

How supervisors respond to employee voice behavior: The effects of power,
voice target and expertise

YANG YUNYUE

23C14027

Graduate School of Economics

Osaka University

Abstract

The purpose of this research is to investigate supervisors' responses toward employee voice behavior. In this scenario-based study, I manipulated voice target, employee expertise, and supervisors' sense of power to predict when voice behavior will positively or negatively impact supervisors' responses (evaluations of the voicing employee). My hypotheses are following: (1) Supervisors would like a voicer less, perceive more threat and give lower evaluations when the voicing employee speaking up to skip-level leaders than speaking up to them directly; (2) Supervisors would like a voicer more, perceive more threat and provide higher evaluations when the voicer is high rather than low in expertise. Besides, I examined the mediating effects of liking and perceived threat on the relationships between target, expertise and evaluations. Furthermore, I examined the moderating effects of sense of power on the relationships between target, expertise, threat and evaluations. The results of my study support most of my hypotheses. I discuss implications for theory and practice.

Acknowledgements

This paper would not have been possible without many people's guidance and assistance. First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my advisor Professor Tomoki Sekiguchi. He helped me for the preparation and completion of this study with his constructive comments, warm encouragement and patience.

Besides my advisor, I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Toshio Kobayashi, Associate Professor Koichi Nakagawa and Jie Li for giving me their advice and guidance.

Special thanks to my Chinese friends for their precious time in answering my questionnaire, sharing my questionnaire link and sending the questionnaire to their friends. In particular, I would like to extend my gratitude to these following people: Yao Zhou, Yun Qian and Xiangyun Wu.

I also would like to show my appreciation to all the members of Sekiguchi lab, Nakagawa lab and Kobayashi lab. When I gave the presentations, they gave me a lot of useful advice and also give me their warm encouragement.

I am deeply grateful to two of my best friends Mohan Pyari Maharjan and Tomomi Imagawa for their continuous encouragement and help in my personal struggles. They could make me feel relaxed and keep me calm when I was upset and worried.

Last but not the least, I wish to thank my parents for their love. They always agree with my choices, support me, and confidence for me.

Table of Contents

Introduction	8
Literature Review	12
Definition of Voice Behavior	12
Related Constructs	12
Content of Voice	13
Antecedents of Voice Behavior	14
Outcomes of Voice Behavior	15
Managerial Responses	16
Backgrounds and Hypothesis	19
Target of voice	19
Employee expertise	24
Mediators	27
Moderator: Sense of Power	29
Method	33
Sample	33
Design and Procedure	33
Manipulation Checks	35
Measures	36

Results	38
Discussion.....	43
Theoretical Contributions	43
Practical Contribution	47
Limitations and Future Research	48
References	50
Appendix 1	59
Appendix 2	60

List of Tables

Table 1 Summary of Scenario Conditions and Outcomes of Voice.....	34
Table 2 Results of Analyses of Variance.....	38
Table 3 Causal Mediation Analysis of Liking and Threat as Mediators of Target and Performance Evaluations.....	39
Table 4 Causal Mediation Analysis of Threat as Mediator of Expertise and Performance Evaluations	41
Table 5 Summary of Support for Hypothesis	44

List of Figures

Figure 1 General hypothesized model	32
Figure 2 Plots of interaction between target of voice and supervisors sense of power on performance evaluations	42
Figure 3 Plots of interaction between employee expertise and supervisors sense of power on supervisors perceived threat.	42

Introduction

In today's dynamic and uncertain competitive environment, proactive behavior is an increasingly important determinant of organizational success (Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker & Collins, 2010; President, 2001). One of the most prominent of these behaviors is employee voice (Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012). Voice has been described as behavior that challenges the status quo with the intent of improving a situation rather than merely criticizing it (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). It includes such behaviors as speaking up about organizational issues and suggesting changes to standard operating procedures (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Whiting et al., 2012).

Voice behavior has significant benefits for organizations, groups, individual actors and so on (see Morrison, 2011). Although employees voice has a lot of advantages, supervisors may not always positively respond to this kind of behavior because they recognize that employees are in fact going out of their way to offer critiques that challenge the status quo (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014). Managerial beliefs and behaviors play a large role in developing a climate of silence or voice (Morrison & Milliken, 2000) and studies about voice recipients' (mainly supervisors) are still limited. Therefore, it is crucial and meaningful to examine supervisors' responses toward employee voice.

The purpose of this study is to investigate supervisors' responses toward employee voice behavior, especially what makes supervisors negatively respond toward it.

My perspective on supervisors' responses toward employee voice includes three

core arguments: the target of voice, characteristic of employee (expertise) and characteristic of supervisors (sense of power). There are several reasons to explain why I choose these three factors.

First, I focus on the characteristics of both employee and supervisors. Pauksztat and colleagues (2011) argue that employee voice, or speaking up, is an act of communication in which employees point out problems and/or make suggestions for improvements to other members of their organization, such as colleagues, supervisors or subordinates. As an act of communication, voice behavior is inherently dyadic as it involves at least two parties: the person who speaks up (the ‘speaker’) and the person spoken to (the ‘recipient’) (Pauksztat et al., 2011). Therefore, investigating the characteristics of both voicer and the recipient of voice is important.

Second, I focus on the target of voice. Voice is target-sensitive (Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010). Previous studies have discussed the antecedents of making employees exhibit voice behavior to different targets in the organizations (James R. Detert & Treviño, 2010; Liu, Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2013; Liu et al., 2010). For example, Liu and colleagues (2010) examine that transformational leadership facilitates both speaking out to peers and speaking up to supervisors. Liu and colleagues (2013) investigate the antecedents about how employees can speak up to leaders at different levels of the organizational hierarchy, especially they examined the two targets of voice which are immediate supervisors and the skip-level leaders. Different with these studies, I investigate the outcomes of target of voice from the perspective of voicer’s immediate supervisors. It is related to the question about

what the supervisors responses are when they perceive their subordinates are exhibiting voice behavior to other leaders in the organizations, especially when the leaders are their bosses (skip-level leaders).

Taken together, it is vital to discuss characteristics of voicers (expertise), recipients of voice (sense of power) and target of voice. At first, I draw from counterfactual thinking to discuss that supervisors may like a voicer less, perceive more threat and provide lower performance evaluations when the voicing employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders than speaking up to them directly.

Second, I argue that the relationship between employee expertise and supervisors' responses is complex. Drawing from persuasion theory, supervisors might like a voicer more when the voicing employee is high in expertise because I expect that supervisors think a voicer with high expertise can help them become more successful than a voicer with low expertise. On the other hand, drawing from power-dependence theory and related research on power (e.g., Emerson, 1962), supervisors can perceive more threat if the voicing employee is high, rather than low in expertise.

Third, I argue that supervisors' sense of power (Anderson, John, & Keltner, 2012) might moderate the relationship between target, expertise and performance evaluations in terms of power theory.

To test my model, I conducted a scenario experiment in which I manipulated factors (target of voice, expertise and sense of power) in my hypothesized model. After reading the scenarios, participants answered the questions related to scenarios (for example, provided

their perceptions of the voicing employee and rated the voicers' performance). I analyzed the data using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and causal mediation analysis.

My research aims to contribute to the literature on voice. First, I seek to offer insight into the target of voice impacts supervisors' responses toward employee voice. Second, employee expertise is viewed as a positive factor because the suggestions from an expert seem constructive (Whiting et al., 2012). I argue that the relationship between a voicer's expertise and supervisors' responses is complex. Supervisors might like a voicer who is high in expertise; however, they can also perceive threat because they may think this voicer is challenging their power and standings. Third, I discuss sense of power as supervisors' characteristic, which has an impact on their evaluations toward voice behavior.

Literature Review

Definition of Voice Behavior

Voice reflects individuals' propensity to proactively discuss change-oriented and constructive ideas (e.g., LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). More specifically, voice has been defined as "non-required behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge with an intent to improve rather than merely criticize" (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

I focus on discussing target of voice in my study, therefore, I use the voice construct in terms of Detert and Burris (2007). Detert and Burris (2007) defined voice as "The discretionary provision of information intended to improve organizational functioning to someone inside the organization with the perceived authority to act, even though such information may challenge and upset the status quo of the organization and its powerholders; Verbal behavior that is improvement oriented and directed to a specific target who holds power inside the organization in question".

Related Constructs

Concepts similar to voice have appeared in the organizational literature for several decades (Morrison, 2011). In my study, I compare the differences between voice, issue selling and whistle blowing.

Issue selling is a voluntary, discretionary set of behaviors by which organizational members attempt to influence the organizational agenda by getting those above them to pay attention to issues of particular importance to them (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). While

relevant to all organizational members, issue selling is an activity that is typically associated with those who have managerial responsibility (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998).

Whistle blowing involves bringing illegal behavior or some clear wrongdoing to the attention of those higher up in the organization or even to those outside of the organization (Near & Miceli, 1986). The differences are (a) whistle blowing includes not just communication within the organization and (b) it focus on just information about inappropriate activities (Morrison, 2011) and voice research distinctively investigates the cooperative, communication-based element of organizational proactivity (Thomas et al., 2010).

Voice differs from these other behaviors because it uniquely focuses on verbal expressions (directed up, down, or horizontally) that are explicitly intended to benefit the group or organization (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009).

Content of Voice

Voice is fairly broad in terms of content (Morrison, 2011). Van Dyne and LePine (1998) show that voice is making innovative suggestions for change and the message can be seen as a way to improve (Morrison, 2011). Van Dyne and LePine (1998) find that voice behavior to be positively related to ratings. In Burriss's (2012) study, Burriss separates improvement-oriented voice as challenging forms and supportive forms. The content of challenging forms of voice may include explicit disagreement and confrontation with one's manager (Burriss, 2012; Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011). On the other hand, the content of

supportive forms of voice may include some changes related to the implementation process or already planned process. Managers respond more positively to the employees who engage in supportive forms of voice rather than those who engage in challenging forms of voice. Consistent with it, Liang and colleagues (2012) show that voice has two different contents: promotive voice and prohibitive voice. Relative to promotive voice, which is expressing new ideas or solutions for how to improve the status quo, prohibitive voice is expressing concern about existing or impending factors that are harmful to the organization (Liang et al., 2012). Above all, Morrison (2011) suggests that voice refers to “communication of work or organizationally relevant input that implies either an opportunity to do something differently or a need to terminate or change a current practice.”

Antecedents of Voice Behavior

There is evidence from a variety of sources that employees often do not feel comfortable speaking to their bosses about organizational problems or issues that concern them (Milliken et al., 2003). There are two reasons frequently mentioned explaining why employees withhold their suggestions (Van Dyne et al., 2003). First, they feel that the potential personal costs of voice outweigh the likely benefit (Milliken et al. 2003). Second, employees sometimes recognize voice as futile because it change the status quo (Detert & Treviño, 2010).

Among all the antecedents, supervisors showed to play a vital role in the voice process. Research on voice has shown that employees are more likely to engage in voice

when managers display behaviors that welcome it (Fast et al., 2014). Nembhard and Edmondson (2006) examined that leader inclusiveness would facilitate employees' engagement in quality improvement work. Detert and Burris (2007) investigated that management openness and transformational leadership are positively related to subordinates' belief that it is safe to speak up, and willingness to do so and transformational leadership facilitates both voice toward peers and supervisors (Liu et al., 2010). A good quality of supervisor-subordinate relationship is also an predictor of employee voice behavior (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009).

Psychological safety has been shown as a mediator between antecedent variables and voice behavior (e.g., Ashford et al., 1998; Miceli & Near, 1992). For example, Detert and Burris (2007) showed that employee perceptions of psychological safety mediated relationships between positive managerial behaviors and employee voice.

To summarize, supervisors or other people in leadership positions, play a significant role in affecting the employee voice behavior.

Outcomes of Voice Behavior

Voice has substantial benefits for organizations and work groups. For example, employee voice is negatively related to turnover (McClellan, Burris, & Detert, 2013) and has a positive effect on team performance (Dooley & Fryxell, 1999), organizational performance (Argote & Ingram, 2000), and creativity (Zhou & George, 2001).

Voice also has a positive effect on the individual actor (Morrison, 2011). As Morrison (2011) summarized, voice may enhance employees' feelings of control, positive

job attitudes, positive public image, and so on. Besides, employee voice behavior has a positive effect on performance ratings. Whiting and colleagues (2008) find that voice behavior has a significant positive causal impact on appraisal decisions.

Despite employee voice has a lot of benefits as introduced, there are some negative outcomes related to this kind of behavior. The main reason employee voice may lead to negative outcomes is that voice is challenging the status quo and often threatening managers (Ashford et al., 1998; Burris, 2012; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003; Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Seibert and colleagues (2001) found that voice has a negative relationship with career progression, measured by salary progression and promotions. Burris (2012) and Whiting and colleagues' (2008) have shown that managers do not always provide positive performance evaluations toward employee voice behavior.

Managerial Responses

Two types of managerial responses are predominantly associated with employees speaking up (Fast et al., 2014). The first one is that persuading managers to endorse and eventually adopt their suggestions (Detert & Treviño, 2010; Dutton, Ashford, O'neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997). The second response is the supervisors' evaluation of employee voice. Generally, supervisors evaluation points toward an evaluation of the employees' overall performance and potential to positively contribute to their organization (Fast et al., 2014; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

As Whiting and colleagues (2008) indicate, there are several reasons to explain why

voice behavior might lead to increased appraisal ratings. First, managers are likely to view employee voice behavior as an important component of employee job performance because it can facilitate organizations to adapt to the current work environment (Whiting et al., 2008). Second, voice behavior is expected to help the manager become more successful and subsequently lead the manager to provide higher appraisal ratings to the voicing employees (Whiting et al., 2008). Third, manager may view an employee who is exhibiting voice behavior as more highly committed to the organization's success, and managers' perceptions of employee commitment has a positive effect on performance ratings (Allen & Rush, 1998; Whiting et al., 2008).

Some empirical studies also have shown that supervisors positively respond to voice because voice can help managers who receive it become more successful (Burris, 2012). For example, Van Dyne and LePine (1998) investigated that voice behavior is positively associated with supervisors' ratings. Whiting and colleagues' (2008) demonstrated that voice behavior has significant effects on performance evaluation decisions.

Although scholars argue that voice behavior leads to positive results, a close inspection of managers' behavior in organizations shows that a large number of managers engage in actions that indicate an aversion to soliciting, rewarding, and implementing voice (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003).

There are some studies about supervisors' negative responses toward voice behavior. For example, voice behavior leads to a slower rate of salary growth and a reduced likelihood of being promoted (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001b). Managers tend to view

suggestions expressed with negative emotions as complaints or criticisms, rather than as constructive recommendations for improvement (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). Recent findings show that managers with low managerial self-efficacy feel personally threatened by, and react defensively to, employee voice (Fast et al., 2014).

I consider performance evaluations and reward recommendations as supervisors' responses in this study. Performance evaluations point toward an evaluation of the employees' overall performance (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and it is widely investigated as a supervisors' response toward a voicing employee (eg., Whiting et al., 2012). Besides performance evaluations, reward recommendation is also an important dimension of supervisors responses because if supervisors fail to appreciate and reward proactive behavior, they are likely to discourage employees from engaging in it (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009).

Backgrounds and Hypothesis

Target of voice

The relationship between voice behavior and supervisors' responses, especially performance evaluation, has been investigated by a lot of scholars. Van Dyne and LePine (1998) investigated that voice behavior is positively associated with supervisors' ratings. Whiting and colleagues (2008) demonstrated that voice behavior has significant effects on performance evaluation decisions. The measures and definitions these scholars used are general. For example, In Whiting and colleagues' (2008) study, they raised several reasons to explain why voice behavior might lead to increased appraisal ratings. One of reasons is *“employees who speak up and provide valuable suggestions or recommendations to managers on how to improve the organization's effectiveness or efficiency would also be expected to help the manager become more successful and subsequently lead him or her to reciprocate these suggestions by providing higher appraisal ratings.”* (Whiting et al., 2008: 128)

In these studies, scholars didn't specify the target of voice. The example here didn't specify managers as immediate managers, top managers or other departments' managers. I expect that target of voice would impact supervisors' responses toward employee voice behavior. Liu, Zhu and Yang (2010) argue that voice is target-sensitive, and they show that there are two types of voice behavior: speaking out (voice toward peers) and speaking up (voice toward supervisor).

There are some empirical studies taken into account about target of voice when

talking about employee voice. For example, when Detert and Burris (2007) investigate the relationships between leadership and subordinate voice, they limit voice construct to *verbal behavior* that is improvement-oriented and directed to *a specific target* who holds power *inside* the organization in question (p. 870).

In my study, I use Detert and Burris's (2007) voice construct and specify the *specific target* as an *immediate supervisor* and a *skip-level leader*. The skip-level leader is defined as any leader in the organization's formal chain of command above the informant's immediate supervisor (Detert & Treviño, 2010). Detert and Treviño (2010) suggest that employees can speak up to both their immediate supervisors and skip-level leaders, and they have influences on employee voice. In most conditions, employees choose immediate supervisors as targets to speak up because they have more daily interactions with immediate supervisor than other leaders (Liu et al., 2013). However, scholars' findings suggest that employees sometimes communicate directly with skip-level leaders as well (Detert & Treviño, 2010; Liu, Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2013). For example, employees tend to speak up to a skip-level leader when they have a poor relationship with the immediate supervisor (Liu et al., 2013), or when they find that the immediate supervisor often does not control the resources (Detert & Treviño, 2010).

These studies investigate employees' psychology in their voice behavior. However, research about examining supervisors' psychology when they are encountering subordinates speaking up to different people even to their bosses is limited. Therefore, my study will examine the effects of the target of voice on supervisors' responses.

Target and performance evaluations. Supervisors might provide lower performance evaluations to a voicer when the voicing employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders rather than when he/she is speaking up to them directly.

Warren (2003) argues that voice behavior could be considered as *deviant behavior* because it challenges the status quo. I expect that supervisors might consider speaking up to skip-level leaders behavior as a deviant behavior more than speaking up to them directly for several reasons. First, voice specifically involves speaking up in ways intended to alter, modify, or destabilize (Burriss, 2012). In most cases, supervisors are taking charge of related issues. When a voicer speaks up to skip-level leaders, the immediate supervisor observing this voicing employee's behavior as a bystander, he/she might think that this employee is going against his/her decisions and what worse, this supervisor might question this voicing employee's behavior and tend to think that this employee is criticizing or complaining him/her in front of skip-level leaders who are his/her bosses. Furthermore, they might think that this voicer's behavior does not comply organizational norms, which is that supervisors might think, "he/she should have spoken up to me," and it is consistent with counterfactual thinking. Conversely, if a voicer provides some suggestions or ideas for change to supervisors directly, although supervisors might perceive it as deviant behavior more or less, it becomes harder to question this employee's behavior than when this employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders. Sometimes supervisors respond to voice positively because voice can help supervisors who receive it become more successful (Burriss, 2012). Thus, when an employee speaks up to supervisors directly, although supervisors might

perceive this voicer's behavior as deviant more or less, they might think his/her behavior to be more supportive than speaking up to skip-level leaders. As Burris (2012) shown, supervisors view employees as worse performers when they perform in a challenging way than those perform in a supportive way.

It is also indirectly consistent with that Pandey (1986) has suggested that ingratators are likely to be judged more positively by a target receiving direct compliments, opinion conformity, and so forth than by a bystander who observes an exchange between an ingratatory and target. Taken together, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Supervisors would give lower performance evaluation for the voicing employee when he/she is speaking up to skip-level leaders than when he/she is speaking up to them directly.

Target and liking. Although prior research indicates that constructive workplace behaviors are positively related to a supervisor's affective (liking) regarding for the employee (Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002), I expect that supervisors like a voicer less when the voicing employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders than when he/she is speaking up to them directly for two reasons.

First, behavior as speaking up to skip-level leaders might be viewed as more aggressive than speaking up to supervisors directly. Therefore, it may lead supervisors to react unfavorably (Burris, 2012). Second, the suggestions, opinions or concerns expressed

by employees are challenging and constructive (Tangirala, 2008). Leaders sometimes welcome this kind of because organizational leaders can attempt to benefit from these additional channels of communication (Liu et al., 2013). However, when an employee exhibits voice behavior to skip-level leaders, it might have some potentially negative effects on immediate supervisors. Although the employees intend to express some opinions and ideas for work-related improvement, immediate supervisors might view it as criticisms or complaints of themselves because the content of challenging forms of voice may include explicit disagreement and confrontation with supervisors (Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011). Employee's behavior might be viewed as not doing favors for supervisors, and then supervisors might not feel admired by this employee. Concerning Wayne and Liden (1995), a supervisor who feels liked and admired by an employee will be more attracted to (liking) that employee. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1b: Supervisors' liking of a voicer is less when the voicing employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders than when he/she is speaking up to them directly.

Target and threat. Supervisors view employees who more frequently engage in challenging forms of voice as personally threatening (Burris, 2012). I expect that supervisors perceive more threat when an employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders rather than speaking up to them directly.

When supervisors perceive an employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders, not

themselves, they might think that this employee may especially have a stronger relationship with skip-level leaders than with themselves. Because an employee's voice behaviors implicitly or explicitly criticize supervisors (Burris, 2012) and supervisors seek to protect their self-image or standings in their organization (De Dreu, Nijstad, & van Knippenberg, 2007). Therefore, a supervisor might have feelings of threat about his/her image seen by leaders, or by other employees. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1c: Supervisors perceive more threat when the voicing employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders than when he/she is speaking up to them directly.

Employee expertise

Expertise refers to the extent to which a speaker is perceived to be capable of making correct assertions (Pornpitakpan, 2004). The effectiveness of communication is commonly assumed to depend to a considerable extent upon who delivers it (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953). Hovland and colleagues (1953) show that recipients may give high weight to a communicator's assertions when this communicator is high in expertise, which is one of the two components of "credibility". The effectiveness of employee expertise in voice behavior has been investigated (Whiting et al., 2012). Besides, expertise also has a positive relationship with opinion agreement (Horai, Naccari, & Fatoullah, 1974), advice taking (Feng & MacGeorge, 2006). However, some scholars find that the characteristic of expertise does not always have positive effects. For example, in advice-taking research,

scholars investigate that advice from an expert can be discounted (Krueger, 2003; Tost, Gino, & Larrick, 2012), and Menon and colleagues (2006) find that people often not use employees' knowledge if the employees are in the same organization. Therefore, I discuss expertise as a characteristic of employees.

Expertise and performance evaluations. I expect a voicer's expertise to impact supervisors' responses of the voice for several reasons. First, according to social persuasion theory, an employee with high expertise has credibility and has accuracy (Hovland et al., 1953), so suggestions or ideas provided by an expert tend to be more accurate and reliable. Research shows that people are more likely to implement feedback provided by an expert (Albright & Levy, 1995), and Braunsberger (1996) finds that a source high in expertise appears to lead to positive attitudes toward the endorser and the advertisement.

Second, if a voicer is high in expertise, supervisors might think his/her behavior could contribute to the effectiveness of group or organization because Horai and colleagues (1974) find that expertise makes contributions in inducing opinion agreement. Third, supervisors consider voice to be more constructive and provide higher evaluations of job performance when the voicing employee is high rather than low in expertise (Whiting et al., 2012). Taken together, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis2a: Supervisors provide higher evaluation when the voicer is high rather than low, in expertise.

Expertise and liking. I expect that supervisors' liking of a voicer is more when the

voicing employee is high in expertise, rather than low in expertise. Prior research indicates that constructive workplace behaviors are positively related to a supervisor's affective regard for the employee (Johnson et al., 2002). Besides, organizational leaders can attempt to benefit from these additional channels of communication (Liu et al., 2013). Therefore, there is a higher possibility for supervisors to benefit from voice behavior when a voicer is high, rather than low in expertise because an expert can provide accurate and credible information. Scholars also find that when persuasive messages are delivered by experts, receivers of the message have more positive attitudes toward the source of the message (Pornpitakpan, 2004; Whiting et al., 2012). Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2b: Supervisors' liking of a voicer is more when the voicing employee is high rather than low, in expertise.

Expertise and threat. Although expertise is an important dimension of source credibility, the relationship between employee expertise and supervisors' responses might be complicated. I expect employee expertise to be positively associated with supervisors' perceived threat.

An employee with high expertise has influence over other people (Georgeson & Harris, 1998) because expertise is one type of power (French, Raven, & Cartwright, 1959). Compared with an employee with low expertise, an employee with high expertise has a higher ability to make other people agree with his/her suggestions or ideas because Horai

and colleagues (1974) find that expertise contributes to opinion agreement. Consequently, when an expert speaks up his/her suggestions for change, people may agree with him/her and doubt the decisions made by supervisors. As a supervisor, formal position often provides status or social esteem in the eyes of others (French et al., 1959). People are greatly influenced by their roles and, indeed, experience a great deal of pressure to meet the expectations associated with their roles (Biddle, 1986). Compelling evidence supports the idea that managers, as occupants of roles with formal power over subordinates, experience a strong need to demonstrate superior personal competence at work (Fast et al., 2014). Therefore, voice behavior exhibited by an employee with high expertise might make supervisors perceive more threat than an employee with low expertise.

Consistent with this logic, research has shown that managers who lacked managerial self-efficacy were less likely to solicit voice from employee owing in large part to their feeling of being personally threatened and lead to a reduced willingness to implement voice (Fast et al., 2014). Taken together, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis2c: Supervisors perceive more threat when the voicer is high rather than low, in expertise.

Mediators

Hovland and colleagues (1953) assume that effects of a communicator (individual speaker who communicates directly to the people and gives his/her views on an issue) are

mediated by attitudes toward him/her, which are held by recipients. The attitudes they indicate include feelings of affection and admiration and stem in part from desires to be like communicator and fear of the communicator. Because voice behavior is viewed as an act of communication (Pauksztat et al., 2011), so I choose liking and threat as mediators.

Liking. Scholars have noted that liking plays an important role in ratings of performance evaluations (Lefkowitz, 2000). In fact, research supports the impact of affect on performance evaluations. According to Cardy and Dobbins (1986), affect in performance evaluations mainly takes the form of liking. These authors argue that liking performs as an integral part of the performance evaluation process. Indeed, they and others show that when supervisors like an employee, they rate this employee more favorably, allocate to him/her more rewards, and are less likely to discipline this employee (Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Fandt, Labig, & Urich, 1990; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Tsui & Barry, 1986).

Liking has been discussed as a mediation in OCB theories. For example, Allen and Rush (1998) find that liking is enhanced when employees engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and investigate that when employees engage in OCBs, they are liked more by supervisors. In turn, likability mediates the relationship between the helpful behaviors and performance evaluations as well as reward recommendations. Taken together, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis3a: The effect of target of voice on performance evaluation is mediated by liking for the voicer.

Hypothesis3b: The effect of expertise on performance evaluation is mediated by liking for the voicer.

Threat. Although research about the effect of threat on supervisors' responses is limited, several studies have investigated the mediating impact of the threat. For example, Burris (2012) argue that when supervisors are encountering with some behaviors challenging to their authority or standing, they may rate individuals as worse performers. Fast and colleagues (2014) investigate that when managers perceive themselves with low managerial self-efficacy, they will assign negative ratings to an employee who speaks up, and ego threat mediates the relationship.

In my study, I expect that supervisors' perceived threat would mediate the relationship between target of voice, expertise and supervisors' responses. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis4a: The effect of target of voice on performance evaluation is mediated by perceived threat.

Hypothesis4b: The effect expertise on performance evaluation is mediated by perceived threat.

Moderator: Sense of Power

Georgeses and Harris (1998) indicate that as power levels increase, evaluations of

others become increasingly negative, and evaluations of the self become increasingly positive. Therefore, I take power into account as supervisors' characteristic to discuss.

Power is often defined as the capacity to influence others and it primarily stems from the control over valuable resources and the ability to administer rewards and punishments (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Emerson, 1962; French et al., 1959; Goldhamer & Shils, 1939; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003).

Social psychologists also argue that power can be viewed and studied as the psychological state that occurs when a person perceives that he or she is capable of influencing others (Anderson et al., 2012; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Magee, Joe ; Galinsky, 2008; Morrison, See, & Pan, 2014). This psychological state is personal sense of power. Personal sense of power is defined as the perception of one's ability to influence another person or other people (Anderson et al., 2012). Sense of power is inherently a social-relational concept: it reflects influence over other individuals' attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes and can be understood only in relation to other individuals (Anderson et al., 2012; Emerson, 1962). It can be activated whenever cues to the possession of power are implied, consciously or non-consciously (Galinsky et al., 2003). Once activated, the sense of power has been shown to influence individuals' behavior in meaning and predictable ways (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006).

I expect sense of power as a moderator regarding a theoretical framework, which is an approach-inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003). This theory explains how the psychological experience of possessing or not possessing power over others affects

emotions, cognition, and behavior (Morrison et al., 2014). The core argument is that when people's perceived sense of power is high, behavioral approach system is activated.

Behavioral approach system indicates that people with a high sense of power are likely to experience each of these three perceptions. First, they focus on rewards and perceive risky behavior as less risky. Second, sense of power leads people to experience an inflated perception of personal control (Fast, Gruenfeld, Sivanathan, & Galinsky, 2009). Third, feelings of power make people overconfidence in their ability or competence. It also makes them less influenced by others. On the contrary, people with a low sense of power tend to elicit anxiety and negative emotions, increased attention to negative outcome contingencies, avoidance-behaviors and behavioral vigilance and inhibition (Morrison & Rothman, 2009).

Drawing on this theoretical paradigm, I suggest that supervisors' with low sense of power might perceive more threat when an employee is exhibiting voice behavior to skip-level, when a voicer expertise is high and provide lower performance evaluation than supervisors with high sense of power. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis5a: Sense of power will moderate the positive effects of target of voice on perceived threat, such that the effects are stronger for supervisors with low rather than high sense of power.

Hypothesis5b: Sense of power will moderate the negative effects of target of voice on performance evaluation, such that the effects are stronger for supervisors with low rather

than high sense of power.

Hypothesis5c: Sense of power will moderate the positive effects of expertise on perceived threat, such that the effects are stronger for supervisors with low rather than high sense of power.

Hypothesis5d: Sense of power will moderate the positive effects of expertise on performance, such that the effects are weaker for supervisors with low rather than high sense of power.

Above all, hypotheses in my study are summarized in Figure 1.

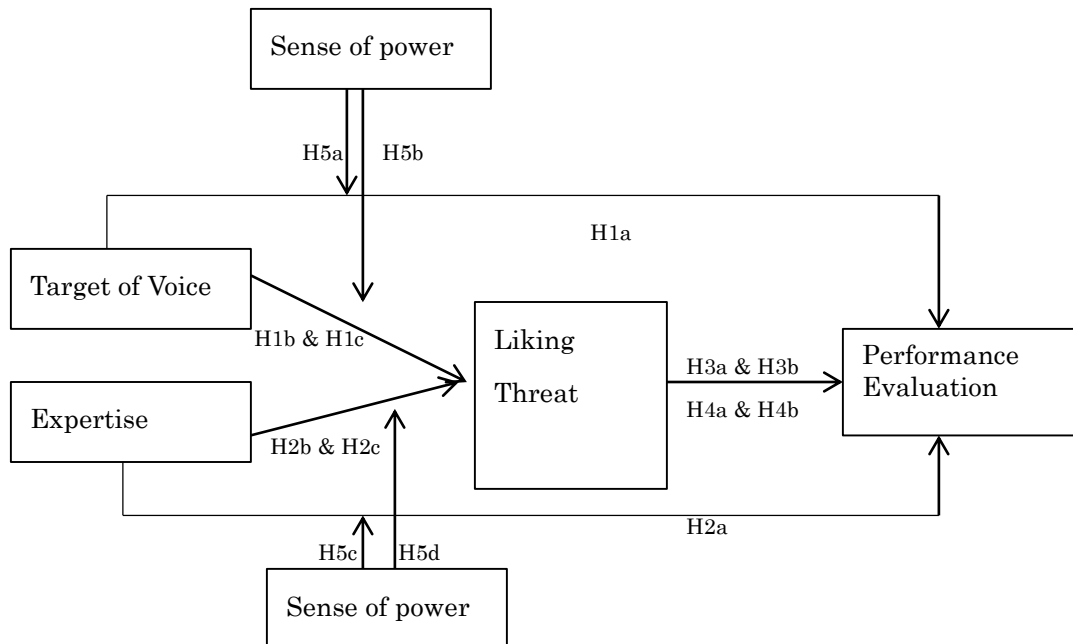


Figure 1. General hypothesized model. H = hypothesis

Method

Sample

In this study, I collected data from 195 Chinese employees working in China by a free online questionnaire website. All questionnaire items were in Chinese language. I used my personal network to invite Chinese employees who were working in China. In addition, I asked my acquaintances to share my questionnaire link in the SNS and send the questionnaire to their friends.

Of all participants, 53.3% of them were female and 46.7% of them were male. Their average age was 31.5 years ($SD = 6.4$). As for the educational background, 77.4% of them had a bachelor degree, 16.4% of them had a master degree, and 6.2% had high school degree. As for the family status, 61.5% of them were married, 38.5% of them were unmarried. As for the industrial background, 27.2% of them worked in construction/manufacturing industry, 15.4% of them worked in public sectors, 13.3% of them worked in finance/banking and 6.7% of them worked in retail industry. Their average managerial experience was 2.6 years ($SD = 4.4$).

Design and Procedure

I used a 2 (high sense of power versus low sense of power) \times 2 (skip-level leader target versus direct supervisor target) \times 2 (high expertise versus low expertise) between-subjects experimental design. First, participants read a scenario depicting voice behavior occurring within a project team setting. The project was described as expanding business overseas and composed of a supervisor (participants imagine this supervisor as

themselves), skip-level leader (supervisor A) and several subordinates. Subordinate B was one of members in this project who exhibiting voice. The scenario depicted several interactions occurring in this project team. In order to know how people respond toward the situation in the scenario, I set some related questions following the scenario.

Table 1
Summary of Scenario Conditions and Outcomes of Voice

Condition	Skip vs. direct target	Expertise	Power	N	Threat		Liking		Performance Evaluations	
					M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
1	Skip	High	High	29	4.20	1.33	3.18	1.42	4.13	1.00
2	Skip	High	Low	28	3.96	1.21	3.64	1.14	3.98	1.09
3	Skip	Low	High	24	3.66	1.18	3.09	1.33	3.67	0.81
4	Skip	Low	Low	24	4.01	1.18	2.62	1.14	2.78	1.00
5	Direct	High	High	19	3.71	1.23	4.88	1.23	4.76	0.88
6	Direct	High	Low	21	3.02	1.10	5.26	0.94	4.96	1.02
7	Direct	Low	High	25	2.39	0.92	4.93	1.13	4.41	0.92
8	Direct	Low	Low	25	3.13	1.14	4.95	1.13	4.58	0.80

The scenario depicting interactions in this study manipulated direct supervisor's sense of power, employee voice target, and employee expertise. I manipulated direct supervisor's sense of power in terms of Anderson et al., (2012) research about sense of power and measure of sense of power. I manipulated target of voice and voice behavior in terms of definition of voice behavior and Detert and Treviño (2010). I manipulated skip-level leader as supervisor's boss because In Detert and Treviño's (2010) study, they

find that leaders two levels above the respondent (e.g., “my boss’s boss”) were the most frequent skip-level leaders mentioned by informants. I manipulated employee expertise by varying their knowledge about marketing. In the high expertise condition, the voicer was described as knowing much about the overseas issues and had a high knowledge about marketing, whereas in the low expertise condition, the voicer was described knowing less about overseas issues and has a little knowledge about marketing. This study used a full factorial design, resulting in a total of 8 conditions. A full list of these conditions is reported in Table 1. The complete scripts for the manipulations are presented in the Appendix 1.

Manipulation Checks

I obtained checks of my manipulations from a separate sample of 23 master students. Participates were assigned to read 8 different types of scenarios depicting the manipulation for three factors. Then they were asked to answer the questions related to different situations. The manipulation checks’ questions are as the following. “If your subordinate B has a lot of ideas about project, he/she would express his ideas to you directly” (immediate target); “Subordinate B knows much about overseas issues and has a high knowledge about marketing” (high expertise); “In this company, you have a lot of power/ You make the most of the decisions in this company” (high power). All items were rated on a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

The results of these checks were supportive of the manipulations. The average ratings for the “skip-level target” conditions tended to be low (average $M = 1.63$), and the average ratings for the “immediate target” conditions tended to be high (average $M = 6.49$).

The average ratings for “high expertise” conditions tended to be high (average $M = 6.37$), and the average ratings for the “low expertise” conditions tended to be low (average $M = 1.49$). The average ratings for “high sense of power” conditions tended to be high (average $M = 6.24$), and the average ratings for the “low sense of power” conditions tended to be low (average $M = 1.63$). A t test indicated that the ratings on the high and low conditions were all significantly different from each other (all $P < .001$). Therefore, the manipulation checks indicated that high and low level manipulations depicted significantly different levels of the conditions.

Measures

Liking. The scale that was used to measure liking of the voicer adapted from Wayne and Ferris (1990). Example items include “ I like B” and “ I would get along with B”.

Threat. Feeling of threat was measured using five items from Menon, Thompson, and Choi's (2006) measure of threat. The sample items are “How likely is it that you will lose status in the organization if your superiors heard B’s comments?” and “How likely is it that your supervisors will question your ability to devise an effective plan if your superiors heard B’s comments?”

Supervisors’ responses. Supervisors’ responses were measured using Allen and Rush's (1998) measures of reward recommendations and performance evaluation. I measured performance evaluations using a four-item scale: “B makes an important contribution to the organization”, “B is vital part of the organization”, “B is extremely valuable to the organization” and “B would be extremely costly for the organization to

replace”. I expect that supervisors’ responses not only reflect on performance evaluation, but also reflect on whether they would recommend the voicer for five common organizational rewards (salary increase, promotion, high profile project, public recognition and opportunities for professional development).

All scales were assessed using a 7-point Likert response format (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Results

To provide explicit tests of my hypotheses, I conducted a series of ANOVAs. The results of the analysis of variance are shown in Table 2. Additionally, Table 2 provides the partial eta-squared estimates associated with each factor.

Table 2
Results of Analyses of Variance

Factor	<u>Liking</u>		<u>Threat</u>		<u>Performance Evaluation</u>	
	F	η_p^2	F	η_p^2	F	η_p^2
Target	112.10***	.37	30.21***	.14	45.49***	.19
Expertise	0.66	.00	7.38**	.04	10.69**	.05
Power	0.36	.00	0.09	.00	1.03	.01
Power × Expertise	2.60	.01	7.67**	.04	1.39	.01
Power × Target	0.19	.00	0.07	.00	5.60*	.03
Target × Expertise	1.38	.01	0.95	.00	2.73.	.01

Note. For target manipulation, 0 = immediate supervisor target, 1 = skip-level leader target; for expertise manipulation, 0 = low expertise, 1 = high expertise; for power manipulation, 0 = low sense of power, 1 = high sense of power, η_p^2 = partial eta-squared.

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

Hypothesis 1a, Hypothesis 1b and Hypothesis 1c predicted that target of voice had an effect on performance evaluation, liking and perceived threat. Using the R project, I first performed a series of ANOVAs on the ratings of the potential mediators and the dependent variable. As indicated in Table 2, target of voice had significant effects on liking ($F = 112.1$,

$p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .37$), perceived threat ($F = 30.21$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .14$), and performance evaluations ($F = 45.49$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .19$). More specifically, the data showed that when target of voice is skip-level rather than immediate, liking is less ($M = 3.16$ vs. $M = 5.00$), perceived threat is higher ($M = 3.97$ vs. $M = 3.02$), and performance evaluations are lower ($M = 3.67$ vs. $M = 4.66$).

Table 3
Causal Mediation Analysis of Liking and Threat as Mediators of Target and Performance Evaluation

Effect Type	Point Estimate	95% CI of the point estimate		P-Value
		95% Lower	95% Upper	
Liking				
Mediation Effect (Target→Liking→Performance Evaluation)	-.82	-1.07	-.57	.00
Direct Effect (Target→Performance Evaluation)	-.17	-.43	-.13	.34
Total Effect	-.99	-1.26	-.70	.00
Proportion of Total Effect via Mediation	.83	.59	1.15	.00
Threat				
Mediation Effect (Target→Threat→Performance Evaluation)	-.14	-.27	-.02	.02
Direct Effect (Target→Performance Evaluation)	-.85	-1.13	-.58	.00
Total Effect	-.99	-1.23	-.71	.00
Proportion of Total Effect via Mediation	.14	.02	.28	.02

Note. 95% CI, 95% confidence interval of the point estimate; P, probability that the point estimate differs from zero ($0.00 = <.01$)

Hypothesis 2a, Hypothesis 2b and Hypothesis 2c predicted that expertise had an

effect on performance evaluations, liking and perceived threat. As indicated in Table 2, expertise had significant effects on perceived threat ($F = 7.38$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$) and performance evaluations ($F = 10.67$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$). However, the effect of expertise on liking was not significant ($F = 0.66$, n.s., $\eta_p^2 = .00$). More specifically, the data showed that when expertise is high rather than low, perceived threat is higher ($M = 3.77$ vs. $M = 3.29$) and performance evaluation is higher ($M = 4.39$ vs. $M = 3.87$). Therefore, these results provided support for Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, 2a, and 2c.

Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 4a predicted that the effects of target of voice on performance evaluations were mediated by liking and perceived threat. Hypothesis 3b and Hypothesis 4b predicted that the effect of expertise on performance evaluation is mediated by liking and perceived threat. I investigated mediation effects using Causal Mediation Analysis (Tingley, Yamamoto, Hirose, Keele, & Imai, 2014). Table 3 and Table 4 present results of the analysis. In Table 3, significant mediating effects ($P < .05$) were recorded for the liking and threat variables at levels that accounted for 83% and 14% of the total effect, respectively. Table 3 indicated that target of voice had a significant indirect effect on performance evaluation. The effect of target of voice was mediated through liking (point estimate = $-.82$, $P < .05$) and threat (point estimate = $-.14$, $P < .05$). Table 4 indicated that expertise had a significant indirect effect on performance evaluation. The effect of expertise was mediated through threat (point estimate = $-.16$, $P < .05$). Therefore, these results provided support for Hypothesis 3a, 4a, and 4b.

Table 4

Causal Mediation Analysis of Threat as Mediator of Expertise and Performance Evaluations

Effect Type	Point Estimate	95% CI of the point estimate		P-Value
		Lower	Upper	
Threat				
Mediation Effect (Expertise→Threat→Performance Evaluation)	-.16	-.26	-.05	.02
Direct Effect (Expertise→Performance Evaluation)	.67	.41	.93	.00
Total Effect	.52	.26	.78	.00
Proportion of Total Effect via Mediation	-.30	-.75	-.09	.02

Note. 95% CI, 95% confidence interval of the point estimate; P, probability that the point estimate differs from zero ($0.00 = <.01$)

Hypothesis 5a, Hypothesis 5b, Hypothesis 5c and Hypothesis 5d predicted the stronger effects of target of voice, employee expertise on supervisors' perceived threat and performance evaluations when supervisors' sense of power was low. The result in Table 2 demonstrated the significant moderating effect ($P < .05$). Plots of the significant interaction are shown in Figure 2. However, the result is inconsistent with Hypothesis 5c. Figure 3 indicates the stronger effect of employee expertise on supervisors' perceived threat when supervisors' sense of power is high.

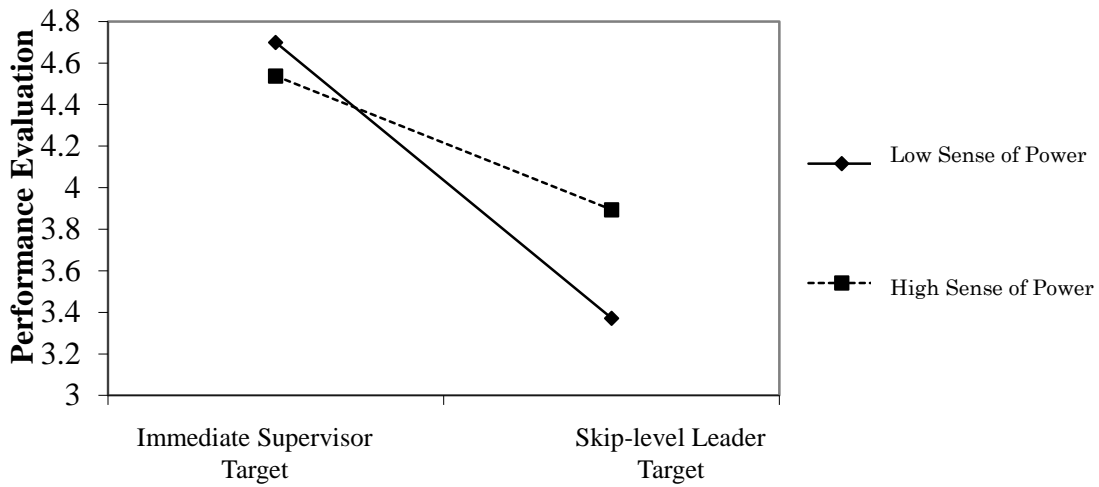


Figure 2. Plots of interaction between target of voice and supervisors sense of power on performance evaluation

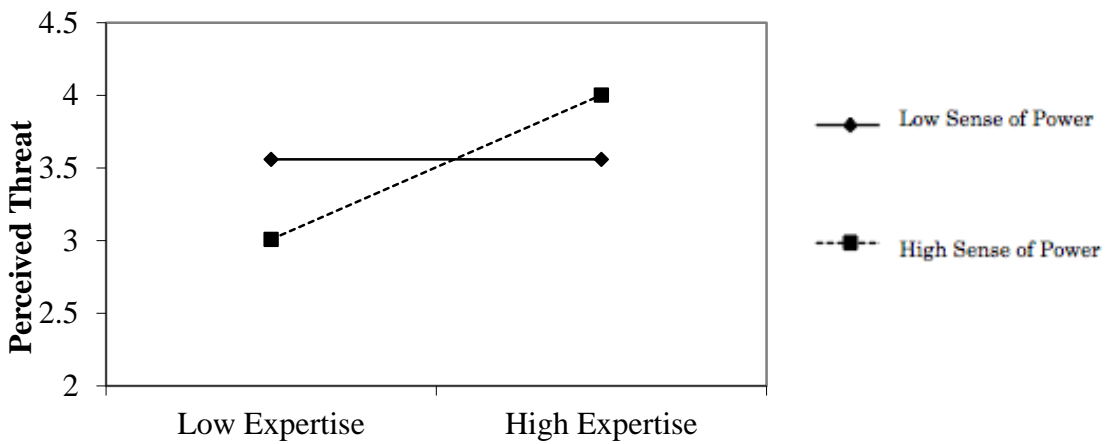


Figure 3. Plots of interaction between employee expertise and supervisors sense of power on supervisors perceived threat.

Discussion

This study examined the effects that target of voice and voicer expertise have on the performance evaluations received by the person exhibiting voice behavior and to explore the potential mediating that liking and threat have on these relationships. In addition, I also examined the effects of supervisors' sense of power on the perceived threat as a moderator. Generally speaking, my findings (summarized in Table 5) indicate that (a) when supervisors evaluate employees who are exhibiting voice behavior, the target of voice is vital to be taken into account. Speaking up to skip-level leaders is negatively related to performance evaluations because immediate supervisors would perceive threat and don't like this kind of employees. (b) Although supervisors think the suggestions or ideas provided by an employee with high expertise to be more construction and they would give them higher performance evaluations than an employee with low expertise. However, the relationship between expertise and performance evaluation seems to be complex. According to my study, when a voicer is high in expertise, supervisors will perceive more threat and it has a negative effect on their evaluations of this voicing employee than a voicer with low expertise. In particular, this relationship would be stronger when supervisors with high sense of power.

Theoretical Contributions

At first, my study discussed a new factor that might affect supervisors' evaluation of the voicing employee, which is target of voice. In prior research, scholars argue that voice is target-sensitive (Liu et al., 2010) and it is vital to discuss more target about voice

Table 5

Summary of Support for Hypothesis

#	Hypothesis	Results
1a	Speaking up to skip-level leaders is negatively associated with performance evaluations.	Y
1b	Speaking up to skip-level leaders is negatively associated with liking.	Y
1c	Speaking up to skip-level leaders is positively associated with perceived threat.	Y
2a	Voicer expertise is positively associated with performance evaluations.	Y
2b	Voicer expertise is positively associated with liking.	N
2c	Voicer expertise is positively associated with perceived threat.	Y
3a	The effect of target of voice on performance evaluation is mediated by liking for the voicer.	Y
3b	The effect of expertise on performance evaluation is mediated by liking for the voicer.	N
4a	The effect of target of voice on performance evaluation is mediated by perceived threat.	Y
4b	The effect of expertise on performance evaluation is mediated by perceived threat.	Y
5a	Sense of power will moderate the positive effects of target of voice on perceived threat, such that the effects are stronger for supervisors with low rather than high sense of power.	N
5b	Sense of power will moderate the negative effects of target of voice on performance evaluation, such that the effects are stronger for supervisors with low rather than high sense of power.	Y
5c	Sense of power will moderate the positive effects of expertise on perceived threat, such that the effects are stronger for supervisors with low rather than high sense of power.	N
5d	Sense of power will moderate the positive effects of expertise on performance, such that the effects are weaker for supervisors with low rather than high sense of power.	N

Note. Y = hypothesis was supported; N = hypothesis was not supported.

behavior. When scholars discuss target, they mainly discuss antecedents of the target of

voice, which is related to questions about what should be done to make employees voluntarily exhibit voice behavior to different targets, such as immediate supervisors or skip-level leaders (James R. Detert & Treviño, 2010). Liu and colleagues (2013) investigate that the good relationship between employees and skip-level leaders can encourage employees to exhibit voice behavior to the skip-level leaders. In my study, I discussed outcomes of target of voice from the perspective of the voicer's immediate supervisors. As a result, outcomes of the target of voice are significantly different, which is that supervisors would give a voicer lower performance evaluations when the voicing employee is speaking up to skip-level leaders rather than when he/she is speaking up to them directly. Furthermore, I investigated that liking of the voicer and perceived threats are the underlying mechanism to explain the relationship between the target of voice and performance evaluations.

Next, consistent with past research (et al., Whiting et al., 2012), voicer expertise considered to be an important factor to impact performance evaluations. However, my study investigated that the relationship between expertise and performance evaluation is complex. According to power theory (eg., Emerson, 1962), when the voicing employee is high in expertise, supervisors would perceive more threat and affect their evaluations of voicer's performance than a voicer with low expertise.

Third, I discussed the role of supervisors' sense of power as a moderator in my study. As the results indicated, when supervisors are encountering with the situation that a voicer is speaking up to skip-level leaders rather than them, supervisors with low sense of

power would provide lower performance evaluations than supervisors with high sense of power. Another result was inconsistent with my hypothesis, which indicated that supervisors with high sense of power perceive more threat rather than supervisors with low sense of power when the voicer is high in expertise. Regarding prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), it states that being in the domain of losses produces risk-seeking behavior. I suppose that the reason supervisors with low sense of power behave in a risky manner is that they have less to lose (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006). On the contrary, supervisors with high sense of power may act more conservatively because they do not want to lose what they have. Employee with high expertise has strong influence in the organization (Georgeson & Harris, 1998), therefore, when an employee with high expertise exhibiting voice behavior, there are more possibilities to make others agree with him/her (Horai et al., 1974) and others might think that this employee has more competent than supervisors. If so, supervisors have danger to lose their power or standings. Consistent with it, Dreu and colleagues (2007) show that, although people certainly have concerns for the larger collective to which they belong, they also seek to improve or protect themselves from threats to their self-image or standing in their organization (Burris, 2012).

Taken together, my findings contribute to the deeper understanding of what makes supervisors respond differently toward employee voice behavior, or in other words, the understanding of employees' characteristic, supervisors' characteristic and voice target all have effects on performance evaluations of employees who exhibit voice behavior. These findings are important for several reasons. First, my findings advance the literature on

employee voice by providing new insight that target of voice impacts supervisors' evaluations of voicers. Second, I extend the research about employee expertise. Scholars posit that leaders assess the abilities and competence of employees through a series of assignments as part of the role taking (Graen & Scandura, 1987) and investigate that supervisors respond positively to voicer who is high in expertise (et al., Whiting et al., 2012), however, my findings suggest that although supervisors would provide higher performance evaluations to an employee with high expertise rather than an employee with low expertise, supervisors' perceived threat as a mechanism explaining the complex relationship between employee expertise and performance evaluations. Finally, the findings of my study suggest that as a characteristic of a supervisor, sense of power has effects on evaluations of employee voice behavior. Previous researches take power into account to discuss the relationship between power and advice taking (Tost, Gino, & Larrick, 2012), my study extends previous findings by connecting power to voice behavior and discussing the sense of power performs as a moderator.

Practical Contribution

Beyond the theoretical implications already highlighted, there are some practical contributions for employees and executives can use to deal with managers who negatively respond to voice behavior.

First, upward communication is vital to the organization. By speaking up to those who occupy positions that are hierarchically higher than their own, employees can help stem illegal and immoral behavior, address mistreatment or injustice, and bring problems

and opportunities for improvement to the attention of those who can authorize action (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). However, my findings suggest that immediate supervisors do not like employees who are speaking up to skip-level leaders and would give them negative performance evaluations. If employees perceive they get low evaluations because of their voice behavior, it may make employees keep silence gradually. It is not good for organizations' effectiveness (Morrison, 2014). Organizations should create chances to enhance communications with employees. For example, gather employees to participate in formal meetings and voluntarily ask employees' suggestions. It not only makes supervisors aware that organization needs the words from first-line employees, but also makes employees aware that it is safe to exhibit voice behavior in the organization.

Second, employees, especially people with high expertise, wishing to provide some constructive suggestions and also, enhance their evaluations, they should pay attention to their immediate supervisors' feelings, for example, provide their constructive suggestions and ideas to immediate supervisors and discuss with them. I believe that it is not good to speak up to skip-level leaders without immediate supervisors permission.

Limitations and Future Research

There are some limitations in my study. First, the target of voice manipulated in my scenario was occurring in an informal situation. According to Detert and Treviño (2010), except for informal situations, there are formal chances for employees to meet skip-level leaders. Therefore, supervisors' responses might be different when employees speak up to skip-level leaders in formal situations (e.g., conference, seminar) and informal situations

(e.g., private talking, coffee room). Second, though I specify the target as immediate supervisors and skip-level leaders, I did not specify the differences in content of voice that is targeted. Future research should consider the differences in content. It is possible that employees bring up different kinds of issues to different leaders (Liu et al., 2013) and might result in different evaluations from immediate supervisors. Third, since I relied on scenarios for manipulating target of voice, expertise, and sense of power. The results of manipulation checks indicated that high and low level manipulations depicted significantly different levels of the conditions. However, I conducted the experiments online and the employees participants evaluated were “paper people”. It is different from video, which is performed by real people. Some researchers believe that paper people methodologies might produce different results than studies using more realistic stimuli (Wendelken & Inn, 1981; Whiting et al., 2008). Future research should extend the findings of this investigation by using different methodologies, such as conducting interviews to ask supervisors directly. Additionally, future research could also explore other factors that influence supervisors’ perceptions of the voicer and the voice behavior.

References

- Albright, M. D., & Levy, P. E. (1995). The effects of source credibility and performance rating discrepancy on reactions to multiple raters¹. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 25*(7), 577-600.
- Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(2), 247-260.
- Anderson, C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2006). Power, optimism, and risk -taking. *European journal of social psychology, 36*(4), 511-536.
- Anderson, C., John, O. P., & Keltner, D. (2012). The personal sense of power. *Journal of Personality, 80*(2), 313-344.
- Argote, L., & Ingram, P. (2000). Knowledge transfer: A basis for competitive advantage in firms. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 82*(1), 150-169.
- Ashford, S. J., Rothbard, N. P., Piderit, S. K., & Dutton, J. E. (1998). Out on a limb: The role of context and impression management in selling gender-equity issues. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 43*(1), 23-57.
- Biddle, B. (1986). Recent developments in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology, 12*(1986), 67-92.
- Botero, I. C., & Van Dyne, L. (2009). Employee voice behavior interactive effects of LMX and power distance in the United States and Colombia. *Management Communication Quarterly, 23*(1), 84-104.

- Braunsberger, K. (1996). *The effects of source and product characteristics on persuasion*. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Arlington.
- Burris, E. R. (2012). The risks and rewards of speaking up: Managerial responses to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(4), 851-875.
- Cardy, R. L., & Dobbins, G. H. (1986). Affect and appraisal accuracy: Liking as an integral dimension in evaluating performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(4), 672-678.
- Cho, Y., & Fast, N. J. (2012). Power, defensive denigration, and the assuaging effect of gratitude expression. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 48(3), 778-782.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., Nijstad, B. A., & van Knippenberg, D. (2007). Motivated information processing in group judgment and decision making. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 12(1), 22-49.
- Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: Is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(4), 869-884.
- Detert, J. R., & Edmondson, A. C. (2011). Implicit voice theories: Taken-for-granted rules of self-censorship at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(3), 461-488.
- Detert, J. R., & Treviño, L. K. (2010). Speaking up to higher-ups: How supervisors and skip-level leaders influence employee voice. *Organization Science*, 21(1), 249-270.
- Dooley, R. S., & Fryxell, G. E. (1999). Attaining decision quality and commitment from dissent: The moderating effects of loyalty and competence in strategic decision-making teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(4), 389-402.
- Dutton, J. E., & Ashford, S. J. (1993). Selling issues to top management. *Academy of*

Management Review, 18(3), 397-428.

Dutton, J. E., Ashford, S. J., O'neill, R. M., Hayes, E., & Wierba, E. E. (1997). Reading the wind: How middle managers assess the context for selling issues to top managers.

Strategic Management Journal, 18(5), 407-425.

Dyne, L. V., Ang, S., & Botero, I. C. (2003). Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(6), 1359-1392.

Emerson, R. (1962). Power-dependence relations. *American Sociological Review*, 27(1), 31-41. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2089716>

Fandt, P. M., Labig, C. E., & Urich, A. L. (1990). Evidence and the liking bias: Effects on managers' disciplinary actions. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 3(4), 253-265.

Fast, N. J., Burriss, E. R., & Bartel, C. A. (2014). Managing to stay in the dark: managerial self-efficacy, ego defensiveness, and the aversion to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(4), 1013-1034.

Fast, N. J., Gruenfeld, D. H., Sivanathan, N., & Galinsky, A. D. (2009). Illusory control: A generative force behind power's far-reaching effects. *Psychological Science*, 20(4), 502-508.

Feng, B., & MacGeorge, E. L. (2006). Predicting receptiveness to advice: Characteristics of the problem, the advice-giver, and the recipient. *Southern Communication Journal*, 71, 67-85.

- French, J. R., Raven, B., & Cartwright, D. (1959). The bases of social power. *Classics of organization theory*, 311-320.
- Frese, M., Garst, H., & Fay, D. (2007). Making things happen: Reciprocal relationships between work characteristics and personal initiative in a four-wave longitudinal structural equation model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1084-1102.
- Galinsky, A. D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Magee, J. C. (2003). From power to action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(3), 453-466.
- Georgeses, J. C., & Harris, M. J. (1998). Why's my boss always holding me down? A meta analysis of power effects on performance evaluations. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 2(3), 184-95.
- Goldhamer, H., & Shils, E. A. (1939). Types of power and status. *American Journal of Sociology*, 45(2), 171-182.
- Graen, G. B., & Scandura, T. a. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior*.
- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28, 3-34.
- Grant, A. M., Gino, F., & Hofmann, D. a. (2011). Reversing the extraverted leadership advantage: The role of employee proactivity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(3), 528-550.
- Grant, A. M., Parker, S., & Collins, C. (2009). Getting credit for proactive behavior: Supervisor reactions depend on what you value and how you feel. *Personnel*

Psychology, 62(1), 31-55.

- Horai, J., Naccari, N., & Fatoullah, E. (1974). The effects of expertise and physical attractiveness upon opinion agreement and liking. *Sociometry*, 601-606.
- Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L., & Kelley, H. H. (1953). Communication and persuasion; psychological studies of opinion change.
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. (1984). Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(1), 85-98.
- Johnson, D. E., Erez, A., Kiker, D. S., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2002). Liking and attributions of motives as mediators of the relationships between individuals' reputations, helpful behaviors, and raters' reward decisions. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 808-815.
- Judge, T. a., & Ferris, G. R. (1993). Social context of performance evaluation decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(1), 80-105.
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica*, 66(3), 497-527.
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, 110(2), 265-284.
- Krueger, J. I. (2003). Return of the ego--self-referent information as a filter for social prediction: Comment on Karniol (2003). *Psychological Review*, 110(3), 585-590.
- Lefkowitz, J. (2000). The role of interpersonal affective regard in supervisory performance ratings: A literature review and proposed causal model. *Journal of Occupational and*

Organizational Psychology, 73(1), 67-85.

LePine, J. a, & Van Dyne, L. (1998). Predicting voice behavior in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(6), 853-868.

Liang, J., Farh, C. I., & Farh, J. L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: A two-wave examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(1), 71-92.

Liu, W., Tangirala, S., & Ramanujam, R. (2013). The relational antecedents of voice targeted at different leaders. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(5), 841-851.

Liu, W., Zhu, R., & Yang, Y. (2010). I warn you because I like you: Voice behavior, employee identifications, and transformational leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(1), 189-202.

Magee, J. C., & Galinsky, A. D. (2008). Social hierarchy: The self -reinforcing nature of power and status. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 351-398.

McClellan, E. J., Burris, E. R., & Detert, J. R. (2013). When does voice lead to exit? It depends on leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56(2), 525-548.

Menon, T., Thompson, L., & Choi, H. S. (2006). Tainted knowledge vs. tempting knowledge: People avoid knowledge from internal rivals and seek knowledge from external rivals. *Management Science*, 52(8), 1129-1144.

Morrison, E. W. (2011). Employee voice Behavior: Integration and directions for future research. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 373-412.

Morrison, E. W. (2014). Employee voice and silence. *Annual Review of Organizational*

Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1(1), 173-197.

Morrison, E. W., & Milliken, F. J. (2000). Organizational silence: A barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 706-725.

Morrison, E. W., & Rothman, N. B. (2009). Silence and the dynamics of power. *Voice and Silence in Organizations*, 111-133.

Morrison, E. W., See, K. E., & Pan, C. (2014). An approach-inhibition model of employee silence: The joint effects of personal sense of power and target openness. *Personnel Psychology*, 1-34.

Near, J. P., & Miceli, M. P. (1986). Retaliation against whistle blowers: Predictors and effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(1), 137-145.

Nembhard, I. M., & Edmondson, A. C. (2006). Making it safe: The effects of leader inclusiveness and professional status on psychological safety and improvement efforts in health care teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(7), 941-966.

Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. (2010). Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 36(3), 633-662.

Paukstat, B., Steglich, C., & Wittek, R. (2011). Who speaks up to whom? A relational approach to employee voice. *Social Networks*, 33(4), 303-316.

Pornpitakpan, C. (2004). The persuasiveness of source credibility: A critical review of five decades' evidence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34(2), 243-281.

Seiling, J. G. (2001). *The meaning and role of organizational advocacy: Responsibility and accountability in the workplace*. Quorum Books.

- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Crant, J. M. (2001). A longitudinal model linking proactive personality and career success. *Personnel Psychology, 54*(4), 845-874.
- Tangirala, S. (2008). Exploring nonlinearity in employee voice: The effects of personal control and organizational identification. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*(6), 1189-1203.
- Thomas, J. P., Whitman, D. S., & Viswesvaran, C. (2010). Employee proactivity in organizations: A comparative meta-analysis of emergent proactive constructs. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83*(2), 275-300.
- Tingley, D., Yamamoto, T., Hirose, K., Keele, L., & Imai, K. (2014). Mediation: R package for causal mediation analysis. *Journal of Statistical Software, 59*(5), 1-38.
- Tost, L. P., Gino, F., & Larrick, R. P. (2012). Power, competitiveness, and advice taking: Why the powerful don't listen. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 117*(1), 53-65.
- Tsui, A. S., & Barry, B. (1986). Research notes: interpersonal affect and rating errors. *Academy of Management Journal, 29*(3), 586-599.
- Vandyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & Parks, J. M. (1995). Extra-role behaviors-in pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). *Research In Organizational Behavior: An Annual Series of Analytical Essays and Critical Reviews, 17*, 215-285.
- Van Dyne, L., & LePine, J. A. (1998a). Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(1), 108-119.

- Warren, D. E., & Warren, D. E. (2014). Note constructive and destructive deviance in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 28(4), 622-632.
- Wayne, S. J., & Liden, R. C. (1995). Effects of impression management on performance ratings : A longitudinal study, 38(1), 232-260.
- Wendelken, D. J., & Inn, A. (1981). Nonperformance influences on performance evaluations: A laboratory phenomenon? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 66(2), 149-158.
- Whiting, S. W., Maynes, T. D., Podsakoff, N. P., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2012). Effects of message, source, and context on evaluations of employee voice behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1), 159-182.
- Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. (2008). Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 125-139.
- Zhou, J., & George, J. M. (2001). When job dissatisfaction leads to creativity: Encouraging the expression of voice. *Academy of Management journal*, 44(4), 682-696.

Appendix 1. Scripts for Manipulations

Variable	High level manipulation	Low level manipulation
Supervisors' sense of power (Anderson, John, & Keltner, 2012)	<p>High sense of power</p> <p>Suppose that you were a department head in a company. This company is planning to expand its business overseas and you are in charge of this project. In this company, you have a lot of power. You have the power to decide work contents, personnel reshuffles, subordinates' salary and so on. The members in this project will perform according to your direction.</p>	<p>Low sense of power</p> <p>Suppose that you were a department head in a company. This company is planning to expand its business overseas. Although you are in charge of this project, you don't have a lot of power. So you don't have a lot of power to decide work contents, personnel reshuffle, subordinates' salary and so on. The members in this project almost not perform according to your direction.</p>
Target of employee voice (Detert & Trevino, 2010)	<p>Skip-level leaders target</p> <p>One day, in a weekly meeting, you reported that you decide to expand business within Asia to other people and your supervisor A was also in this meeting. After the meeting, you found that you had forgotten some documents in the meeting room, so you returned back. When you were near to the meeting room, you found that your subordinate B and your supervisor A were talking quietly in the meeting room.</p> <p>You heard B said that "related to this project, I think tapping into American market is better than Asian market and is good for the future of our company." Besides that, B told a lot of problems related to the project to supervisor A. You didn't hear the problems from B before and you know B always behaves like this from the other members.</p>	<p>Direct-supervisor target</p> <p>One day, in a weekly meeting, you reported that you decide to expand business within Asia to other people and your supervisor A was also in this meeting. After the meeting, you found that you have forgot some documents in the meeting room, so you returned back. On your way back to the meeting room, you met subordinate B and he said that he has something to tell you.</p> <p>B said that "related to this project, I think tapping into American market is better than Asian market and is good for the future of our company." Besides that, He told a lot of problems related to project to you. Not only this time, He always talk with you about his ideas about company issues before.</p>
Employee expertise	<p>High expertise</p> <p>Subordinate B knew much about the overseas issues and had a high knowledge about marketing.</p>	<p>Low expertise</p> <p>Subordinate B doesn't know much about overseas issues and has a little knowledge about marketing.</p>

Note. Scenarios were originally written in Chinese.

调查问卷

首先感谢您在百忙中抽空回答此次的问卷调查。此次问卷调查主要涉及您在工作当中的决策行为，您的回答没有对错之分，我们只会对数据进行总体水平的统计分析，不会做任何针对个人的分析，请您放心作答。

★说明事项（必读）

此次调查主要分为两大部分

① 第一部分内容为场景设想调查（相当于角色扮演）。下一页中有一段场景描述，在场景中你的角色是某公司的部门经理，调查的目的是让你置身于场景中，分析当时的状况以及对场景中的下属进行评价等。

（注：此部分的回答是将你设想为场景中的人物进行作答）

② 第二部分内容是关于你本人的性格特征等，请根据实际情况作答。

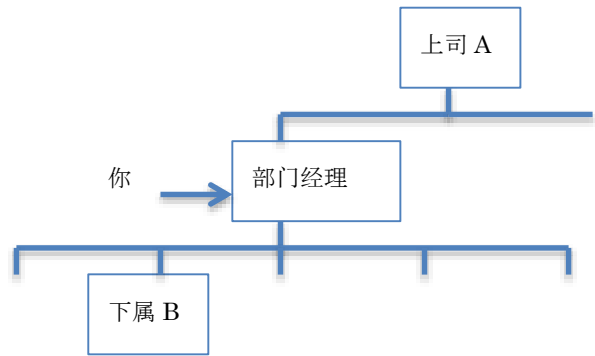
完成此次调查大约需要 10~15 分钟

第 I 部分：在回答问题之前请先阅读下面的场景，并设想您是场景中的人物。

假设你所在的公司正在进行海外市场开发项目。你是这个公司的部门经理，同时也是这个项目的总负责人。在公司你有很大的权力，对员工也有很大的影响力。你可以决定员工的工作内容、人事调动、工资调整等。参与此项目的员工也都根据你的指示行动。

某一天，在每周的例会上，你跟公司各相关人员汇报说公司接下来的计划是开发亚洲新市场。你的上司 A 也参加了这次例会。在会议结束后你发现有些资料忘记拿，于是返回会议室。当你走到会议室门口你发现你的下属 B 与上司 A 两个人在会议室里面小声地说话。下属 B 是此次项目的成员之一，他对海外市场开发项目非常熟悉，并且有很丰富的市场方面的知识。

你在门外听到下属 B 对上司 A 说“关于这次的海外拓展项目，我觉得与其开发亚洲新市场，不如直接尝试进入美国，这样对我们公司未来的发展更加有利。”除此之外，他也向上司 A 汇报了他认为这个项目中存在的问题以及需要改进的地方。关于这些内容下属 B 没有在你面前汇报过，而且你之前也听其他下属反应 B 经常会主动与你的上司 A 汇报自己工作上的想法和建议，或者发现的问题等。



问题 A：以下问题是确认你是否掌握上述场景的内容。请根据场景内容作答。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 你在公司里面有很大的权力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 公司里的很多决策都由你来决定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 下属 B 有很丰富的海外拓展及市场相关的知识	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 关于此次海外市场开发项目，下属 B 如果有自己的想法或者发现相关问题，会直接向你汇报	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

问题 B：如果你是上述场景中的部门经理，你对下属 B的行为会有怎样的情绪或作出怎样的反应。请思考每一道题并作答。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我感觉到与 B 有竞争关系	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
2. 关于海外市场开发项目，我希望自己的方案比 B 的要好 .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
3. 我会更加努力使自己在工作上的表现比 B 更加出色 . . .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
4. 我会尽量避免与 B 发生争执	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
5. 为了不伤害 B 的自尊心，我这次会保持沉默，而不是反对 B 的意见	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
6. 我认为 B 的行为会威胁到我在公司的地位、权力或者影响 力	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
7. 我认为 B 的行为会导致上司对我的工作能力产生怀疑 . .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
8. 我感觉 B 会是我工作上的对手	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
9. 我认为 B 会是我公司里面的竞争者	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
10. 我认为 B 是我的敌对者	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						

问题 C：如果你是上述场景中的部门经理，关于你和下属 B之间的关系，请思考下面每一道题并作答。

1. 我喜欢 B 这样的员工	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
2. 我认为我可以和 B 友好相处	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
3. 我觉得能有 B 这样的下属是一件很开心的事情	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
4. 我认为我和 B 能成为很好的朋友	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

问题 D：如果你是上述场景中的部门经理，当你看到下属 B的行为时，关于你当时的心情，请回答以下问题。

1. 我会对 B 说的内容产生兴趣	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
2. 我为 B 敢于跟上级沟通感到自豪	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
3. 我会感觉很兴奋	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
4. 我会感觉很烦躁	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
5. 我会感觉很不安	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
6. 我会感觉很生气	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

问题 E: 如果你是上述场景中的部门经理, 针对下属 B的言论和建议, 你会采取怎样的行动。请思考每一道题并作答。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我会采纳 B 的建议, 并对海外市场开发项目做出修改···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
2. 听完 B 说的内容, 我会重新考虑海外市场开发项目···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
3. 我会接受 B 的意见, 并与上司 A 一起讨论···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7

问题 F: 如果你是上述场景中的部门经理, 你会对下属 B做出怎样的综合评价。请思考每一道题并作答。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我认为 B 对公司做出了很大的贡献···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
2. 我认为对于公司来说, B 是一个不可缺少的成员···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
3. 我认为对公司来说, B 有非常大的价值···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
4. 如果公司没有 B, 对公司来说是一个非常大的损失···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7

问题 G: 如果你是上述场景中的部门经理, 关于你对下属 B是否实施奖励, 请思考每一道题并作答。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我会考虑给下属 B 加薪···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
2. 如果公司有升职的机会, 我会考虑推荐下属 B···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
3. 我会让下属 B 负责一些大型工程或者项目···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
4. 我会公开表扬下属 B···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
5. 如果有提高专业发展的培训, 我会让下属 B 参加···	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7

★第Ⅱ部：以下问题与上述情景内容无关。请根据实际情况回答下述问题。

问题 H：以下是关于您的个人性格特征等问题，请根据实际情况作答。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我很容易站在别人的角度考虑问题·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
2. 我可以让我周围的大部分人跟我相处时没有压力并且很 放松·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
3. 跟别人形成友好的关系对我来说是一件非常简单的事情	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
4. 我能了解别人的想法·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
5. 我擅长从他人处获得积极的回应·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
6. 我会经常试着寻找自己与周围人的共通点·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
7. 我希望别人按照我的方式做事·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
8. 我喜欢领导别人，并拥有掌控权·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
9. 我喜欢和别人竞争并争取胜利·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
10. 如果我不同意别人的意见或者想法，我会与这个人争论	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
11. 我希望别人尊敬我·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
12. 我希望别人关注我·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
13. 我总是希望获得别人的特别青睐·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
14. 我有追求地位和名声的倾向·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
15. 我有操纵别人来达到自己目的的倾向·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
16. 我曾经通过欺骗或者说谎来达到自己的目的·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
17. 我倾向于奉承别人来达到自己目的·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
18. 我倾向于利用别人来达到自己的目的·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
19. 我很少自责或者反省自己·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
20. 我不关心我自己的行为在道德上是否合适·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
21. 我是一个铁石心肠的人·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
22. 我是一个愤世嫉俗的人·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
23. 我有信心在生活中取得应有的成功·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
24. 有时候我感到沮丧·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
25. 一般情况下，只要我努力都能成功·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
26. 在某些失败的时候，我感觉自己很没用·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
27. 我成功地完成了任务·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
28. 有时候，我觉得我不能掌控我的工作·	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
29. 总体上，我对自己很满意·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
30. 我对自己的胜任力充满怀疑·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
31. 我的人生由我自己决定·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
32. 我感到无法掌控自己在事业上的成败·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
33. 对于遇到的大部分问题，我都有能力应对·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
34. 有时候，我感到事情看起来暗淡无望·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
35. 我经常 would 想像我该怎么做才能达成我的目标和愿望·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
36. 我通常会专注于未来我能获得的成功·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
37. 我认为我自己正在努力地实现“理想中的自己”——完成我的希望、愿望以及期望等·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
38. 我通常专注于取得好的结果·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
39. 我经常思考，理想中的我应该是一个怎样的人·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
40. 我经常 would 想像美梦成真时的场景·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
41. 我通常专注于避免一些不好事情的发生·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
42. 我经常 would 思考如何防止失败的发生·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
43. 我经常 would 担心我会完成不了我的职责等·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
44. 我经常 would 想像自己遇到一些我害怕发生的事情·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
45. 我经常 would 思考我恐怕会变成怎样的人·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
46. 对我来说，与获得利益相比，避免损失是最重要的·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7

问题 I: 如果你生活中是一名公司的管理人员或者公司的领导者, 请从管理人员的角度回答以下问题。
如果现实生活中你不是公司的管理人员, 请想像自己成为一名管理者, 并回答以下问题。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我觉得我比大多数领导更懂得该如何成为一名好领导·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
2. 我知道如何让一个团队顺利地完成任务·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
3. 通常情况下, 我是一名好的团队领导者·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7
4. 我对我自己在团队中的影响力很有自信·····	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
5. 我知道如何让团队有效地运转	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我知道如何促进团队的工作效率和业绩	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 当我领导一个团队时, 让大多数的团队成员都有所贡献会 让我感到很愉悦	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 总的来说, 我认为我自己可以很好地领导一个团队 . . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

问题 I: 以下问题中的描述与您的想法是否一致, 请思考每一道题并作答。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	既不同意也不反对	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 在大多数情况下, 上司做决策时不需要咨询下属的意见	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 在与工作相关的事情上, 上司有权要求下服从自己	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 员工经常质疑上司有时会影响上司的工作效率	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 如果公司的上级领导做出了某种决定, 普通员工不应该提 出质疑	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 员工不应该对上司的决策提出反对意见	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 即使不与下属讨论, 上司也应该有能力做出正确的决策	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 让下属参与公司的决策会让上司失去威信	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 即使是为了企业着想, 员工也不应该打破公司规定 . . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第 III 部：以下问题是关于您的基本信息。请选择相应的选项或者直接填入答案。

1. 性别：男性 女性：

2. 年龄：_____岁

3. 国籍：_____

4. 受教育程度：

中学毕业及以下 中专 / 高中毕业 专科 / 本科 硕士及以上

5. 婚姻状况：未婚 已婚（小孩个数：_____人）

6. 行业类型：

a. 农业、采矿

f. 房地产

b. 电讯业

g. 零售、批发

c. 建筑业、机械制造业

h. 公务员、教育、培训

d. 金融、保险业

i. 运输业

e. 医疗服务业

j. 其它（_____）

7. 所在部门

a. 行政

f. 技术

b. 人力资源

g. 维修

c. 财务

h. 物流

d. 市场开发、产品开发

i. 其它（_____）

e. 营销

8. 现在所在单位的就职年数：_____年

9. 工作形式：正式员工 兼职 临时工 其它（_____）

10. 管理层经验：_____年

11. 公司员工人数

a. 不满 50 人

c. 300~999 人

b. 50~299 人

d. 1000 人以上

