Why will different types of organisational commitment lead to different forms of employee voice?

An explanation from the regulatory focus perspective

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Statement of Originality

I certify that the work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original and my own work, except where due reference is made in the text.

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Abstract

Because of the seminal work by Hirschman (1970), organisational commitment is expected to play an important role in shaping employee voice behaviour. However, the influence of organisational commitment on employee voice is still unclear, which is found either inconsistent (for affective organisational commitment) or rarely examined (for continuance organisational commitment). This research addresses this important issue from regulatory focus perspective by exploring whether, why, and when different types of organisational commitment (affective commitment vs. continuance commitment) lead to different forms of voice behaviour (constructive voice vs. defensive voice).

I propose that employees with high-level affective organisational commitment tend to adopt situational promotion focus, which further promotes their constructive voice, whereas employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment tend to adopt situational prevention focus, which in turn facilitates their defensive voice. I further suggest that the above indirect relationships are contingent on leadership behaviours, in such a way that exploration leadership enhances the indirect relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice, whereas exploitation leadership mitigates the indirect influence of continuance organisational commitment on defensive voice.

Study 1 is an experimental study of 70 MBA students, with the purpose of testing whether organisational commitment type (affective organisational commitment vs. continuous organisational commitment) is associated with voice behaviour, and the mediating role of regulatory focus in the above relationships, under objectively defined conditions of organisational commitment. The results of Study 1 reveal that organisational commitment type is indirectly positively linked to constructive voice via situational promotion focus, and indirectly negatively associated with defensive voice

via situational prevention focus. Study 2 tests the full moderated mediation model with a field study, applied to 294 frontline employees nested in 62 shops from a large telecommunications company. The results of Study 2 replicate the findings of Study 1, and further demonstrate that exploration leadership strengthens the indirect positive relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice, whereas exploitation leadership weakens the indirect positive relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice. Finally, this research also explores the theoretical and practical implications of the findings, and presents directions for future research.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Research Background and Problems

Employee voice behaviour is generally defined as voluntary communication to individuals within an organisation with the purpose of influencing the work environment (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Given the importance of employee voice behaviour in helping organisations adapt to the rapidly changing and highly competitive environment, there is a growing body of literature seeking to delineate the antecedents of voice. Among these antecedents, scholarly interest in the influence of organisational commitment is not only because of the theoretical and practical importance of organisational commitment (Klein, Cooper, Molloy, & Swanson, 2014), but also as a result of the seminal work by Hirschman (1970), which predicted that feeling of attachment to an organisation will enhance employees' tendency to engage in voice behaviour. However, up to now, the impact of organisational commitment on voice is still controversial. To address this gap, this research examines whether, why, and when different types of organisational commitment lead to different forms of voice.

organisational commitment is conceptualised as a multidimensional construct, consisting of three types: affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 1991). Considering that affective and normative organisational commitment are highly related (Meyer et al., 2002), whereas continuance organisational commitment is conceptually distinguishable from affective organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002), the current research mainly focused on affective and continuance organisational commitment.

With respect to the influence of affective organisational commitment, although the current voice literature presents the definition of voice as conceptually different from

the definition in Hirschman's framework, some recent works made similar predictions that affective organisational commitment should be positively associated with employee voice behaviour (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Wang, Weng, McElroy, Ashkanasy, & Lievens, 2014), because affective organisational commitment captures employees' positive attitudes towards their organisation and reflects employees' intention to make extra effort on behalf of their organisation (Burris et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2014). However, empirical works—both those based on Hirschman's framework and those based on the current voice conceptualisation—have showed inconsistent findings. In line with this prediction, some works have indicated that affective organisational commitment has a positive relationship with employee voice behaviour (e.g., Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Wang et al., 2014; Withey & Cooper, 1989). In contrast to this prediction, other works have found that affective organisational commitment is not a significant predictor of employee voice behaviour (e.g., Burris et al., 2008; Graham & Van Dyne, 2006; Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, & Roth, 1992). The inconsistency in research findings demonstrates that there are problems in the above logic argument, and that the relationship between affective organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour is much more complex than we expected.

Affective organisational commitment reflects employees' positive attitudes towards their organisation. Due to the halo effect, this positive attitude may lead employees to view their organisation through a 'rose-coloured glass' (Naquin & Tynan, 2003), and decrease the possibility that affectively committed employees identify potential problems. A recent meta-analysis indicated that affective organisational commitment has a significantly stronger positive relationship with less challenging forms of voice (such as expressing ideas and suggestions to improve the status quo) than more

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challenging forms of voice (such as expressing concerns and worries to prevent organisational failure) (Chamberlin, Newton, & LePine, 2017). Therefore, the influence of affective organisational commitment on voice behaviour is complex and may vary with different forms of voice. Examining the associations between different types of organisational commitment and different forms of employee voice behaviour will provide a clearer picture of the effect of organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour and improve understandings of the conceptual differences between different forms of voice behaviour.

Compared with affective organisational commitment, continuous organisational commitment has received relatively less attention. The lack of research on the influence of continuous organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour is understandable, because continuously committed employees, driven by instrumental motivation, are less likely to take extra effort to develop novel work-related ideas or point out dysfunction (Shore & Wayne, 1993). However, with the development of understandings of employee voice behaviour, different forms of voice have been identified (Burris, 2012; Liang et al., 2012; Maynes et al., 2014) that are not necessarily to be constructive versus destructive, prosocial versus self-concerned. The instrumental motivation that underlies continuance organisational commitment may also lead to certain types of voice behaviour. Therefore, it is worth reconsidering and further exploring the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour.

In addition, past works examining the influence of organisational commitment mainly relied on social exchange theory. However, given the challenging nature of voice behaviour, it is less a reciprocity means in a social exchange relationship (Deckop

et al., 2003, Parker et al., 2006). Therefore, social exchange theory may not fully explain whether and why organisational commitment impacts voice behaviour.

1.2 Research Goals

To address the above research problems, this research had two goals. The first goal was to investigate the relationships between different types of organisational commitment (affective organisational commitment and continuous organisational commitment) and different forms of employee voice behaviour (constructive voice and defensive voice) from a regulatory focus perspective. Employee voice behaviour is a multifaceted construct and can be categorised on different bases (Liang et al., 2012; Maynes et al., 2014; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). This research adopted Maynes and Podsakoff's (2014) conceptual framework and mainly focused on constructive voice and defensive voice. Constructive voice refers to employees' voluntary expression of opinions and information, with the purpose of improving organisational status quo, whereas defensive voice refers to employees' voluntary communication of opposition to change, even when the proposed change is necessary (Maynes et al., 2014). As defined, the two forms of voice reflect employees' typical attitudes to change. The context of this research involved organisations undergoing some extent of change. Specifically, the organisation depicted in the scenario in Study 1 was considering introducing a new service project, whereas the organisation studied in Study 2 introduced new telecommunications products. Considering the research context, I focused on the two typical responses to change, constructive voice and defensive voice.

Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) suggests that individuals have two basic self-regulatory systems, promotion focus and prevention focus, by which they approach pleasure and avoid pain: promotion focus and prevention focus. Promotion

focus regulates nurturance needs and ideal goals that orient individuals towards advancement, growth and accomplishment. When nurturance needs or ideal goals are salient, promotion focus is triggered. Affective organisational commitment reflects the extent to which individuals identify with and internalise the goals and values of their organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990), the congruent goal represents a desired end-state for individuals with high-level affective organisational commitment. Therefore, I predicted that individuals with high-level affective organisational commitment would be more likely to adopt a promotion focus. In addition, as suggested by regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998), distinct self-regulatory systems have different consequences in terms of perception, decision making and behaviours. Promotion-focused individuals have an exploratory orientation to the environment and do not consider potential personal losses when striving for their ideal goals. They are motivated to explore new opportunities and demonstrate enhanced creative performance (Lanaj et al., 2012), which is critical for constructive voice. Therefore, I predicted that individuals with high-level promotion focus would be more likely to engage in constructive voice and that promotion focus would mediate the indirect relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice.

On the other hand, according to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998), prevention focus regulates security needs and ought goals. Prevention focus is triggered when safety and security needs are salient. Individuals with high-level continuous organisational commitment are sensitive to personal loss (Meyer & Allen, 1991), and their desire to avoid succumbing to personal loss is salient; thus, I predicted that individuals with high-level continuous organisational commitment are more likely to adopt a prevention focus. Moreover, according to regulatory focus theory, prevention-focused individuals are sensitive to negative deviation from the status quo (Higgins,

1997), and, once threats are detected, prevention focus will lead them to take strategies to reduce harm (Oyserman, Uskul, Yoder, Nesse, & Williams, 2007). In the context of introducing new projects, individuals are inevitably influenced and need to use extra personal resources to adjust to the change. Because the relationship between continuously committed employees and their organisation is finance-based and short-term oriented (Shore et al., 1993; Shore et al., 2006), continuously committed employees emphasise short-term benefits and costs, rather than long-term ones (Shore et al., 2006). Therefore, for continuously committed employees, short-term personal losses caused by organisational change may outweigh potential benefits in the long run. As a result, it is possible that continuously committed employees will adopt a prevention focus and view potential change as a threat to their valued resources. Voice behaviour is an important means to address dissatisfaction (Zhou & George, 2001) and protect personal valued resources (Qin, DiRenzo, Xu, & Duan, 2014). Therefore, I predicted that individuals with high-level prevention focus would be more likely to engage in defensive voice, and that prevention focus would mediate the indirect relationship between continuous organisational commitment and defensive voice.

The second goal of this research was to explore the boundary conditions of the organisational commitment—regulatory focus—voice relationships. Given the important role of leaders in shaping employee voice behaviour (Detert & Burris, 2007; Morrison, 2011), I turn to leadership behaviours that may heighten or weaken the indirect influence of organisational commitment in a changing setting, specifically exploration leadership and exploitation leadership. Exploration leadership and exploitation leadership focus on the extent to which managers increase or reduce variance in employees' behavior (Rosing et al., 2011), and thus, are typical leadership behaviours in changing settings. Exploration leadership encourages searching for new

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opportunities, trying new approaches, completing work in new or different ways, and experimenting (Rosing et al., 2011), which aligns with the regulatory demands of the ideal end-states elicited by affective organisational commitment. Regulatory fit theory suggests that when individuals experience regulatory fit, they will feel right, which further increases the motivation and effort in goal pursuit (Higgins, 2000, 2005). Thereby, I predicted that exploration leadership would enhance the positive effect of affective organisational commitment on employees' constructive voice.

In contrast, exploitation leadership directs attention to routine work and emphasises standardisation and guidelines (Giles et al., 2015; Rosing et al., 2011), thereby sending clear and strong signals regarding managerial avoidance of change. This may lead individuals with high-level continuance organisational commitment to feel less necessary to take risk to express opposition to change, because exploitation-oriented managers themselves tend to reduce changes and variances, which operates as a much safer option to address the threats associated with potential change. According to regulatory focus theory (Scholer & Higgins, 2008; Scholer, Zou, Fujita, Stroessner, & Higgins, 2014), when both safe and risky tactics are available, prevention-focused individuals show strong preference for the safe tactic. Therefore, owing to the existence of a safer option, exploitation leadership reduces the degree of fit between defensive voice and tactic preference of individuals with high-level continuance organisational commitment, thereby decreasing the possibility that individuals with high-level continuance organisational commitment will resort to defensive voice to address the security concerns. Based on above discussion, I predicted that exploitation leadership would weaken the positive relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice.

1.3 Potential Theoretical Contribution

This research sought to contribute to the growing literature on voice, organisational commitment, and regulatory focus in several ways. The theoretical contributions of this research are briefly outlined below, and will be discussed in detail in each specific study.

First, one of the primary contributions of this research is revealing the unique and different influence of affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment on the two forms of voice behaviour (constructive voice versus defensive voice). To address the inconsistency in the previous research findings and research gaps in the voice literature, this research is based on more specific conceptualisation of voice. This research hypothesised that employees' affective organisational commitment is positively related to their constructive voice. This is consistent with prior research, whereby the generation and expression of novel ideas are driven by intrinsic motivations because they involve much extra time and effort (Liang et al., 2012). Considering the influence of continuance organisational commitment, this research hypothesised that employees' continuance organisational commitment is positively associated with their defensive voice. In addition, this research helps to establish the discriminant validity of constructive voice and defensive voice by showing that the two forms of voice have unique antecedents.

Second, this research advances the literature on regulatory focus by highlighting the importance of intrapsychic factors. As a state, regulatory focus is subject to dispositional, intrapsychic, and situational influence (Dane & George, 2014). However, most of prior works that attempted to delineate the antecedents of regulatory focus in organisational settings centred on situational triggers (Kark, Katz-Navon, & Delegach,

2015; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008) and some focused on dispositional differences (e.g., Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Neubert et al., 2008). Works on intrapsychic antecedents are limited (Dane et al., 2014). To some extent, the lack of attention has led to controversy regarding the relationship between organisational commitment (an intrapsychic construct) and regulatory focus. This research goes beyond prior works by investigating employees' organisational commitment as an antecedent of regulatory focus to lend clarity to the conflicting predictions in prior theoretical works. I hypothesised that affective organisational commitment is positively related to promotion focus, whereas continuance organisational commitment is positively associated with prevention focus.

Third, this research adds to the organisational commitment literature by delineating how affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment are differently related to the two forms of voice. Most of prior works relied on social exchange theory to explain the influence of organisational commitment (Lavelle et al., 2009). However, voice is less a reciprocity means in a social exchange relationship (Deckop et al., 2003, Parker et al., 2006); thus, social exchange theory may not fully explain the influence of organisational commitment on voice behaviour (Shore et al., 2006). Based on regulatory focus theory, this research suggests that employees' situational regulatory focus operates as the proximal motivational state through which employees' organisational commitment influences their voice behaviour. Specifically, the influence of employees' affective organisational commitment on their constructive voice behaviour works through a situational promotion focus, whereas a situational prevention focus mediates the relationship between employees' continuance organisational commitment and their defensive voice behaviour.

Fourth, this research also extends understandings of the boundary conditions of affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment in prompting the two forms of voice behaviour through regulatory focus by examining the moderating effect of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership. As discussed shortly in the literature review chapter, works that seek to identify the antecedents of employee voice behaviour developed along two lines. In the first line, researchers focused on individual antecedents, particularly those depicting the motivational pathway through which the other factors exert influence (e.g., Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Liang et al., 2012; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008a). The second line of work highlighted the importance of managers (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010). Both lines of work have contributed to our understanding of employee voice behaviour. However, the two lines of work have only been integrated to a limited extent (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012), which has facilitated a call for an integrative framework to examine how individual and situational factors operate in conjunction to influence employee voice behaviour (Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010). To address the call, in this research, I explored how managerial exploration leadership and exploitation leadership moderate the indirect relationships between two types of organisational commitment and two forms of employee voice behaviour. Specifically, I hypothesised that the means for goal-striving shaped by exploration leadership are congruent with the desired end-states elicited by affective organisational commitment, thereby reinforcing the indirect influence of affective organisational commitment on constructive voice. On the other hand, the means provided by exploitation leadership reduce the degree of fit between original means (defensive voice) and regulatory demands, thereby mitigating the indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice.

1.4 Outline

This section provides an overview of this thesis by introducing the purpose of each chapter. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of the literature on employee voice behaviour, regulatory focus theory, organisational commitment, exportation leadership and exploitation leadership. This review is necessary because it provides an overarching picture of related research to date. In the first section of Chapter 2, I review the literature on employee voice behaviour, including different perspectives in conceptualising and categorising employee voice behaviour, important differences between employee voice behaviour and other related constructs, antecedents of employee voice behaviour, and the psychological mechanisms that link the influence of antecedents to employee voice behaviour. Finally, important research gaps are highlighted.

The second section of Chapter 2 presents an introduction to regulatory focus theory, which provides the overarching theoretical framework for this thesis. Regulatory focus theory has gained prominence in understanding individual self-regulation processes (Higgins & Spiegel, 2004; Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012; Scholer & Higgins, 2010). Moreover, due to its relevance in performance domains, regulatory focus theory holds great promise for increasing understandings of organisational behaviour, and therefore, has received increasing attention (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; De Cremer, Mayer, van Dijke, Schouten, & Bardes, 2009; Tseng & Kang, 2008). In this section, I review the core perspectives of regulatory focus theory, the related constructs, and the antecedents and outcomes of the two coexisting self-regulatory systems, to provide an overview of the mechanisms through which individual and situational factors influence work-related behavioural outcomes. A general understanding of regulatory focus theory helps to build the theoretical framework for

investigating the self-regulatory mechanisms that underlie the relationships between employees' organisational commitment and their voice behaviour, and for investigating how managerial leadership behaviours may moderate the indirect relationships.

In the third section of Chapter 2, I review literature on organisational commitment, including the core perspectives in defining organisational commitment and its behavioural outcomes. Important research gaps are discussed at the end of this section. This review provides a basis for understanding which issues are important and which issues should be addressed in the future in the research area of organisational commitment.

The final section of Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature on exploration leadership and exploitation leadership, which includes the core perspectives in defining exploration leadership and exploitation leadership, and the important differences between exploration leadership and exploitation leadership and transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

Chapter 3 elaborates on the reasoning process and hypotheses regarding why organisational commitment can shape employee voice behaviour and how managerial exploration leadership and exploitation leadership can moderate the above relationships. Based on literature review in Chapter 2, in this chapter, I incorporate the perspectives of regulatory focus theory to understand the influence of organisational commitment (affective organisational commitment and continuous organisational commitment) on employee voice behaviour (constructive voice and defensive voice), the mediating mechanisms underlying the above relationships, and the boundary conditions of the indirect influence of the two types of organisational commitment on voice behaviour.

The research hypotheses are proposed for empirical examination, which are tested in the two studies in the following chapter.

Chapter 4 presents the two studies to test the hypotheses. In the first section of Chapter 4, I elaborate on the research design, related measures, analysis method, and results of Study 1. Study 1 is an experiment with a between-subjects design applied to 70 MBA students from a Chinese university. The purpose of Study 1 is to test whether organisational commitment type (affective organisational commitment vs. continuous organisational commitment) is associated with voice behaviour and the mediating role of regulatory focus in the above relationships under objectively defined conditions of organisational commitment. In brief, the findings show that organisational commitment type is positively related to constructive voice via situational promotion focus, whereas organisational commitment type is negatively related to defensive voice via situational prevention focus. Study 1 achieved the first goal of this thesis—to explore the influence of organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour and the underlying mechanisms.

The second section of Chapter 4 presents Study 2 to test the full moderated mediation model. In this section, I elaborate the sample, procedures, related measures, analysis method, and results of Study 2. Study 2 is a time-lagged survey with an employee-supervisor dyadic design, which replicated the findings of Study 1 by showing a separate indirect effect of affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment on constructive voice and defensive voice, respectively, through situational promotion focus and situational prevention focus. In addition, I also examined the effect of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership in moderating the above relationships, and found that exploration leadership enhanced the indirect positive effect of affective organisational commitment on

constructive voice, whereas exploitation leadership weakened the indirect positive effect of continuous organisational commitment on defensive voice. Study 2 achieved the second goal of this thesis by illustrating that managerial leadership behaviours can enhance or mitigate the effect of organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour by creating regulatory fit.

Finally, Chapter 5 presents an overarching discussion of the thesis. I first summarise the empirical findings of the two studies in this thesis. Based on the research findings, I elaborate the theoretical implications for the literature on employee voice, regulatory focus, and organisational commitment. I also discuss the application of the research findings of this thesis in the workplace. Finally, I indicate the limitations of this research and directions for future research.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Voice Literature

2.1.1 Definition and Conceptualisation of Voice

The construct of employee voice first appeared in Hirschman's (1970) seminal work. However, in the voice literature, current conceptualisation of employee voice behaviour is mainly based on the research conducted by Van Dyne and LePine (1998), which largely moved away from Hirschman's original definition. Table 2.1 summarises the most influential perspectives in conceptualising employee voice behaviour in the management literature.

Table 2.1 Definitions of Voice

Article	Definition
Van Dyne et al. (1998)	**Voice** is defined as promotive behaviour that emphasises expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize and making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree.
Van Dyne et al. (2003)	**Acquiescent voice** is defined as the verbal expression of work-related ideas, information or opinions based on feeling of resignation. **Defensive voice** is defined as expressing work-related ideas, information, or opinions with the goal of protecting the self. **Prosocial voice** is defined as expressing work-related ideas, information, or opinions based on cooperative motives.

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Detert et al. (2007)	**Voice** is defined as discretionary provision of information intended to improve organisational functioning to someone inside an organisation with the perceived authority to act, even though the information may challenge the status quo of the organisation and its power holders.
Morrison (2011)	**Voice** is defined as discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organisational or unit functioning.
Liang et al. (2012)	**Promotive voice** refers to employees' expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their organisation. **Prohibitive voice** describes employees' expressions of concerns about work practices, incidents, or employee behaviour that are harmful to their organisation.
Maynes et al. (2014)	**Voice** refers to an individual's voluntary and open communication directed towards individuals within the organisation that is focused on influencing the context of the work environment. **Supportive voice** refers to the voluntary expression of support for worthwhile work-related policies, programs, objectives, etc., or speaking out in defence of these things when they are being unfairly criticized. **Constructive voice** refers to the voluntary expression of ideas, information, or opinions focused on effecting organisationally functional change to the work context. **Defensive voice** refers to the voluntary expression of opposition to changing an organisation's policies, procedures, etc., even when the proposed changes have merit. **Destructive voice** refers to the voluntary expression of hurtful, critical, or debasing opinions regarding work policies, practices, procedures, etc.

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In the current voice literature, employee voice behaviour is generally defined as employees' discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions to someone inside an organisation, with the intent to improve organisational functioning (Detert et al., 2007; Morrison, 2011; Van Dyne et al., 2003)(see Table 2.1). This definition has four noteworthy features. First, voice is intended to be constructive and is driven by the intent to help the organisation or work unit perform more effectively, rather than simply complaining or stating grievance (Morrison, 2011). Second, voice is not specified in advance by role prescriptions. In contrast, voice is discretionary and voluntary behaviour that is influenced by a large number of individual and situational factors (e.g., Janssen & Gao, 2015; Tangirala, Kamdar, Venkataramani, & Parke, 2013). Third, voice is challenging in nature because it implies criticism of the status quo (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Lastly, the voice target is someone inside the organisations, exclusive of those outside organisations. Specifically, voice can be directed to either a supervisor or skip-level supervisor (upward voice) or to colleagues (lateral voice) (Morrison, 2011).

Although widely accepted in organisational literature, the above definition has received criticism due to (a) confounding multiple forms of voice in one construct (Liang et al., 2012) and (b) its narrow focus (Maynes et al., 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2003). To address the first issue, Liang and his colleagues (2012) divided the original voice domain into two forms and distinguished between promotive voice and prohibitive voice. Promotive voice is defined as employees' expression of ideas or suggestions to improve organisational functioning, whereas prohibitive voice is defined as employees' expression of concerns to prevent organisational failure. Liang and his colleagues' specific constructs of voice are helpful to deepen our understandings of employee voice behaviour, yet the constructs are still based on the assumption that

voice behaviour is well intentioned. As a result, some important forms of voice

behaviour are ignored (Maynes et al., 2014).

To address this issue, some researchers sought to expand the conceptualisation of

voice. Van Dyne and his colleagues (2003) proposed a motive-based conceptual

framework of voice, and suggested that voice is not necessarily well intentioned and can

be associated with different motives, including prosocial and self-interest motives. In

spite of its progress, Van Dyne and his colleagues' framework has been challenged by

other researchers for mixing behaviour and motive in one construct (Maynes et al.,

2014).

Recently, Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) proposed another expansive conceptual

framework of voice. Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) defined voice behaviour as 'an

individual's voluntary and open communication directed towards individuals within the

organisation that is focused on influencing the context of the work environment' (p. 88).

Maynes and his colleague (2014) further noted that voice behaviour can either promote

change or maintain the status quo, voice can be either constructive or destructive.

Therefore, they positioned the preservation/challenge dimension opposite the

constructive/destructive dimension in a two by two matrix, which yielded four types of

voice: constructive voice, supportive voice, defensive voice, and destructive voice.

In Maynes and his colleague's (2014) conceptual framework, constructive voice

and defensive voice reflect employees' typical attitudes to change. Constructive voice is

defined as the voluntary expression of ideas, information, or opinions that focus on

affecting organisationally functional change in the work context (Maynes et al., 2014).

Similar to the construct of promotive voice proposed by Liang et al. (2012),

constructive voice seeks to improve the status quo and is driven by a desire to advance

in novel directions. In contrast, defensive voice is defined as the voluntary expression of opposition to changing organisational policies, procedures, and practices, even when the proposed change is helpful or necessary (Maynes et al., 2014). Defensive voice reflects employees' negative attitudes and resistance to change, which are motivated by a desire to avoid change.

The other two forms of voice in this conceptual framework are destructive voice and supportive voice. Destructive voice refers to employees' voluntary expression of hurtful, critical or debasing opinions regarding current work policies, practices, procedures and so forth, whereas supportive voice refers to employees' voluntary expression of support of current work-related policies, programs, procedures and so forth (Maynes, et al., 2014). Different from constructive voice and defensive voice, the focus of destructive voice and supportive voice lies in the status quo. In other words, destructive voice and supportive voice are not change related. Specifically, destructive voice is just complaint regarding current work-related practices and programs, without intentions to bring about changes to the work environment. Its representative behaviour is bad-mouthing. With respect to supportive voice, it is passive support for or agreement with current work-related practices, and emphasises maintaining the status quo.

In summary, from the initial emphasis on constructive forms of voice, the conceptualisation of voice is now expanded by incorporating some important destructive forms of voice. In addition, to better understand employee voice behaviour, researchers have proposed more specific conceptualisations of voice, although there are different perspectives in categorising voice. Due to their different merits, the literature has suggested comparing different conceptual frameworks and choosing one over the others based on the research purpose and context (Chamberlin et al., 2017). Considering the setting of this research that organisations are undergoing some extent of change, I

focus on the two typical responses to change: constructive voice and defensive voice. More specifically, the focus of this research is employees' constructive voice and defensive voice directed to their managers.

2.1.2 Related Constructs

As a result of its importance, employee voice behaviour, in different forms, has been the subject of research in different literature streams over the past several decades (Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012), including voice in Hirschman's (1970) framework, the voice dimension in procedural justice, whistle-blowing and issue selling. Besides, there are some constructs that are conceptually related to employee voice. The important differences between employee voice and these related constructs are discussed as follows. A comparison of employee voice and other related constructs is essential because it helps to clarify the conceptualisation of employee voice and improve our understandings of employee voice behaviour (Morrison, 2011).

Current views of voice and voice in Hirschman's model. Hirschman (1970) defined voice as 'messy concept because it can be graduated, all the way from faint grumbling to violent protest; it implies articulation of one's critical opinions rather than a private, "secret" vote […] and finally, it is direct and straightforward rather than roundabout' (p.16). By definition, the main difference between voice in the current voice literature and that in Hirschman's (1970) model lies in their driven goal. Voice in Hirschman's model is driven by the desire to eliminate personal dissatisfaction, while in the current voice literature the motivation underlying voice behaviour is more complex. Voice behaviour can be associated with prosocial motive or self-interest motive (Van Dyne et al., 2003). In addition, voice in the current voice literature is broader in content than that in Hirschman's model. Voice in Hirschman's model mainly focused on

expressing dissent or dissatisfaction, whereas voice in the current voice literature, as indicated by its definition, includes dissent, suggestion and different opinions (Maynes et al., 2014). Finally, voice in the current voice literature is less multifaceted than voice in Hirschman's model. Voice in Hirschman's model includes grievance filing, sharing concerns with others, complaining to supervisors, external protest and so forth (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), while voice in the current voice literature only focuses on internal upward and lateral communication.

Voice and voice dimension of procedure justice. The voice dimension of procedure justice refers to employees' perceived opportunities to express their opinions in decision making, while voice in the current voice literature refers to employees' actual communication behaviour. Employees perceiving opportunities to input their views in the decision process does not mean they will take the opportunity to speak up (Van den Bos et al., 2010).

Voice and issue selling. Issue selling is the process by which employees exert influence on organisational strategies by affecting top-level decision makers' attention to and understanding of issues (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). As indicated in its definition, issue selling is a type of upward communication, while voice includes both upward communication and lateral communication. Moreover, issue selling narrowly focuses on strategic issues (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997), while voice content may range from tactics such as work methods and procedures to strategic issues. Therefore, issue selling is only a type of voice.

Voice and whistle-blowing. Whistle-blowing is defined as 'the disclosure by organisational members (former or current) of illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices

under the control of their employers, to persons or organisations that may be able to effect actions' (Near & Miceli, 1995, p.4). Whistle-blowing and voice can be distinguished from each other by the following three aspects. First, whistle-blowing can be directed to both internal and external authorities (Near & Miceli, 1996) who are expected to have the power to stop organisational wrongdoing, while voice targets are limited to those inside organisations. Second, whistle-blowing focuses on reporting unethical behaviour (Mayer, Nurmohamed, Treviño, Shapiro, & Schminke, 2013), while voice content encompasses all kinds of issues. Third, whistle-blowing and voice may be motivated by different interests. Whistle-blowing is typically driven by super-organisational motives (Morrison et al., 1999), whereas the motive underlying voice behaviour is more complex, including both constructive and destructive motives (Maynes et al., 2014).

Voice and silence. Silence refers to 'the withholding of ideas, suggestions, or concerns about people, products, or processes that might have been communicated verbally to someone inside the organisation with the perceived authority to act' (Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009, p.166-167). The relationship between voice and silence is quite controversial. Some researchers regard voice and silence as conceptual opposites of each other because they define silence as a kind of conscious behaviour that is based on the calculative consideration of costs and benefits (Morrison, 2011; Morrison, 2014; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). They believe that voice and silence cannot coexist (Huang, Vliert, & Vegt, 2005; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Morrison, See, & Pan, 2015; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008b). When an employee has some information to share, he or she can choose either to speak it out (voice) or withhold it (silence). The absence of voice implies the presence of silence.

However, with the development of understandings of voice and silence, this argument is challenged by a large body of research that views silence as a distinct construct with meanings of its own in the literature. The reasons are as follows. First, voice behaviour is conscious and deliberative, while silence may result from both conscious process and automatic or unconscious process in most cases (Detert et al., 2011; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009; Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Second, even with conscious silence, it is problematic to infer employee silence from voice behaviour. There are different forms of voice and silence; thus, the absence of one form of voice does not necessarily indicate the presence of silence (Brinsfield, 2013; Kiewitz, Restubog, Shoss, Garcia, & Tang, 2016; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Third, voice and silence may have different antecedents and driving motives (Brinsfield, 2013; Madrid, Patterson, & Leiva, 2015). Thus, voice and silence should be treated as conceptually different constructs.

Constructive voice and taking charge. Taking charge is defined as 'voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organisationally functional change with respect to how work is executed' (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). By definition, taking charge is similar to constructive voice because they both are discretionary and change oriented. Besides these similarities, taking charge and constructive voice can be distinguished from each other because constructive voice only focuses on employees' communication, whereas taking charge both identifies problems or opportunities for change, and takes action to implement solutions or make positive change to work methods, polices, or procedures (McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007).

Constructive voice and proactive behaviour. Proactive behaviour is defined as taking initiatives to improve current circumstances or create new ones, which involves

challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to current conditions (Crant, 2000). Constructive voice and proactive behaviour share some commonalities because both constructs are change oriented and act in advance of a future situation. However, constructive voice is less multifaceted than proactive behaviour. Proactive behaviour includes both expressing constructive opinions and actively adjusting to new job conditions, proactive service performance, taking charge to bring about change, self-initiated role expansion, solving and implementing ideas, and so forth (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2012; Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011; Parker & Collins, 2010).

Constructive voice and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) refers to discretionary actions that serve to benefit the organisation and its members but are not explicitly rewarded by organisations (Organ, 1988). Researchers have argued that OCB can be classified into two categories: affiliative citizenship behaviour and challenging citizenship behaviour (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Van Dyne, Larry L Cummings, & J McLean Parks, 1995; Van Dyne, Larry L Cummings, & J McLean Parks, 1995). Affiliative citizenship behaviour is directed towards maintaining the status quo by promoting and supporting existing work processes and relationships, whereas challenging citizenship behaviour is directed towards changing the status quo by questioning and improving existing work processes and relationships (Grant et al., 2009; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Considering the challenging nature of constructive voice, this research focuses on the comparison between challenging citizenship behaviour and constructive voice. As discussed above, constructive voice is similar to challenging citizenship behaviour in that both of them challenge the status quo and driven by a desire to improve the status quo (Choi, 2007). However, constructive voice is less multifaceted than challenging OCB. Constructive

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voice emphasises expression of innovative and helpful suggestions, whereas challenging OCB is not limited to such communication behaviour, which also includes questioning existing problems, taking charge to implement constructive changes, innovative behaviour and so forth (Choi, 2007; Grant et al., 2009).

Constructive voice, creativity and innovation. Creativity is generally defined as the generation of novel and potentially useful ideas (Amabile, 1988; Černe, Nerstad, Dysvik, & Škerlavaj, 2014; Zhou & Hoever, 2014), whereas innovation is defined as intentional generation and application of new ideas, processes, products or procedures within a team, group, or organisation (De Dreu & West, 2001; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2013; West & Farr, 1990). By definition, constructive voice is similar to creativity and innovation, given that they all involve development of new, useful and work-related ideas. However, creativity and innovation differ from constructive voice in the following ways. Creativity refers to the generation of novel and useful ideas, whereas constructive voice involves both the generation and expression of such novel ideas. In addition, as noted, the focus of creativity lies in generating novel and useful ideas, while constructive voice emphasises communication. Meanwhile the focus of innovation is broader than constructive voice, and includes both the generation and implementation of new ideas (Zhou et al., 2001). Thus, creativity and innovation can be distinguished from constructive voice.

Defensive voice and resistance to change. Resistance to change refers to demonstrating opposition in response to change by engaging in overt or covert behaviour to prevent the success of change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Defensive voice and resistance to change are similar because both constructs are driven by a desire to avoid change. However, resistance to change is more multifaceted than defensive voice. Defensive voice refers to verbal expression of opposition to potential

organisational change, whereas resistance to change encompasses different ways to demonstrate opposition, from passively withdrawing change initiatives to actively sabotaging changes (Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; Van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008).

To summarise, this section has discussed the conceptually related constructs and their relationships with voice. With the important differences in minds, the related literatures can contribute to our understandings of employee voice. In the next section, I turn to consider which factors influence employee voice behaviour.

2.1.3 Antecedents and Mechanisms of Voice

As a result of the development and expansion of voice conceptualisation, the voice literature has demonstrated two apparent stages. In the first stage, voice literature is based on undifferentiated general voice conceptualization, with the purpose of delineating the antecedents of employee voice behaviour, whereas literature in the second stage has focused on specific forms of voice behaviour and sought to account for the distinctions between different forms of voice behaviour.

Based on the above discussion, in the following review, I start with discussing the antecedents, as well as how associations may vary with different forms of voice. The discussion then moves onto the psychological mechanisms that link the influence of antecedents to employee voice behaviour. As such, a complex and deepening understanding of employee voice behaviour will be attained. Table 2.2 presents a summary of the review on voice literature—both the literature based on general voice definitions and the literature focused on specific voice behaviour.

Table 2.2 Antecedents and Mechanisms of Voice

Articles	Antecedents	Mediators	Moderator	Outcomes	Theoretical foundation
Aryee et al. (2014)	• Core self-evaluation	• Personal control • Approach motivation	• Procedure justice perceptions	• Promotive voice	• Control-based theory • Approach/ avoidance framework
Burris et al. (2008)	• Leader-member exchange • Abusive supervision	• Detachment		• Voice	• Hirschman's exit-loyalty-voice model
Detert & Burris (2007)	• Perceived managerial openness • Transformational leadership • Proactive personality	• Psychological safety	• Employee's performance	• Voice	• Leadership literature

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Fast et al., (2014)	• Low managerial self-efficacy	• Ego threat • Managerial voice aversion behaviour (no solicitation)		• Voice	• Role theory • Self-discrepancy theory
Frazier et al. (2015)	• Perception of Supervisor undermining	• Voice climate		• Voice (group level)	• Social information processing theory
Fuller et al. (2006)	• Hierarchical position • Access to resources	• Felt obligation for constructive change	• Proactive personality	• Voice	• Work design theory
Fuller & Van Dyne (2007)	• Self-monitoring		• Past performance	• Voice	• Impression management theory
Grant (2013)	• Emotion regulation knowledge	• Deep acting • Surface acting		• Voice	• Emotion regulation theory

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Table 2.2 (Continued)

Janssen et al. (2015)	• Managerial responsiveness	• Perceived status	• Self-efficacy for voice	• Voice	• Relational fairness theory • Status theory
Kakkar et al. (2016)	• Approach orientation (performance prove orientation) • Avoidance orientation (performance avoidance orientation)		• Promotive voice role expectation • Prohibitive voice role expectation	• Promotive voice • Prohibitive voice	• Approach/ avoidance framework • Situation-congruence perspective • Situational demands perspective
Lam et al. (2013)	• Job autonomy • Customer orientation		• Service climate	• Voice	• Information processing theory

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Lam et al. (2013)	• Employees' positive affect			• Voice	• Broaden-and-build theory • Affect-as-information theory
LePine & Van Dyne (1998)	• Satisfaction • Global self-esteem • Group size • Self-managed group vs. traditional management		• Group size • Self-managed group vs. traditional management	• Voice	• Social exchange theory • Behaviour plasticity theory
LePine et al. (2001)	• Consciousness • Extraversion • Agreeableness • Neuroticism			• Voice	• Big-five personality literature

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Li & Sun (2015)	• Managerial authoritarian leadership	• Supervisory authoritarian leadership	• Leader identification • Power distance orientation	• Voice	• Social learning theory • Social identity theory
Liang et al. (2012)	• Felt obligation for constructive change • Psychological safety • Organisational-based self-esteem		• Felt obligation for constructive change • Organisational-based self-esteem	• Voice • Promotive voice • Prohibitive voice	• Theory of planned behaviour
Liang et al. (2013)	• Participation decision making		• Harmony-orientation implicit voice belief • Team cooperative goals	• Promotive voice • Prohibitive voice	• Situational strength theory • Trait activation theory
Lin et al. (2015)	• Promotion focus • Prevention focus			• Promotive voice • Prohibitive voice	• Regulatory focus theory

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Liu et al. (2010)	• Transformational leadership	• Social identification • Relational identification		• Lateral voice • Upward voice	• Identification theory
Liu et al. (2013)	• Leader-member exchange • Skip-level leader-member exchange		• Leader-leader exchange • Skip-level leader-member exchange	• Voice to direct leader • Voice to skip-level leader	• Research on socially embedded nature of leader-member exchange
Liu et al. (2015)	• Target's positive mood	• Actor's psychological safety with the target	• Actor's relationship quality with the target • Actor's lower status compared with the target	• Promotive voice	• Affect-as-information theory

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Liu et al. (2017)	• Leader's affect	• Employee's own affect • Employee's assessment of the leader's affect • Employee's psychological safety	• Leader-member exchange	• Voice	• Affect-as-information theory (including emotional contagion perspective and signalling perspective)
Long et al. (2015)	• Job demand			• Voice	• The framework developed by Blumberg and Pringle (1982)
Morrison et al. (2011)	• Group voice climate • Satisfaction • Identification			• Voice	

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Ng & Feldman (2013)	• Changes in perceived supervisory organisational embeddedness	• Changes in employee's organisational trust • Changes in employee's organisational embeddedness		• Changes in voice behaviour	• Social information processing theory
Ng & Feldman (2013)	• Idiosyncratic deals	• Flexible work role orientation • Social networking behaviour • Organisational trust		• Voice	• Social exchange theory

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Table 2.2 (Continued)

Pauksztat et al. (2011)	• Target's position in organisational hierarchy			• Likelihood of voice	• Social network theory
	• Relations between speaker and the target				
	• Speaker's position in organisational hierarchy				
	• Speaker's centrality in the social network				
Premeaux & Bedeian (2003)	• Locus of control		• Self-monitoring	• Voice	
	• Self-esteem				
	• Top-management openness				
	• Trust in supervisor				

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Qin et al. (2014)	• Emotional exhaustion		• Job security • Interactional justice climate	• Prohibitive voice	• Conservation of resources theory
Shepherd et al. (2017)	• Amount of information on project concerns		• Perception of supervisor's openness • Prosocial motivation • Organisational commitment	• Willingness to voice concern	
Takeuchi et al. (2012)	• Perception of interpersonal justice		• Perception of procedural justice • Perception of distributive justice	• Voice	• Uncertainty management theory

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Tangirala et al. (2008a)	• Personal control		• Organisational identification	• Voice	• Dissatisfaction-based perspective • Expectancy-based perspective
Tangirala et al. (2012)	• Managerial consultation	• Perceived influence at workplace	• Managerial status in the organisation • Employee work efficacy • Employee overall job satisfaction	• Voice	
Tangirala et al. (2013)	• Duty orientation • Achievement orientation	• Voice role conceptualisation	• Voice efficacy • Psychological safety	• Voice	• Role theory
Venkataram -ani et al. (2010)	• Employee centrality in workflow networks	• Perceived influence at workplace	• Task performance • Workgroup identification	• Voice	• Social network theory

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Venkataram-ani et al. (2013)	• Employee centrality in workflow network		• Leader's centrality in team Friendship network • Leader's centrality in team avoidance network • Employee's centrality in team friendship network • Employees' centrality in team avoidance network	• Voice	• Social resources theory
Van Dyne et al. (2008)	• Leader-member exchange		• Voice role perception	• Voice	• Social exchange theory • Role theory
Walumbwa et al. (2009)	• Leader agreeableness • Leader consciousness • Leader neuroticism	• Ethical leadership • Psychological safety		• Voice	• Literature on leadership

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Table 2.2 (Continued)

Walumbwa et al., (2012)	• Ethical leadership	• Group consciousness • Group voice		• Group performance	• Social exchange theory • Social learning theory
Wang et al. (2014)	• Organisational career growth	• Affective organisational commitment		• Voice	• Social exchange theory • Psychological attachment theory
Ward et al. (2016)	• Contextual communication orientation			• Promotive voice • Prohibitive voice	• High/ low context theory
Wei et al. (2015)	• Power distance value • Superficial harmony value	• Perceived efficacy • Perceived safety	• Supervisory delegation • Voice climate	• Promotive voice • Prohibitive voice	• Socially desirable responses theory

2.1.3.1 Antecedents

In the voice literature, a wide variety of factors have been identified to be associated with voice behaviour, particularly the general voice construct. In this review, I draw on Morrison's (2014) theoretical framework to organise the voice-related literature and classify the identified antecedents into the following five categories: (i) individual dispositions; (ii) work-related attitudes, perceptions and other individual conscious factors; (iii) emotions and implicit beliefs; (iv) supervisor and leader behaviour; and (v) other situational factors.

Individual dispositions. Employee voice behaviour has been found to be associated with various dispositional factors. For example, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) found that, among the big-five personality dimensions, consciousness and extraversion are positively related to voice, whereas neuroticism and agreeableness are negatively related to voice. Nevertheless, with the development of research in big-five personality, researchers have noted that consciousness should be organised into two dimensions—duty orientation and achievement orientation—when examining the effect (Moon, 2001; Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi, 2008), because the two dimensions of consciousness may have different perceptual and behavioural outcomes (Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006; Moon et al., 2008). In line with this argument, Tangirala et al. (2013) found that duty orientation is positively related to employee voice behaviour, whereas achievement orientation is negatively linked to employee voice.

Besides the big-five personality dimensions, some other dispositional factors have also been found to affect employee voice behaviour. For example, Detert and Burris (2007) reported a positive relationship between proactive personality and voice behaviour. Fuller, Barnett, Hester, Relyea, and Frey (2007) found that employees high

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in self-monitoring, which is defined as the ability and desire to control their expressive behaviour (Snyder, 1974), are more likely to utilize voice behaviour as a form of self-promotion. Grant (2013) indicated that emotion regulation knowledge, which is defined as the awareness of the effective strategies to modify and nurture emotions in particular situations (Côté, DeCelles, McCarthy, Van Kleef, & Hideg, 2011), is positively associated with employee voice behaviour, because emotion regulation knowledge helps to overcome fear of voice by enhancing the conviction that one can speak safely by communicating confidently, clearly, and constructively. Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, and Chu (2014) found that core self-evaluation, which describes a positive self-concept or the bottom-line evaluation that individuals hold about themselves (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998), positively relates to promotive voice. By the same token, employees' global self-esteem and organisation-based self-esteem, which are highly related to the construct of core self-evaluation, have also been found to have a positive effect on voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Liang et al., 2012; Van Dyne et al., 1995).

Work-related attitudes, perceptions and other individual conscious factors. Employees' work-related attitudes and perceptions are critical in shaping employee voice behaviour, because these factors capture employees' motivations and calculative consideration of the expected efficacy and potential costs of voice behaviour, through which other individual differences and situational factors exert their influence (Morrison, 2011). Specifically, these work-related attitudes and perceptions address three central issues related to employee voice behaviour: (1) why one should speak, (2) whether it is risky to speak and (3) whether one can speak (Morrison, 2011, 2014). Therefore, in the following subsections, I organise related literature with respect to the research question it addresses.

(1) Factors addressing why to enact voice behaviour. Felt responsibility for constructive change is defined as an individual's belief that he or she is personally obliged to bring about constructive change (Bledow & Frese, 2009). This construct reflects employees' internalisation of value relevant to change (Parker et al., 2010) and has been repeatedly positively linked with employee voice behaviour (e.g., Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Liang et al., 2012; S. K. Parker et al., 2010). Additionally, a related construct is voice role conceptualisation, which refers to the extent to which employees consider voice as part of their personal responsibility at work. Some works have found voice role conceptualisation predicts voice behaviour (Kakkar, Tangirala, Srivastava, & Kamdar, 2016; Tangirala et al., 2013; Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008). Specifically, promotive voice role conceptualisation leads to promotive voice, whereas prohibitive voice role conceptualisation triggers prohibitive voice (Kakkar et al., 2016). In the same vein, Ng and Feldman (2015) reported that flexible work role orientation, which is defined as the extent to which an employee defines his or her work role broadly (Parker, 2007), is also positively related to employee voice behaviour.

Employees' affective organisational commitment is also a strong reason for voice behaviour because affectively committed employees uphold their organisation's values and goals, and therefore regard organisation's goal as their own, and tend to make extra effort on behalf of their organisation (Wang et al., 2014). Supporting this argument, Wang and her colleagues (2014) found a positive relationship between affective organisational commitment and employees voice behaviour. Similarly, research on employees' organisational embeddedness, which also emphasises employees' attachment to the organisation and their positive evaluation of their relationship with the organisation, reported that employees' organisational embeddedness is positively related to voice behaviour (Ng & Feldman, 2013). However, some other empirical

works indicated that affective organisational commitment is not a significant predictor of voice (Burris et al., 2008; Graham et al., 2006). Interestingly, works based on Hirschman's (1970) framework also indicated such inconsistent findings: some researchers found that affective organisational commitment is positively associated with voice behaviour (e.g., Meyer et al., 1993; Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey et al., 1989), whereas findings of the other empirical works demonstrated no significant relationship between affective organisational commitment and voice (e.g., Saunders et al., 1992). The low internal consistencies of voice measures (Tangirala et al., 2008a), research context, and research design might help to explain these conflicting findings, while another explanation points to the problems in conceptualisation of voice behaviour. As discussed above, in the first stage of voice research, employee voice is generally depicted as a general construct, while voice in Hirschman's (1970) framework includes different forms of voice in terms of target (voicing to supervisor or to coworker) and content (such as grievance filing or improvement-oriented suggestion) (Rusbult et al., 1988). Given the apparent differences between different forms of voice (Liang et al., 2012; Maynes et al., 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2003), the association between affective organisational commitment and voice behaviour may vary as a function of voice form. In fact, a recent meta-analysis has indicated that the associations between affective organisational commitment and different forms of voice (promotive voice and prohibitive voice) are significantly different (Chamberlin et al., 2017). Therefore, research based on specific conceptualisation of voice in terms, may help address the inconsistency in the literature.

Similar to affective organisational commitment, research on the relationship between identification and employee voice behaviour also shows conflicting findings. Identification (a key component of affective commitment) emphasises the connection

between the target (such as supervisor, workgroup or organisation) and employees'

sense of self. Therefore, employees with high-level identification are expected to

contribute to the target in a positive way, such as through voice behaviour (Morrison et

al., 2011). There is empirical evidence to support this argument. For example,

employees with strong identification with the team are more likely to speak up

(Morrison et al., 2011). Similarly, strongly identified group members are more likely to

express their dissent publicly (Packer, 2009; Packer & Chasteen, 2010). However, some

works have reported that employees' organisational identification has a non-significant

relationship with voice (e.g. Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008a). In addition, Liu and his

colleagues (2010) argued that, due to the potential personal cost of voice behaviour,

voice is target specific. Therefore, identification with the organisation will lead to voice

to coworkers, because psychological merging of the self and the organisation causes

employees to regard themselves as similar to the others in the same organisation.

Similarly, identification with the supervisor will trigger upward voice. However, the

above conflicting findings leave us several issues to be addressed. First, if identification

with an organisation predicts voice to the other members within the organisation, why

does it not lead to voice to the supervisor, considering that the supervisor is an

important member of the organisation (Lau & Liden, 2008) who formally acts as the

representative of the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2010)? Second, which factors

cause the inconsistency in the findings regarding the effect of identification on voice,

particularly the effect of social identification (identification with the organisational)?

Does the association between social identification and employee voice behaviour also

vary as a function of voice type? These research questions need further investigation.

Prosocial motive is the desire to help and connect with others (Rioux & Penner,

2001) and is another reason for employees to engage in voice behaviour, because

employees with strong prosocial motive tend to place greater value on and feel more responsible for improving the welfare of other individuals and organisations (Grant & Berg, 2010; Grant et al., 2009).

In addition to prosocial motive, self-interest motivational factors can also provide reason for employee voice behaviour. For example, Fuller and his colleagues (2007) suggested that voice can be driven by impression management motive, while Ng and Feldman (2012) indicated that the self-protective motive may also lead to voice behaviour when employees use voice as a tactic to deal with workplace stress so as to protect against resource loss. Supporting Ng and Feldman's (2012) argument, Qin and his colleagues (2014) found a U-shaped relationship between emotional exhaustion and prohibitive voice when employees perceive high-level job security or high-level interactional justice climate in their workgroup, and a negative linear relationship between emotional exhaustion and prohibitive voice when employees' job security is low or work group is characterised low-level interactional justice climate. This is because the cost of speaking up is high under the conditions of low job security or low interactional justice climate; therefore, resource conservation motivation is engendered and leads to decreased use of voice so as to conserve resources. In contrast, increasing emotional exhaustion causes the expected benefits to outweigh potential costs of voice behaviour progressively under the conditions of high job security or high interactional justice climate. As a result, resource-acquisition motivation is engendered, which triggers employee voice behaviour.

Self-regulatory motivational systems also predict employee voice behaviour (Lin & Johnson, 2015). Lin and Johnson (2015) found that promotion focus is associated with promotive voice because promotion focus orients employees to their ideal goals by exploring opportunities for improvements, whereas prevention focus facilitates

prohibitive voice because prevention focus sensitises employees to potential losses. Similarly, approach motivation orientation and avoidance motivation orientation, (conceptually highly related to regulatory focus), have been found to have similar effect on employee voice behaviour. Specifically, approach motivation orientation is positively associated with promotive voice (Aryee et al., 2014; Kakkar et al., 2016), whereas avoidance motivation orientation is positively related to prohibitive voice (Kakkar et al., 2016). However, Kakkar and his colleagues (2016) further indicated that approach motivation orientation also has negative effect on prohibitive voice, while avoidance motivation orientation is negatively linked to promotive voice. The inconsistency might be owing to the conceptual differences of promotion and prevention foci with approach and avoidance motivation orientations, different research settings, and differences in the operationalisation domain. In the work by Kakkas et al. (2016), approach and avoidance motivation orientations were operationalised in the domain of goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1997). In contrast, Lin et al. (2015) took the general workplace regulatory focus scale, whereas Aryee et al. (2014) used an approach and avoidance motivation scale.

Finally, employees' cultural value also plays a role in their voice behaviour. For example, power distance orientation, which refers to the extent to which an individual accepts unequal distribution of power in institutions and organisations (Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007), has been found to have negative effect on promotive voice, because employees with strong power distance value perceive a low likelihood that initiating changes to the status quo will make a difference (Wei et al., 2015). Superficial harmony orientation, which treats harmony maintenance as socially desirable means to protect oneself from interpersonal conflicts (Leung, Brew, Zhang, & Zhang, 2011), has been reported to have a negative relationship with prohibitive voice because employees with

strong superficial harmony orientation tend to avoid interpersonal conflicts, and prohibitive voice is more challenging (Wei et al., 2015). In addition, contextual communication orientation, which refers to the extent to which individuals use the context of social settings to guide which information they will share and how they will share the information, has also been found to affect employee voice behaviour (Ward, Ravlin, Klaas, Ployhart, & Buchan, 2016). Moreover, considering that prohibitive voice is more challenging than promotive voice, the negative relationship between contextual communication orientation and prohibitive voice is stronger, comparing with the negative relationship between contextual communication orientation and promotive voice.

(2) Factors addressing whether speaking is risky or not. The most relevant factor to this research question is psychological safety, which is defined as the belief that one engages in risky behaviour like voice will not lead to negative personal outcomes (Kahn, 1990). The positive relationship between psychological safety and voice behaviour has been found in various works (e.g., Detert et al., 2007; Liang et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015; Liu, Song, Li, & Liao, 2017; Tangirala et al., 2013; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Moreover, Liang and his colleagues (2012) has distinguished different forms of voice (promotive voice and prohibitive voice) and found that employees' psychological safety is uniquely positively associated with prohibitive voice. This is because prohibitive voice is more challenging and risky than promotive voice; and thus, the absence of negative individual consequences of voice behaviour is particularly important. Similarly, Wei, Zhang, and Chen (2015) reported that employees' perceived risk of voice uniquely explains variance in prohibitive voice, rather than promotive voice.

In addition to psychological safety, employees' organisational trust may also reflect employees' judgement regarding whether it is safe or not to engage in voice

behaviour. Employees' organisational trust is conceptually characterised as employees' willingness to be vulnerable to organisational actions, on the basis of the expectation that their organisation will reward or at least not hurt them (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Therefore, employees with high-level organisational trust are more likely to enact risk-taking behaviour (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). In line with this argument, Ng and Feldman (2013, 2015) found that employees' organisational trust has positive effect on voice behaviour. Similarly, Premeaux and Bedeian (2003) reported a positive relationship between employees' trust in their supervisor and upward voice behaviour.

(3) Factors addressing whether speaking is likely to be effective. Within this category, voice efficacy is a key construct. Voice efficacy refers to employees' judgement regarding whether speaking is likely to be effective or not (Morrison, 2011). High voice efficacy clarifies the connection between voice effort and related outcomes; and thus, enhances employees' expectancy-based motivation (Morrison, 2011). The positive relationship between voice efficacy and voice behaviour has been identified in various works on voice and its related constructs. For example, Tangirala and his colleagues (2013) reported that voice efficacy can predict higher employee voice behaviour, while Ashford and his colleagues (1998) found that employees' beliefs regarding whether they can successfully gain the attention of top management impacts their willingness to engage in issue selling. Similarly, Withey and Cooper (1989) indicated that expected efficacy plays a critical role in shaping whistle-blowing. In addition, a recent study by Wei et al. (2015) found that work efficacy has a unique positive association with promotive voice, rather than prohibitive voice, because high efficacy implies that employees view voice as socially desirable in agentic perspective,

and promotive voice involves a promotion focus, which emphasises demonstrating agency, such as competence and self-reliance.

In addition to voice efficacy, employees' perceived personal control, autonomy, and influence over their work environment also affect their judgement regarding the efficacy of speaking. Personal control refers to employees' perception of the extent to which they have control over their work behaviour and outcomes (Brockner et al., 2004). Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008a) found a curvilinear relationship between personal control and employee voice. Specifically, when employees perceive low-level personal control, they feel dissatisfied with the status quo and have strong motivation to improve this by engaging in voice behaviour, whereas employees with high-level personal control tend to engage in voice behaviour due to a strong motivation arising from enhanced expectancy of successfully influencing organisational outcomes. Employees with an intermediate-level personal control are less likely engage in voice behaviour because neither motivation is strong. A related construct of personal control is autonomy, which is defined as the extent to which employees perceive that they have control over their work behaviour (Spreitzer, 1995). Lam and Mayer (2014) reported a positive relationship between autonomy and employee voice behaviour. Similarly, employees' perceived influence, which refers to employees' perceived ability to impact group decisions and covert group members' opinions to their points of view (Anderson, Spataro, & Flynn, 2008), has also been found to predict higher voice behaviour (Tangirala et al., 2012; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010).

Emotions and implicit beliefs. A few recent works shifted their attention to the nonconscious process behind voice behaviour and found that some nonconscious factors, such as emotional factors and voice-related implicit knowledge, may also contribute to voice behaviour, as discussed in the following subsections.

(1) Emotional factors. The most relevant emotional factor is fear. Various works have indicated a negative relationship between fear and voice behaviour. For example, in their qualitative research, Detert and Treviño (2010) found that employees' fear of negative personal outcomes is a common impediment to voice behaviour. Similar outcomes were found in works on silence. For example, Kiewitz et al. (2016) indicated that fear tends to evoke pessimistic expectations about risk and future outcomes; and therefore, the calculation of the costs and benefits of speaking leans in favour of not speaking. Another negative emotion that may impact employees' voice behaviour is anger. For example, Edwards, Ashkanasy, and Gardner (2009) argued that anger can increase the likelihood of whistle-blowing.

In addition to discrete emotions, employees' general affective state also influences their voice behaviour. For example, drawing on affect-as-information theory, Liu and his colleagues (2017) found that employees' positive affective state will prompt voice behaviour by enhancing psychological safety. Further, Lam, Spreitzer, and Fritz (2014) indicated that the relationship between positive affective state and voice behaviour is more complex. By integrating broaden-and-build-theory and affect-as-information theory, Lam and his colleagues (2014) found an inverted U-shaped relationship. Specifically, they suggested that, at low levels of positive affective state, employees are less likely to engage in voice behaviour because their ability to identify innovative solutions for work-related issues is limited, whereas, at high levels of positive affective state, the possibility of employees to engage in voice behaviour is also low, because high-level positive affective state signals that things are going well and there is no need to be proactive to initiate change in the workplace. At the intermediate levels of positive affective state, employees are more likely to engage in voice behaviour. With respect to the influence of negative affective state on voice behaviour, a recent work found that

low-activated negative affective state is negatively related to voice, because this state leads to a lack of vitality, apathy, and disengagement with the environment (Madrid, et al., 2015).

(2) Implicit beliefs. Another nonconscious factor behind voice behaviour is implicit beliefs. Implicit belief refers to a schema-like knowledge structure that operates below consciousness (Bargh & Ferguson, 2000) and allows individuals to make priori predictions (Levy, Chiu, & Hong, 2006). Drawing on the literature on implicit beliefs, Detert and Edmondson (2011) proposed self-protective implicit beliefs, which refer to a set of socially acquired beliefs regarding the riskiness of voice behaviour, and found that self-protective implicit beliefs can trigger employee silence automatically without conscious awareness. In addition to self-protective implicit beliefs, harmony-oriented implicit beliefs also affect employee voice behaviour. Harmony-oriented implicit beliefs are defined as taken-for-granted beliefs that speaking on work-related issues is harmful for group harmony or inappropriate for social norms (Liang, Huang, & Chen, 2013). Liang and his colleagues (2013) found that, even when offered an opportunity to be involved in decision making, employees high in harmony-oriented implicit beliefs are less likely to engage in voice behaviour so as to avoid conflicts and maintain relational or social harmony.

Supervisor and leader behaviour. Detert and Burris (2007) highlighted the importance of supervisor and leader behaviour in affecting employee voice behaviour:

'First, to speak up, by definition, involves sharing one's ideas with someone with the perceived power to devote organisational attention or resources to the issue raised. Thus, leaders are inherently important to the voice process because they are its targets. Second, leaders have the authority to administer rewards and

punishments, and this power over subordinates' pay, promotions, and job

assignments, makes leaders' actions highly salient as cues for behaviour'. (p.

870)

Therefore, it is unsurprising to find that a wide range of supervisor attitudes,

behaviours, and affective states is associated with employee voice behaviour.

First of all, some leaderships may trigger or inhibit employee voice. For example,

transformational leadership has been found to have a positive effect on employee voice

behaviour (Detert & Burris, 2007). Further, if voice is categorised in terms of the target,

transformational leadership may either prompt speaking up to the supervisor or

speaking out to coworkers, which is dependent on how transformational leadership

impacts employees' self-conceptualisation (Liu et al., 2010). Ethical leadership, which

emphasises the appropriateness of behaviour, has also been found to have a positive

relationship with employee voice behaviour (Walumbwa, Morrison, & Christensen,

2012; Walumbwa et al., 2009). In the same vein, a self-sacrificial leader, who acts as a

role model to followers, has also been found to encourage employees to engage in voice

behaviour (De Cremer et al., 2009). Additionally, authentic leadership can also lead to

employee voice behaviour by enhancing employees' trust and work engagement (Wong,

Spence Laschinger, & Cummings, 2010). In contrast to the positive effect of the above

leadership behaviours, authoritarian leadership, which emphasises leaders' power and

control and employees' absolute obedience, is negatively related to employee voice

behaviour (Li & Sun, 2015). Similarly, abusive supervision, which refers to

supervisors' sustained display of hostile, verbal, and nonverbal behaviours to

employees, has been also found to predict low-level voice behaviour (Burris et al.,

2008).

The quality of the exchange relationship between leader and employee can also affect employee voice behaviour. The positive association between leader-member exchange relationship and employee voice behaviour has been found in various works (e.g., Burris et al., 2008; Liu, Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2013; Pauksztat, Steglich, & Wittek, 2011; Van Dyne et al., 2008). In addition to the exchange relationship with the direct leader, the exchange relationship between employee and skip-level leader also prompts employee voice behaviour, specifically in terms of voice to the skip-level leader (Liu et al., 2013).

Additionally, supervisory voice-related attitudes are also related to employee voice behaviour. For example, supervisory openness, which refers to employees' perceptions that their manager listens to them, is interested in their ideas, gives fair consideration to the ideas presented, and at least sometimes takes action to address the matter raised, has been found to predict high-level employee voice behaviour (Detert & Burris, 2007). By the same token, supervisory responsiveness, which refers to employees' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisor is fair, prompt, unbiased, willing to take action, and effective in dealing with their voice behaviour, has also been found to have a positive relationship with employee voice behaviour (Janssen & Gao, 2015). In addition, supervisors' consultation behaviour is also associated with high-level employee voice behaviour (Fast et al., 2014; Tangirala et al., 2012). In contrast to the beneficial effect of the supervisors' positive attitudes towards employee voice, supervisory negative attitudes or those behaviours capturing their negative attitudes to voice appear to inhibit voice behaviour. For example, supervisory undermining, which captures employees' perception of supervisors' subtle aggressive behaviour, has been found negatively related to employee voice behaviour, assessed at group level (Frazier & Bowler, 2015). Similarly, supervisory voice aversion behaviour is argued to inhibit voice behaviour

(Fast et al., 2014).

Finally, supervisory affective state also predicts employee voice behaviour. Liu and his colleagues (2017) found that supervisory positive affective state has a positive effect on employee voice behaviour by evoking employees' own positive affective state and impacting employees' judgement regarding whether it is safe or not to speak up.

Other situational factors. In addition to supervisor and leader behaviour, a large group of external forces have been found to encourage or constrain employee voice. I summarise these research findings into two categories: (1) job characteristics and (2) organisational climate.

(1) Job characteristics. First of all, employees' position and status in the workplace may influence their voice behaviour. For example, employees' position in organisational hierarchy has been found to be positively related to employee voice behaviour (Fuller et al., 2006). Employees' position in workflow networks also predicts their voice behaviour, whereby employees who are central to the workflow networks are more likely to engage in voice behaviour (Venkataramani et al., 2010; Venkataramani, Zhou, Wang, Liao, & Shi, 2016). Similarly, employees' perceived status within the workgroup has also been reported to have a positive association with voice behaviour (Janssen & Gao, 2015).

Another job characteristic that may contribute to voice behaviour is employees' access to resources and information. Employees who believe they have the authority to use resources, has been found to engage in voice behaviour more frequently (Fuller et al., 2006). Employees' access to information has similar effect on voice behaviour. For example, Shepherd, Patzelt, and Berry (2017) found that when employees attain more

information about a project's flaws, they are more likely to speak up about their concerns.

Finally, workplace stress is also linked to employee voice behaviour. In a meta-analysis, drawing on conservation of resource theory, Ng and Feldman (2012) reported a negative relationship between workplace stressors and employee voice behaviour. In addition to the linear effect, Long, Li, and Ning (2015) found a reverted U-shaped relationship between job stressors (job demands) and employee voice behaviour. Specifically, low-level job demands make a job unattractive; and therefore, employees' motivation to engage in voice behaviour is reduced. In contrast, high-level job demands cause low resources to be allocated to extra-role behaviour, such as voice; and therefore, employees are less likely to speak up. At the intermediate levels of job demands, employees have both resources and motivation to enact voice behaviour, and thereby show high-level voice behaviour.

(2) Organisational climate. The most relevant climate construct to voice behaviour is voice climate, which is defined as the shared beliefs among group members about the extent to which speaking up is safe within their workgroup, and the extent to which group members are able to voice effectively (Morrison et al., 2011). Morrison et al. (2011) reported that, even when individual factors (such as satisfaction and identification) are controlled, voice climate still has significant predictive effect on voice. Another related climate construct is psychological safety climate, which refers to a shared belief held by group members that the group is safe for interpersonal risk taking (Bradley, Postlethwaite, Klotz, Hamdani, & Brown, 2012). Psychological safety climate has been found to have a positive relationship with employee voice behaviour (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). In addition, justice climate may also be associated with employee voice behaviour. For example, Qin and

his colleagues (2014) reported that interactional justice climate may facilitate employee voice behaviour by reducing the expected cost of voice. This is consistent with the findings of Takeuchi, Chen, and Cheung (2012), who focused on employees' interactional justice perception and also found a positive effect on employee voice behaviour.

2.1.3.2 Mediating Mechanisms

As discussed above, there are three central issues involved in employees' voice decision process: (1) why one should speak, (2) whether speaking is risky, and (3) whether one can speak (Morrison, 2011, 2014). By altering the answers to these issues, distal individual factors and situational factors exert influence on voice behaviour. Therefore, I summarise the mediating mechanisms that link antecedents to voice behaviour based on the issue addressed.

Mediating mechanisms regarding why to engage in voice behaviour. First of all, some dispositional factors may exert influence on voice behaviour by offering reasons to do so. For example, drawing on role theory, Tangirala and his colleagues (2013) found that duty orientation and achievement orientation are, respectively, positively and negatively associated with employee voice behaviour, through their effect on voice role conceptualisation. Aryee et al. (2014) indicated that employees with high core self-evaluation tend to focus on the positive features of work environment; thus, they are more likely to adopt approach motivation, which in turn leads to higher promotive voice behaviour.

Supervisors may also encourage employees to engage in voice behaviour by providing reasons to do so. For example, based on social information processing theory, Ng and Feldman (2013) found that perceived supervisory embeddedness affects

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employee voice behaviour through the sequential mediating effect of employees' organisational trust and their own embeddedness. Specifically, employees' organisational trust mediates the relationship between perceived supervisory embeddedness and employees' own embeddedness, and employees' embeddedness further triggers their voice behaviour. Liu and his colleagues (2010) indicated that transformational leadership may trigger employees' personal identification (with the supervisor as target) and social identification (with the organisation as target), which further respectively facilitate employees' upward voice and lateral voice, respectively. In addition, Burris and his colleagues (2008) found that employees' detachment mediates the relationship between their perception of leadership (leader-member exchange and abusive supervision) and voice behaviour.

Finally, job design may also influence employee voice behaviour by addressing why to engage in voice behaviour. Fuller et al. (2006) found that employees' felt responsibility for constructive change explains the psychological process by which structural force (hierarchical position in organisation) and socio-structural factor (access to resources) affect employee voice behaviour. In addition, Ng and Feldman (2015) reported that the idiosyncratic deals, which are defined as special employment arrangements that are trailed to the personal preferences and needs of employees, including scheduling flexibility and professional development (Miner, 1987), can prompt employee voice behaviour by encouraging employees to broaden their flexible role orientation.

Mediating mechanisms regarding whether speaking up is safe or not.
Considering the power of supervisors and the challenging nature of voice, supervisors are one of the most important sources of cues regarding whether speaking up is safe or not in the workplace (Morrison, 2011). Therefore, psychological safety, as a situational

evaluation construct, is a critical mechanism that links various supervisory behaviours to employee voice behaviour. For example, Detert and Burris (2007) found that both transformational leadership and supervisory openness are positively related to employee voice behaviour, through their effect on employees' psychological safety. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) found that group-level psychological safety mediates the positive relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behaviour. Finally, a recent study by Liu and his colleagues (2017) indicated that supervisory positive affective state will trigger employee voice behaviour by enhancing psychological safety. Specifically, supervisory positive affective state influences employees' psychological safety via two distinct mechanisms: by an emotional contagion process to evoke employees' own positive affective state and by a signaling process to help employees cognitively assess the supervisory affective state. In turn, employees' psychological safety is associated with higher employee voice behaviour.

Mediating mechanisms regarding whether speaking up is effective or not. From a dispositional perspective, Aryee et al. (2014) found that personal control operates as one pathway underpinning how core self-evaluation leads to promotive voice behaviour. Supervisors may also impact employee voice behaviour by altering their judgement regarding the effectiveness of voice behaviour. For example, Tangirala and Ramanujam (2012) found that employees' perceived influence in the workplace mediates the positive relationship between supervisory consultation and voice behaviour. Finally, from a job design perspective, Venkataramani and Tangirala (2010) indicated that employees' centrality in the workflow network is positively associated with their voice behaviour, through its effect their perceived influence within their workgroup.

2.1.4 Summary

In this section, I have summarised different perspectives regarding how to conceptualise and categorise employee voice behaviour, as well as the conceptual differences between employee voice behaviour and other related constructs. I also reviewed the antecedents and psychological mechanisms that link the antecedents to employee voice behaviour.

Moreover, this review has highlighted the issues that I would like to address in this research. First of all, the majority of past works on employee voice behaviour focused on behaviours with positive attributes, and rarely discussed non-well-intentioned voice behaviour, even though some forms of voice behaviour that possess negative attributes have both practical and theoretical value (Maynes & Podsakoff., 2014). Therefore, examining the association of constructive voice and defensive voice with organisational commitment will improve our understandings of employee voice behaviour.

Second, as indicated in the review, there are inconsistent research findings on the association between affective organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour. Chamberlin et al. (2017) suggested that the influence of affective organisational commitment may vary based on the form of employee voice behaviour. Therefore, examining the associations between different types of organisational commitment and different forms of employee voice behaviour will provide a clear picture of the effect of organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour, and improve understandings of the conceptual differences between constructive voice and defensive voice.

Third, past works examining the relationship between affective organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour were mainly based on social exchange

theory (e.g., Burris et al., 2008, Graham & Van Dyne, 2006; Wang et al., 2014). However, voice is less a reciprocity means in a social exchange relationship (Deckop et al., 2003, Parker et al., 2006). As a result, the psychological links between affective organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour remain unclear. This research helps to provide a clearer understanding for how organisational commitment can shape different forms of employee voice behaviour.

Finally, past research either focused on the impact of individual differences on employee voice behaviour or highlighted the importance of supervisors in shaping employee voice behaviour (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012). There is a lack of integrative framework to provide a full picture of the forces that facilitate or inhibit employee voice behaviour. To echo Morrison's (2011) call, in this research, I propose a multilevel model to explore how individual factors (affective organisational commitment and continuous organisational commitment) and situational conditions (exploration leadership and exploitation leadership) operate in conjunction to shape employee voice behaviour.

In summary, this research aims to contribute to the existing knowledge regarding the divergent antecedents of different forms of employee voice behaviour (constructive voice versus defensive voice) and the psychological mechanisms that lead to employee voice behaviour.

2.2 Regulatory Focus Theory

2.2.1 Definition of Regulatory Focus

According to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998), self-regulation refers to the cognitive process, by which individuals seek to align themselves with appropriate goals or standards. There are two regulatory systems: promotion focus and prevention focus. These two regulatory systems can be distinguished by three aspects, as follows.

Frist, among the most primary of human needs are the needs for nurturance and needs for security. Promotion focus helps to fulfil nurturance needs that are associated with growth, development, and achievement, whereas prevention focus helps to satisfy needs for security and safety (Higgins, 1997).

Second, promotion focus regulates ideal goals, which include hopes, wishes and aspirations (Higgins, 1998; Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997). In contrast, prevention focus regulates ought goals, which include duties, obligations and responsibilities, (Higgins, 1997, 1998). In other words, promotion focus seeks to minimise the discrepancies between actual and ideal states whereas prevention focus seeks to minimise the discrepancies between actual and ought states.

Third, promotion focus sensitises individuals to the presence and absence of positive outcomes or gains, and thereby causes individuals to strategically approach matches to desired end-states and mismatches to undesired end-states—namely, eagerness strategy (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). In contrast, prevention focus involves sensitivity to the presence and absence of negative outcomes or losses, and thereby causes individuals to strategically avoid matches to undesired end-states and mismatches to desired end-states—namely, vigilance strategy (Crowe et al., 1997).

Some features of regulatory focus are worth noting. First, promotion and prevention foci are assumed to be independent of each other, and they both can coexist in one person. However, one or the other may chronically or temporarily take the dominant position in a given individual (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Second, regulatory focus can be both chronic trait-like orientation that is influenced by early life experiences (Higgins, 1997) and situationally psychological state that is subject to individual and situational influences (Gino & Margolis, 2011; Kark et al., 2015; Neubert et al., 2008; Oyserman et al., 2007). Regardless of whether a regulatory focus is dispositional or situational, its attitudinal and behavioural outcomes are identical. Moreover, the chronic regulatory focus can be overridden through a situationally induced regulatory focus (Weber & Mayer, 2011). In this research, I focus on the situational state-based regulatory focus.

2.2.2 Hierarchy of Regulatory Focus and Regulatory Fit

Regulatory focus can be further distinguished across three levels: system level, strategic level, and tactic level (Scholer et al., 2008). The top level of the hierarchy of regulatory focus is the system level, which reflects individual overarching goals or preference for end-states. At the system level, promotion focus regulates behaviour to fulfil nurturance needs or to achieve ideal goals, whereas prevention focus regulates behaviour to satisfy security needs or to attain ought goals (Higgins, 1997). However, it is unclear how to regulate behaviour towards the end-states at this level, which is addressed at the strategic and tactic levels (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). The second level of this hierarchy is the strategic level, which involves individual preference for the process or means used for goal pursuit. At this level, promotion-focused individuals are sensitive to the gains versus non-gains, and tend to adopt an eagerness strategy by approaching matches to desired end-states and approaching mismatches to undesired

states. In contrast, prevention-focused individuals are sensitive to loss versus non-loss, and prefer a vigilance strategy by avoiding mismatches to desired end-states or avoiding matches to undesired end-states (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, 1997). Finally, at the tactic level, independent from regulatory focus at the system and strategic levels, individuals may tactically adjust their goal-striving means based on the situational demands so as to achieve their regulatory strategy (Higgins, 1997). It is worth noting that there is a historical tendency to conflate strategic and tactical levels in regulatory focus theory (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). Only a few recent works made clear distinctions between regulatory strategies and tactics (e.g., Scholer et al., 2014).

Regulatory focus across levels operates independently across levels (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). Although individuals with promotion goals prefer eagerness means and individuals with prevention goals prefer vigilance means, the actual means they adopt is based on situational demands. There is extensive empirical evidence for the independence of regulatory focus across levels (Camacho, Higgins, & Luger, 2003; Dimotakis, Davison, & Hollenbeck, 2012; Higgins, Idson, Freitas, Spiegel, & Molden, 2003), in which one of the most important implications is regulatory fit theory (Johnson, Smith, Wallace, Hill, & Baron, 2015).

Regulatory fit theory (Higgins, 2000, 2005) suggests that, when there is a match between the goal (regulatory focus at system level) and means (regulatory focus at strategic and tactic levels), individuals feel right about how they are acting, which increases the strength of individual motivation and enhances related performance. For example, Förster, Higgins, and Idson (1998) found that, in the condition of regulatory fit between goal and means, regardless of whether the goals are chronic or induced by experimental manipulation, individuals tend to show stronger motivation and higher performance in the related tasks. Similarly, Shah, Higgins, and Friedman (1998) also

found that regulatory fit can improve participants' performance in completing tasks. Further, Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002) indicated that individuals with a promotion goal (whether it is chronic or induced by experimental manipulation) are more motivated by positive role models because these role models represent a promotion means by illustrating how to achieve success, and thereby create a fit with the promotion goal. In contrast, individuals with a prevention goal (whether it is chronic or induced by experimental manipulation) are more inspired by negative role models because these role models operate as a prevention means by demonstrating how to avoid failure, and thereby forming a good match with the prevention goal.

Researchers have adopted regulatory fit theory to explain various effects in the workplace, particularly the effect of leadership behaviours. Leadership is a process by which a leader influences employees' goal-striving behaviour (House, 1971). Different leadership behaviours may encourage employees to self-regulate in distinct ways (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011). According to regulatory fit theory (Higgins, 2000, 2005), leadership behaviour is more effective when the self-regulatory means shaped by leadership behaviour is congruent with the one that employees chronically prefer. It is worth noting that regulatory focus is generally operated as individual disposition in this line of research, and therefore it is not influenced by leadership behaviour. For example, for promotion-focused employees, transformational leadership can elicit stronger motivation (Benjamin & Flynn, 2006), higher performance (Whitford & Moss, 2009), less turnover intentions (Hamstra et al., 2011) and more positive evaluations of leadership effectiveness (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014) because transformational leadership encourages employees to complete their work in a manner that stresses ideals, positive expectations, changes, and eagerness (Hamstra, 2011, 2014), which fits the chronic strategic preference of

promotion-focused employees. In contrast, for prevention-focused employees, transactional leadership helps to reduce turnover intentions (Hamstra et al., 2011) and enhance leadership effectiveness evaluations (Hamstra et al., 2014), because transactional leadership encourages employees to complete their work in a manner that emphasises rules, responsibilities, stability, and avoiding errors (Hamstra, 2011, 2014), which matches the chronic strategic preference of prevention-focused employees. Further, Stam, van Knippenberg, and Wisse (2010) indicated that the visionary leadership is not limited to presenting a positive future to encourage employees to strive for (promotion appeal), but also incorporates emphasis on a negative situation to avoid (prevention appeal). The effect of these promotion and prevention appeals depends on employees' chronic regulatory focus: promotion appeals lead to higher performance among promotion-focused employees, whereas prevention appeals motivate higher performance among prevention-focused employees. Additionally, De Cremer et al. (2009) found that self-sacrificial leadership behaviour leads to high-level prosocial behaviour from prevention-focused employees, because self-sacrificial leaders activate values regarding duties and obligations.

In addition to leadership, regulatory fit theory has also been applied to a wide range of topics in the management literature. For example, with respect to the effect of feedback, Van Dijk and Kluger (2004, 2011) indicated that positive feedback predicts high-level of motivation and performance among promotion-focused employees, whereas negative feedback leads to stronger motivation and higher performance among prevention-focused employees, regardless of whether the regulatory focus is chronic orientation or a psychological state induced by situational factors, such as task demands (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2004). In the literature on negotiation, Appelt and Higgins (2010) found that in a price negotiation, a fit between role (seller or buyer) and strategy

(eagerness or vigilance) or a fit between a chronic regulatory focus and strategy will enhance negotiators' performance by facilitating more demanding bargaining behaviour in the negotiation. Concerning team performance, Dimotakis et al. (2012) showed that the congruence between the task demands-induced goal and structure-shaped means can lead to high-level task performance and satisfaction. Specifically, in the condition of promotion task demands, teams with a divisional structure showed high-level helping behaviours, positive affect, satisfaction, and task performance. The same was true for teams with a functional structure in the condition of prevention task demands. Moreover, regulatory fit theory also helps to deepen understandings of intergroup bias. Sassenberg, Jonas, Shah, and Brazy (2007) indicated that group members' intergroup bias depends on the degree of fit between group members' regulatory focus and the power status of group. Specifically, in groups with a higher power position, members with high-level promotion focus have relatively greater preference for their groups, whereas, in groups with lower power status, members with high-level prevention focus show stronger intergroup bias.

Taken together, the results of prior works suggest that the degree of fit between the self-regulatory goal and the goal-striving means shaped by the situation influences individual motivational and behavioural outcomes, regardless of whether the self-regulatory goal is chronic or induced by situational factors.

2.2.3 Related Constructs

Given that approach and avoidance motivation plays a central role in the functioning of humans (Elliot, 2008), different constructs have been proposed to capture the motivational processes, among which approach and avoidance temperaments and approach and avoidance motivation orientations have been found to be conceptually

related to regulatory focus (Elliot & Thrash, 2010; Scholer et al., 2008). To attain a clear picture of the conceptualisation of regulatory focus and deepen our understandings of regulatory focus theory, it is important to make distinctions between regulatory focus and the related constructs. The following subsections discuss the important differences.

Drawing on the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance motivation (Elliot & Church, 1997), humans have two separate biologically based approach and avoidance temperaments, which exert indirect influence on outcomes through their more concrete motivational manifestations: general approach and avoidance motivation orientation (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Approach motivation orientation refers to the energisation of behaviour towards positive stimuli, whereas avoidance motivation orientation is defined as the energisation of behaviour away from negative stimuli (Elliot, 2006).

The hierarchical model of approach and avoidance motivation is similar to the hierarchy of regulatory focus because both focus on the approach and avoidance themes (Elliot et al., 1997; Higgins, 1998). However, the two hierarchical models differ because the hierarchy of regulatory focus is non-causal, in which the three levels of regulatory focus operate independently, whereas the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance motivation is a causal hierarchy, which explains the psychological mechanisms underlying the impact of approach and avoidance temperaments (Ferris et al., 2013). Moreover, the highest level in the hierarchy of regulatory focus is akin to goals, both chronic and situational. In contrast, the top level of the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance motivation is temperaments, whereas motivation orientations (goals) enter as mid-level constructs to specify how to strategically address the underlying temperaments (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). Therefore, Scholer and Higgins (2008) indicated that motivation orientation in the hierarchical model of approach and

avoidance motivation to some extent incorporates aspects of regulatory focus at both system and strategic levels. Accordingly, there are two groups of constructs that need to clarify the conceptual distinctions: (1) chronic regulatory foci at system level and approach and avoidance temperaments, and (2) situational regulatory foci at system level, strategic level of regulatory focus, and approach and avoidance motivation orientations.

Chronic regulatory foci at system level and approach and avoidance temperaments. Chronic regulatory foci share some similarities with approach and avoidance temperaments because both sets of constructs represent motivational dispositions that reflect approach and avoidance motivational process (Elliot et al., 2010). However, besides the above identical aspects, chronic regulatory foci have some unique features that emphasise the self-guiding principles of ideal and ought (Higgins, 1997). Therefore, chronic regulatory foci are more rooted in socialisation, whereas approach and avoidance temperaments arise more from biology (Elliot et al., 2010).

Situational regulatory foci at system level, strategic level of regulatory foci and approach and avoidance motivational orientation. As Scholer and Higgins (2008) suggested, these three sets of constructs overlap to some extent. First, similar to situational regulatory foci, motivation orientations from the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance motivation are akin to goals (Elliot et al., 2002), which are situation specific and regulate behaviour towards desired end-states or away from undesired end-states (Elliot et al., 1997). Second, both the strategic level of regulatory foci and motivation orientations involve the sensitivity to positive and negative stimuli and emphasise the process or means for goal pursuit (Scholer et al., 2008; VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum Jr, 1999).

Besides the above similarities, the three sets of constructs can be distinguished based on the following three aspects. First, situational regulatory foci at system level are different from motivation orientations because the situational regulatory foci at system level relate to ideal and ought goals, which are beyond the conceptual content of motivation orientations. However, situational regulatory foci at system level do not specify how to undertake approaching or avoiding, which is addressed by motivation orientations. Second, both situational regulatory foci at the system level and strategic level of regulatory foci are subject to dispositional, intrapsychic and situational influences (Johnson et al., 2015; Lanaj et al., 2012), whereas the antecedents of motivation orientations are delineated as various dispositional factors in the causal hierarchical model (Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). Third, in the operationalisation, the regulatory foci at system and strategic levels can either be manipulated in experimental settings with specific reference points, or measured for field settings without explicitly distinguishing regulatory reference, whereas motivation orientations are generally used in field settings (Ferris et al., 2013).

2.2.4 Antecedents of Regulatory Focus in Management Literature

In this section, I briefly review works that sought to delineate the antecedents of regulatory focus in organisational settings. Given that regulatory focus is socialisation-based self-regulation process, most works has focused on the situational impact. Our knowledge regarding the influence of individual differences remains limited (Lanaj et al., 2012), although some recent works attempted to extend from this initial focus on situational triggers to investigate individual factors. To some extent, the lack of attention has led to controversy in the literature on regulatory focus. In the following review, I will start with individual factors, and then discuss the influence of situational factors.

Individual Antecedents. Below, I further classify the identified individual antecedents into two categories: (1) dispositional differences, and (2) temporary psychological states.

(1) Dispositional antecedents. The most relevant dispositional factor to regulatory focus is goal-orientation, which is a type of approach and avoidance temperament and refers to individual differences for goal preference in achievement settings (VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 1999). Wallace, Johnson, and Frazier (2009) found that performance-prove goal orientation (a preference for goals to demonstrate one's competence and seek favourable judgements) (VandeWalle, 1997) and learning goal orientation (a preference for goals to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations) (VandeWalle, 1997) are positively associated with both promotion and prevention foci, because both performance-prove goal and learning goal can be represented as either a responsibility or an accomplishment. In contrast, performance-avoid goal orientation (a preference for goals to avoid negative judgements of one's competence) (VandeWalle, 1997) is only positively related to prevention focus. Similar findings were also obtained by Lanaj et al.'s (2012) recent meta-analysis, which, based on the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance motivation, proposed that personality traits and dispositions, as distal factors, affect work-related behaviour through the emergence of the proximal motivational processes of regulatory focus (the strategic and tactic levels in the hierarchy of regulatory focus).

Another important dispositional source of regulatory focus is big-five personalities. Conscientiousness is positively associated with both promotion and prevention foci, as found in various works (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012; Wallace & Chen, 2006). This is because conscientiousness encompasses two dimensions: duty orientation and achievement orientation. Duty orientation reflects ought self-values, whereas

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achievement orientation represents ideal self-values. Therefore, the two dimensions of conscientiousness are respectively linked to prevention and promotion foci (Wallace & Chen, 2006). With respect to the other big-five personalities, Lanaj et al. (2012) indicated that extraversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness are positively related to promotion focus, whereas neuroticism has a positive influence on prevention focus. Similarly, another meta-analysis by Gorman et al. (2012) found that extraversion has a positive relationship with promotion focus and negative relationship with prevention focus, whereas neuroticism is positively related to prevention focus and negatively related to promotion focus.

Self-evaluative tendencies (general self-esteem and general self-efficacy) are also relevant to regulatory focus. With respect to general self-esteem, recent meta-analyses demonstrated that general self-esteem has a positive association with promotion focus and a negative association with prevention focus because individuals with high self-esteem focus on abilities and strengths and have a self-enhancing orientation, while individuals with low self-esteem are occupied with weakness and shortcomings and have a self-protective orientation (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Baumeister & Tice, 1985). However, in contrast, Leonardelli, Lakin, and Arkin (2007) indicated that promotion focus, rather than prevention focus, also has positive effect on general self-esteem by pursuing self-esteem goals. Therefore, the relationship between general self-esteem and promotion focus remains unclear. Further research is needed to explore what is the direction of the causal relationship, or whether there is a positive circle relationship between the two constructs. Concerning the effect of general self-efficacy, the results are very inconsistent. Wallace and Chen (2009) indicated that general self-efficacy has positive relationship with both promotion and prevention foci due to spillover effect of general self-efficacy. In contrast, Lanaj et al. (2012) indicated that

general self-efficacy is only positively related to promotion focus, and is unrelated to prevention focus. Their argument is that fulfilling duties, which underpins prevention focus, often results in meeting the minimum standards of performance and therefore it does not necessarily fully unfold their ability. The above conflicting perspectives regarding the impact of general self-efficacy on prevention focus reveal that this relationship is more complex than might be expected; and therefore, further investigation is required.

Individual chronic values and beliefs are another important antecedents of regulatory focus. Individuals with a high-level of individualism value tend to adopt promotion focus because they are concerned with achieving success and maximising potential gains in various situations (Lalwani, Shrum, & Chiu, 2009; Lockwood, Marshall, & Sadler, 2005). In contrast, individuals with a high-level of collectivism value tend to be prevention-focused because their interdependent self-construal (shaped by the collectivism value) makes them concerned with duties and responsibilities, and more motivated to avoid situations that might lead to failure to meet these responsibilities (Lalwani et al., 2009; Lockwood et al., 2005). In addition to chronic cultural values, individual future time perspective, which refers to beliefs about how much time is left available in the future life, also plays an important role in shaping regulatory focus. Individuals who perceive their future as open-ended, rather than limited or restricted, tend to endorse a promotion focus because an open-ended future time perspective implies sufficient time, which is an important instrumental resource for accomplishing goals and desires, and therefore suggests that more opportunities are available (Baltes, Wynne, Sirabian, Krenn, & de Lange, 2014).

Some other dispositional factors, such as affectivity, optimism, and anxiety also impact regulatory focus. Specifically, affectivity refers to a predisposition to feel

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positive or negative emotions (Watson & Clark, 1984). Positive affectivity facilitates promotion focus, whereas negative affectivity triggers prevention focus (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012; Summerville & Roese, 2008). In addition, the meta-analysis of Gorman et al. (2012) demonstrated that optimism positively predicts promotion focus. There remains controversy regarding the effect of anxiety. Wallace and Chen (2009) found that anxiety had negative effect on both promotion and prevention foci. However, Gorman et al. (2012) showed that anxiety is positively related to prevention focus and negatively related to promotion focus. Therefore, more work is needed to further examine of the influence of anxiety on regulatory focus. Finally, besides the above dispositional influence, chronic promotion and prevention foci play an important role in situational promotion and prevention foci (Kark et al., 2015; Wallace & Chen, 2009).

(2) Temporary psychological state. Compared with dispositional factors, temporary psychological states as antecedents of regulatory focus have received limited attention. This lack of attention has partly led to the controversy regarding the relationship between organisational commitment and regulatory focus. In prior theoretical works, some researchers depicted organisational commitment as the outcome of chronic regulatory foci (e.g., Johnson & Chang, 2008; Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010), whereas other researchers argued that organisational commitment plays an important role in evoking situational regulatory foci (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). However, there is a dearth of empirical work to examine this causal relationship. A notable exception is the study by Markovits et al. (2008), which indicated that both chorionic promotion and prevention foci are positively related to all three types of organisational commitment (affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuous commitment). Nevertheless, recent meta-analyses

(Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012) showed inconsistent findings. They found that promotion focus is positively associated with affective organisational commitment, that prevention focus is positively linked to normative organisational commitment, and that both promotion and prevention foci are positively related to continuance organisational commitment. Still, Lanaj et al., (2012) reported that affective organisational commitment is associated with promotion focus, whereas continuance organisational commitment is related to prevention focus. As a result of the cross-sectional design of the work by Markovits et al., (2008) and most works incorporated in the meta-analysis by Lanaj et al. (2012) and that by Gorman et al. (2012), the above works cannot offer confident conclusions about the direction of the causality. Consequently, the causal relationship between organisational commitment and regulatory focus remains unclear. Therefore, more works are needed to further investigate this relationship by distinguishing chronic and situational regulatory focus, especially empirical research with experimental design to mitigate concerns regarding reverse causations.

In summary, various antecedents regarding individual dispositional differences and psychological states have been proposed and empirically examined. However, the influences of some individual antecedents are either not inconsistent (as with anxiety and general self-efficacy) or not fully understood (as with general self-esteem and organisational commitment). Therefore, further research is needed to address the issues discussed above.

Situational factors. Apart from individual factors, situational factors are also crucial for regulatory focus, because these situational factors may frame the goals to pursue or shape the means used to pursue the goals. Below, I review previous works on the role of leadership, task demands, work events, and climate in the workplace. It is worth noting that, in these works, regulatory focus was operated as situation-induced

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psychological state, thereby causing it to be subject to the influence of situational factors.

The most relevant situational factor is leadership, because leaders, as makers of meaning, frame organisational goals to focus employees' attention on specific outcomes (Johnson et al., 2015), and thereby triggerring promotion or prevention focus. Various leadership behaviours have been linked to regulatory focus. For example, Kark et al. (2007) theorised that transformational and charismatic leadership behaviours can evoke employees' promotion focus by presenting an ideal picture of the future and encouraging employees to complete their tasks from a new perspective. In contrast, transactional and monitoring leadership behaviours prompt a prevention focus by encouraging employees to perform based on standards and avoiding rule deviation, mistakes, and errors. These propositions are supported by empirical work by Kark et al., (2015). Neubert et al. (2008) demonstrated that servant leadership evokes a promotion focus by emphasising employees' growth, while initiating structure facilitates a prevention focus by directing employees' attention to meet and adhere to expectations. In addition, Owens and Hekman (2016) found that humility leadership may cause collective humility owing to social contagion, which further activates team members' promotion focus (assessed at team level) by admitting limitations and thereby allowing teams to identify potential improvements.

Task demand is another situational trigger for regulatory focus. Van Dijk et al. (2011) suggested that, given the fact that different types of task involve distinct behaviours to complete, the nature of these behaviours may affect employees' regulatory focus. Specifically, tasks requiring eagerness trigger employees' promotion focus, whereas tasks requiring vigilance evoke employees' prevention focus. Dimotakis et al. (2012) further indicated that even for the same type of task, different task

requirements may produce different regulatory focus. Tasks with promotion goals facilitate employees' promotion focus, while tasks with prevention goals cause employees' prevention focus.

Work events also play a role in facilitating regulatory focus. As discussed above, regulatory focus involves sensitivity to positive or negative stimuli, and work events serve as such stimuli to elicit regulatory focus. Specifically, Koopmann, Lanaj, Bono, and Campana (2016) found that experience of positive work events elicits employees' promotion focus, whereas experience of negative work events activates employees' prevention focus. By the same token, Johnson, Chang, and Rosen (2010) found that employees who experienced fairness tend to adopt promotion focus due to the favourable economic and socioemotional information communicated by fairness treatment, whereas employees exposed to unfairness tend to endorse a prevention focus owing to the threats of social rejection and economic exploitation conveyed by unfair treatment. A similar finding was also obtained by Oyserman et al. (2007) by indicating that stigmatised social category membership promotes a prevention focus.

Finally, the workplace climate also impacts employees' regulatory focus. As the shared perceptions of employees in a workgroup, climate helps to regulate employees' behaviour to meet collective expectations (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). For example, Wallace et al. (2006) suggested that safety climate frames situations in a preventive way, by which loss from unsafe behaviours is undesired end-state, and thereby encourages employees to adopt a vigilance strategy to regulate behaviour away from the undesired end-state.

In summary, although a wide range of situational antecedents have been identified and examined, the influence of some situational triggers (such as climate) is still rarely

investigated. Moreover, the interplay of these situational factors as well as the interplay of situational and individual factors, remains unexplored. Future works are encouraged to incorporate different triggers to provide a comprehensive understanding of their effect on regulatory focus.

2.2.5 Behavioural Outcomes of Regulatory Focus in Management Literature

In the management literature, regulatory focus has been found to be associated with various emotional (e.g., Dimotakis et al., 2012), perceptional (e.g., Wallace, Butts, Johnson, Stevens, & Smith, 2016) and behavioural outcomes (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2012). However, given this thesis's focus on employee voice behaviour, following review selectively includes works that focused on the behavioural outcomes of regulatory focus. In addition, because the effect of regulatory focus on voice behaviour was elaborated in the last section, following review does not include this topic. Below, I review previous works on task performance, creativity and innovation, affiliative OCB and employees' counterproductive work behaviours.

Task performance. Given the fact that high task performance is generally associated with desirable work outcomes, it serves as an ideal goal. Therefore, promotion-focused employees are motivated to pursue high task performance. Various works have reported a positive relationship between promotion focus (both chronic and situational promotion focus) and task performance (Gorman et al., 2012; Johnson, Shull, & Wallace, 2011; Lanaj et al., 2012; Wallace et al., 2006; Wallace et al., 2009).

In contrast, the findings regarding the effect of prevention focus on task performance are mixed. Some works have indicated that prevention focus should also have positive effect on task performance because prevention-focused employees act out of obligation and comply with explicit expectations (Johnson et al., 2011; Wallace et al.,

2009). In contrast, a recent meta-analysis reported that prevention focus was unrelated to task performance because the duties and responsibilities involved in prevention focus often lead to meeting the minimum standards of performance (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012). One plausible explanation for these conflicting findings may be that the task performance of prevention-focused employees is dependent on task requirements. In the case of task requirements that highlight productivity, prevention focus is negatively related to task performance, whereas when task requirements emphasise safety, prevention focus has a positive association with task performance (Wallace et al., 2006; Wallace et al., 2009).

Creativity and innovation. Regulatory focus theory suggests that the motivational process elicited by promotion focus will enhance creativity (Higgins, 1998). Specifically, activation of promotion focus may be seen as signalling that the environment is prospectively benign, and thereby lead to adoption of explorative processing style, which further prompts creativity (Friedman & Förster, 2001). Consistent with this argument, the positive relationship between promotion focus and innovative performance has been repeatedly demonstrated in various works (Friedman & Förster, 2001; Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008; Wallace et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2012).

There remain controversy regarding the effect of prevention focus on innovative performance, there is still controversy. Friedman et al. (2001) suggested that prevention focus is posited to involve a relatively risk-averse and vigilant processing style, which leads to memory retrieval blocking, and thereby undermines information encoding and idea generation. In line with this argument, some works have found that prevention focus is negatively associated with innovative performance (e.g., Wallace et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2012). In contrast, other works reported that prevention focus is unrelated to

innovative performance (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008). One plausible reason for the conflicting findings is the potential nonlinearity of this relationship. As Lanaj et al. (2012) suggested the motivational process underlying creativity is incompatible with prevention focus. Therefore, low-level prevention focus should be unrelated to creativity. However, when prevention focus reaches the intermediate-level and keeps increasing to high-level, self-regulatory resources are dramatically depleted due to the high-level vigilance strategy which directs individual attention to continually monitor circumstances for errors (Keith & Frese, 2005). Drawing on ego depletion theory (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007), depletion of self-regulatory focus leads to impaired ability to concentrate, lack of willpower and diminished effort in subsequent tasks. Creativity involves much effort to find new and useful ways to improve the status quo (Zhou et al., 2001). Therefore, higher levels of prevention focus may predict lower innovative performance. In fact, Lin et al. (2015) have found a negative relationship between self-regulatory resources depletion and promotive voice that involves the generation of creative ideas. Taken together, the conflicting findings in prior works may highlight a nonlinear relationship between prevention focus may and innovative performance. Future work should integrate ego depletion theory and regulatory focus theory to examine the possible role played by self-regulatory resource depletion in the relationship between prevention focus and innovation performance.

Affiliative OCB. Promotion focus regulates behaviour to satisfy the needs of achievement, growth, and development, whereas affiliative OCB is often driven by the motivation to attain career benefits or enhance self-concept (Lavelle, 2010). The motivations underlying affiliative OCB are compatible with promotion focus.

Therefore, it is predicted that there is a positive link between promotion focus and affiliative OCB (Lanaj et al., 2012). A number of empirical works have provided support for this prediction. For example, Neubert et al., (2008) demonstrated that promotion-focused employees are more likely to engage in helping behaviour. In the same vein, De Cremer et al. (2009) also found a positive association between promotion focus and affiliative OCB. Further, Wallace et al. (2009) indicated that promotion focus not only predicts higher affiliative OCB directed to organisation, but also higher affiliative OCB directed towards coworkers.

Regarding the effect of prevention focus on affiliative OCB, Wallace et al. (2009) proposed and empirically examined whether prevention focus is negatively related to affiliative OCB (both directed towards organisation and coworkers) because prevention-focused employees who are duty-bound feel no obligation to engage in OCB, which by definition is a type of extra-role behaviour. However, there is a conflicting finding regarding the effect of prevention focus, which states that prevention focus is unrelated to affiliative OCB (e.g., Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008). Again, I predicted that the nonlinearity in the relationship between prevention focus and affiliative OCB may shed light on the conflicting findings. Therefore, I encourage future work to further examine this relationship by integrating regulatory focus theory and ego depletion theory.

Counterproductive work behaviour. Counterproductive behaviour, which refers to employees' voluntary behaviour that harms or intended to harm the legitimate interests of organisations or organisation stakeholders, such as customers, coworkers, and supervisors (Spector & Fox, 2002). Counterproductive behaviour is a general construct, including a set of distinct behaviours, such as deviant behaviour, sabotage, theft, abuse against others, and withdrawal (Spector et al., 2006). Promotion focus is

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associated with nurturance needs, ideal goals or positive outcomes, which is incompatible with the motivational processes underpinning counterproductive work behaviour. Therefore, promotion focus is expected to be unrelated to counterproductive work behaviour (Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008). However, Neubert et al. (2008) found a significant negative correlation between deviant behaviour and promotion focus (both chronic and situational promotion focus). In addition, Lanaj et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis showed that promotion focus has a negative effect on counterproductive behaviour. Although Lanaj et al. (2012) provided several possible explanations for this finding, further direct examination is needed.

Meanwhile, the relationship between prevention focus and counterproductive work behaviour is also very complex. Neubert et al., (2008) indicated that prevention-focused employees are motivated to avoid deviant behaviour that represents a departure from the explicit or implicit expectations or norms of the organisation. However, Lanaj et al. (2012) indicated that prevention focus has a positive effect on counterproductive work behaviour. They suggested that the positive relationship may be owing to the failure of self-regulatory control, given the fact that high levels of vigilance strategy drain cognitive resources and make individuals vulnerable to self-regulatory failure (Baumeister et al., 1998). There are two plausible explanations for the conflicting findings. First, the potential nonlinearity in the relationship between prevention focus and counterproductive work behaviour may lend clarity to the inconsistency. Specifically, at low levels of prevention focus, individuals are insensitive to discrepancies between actual behaviour and expectations, and therefore more likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour. With prevention focus increasing to an intermediate-level, it helps to reduce counterproductive behaviour, which aligns with Neubert et al.'s (2008) findings. However, as discussed above, with prevention focus

increasing from intermediate-level to high-level, self-regulatory resources are drained

owing to the high-level vigilance strategy (Keith et al., 2005), which leads to

diminished ability to behave in a socially desirable manner (Vohs, Baumeister, &

Ciarocco, 2005). As a result, prevention-focused employees tend to engage more in

counterproductive work behaviour, which is consistent with Lanaj et al.'s (2012)

perspective.

In addition to nonlinearity, the conflicting findings may also be the result of

potential boundary conditions. Prevention-focused individuals are bound to obligation

and duty, and therefore tend to avoid departure (counterproductive work behaviour in

this case) from their ought states. However, they are also sensitive to the normative

appropriateness of others' responses (Keller, Hurst, & Uskul, 2008). Once they perceive

violation of reciprocity norms, they will engage in negative reciprocity (Keller et al.,

2008). Therefore, when situational factors send cues regarding the violation of

reciprocity norm or breach of contract, prevention focus will prompt counterproductive

work behaviour. Future research is encouraged to investigate the nature of the

relationship between prevention focus and counterproductive work behaviour, including

whether this relationship is linear or nonlinear, and the potential boundary conditions.

In summary, regulatory foci have been found to play a role in a variety of work-

related behaviours. Although research has attained a clear picture of the effect of

promotion focus on task performance, innovative performance, and affiliative OCB, the

same is not true for prevention focus. In addition, the relationships between promotion

and prevention foci and counterproductive work behaviour also remain unclear. Thus,

further examination of the above conflicting findings is needed. One promising avenue

for future work is to investigate the influence of regulatory focus, especially the

influence of prevention focus, by integrating regulatory focus theory and ego depletion theory.

2.2.6 Summary

In this section, I reviewed the core perspectives in regulatory focus theory by introducing: (1) the construct of regulatory focus, which Higgins (1997, 1998) proposed to explain individual self-regulation motivational processes; (2) the hierarchical nature of regulatory focus and regulatory fit, which helped to improve our understanding of the influence of situational factors; (3) conceptual-related constructs and their differences with regulatory focus; and (4) the antecedents and behavioural outcomes of regulatory focus identified in the management literature. Based on the above review, regulatory focus theory provides a theoretical basis to explain individuals' behaviour via emphasis on gain or loss, which is influenced by situational and individual factors. In this research, regulatory focus theory is applied as the theoretical foundation to understand employee voice behaviour and explain why employees with different levels and types of organisational commitment show differences in voice behaviour, as well as the role played by leadership in the above relationship, which is elaborated in the next chapter.

2.3 Organisational Commitment Literature

2.3.1 Definition of Organisational Commitment

Commitment is defined as a force, psychological state, or mindset that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It is conceptualised and measured based on different targets, such as commitment to an organisation (Meyer et al., 1991), commitment to a supervisor (Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Panaccio, 2014) and commitment to an occupation (Meyer et al., 1993). Among the targets towards which commitment can be directed, organisations are the most important, and organisational commitment has received most research attention (Morrow, 2011). In this research, I focused on employees' organisational commitment, which characterises the employees' relationship with the organisation and has implications for their decision to continue membership or not (Meyer et al., 1991).

According to Meyer and his colleagues (1991), organisational commitment can be conceptualised as a multidimensional construct consisting of three types: affective, continuance and normative commitment. The three types of organisational commitment can be distinguished from each other based on the nature of the force that binds an individual to his or her organisation.

Affective organisational commitment is defined as the degree of identification, involvement and emotional attachment that an individual has to his or her organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective organisational commitment entails acceptance and internalisation of values or goals of the organisation. The degree to which an employee's goals and values are congruent with those of the organisation directly influences the employee's desire to remain in the organisation. Thus, the motivation

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underlying affective organisational commitment involves an intrinsic personal desire to remain within the organisation (Johnson et al., 2008). Or to put it in another way, affectively committed employees keep their membership in the organisation because they want to do so.

A second form is continuance organisational commitment, which refers to the commitment based on the costs that an employee associates with leaving the organisation (Meyer et al., 1991). Continuance organisational commitment evolved from Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, which denoted that employees remain in an organisation because they are unwilling to sacrifice the accumulated side bets (such as desirable personal outcomes). Thus, the motivation underling continuance organisational commitment is based on self-interest. As such, continuously committed employees remain in the organisation because they need to do so.

The third dimension is normative organisational commitment that refers to employees' feelings of obligation to retain employment memberships and relationships (Meyer et al., 1991). A sense of loyalty and duty underlies normative organisational commitment. Thus, normatively committed employees remain in the organisation because they feel they ought to do so.

In this research, I focused on the first two types of organisational commitment, affective and continuance organisational commitment, based on following considerations. Affective and normative organisational commitments are highly related to each other. The meta-analysis of organisational commitment literature by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) reported a strong correlation between affective and normative organisational commitment ($\rho = 0.63$) and fund that the two forms of organisational commitment share similar relationships with other variables. In

fact, it is still under debate whether normative organisational commitment can be conceptually distinguished from affective organisational commitment (e.g., Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997). It is further suggested that the conceptualisation and measurement issues of normative organisational commitment lead to the convergence of affective organisational commitment and normative organisational commitment (Bergman, 2006). In contrast, continuance organisational commitment is quite distinguishable from affective organisational commitment. Prior research on organisational commitment has shown that affective and continuance organisational commitment are associated with different behavioural outcomes, except for employee turnover (Meyer et al., 2002).

2.3.2 Outcomes of Organisational Commitment

The literature on organisational commitment has demonstrated that organisational commitment is associated with a wide range of important work-related behaviour. Below, I review the behavioural outcomes of affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment in turn.

2.3.2.1 Outcomes of Affective Organisational Commitment

Now, I review the works that examined the influence of affective organisational commitment on task performance, proactive behaviour, affiliative OCB, and counterproductive work behaviour. The research findings regarding the association between affective organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour were elaborated in the review on voice literature, and therefore not included in the following review.

Task performance. Because affectively committed employees have shared values and goals with their organisation and are driven by intrinsic motivation, they tend to perform at a high level. This positive relationship between affective organisational

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commitment and task performance has been demonstrated in various works (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; Luchak & Gellatly, 2007; Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002).

Proactive behaviour. Similar to the conflicting findings regarding the impact of affective organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour, works examining the relationship between affective organisational commitment and proactive behaviour also show inconsistency. There is much evidence to support the positive effect of affective organisational commitment on proactive behaviour. In these works, affective organisational commitment is depicted as an attitudinal indicator of the extent to which employees perceive themselves to be in a positive and supportive relationship with the organisation, and therefore affectively committed employees are expected to reciprocate to their organisation in positive ways (Griffin et al., 2007). Supporting this argument, Den Hartog and Belschak (2007) reported that employees' affective organisational commitment can positively predict supervisor-rated self-initiatives. Similarly, Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) found a positive association between employees' affective organisational commitment and their proactivity. Rank, Carsten, Unger, and Spector (2007) also reported that affectively committed employees are more likely to engage in proactive service. In addition, Ng, Feldman, and Lam (2010) indicated that a higher initial status of affective organisational commitment is associated with higher innovation-related behaviour. Moreover, a decline in affective organisational commitment causes a decline in innovation-related behaviour over time.

However, affective organisational commitment is expected to have no direct relevance to proactive behaviour. Parker (2000) argued that, although commitment is often operationalised in terms of a desire to invest extra effort, the direction of extra effort is not considered and could be applied towards relatively passive behaviours.

Consistent with this argument, Parker, Williams, and Turner (2006) found that employees' affective organisational commitment is not related to their proactive idea implementation or their proactive problem solving. Similarly, Chiaburu, Marinova, and Lim (2007) reported that employees' affective commitment to their work unit has no effect on their proactive behaviour.

One possible explanation for the mixed findings regarding the association between affective organisational commitment and proactive behaviour may be that the effect of affective organisational commitment is contingent on the form of proactive behaviour. Chamberlin et al. (2017) suggested that affective organisational commitment is more related to non-challenging forms of voice behaviour than to challenging forms. As Parker and Collins (2010) indicated, proactive behaviour encompasses a wide range of constructs, such as personal initiative (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996), taking charge (Morrison et al., 1999), proactive problem solving and proactive idea implementation (Parker et al., 2006), self-initiated role expansions (Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997) and innovation (Parker, 1998). Some forms of proactive behaviour avoid explicit challenges to the status quo by virtue of being additive to the status quo. An example of this is proactive customer service, which is defined as employees' self-started, long-term-oriented, and persistent service behaviour that goes beyond the explicitly prescribed performance requirements (Rank et al., 2007). Some other forms of proactive behaviour are more challenging and imply more personal cost, such as proactive problem solving, which refers to self-starting, future-oriented responses with the aim to prevent the reoccurrence of a problem by addressing its root (Parker et al., 2006). Therefore, the differences between various forms of proactive behaviour may account for the inconsistency in the research findings.

In addition, distinguishing the target to which proactive behaviour may contribute to may also help to address the inconsistency. Because affective organisational commitment reflects the extent of the positive and supportive relationship between employees and their organisations, affective organisational commitment may predict proactive behaviour that has the purpose of improving the overall effectiveness of the organisation, but not those directed towards the others. In fact, Griffin et al. (2007) has found that affective organisational commitment is related to proactive behaviour directed towards organisation, but is unrelated to proactive behaviour directed towards the team or individual (the employee). Similar findings were also reported by Strauss, Griffin, and Rafferty (2009). Therefore, the conflicting findings may also be the result of the different beneficiaries of the distinct forms of proactive behaviour.

In summary, although some works have found a positive association between affective organisational commitment and proactive behaviour, the effect is inconsistent. Future research investigating the relationship between affective organisational commitment and proactive behaviour should consider the differences in the challenging nature and beneficiaries of the distinct forms of proactive behaviour.

Affiliative OCB. Compared with the inconsistencies in research investigating the influence of affective organisational commitment on employee voice and proactive behaviour, affective organisational commitment has been found to have consistent positive effect on affiliative OCB, although this relationship is contingent on certain factors (Akoto, 2014; Ng et al., 2010; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). For example, Chen and Francesco (2003) found that affective organisational commitment can positively predict altruism and conscientiousness (two dimensions of affiliative OCB). Similarly, LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) also reported a positive association between affective

organisational commitment and affiliative OCB. Further, Eisenberger et al. (2010) found that affectively committed employees are more likely to engage in organisational spontaneity. In addition, by distinguishing the target of citizenship behaviour, Lavelle et al. (2009) indicated that affective organisational commitment will trigger certain forms of employee affiliative OCB that are directed towards the organisation. More direct evidence can be seen in the meta-analyses by Meyer et al. (2002) and Ng et al. (2011).

Counterproductive work behaviour. Affective organisational commitment also helps to decrease the likelihood of employees' engagement in counterproductive work behaviour. For example, affective organisational commitment has been repeatedly found to have a negative influence on employees' voluntary absenteeism (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Hausknecht, Hiller, & Vance, 2008; Luchak et al., 2007; Somers, 1995). In addition, affective organisational commitment has also been found to have a consistent negative relationship with employees' deviant behaviour, (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008).

It is worth noting that the vast majority of past research on affective organisational commitment as an antecedent to predict the above behavioural outcomes largely relied on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which emphasises reciprocity in social relationships, without giving enough consideration to the cognitive or affective processes that may link affective organisational commitment to these behavioural outcomes. As a result, there is a lack of understanding of how affective organisational commitment triggers or inhibits these behaviours. Therefore, there is a need for more work to explore the psychological mechanism that underlies the influence of employees' affective organisational commitment on these behavioural outcomes.

2.3.2.2 Outcomes of Continuance Organisational Commitment

Compared with affective organisational commitment, continuance organisational commitment received relatively less attention. Below, I make a brief review of the works that have investigated the influence of continuance organisational commitment on task performance, voice behaviour, proactive behaviour, affiliative OCB, and some forms of counterproductive work behaviours.

Task performance. Works that have examined the influence of continuance organisational commitment on task performance has indicated conflicting findings. Some works have found a negative association between continuance organisational commitment and task performance (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989), while others reported no influence of continuance organisational commitment on task performance (e.g., Chen et al., 2003; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998), and still others showed a positive linkage between the two constructs (e.g., Suliman & Iles, 2000). The nonlinear model proposed by Luchak and Gellatly (2007) helped to address the inconsistency. According to Luchak and Gellatly (2007), with continuance organisational commitment increasing, the desire to remain in the organisation is enhanced, and thereby continuously committed employees are motivated to perform well to reduce the risk of being dismissed due to low performance. However, when task performance is improved to meet the minimum standards, the perceived risk is diminished, and thereby continuance organisational commitment has no effect on task performance. Although the nonlinearity partly lends clarity to the inconsistent findings, more research is needed to further examine this relationship.

Employee voice behaviour. To my knowledge, there are no empirical works directly examining the association between continuance organisational commitment and

employee voice behaviour. This is understandable because continuously committed employees are driven by instrumental motivation and thus, less likely to engage in extra-role behaviour that implies extra personal cost (Morrison, 2011; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Nevertheless, continuance organisational commitment does play a role in shaping employee voice behaviour. For example, Boichuk and Menguc (2013) found that continuously committed employees are more likely to engage in voice behaviour when they feel dissatisfied with their jobs, because it is improbable for continuously committed employees to improve their satisfaction through changing jobs. Similarly, Zhou and George (2001) demonstrated that employees with strong continuance organisational commitment are more likely to resort to voice behaviour to address their dissatisfaction with their jobs, especially when organisational context promotes their perceived efficacy of voice. The above works suggested that continuously committed employees may engage in voice behaviour. Therefore, examining the influence of continuance organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour may expand our knowledge regarding how continuance organisational commitment works.

Proactive behaviour. Only a few works have investigated the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and proactive behaviour and found that the impact of continuance organisational commitment is complex. For example, Vandenberghe and Panaccio (2012) found that the two dimensions of continuance organisational commitment—perceived-sacrifice-based commitment and few-alternative-based commitment—have the opposite effect on feedback seeking. Specifically, perceived-sacrifice-based commitment may trigger feedback seeking because employees with strong self-sacrifice-based continuance organisational commitment are sensitive to the gain and loss of personal resources, and seeking feedback is an important individual resource to help employees gain control in the

workplace. In contrast, employees with strong few-alternative-based commitment are less likely to seek feedback, due to their low sense of self-worth. Given the complexity of the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and proactive behaviour, more research is needed for investigation into the role of continuance organisational commitment in predicting employees' proactive behaviour.

Affiliative OCB. Given that continuance organisational commitment develops from economic need (Akoto, 2014), continuously committed employees' performance in specific areas depends on whether this performance will be rewarded appropriately. In contrast, affiliative OCB, as an extra-role behaviour, is not required by job description and not explicitly rewarded by the organisation. Therefore, continuously committed employees do not have the motivation to enact affiliative OCB. In other words, the motivational processes underlying affiliative OCB are incompatible with those associated with continuance organisational commitment. Therefore, it is predicted that continuance organisational commitment is unrelated to affiliative OCB. This prediction is supported by some empirical work (Akoto, 2014; Meyer et al., 2002). However, some other works found a negative relationship between continuance organisational commitment and affiliative OCB (Chen et al., 2003; Shore et al., 1993). Again, the inconsistent findings highlight the need for further investigation of the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and affiliative OCB.

Counterproductive work behaviour. Continuance organisational commitment may trigger some forms of counterproductive work behaviour. For example, employees with strong continuance organisational commitment tend to engage in deviant behaviour, because they feel trapped in the organisation and resort to this behaviour to cope with their negative feelings (Gill, Meyer, Lee, Shin, & Yoon, 2011). Continuance organisational commitment has also been found to facilitate absenteeism (Meyer et al.,

2012). In addition to the linear effect, Luchak et al. (2007) further reported a nonlinear model to explain the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and employees' absenteeism. Specifically, as continuance organisational commitment increases from low-level to intermediate-level, the risks associated with being absent will become increasingly more salient. Therefore, employees are motivated to satisfy the minimum requirements in order to stay in the organisation. However, beyond the intermediate level, the effect of continuance organisational commitment on employees' absenteeism is likely to be modest or negligible, because the minimum requirement has been satisfied and the concern of being dismissed due to absenteeism is reduced.

2.3.3 Summary

In this section, I reviewed the core perspectives in defining organisational commitment and its behavioural outcomes. In general, affective organisational commitment can trigger positive behavioural outcomes, such as employees' proactive behaviour and affiliative citizenship behaviour, and help to reduce counterproductive work behaviour. Compared with affective organisational commitment, the influence of continuance organisational commitment is more complex, but has received much less attention. Continuance organisational commitment has been demonstrated to play a role in shaping employees' proactive behaviour, affiliative citizenship behaviour and some forms of counterproductive work behaviour.

This review has also highlighted some important research gaps in the literature on organisational commitment, which this research aimed to address. First, there is a lack of research investigating the impact of continuance organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour, although research in other areas has suggested that continuance organisational commitment may play a role in facilitating employee voice

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behaviour, especially when employees feel dissatisfied (Boichuk & Menguc, 2013; Zhou & George, 2001). Thus, examining the link between continuance organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour will improve our understanding of the influence of continuance organisational commitment.

Second, as discussed above, past research was mainly based on social exchange theory (1964) to account for the influence of affective organisational commitment. As a result, the psychological mechanisms underlying the relationship between affective organisational commitment and its behavioural outcomes remain unexplored. In terms of continuance organisational commitment, there is a lack of understanding regarding how continuance organisational commitment leads to employee voice behaviour. Taken together, by bringing motivational mechanisms into discussion, this research helps to contribute to our knowledge of the psychological process that links organisational commitment (affective and continuance organisational commitment) to employee voice behaviour.

Finally, in an effort to better understand the boundary conditions of the relationship between organisational commitment and employee voice behaviour, I turn to factors that potentially moderate these relationships. This research suggests that exploration leadership moderates the indirect effect of affective organisational commitment on constructive voice, whereas the indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice is contingent on exploitation leadership, which will be elaborated in next chapter.

To summarise, this research sought to improve our understanding of the behavioural outcomes of organisational commitment, as well as the mechanisms that underlie the influence of organisational commitment.

2.4 Exploration Leadership and Exploitation Leadership

2.4.1 Definition of Exploration Leadership and Exploitation Leadership

The concepts of exploration and exploitation were originally developed for the business unit and firm levels of analysis. Exploration refers to organisational behaviours characterised by 'search, variation, risk taking, experimentation, play, flexibility, discovery, and innovation', whereas exploitation refers to organisational behaviours characterised by 'refinement, choice, production, efficiency, selection, implementation, and execution'(March, 1991, p. 71). Given that organizatonal exploration and exploitation activities are built on the micro-foundations of workgroup, team, and individual (Eisenhardt, Furr, & Bingham, 2010; Raisch, Birkinshaw, Probst, & Tushman, 2009), some recent work applied the constructs of exploration and explitation to team (Hirst, van Knippenberg, Zhou, Zhu, & Tsai, 2015) and individual level (Mom, Bosch, & Volberda, 2009; Smith & Tushman, 2005). In this research, I focused on individul-level constructs, specifically, exploration leadership and explitation leadership. Exploration leadership focuses on increasing variance, and encourages employees' behaviours characterised by search, discovery, experimentation, risk taking and innovation. Exploitation leadership focuses on reducing variances, and stimulates employees' behaviours characterised by refinement, implementation, efficiency, and production (Rosing, Frese, & Bausch, 2011).

To further clarify the definitions of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership, some features of the two constructs are worth noting. First, exploration leadership and exploitation leadership are different from managerial exploration and exploitation (Mom et al., 2009; Mom, Fourné, & Jansen, 2015). Exploration leadership and exploitation leadership emphasise that the manager, as the authority figure in the

workplace, conveys the importance of to a specific goal that is believed to be critical for the organisation by this manager, and directs employees' attention and effort towards pursuing this goal, whereas managerial exploration and exploitation focus on the managerial allocation of his or her own attention and effort to divergent domains (Mom et al., 2009).

Second, exploration leadership and exploitation leadership are independent and orthogonal, as indicated by the evidence from research on exploration and exploitation at various levels of analysis. Although some works have viewed exploration and exploitation as two ends of a unidimensional construct based on the central premise of March's (1991) framework that exploration and exploitation compete for scarce resources (e.g., Lavie, Stettner, & Tushman, 2010; Lin, Yang, & Demirkan, 2007; Rogan & Mors, 2014), exploration and exploitation activities, at both organisational and individual levels, have been associated with different antecedents and have different impacts on firm performance (Cao, Gedajlovic, & Zhang, 2009; He & Wong, 2004; Katila & Ahuja, 2002; Mom et al., 2009). This provides compelling evidence for the conceptual distinctions between exploration and exploitation. Therefore, in this research, exploration leadership and exploitation leadership were operated as conceptually distinct constructs.

2.4.2 Related Constructs

Intuitively, exploration leadership and exploitation leadership respectively overlap with transformational leadership and transactional leadership, respectively, to some extent. Transformational leadership is defined as leaders' behaviours that motivate employees to perform beyond expectations through idealised influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individual consideration (Bass, 1999). Transactional

leadership is defined as an exchange-based relationship by clarifying goals and rewarding goal attainment (Bass, 1999). The two sets of leaderships are similar in the following aspects: both transformational leadership and exploration leadership are targeted at change and innovation (Mainemelis, Kark, & Epitropaki, 2015; Rosing et al., 2011), while transactional leadership and exploitation leadership highlight rules (Rosing et al., 2011).

However, the two sets of leadership constructs are different in terms of their foci. Exploration leadership and exploitation leadership focus on the extent to which managers increase or reduce variance in employees' behaviour (Rosing et al., 2011), or in other words, the extent to which they encourage employees to engage in innovative or routine activities (Mom et al., 2009). In contrast, transformational leadership and transactional leadership focus on the way managers influence the employees to attain mission-focused ends. As a result of the different foci, transformational leadership and transactional leadership can be either exploration-oriented or exploitation-oriented, which is contingent on the set goals or visions (Rosing et al., 2011). For example, when a transformational manager motivates employees' exploratory behaviour by intellectual stimulation and envisioning an attractive and desirable future regarding change, this leadership behaviour is exploration-oriented. In contrast, when the communicated vision involoves high efficiency and the stimulation is focused on small improvements with the purpose of enhancing work efficiency, this transformational leadership is exploitation oriented. Similarly, transactional leadership may be exploration-oriented when it establishes an exploration goal and rewards behaviour towards this goal, whereas transactional leadership is exploitation oriented when it directs employees' attention and effort towards an exploitation goal. Therefore, the two sets of leadership behaviours are conceptually different from each other.

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2.4.3 Summary

In this section, I briefly reviewed works on exploration and exploitation, and introduced the constructs of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership. I also elaborated the important differences between exploration leadership and exploitation leadership and their related constructs of transformational leadership and transactional leadership. In this research, based on regulatory focus theory and regulatory fit theory, I investigated how individual factors (organisational commitment) and situational triggers (exploration and exploitation leaderships) work together to influence employee voice behaviour, which is elaborated in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

3.1 Why Employees Engage in Different Forms of Voice: The Influence of Employees' Organisational Commitment

3.1.1 Organisational Commitment and Voice Behaviour

3.1.1.1 Affective Organisational Commitment and Constructive Voice

Drawing on the literature on organisational commitment, I theorised that affective organisational commitment would facilitate constructive voice because relevant positive affective state might improve the ability to generate new ideas. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggested that a specific affect is triggered by a specific affective event that is based on the evaluation of the work environment. Affective organisational commitment reflects a favourable evaluation of the work environment and thus, employees with high-level affective organisational commitment are more likely to experience a positive affective state at work (Herrbach, 2006). A positive affective state elicits a flexible manner of cognitive processing and encourages more expansive and divergent thinking, thereby prompting creativity (George & Zhou, 2007). Given that constructive voice involves the generation and expression of novel ideas, creative thinking forms the foundation for constructive voice. Thus, employees with high-level affective organisational commitment are more likely to engage in constructive voice owing to their positive affective state. Based on the above discussion, I predicted the following hypothesis:

H1: Affective organisational commitment is positively related to constructive voice.

3.1.1.2 Continuance Organisational Commitment and Defensive Voice

Employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment are motivated to engage in defensive voice because they have a strong desire to avoid loss of their valued resources. According to the organisational commitment literature, continuance organisational commitment is a cost-based attachment that is rooted in employees' belief that leaving the organisation might cause personal loss, and that employment alternatives are limited (Allen et al., 1990). Extrinsic motivation is a key aspect of continuance commitment, such that continuously committed employees attach to the organisation to attain personal rewards and avoid punishments (Johnson & Chang, 2006). Therefore, employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment are often sensitive to personal rewards and losses. In the context of organisational change, employees are inevitably affected. Change may bring about substantial costs to employees in the short term, such as increased workloads (Spector, 2002), job-related uncertainties (Piderit, 2000), loss of control (Nadler, 1982), even though employees may benefit from organisational change in the long run. The relationship between continuously committed employees and their organisation is primarily based on financial concerns, which would be forfeited when they left the organisation; thus, this relationship involves a short-term focus (Shore et al., 1993; Shore et al., 2006). In other words, for continuously committed employees, short-term benefits and costs outweigh long-term ones (Shore et al., 2006). Therefore, compared with the potential benefits of the long term, continuously committed employees tend to overvalue short-term personal loss caused by organisational change. As such, employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment are likely to view change as a threat to their personal resources in the organisation. High-level continuance organisational commitment implies that employees do not resort to exit to avoid such threats. As a result, employees

with high-level continuance organisational commitment tend to take action to resist change so as to preserve their personally valued investments. Recent research on voice has shown that employees' voice may serve as a means to protect personally valued resources (Qin et al., 2014). Therefore, employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment are likely to speak up against change so as to protect their valued personal resources. The above discussion led to following hypothesis:

H2: Continuance organisational commitment is positively related to defensive voice.

3.1.2 The Mediating Role of Regulatory Focus

3.1.2.1 Affective Organisational Commitment, Situational Promotion Focus, and Constructive Voice

Employees' affective organisational commitment influences situational promotion focus in two ways: enhancing the salience of ideal goals and activating positive affect. First, affective organisational commitment triggers situational promotion focus by enhancing the salience of employees' ideal goals. Drawing on regulatory focus theory (Crowe et al., 1997), promotion focus is associated with the pursuit of ideal goals. When ideal goals are salient promotion focus is elicited (Higgins, 1997; Kark et al., 2007). Prior research has demonstrated that situational cues or intrapsychic process, such as thinking of a desired future task (Crowe et al., 1997) and priming hopes (Higgins, 2000), can affect the salience of ideal goals, thereby activating situational promotion focus. Works on organisational commitment have suggested that affective organisational commitment reflects the extent to which an employee identifies with and internalises the goals and values of the organisation (Allen et al., 1990). Employees with high-level affective organisational commitment integrate the goals and values of

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their organisation into their self-concepts (Johnson et al., 2010); thus, the goals and values of the organisation represent the ideal end-states in the view of employees with high-level affective organisational commitment. In other words, identification and internalisation—the basis of affective organisational commitment—entail approach-oriented ideals, gains, and accomplishments that are characteristics of promotion focus (Johnson et al., 2010). Therefore, affective organisational commitment enhances the salience of ideals and further facilitates situational promotion focus (Dane et al., 2014; Kark et al., 2007).

Second, the influence of affective organisational commitment on situational promotion focus also operates through employees' positive affective state. Although affect is generally depicted as a function of regulatory focus (Brockner et al., 2001), Dane et al. (2014) argued that affective state has effect on regulatory focus because affect influences the information processing that is critical for regulatory focus. Positive affective state informs individuals that the environment is unproblematic, and thereby facilitates flexible and creative thinking—namely, promotion focus, is facilitated (Dane et al., 2014; George et al., 2007). As noted above, employees with high-level affective organisational commitment are more likely to experience a positive affective state (Herrbach, 2006) and they generally feel happy to work in the work environment (Meyer et al., 1991). The positive affective state suggests that the environment is unproblematic and encourages employees to adopt a flexible and creative mindset. Therefore, the affective aspect of affective organisational commitment may also elicit situational promotion focus. The above discussion led to following hypothesis:

H3a: Affective organisational commitment is positively related to situational promotion focus.

I theorised that situational promotion focus would facilitate constructive voice through cognitive and affective processes. First, employees with strong situational promotion focus have higher motivation to engage in constructive voice. Constructive voice emphasises promoting changes and challenging status quo. Given that promotion focus is associated with the needs of advancement, achievement, and development, individuals with strong situational promotion focus are motivated to break the status quo and explore new opportunities (Neubert et al., 2008). Therefore, employees with strong situational promotion focus feel more motivated to engage in constructive voice.

In addition, situational promotion focus fosters employees' ability to engage in constructive voice. Constructive voice involves the generation and expression of new ideas for improvement or new solutions to existing problems (Maynes et al., 2014). Generating new ideas entails a mindset that recognises and seeks novel opportunities for growth and gains (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996). Therefore, constructive voice is related to a flexible and creative mindset. Drawing on regulatory focus theory, individuals with a strong promotion focus have an explorative orientation and are open to new experiences (Friedman et al., 2001). Promotion focus elicits a flexible style of cognitive processing that helps individuals generate creative solutions to challenging tasks (Dane et al., 2014). Prior laboratory experiments have demonstrated a positive relationship between promotion focus and creative ability (Friedman et al., 2001). In line with the above argument, a recent meta-analysis (Lanaj et al., 2012) demonstrated that promotion focus has a significant influence on creative performance, even when the other relevant factors are controlled. Therefore, employees with strong situational promotion focus have an enhanced ability to engage in constructive voice.

Moreover, situational promotion focus also facilitates constructive voice through affective process. Promotion focus is associated with emotions that range from cheerfulness to dejection (Brockner et al., 2001). When anticipating potential benefits, employees may experience positive affect, because the anticipation implies match to the desired end-state. This positive affective state informs employees that the environment is unproblematic, and enhances their psychological safety, and thereby encourages employees to engage in voice behavior (Liu et al., 2015). Based on the above discussion, I predicted the following hypotheses:

H3b: Situational promotion focus is positively related to constructive voice.

H3c: Situational promotion focus mediates the relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice.

3.1.2.2 Continuance Organisational Commitment, Situational Prevention Focus, and Defensive Voice

Employees' continuance organisational commitment elicits a situational prevention focus in two ways: enhancing the salience of security needs and activating negative affect. First, continuance organisational commitment heightens the salience of security needs and thereby activates situational prevention focus. Research on regulatory focus theory has suggested that prevention focus helps to satisfy security needs (Higgins, 1997). When security needs are salient prevention focus arise (Shah & Higgins, 1997). The salience of security needs can be influenced by situational and intrapsychic factors, such as unfair treatment (Oyserman et al., 2007) and thinking of undesired tasks (Crowe et al., 1997). According to research on organisational commitment, employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment are sensitive to personal loss (Meyer et al., 1991). Employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment

maintain their membership in the organisation so as to prevent the loss of their valued

investments in the organisation (such as knowledge and skills related to specific work),

particularly when they have few employment alternatives or the cost associated with

leaving is too high. Therefore, for employees with high-level continuance organisational

commitment, the security need—specifically the desire to avoid succumbing to personal

loss—is salient. To satisfy the need for protection, employees with high-level

continuance organisational commitment tend to view the work environment in a

defensive manner and are sensitive to threats to their acquired resources—namely,

situational prevention focus. Therefore, employees with high-level continuance

organisational commitment tend to adopt a situational prevention focus.

Second, continuance organisational commitment may influence situational

prevention focus by activating negative affect. A negative affective state signals that the

environment is problematic (Schwarz et al., 2003) and thereby evokes a systematic and

vigilant thinking process, which is the characteristic of prevention focus (Dane et al.,

2014). As discussed above, continuance organisational commitment is associated with

negative affective states, such as anxiety (Mignonac et al., 2004) and stress (Meyer et

al., 2002). Negative affective states imply potential threats in the environment and

propel individuals to systematically and vigilantly addresses the threats. Therefore, the

negative affective state associated with continuance organisational commitment may

trigger situational prevention focus. The above discussion led to following hypothesis:

H4a: Continuance organisational commitment is positively related to situational

prevention focus.

Further, I proposed that situational prevention focus would lead employees to

engage in defensive voice through two ways, both cognitive and affective. First, a

strong situational prevention focus will evoke defensive voice by sensitising employees to potential threats and causing them to interpret their environment in a more negative manner. According to regulatory focus theory, individuals with a strong prevention focus have high security needs and are sensitive to negative deviation from the status quo (Higgins, 1997). Moreover, a recent study by Zhang et al. (2014) suggested that a prevention focus motivates individuals to maintain the status quo. Thereby, employees with strong situational prevention focus are more likely to view the work environment in a negative and defensive manner (Lanaj et al., 2012). Any potential change may be perceived as a threat to their personal resources in the organisation (such as perceiving the introduction of advanced information technology system as a threat to their currently acquired skills). In addition, once threats are detected, a situational prevention focus will direct cognitive resources towards potentially threatening information and lead individuals to implement strategies to reduce harm (Oyserman et al., 2007). Therefore, when a potential change is perceived as a threat to personal resources, employees with a strong situational prevention focus are motivated to take actions to shield the status quo from potential change and protect their valued personal resources. One way to avoid potential personal losses is to engage in defensive voice. Voice has been found to be an important means to protect personal valued resources (Qin et al., 2014). Thus, employees with a strong situational prevention focus have the motivation to engage in defensive voice to avoid the potential personal losses.

Second, situational prevention focus may also influence defensive voice through affective process. Research on regulatory focus has suggested that regulatory focus not only shapes how individuals perceive their environment, but also sensitise individuals to experience specific emotions (Lanaj et al., 2012). Prevention focus is associated with

emotions that range from quiescence to agitation (Brockner et al., 2001). When anticipating personal loss, employees may experience negative affect, such as agitation and tension, because the anticipation implies negative deviation from ought state. This negative affective experience will further trigger employees' resistance to change in the form of defensive voice or other actions. In line with this argument, prior research has shown a positive relationship between negative affective state and resistance to change (Seo et al., 2012). Based on above discussion, I predicted the following hypotheses:

H4b: Situational prevention focus is positively related to defensive voice.

H4c: Situational prevention focus mediates the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice.

3.2 Why Employees Engage in Different Forms of Voice: The Influence of Exploration Leadership and Exploitation Leadership

3.2.1 The Moderating Effect of Exploration Leadership in the Indirect Relationship between Affective Organisational Commitment and Constructive Voice

With respect to the indirect relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice via situational promotion focus, I expected that exploration leadership would strengthen this relationship by shaping the means for goal-pursuit that fit the ideal end-states elicited by affective organisational commitment.

Given that employees with high-level affective organisational commitment have shared goals with their organisation, organisational goals represent their desired end-states for them. Therefore, employees with high-level affective organisational commitment prefer eagerness strategy to pursue the ideal goals by maximising their chances for a match between their actual states and desired end-states. Consequently, in

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the process of goal-pursuit, they tend to try out various ways to determine which approach works most successfully (Johnson et al., 2015).

Exploration leadership encourages searching for new opportunities, trying different approaches, completing work in new or different ways, and experimenting (Rosing et al., 2011), which fits the preferred means of employees with high-level affective organisational commitment. Regulatory fit theory suggests that, when individuals experience regulatory fit, they will feel right, which further increases their motivation and effort in goal pursuit (Higgins, 2000, 2005). In this research, the fit between leadership-shaped means and the desired end-states elicited by affective organisational commitment enhances the motivation to pursue the congruent goal. Thereby, employees with high-level affective organisational commitment have stronger motivation to consider different ways to complete work, and to express the approach that is found to be most useful to bring improvements to the work environment and attain the congruent goals. Based on the above discussion, I predicted the following hypotheses:

H5a: Exploration leadership moderates the relationship between situational promotion focus and constructive voice, such that the relationship is stronger when exploration leadership is higher.

H5b: Exploration leadership moderates the positive indirect relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice via a situational promotion focus, such that the indirect relationship is stronger when exploration leadership is higher.

3.2.2 The Moderating Effect of Exploitation Leadership in the Indirect Relationship between Continuance Organisational Commitment and Defensive Voice

Concerning the indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice via situational prevention focus, I expected that exploitation leadership would weaken this relationship by reducing the degree of fit between defensive voice and the tactical preference of employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment.

The purpose of employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment remaining in the organisation is to prevent the loss of their valued investments in the organisation (Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Ayed, & Khalil, 2011); thus, their desire to avoid succumbing to personal loss, or security need, is salient. Accordingly, the preferred means for self-regulation is to minimise their chances for match between their actual state and the undesired end-states. Therefore, employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment tend to monitor the environment vigilantly for potential threats, and redirect attention and implement tactics to reduce the potential threat once a threat is detected.

However, the tactical preference of prevention-focused individuals may vary across situations. When risky tactics are the only option to restore safety state and alleviate the threats of loss, prevention-focused individuals show strong preference for risky tactics. However, when conservative tactics can also help to return to the safety state, the tactical preference of prevention-focused individuals dramatically shifts back to conservative tactics and shows a clear aversion for risk tactics (Scholer et al., 2014). In the setting of this research—where organisations were undergoing some extent of change (introducing new products or service) —employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment would tend to engage in defensive voice to shield status quo

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from potential change to alleviate the potential threats to their valued resources. However, exploitation leadership offers a much safer option to address the security concerns associated with continuance organisational commitment, thereby reducing the degree of fit between defensive voice and the tactical preference of employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment.

Exploitation leadership directs employees' attention to routine work, and emphasises standardisation and guidelines (Giles et al., 2015; Rosing et al., 2011), thereby sending clear and strong signals to employees regarding managerial work focus and their avoidance of change (Rosing et al., 2011). Consequently, employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment feel less necessary to take risks to express opposition to change, because they share the same opinions with their managers in terms of potential change; and thus, they can leave change-related issues to their managers to resolve. In other words, exploitation leadership provides an option that is much safer, yet has the same, if not higher, probability of addressing the threats caused by potential change. According to regulatory focus theory (Scholer et al., 2008; Scholer et al., 2014), when both safe and risky tactics are available, prevention-focused individuals show strong preference for the safe tactic. Therefore, in the context of exploitation leadership, the degree of fit between defensive voice and the tactic preference of employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment decreases dramatically. Consequently, employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment are less likely to resort to defensive voice to address their security concerns. The above discussion led to following hypothesis:

H6a: Exploitation leadership moderates the relationship between situational prevention focus and defensive voice, such that the relationship is weaker when exploitation leadership is higher.

H6b: Exploitation leadership moderates the positive indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice via a situational prevention focus, such that the indirect relationship is weaker when exploitation leadership is higher.

As a result of the conceptual differences between promotion and prevention foci, I did not expect the moderating effect of exploration leadership in the indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice, or the moderating effect of exploitation leadership in the indirect relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice. Additionally, the means shaped by exploitation leadership do not align with the ideal goals elicited by affective organisational commitment. The same is true for exploration leadership. Prior research on regulatory fit has shown that misfit often leads to null effects (Dimotakis et al., 2012; Freitas & Higgins, 2002; Wallace et al., 2016). Therefore, I did not expect that exploitation leadership to serve as a boundary condition in the relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice, or exploration leadership to affect the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice.

In summary, the moderated mediating model proposed by this research is presented in Figure 3.1, which demonstrates the separate influence of affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment on constructive voice and defensive voice through the mediation of situational regulatory foci, as well as the moderating effect of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership in the above indirect relationships.

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Figure 3.1 Hypothesised Model
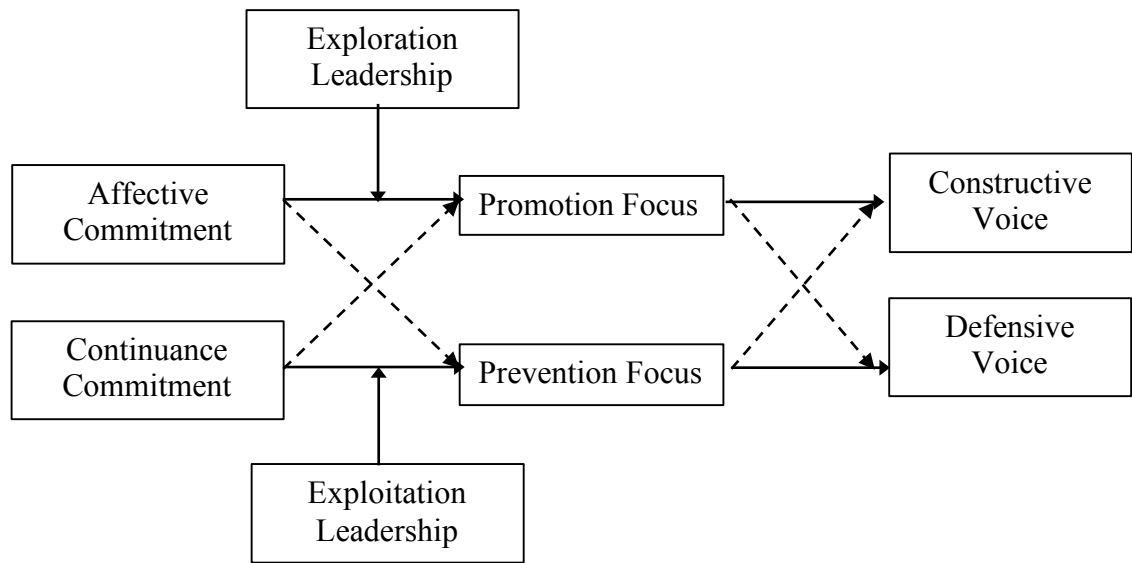
Chapter 4 Research Methodology

4.1 Study 1

4.1.1 Sample and Design

Sample. A total of 70 MBA students from a university in China participated in this study. On average, the participants had 6.05 years of working experience (SD = 5.36). Their age ranged from 26 to 51 years, with an average age of 36.71 (SD = 15.23). Of the participants, 68.58% were male.

Experiment design. Study 1 utilized a between-subjects experiment design. All the participants were randomly assigned to one of the two scenarios. Consistent with previous research using experimental scenarios for organisational commitment (e.g., Boichuk & Menguc, 2013), two scenarios were developed based on the items developed by Meyer et al. (1993). The two scenarios described the same organisational context involving the introduction of a new project, but differed in their portrayal of the attitude of the focal frontline manager towards the company. The participants were asked to put themselves in the shoes of the focal frontline manger in the scenario. Specifically, in the affective organisational commitment condition, the participants read the following scenario:

> You work as a frontline manager in the business department of a private express delivery company. You have worked in this organisation for five years since you graduated from your university. With the express delivery industry rapidly developing during the past few years, your company has experienced business expansion and grown as one of the largest private express delivery companies in China. During this period, you have become an experienced frontline manager, from starting as an inexperienced newcomer. You have learnt a lot in this company. In your heart, you feel this company is a family with whom you have

grown. Thus, you have strong emotional attachment to this company. In addition, during these years, you have gradually accepted and come to identify with the values of this company. Unless something unexpected happens, you would like to stay with this company until you retire.

In the continuance organisational commitment condition, the participants read the following scenario:

You work as a frontline manager in the business department of a private express delivery company. You have worked in this department for five years since you graduated from your university. Your decision to stay in this company is mainly because you have no better employment options. As one of the largest express delivery companies in China, your employer provides you with almost the best compensation and future career advancement in this industry. If you move to another express delivery companies in your city, you will experience some type of personal loss. In addition, the knowledge and experience you gain in this company offer your advantages when you work in this industry. Therefore, if you shift into a new industry, you will have to start from the beginning and lose this advantage.

After manipulating of the type of organisational commitment, the participants were presented with another scenario involving voice decision:

While your company has been an industry leader, it faces an increasingly threatening competitive environment. Traditional price advantage is not enough. There are increasing demands for high-quality and high-speed delivery service. Recently, one of the main competitors of this company has started a next morning delivery (NMD) service. Your company has also decided to introduce

this service. Based on your experience, you know that the NMD project will be a critical step for the development of your organisation. The company that first enters and occupies the high-speed delivery market will gain the advantage. However, your experience also tells you that the NMD project will do little to increase the profit of your organisation in the short term, considering the high cost of air express and the intense competition in express delivery industry. Your compensation is largely dependent on the profit of your organisation; thus, the introduction of the NMD project will not increase your salary in the near future. Moreover, introducing the NMD project will make your job more demanding, such as increasing your workload, requiring more overtime work, requiring you to learn new related policies and skills, and so forth. Therefore, although the new service project may benefit both your organisation and you in the long run, it is possible that this new project will cause your personal costs outweigh your benefits in the short term. Moreover, you are unsure how long it will take that your cost- benefit ratio decreases to (or lower than) your current level. Thus, from your own perspective, you still have concerns regarding the introduction of the NMD project. You are currently in the weekly staff meeting to discuss the introduction of the NMD project. You have some conflicting thoughts regarding this new project. On the one hand, based on your working experience, you have ideas about adjusting current operations to reduce the costs of introducing the NMD project and promote its introduction. On the other hand, you are considering presenting advice to slow down the process of this introduction to address your concerns regarding the losses of your personal resources.

Pretest. To assess the content validity of the scenarios, I conducted a pretest using an independent group of 30 MBA students (from the same population as the sample in Study 1). The two manipulation scenarios were randomly assigned to the participants. Half of the participants read the scenario of affective organisational commitment and the other half read the scenario of continuance organisational commitment. They were provided with the definitions of affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment that were proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). Based on the provided definitions, participants were asked to rate 'To what extent does the frontline manager have affective organisational commitment to this express delivery company?' and 'To what extent does the frontline manager have continuance organisational commitment to this express delivery company?', on a 5-point scale (1= to a very slight extent, 5= to a very large extent).

The results of the pretest demonstrated that the organisational commitment manipulation was effective. Mean affective organisational commitment was 4.07 ($SD =$ 0.46) for the affective organisational commitment group and 2.67 ($SD = 0.82$) for the continuance organisational commitment group (t [28] = 5.79, $p < 0.001$). In contrast, the participants in the continuance organisational commitment condition scored higher in continuance organisational commitment ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.82$) than did the participants in the affective organisational commitment condition ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 0.52$, t [28] = -5.03, $p < 0.001$).

In addition, consistent with works on individuals' decisions regarding conflicting alternatives (e.g., Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000; Okada, 2005), I assessed whether the two conflicting voice options presented in the second scenario were perceived as constructive voice or defensive voice. The participants in the pretest, in both conditions, moved onto the second scenario, which involved voice decision. After reading the

second scenario, they were given the definitions of constructive voice and defensive voice that were proposed by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014). According to the given definitions, the participants were asked to evaluate the two conflicting voice options: (i) advice regarding adjusting current operations so as to reduce the costs of introducing the NMD project and promoting its introduction, and (ii) advice to slow down the process of introducing this new project so as to address personal concerns. The participants rated to what extent the voice option was constructive voice, on a 5-point scale (1= 'This is not constructive voice at all', 5= 'This is absolutely constructive voice') and to what extent the voice option was defensive voice, on a 5-point scale (1= 'This is not defensive voice at all', 5= 'This is absolutely defensive voice').

The results showed that the majority of the participants classified advice regarding adjusting current operations as constructive voice (25 of 30 participants, $\chi^2 = 10.71$, $p < 0.05$) and advice to slow down the introduction as defensive voice (22 of 30 participants, $\chi^2 = 6.01$, $p < 0.05$).

4.1.2 Procedure

On arrival, the participants received an envelope, in which a paper-and-pencil questionnaire was embedded. The questionnaire encompassed three parts. In the first part of the questionnaire, participants were informed of the general purpose of this study, and they were asked to rate their chronic regulatory focus. In the second part, participants read the scenario, in which the type of organisational commitment was manipulated. When reading the manipulation scenario, the participants were asked to put themselves in the shoes of the focal front-line manager and imagine the situation as vividly as they could. After reading the manipulation scenario, participants were asked to rate their situational regulatory focus. Additionally, to assess the effectiveness of the

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manipulation of organisational commitment type, the participants were asked to evaluate the attitude of the focal frontline manager towards this express delivery company, based on the provided definitions of affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment, which were proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). Finally, in the third part of the experiment, the participants moved on to read the second scenario that involved voice decision, and reported to what extent they might engage in the two forms of voice. During the experiment, the participants were allowed to work freely without time constrains. After completing the questionnaire, they were asked to seal it in the envelope before the experimenter collected it.

4.1.3 Measures

All the measures included in this questionnaire were originally developed in English; thus, the Chinese versions of the measures were created based on the commonly used procedure of translation and back-translation to ensure their validity (Brislin, 1980).

Defensive voice and constructive voice. The participants were asked to rate to what extent, in the weekly organisational meeting, they would express ideas regarding adjusting current operations so as to reduce the costs of introducing the NMD project and promoting its introduction, and to what extent they would advise slowing down the process of the introduction so as to address their personal concerns (1= 'to a very slight extent', 5= 'to a very large extent').

Situational self-regulatory focus. The participants were asked to rate their situational regulatory focus using the 18-item work regulatory focus scale developed by Neubert et al. (2008) on a 5-point Likert scale (1= 'strongly disagree', 5= 'strongly agree'). As recommended by Neubert et al. (2008), the work regulatory focus scale was

designed to 'capture the degree of regulatory focus that is evoked in a working setting', (p.1223), rather than 'assess individual's subjective histories of success or failure' in self-regulation (Higgins et al., 2001, p. 7). Promotion and prevention foci were each assessed with nine items. Sample items for situational promotion focus are 'My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be' and 'I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations'. Sample items for situational prevention focus are 'At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security' and 'I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work'.

To assess the fit of measurement model of situational regulatory focus, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with Mplus 7.0 on the items of the situational regulatory focus scales. The results indicated that one item from the prevention focus scale ('Job security is an important factor for me in any job search') and two items from promotion focus scale ('If my job did not allow for advancement, I would like to find a new one' and 'A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job') had low loadings on their factors. Therefore, they were removed from the scales. The final CFA that comprised of eight items of prevention focus and seven items of promotion focus showed acceptable fit (χ^2 [89] = 129.15, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.08). The Cronbach's α reliability estimates were 0.81 and 0.83 for promotion focus and prevention focus, respectively.

Chronic regulatory focus. Prior research on regulatory focus suggested that chronic regulatory focus is an important predictor of situational regulatory focus and organisational commitment (Markovits, Ullrich, van Dick, & Davis, 2008; Wallace et al., 2009). To control for the dispositional influence, the participants were asked to rate their chronic regulatory focus in the first part of this experiment, using an 11-item scale

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developed by Higgins et al. (2001) on a 5-point Likert scale (1= 'strongly disagree', 5= 'strongly agree'). Chronic promotion focus and chronic prevention focus were respectively assessed with six and five items. Sample questions for chronic promotion focus are 'I have found hobbies or activities in my life that capture my interest or motivate me to put effort into them' and 'When it comes achieving things that are important to me, I find that I performed as well as I ideally would like to do'. Sample questions for chronic prevention focus are 'Growing up, I never crossed the line by doing things that my parents would not tolerate' and 'Growing up, I never acted in ways that my parents thought were objectionable'. The Cronbach's α reliability estimates were 0.68 and 0.71 for chronic promotion focus and chronic prevention focus, respectively. A two-factor CFA was conducted on the items from the chronic regulatory focus scales. The results demonstrated that the two-factor model fit the data well (χ^2[43] = 44.62, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.02).

4.1.4 Results

Manipulation check. The results showed the expected significant differences in the expected directions between the two experimental groups. Mean affective organisational commitment was 4.14 (*SD* = 0.49) for the affective organisational commitment group and 2.71 (*SD* = 0.67) for the continuance organisational commitment group (*t* [68] = 10.18, *p* < 0.001). Meanwhile, mean continuance organisational commitment was 2.46 (*SD* = 0.74) for the affective organisational commitment group and 3.31 (*SD*= 0.91) for the continuance organisational commitment group (*t* [68] = -4.35, *p* < 0.001).

Correlations. The descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables are presented in Table 4.1. As demonstrated in this table, there was no significant difference in the participants' chronic regulatory foci between the two experimental groups.

Test of hypotheses. Considering the greatest statistical performance of bootstrapping process in testing mediation model (Preacher & Hayes, 2008), I tested the hypothesised mediation model using path analyses with bootstrapping process, in Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2010). Specifically, following the procedures suggested by Kark et al. (2015), I specified both the direct and indirect relationships between organisational commitment type and dependent variables (constructive voice and defensive voice), which was mediated by situational promotion and prevention foci. In addition, to assess the influence of situational regulatory foci beyond chronic regulatory foci, I controlled the direct effect of chronic promotion and prevention foci on dependent variables (constructive voice and defensive voice) and mediators (situational promotion and prevention foci). The overall fit of the model was satisfactory (χ^2 [1] = 0.52, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.03).

The results of path analyses are summarised in Figure 4.1. Organisational commitment type (coded as 1 for affective organisational commitment and 0 for continuance organisational commitment) was positively related to situational promotion focus ($\beta = 0.44$, $p < 0.001$) and constructive voice ($\beta = 0.47$, $p < 0.001$), yet negatively related to situational prevention focus ($\beta = -0.40$, $p < 0.01$) and defensive voice ($\beta = -0.25$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the results of path analyses provided support for Hypotheses 1, 2, 3a, and 4a.

Table 4.1 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations in Study 1

| | Organisational commitment | | | | | | | |
	Affective commitment *Mean (SD)*	Continuous commitment *Mean (SD)*	*t*(68)	1	2	3	4	5
1. Chronic promotion focus	3.63 (0.32)	3.58 (0.34)	0.72					
2. Chronic prevention focus	3.65 (0.55)	3.46 (0.45)	1.57	0.11				
3. Situational promotion focus	3.46 (0.31)	3.03 (0.47)	4.47***	0.24*	0.19			
4. Situational prevention focus	3.40 (0.64)	3.81 (0.50)	-2.96**	-0.04	0.25*	-0.07		
5. Constructive voice	3.20 (0.72)	2.40 (0.50)	5.41***	0.23	0.09	0.51***	-0.06	
6. Defensive voice	2.29 (0.93)	3.01 (1.08)	-2.73**	-0.09	0.10	-0.07	0.48***	-0.01

Note: *n* = 70. ***p<0.001; ** *p*< 0.01; * *p*< 0.05.

Figure 4.1 Mediation Model in Study 1

0.48***

0.28*

Promotion Focus → Constructive Voice

0.44***

Organisational Commitment Type

-0.40***

Prevention Focus

0.42**

Defensive Voice

-0.25*
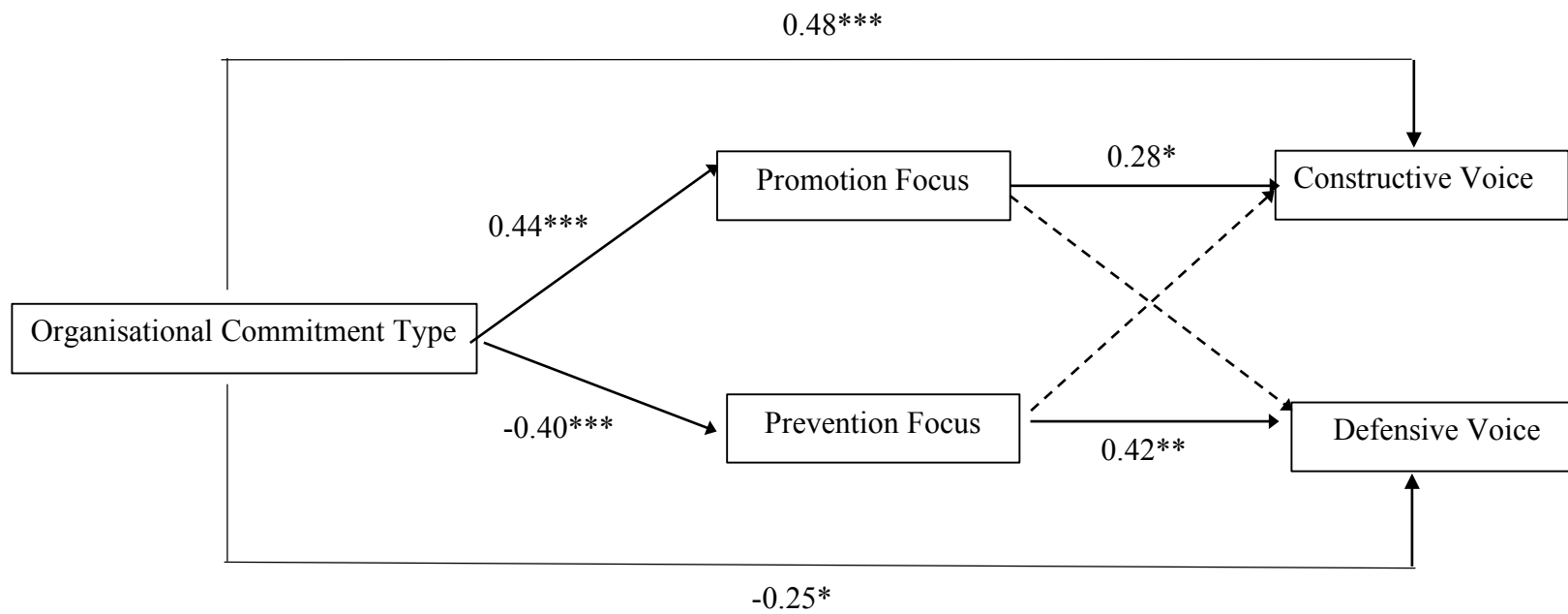
Note: *n* = 70. ***p<0.001; ** *p*< 0.01; * *p*< 0.05.

To get a clear presentation, the disturbance terms were eliminated.

The dashed lines indicate the parameters that were not significant (*p* > 0.05).

Further, consistent with Hypotheses 3b and 4b, situational promotion focus was positively associated with constructive voice ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.05$), yet had a nonsignificant relationship with defensive voice ($\beta = 0.08$, *ns*). In contrast, situational prevention focus was positively linked to defensive voice ($\beta = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$), yet had a nonsignificant relationship with constructive voice ($\beta = 0.15$, *ns*).

In addition, I tested the significance of the indirect effects of organisational commitment type on the two forms of voice (constructive voice and defensive voice) through situational regulatory foci, with bootstrapping process based on approach that involved 10000 data draws. Supporting Hypothesis 3c, the results of the bootstrapping analyses presented significant positive indirect influence of organisational commitment type on constructive voice through situational promotion focus (indirect effect was 0.12, 95% confidence interval was [0.01, 0.24]). Moreover, in support of Hypothesis 4c, the results of the bootstrapping analyses showed a significant negative indirect relationship between organisational commitment type and defensive voice through situational prevention focus (indirect effect was -0.16, 95% confidence interval was [-0.27, -0.05]).

Finally, I assessed the influence of chronic regulatory foci. The results demonstrated that chronic promotion focus had a significant positive relationship with situational promotion focus ($\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$), yet a nonsignificant relationship with situational prevention focus ($\beta = -0.04$, *ns*) and the two forms of voice (constructive voice: $\beta = 0.14$, *ns*; defensive voice: $\beta = -0.08$, *ns*). Meanwhile, chronic prevention focus was significantly related to situational prevention focus ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < 0.05$), yet not to situational promotion focus ($\beta = 0.08$, *ns*) or the two forms of voice (constructive voice: $\beta = -0.10$, *ns*; defensive voice: $\beta = 0.05$, *ns*). Therefore, organisational commitment type explained the incremental variance of situational promotion and

prevention foci beyond the chronic regulatory foci. Further, situational promotion and prevention foci added variance to the dependent variables (constructive voice and defensive voice) beyond what chronic regulatory foci provided.

4.1.5 Discussion

Overall, the results of Study 1 demonstrated that organisational commitment type predicted situational regulatory foci in the hypothesised ways, and situational regulatory foci in turn lead to voice behaviour. More specifically, affective organisational commitment had positive effect on constructive voice through its impact on situational promotion focus, whereas continuance organisational commitment was linked to defensive voice via situational prevention focus. Thus, this finding suggests that organisational commitment (affective and continuance organisational commitment) does play a role in shaping employee voice behaviour, which addresses the inconsistency in the literature regarding the influence of organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour. This finding also contributes to our understanding of how different types of organisational commitment lead to different forms of employee voice behaviour. Further theoretical implications of the findings of this study will be discussed in Chapter 5. Below, I discuss the limitations of this study, which formed the basis of the design of Study 2.

This study had several limitations that should be noted. First, Study 1 utilized an experimental scenario design, which could limit the generalisability of the findings. Although experiments provide a highly controlled context that enables examination of causal relationships and the psychological processes explaining these relationships, this approach represents limitations of low ecological validity due to the contrived nature of the experimental setting. It is difficult to create scenarios that represent the true

influence of complex organisational context, because participants in an experimental study are dispassionate observers in nature (Whiting et al., 2012). Therefore, the manipulation of organisational commitment in this study may not represent the influence of participants' actual organisational commitment in the real organisational settings. This suggests that this experimental study was not cogent enough to make general conclusions regarding the influence of organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour. To address this issue, I examined the hypothesised model in an actual organisational setting via a time-lagged survey in Study 2.

Study 1 was also limited because situational regulatory foci and voice behaviour were measured from the same sources at the same time. Therefore, the relationship between situational regulatory foci and voice behaviour could be inflated owing to common method variance. To alleviate the concerns of common method variance, in Study 2, I collected data from multiple sources in two separate waves with one-month interval between each wave of data collection.

Another limitation of Study 1 was the measurement of voice behaviour. In Study 1, I measured constructive voice and defensive voice with a one-item question regarding the intention to engage in a specific form of voice behaviour. As a result, there is potential risk that these results were merely perceptual. To address the issue, I assessed voice behaviour with multi-item scales in Study 2.

Study 1 focused on assessing the indirect relationship between organisational commitment and voice behaviour; thus, I had not yet examined the role of exploration and exploitation leaderships. Therefore, the next study turned to explore the boundary

conditions of the indirect relationships between organisational commitment and voice

and considered the influence of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership.

4.2 Study 2

4.2.1 Research Settings, Procedures, and Participants

I tested the hypotheses in the context of voice of frontline employees from 62

shops of a large telecommunications company in China, who were experiencing change

in their job content and performance requirements. As a result of technological

development, new telecommunications products had been introduced. Thus, shop

managers in this telecommunications company were confronted with the pressure to

maintain or improve the market share of the existing telecommunications products, as

well as the pressure to explore new opportunities for the sale of new

telecommunications products. Accordingly, the job content and performance

requirements of frontline employees were changing. Therefore, this telecommunications

company provided a good context to investigate employee voice behaviour in response

to change, as well as the effect of managerial exploration leadership and exploitation

leadership.

To reduce the impact of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, &

Podsakoff, 2003), data were collected from multiple sources at two separate

measurement points. Ideally, the measurement of independent, mediator, and dependent

variables should be temporarily separated (Podsakoff et al., 2003), yet this

telecommunications company allowed only two separate waves of data collection.

Therefore, in the first wave of data collection, employees were asked to provide

information on their demographics (gender, age, education, and tenure), commitment to

their organisation (affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational

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commitment), situational regulatory foci, shop manager's exploration

leadership and exploitation leadership, as well as control variables (chronic regulatory

foci, positive affect, and negative affect). One month later after the first wave of data

collection, shop managers were asked to rate the selected employees' constructive voice

and defensive voice during the one-month interval.

With the assistance of the human resource department, 400 employees and 80 shop

managers were randomly selected (one leader rated five employees). The shop

managers were in charge of the performance of their shops and managed the daily work

of the selected employees; thus, they were well suited to report the employees' voice

behaviour. Both the employees and shop managers who participated in this survey were

informed that this study addressed work-related attitudes and behaviours. They were

also informed that their participation was voluntary and they could withdraw from this

survey at any time. Moreover, all the participants were assured of confidentiality and

that their responses would not be seen by the other part of the manager-employee pair.

Further, to ensure confidentiality, the participants were asked to return their

questionnaires directly to the researcher. After receiving the questionnaires, I matched

the questionnaires from the two-wave data collection and manager-employee pair based

on the unique numeric code on the questionnaires.

A total of 294 usable questionnaires with matched managerial ratings were

obtained. The final sample consisted of 294 employees and 62 managers, which yielded

response rates of 73.5% and 77.2%, respectively. In terms of sample characteristics,

among the 294 employees, 56.8% were male. On average, they had 5.84 years of

working experience (5.49). Regarding age, 52% were 29 years old or below; 26.9%

were between 30 and 39 years old; 20.4% were between 40 and 49 years old; and 0.7%

were 50 years old or above. With respect to education, 14.3% had finished high school;

29.3% were college graduates; 46.3% held bachelor degrees and 10.1% held master or above degrees. The span of control for managers in this sample ranged from three to five employees.

4.2.2 Measures

Following the translation and back-translation procedure advised by Brislin (1980), I translated the scales into Chinese, and the back-translation was completed by another academic, who was bilingual in Chinese and English, to assess the appropriateness and semantic equivalence of the translation. Unless noted otherwise all multi-item scales were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = 'strongly disagree', 5 = 'strongly agree').

Organisational commitment. Affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment were each assessed via six items developed by Meyer et al. (1993) ($\alpha = 0.95$ for affective organisational comment and $\alpha = 0.93$ for continuance organisational commitment). Sample questions for affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment were 'I really feel as if this organisation's problem are my own' and 'If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere', respectively.

Situational self-regulatory foci. As in Study 1 above, situational promotion and prevention foci were assessed with the scale developed by Neubert et al. (2008). I deleted one item from the prevention focus scale ('Job security is an important factor for me in any job search') and two items from the promotion focus scale ('If my job did not allow for advancement, I would like to find a new one' and 'A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job'), which were incompatible with the core perspective of organisational commitment and were unrelated to employees' self-regulatory motivation in carrying out tasks in their current organisation. The Cronbach's

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α were 0.91 and 0.95 for situational promotion focus and situational prevention focus, respectively.

Exploration leadership and exploitation leadership. Shop managers' exploration leadership and exploitation leadership were assessed using Mom, Bosch and Volberda's (2009) managerial exploration and exploitation scales, which were adapted to measure managerial encouragement of employees' exploration or exploitation activities, instead of the manager's own activities. Given that exploration and exploitation are relative and must be operationalized from the viewpoint of a given organisation (Lavie et al., 2010), I operationalised exploration and exploitation leaderships in the way that was most meaningful to the frontline employees, shop manages, and the shops of the telecommunications company—as marketing activities for the new products versus those for the existing products. Additionally, because the original exploration and exploitation scales were developed based on a sample of unit-level and operational level managers (Mom et al., 2009), some items did not suit the research setting of this study, in which the locus of exploration and exploitation was at the level of shop manager. Therefore, one item from the exploration scale ('Engaging activities that are not yet clearly existing company policy') and one item from the exploitation scale ('Engaging activities that clearly fit into existing company policy') were deleted. Finally, exploration leadership and exploitation leadership were each assessed via six items (α = 0.90 for exploration leadership and α= 0.88 for exploitation leadership). Sample questions for exploration leadership and exploitation leadership were 'My manager is open to and evaluates diverse opinions with respect to markets or working processes for the new products' and 'My manager asks me to focus on marketing activities for the existing products, of which a lot of experience has been accumulated by myself', respectively.

Voice. Shop managers rated the selected employees' constructive voice and defensive voice using five-item scales developed by Maynes et al. (2014) for each form of voice. Sample questions are, respectively, 'This employee has made suggestions about how to improve work methods or practices to improve the change process' and 'This employee rigidly argues against changing work procedures, even when implementing the change makes sense'. The Cronbach's α for situational promotion and prevention foci were 0.92 and 0.93, respectively.

Control variables. Several variables that might systematically influence the results of this study were measured and controlled. First, I chose two demographic variables (gender and tenure) as control variables, because prior research has suggested that demographic variables, such as tenure and gender, can influence employee voice behaviour (e.g., Burris et al., 2008; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). Employees' gender was coded as 1 for male and 2 for female. Organisational tenure was assessed using the number of years an employee had worked in the current company. Additionally, as in Study 1, I assessed and controlled employees' chronic regulatory foci using Higgins et al.'s (2001) 11-item scale. Six items measured chronic promotion focus (α = 0.89) and five items assessed chronic prevention focus (α = 0.85).

I also collected data on the other possible mediating mechanism. As discussed in Chapter 3, affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment are associated with employees' affective states (Herrbach, 2006) and prior research has shown that employees' affective states have significant influence on voice behaviour (Lam et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2017). Further, recent research suggested that high-activated positive affective states and low-activated negative affective states are more related to employee voice behaviour than are low-activated positive affective states and high-activated negative affective states (Madrid et al., 2015; Warr, Bindl,

Parker, & Inceoglu, 2014). Therefore, I controlled for participants' positive affects using four items (excited, enthusiastic, glad, and pleased; $\alpha = 0.91$) from Warr et al.'s (2014) high-activated positive affect scale, and measured participants' negative affects using four items (depressed, dejected despondent, and hopeless; $\alpha = 0.82$) from Warr et al.'s (2014) low-activated negative affect scale. The participants were asked to rate how often they experienced the feelings on a 5-ponit scale (1 = 'not at all' to 5 = 'very frequently').

4.2.3 Scale Validation and Aggregation Test

Following Hirst et al. (2015), Morrison et al. (2011), and Wei et al., (2015), I used individual level ratings to run a set of CFA to test the discriminant validity of the measures. Table 4.2 presents the results of these confirmatory factor analyses, which demonstrated that the hypothesised 12-factor model fit the data much better than did the alternative models, and the overall fit was acceptable (χ^2 =3,676.23, df = 2,348, CFI = 0.94, TLI =0.93 RMSEA = 0.04). Therefore, I proceeded to test the hypothesised model based on the 12-factor measurement model. Descriptive statistics and correlations are shown in Table 4.3.

To examine the validity of averaging individual level measures of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership to the group level, I calculated multi-item within-group agreement (R_{wg}) and intra-class correlation (ICCs). Specifically, R_{wg} was calculated with the uniform null distribution and slightly skewed distribution to address the potential rating bias in the data. For exploration leadership, R_{wg} ranged from 0.92 to 0.95, whereas for exploitation leadership, R_{wg} was 0.90 to 0.93. Both exceeded the suggested cut-off value of 0.70 (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). In addition, for exploration leadership, ICC1 was 0.53 and ICC2 was 0.84 (F = 6.35, p < 0.001), while for exploitation leadership ICC1 was 0.33 and ICC2 was 0.70 (F = 3.36, p < 0.001).

Table 4.2 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis in Study 2

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Hypothesised 12-factor model	3676.23	2348	0.94	0.93	0.04		
11-factor model (two types of commitment combined together)	5669.41	2359	0.85	0.84	0.07	1993.18	11
10-factor model (two types of commitment combined together; two situational regulatory foci combined together)	8334.83	2369	0.73	0.72	0.09	2665.42	10
9-factor model (two types of commitment combined together; two situational regulatory foci combined together; two chronic regulatory foci combined together)	9836.22	2378	0.66	0.65	0.10	1501.39	9
8-factor model (two types of commitment combined together; two situational regulatory foci combined together; two chronic regulatory foci combined together; positive affects combined with negative affects)	10303.10	2386	0.64	0.63	0.11	466.88	8
7-model (two types of commitment combined together; two situational regulatory foci combined together; two chronic regulatory foci combined together; positive affects combined with negative affects; two types of voice combined together)	12125.22	2393	0.56	0.54	0.12	1822.12	7
6-factor model (two types of commitment combined together; two situational regulatory foci combined together; two chronic regulatory foci combined together; positive affects combined with negative affects; two types of voice combined together, two types of leadership combined together)	13329.87	2399	0.51	0.49	0.12	1204.65	6

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Table 4.2 Continued

5-factor model (situational regulatory foci combined with chronic regulatory foci, two types of commitment combined together; positive affects combined with negative affects; two types of voice combined together, two types of leadership combined together)	15128.03	2404	0.42	0.41	0.14	1798.16	5
4-factor model (commitment, situational regulatory foci, chronic regulatory foci combined together; positive affects combined with negative affects; two types of voice combined together, two types of leadership combined together)	17132.20	2408	0.33	0.31	0.14	2004.17	4
3-factor model (commitment, situational regulatory foci, chronic regulatory foci, and affect combined together; two types of voice combined together, two types of leadership combined together)	18011.77	2411	0.29	0.27	0.15	879.57	3
2-factor model (commitment, situational regulatory foci, chronic regulatory foci, affect, and voice combined together; two types of leadership combined together)	19437.82	2413	0.23	0.21	0.16	1426.05	2
1-factor model	20815.90	2414	0.17	0.14	0.16	1378.08	1

Table 4.3 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations in Study 2[a]

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13
Level 1															
1	Gender[b]	1.43	0.50												
2	Tenure	5.84	5.49	0.03											
3	Chronic promotion focus	2.83	0.92	0.03	-0.16**										
4	Chronic prevention focus	3.16	0.94	0.09	0.07	0.03									
5	Positive affect	3.60	0.79	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.03								
6	Negative affect	2.85	0.81	-0.02	0.02	0.06	0.08	0.08							
7	Affective commitment	3.31	1.12	-0.03	0.08	0.01	0.03	0.04	-0.09						
8	Continuance commitment	2.94	0.99	0.07	0.11	-0.04	0.08	-0.03	0.14*	-0.04					
9	Situational promotion focus	3.28	0.71	0.05	-0.10	0.31***	-0.01	0.06	0.02	0.47***	0.01				
10	Situational prevention focus	3.51	0.77	0.04	-0.04	0.01	0.34***	0.08	0.09	0.05	0.42***	0.08			
11	Constructive voice	3.17	0.80	0.04	0.05	0.11	-0.05	0.14*	0.01	0.33***	0.01	0.53***	0.04		
12	Defensive voice	2.91	0.92	-0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.12*	-0.05	0.11	-0.07	0.35***	-0.06	0.28***	-0.01	
Level 2															
13	Exploration leadership	3.68	0.61												
14	Exploitation leadership	3.64	0.44												-0.15*

Note: [a] n(individual)=294, n(group)=62. ***$p<0.001$; ** $p< 0.01$; * $p< 0.05$. [b] 1= male, 2=female.

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Overall, these results met or exceeded the levels found in prior research dealing with aggregation (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993). Thus, I aggregated employees' rating of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership to the workgroup level.

4.2.4 Analytical Method

Given the nested nature of the data that employees were nested within their managers and multilevel model that involved testing relationships between group level variables, I used multilevel path analysis with Mplus 7.0 (Muthén et al., 2010). First, following the recommendations of Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006) on how to model multilevel moderated mediation model, I estimated the indirect effect of organisational commitment on voice behaviour via situational regulatory foci at different levels of exploration leadership or exploitation leadership. I used the Monte Carlo method recommended by Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang (2010) to estimate the confidence interval for the 1−1−1 mediation models. Finally, based on the significance of situational regulatory foci−voice behaviour random slopes, I proceeded with simple slope analysis to estimate the simple slopes at high (+1 standard deviation above mean) and low (-1 standard deviation below mean) levels of moderators.

4.2.5 Results

Table 4.4 presents the multilevel analysis results regarding situational promotion focus (Model 1 to 3), situational prevention focus (Model 4 to 6), constructive voice (Model 7 to 11) and defensive voice (Model 12 to 16).

Table 4.4 Multilevel Analysis Results for Moderated Mediation Model in

Study 2

Variables	Promotion focus		
	M1	M2	M3
Intercept	9.15***	4.23**	0.89
Level 1			
Control variables			
Gender	0.04	0.05	-0.03
Organisational tenure	0.00	-0.03	-0.02
Chronic promotion focus	0.31***	0.30***	0.24***
Chronic prevention focus	0.00	-0.01	-0.10
Positive affect	0.09	0.07	-0.05
Negative affect	0.00	0.05	-0.05
Independent variables			
Affective organisational commitment		0.54***	0.48***
Continuance organisational commitment		0.02	-0.04
Mediators			
Situational promotion focus			
Situational prevention focus			
Level 2			
Moderators			
Exploration leadership			1.01***
Exploitation leadership			0.12
Cross level interaction effect			
Situational promotion focus × Exploration leadership			
Situational promotion focus × Exploitation leadership			
Situational prevention focus × Exploration leadership			
Situational prevention focus × Exploitation leadership			
Within-group variance explained	0.11	0.40	0.31
Between-group variance explained	-	-	0.99
-2 log likelihood	793.29	688.19	653.66

Note: ***$p<0.001$; ** $p< 0.01$; * $p< 0.05$. STDYX standardisation weights (b_{stdYX}= $b*SD(x)/SD(y)$). Situational regulatory foci and leadership (exploration leadership and exploitation leadership) were grand-mean cantered.

Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Prevention focus		
	M4	M5	M6
Intercept	3.12***	5.93***	-0.19
Level 1			
Control variables			
Gender	0.03	-0.01	0.00
Organisational tenure	-0.07	-0.12*	-0.08
Chronic promotion focus	-0.03	-0.02	-0.03
Chronic prevention focus	0.37***	0.33***	0.32***
Positive affect	0.06	0.08	-0.01
Negative affect	0.09	0.01	-0.02
Independent variables			
Affective organisational commitment		0.06	0.03
Continuance organisational commitment		0.42***	0.40***
Mediators			
Situational promotion focus			
Situational prevention focus			
Level 2			
Moderators			
Exploration leadership			-0.02
Exploitation leadership			0.99***
Cross level interaction effect			
Situational promotion focus × Exploration leadership			
Situational promotion focus × Exploitation leadership			
Situational prevention focus × Exploration leadership			
Situational prevention focus × Exploitation leadership			
Within-group variance explained	0.16	0.31	0.28
Between-group variance explained	-	-	0.99
-2 log likelihood	780.76	721.35	682.43

Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Constructive voice				
	M7	M8	M9	M10	M11
Intercept	4.74***	2.95***	3.28***	1.58	4.43***
Level 1					
Control variables					
Gender	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02
Organisational tenure	0.13	0.07	0.07	0.09	0.06
Chronic promotion focus	0.13*	0.11	-0.01	0.01	0.01
Chronic prevention focus	-0.05	-0.06	-0.08	-0.08	-0.08
Positive affect	0.21**	0.16**	0.12	0.16*	0.13
Negative affect	0.03	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.06
Independent variables					
Affective organisational commitment		0.46***	0.24**	0.27***	0.26***
Continuance organisational commitment		-0.02	-0.05	-0.05	0.00
Mediators					
Situational promotion focus			0.41***	0.35***	0.52*
Situational prevention focus			0.06	0.08	0.03
Level 2					
Moderators					
Exploration leadership				0.51***	0.32*
Exploitation leadership				-0.11	-0.15
Cross level interaction effect					
Situational promotion focus × Exploration leadership					0.17*
Situational promotion focus × Exploitation leadership					-0.01
Situational prevention focus × Exploration leadership					0.02
Situational prevention focus × Exploitation leadership					0.15
Within-group variance explained	0.08	0.27	0.37	0.34	0.42
Between-group variance explained	-	-	-	0.30	0.30
-2 log likelihood	2423.54	2356.88	2082.07	1979.01	1971.04

Table 4.4 Continued

Variables	Defensive voice				
	M12	M13	M14	M15	M16
Intercept	5.64***	4.35**	4.31**	4.86	5.53***
Level 1					
Control variables					
Gender	0.00	-0.04	-0.03	-0.05	-0.07
Organisational tenure	-0.01	-0.05	-0.03	-0.03	0.01
Chronic promotion focus	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.06	0.06
Chronic prevention focus	0.14*	0.11*	0.04	0.03	0.00
Positive affect	-0.08	-0.05	-0.06	-0.06	-0.04
Negative affect	0.15*	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.05
Independent variables					
Affective organisational commitment		-0.06	-0.01	-0.03	-0.02
Continuance organisational commitment		0.39***	0.30***	0.30***	0.31***
Mediators					
Situational promotion focus			-0.11	-0.10	-0.14
Situational prevention focus			0.21**	0.21*	0.36*
Level 2					
Moderators					
Exploration leadership				0.06	0.07
Exploitation leadership				-0.06	-0.18
Cross level interaction effect					
Situational promotion focus × Exploration leadership					-0.07
Situational promotion focus × Exploitation leadership					0.11
Situational prevention focus × Exploration leadership					0.09
Situational prevention focus × Exploitation leadership					-0.45**
Within-group variance explained	0.05	0.20	0.23	0.22	0.40
Between-group variance explained	-	-	-	0.01	0.04
-2 log likelihood	2452.54	2409.61	2161.97	2074.09	2042.09

Examining the direct and indirect relationships between individual level variables. I first examined the impact of the control variables on regulatory foci and the two forms of voice behaviour. As indicated by Model 1, Model 4, Model 7 and Model 12, chronic promotion focus was positively related to situational promotion focus ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < 0.001$) and constructive voice ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$), whereas chronic prevention focus was positively associated with situational prevention focus ($\beta = 0.37$, $p < 0.001$) and defensive voice ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$). In addition, positive affect was a significant predictor of constructive voice ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$), while negative affect was positively related to defensive voice ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$).

Then I entered the independent variables in Model 2, Model 5, Model 8, and Model 13 to test the hypotheses regarding the direct effect of organisational commitment. The significant change in the -2 log likelihood statistic indicated that entering the independent variables significantly increased the explanatory power of the models (for Model 2, Δ-2 log likelihood = 105.10, $p < 0.001$; for Model 5, Δ-2 log likelihood = 59.41, $p < 0.001$; for Model 8, Δ-2 log likelihood = 66.88, $p < 0.001$; for Model 13, Δ-2 log likelihood = 42.93, $p < 0.001$). In support of Hypotheses 1 and 2, as indicated by Model 8 and Model 13, affective organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.46$, $p < 0.001$) and continuance organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.39$, $p < 0.001$) were positively related to constructive voice and defensive voice, respectively. Additionally, supporting Hypotheses 3a and 4a, Model 2 and Model 5 demonstrated that affective organisational commitment was positively associated with situational promotion focus ($\beta = 0.54$, $p < 0.001$), whereas continuance organisational commitment was positively related to situational prevention focus ($\beta = 0.42$, $p < 0.001$).

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In Model 9 and Model 14, I added mediators (situational promotion focus and situational prevention focus), which significantly contributed to the models' explanatory potential (for Model 9, Δ-2 log likelihood = 274.81, $p < 0.001$; for Model 14, Δ-2 log likelihood = 247.64, $p < 0.001$). In support of Hypotheses 3b and 4b, I found situational promotion focus was positively related to constructive voice ($\beta = 0.41$, $p < 0.001$), whereas situational prevention focus was a significant predictor of defensive voice ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, to examine whether situational regulatory foci mediated the effect of organisational commitment on voice behaviour, I used Monte Carlo method to estimate the confidence interval (Preacher et al., 2010). The results demonstrated positive indirect influence of affective organisational commitment on constructive voice via situational promotion focus (indirect effect = 0.22, $p < 0.001$, 95% confidence interval was [0.14, 0.30]) and a positive indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice through situational prevention focus (indirect effect = 0.09, $p < 0.01$, 95% confidence interval was [0.02, 0.15]). Taken together, these results provided support for Hypotheses 3c and 4c.

Examining the moderated mediation relationships. I first entered the group level variables (exploration leadership and exploitation leadership) in Model 3, Model 6, Model 10, and Model 15, which significantly increased the variance explained by the models (for Model 3, Δ-2 log likelihood = 34.53, $p < 0.001$; for Model 6, Δ-2 log likelihood = 38.92, $p < 0.001$; for Model 10, Δ-2 log likelihood = 100.06, $p < 0.001$; for Model 15, Δ-2 log likelihood = 87.88, $p < 0.001$). In addition, further supporting Hypotheses 3a and 4a, Model 3 and Model 6 demonstrated that affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment were respectively related to situational promotion focus ($\gamma = 0.48$, $p < 0.001$) and situational prevention focus ($\gamma = $

0.40, $p < 0.001$), respectively, even after controlling the effect of exploration and exploitation leaderships.

Then, I added the cross-level interactions (regulatory foci × leadership) in Model 11 and Model 16. A significant change in the -2 log likelihood statistic was found for Model 16 (Δ-2 log likelihood = 32.00, $p < 0.001$), but not for Model 11 (Δ-2 log likelihood = 7.97, *ns*). However, the statistic of change in R^2 indicated that adding the interactions contributed to the exploratory power of Model 11 (individual level $\Delta R^2 =$ 0.08).

Hypotheses 5a predicted that exploration leadership would enhance the relationship between situational promotion focus and constructive voice. Further, Hypothesis 5b predicted that exploration leadership would moderate the indirect effect of affective organisational commitment on constructive voice through situational promotion focus. As Model 11 shows, exploration leadership had significant positive effect on the random slope between situational promotion focus and constructive voice ($\gamma = 0.17, p < 0.05$), which provides initial support for Hypotheses 5a and 5b. To further probe the interaction, I plotted this interactive effect based on values plus and minus one standard deviation from the means of exploration leadership. Figure 4.2 indicates that situational promotion focus was more positively related to constructive voice in the condition of high-level exploration leadership (simple slope = 0.69, $p < 0.001$) than in the condition of low-level exploration leadership (simple slope = 0.35, $p < 0.01$). Additionally, the positive indirect effect of affective organisational commitment on constructive voice through situational promotion focus was stronger when exploration was high (indirect effect = 0.29, $p < 0.001$) than that when exploration leadership was low (indirect effect = 0.15, $p < 0.01$). Taken together, these results supported Hypotheses 5a and 5b.

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Figure 4.2 Moderating Effect of Exploration Leadership in the Relationship between Situational Promotion Focus and Constructive Voice in Study 2
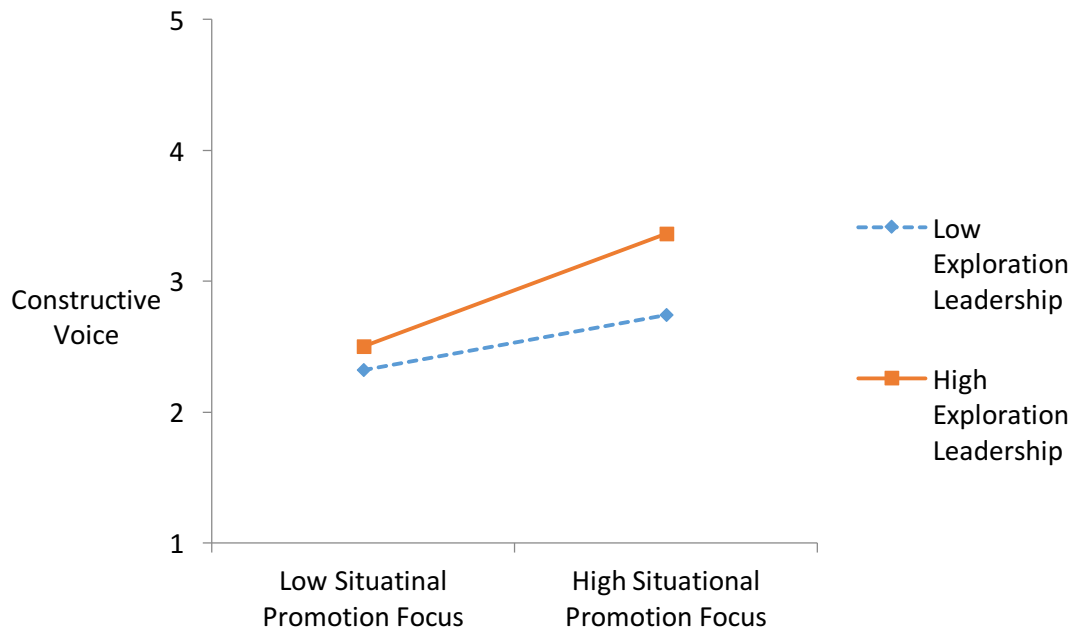
Hypothesis 6 predicted that exploitation leadership would weaken the relationship between situational prevention focus and defensive voice (Hypothesis 6a) and mitigate the indirect effect of continuance organisational commitment on defensive voice via situational prevention focus (Hypothesis 6b). As shown in Model 16, exploitation leadership had significant negative effect on the random slope between situational prevention focus and defensive voice ($\gamma = -0.45$, $p < 0.01$), which is in support of Hypotheses 6a and 6b. Additionally, Figure 4.3 displays the interaction plot at high (+1 standard deviation above mean) and low (-1 standard deviation below mean) levels of exploitation leadership. The depicted pattern indicated that situational prevention focus was more positively related to defensive voice when the level of exploration leadership was low (simple slope = 0.80, $p < 0.001$), rather than high (simple slope = -0.09, *ns*). Further, the indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and

defensive voice through situational prevention focus was significant only in the condition of low-level exploitation leadership (indirect effect = 0.28, $p < 0.01$), yet not in the condition of high-level exploitation leadership (indirect effect = -0.03, *ns*). Therefore, the results provided support to Hypotheses 6a and 6b.
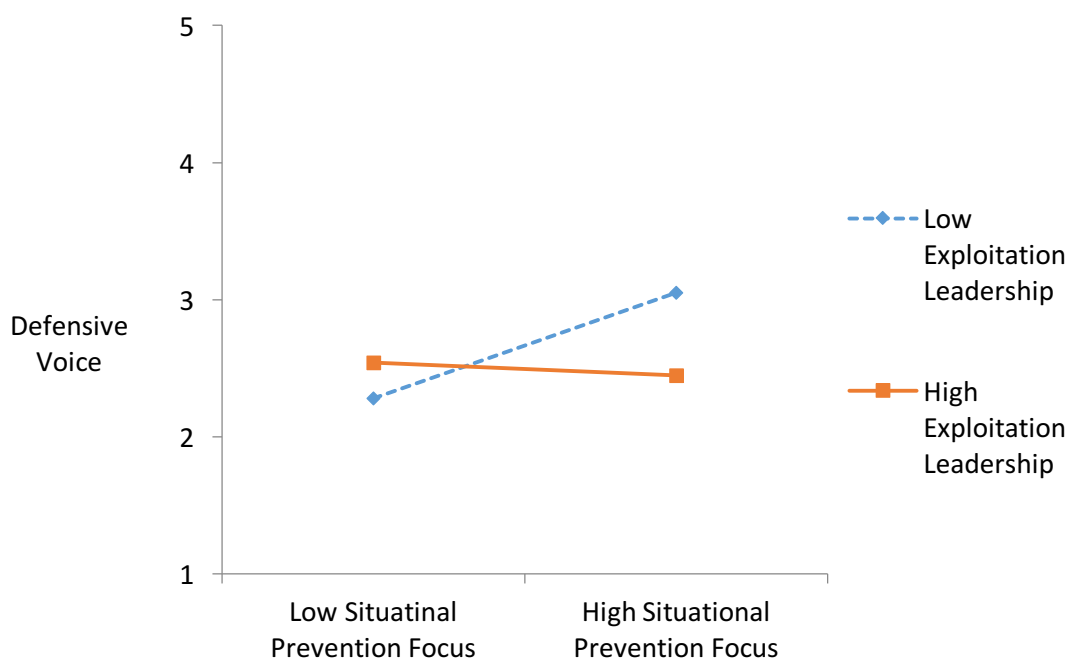
Figure 4.3 Moderating Effect of Exploitation Leadership in the Relationship between Situational Prevention Focus and Defensive Voice in Study 2

4.2.6 Discussion

Study 2 replicated the findings of Study 1 in a real organisational setting, demonstrating the indirect effect of affective organisational commitment on constructive voice through situational promotion focus, and the indirect relationship between continuance organisational commitment and defensive voice via situational prevention focus. In addition, extending Study 1, the results in Study 2 suggested that exploration leadership strengthens the positive indirect relationship between affective

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organisational commitment and constructive voice, whereas exploitation leadership weakens the positive indirect association of continuance organisational commitment with defensive voice.

It is worth noting that I theorised and found that the interactional effect of situational regulatory foci and contextual forces followed the pattern suggested by regulatory fit theory, which conflicts with Kakkar et al.'s (2016) findings. Regarding the interactions of contextual forces and approach and avoidance orientations in explaining employee voice behaviour, Kakkar et al. (2016) indicated another competing perspective (situational demands perspective) besides the regulatory fit perspective that serves as the theoretical foundation in this thesis. Situational demands perspective is mainly based on the literature on employee voice behaviour and suggests that, owing to the challenging nature of voice behaviour, employees tend to be sensitive to contextual cues regarding whether the workplace is favourable for speaking up. The contextual cues are so salient and critical for voice behaviour that they have overriding effect on approach and avoidance orientations. Kakkar et al. (2016) found empirical support for situational demands perspective, rather than regulatory fit perspective, and argued that regulatory fit perspective appears to operate particularly for less interpersonally risky behaviours, whereas more interpersonally risky behaviours (such as voice behaviour) are more likely to follow the pattern suggested by situational demands perspective.

Two potential explanations for the inconsistency come to my mind. First, the conceptual differences between dispositional approach and avoidance orientations and situational regulatory foci may have led to the conflicting findings. Approach and avoidance orientations represent motivational dispositions, whereas situational regulatory foci are situational specific and subject to the influence of contextual forces (Ferris et al., 2013). Given that situational regulatory foci may vary across situations,

rather than being relatively stable (such as dispositional approach and avoidance orientations), the relationship between contextual forces and situational regulatory foci is less likely to be overriding. Rather, contextual forces may exert influence through the proximal motivational states of situational regulatory foci (e.g., Kark et al., 2015; Neubert et al., 2008;) or alter the degree of fit between regulatory demands and a specific means shaped by the contextual forces, thereby moderating the effect of situational regulatory foci (e.g., Dimotakis et al., 2012).

Another plausible explanation for the conflicting findings may be that the perceived interpersonal riskiness of voice behaviour is contingent on contextual forces. As suggested in prior research on employee voice behaviour, leadership behaviours may influence employees' perceptions of the interpersonal riskiness of voice behaviour (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Exploration leadership encourages employees to explore new opportunities and try different methods to complete their tasks (Rosing et al., 2011). Consequently, expression of innovative ideas to improve the status quo (constructive voice) may become less interpersonally risky in the context of exploration leadership. Similarly, exploitation leadership encourages employees to focus on guidelines, rules and routine work, and emphasises reduction of variances and changes (Giles et al., 2015; Rosing et al., 2011). Therefore, the goal of defensive voice to shield the status quo from change is congruent with the goal of exploration-oriented managers. Consequently, defensive voice may be perceived as less interpersonally risky in the context of exploitation leadership. Therefore, constructive voice and defensive voice may follow the pattern suggested by regulatory fit perspective, rather than situational demands perspective, in the context of exploration leadership and exploitation leadership, respectively.

Finally, I found that exploration leadership and exploitation leadership to be negatively correlated. This is to be expected because it is consistent with March's (March, 1991) foundational conceptualisation of the trade-off relationship between exploration and exploitation, whereby the two types of activity compete with each other for scarce resources to some extent (Gupta, Smith, & Shalley, 2006). Further, theoretical discussion of these findings will be provided in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5 Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Summary of Results

Overall, this research advances our understandings of the influence of organisational commitment on employee voice behaviour by demonstrating that affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment are, respectively, associated with constructive voice and defensive voice (in Studies 1 and 2) and by revealing why (the mediating effect of situational regulatory foci in Studies 1 and 2) and when (the moderating effect of exploration and exploitation leadership in Study 2) they matter.

Specifically, in Study 1, the results from the experimental data indicated that affective organisational commitment exerts positive influence on constructive voice through situational promotion focus, whereas continuance organisational commitment impacted defensive voice through situational prevention focus. The indirect relationships remained significant even after controlling the effect of chronic regulatory foci. In Study 2, I examined the hypothesised moderated mediating model in a real organisational setting and replicated the indirect relationships found in Study 1. Further, Study 2 showed that exploration leadership enhanced the indirect positive relationship between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice, whereas exploitation leadership mitigated the indirect positive association of continuance organisational commitment with defensive voice. Specifically, continuance organisational commitment exerted indirect influence on defensive voice only when exploitation leadership was low, whereas defensive voice was unrelated to continuance organisational commitment when exploitation leadership was high. The findings of the two studies in my research provide some interesting implications for theory and practice.

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5.2 Theoretical Implications

5.2.1 Theoretical Implications for Voice Research

As highlighted in the introduction, this research makes several contributions to the voice literature. First, the findings of this thesis advance understandings of the role of organisational commitment in shaping employee voice behaviour. The impact of affective organisational commitment is controversial in the voice literature because researchers have found no consistent positive relationships between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice. I addressed the inconsistencies by showing that the influence of affective organisational commitment varies with the form of voice behaviour: affective organisational commitment uniquely elicits constructive voice, yet not defensive voice. With respect to continuance organisational commitment, because continuously committed employees are found to be less likely to engage in extra-role behaviours (Shore & Mayne, 1993), the influence of continuance organisational commitment on voice has received little attention. Based on the expansive voice conceptual framework proposed by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), which relaxed the implicit assumption and incorporated non-constructive forms of voice, I demonstrate that continuously committed employees do speak up, yet in a defensive form. Further, this research also contributes to establishing the discriminant validity of constructive voice and defensive voice by demonstrating that the two forms of voice have unique antecedents, whereby affective organisational commitment is uniquely associated with constructive voice, whereas continuance organisational commitment is uniquely associated with defensive voice.

Additionally, this research also takes a step forwards by drawing on regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) to explain the psychological mechanisms that

underlie the relationship between organisational commitment and the two forms of voice behaviour. In doing so, I complement prior research that was primarily based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) utilised interpersonal mechanisms in explaining the influence of organisational commitment. As discussed in Chapter 1, due to its challenging nature, voice is less a reciprocity means in a social exchange relationship (Deckop et al., 2003, Parker et al., 2006). As a result, social exchange theory may not fully explain the influence of organisational commitment on voice behaviour. This research takes regulatory focus perspective to address whether and why organisational commitment influences voice behavior.

Second, this research extends voice literature by examining the moderating role of exploration and exploitation leaderships. The findings of this thesis indicate that exploration leadership strengthens the association between affective organisational commitment and constructive voice. This finding aligns well with regulatory fit perspective (Higgins, 2005) in that exploration leadership motivates affectively committed employees to pursue the ideal goals by providing opportunities for them to explore, thereby creating a fit between regulatory demands and means shaped by contextual force. This regulatory fit leads to more engagement in constructive voice behaviour. In contrast, the results indicated that exploitation leadership weakens the indirect influence of continuance organisational commitment on defensive voice. This finding also aligns with regulatory fit theory in that exploitation leadership offers a much safer tactic to employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment to address their security concerns, and thereby lowers the degree of match between defensive voice and the tactic preference of employees with high-level continuance organisational commitment, which further leads to less engagement in defensive voice. In short, by investigating the moderating effect of exploration leadership and

exploitation leadership, this research facilitates the possibility of not simply considering individuals' personal factors, but instead considering them in context (Černe et al., 2014).

Finally, given that voice, particularly constructive voice in this research, is a type of proactive behaviour (Parker et al., 2010), this research also extends the broader literature on proactive behaviour and lends clarity to the inconsistent findings regarding the effect of affective organisational commitment on proactive behaviour. This research demonstrates that affective organisational commitment has an influence on proactive behaviour, particularly the less challenging forms of proactive behaviour (such as constructive voice).

5.2.2 Theoretical Implications for Regulatory Focus Research

This research contributes not only to the voice literature, but also to the regulatory focus literature. First, I highlight the importance of intrapsychic factors (organisational commitment in this research) in eliciting regulatory focus. As a result of a lack of attention, the causal relationship between organisational commitment and regulatory focus remains controversial. To address this issue, using an experimental design, I empirically explored the causal relationship between organisational commitment and situational regulatory foci, and found that organisational commitment successfully elicited situational regulatory foci, even after controlling the effect of chronic regulatory foci. Study 2 used field data to show similar results to Study 1, thereby providing additional evidence and reinforcing the external validity of the causal relationship. Therefore, this research constitutes a promising step forwards to more fully understanding the relationship between regulatory focus and organisational commitment.

Additionally, this research also extends knowledge of the regulatory fit between managers and employees, and answers the call for better understanding of the processes underlying the regulatory fit between managers and employees (Johnson et al., 2015). The findings of Study 2 demonstrated that the processes underlying regulatory fit between managers and employees are more complex. Contextual forces (such as exploration leadership) may raise engagement in specific goal-related behaviour by offering means for goal pursuit that heighten the fit between the specific behaviours and tactic preference. Meanwhile, situational factors (such as exploitation leadership) can also lower the engagement in specific goal-related behaviour by providing means that create a better match with regulatory demands and alleviate the fit between specific behaviours and tactic preference. In such a way, this research helps to improve understandings of the processes underlying regulatory fit.

5.3 Practical Implications

The results of the two studies presented in this thesis also provide several practical implications. In an increasingly dynamic and uncertain environment, organisations need to make continuous change, in which employees play a critical role, particularly in terms of their voice behaviour (Hon, Bloom, & Crant, 2014; Shin, Taylor, & Seo, 2012). The results of this thesis demonstrate how employees' organisational commitment shapes their voice behaviour and how managers can regulate this effect by exerting particular leadership behaviours. Specifically, the results indicate that, compared with continuously committed employees, affectively committed employees are more likely to respond to change in a positive manner by engaging in constructive voice. Therefore, managers who are concerned with employees' response to change should foster and strengthen employees' affective organisational commitment. Prior research has suggested that affective organisational commitment is associated with

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perceived support from the organisation (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). Therefore, managers should consider adopting employee assistance programs that provide employees with emotional, financial, and instrumental assistance so as to enhance their affective organisational commitment, which further facilitates their constructive voice.

With respect to the moderating effect of exploration leadership, the results of this research suggest that exploration leadership increases constructive voice, especially for affectively committed employees, because exploration leadership not only sets a positive tone for change but also matches well with affectively committed employees' regulatory demands. Therefore, to create a suitable work environment for organisational change, managers should adopt exploration leadership. Specifically, managers can consider providing employees with opportunities to express their innovative thoughts and ideas, encouraging employees to explore new possibilities, and rewarding and publicly praising employees' constructive inputs.

Concerning the moderating effect of exploitation leadership, the results are more complicated and thereby need to be interpreted cautiously. The results of this research indicate that exploitation leadership can decrease continuously committed employees' defensive voice. However, this does not mean that managers have successfully overcome employees' opposition to change. Instead, continuously committed employees' decreasing defensive voice is due to their perceived managerial avoidance of change; and thus, they perceive no need to take a risk to express opposition to change by themselves. In this manner, exploitation leadership is deleterious for organisational change. However, given the fact that organisations need to maintain a balance between exploration and exploitation, for working-groups delegated to excel at exploitation, exploitation leadership is helpful to alleviate continuously committed employees'

concerns about the threat of change and encourage them to focus on existing projects so as to achieve high performance.

5.4 Strengths and Limitations

This research has several methodological strengths worthy of notice. First, I tested the hypotheses in both experimental and field settings, which permitted the limitations of one study to be countered by the design features of the other. Specifically, the limitation of low ecological validity because of the contrived nature of the experimental setting in Study 1 was addressed by the field study, whereas the correlation design in Study 2 (which does not allow for causal inferences) was countered by the advantages of the experiment. Therefore, this research took advantage of the strengths of the internal validity of experimental study and the generality of field study. I replicated the results in the two studies across different research methodologies, thereby providing support for the validity of the findings. Second, to mitigate the problem of common method variance, Study 2 applied different data sources, as well as temporary separation of the measures of independent and dependent variables.

Despite the methodical strengths discussed above, a number of limitations should be noted that could constrain the validity of the findings. First, common method variance may have influenced the results of this research. In Study 1, situational regulatory foci and voice behaviour were assessed from the same source at the same measurement point. However, in Study 2, I collected an independent measure of voice behaviour and revealed similar results as in Study 1. In addition to the above issue, in Study 2, most data were collected from a single source (except the ratings of voice behaviour); thus, the relationships between the independent variables (two types of organisational commitment) and mediators (situational regulatory foci) could be inflated because of common method variance. However, the results of CFA in Study 2

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suggested that common method variance was not a major threat to the data or the conclusions obtained from the data. Moreover, balanced against this was the fact that the experimental study showed the same relationships as those found in Study 2. Taken together, these features lessen the likelihood that the results in Studies 1 and 2 were overly influenced by common method variance.

Second, the reliability scores of chronic regulatory foci in Study 1 were lower than ideal. Given that this research obtained relatively consistent findings regarding the effect of chronic regulatory foci in the two studies, the occasional emergence of low reliability scores may not necessarily be a critical concern. Nevertheless, it remains for future research to overcome the measurement limitations and thereby further confirm or extend the findings of this thesis.

Third, both the organisation that was depicted in the scenarios in Study 1 and the organisation examined in Study 2 had an advancement goal, which was reflected by the introduction of new products or service. This goal could influence the relationship between affective organisational commitment and situational promotion focus, given that affectively committed employees identify and internalise the goal of their organisation. Therefore, this finding should be interpreted with caution and future research is needed to further examine this situation in different organisational settings.

Fourth, although Study 2 examined the hypothesised relationships in an organisational setting, its data were collected from a single research organisation with well-educated employees. This could limit the generalisability of the findings of this research. Therefore, I encourage future studies to examine the hypothesised relationships in different organisational settings with more diverse employees in different cultural contexts.

Fifth, I examined the hypothesised relationships in a context of organisational change in Study 2, yet the perceived impact of change was not controlled, which has been found to have significant influence on employees' change-related behaviour (Fedor, Caldwell, & Herold, 2006; Shin et al., 2012). This lack of control was based on the consideration that the organisational change in Study 2 was limited to the introduction of new products, without extensive effect on employees. Nevertheless, I recommend that future research incorporates measures of perceived impact of change when testing hypothesised relationships in a context of organisational change.

Finally, although I adopted regulatory focus theory as the overarching framework to explain why and how organisational commitment influences employee voice behaviour, other alternative mechanisms may be worth exploring as one way to advance understandings of how organisational commitment shapes employee voice behaviour. One possible alternative mediating mechanism is employees' affective states. Although I controlled the effect of employees' positive and negative affective states in Study 2, the role of affect in the relationship between organisational commitment and voice behaviour remains unclear. Therefore, future research may investigate the influence of organisational commitment on voice behaviour in alternative theoretical perspectives, especially affective perspective.

5.5 Future Research Directions beyond Organisational Commitment

In this section, I indicate several topics that can be further explored to contribute to the literature on employee voice behaviour. I also elaborate which areas can be explored in the future to extend understandings of regulatory focus.

5.5.1 Future Directions for Voice Research

Although the rapid growth in voice research area over the past 18 years has

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extensively increased our knowledge of employee voice behaviour, there remains much we do not know about voice behaviour and some critical issues related to voice behaviour remain unaddressed. The important research gaps are discussed as follows.

First, there is lack of overarching framework to integrate different perspectives regarding voice conceptualisation. Since LePine and Van Dyne (1998) proposed the construct of voice, the way to conceptualise this construct has been controversial. There are different perspectives regarding how to define the boundary of employee voice behaviour domain—namely, which behaviour should and should not be included in the conceptualisation of voice (e.g., Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2003)—which has caused confusion regarding the nature of employee voice behaviour (such as whether voice behaviour is prosocial or not) and its relationship with the other conceptually similar constructs, such as silence, OCB, and voice in Hirschman's (1970) framework. This fact raises the importance of developing an overarching framework to clarify the conceptualisation of employee voice behaviour and integrate different perspectives (Chamberlin et al., 2017).

Second, more research effort is required to investigate specific forms of employee voice behaviour is needed. Although a few recent works attempted to highlight the divergent antecedents of different forms of voice behaviour by examining their associations with different antecedents, the majority of voice literature is based on the undifferentiated general voice conceptualisation. This is understandable because the dimensionality of voice behaviour and their operational measures were only introduced recently (Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). However, considering the apparent differences between various forms of employee voice behaviour, the results of research based on undifferentiated general voice conceptualisation should be interpreted

with caution. More importantly, more research is required that focuses on specific forms of voice behaviour—especially some forms of voice behaviour that have long been ignored due to their negative attributes—to improve understandings of employee voice behaviour and lend clarity to the voice literature.

Third, future research may also contribute to the voice literature by expanding of our knowledge of the forces that facilitate or inhibit employee voice behaviour, especially employees' emotions. Employee voice behaviour is emotionally charged, and the voice literature has highlighted the importance of emotional factors in shaping employee voice behaviour has been highlighted in voice literature (Grant, 2013). However, past research generally focused on the broad categories of positive or negative affective states by lumping together different discrete emotions with similar valance (e.g., Lam et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2017). These discrete emotions may have different antecedents and consequences; thus, attention should be suggested to be focused on the discrete emotions, rather than the broad categories of affective states (Ilies, Peng, Savani, & Dimotakis, 2013). In the voice literature, only the effect of fear on employee voice behaviour is well-recognised (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). The effect of other emotional factors has long been overlooked, which leaves significant opportunities for future research.

Finally, there is also a need for multilevel research on employee voice behaviour. In fact, Morrison (2011) has noted the importance of integrating individual forces with group level factors to predict employee voice behaviour: 'just focus on one or the other is likely to provide incomplete, or even inaccurate, understanding of the conditions leading to and inhibiting voice' (p. 405). Therefore, multilevel models would improve understandings of employee voice behaviour by providing a more complete picture.

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5.5.2 Future Directions for Regulatory Focus Research

So far, I have discussed future directions that can contribute to the literature on employee voice behaviour. Below I focus on regulatory focus. Although there are many research questions regarding regulatory focus that merit further examination, here I will stay with the research focus of this thesis — organisational commitment and regulatory focus, as well as the interaction effect of regulatory focus and contextual forces.

First, the relationship between chronic regulatory focus and organisational commitment remains unclear. In Study 2, I found that chronic promotion and prevention foci were unrelated to the two types of organisational commitment (affective organisational commitment and continuance organisational commitment), which contrasts the findings of prior works (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj et al., 2012; Markovits et al., 2008). One possible reason for this inconsistency is that prior work did not make distinction between chronic and situational regulatory foci; and therefore, their results reflected the combined effect of the two components of regulatory foci. In addition, different measures of regulatory foci and different social cultural values of the samples may also lead to inconsistency. To address these inconsistent findings, future research is required to further examine the relationship between chronic regulatory foci and organisational commitment, especially in a longitudinal field study, which may be the most rigorours research method for establishing the direction of causality.

Second, there is still much we do not know about the interactional effect of regulatory focus and contextual factors. Prior work provided strong evidence for the regulatory fit perspective that the match between individual regulatory focus and means available for goal pursuit in a given situation is associated with stronger motivation during goal pursuit, more positive feelings towards the direction taken, and higher

performance in the goal-related area (Higgins, 2000). In other word, when regulatory focus is congruent with contextual factors, its effect will be enhanced by contextual factors. However, a recent study suggested that, for interpersonally risky behaviour, employees need social cues to make decisions regarding whether to engage in such behaviour; thus, contextual factors may have overriding effect on regulatory focus (Kakkar et al., 2016). In contrast, for less socially risky behaviour, the moderating effect of contextual factors follows the pattern suggested by regulatory fit perspective (Kakkar et al., 2016). Taken together, the findings of prior research indicate that the interactional effect between regulatory focus and contextual factors are much more complex than previously considered, which raises some research questions that may have the potential to expand understandings. Given that the boundary conditions for regulatory fit perspective were not tested directly in Kakkar et al.'s (2016) work, I encourage future research to examine whether or not regulatory fit theory only operates for less socially risky behaviours. If the perceived interpersonal riskiness of behavioural outcomes does operate as a boundary condition for regulatory fit theory, related questions are which contextual forces will moderate the influence of regulatory focus on socially risky behaviours in the manner suggested by regulatory fit perspective, by altering the perceived riskiness of challenging behaviours (such as employee voice behaviour), and which contextual forces will exert a moderating effect in the manner suggested by situational demands perspective.

5.6 Conclusions

Employee voice behaviour is complex to predict. Different forms of voice behaviour may be triggered by distinct antecedents. Drawing on regulatory focus theory, I theorised and tested a moderated mediation model for constructive voice versus defensive voice. The results of this research suggest that affectively committed

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employees are more likely to engage in constructive voice because they tend to adopt a promotion focus to attain the ideal goals. In contrast, continuously committed employees are more likely engage in defensive voice because they tend to adopt a prevention focus to address their concerns of personal losses. Further, managers have the ability to enhance or mitigate a specific form of voice behaviour. Exploration leadership may increase the possibility of affectively committed employees engaging in constructive voice, whereas exploitation leadership appears to reduce the probability of continuously committed employees speaking up in defensive forms. I hope the findings of this research will inspire more research that is aimed at improving the nuanced understandings of employee voice behaviour, especially regarding the forms of voice behaviour that have long been ignored because of their negative attributes.

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Appendix A: Related Measurement

1. Independent variables

Affective organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.

2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.

3. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.

4. I feel emotionally attached to this organisation.

5. I feel like part of the family at my organisation.

6. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Continuance organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)

1. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.

3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.

4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.

5. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.

6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be scarcity of available alternatives.

2. Mediators

Promotion focus (Neubert et al., 2008)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

<u>1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)</u>

1. I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement.

2. I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success.

3. If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project I would definitely take it.

4. If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one.

5. A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job.

6. I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement.

7. I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations.

8. My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to be.

9. At work, I am motivated by my hopes and aspirations.

Prevention focus (Neubert et al., 2008)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below.

1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)

1. I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security.

2. At work I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities.

3. Fulfilling my work duties is very important to me.

4. At work, I strive to live up to the responsibilities and duties given to me by others.

5. At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security.

6. I do everything I can to avoid loss at work.

7. Job security is an important factor for me in any job search.

8. I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work.

9. I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work.

3. Moderators

Exploration Leadership (Mom et al., 2009)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

<u>1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)</u>

1. My manager asks me to search for new possibilities with respect to the market for the new products.

2. My manager is open to and evaluates diverse opinions with respect to markets or working processes for the new products.

3. My manager focuses on strong renewal of working processes for the marketing activities for the new products.

4. My manager asks me to engage in the marketing activities for the new products, of which the associated yields or costs are currently unclear.

5. My manager asks me to engage in marketing activities for the new products that require quite some adaptability of me.

6. My manager asks me to engage in marketing activities for the new products, which require me to learn some new skills or knowledge.

Exploitation Leadership (Mom et al., 2009)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

<u>1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)</u>

1. My manager asks me to focus on marketing activities for the existing products, of which a lot of experience has been accumulated by myself.

2. My manager asks me to focus on marketing activities for the existing products, which I carry out as if it were routine.

3. My manager asks me to engage in marketing activities that serve existing customers with existing services or products.

4. My manager asks me to engage in activities for existing products, of which it is clear to me how to conduct them.

5. My manager asks me to engage in marketing activities that I can properly conduct by using my current knowledge.

6. My manager asks me to engage in marketing activities for existing products, which primarily focused on achieving short-term goals.

4. Dependent variables

Constructive voice (Maynes et al., 2014)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)

1. This employee frequently makes suggestions about how to do things in new or more effective ways at work.

2. This employee often suggests changes to marketing activities in order to make them better.

3. This employee often speaks up with recommendations about how to fix work-related problems.

4. This employee frequently makes suggestions about how to improve marketing practices.

5. This employee regularly proposes ideas for new or more effective marketing tactics.

Defensive voice (Maynes et al., 2014)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)

1. This employee stubbornly argues against changing method, even when the proposed changes have merit.

2. This employee speaks out against changing work policies, even when making changes would be for the best.

3. This employee vocally opposes changing how things are done, even when changing is inevitable.

4. This employee rigidly argues against changing work procedures, even when implementing the changes makes sense.

5. This employee vocally argues against changing marketing practices, when making changes is necessary.

5. Control variables

Positive affect (Warr et al., 2014)

How often do you experience following feelings during the two weeks?

1(not at all)   2   3   4   5 (very frequently)

1. Enthusiastic

2. Excited

3. Glad

4. Pleased

Negative affect (Warr et al., 2014)

How often do you experience following feelings during the two weeks?

<u>1(not at all)   2   3   4   5 (very frequently)</u>

1. Distressed

2. Dejected

3. Despondent

4. Hopeless

Chronic promotion focus (Higgins et al., 2001)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

<u>1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)</u>

1. Compared to most people, I am typically able to get what I want out of life.

2. I often have accomplished things that got me 'psyched' to work even harder.

3. I often do well at different things that I try.

4. When it comes achieving things that are important to me, I find that I perform as well as I ideally would like to do.

5. I feel like I have made progress toward being successfully in my life.

6. I have found hobbies or activities in my life that capture my interest or motivate me to put effort into them.

Chronic prevention focus (Higgins et al., 2001)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with following statements by circling the appropriate number below it.

1(strongly disagree)   2   3   4   5 (strongly agree)

1. Growing up, I never 'cross the line' by doing things that my parents would not tolerate.

2. I never got on your parents' nerves when I was growing up.

3. I often obeyed rules and regulations that were established by my parents.

4. Growing up, I never act in ways that my parents thought were objectionable.

5. Being carful enough has gotten me avoiding trouble at times.

Appendix B: The Interactive Effect of Organisational Commitment and Leadership on Regulatory Focus (Study 2)

Variables	Constructive voice	Defensive voice
Intercept	2.12***	2.20***
Level 1		
Control variables		
Gender	0.02	-0.04
Organizational tenure	0.07	-0.02
Chronic promotion focus	0.01	0.06
Chronic prevention focus	-0.07	0.02
Positive affect	0.12*	-0.05
Negative affect	0.05	0.06
Independent variables		
Affective organizational commitment (AC)	0.21***	-0.03
Continuance organizational commitment (CC)	-0.04	0.26***
Mediators		
Situational promotion focus	0.33***	-0.11
Situational prevention focus	0.07	0.22**
Level 2		
Moderators		
Exploration leadership	0.25**	0.09
Exploitation leadership	-0.04	-0.01
Cross level interaction effect		
AC × Exploration leadership	0.06	0.06
AC × Exploitation leadership	-0.02	-0.03
CC × Exploration leadership	-0.04	-0.05
CC × Exploitation leadership	-0.04	-0.05

Note: ***$p<0.001$; ** $p< 0.01$; * $p< 0.05$. STDYX standardisation weights ($b_{stdYX}=$ $b*SD(x)/SD(y)$). Situational regulatory foci and leadership (exploration leadership and exploitation leadership) were grand-mean cantered.