice, LMX-quality, and communication style, which significantly predicted influence ( $\beta = .19, p < .05$ ). A simple slopes test revealed, and Figure 4.7 shows, that the relationship between promotive voice and influence was non-significant except for indirect managers with high-quality LMX ( $\beta = .34, p < .05$ ). This provides some support for Hypothesis 6, as the three-way interaction was significant. The relationship predicted in 6a (i.e., the positive relationship is stronger for more direct managers) was not significant. However, Hypothesis 6b stated that the relationship would be positive for both direct and indirect managers. This is partially supported, as the positive relationship was significant for indirect, but not direct, managers.

I then replicated these analyses with control variables included (Table 4.10). Here, Model 1 is identical to that in Table 4.8. In Model 2, I added promotive voice, which was not significant. In Models 3 and 4, I added LMX-quality and communication style, respectively, neither of which was significant. In Models 5, 6, and 7, I included the interactions between prohibitive voice and LMX-quality, prohibitive voice and communication style, and communication style and LMX-quality, none of which was significant.

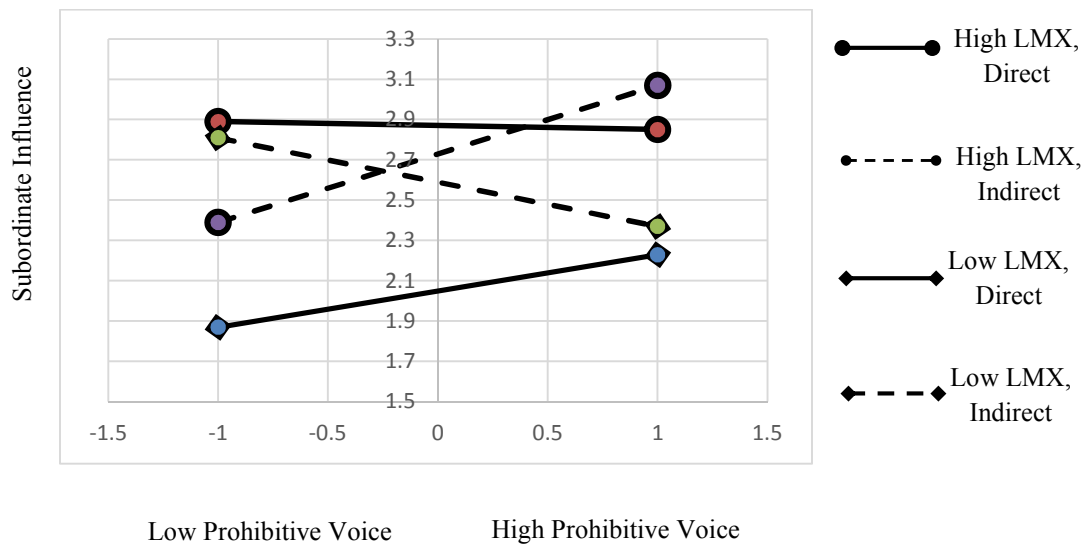


Figure 4.7 Leader-member exchange quality and manager communication style moderate the relationship between subordinate promotive voice and subordinate influence.

Model 8 included all main and interactive effects. Here, the interaction between communication style and LMX-quality approached significance ( $\beta = -.17, p < .10$ ), revealing a similar pattern to that described above and shown in Figure 4.6. Finally, Model 9 included all main/interactive effects as well as a three-way interaction, which approached significance ( $\beta = .17, p < .05$ ) and revealed a similar pattern to that described above and shown in Figure 4.7. Again, there is some partial support for Hypothesis 6.

#### 4.2.3 Main analysis conclusions

Results provided some support for Hypothesis 5, suggesting that a subordinate practicing prohibitive voice is more likely to have influence over managerial decisions when the manager perceives a high-quality relationship with him/her. Whereas voice behavior appears to discourage influence under circumstances of poor relationship quality, it may not harm influence in high-quality relationships. However, this effect did not hold with control variables included in the model.

Although not hypothesized, it may be more useful to interpret the three-way interaction involving prohibitive voice. This interaction was significant both with and without controls, making it the most consistent finding. Here, it seemed that EVT held for indirect, but not direct managers. Under indirect managers, prohibitive voice was detrimental to influence when LMX-quality was low but enhanced influence when LMX-quality was high. For the direct managers, influence was dependent on LMX-quality but seemed ambivalent to prohibitive voice levels. It may be that prohibitive voice is not viewed as great a norm violation to direct managers as it is to indirect managers.

Hypothesis 6 was only slightly supported. Results showed that the expected three-way interaction term significantly predicted influence, but the relationships were not

exactly as stated in the hypothesis. The significant positive relationship between promotive voice and influence under indirect managers when LMX-quality was high was in line with expectations. However, while the other relationships were in alignment with predictions, they were not significant. Perhaps a larger sample would provide more power to detect the significance of smaller effects.

Although not specifically predicted, it was interesting to see that LMX-quality moderated the relationship between manager communication style and subordinate influence (with no controls included). Specifically, the indirect managers appeared to be immune to the negative valence bias of low-quality LMX in allowing subordinates to influence decisions. This is contrary to HLCT, as it implies that indirect managers would be more strongly affected by the context of the relationship.

#### 4.2.4 Additional analyses

I re-ran regression analyses substituting various measures for the independent, moderator, and dependent variables. Independent variable (i.e., voice) substitutes included all subordinate-report voice scales and the revised manager-report scales. Moderator variable (i.e., LMX-quality and manager communication style) substitutes included the subordinate's perspective of LMX-quality, the manager's communication style, psychological safety, and felt obligation; the best fitting manager communication style model from Table 3.3; the *infer meaning*, *avoid conflict*, and *assertive persuasion* dimensions of communication style; self-reported communication style as a single-factor construct; and manager and subordinate relationship context, country of origin, and region of origin. Dependent variable (i.e., influence) substitutes included the manager's view of the subordinate's performance and prosocial motives, as well as the subordinate's



view of his/her own influence. Only significant, relevant findings are reported here in an attempt to avoid redundancy.

Two different interactions resulted from using substitute independent variables. Substituting the subordinate-perspective of the original voice scales, results showed a three-way interactive effect. Specifically, it appeared that when managers perceived low-quality LMX, the relationship between promotive voice and influence was positive for indirect managers and negative for direct managers. When the manager perceived high-quality LMX, the relationship was negative for indirect managers and positive for direct managers. Substituting the revised version of the manager-report voice scales, results showed that the relationship between promotive voice and influence was moderated by LMX-quality ( $\beta = .22, p < .05$ ); the relationship was non-significant for low-quality ( $\beta = -.06, p = .68$ ) and moderate-quality ( $\beta = .15, p = .21$ ) LMX dyads and positive for high-quality LMX dyads ( $\beta = .37, p < .05$ ).

In terms of moderator substitutes, to begin, results of the main analyses were essentially replicated when substituting the single-factor communication style scale. In addition, the interaction between LMX-quality and communication style approached significance when using *assertive persuasion* ( $\beta = -.18, p < .10$ ) and *infer meaning* ( $\beta = -.14, p < .10$ ) to represent the latter and was significant when using *avoid conflict* ( $\beta = -.20, p < .05$ ). Two three-way interactions were also found. Using the subordinate's, rather than the manager's, perspective of LMX-quality showed that the relationship between promotive voice and influence was positive for indirect managers in low-quality LMX relationships but negative in all other cases. Employees appeared most likely to have influence when practicing low levels of promotive voice with indirect managers in high-

quality LMX relationships. The lowest levels of influence came from high levels of promotive voice in high-quality LMX relationships. Using the best model-fit manager communication style measure, results almost perfectly reflected the relationships predicted in Hypothesis 6. When the manager perceived low-quality LMX, the relationship was positive for direct managers and negative for indirect managers (partially supporting 6a). When the manager perceived high-quality LMX, the relationship between promotive voice and influence was positive for both direct and indirect managers (supporting 6b).

When substituting dependent variables, results showed, interestingly, that promotive voice predicted both attributions of prosocial behavior ( $\beta = .22, p < .01$ ) and subordinate performance ( $\beta = .35, p < .01$ ). In addition, LMX-quality moderated the relationship between communication style and subordinate performance ( $\beta = -.21, p < .01$ ), such that the relationship was positive when LMX-quality was low ( $\beta = .31, p < .01$ ), weakened when LMX-quality was moderate ( $\beta = .10, p < .10$ ), and non-significant when LMX-quality was high ( $\beta = -.11, p < .16$ ). Similar to the relationship presented in Figure 4.4, indirect managers seemed to be immune to the potential biases of positive and negative valence.

#### 4.2.5 Additional analyses conclusions

The additional analyses produced several note-worthy findings. To begin, it is interesting that the interaction between communication style and LMX-quality was found again, although here the dependent variable was performance. This study has shown somewhat consistently that LMX-quality matters in a direct manager's evaluations of his/her subordinate's behavior while the same is not true of indirect managers. Also,

Hypothesis 6 was supported when using the best-fitting communication style scale composition from Table 3.3 in place of the original scale. Finally, it is interesting that most scale substitutions did not produce meaningful results. This provides further support for the notion that manager- and subordinate-reported scales behave differently in analyses, and one should not be used in place of the other.

#### 4.3 A Potential Larger Model

When bringing the two models together, it appears as if prohibitive and promotive voice mediate a relationship between subordinate communication style and influence. However, the various moderators in the model suggest a more complex story. Following Edwards and Lambert (2007) and Muller et al. (2005), I conducted moderated mediation analyses to explore the potential larger model in greater detail. The purpose of the analyses was to determine whether manager communication style and relationship factors affected an indirect effect of subordinate communication style on influence.

The classic approach to mediation, outlined by Judd and Kenny (1981) and Baron and Kenny (1986), states that for mediation to exist, four conditions must be met (although some researchers argue that the first step is not necessary; e.g., Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010): the independent variable must have a significant effect on (1) the dependent variable and on (2) the mediating variable, (3) the mediating variable must have a significant effect on the dependent variable, and (4) the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable should be smaller when controlling for the mediating variable. In the current study, the relationships described in each step involve a moderator as well. Thus, interaction terms must be included in each step in addition to the main effects.

Theoretically, the analyses should be run twice: once using the subordinate's view of voice and again using the manager's view, as the two perspectives may have different effects on a subordinate's level of influence. For example, the subordinate may feel as if he/she has voiced without the manager understanding that he/she has done so (especially in the case of an indirect subordinate). The two perspectives differed in their effects in the main analyses above, providing further support for this notion.

I ran various iterations of models using each perspective of voice. For example, some trials included control variables relevant to both mediating and dependent variables, whereas others included only those most relevant to the dependent variable in question (as the mediator serves as the dependent variable in Step 2 of the mediation test). Some trials included psychological safety, felt obligation, and their hypothesized interactions, whereas others did not (the reasoning for the latter being that their moderation effects were not significant in the main analyses above). Finally, I ran regression analyses testing the proposed effects of promotive and prohibitive voice together, and again testing the proposed prohibitive voice effects in separate models from those concerning promotive voice.

None of the moderated mediation tests proved significant. To avoid repetitiveness, I only present the results of one attempt as an example (refer to Table 4.11), this one concerning prohibitive and promotive voice, with analyses run separately for each voice type and including only the minimal number of variables for each. In most cases, one side or the other became non-significant due to either (1) the inclusion of fewer variables, or (2) the use of a different perspective of voice. For example, Table 4.11 shows that the interaction between subordinate communication style and LMX-

Table 4.11 Moderated mediation analysis example

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4a		Step 4b	
	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE	$\beta$	SE
<u>Dependent variable: Influence</u>										
Subordinate communication style	.04	.09					.01	.10	.03	.10
LMX: Subordinate-report	-.05	.09							-.15	.10
Communication style*LMX (Sub)	.08	.09							-.02	.10
Prohibitive voice: Subordinate-report					-.05	.09	-.04	.10		
Promotive voice: Subordinate-report									-.04	.10
LMX: Manager-report					.22*	.09	.23*	.09	.32**	.10
Manager communication Style									.19 <sup>+</sup>	.10
Prohibitive*LMX (Mgr)					.00	.09	.00	.09		
Promotive* LMX (Mgr)									-.05	.09
Promotive* Communication style (Mgr)									-.05	.11
Communication style*LMX (Mgr)									-.23 <sup>+</sup>	.12
Promotive voice*Style*LMX (Mgr)									.04	.13
<u>Dependent variable: Prohibitive voice</u>										
Subordinate communication style					-.31**	.10				
<u>Dependent variable: Promotive voice</u>										
Subordinate communication style					-.24*	.09				
LMX: Subordinate-report					.34**	.09				
Communication style*LMX (Sub)					.03	.09				

N=95. <sup>+</sup>p<.10, \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01.

quality did not predict subordinate-reported promotive voice as it did in the main analyses above. The difference in the current model is that it did not account for the other relationship factors. Also, notice that the interaction between prohibitive voice and manager-reported LMX-quality did not predict influence in the full model analysis (Steps 3 and 4), whereas it did in the main analyses above. This is due to the use of the subordinate's view of voice, whereas the manager's view of voice was used in the main manager-focused analyses. Thus, it appears that although a subordinate's communication style does affect his/her decision to voice and method of voicing (Figure 2.1), and the manager's perceptions of his/her subordinate's voice behavior does affect the level of influence the subordinate is perceived to have (Figure 2.2), it cannot be said that a subordinate's communication style affects his/her level of influence, due to the disagreement in manager and subordinate views of subordinate voice occurrence.

#### Larger model conclusions

Results showed that moderated mediation does not exist and that the full model does not hold together. Although the two halves do hold separately, we cannot extend the findings of one side to the other due to disagreement in manager and subordinate perspectives of voice behavior.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Results of a field study involving 286 subordinates and 123 managers from every world continent (other than Antarctica) supported approximately half of the dissertation's hypotheses. The current chapter first summarizes and discusses the study's findings. Next, limitations and potential directions for future research are presented, followed by a discussion of the implications of the study's findings for both theory and practice. Finally, the dissertation concludes with a summary of the full document.

#### 5.1 Summary of Findings

Three of the study's six hypotheses were supported. Specifically, from the subordinate's view, indirect communication style negatively predicted prohibitive voice (Hypothesis 1), and LMX-quality moderated the relationship between communication style and promotive voice (Hypothesis 2). From the manager's view, both manager communication style and LMX-quality appeared to have an impact on the relationship between each voice type and subordinate influence (partially supporting Hypotheses 5 and 6). Also, though not predicted, results showed that LMX-quality moderated the relationship between manager communication style and subordinate influence. However, results must be interpreted with caution due to low reliability of the communication style measures.

##### 5.1.1 The subordinate's decision to voice

In line with expectations, communication style had a different effect on prohibitive versus promotive voice. Only recently has informal, prosocial voice been broken down into these two categories (Liang et al., 2012); thus, past research involving culture and voice assumed that all informal, prosocial voice was the same. The current dissertation shows that to understand cultural differences in voice behavior, we must consider different manners of voicing. We now see that individuals with more indirect communication styles may be just as likely as others to voice when certain conditions are met.

Specifically, I found that indirect subordinates were less likely than others to voice prohibitive concerns to their managers. This finding held when relationship factors (LMX-quality, psychological safety, and felt obligation for constructive change) were added to the model, suggesting that indirect communication style discourages upward criticism regardless of the context. This finding held when using the manager's perspective of the subordinate's prohibitive voice behavior as well, for both revised and original versions, suggesting that both direct and indirect forms of voicing were taken into account. Findings also held when using the single-factor version of the communication style scale as well as when substituting individual high-reliability dimensions in its place. This is in alignment with HLCT (Hall, 1976) and Sully de Luque and Sommer's (2000) feedback model, as each suggests that more indirect individuals will avoid damaging interpersonal harmony and face at all costs, especially where a superior is the message recipient.

However, the same was not true concerning promotive suggestions, as the indirect subordinate was not significantly different from others when voicing suggestions to the



manager when LMX-quality between them was high. Specifically, the indirect subordinate was less likely than others to voice when LMX-quality was low but was not significantly different from others at moderate- and high-levels of LMX-quality. This finding held when using the revised promotive voice scale, as well as when substituting the single-factor version of communication style and the individual high-reliability dimensions. HLCT succeeds here again, as the context of the manager/subordinate relationship appears to be a key factor in determining the communication behavior of the indirect subordinate (i.e., Hall, 1976).

This finding contradicts the message of past research claims that more group-focused individuals tend not to voice upwards (e.g., Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000; Thomas & Au, 2002). Whereas prohibitive voice may disrupt interpersonal harmony, promotive voice is less likely to do so (Liang et al., 2012). Thus, when the relationship suggests in-group status, the indirect communicator may feel comfortable to voice in a way that is less likely to cause harm to the relationship.

In the main analyses, neither psychological safety nor felt obligation moderated the relationship between communication style and promotive voice. It may be that the sense of loyalty, respect, positive affect, and general in-group inclusion that make up high-quality LMX provide the felt motivation and ability needed to voice, making the other factors redundant. On the other hand, psychological safety did have a moderating effect when the manager's view of the subordinate's communication style was used in place of the self-report measure. Indirect subordinates were less likely than others to voice in contexts of low safety but were as likely as others to do so when safety was moderate or high (providing some support for Hypothesis 3). It is interesting that this was

found for other-, but not self-, report of subordinate communication style. It may be that there are aspects of ourselves more accurately observed from an outside perspective; this is discussed further in the Limitations section below.

In summary, the subordinate-focused analyses support some past research claims but refute others. It can be said that this dissertation's findings add a caveat to assumptions concerning the role of culture in voice behavior. Past research suggests that subordinates with more group/other-focused cultural influences are significantly less likely than others to voice upwards to their managers. Here, on the other hand, we see that such individuals do voice, but that they are more judicious about when and how they do so.

#### 5.1.2 The Effect of Voice on Influence

One might expect that higher levels of voice lead to greater levels of influence, simply because a suggestion or criticism cannot influence a manager's decisions if they are never expressed to him/her. However, the findings of the current dissertation suggest that this may not be the case. Although results here were somewhat inconclusive, some analyses suggested that the effect of a subordinate's voice on influence depends on how the manager perceives the relationship between them, and potentially on the manager's communication style as well.

In models both with and without control variables, results showed a three-way interaction involving prohibitive voice. Specifically, the relationship between prohibitive voice and influence was affected by LMX-quality for indirect, but not direct, managers, such that prohibitive voice enhanced influence in high-quality LMX dyads but deterred it in low-quality LMX dyads. While Hypothesis 5 did not include manager communication

style as a moderator, the finding is in alignment with EVT (Burgoon, 1978). As the criticism encompassed in prohibitive voice may appear threatening (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Carver et al., 1985; Sachs, 1982), it acts as a violation of the manager's norms. In low-quality LMX relationships, negative valence was already highlighted; thus, indirect managers were more likely associate further negative valence to voice behavior in this context. However, with this negative bias removed, managers in high-quality LMX relationships were more likely to see the subordinate as influential as levels of prohibitive voice grew. Thus, these managers were able to make use of criticism rather than dismissing it.

The predicted three-way interactive effect of promotive voice, LMX-quality, and manager communication style on influence merely approached significance in the main analyses. However, this effect strengthened when substituting the best-fitting manager communication style scale from the Measures section (Table 3.3), supporting Hypothesis 6. Following EVT, higher levels of promotive voice led to lower levels of influence when the voice served as a norm violation (i.e., when the manager was more indirect) in a low valence (i.e., low-quality LMX) context but led to higher levels of influence when it was not seen as a norm violation (i.e., when the manager was more direct). In a high valence context, both direct and indirect managers appeared to see voice in a positive light, as influence increased with voice levels in these relationships.

In addition, the main analyses showed that the interaction between LMX-quality and manager communication style affected influence. In low- and moderate-quality LMX dyads, indirect managers were more likely than direct managers to see their subordinates as influential; in other words, direct, but not indirect, managers were potentially affected

by the bias of negative valence. This effect appeared again when using performance evaluations as the dependent variable. This counters theory, in a sense, as HLCT implies that indirect managers should be more strongly swayed by the context.

### 5.1.3 A Potential Larger Model

I attempted to use moderated mediation analysis to explore a potential larger model, taking both manager and subordinate perspectives into account. Although pieces of both the subordinate- and manager-focused models were supported separately, the two pieces did not come together as a whole. Thus, although manager- and subordinate-reports of subordinate voice behavior were significantly correlated, they were not similar enough to allow the two sides of the model to integrate. This is in alignment with past research, as Burriss et al. (2013) demonstrated that self- and manager-report voice were distinct constructs with differing outcomes. Future research should explore which is the more accurate perspective, perhaps through multi-rater observation.

### 5.1.4 Culture and Communication Style

It is interesting that country did not predict communication style. Recall also that a regional variable, coded based on communication style tendencies in various country groups, was also not a significant predictor. Rather, relationship context and power distance (both considered cultural values) were significant antecedents for both manager and subordinate communication style. Thus, as shown by Gudykunst et al. (1996), one's individual-level cultural values are more likely to explain one's communication style than is one's geographic location (at least, at the nation- or region-level). It is likely that various factors, such as generation, socioeconomic status, race, and tighter geographic regions (such as county, as suggested by Littrell, 2012) combine to influence

communication style development. This supports the notion that research should re-examine what exactly is meant by the term *culture*, as it is clearly not a reference solely to nationally-influenced differences. Also, recall that self- and other-reports of communication style were not significantly correlated, for either managers or subordinates. Finally, recall that, due to low reliability of the communication style scale and additional variable scales, true relationships may be underestimated here. This is discussed further in the Limitations section below.

## 5.2 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although the field study did produce significant results, several limitations exist in its participant population, procedure, and measures, each of which should be addressed by future research.

To begin, the study's total sample had many strengths, but flaws in the population should be noted as well. One limitation of the current study was the voluntary sample, which may have led to biases in both LMX-quality and voice. Subordinates completed surveys with the knowledge that their managers would be questioned about their perspective of the relationship as well. Many subordinates may not have wanted to bother their managers with this task, due to fear of manager annoyance or possible negative consequences. For example, in a low LMX-quality relationship, the subordinate may expect the manager to suspect that he/she was vilified in the subordinate's survey; thus, the subordinate would want to refrain from alerting the manager to his/her participation.

Also, survey completion is, in and of itself, an expression of voice. Thus, subordinate participants may have been more likely than subordinate non-participants to voice in the workplace. The data did not indicate strong biases, as means for subordinate

LMX-quality, prohibitive voice, and promotive voice (3.68, 3.14, and 3.62, respectively) were not extreme in comparison to other variables, nor were their standard deviations (.86, .74, and .82, respectively). However, future research should incorporate another method in which managers are not alerted to subordinate participation. For example, a laboratory method may be used in which manager/subordinate status is assigned and LMX-quality is primed.

In addition, the use of three very different samples, with different incentive structures and levels of internal support, may have brought confounding factor effects which were not apparent. Recall that between-sample differences were found for at least one measure of voice, LMX-quality, and influence. It may be that these differences were merely symptoms of unmeasured factors that may have otherwise influenced the results. For example, both managers and subordinates in Sample B reported lower levels of subordinate influence than was reported in the other samples. Could it be that other factors, such as organizational culture or upward-feedback-inhibiting policies, caused influence levels to be lower at this company, and could these factors have had an impact on other key variables of this study? Two types of studies may help us to resolve this issue. First, a larger study should be conducted including at least 30 companies with at least 30 participants from each. This satisfies the 30-30 rule for random coefficients modeling (Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000), allowing for the detection of within-company/sample variation effects on individual-level relationships. Second, as the field progresses and more studies are conducted, a meta-analysis may allow for the detection of trends across samples.

In addition, the manager/subordinate dyads included in this study were not ideal. A sample with half of the manager/subordinate pairs from similar regions and half from different regions would have provided for cleaner comparisons. In the current study, managers and subordinates were from different continents in 42 percent of the subordinate sample and 35 percent of the manager sample. Also, 62 percent of the managers were from North America with the next largest group being Europeans, giving the manager side of the sample a Western bias.

It may be that many of the participants considered themselves and their subordinates or managers to be indirect communicators compared to the very direct individuals around them. For example, for those from the Western world, it may be that many of these participants are reported to be indirect communicators but are actually much more direct than the Easterners in the sample. Similarly, the participants from the Eastern world may have seen themselves and their subordinates or managers as being very direct compared to their peers and thus rated themselves accordingly. I attempted to prevent this issue by using a multi-national organization and multi-cultural academic departments, such that indirect and direct communicators would have prior exposure to one another, ideally creating a more accurate sense of self-awareness within a global community. However, this sense of awareness may not have been present. Future researchers may wish to use observational measures, rather than self- and other-report, to capture communication style when using a multi-national sample. Researchers may also want to incorporate a meta-cognitive control variable to capture the awareness component as well.

Perhaps the biggest limitation of the current study was the low reliability of the communication style scales. While the seven dimensions generally showed high reliability and the factor structure fit well in the original validation study (Adair et al., Under Review), the same was not true in the current study, especially for the manager sample. It may be that the busy managers in this sample did not take the time to read through the items closely, or it may be that reliability is underestimated due to the multidimensionality of the construct (Schmitt, 1996). Regardless, low internal consistency reliability suggests that measurement error may have distorted true relationships. On the one hand, this could mean that the relationships are actually stronger than reported here and that relationships predicted in unsupported hypotheses simply could not be detected. On the other hand, however, it may also mean that the relationships that were detected here were merely the result of measurement error.

In addition, many of the control variables had low reliabilities. It is interesting that the lowest coefficient alphas were seen in the cultural variable scales, which were pilot tested to ensure that reliable items were selected for the larger study. For example, the power distance measure had a coefficient alpha of .09 for the managers, despite its strong reliability in the pilot study (.73) and in the main study's subordinate sample (.70). Independence and interdependence also had low reliabilities in the main study but showed strong reliabilities ( $\alpha > .70$ ) in the pilot test. I analyzed the coefficient alpha of each of these variables broken out by sample, thinking that perhaps Sample B would have alpha levels similar to those from the pilot test (as both samples consisted of mainly United States participants); this did not explain the difference. It may be that, for the purposes of the current study, college students were not comparable to seasoned



employees. Future research should include multiple measures of these cultural variables to determine which has the most consistent reliability across a variety of samples.

Finally, the current study does not address group- or organizational-level implications of the findings. Does the make-up of the group/workforce, in terms of culturally-influenced communication norms, values, and behavior, affect group/firm performance? Does the amount of influence subordinates have over their managers impact group- and organization-level factors? Future research should explore such questions among both multi-national and domestic organizations.

Despite the limitations of the study's methods, its strengths should not be taken for granted. For example, the final dataset included participants from six of the seven world continents. In addition, the three samples allowed for comparison of individuals from/living in the same country, from different countries but living in the same country, and from/living in countries around the world. This makes the study's findings generalizable to a much broader population than those from studies comparing two countries, with participants within countries working in a single company.

## 5.3 Implications

### 5.3.1 Theoretical Implications

To begin, the finding that neither country nor region predicted indirect communication style provides further evidence that research conceptualizing culture at the country-level (e.g., Hofstede, 1980) should be re-examined. Also, neither country nor region predicted voice, which is counter to past research (Botero & Van Dyne, 1998; Thomas & Au, 2002). The current study involved participants from over forty countries, in comparison to previous studies that compared samples from two countries. This more

global perspective suggests that perhaps it was the samples themselves, rather than the countries from which they were drawn, that drove previous findings. As the current dissertation used samples from three very different sources, with participants from multiple countries within two of the samples, its findings should be more generalizable. Rather than varying by country or region, indirect communication style was predicted by concern for the relationship (i.e., relationship context) and attention to hierarchy (i.e., power distance). This further supports the notion that researchers should turn away from country comparisons and focus more on the individual's own values, norms, and beliefs where culturally-influenced behaviors are concerned.

The main theoretical implication of this study in terms of the subordinate's decision to voice is that, contrary to past research, indirect subordinates in the current study did express upward suggestions to their managers. The study also showed that voice can have positive or negative effects on influence, depending on one's relationship with the manager. Recall that Kacmar et al. (2003) found different relationships between communication frequency and performance ratings for high- versus low-quality LMX participants, such that frequency positively predicted performance when LMX-quality was high and negatively predicted performance when it was low. A similar relationship was found in the current study as well, with LMX-quality moderating the relationship between prohibitive voice and influence. This supports the notion that one should first establish a solid relationship before attempting to provide upward criticism. Finally, an important implication for theory is that one's perspective of his/her own norms, relationships, and behaviors is often very different from the outside perspective of his/her superiors or subordinates (Burris et al., 2013; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Researchers must

take into account the notion that theoretical arguments made concerning one side of a dyadic relationship may not hold for the other.

### 5.3.2 Practical Implications

Employee input has positive implications for the individual, by enhancing positive attitudes (Frese et al., 1999; Loher et al., 1985; Spencer, 1986), and for the organization, by preventing mistakes and improving processes and learning (Detert & Burris, 2007; Edmondson, 1999, 2003; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Nemeth, 1997; Schwartz & Wald, 2003; Takeuchi et al., 2012). The latter may be especially true when input represents the perspectives of a diverse workforce (McLeod et al., 1996; Olson et al., 2007; Richard, 2000). The current dissertation addressed both sides of the input process, namely input sharing and input use, resulting in interesting implications for practical use.

This dissertation revealed that managers who are unconcerned with establishing downward relationships may not hear a wide spectrum of opinions from their subordinates. In this context, those who choose to voice (in terms of both suggestions and concerns) may include only subordinates who are more direct, and perhaps less concerned with interpersonal harmony. Because these individuals are likely to have other values in common (for example, low power distance and low relationship context), their input may be biased. To gather input that reflects the values and perceptions of all employees, managers must build high-quality relationships with all subordinates where possible.

In addition, the study showed that managers are selective in the criticism they accept from below. Rather than using input from all employees, managers were less

likely to report a subordinate to have influence over decisions the more he/she perceived the subordinate to voice prohibitive concerns – when LMX-quality was low. It appears that managers can accept this criticism when the relationship is of at least moderate quality. At least in the case of indirect managers, individuals appear to be open to criticism when it is coming from a subordinate they have positive affect, loyalty, and respect towards. In addition, results showed that direct managers were more likely to be subject to the bias effects of low-quality LMX. Taken together, this information suggests that managers should be aware of their own biases towards certain subordinates, as they may be deaf to potentially useful input when coming from a disfavored employee. Also, subordinates should make great attempts to build high-quality relationships with their managers so that their voices are more likely to be heard.

#### 5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, the current dissertation contributes to the Human Resources, Organizational Behavior, Communications, and International Management literatures by demonstrating that, contrary to past research, individuals with stronger contextual cultural values may be just as likely as others to practice workplace voice, and that assumptions should not be made about individual norms and behaviors based on one's country or region of origin. Subordinate influence is more likely to occur when managers and subordinates build high-quality relationships with one another, providing the in-group status needed for indirect communicators to voice and the positive biases needed for managers to implement criticism that may otherwise be difficult to hear. Future research should address group- and organization-level effects of voice and influence from a diverse employee population.

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## APPENDIX A

### SCALE INFORMATION

Table A.1 Communication style\*: Self-report

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<u>Use Feelings &amp; Emotions</u> -Feelings are a valuable source of information. -I orient to people through my emotions. -I trust my feelings to guide my behavior.
<u>Inferring Meaning</u> -I catch on to what others mean even when they do not say it directly. -I am able to recognize others' subtle and indirect messages. -Even if I do not receive a clear response from others, I can understand what they intended.
<u>Ambiguity to Communication</u> -I use silence to avoid upsetting others when we communicate. -I avoid clear-cut expressions of feelings when I communicate with others. -I use silence to imply my opinions.
<u>Inferring Feelings</u> -I can tell when someone has something to tell me but is apprehensive about discussing it. -I am very good at knowing the feelings other people are experiencing. -I can tell from another person's behavior whether he or she likes me.
<u>Avoid Conflict</u> -When I argue, I avoid confrontation. -When I disagree with someone, I avoid direct conflict. -I generally avoid argument.
<u>Avoid Disagreement</u> -I try to stay away from disagreement with another person. -I try to keep my disagreement with others to myself in order to avoid hurt feelings. -I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges.
<u>Assertive Persuasion</u> -I argue my case to show the merits of my position. <sup>R</sup> -I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue. <sup>R</sup> -I assert my wishes. <sup>R</sup>

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\*Adair et al., (Under Review). <sup>R</sup>Reverse-scored.

Table A.2 Communication style\*: Other-report

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Use Feelings & Emotion

- Feelings are a valuable source of information for (my manager/this employee).
- (My manager/this employee) orients to people through emotions.
- (My manager/this employee) trusts feelings to guide his/her behavior.

Inferring Meaning

- (My manager/this employee) catches on to what others mean even when they do not say it directly.
- (My manager/this employee) is able to recognize others' subtle and indirect messages.
- Even if (my manager/this employee) does not receive a clear response from others, he/she can understand what they intended.

Ambiguity to Communication

- (My manager/this employee) uses silence to avoid upsetting others when communicating.
- (My manager/this employee) avoids clear-cut expressions of feelings when communicating with others.
- (My manager/this employee) uses silence to imply opinions.

Inferring Feelings

- (My manager/this employee) can tell when someone has something to tell him/her but is apprehensive about discussing it.
- (My manager/this employee) is very good at knowing the feelings other people are experiencing.
- (My manager/this employee) can tell from another person's behavior whether the other person likes him/her.

Avoid Conflict

- (My manager/this employee) avoids confrontation when arguing.
- (My manager/this employee) avoids direct conflict when he/she disagrees with someone.
- (My manager/this employee) generally avoids argument.

Avoid Disagreement

- (My manager/this employee) tries to stay away from disagreement with another person.
- (My manager/this employee) tries to keep his/her disagreement with others to him/herself in order to avoid hurt feelings.
- (My manager/this employee) tries to avoid unpleasant exchanges.

Assertive Persuasion

- (My manager/this employee) argues his/her case to show the merits of his/her position.<sup>R</sup>
  - (My manager/this employee) is generally firm in pursuing his/her side of the issue.<sup>R</sup>
  - (My manager/this employee) asserts his/her wishes.<sup>R</sup>
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\*Adair et al., (Under Review). <sup>R</sup>Reverse-scored.

Table A.3 Voice

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Promotive Voice: Original\*

- Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.
- Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.
- Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.
- Proactively voice out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.
- Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.

Prohibitive Voice: Original\*

- Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.
- Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.
- Voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.
- Point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.
- Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management.

Promotive Voice: Revised\*\*

- Attempt to develop, and try to suggest, ideas for issues that may influence the unit.
- Try to express ideas for new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.
- Attempt to communicate suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.
- Try to share constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.
- Attempt to express suggestions to improve the unit's operation.

Prohibitive Voice: Revised\*\*

- Try to help colleagues to be aware of undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.
  - Attempt to help others to notice problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.
  - Try to help others to understand how some negative behaviors might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if this would embarrass them.
  - Attempt to help others to see problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with them.
  - Try to help management to see coordination problems when they exist in the workplace.
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*\*Liang et al. (2012), \*\*Adapted for this study from Liang et al. (2012).*

Table A.4 Subordinate influence\*

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<u>Self-Report</u>
-How much influence do you exert over your manager's decisions at work?
-How much pull, weight, or clout do you have over your manager's decisions?
-How much general ability do you have to get your manager to do something he/she might not otherwise do?
<u>Other-Report</u>
-How much influence does this employee exert over your decisions at work?
-How much pull, weight, or clout does this employee have over your decisions?
-How much general ability does this employee have to get you to do something you might not otherwise do?

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\*Adapted for this study from Anderson et al. (2008), Brass (1984), and Mowday (1978).

Table A.5 Leader-member exchange\*

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<u>Subordinate Report</u>
<u>Affect</u> -I like my manager very much as a person. -My manager is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend. -My manager is a lot of fun to work with.
<u>Loyalty</u> -My manager would defend my actions to others, even without complete knowledge of the issue in questions. -My manager would come to my defense if I was “attacked” by others. -My manager would defend me to others if I made an honest mistake.
<u>Contribution</u> -I would do work for my manager that goes beyond what is specified by my job description. -I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my manager.
<u>Professional Respect</u> -I am impressed with my manager’s knowledge of his/her job. -I respect my manager’s knowledge and competence on the job. -I admire my manager’s professional skills.

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<u>Manager Report</u>
<u>Affect</u> -I like this employee very much as a person. -This employee is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend. -This employee is a lot of fun to work with.
<u>Loyalty</u> -I would defend this employee’s actions to others, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question. -I would come to this employee’s defense if he/she was “attacked” by others. -I would defend this employee to others if he/she made an honest mistake.
<u>Contribution</u> -I would do work for this employee that goes beyond what is specified in my job description. -I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of this employee.
<u>Professional Respect</u> -I am impressed with this employee’s knowledge of his/her job. -I respect this employee’s knowledge and competence on the job. -I admire this employee’s professional skills.

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\*Liden and Maslyn (1998).

Table A.6 Psychological safety\*

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-In my work unit, I can express my true feelings regarding my job.  
-In my work unit, I can freely express my thoughts.  
-In my work unit, expressing your true feelings is welcomed.  
-Nobody in my unit will pick on me even if I have different opinions.  
-I'm worried that expressing true thoughts in my workplace would do harm to myself.<sup>R</sup>

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\*Liang et al. (2012). <sup>R</sup>Reverse-scored.

Table A.7 Felt obligation for constructive change\*

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-I owe it to the organization to do whatever I can to come up with ideas/solutions to achieve its goals.  
-I have an obligation to the organization to voice out my own opinions.  
-I feel a personal obligation to produce constructive suggestions to help the organization achieve its goals.  
-I owe it to the organization to do what I can to come up with brilliant ideas, to ensure that our customers are well served and satisfied.  
-I would feel an obligation to take time from my personal schedule to generate ideas/solutions for the organization if it is needed.

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\*Liang et al. (2012).



Table A.8 Perceived voice constructiveness\*

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-This employee's comments are generally constructive.
-This employee's comments are likely to enhance our unit's performance.

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*\*Whiting et al. (2012).*

Table A.9 Perceived voice feasibility\*

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-The ideas of this employee are typically feasible to adopt.
-The ideas of this employee typically could be implemented without a lot of effort or cost.
-The ideas of this employee are typically practical.

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*\*Litchfield, Fan, & Brown (2011).*

Table A.10 Power distance\*

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<p><u>Pilot test</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-In most situation, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.</li><li>-In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.</li><li>-Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.</li><li>-Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.</li><li>-Employees should not express disagreement with their managers.</li><li>-Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.</li><li>-Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.</li><li>-A company's rules should not be broken – not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest.</li></ul>
<p><u>Main study</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.</li><li>-Employees should not express disagreement with their managers.</li><li>-Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.</li></ul>

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\*Kirkman et al. (2009).

Table A.11 Independence\*

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<p><u>Pilot test</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-I'd rather say "No" directly than risk being misunderstood.</li><li>-Speaking up during class is not a problem for me.</li><li>-Having a lively imagination is important to me.</li><li>-I am comfortable being singled out for praise or rewards.</li><li>-I am the same person at home that I am at school.</li><li>-Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.</li><li>-I act the same way no matter who I am with.</li><li>-I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am.</li><li>-I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.</li><li>-I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.</li><li>-My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.</li><li>-I value being in good health above everything.</li></ul>
<p><u>Main study</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.</li><li>-My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.</li><li>-I value being in good health above everything.</li></ul>

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\*Singelis (1994).

Table A.12 Interdependence\*

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Pilot test

- I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.
- It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.
- My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.
- I would offer my seat on a bus to my professor.
- I respect people who are modest about themselves.
- I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.
- I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.
- I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.
- It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.
- I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.
- If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.
- Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid argument.

Main study

- It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.
  - I respect people who are modest about themselves/
  - It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.
- 

\*Singelis (1994).

Table A.13 Relationship Context\*

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Attention to Status/Hierarchy

- I always begin the conversations with a formal greeting.
- It is important to know someone's position so you can greet them accordingly.
- When addressing someone older than me, I tend to be rather formal.
- When addressing someone of a higher rank than me, I tend to be rather formal.

Importance of Network

- When doing business, I am most comfortable relying on my network of contacts.
- I feel more comfortable doing business with someone if we both know the same people.

Face Saving

- If I lose face in a situation, it makes me annoyed.
- If I lose face in a situation, it makes me unhappy.
- I do everything to avoid losing face.

Importance of Familiarity

- I feel more secure when I work with someone I know well than with someone I don't know.
  - A person with whom you have had a long relationship is likely to help you when you need it.
  - The people I trust are those with whom I have had long-lasting relationships.
- 

\*Adair et al. (Under Review).

Table A.14 Performance evaluation\*

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- This employee is one of the best in his/her work unit.
- This employee is outstanding at his/her job.
- This employee has outstanding workplace skills.
- This employee is very good at creating positive opportunities at work.

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\*Mackenzie et al. (1991).

Table A.15 Attributions of prosocial motives\*

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- This employee does things to benefit his/her coworkers.
- This employee wants to have a positive impact on others.
- This employee is concerned for the welfare of his/her coworkers.

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\*Whiting et al. (2012).

## APPENDIX B

### SCALE DEVELOPMENT AND REVISIONS

#### B.1 Pilot Test #1: Revised Voice Scales and Exploratory Variables

I created an adaptation of the promotive and prohibitive items intending to reflect more indirect manners of voicing and examined the revised scales in a sample of 53 undergraduate students at the Moore School of Business. The students were asked to complete a survey including measures of original (Liang et al., 2012) and revised voice items, indirect communication style (Adair et al., Under Review), direct communication style (Park et al., 2012), power distance (Kirkman et al., 2009), independence (Singelis, 1994), interdependence (Singelis, 1994), and relationship context (Adair et al., Under Review).

Table B.1 presents summary statistics for all variables. This table shows that the original and revised promotive voice scales were significantly correlated with one another, as were the original and revised prohibitive voice scales ( $p < .01$ ). I conducted an EFA to determine whether the revised and original voice items loaded onto their respective factors (refer to Table B.2). Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma (2003) recommended rejecting items with factor loadings lower than 0.50. According to this standard, four of the five original promotive voice items loaded on one factor, and all five of the revised promotive items loaded on a separate factor. This implies that the two constructs are distinct and hold together fairly well. In terms of prohibitive voice, neither

Table B.1 Summary statistics for pilot test #1

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>
1. Promotive voice	3.71	0.76	(0.84)									
2. Prohibitive voice	3.20	0.75	0.55**	(0.77)								
3. Indirect style	3.33	0.43	0.15	0.17	(0.77)							
4. Direct style	3.79	0.74	0.44**	0.33*	0.08	(0.85)						
5. Power distance	2.93	0.63	-0.23	-0.13	0.03	-0.02	(0.77)					
6. Independence	3.51	0.63	0.11	0.26	-0.07	0.35**	0.34*	(0.82)				
7. Interdependence	3.58	0.52	0.50**	0.37**	0.46**	0.28*	-0.09	0.00	(0.77)			
8. Relationship context	3.65	0.54	0.32*	0.11	0.19	0.24	-0.19	-0.02	0.59**	(0.80)		
9. Revised promotive	3.75	0.72	0.42**	0.23	0.19	0.36**	0.06	0.42**	0.38**	0.40**	(0.84)	
10. Revised prohibitive	3.40	0.81	0.39**	0.54**	0.22	0.27**	0.01	0.45**	0.41**	0.16	0.70**	(0.83)

N=53. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , (standardized alphas reported along diagonals)



Table B.2 Exploratory factor analysis of all voice items\*\*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
<u>Promotive Voice: Original</u>							
Item #1	-0.02001	0.59487*	0.11599	0.45449	0.25151	0.15713	0.11044
Item #2	0.07802	0.42120	0.21967	0.11989	0.08341	0.14630	0.61549*
Item #3	0.20807	0.51938*	0.47432	-0.07060	-0.30075	0.02803	0.20500
Item #4	0.10087	0.82535*	0.12884	0.10518	0.10001	0.08386	-0.00301
Item #5	0.08000	0.82980*	0.09152	0.24681	-0.05894	0.10338	0.17889
<u>Prohibitive Voice: Original</u>							
Item #1	-0.04016	0.15366	0.67069*	0.16651	0.24994	0.19304	0.06951
Item #2	-0.02048	0.22938	0.34544	0.50085*	0.05915	0.03637	0.27521
Item #3	0.09917	0.09896	0.67255*	0.16060	0.06775	0.12016	0.04833
Item #4	0.04040	0.20865	0.26583	0.74723*	-0.01906	0.15729	0.00391
Item #5	-0.10308	0.14666	0.31222	0.27489	0.01658	0.69562*	0.11104
<u>Promotive Voice: Revised</u>							
Item #1	0.51283*	0.31526	-0.10555	0.22953	0.06848	0.55736*	0.27672
Item #2	0.50913*	0.37941	-0.19455	-0.08875	0.40963	0.22786	0.24006
Item #3	0.84266*	-0.08894	0.05110	0.12574	0.10796	0.09709	0.02735
Item #4	0.52876*	0.04591	-0.13654	0.48797	0.22832	0.11243	0.33644
Item #5	0.77164*	0.24807	0.14001	-0.07078	0.10379	-0.09555	-0.01426
<u>Prohibitive Voice: Revised</u>							
Item #1	0.39822	0.31580	0.25062	0.03457	0.48179	0.24966	0.07033
Item #2	0.45974	-0.03341	0.20574	0.24769	0.36493	0.29359	0.45522
Item #3	0.28767	-0.08362	0.37469	0.12419	0.63535*	-0.03299	0.13738
Item #4	0.28740	0.14524	0.00475	0.54910*	0.49586	0.25018	-0.01562
Item #5	0.44337	0.09681	0.33583	0.02151	0.26812	0.58472*	0.03743

N= 53. \*item retained, \*\*all items are listed in Table A.3.

the original nor the revised items indicated a solid factor structure. The original prohibitive items were split across three factors, as were the revised items (two of the revised items did not load on any factor). However, these findings do suggest that the prohibitive and promotive items capture different constructs. I ran an additional EFA including only prohibitive voice items (refer to Table B.3). This time, all five revised prohibitive items loaded onto a single factor, and original prohibitive items loaded onto a second and third factor. This supports the notion that the revised and original scales capture separate constructs.

In an attempt to prevent participant fatigue in the larger study, I used the pilot sample described above to develop abbreviated versions of some of the longer control variable scales (namely, power distance, independence, interdependence, and relationship context). For power distance, independence, and interdependence, I ran EFAs for each (Tables B.4, B.5, and B.6, respectively) and selected the three items that loaded the highest on the main factor. The standardized coefficient alphas for the new 3-item scales were  $\alpha = .73$  for power distance,  $\alpha = .72$  for independence, and  $\alpha = .79$  for interdependence.

The original relationship context scale included eight dimensions, with 33 total items. Due to potential participant fatigue, I chose to include half of the dimensions in the current study. Four dimensions (attention to status/hierarchy, importance of network, face saving, and importance of familiarity) were included based on their theoretical relevance to the subordinate-view model hypotheses, and four dimensions (humbleness in communication, truth bending, initiating conversation, and work/life mix) were excluded due to either theoretical overlap with communication style or irrelevance concerning the

Table B.3 Exploratory factor analysis of prohibitive voice items\*\*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
<u>Prohibitive Voice: Original</u>			
Item #1	0.26855	0.60591*	0.24284
Item #2	0.17602	0.27689	0.52759*
Item #3	0.20888	0.60964*	0.20450
Item #4	0.10894	0.25458	0.69649*
Item #5	0.15385	0.50462*	0.42683
<u>Prohibitive Voice: Revised</u>			
Item #1	0.69412*	0.24710	0.08387
Item #2	0.70638*	0.16379	0.26222
Item #3	0.64822*	0.18840	0.12039
Item #4	0.56326*	0.02461	0.50253*
Item #5	0.60345*	0.42940	0.09763

N=53. \*item retained, \*\*all items are listed in Table A.3.

Table B.4 Exploratory factor analysis of power distance items\*\*

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Item #1	0.47047	0.42074
Item #2	-0.06042	0.61561*
Item #3	0.56279*	0.18582
Item #4	0.66730*	0.09180
Item #5	0.68616*	0.03205
Item #6	0.35443	0.76848*
Item #7	0.65262*	0.14830
Item #8	0.12926	0.43545

N=53. \*item retained, \*\*all items are listed in Table A.10.

Table B.5 Exploratory factor analysis of independence items\*\*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Item #1	0.24633	0.53624*	0.19620
Item #2	0.21396	0.48422	0.38382
Item #3	0.53125*	0.47874	-0.01666
Item #4	0.29545	0.42125	0.29106
Item #5	0.33163	0.16800	0.74094*
Item #6	0.51005*	-0.07685	0.14699
Item #7	-0.01691	0.42094	0.56075*
Item #8	-0.03566	0.47428	0.04134
Item #9	0.10939	0.55807*	0.21715
Item #10	0.70890*	0.08919	0.24241
Item #11	0.65160*	0.20323	-0.05229
Item #12	0.53998*	0.18800	0.19028

N=53. \*item retained, \*\*all items are listed in Table A.11.

Table B.6 Exploratory factor analysis of interdependence items\*\*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Item #1	0.60480*	0.48403	-0.01848	-0.24133
Item #2	0.76598*	0.12069	0.03684	0.05347
Item #3	0.07574	0.43591	0.42160	0.21787
Item #4	0.65463*	0.35870	0.04314	-0.25269
Item #5	0.74818*	0.11469	-0.15090	0.15999
Item #6	0.27139	0.58567*	0.39056	0.14782
Item #7	-0.06127	0.16144	0.76988*	0.13205
Item #8	0.15161	0.66758*	-0.00379	0.02653
Item #9	0.67369*	0.04511	-0.11995	0.05084
Item #10	0.46884	0.35106	0.22541	-0.23927
Item #11	-0.09461	-0.01278	0.59128*	0.02686
Item #12	0.01631	0.05117	0.12434	0.46457

N=53. \*item retained, \*\*all items are listed in Table A.12.

hypotheses in question. An example item is “I feel more comfortable doing business with someone if we both know the same people.” Although the full (four-factor) relationship context scale showed strong reliability ( $\alpha = .80$ ), the individual dimensions did not. Also, while an EFA showed that the items loaded onto four factors, no more than two items for each dimension held together on the same factor (refer to Table B.7 below). I therefore chose to include all 12 items in the main study surveys, rather than further abbreviating the scale.

### B.2 Pilot Test #2: Subordinate Influence over Managerial Decisions

I surveyed 122 Moore School of Business students (57 undergraduate, 65 graduate) to determine whether influence scale items intended to be used in the main study were reliable and behaved as expected in relation to other study variables. Participants completed on-line measures of promotive and prohibitive voice (Liang et al., 2012) and indirect communication style (Adair et al., Under Review). Summary statistics are presented in Table B.8 below.

As expected, influence was positively correlated with both promotive and prohibitive voice. Recall that hypotheses 5 and 6 predict positive relationships between voice and influence; LMX-quality and manager communication style should strengthen/weaken this positive effect. Influence was not significantly correlated with subordinate communication style. This is also to be expected, since there are numerous moderating/mediating effects predicted to occur between the two.

Table B.7 Exploratory factor analysis of relationship context items\*\*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
<u>Attention to Status/Hierarchy</u>				
Item #1	0.00375	0.70689*	-0.02960	0.23647
Item #2	0.05463	0.04357	0.66619*	-0.01039
Item #3	0.37013	0.25425	0.28775	0.11078
Item #4	0.21131	0.09438	0.69262*	0.18322
<u>Importance of Network</u>				
Item #1	0.30538	0.55546*	0.24642	-0.26558
Item #2	0.46019	0.36815	0.01996	0.12474
<u>Face Saving</u>				
Item #1	0.14137	0.13893	-0.02309	0.62898*
Item #2	0.13016	0.10723	0.19623	0.72743*
Item #3	0.13700	0.42690	0.13845	0.14249
<u>Importance of Familiarity</u>				
Item #1	0.45318	0.35526	0.45151	0.01585
Item #2	0.63929*	-0.12639	0.14492	0.25272
Item #3	0.69680*	0.42443	0.19270	0.05519

N=53. \*item retained, \*\*all items are listed in Table A.13.

Table B.8 Summary statistics for pilot test #2

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Indirect communication style	3.28	.40	(0.76)			
2. Promotive voice	3.75	.80	-.03	(0.90)		
3. Prohibitive voice	3.34	.79	-.07	.67**	(0.79)	
4. Influence	2.91	.91	-.07	.31**	.33**	(0.80)

N=122. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , (standardized alphas reported along diagonals).